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INTRODUCTION

This edition of the Scientific Journal Economic Problems of Tourism coincides with the 15th anniversary of the creation of the Department of Tourism Management at the Faculty of Management and Economics of Services at Szczecin University. From the perspective of the past years it can be concluded that the scientific and educational achievements of Department members have gained a significant position in both the Polish and the international tourism research community, especially in the economic, management and geographical sciences. A vast number of published scientific books and articles, conducted research, organized conferences and educational projects of Department members goes in line with current scientific research aimed towards the tourism market.

Scientific and research activities of the Tourism Department would not be possible without close cooperation with numerous scientific institutions in Poland and abroad. Using the Department's anniversary as an opportunity, we invited colleagues who conduct tourism research and have cooperated with our Department in the 1999–2014 period to prepare scientific articles for the current issue of the journal. The collection of articles presents a variety of research conducted mainly in the area of tourism industry at Polish and international scientific institutions. This publication constitutes both a summary of current tourism research and a set of directions for future research in tourism economy. It will be a significant scientific publication in the tourism research community.

I would like to thank all the authors for accepting the invitation to prepare a paper for this issue of Scientific Journal Economic Problems of Tourism. I express gratitude to you also for our scientific cooperation which resulted in publications, expertise and conferences. I also invite you to continue our cooperation in new, yet unexplored areas.

At the same time a word of thanks goes to the entire Department's team, both to those currently employed and those who have changed their place of employment, for contribution to the scientific development and educational achievements. I would like to congratulate all of you on your scientific achievements and hope for your further dynamic and rapid academic development.

Aleksander Panasiuk
Head of Department of Tourism Management

THEORETICAL PROBLEMS OF TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

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SYNERGY AS A VALUE GENERATOR IN TOURISM

Abstract

Value in tourism is a result category which is related to many factors. Hence, value management that aims at stimulating and creating the processes of value growth cannot be regarded as a one-time action. It should rather be of a continuous character. It is consistent with the expectations of all stakeholders of regional tourism economy who are keen on continuous growth of value of tourism enterprises and consequently tourist regions. However, to make the process of growth of value proceed in accordance with the expectations of all stakeholders, it should be constantly subjected to positive stimulants of processes of change in the regional tourism economy.

The article presents the basic and classified stimulators that are frequently referred to as carriers of generators of value (or value drivers) in tourism, and it identifies its one application which in the management process of the Innovation in Tourism Value Chain (ITVC), helps improve efficiency of the tourism region aiming at widely understood value growth in tourism.

Keywords: synergy, tourism value chain

Introduction

In recent decades tourism has been playing an increasingly important role for both businesses and citizens. According to the European Commission, over

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5% of gross domestic product (GDP) of the European Union is derived from tourism.¹ 2.4 million people are employed in the tourism accommodation sector in the EU countries while the total employment in the tourism sector within the European Union is estimated at 12–14 million.² That is how tourism and its basic benefits are most often characterized. The added value of tourism is measured mainly by financial and economic aspect in terms of finances and economy, although it should be considered more broadly. Added value means achieving the desired goals and objectives with the least financial, social and organizational expenditure. In such a sense of added value, an important part is played by the criterion of innovation. Innovative elements are those that add new solutions or methods to the existing practice: innovation in this sense means an increase in effectiveness through better use of resources/capital/opportunities, and hence the concept of added value and the theory of synergy are the way to use them more efficiently. Optimization of efficiency of actions may aim to achieve greater results with the same expenditure or to achieve planned results with less expenditure.

The concept of added value is quite well prepared for businesses. Thus, in the strictly economic meaning, added value is a profit including total cost of the capital used in the business organization. EVA, the abbreviation standing for the economic value added is essentially a measure of operating results which, contrary to most other ones, deducts the total costs of capital invested by the company from its profits. In the concept of EVA the cost of capital is what the economists call the cost of lost benefits (opportunity cost). It is a rate of return expected by investors investing their money in the shares of other companies and bonds of comparable risk, which is something they give up as the owners of securities of a particular company. Similarly to borrowers who demand to be given receivable interest, stockholders demand to be given a minimum accepted rate of return from the money they put on risk. Economic value added is in a sense a profit calculated from the shareholders' point of view. According to Peter Drucker, economic value added is based on the principle saying that a profit, i.e. the money that is left for home equity servicing, is not a profit at all. A business incurs losses unless it earns a sum of money that surpasses its capital

¹ http://ec.europa.eu/enterprise/newsroom/cf/document.cfm?action=display&doc_id=5257&userservice_id=1&request.id=0.

² http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/statistics_explained/index.php/Tourism_trends/eu.

costs. And the fact that it pays taxes as if it achieves real profits does not really matter.³ The definition alone shows that even the economic value added should not be considered in a much broader context than it is in practice.

The concept of value added can be also referred to: customers, employees, shareholders, members of organizations excluding their owners or managers, attorneys and the whole society.⁴ Such a broad understanding of added value is important particularly from the point of view of tourism, not only for tourism enterprises, but also for the regional tourism economy.

1. Value generations

In addition to the theoretical and narrow understanding of a *value* and *added value* in particular, practical knowledge associated with identification and diagnosis of the sources of added value is essential. The knowledge is largely included in the knowledge of the factors that generate an added value and it is both theoretical and practical problem which is basically well described for businesses and their groups. The literature most often mentions the following value generators:⁵

- growth rate of sales revenue,
- operating margin,
- effective tax rate,
- investment in working capital,
- investment in fixed assets,
- cost of capital,
- duration of competitive advantage.

A slightly different concept of value generators is suggested by B. Nogalski, J. Rybicki and H. Marcinkiewicz who present a process approach to the issue. The authors present the view that the role of value drivers can be successfully played by various management concepts, including TQM, Just in Time, Lean Thinking, Reengineering, Lean Management, Lean Production and Outsourcing.

³ P. Drucker, *The Information Executives Truly Need*, "Harvard Business Review 73", 1/1995, pp. 54–62.

⁴ J. Brillman, *Nowoczesne koncepcje i metody zarządzania*, PWE, Warszawa 2002, p. 38.

⁵ E. Nowaka (ed.), *Strategiczna rachunkowość zarządcza*, PWE, Warszawa 2008, p. 55.

These concepts being effectively connected by the managerial staff form the basis of a coherent management system which allows you to generate values.⁶

Currently, economic practice, however, shows that creation of a value is largely dependent upon the possessed intangible assets that enable to identify the sources of competitive advantage. B. Hoag and Cary L. Cooper pay attention to the multifaceted perception of the values. They consider it a basis of interactive relations between an enterprise and its environment. Thus, we can speak about the values that are subject to the processes of exchange and are the basis for balancing mutual benefits for the owners, customers, managers, employees and other stakeholders.⁷ These values can be described as intellectual asset divided into human capital, organizational one and customers, etc. Classification of factors that include such values divides them into four groups:⁸

1. customers and markets:
 - satisfaction and a number of existing customers,
 - number of newly acquired customers, costs of acquiring,
 - product or brand image,
 - distribution channels;
2. employment and business management:
 - qualifications and employees performance, number and structure of employees,
 - managers' and supervisory board members' remuneration,
 - knowledge management,
 - quality of management;
3. suppliers and supply markets:
 - volume of supplies, changes in market prices, savings in the field,
 - solid ties with allies and the number of new compounds,
 - dependence on individual suppliers;

⁶ B. Nogalski, J.M. Rybicki, H. Marcinkiewicz, *Zarządzanie antykrzysowe jako value driver*, in: *Wartość przedsiębiorstwa – z teorii i praktyki zarządzania*, J. Duraja (ed.), Wydawnictwo Naukowe Novum, Płock–Łódź 2004, p. 45.

⁷ B. Hoag, C.L. Cooper, *Managing value-based organizations: it's not what you think*, Edward Elgar Publishing Limited, Northampton 2006, pp. 74–89.

⁸ W. Skoczylas (ed.), *Determinanty i modele wartości przedsiębiorstw*, PWE, Warszawa 2007, pp. 116–205.

4. processes and innovations:
 - quality of products and processes,
 - investment in progress and development,
 - turnaround time, service response,
 - number of both existing and new patents and licenses,
 - revenues from the sale of patents, products, the share of sales.

However, the analysis of the above-mentioned generators and an attempt to relate them to tourism, in the sense of spatial arrangements, proved that they significantly restrict the image of a generated value. Therefore, the research that has been conducted by the Department of Management in Tourism for 10 years, has been focused on the knowledge-based regional tourism economy (KBRTE). As it was agreed in the course of the study, tourism businesses are the economic background and foundation of the tourism sector and at the same time comprise a basic element of KBRTE while its effectiveness is not affected by individual and isolated tourism businesses or individual entities of the regional environment. Instead, it is a result of cooperation of all stakeholders, i.e. tourism enterprises, units of state and local government, local business, other units of the business environment and local community in the field of shaping global knowledge-based tourism products. Thus, tourism businesses and operators of their regional environment as well as the local community and tourists are the value drivers of regional tourism. As it resulted from the diagnostic tests based on the model presented in Figure 1, effective generation of values in regional tourism is possible through collaboration, co-creation and cooperation of tourism entrepreneurs with the actors of their environment, local community and tourists.⁹ Also endogenous and exogenous generators of value were defined. Endogenous generators of value, according to tourism businesses, are: knowledge management, innovation and the applied information technologies, while the exogenous ones are: financial support and availability of qualified staff. Consequently, the adopted research orientation included two identified classes of factors limiting the effective development of values in tourism that affect competitiveness and efficiency of KBRTE called internal and external levers. The internal levers were measured by assessing the level of competence gap in tourism enterprises dividing them

⁹ The presented study [projects KBN No. 2 H02D 033 25, Kraków, 2006 i NN 115 373 033, Kraków, 2010] did not include all mentioned stakeholders on the grounds of formal, factual and financial limitations.

into individual value generators. The external levers, however, were measured by assessing the level of inertia of the selected entities of the local administrative and economic government.

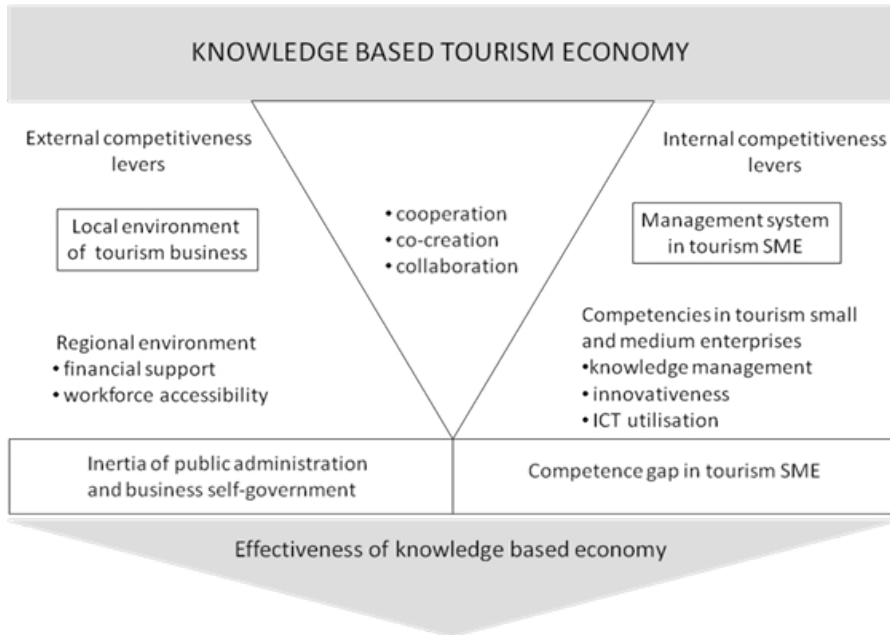


Fig. 1. The model of monitoring of tourism sector competitive potential in knowledge based economy

Source: elaborated by M. Bednarczyk.

Synthetic evaluation of regional effectiveness of KBRTE was made on the basis of measurement and assessment of the level of cooperation, co-creation and collaboration of local administration with tourism enterprises. It is atypical and uncommon estimation of regional tourism effectiveness. The KBRTE as a basis of effectiveness estimation allowed to set the levels of inertia¹⁰ of local administrative and economic units in terms of ability to generate synergies in the elaborated regional KBRTE, which turned out to be very low.

¹⁰ The mentioned studies did not use explicit term of “synergy” and “synergistic effect”. Instead, the ontological fundamentals were based on the concept and theory of synergy included in the studies on management.

Almost a half of the respondents pointed to the lack of support from the local governments and no relevant changes in this area in the past few years.¹¹

2. The nature of synergy in tourism

The term synergy comes from the Greek word synergos which means “working together”. It is commonly used as a synonym for “cooperation”. According to the creator of Polish praxeology T. Kotarbiński, synergy can occur only when the components, when working together, achieve more than when working on an individual basis. Thus, referring the term to tourism, one can say that synergy determines the ability of two or more entities to produce a bigger value by working together than each of them could produce individually. Therefore, H. Piekarczyk points out a synergistic effect as a criterion for assessing success, arguing that in today’s economy the companies that operate carefully and are little flexible have limited capacity to cope with competition. In order to be able to function in the dynamically developing tourism market, both businesses and regions need to change the ways of management, management of tangible and intangible resources, put new configurations, continually adapt their offers to the market requirements. They may in this case choose from different categories and types of synergy.

A. Damodaran identifies two main kinds of synergy: operational and financial.¹²

However, when considering activity of business entities, synergy is divided into:¹³

- trade,
- operational,
- investment, management system.

¹¹ M. Najda-Janoszka, *Innovative activity of small tourist enterprises – cooperating with local institutional partners*, “Journal of Entrepreneurship, Management and Innovation” 2013, Vol. 9, No. 1, pp. 17–32.

¹² A. Damodaran, *Investment Valuation: Tools and Techniques for Determining the Value of Any Asset*, Wiley, 2012, New York, pp. 707–723.

¹³ P.C. Ensign, *Interrelationships and horizontal strategy to achieve synergy and competitive advantage in the diversified firm*, “Management Decision” 1998, No. 10, pp. 657–667.

Still, according to H. Piekarz, synergy is divided into:¹⁴

- social,
- technical and production,
- economic,
- organizational.

However, adopting the perspective of processes carried out in tourism economy, one can speak about different levels of synergy.¹⁵ In the inter-organizational aspect, i.e. within the tourism enterprises, achieving synergy effects is associated with workers' participation in the organizational structure and processes, and it refers to both top management and line workers. In this case, synergy results from the division of labour and concentration of intellectual capital. The other level, i.e. the interorganizational one, includes the effects of cooperation between the entities with no capital or organizational or legal ties.¹⁶ The first case refers to the endogenous aspect of synergy, while the other one refers to the exogenous one.

In the next stage of the research conducted by the Team of the Department of Management in Tourism at the Jagiellonian University, the attention was paid to exogenous aspect of synergy in development of the Innovation in Tourism Value Chain (ITVC). It was assumed the innovative chain of added value of regional tourism covers the ability to innovations in tourism businesses (internal innovation value chain) operating in certain regional and local conditions (external innovation chain). Therefore, three perspectives, i.e. efficiency in tourism management, quality of local business environment (institutional and local environment) and local platforms collaborating with one another in order to generate synergy and multiply its synergistic effect¹⁷ appear in the created model of regional tourism innovations.

¹⁴ H. Piekarz, *Efekt organizacyjny jako kryterium oceny systemu wytwórczego*, in: *Zeszyty Naukowe / Akademia Ekonomiczna w Krakowie. Seria Specjalna: Monografie*, nr 102, AE w Krakowie, Kraków 1991; P. and H. Piekarz, *Efekt synergiczny jako kryterium sukcesu przedsiębiorstwa*, in: *W kręgu zarządzania: spojrzenie multidyscyplinarne*, T. Borkowski, A. Marcinkowski, A. Oherow-Urbaniac (eds.), Uniwersytet Jagielloński, Kraków 2000, pp. 161–173.

¹⁵ In connection with the enterprises and their capital groups compare J. Chacham, *Synergia i wartość w strukturach kapitałowych. Identyfikacja, analiza, zarządzanie*, DIFIN, Warszawa 2012, p. 73 and there literature citation.

¹⁶ J. Chacham, *Synergia i wartość w strukturach kapitałowych. Identyfikacja, analiza, zarządzanie*, DIFIN, Warszawa 2012, p. 72.

¹⁷ M. Bendarczyk, *Model zintegrowanego zarządzania łańcuchem wartości turystyki na poziomie regionu*, in: *Innowacje w turystyce. Regionalna przestrzeń współpracy w makroregionie południowym*, M. Bednarczyk, M. Najda-Janoszka (eds.), CeDeWu, Warszawa 2014, p. 55–65.

The accepted model of the integrated innovative value chain of regional tourism is shown in Figure 2. It was attempted to analyze it diagnostically and build the basis of the integrated management ITVC at the regional level. The results of the study allowed to confirm the thesis claiming that in the regional innovation chain the added value of regional tourism is a result of cooperation between regional key stakeholders at all stages of the innovation process, i.e. generation of new ideas, development of new solutions and commercialization of these.¹⁸ Moreover, the results of the study lead to the conclusion that synergy is a major generator of added value in tourism.

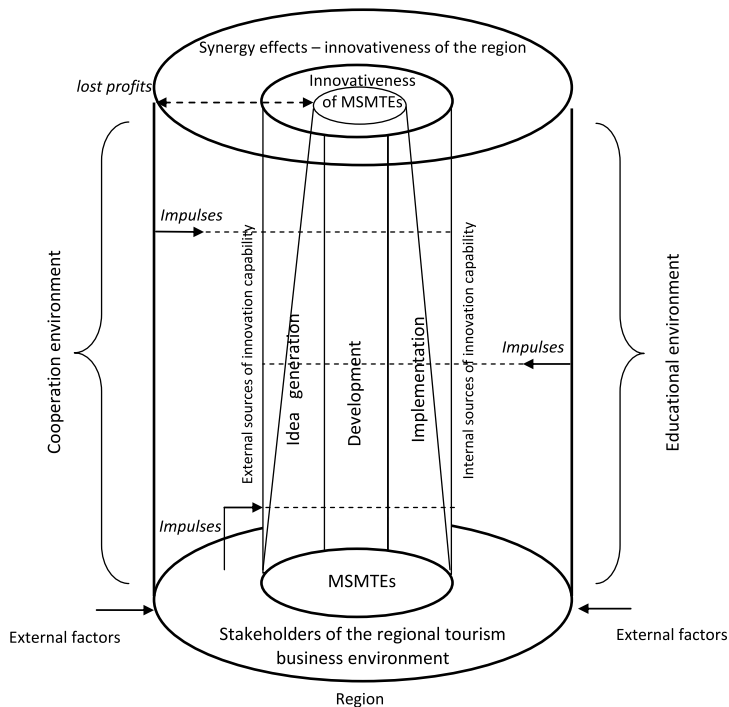


Fig. 2. Model of the study on the integrated innovation value chain

Source: M. Bendarczyk, *Model zintegrowanego zarządzania łańcuchem wartości turystyki na poziomie regionu*, in: *Innowacje w turystyce. Regionalna przestrzeń współpracy w makroregionie południowym*, M. Bendarczyk, M. Najda-Janoszka (eds.), CeDeWu, Warszawa 2014, p. 57.

¹⁸ M. Bendarczyk, *Podsumowanie*, in: *Innowacje w turystyce. Regionalna przestrzeń współpracy w makroregionie południowym*, M. Bendarczyk, M. Najda-Janoszka (eds.), CeDeWu, Warszawa 2014, pp. 223–226.

According to the model presented in Figure 2, the effect of synergy arises from the increasing competence of cooperation between all stakeholders of ITVC. However, in the opposite case one has to deal with the phenomenon of dissynergy, i.e. negative synergy. Dissynergy means lost benefits resulting from the redundant opportunities of cooperation which allows to create new added value in regional tourism. In practice, one can find examples of not only lost benefits. Examples of financial dissynergy when public money has been spent by municipal offices on tourism products that were not accepted by tourists are particularly negatively perceived. A similar negative effect called social dissynergy is created after tourism products harmful for natural or cultural environment are introduced. In that case, the quality of life of local community that is a stakeholder of regional tourism economy is decreased. Therefore, cooperation and collaboration of all stakeholders create conditions for added value by the same mechanism of synergy, i.e. formation of extra quality which is not a sum of values contributed by individual stakeholders of regional tourism economy.

In tourism, the starting point for cooperation of many actors in order to cumulate their potential and use the effects of synergy is high level of tourism attractiveness of a given area measured by the number of natural attractions (landscape, climate, terrain, natural monuments, etc.) and anthropogenic ones, that is the ones resulting from human activity (architecture, folklore, cuisine, accommodation and lifestyle of local communities, etc.). Large accumulation of such interest in one area affects creation and development of tourism regions. Thus, in such regions cooperation between local and international tourism business and the operators of its institutional, social and educational environment is developed in the easiest way. The phenomenon of synergy can also become a generator of values in tourism in the regions that are found not so attractive for tourists, which may become a great developmental opportunity.

Tourism is a sector where it is possible to use the theory of synergy. Specificity of a tourism product which includes tourism attractiveness, brand of the region, its infrastructure and access to qualified personnel, makes it easier for all those interested in tourism development of the region to cooperate rather than act independently. The tourism value chain shows the need for interaction between all those interested in development of the region.¹⁹ An increase

¹⁹ W. Wierzyński, *Klastering w branży turystycznej*, http://www.pi.gov.pl/parp/chapter_86196.asp?soid=E565ED9AD2444DDA96C2D1D3021D8D7A.

in a number of positive impressions from staying in the region by offering a comprehensive tourism offer (added value for a tourist) as well as an increase in efficiency of each actor involved may become a result of such joint actions.

However, as demonstrated by the results of the study conducted by the Team of the Department of Management in Tourism at the Jagiellonian University, collaboration between the key stakeholder is not performed at a satisfactory level. In order to keep up with constant changes in tourists expectations, technical and technological progress and other circumstances, it is necessary to be flexible and able to modify their offer permanently, to care to obtain higher quality in the activities of all stakeholders. Thus, generation and exploitation of the effects of synergy become an instrument for coping with these challenges for both companies and entire regions that are interested in development of effective tourism.

Conclusion

Studies on possibilities to generate synergy and to multiply its synergistic effect in shaping an added value in regional tourism economy are not just a trend or whim of the researchers. The literature on this topic is rather limited to the business sector or groups. After M. Potter "(...) a failure of synergy resulted from inability of businesses to understand and implement it and was not a result of a fundamental failure of the concept alone"²⁰ In practice, it may help decision-makers to, e.g., implement new effective organizational solutions or innovative technologies of the services provided in the field of innovation. A primary purpose of using the phenomenon of synergy should be creation and strengthening of cooperation and cooperative behaviours oriented towards developmental goals of tourism regions.

Thus, it is necessary to identify the sources of synergy and apply the criteria of synergy in development of effective tourism economy.

²⁰ J. Chacham, *Synergia i wartość w strukturach kapitałowych. Identyfikacja, analiza, zarządzanie*, DIFIN, Warszawa 2012, p. 73.

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SYNERGIA JAKO GENERATOR WARTOŚCI W TURYSTYCE**Streszczenie**

Wartość w turystyce jest kategorią wynikową, pozostającą w relacji z wieloma czynnikami. Stąd też zarządzanie wartością mające na celu stymulowanie i kreowanie procesów wzrostu wartości nie może być postrzegane jako działanie jednorazowe lecz mające charakter ciągły. Jest to zbieżne z oczekiwaniami wszystkich interesariuszy regionalnej gospodarki turystycznej, którzy są zainteresowani stałym wzrostem wartości przedsiębiorstw turystycznych a w konsekwencji regionów turystycznych. Jednak aby proces wzrostu wartości postępował zgodnie z oczekiwaniami wszystkich zainteresowanych, powinien być poddany na stałe działaniu pozytywnych stymulatorów procesów zmian w regionalnej gospodarce turystycznej.

W artykule sklasyfikowano podstawowe stymulatory, często nazywane nośnikami lub generatorami wartości (ang. value drivers) w turystyce oraz wyodrębniono jeden z nich którego wykorzystanie w procesie zarządzania Innowacyjnym Łańcuchu Wartości Turystyki (IŁWT) przyczynia się do poprawy efektywności funkcjonowania regionu turystycznego ukierunkowanego na wzrost szeroko rozumianej wartości w turystyce.

Słowa kluczowe: synergia, łańcuch wartości turystyki

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**ONTOLOGICAL AND EPISTEMOLOGICAL FOUNDATIONS
OF TOURISM RESEARCH.
SCIENTIFIC IDENTITY OF POLISH SCHOLARS OF TOURISM**

Abstract

The aim of this article is to present ontological and epistemological foundations of tourism research based on the international literature and in the light of the results of a survey on the scientific identity of Polish scholars of tourism. An appropriate empirical research project was based on ontological and epistemological assumptions concerning: 1) the object of tourism study; 2) specific research problems related to it; 3) possibilities of solving them by different scientific disciplines; 4) the methodological position of tourism research within the system of sciences. The article consists of: 1) a theoretical discussion and an overview of previous research and selected literary sources; 2) a presentation of the results of author's empirical studies on scientific identity carried out among Polish researchers of tourism; 3) conclusions related to the issues addressed in the paper.

The main findings are based on the academia's views (discussed example of the Polish scholars and the experience of the international debate from the 1990s–2000s). They are divided and, so far, it has not been able to come up with a common, coherent answer to the question concerning the cognitive and formal status of the contemporary studies on tourism. According significant part of representatives of Polish scholars, they declare support for the idea of the autonomization of Tourism Sciences. On the other hand they still consider themselves representatives of the 'traditional' scientific disciplines and they mainly base on the paradigms developed within them.

Keywords: ontological and epistemological aspects of tourism research; scientific identity, Polish scholars of tourism

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Introduction

The aim of this article is to present ontological and epistemological foundations of tourism research in the light of the results of a survey on scientific identity of Polish scholars of tourism. An appropriate empirical research project was based on certain ontological and epistemological assumptions concerning: 1) the object of tourism study; 2) its specific research problems; 3) possibilities of solving them by different scientific disciplines; 4) the methodological position of tourism research within the system of sciences. The article consists of: 1) a theoretical discussion and an overview of previous research and selected literary sources; 2) a presentation of the results of author's empirical studies on scientific identity carried out among Polish researchers of tourism; 3) conclusions related to the issues addressed in the paper.

The exchange of different views on the ontological and epistemological aspects of tourism research has been going on for many decades now. One could therefore ask: Is it necessary to start a new discussion? Or should we rather focus on the present ideas connected with contemporary tourism problems? The answer to the second question could be yes, provided that previous and already existing theoretical bases for research proved to be sufficient for present needs. The scientific and methodological reality, however, shows that we are still far from a compromise in the discussion of tourism basic notions, concepts and paradigms. This situation, it seems, results in a stagnation in the field of tourism research methodology and the lack of a mature paradigm that is necessary for this research. Tourism is rarely recognised as an autonomus scientific discipline, even among scholars who specialize in these issues (Hoerner, Sicart, 2003; Leiper, 2000; Tribe, 1997). A wider discussion on this subject was presented by Butowski (2011) and Sutheeshna Babu (retrived 15.01.2014). On the other hand, most scholars acknowledge the fact that tourism as a kind of contemporary human activity develops very quickly (both in quantitative and qualitative aspects). New associated phenomena and problems arise constantly. It is quite evident that the theoretical foundations, methodological approaches and applied tools that we have at our disposal are insufficient to cope with these challenges (Ritchie, Sheenan & Timur, 2008; Farrel, Twinning-Ward, 2004; Shuang, Tribe & Chambers, 2013).

1. Ontological and epistemological foundations of the studies on tourism

Undoubtedly, every field of research, the studies on tourism included, is characterised in terms of methodology by, among others, its ontological and epistemological conditionings (Chojnicki, 2005; Lipiec, 2008; Maciołek, 2002). At the same time, these conditionings constitute a necessary basis for empirical research, which is especially popular in studying tourism. Unfortunately, an analysis of the output of the studies on tourism suggests that recent years faced a quite considerable regress in this regard. Lists of scientific publications or an overview of the topics of conferences testify to this state of affairs. It is quite apparent that the issues related to the methodology are in minority and most of the publications present results of empirical research projects that are usually not concerned with theoretical deliberations. The peak of the academia's interest in the theoretical and methodological aspects of the studies of tourism was the 1990s and the 2000s. At that time, scholars quite vividly exchanged opposing views on these issues, i.a. on the pages of *Annals of Tourism Research* (Botterill, 2001; Butler, 1989; Comic, 1989; Dann, Nash and Pearce, 1988; Echtner and Jamal, 1997; 2004; Graburn and Jafari, 1991; Jafari, 1989; Jafari and Aaser, 1988; Jovicic, 1988; Leiper, 1990; Leiper, 2000; Pearce, 1993; Pearce and Butler, 1993). It seems, however, that this discussion has recently faded out. It is alarming as it suggests that the current scientific interest of the studies on tourism is rather in the practical aspects of the phenomenon. Simultaneously, the scarcity of the in-depth discussions on theoretical foundations of the studies on tourism becomes increasingly visible. It is but these theoretical discussions which should be laying the cognitive and methodological foundations for the empirical analyses.

Treating these premises as the vantage point, the author of this article would like to propose a theoretically ordered program of basic research (meta-research) on tourism. The starting point of the article is the ontological approach, which postulates searching for answers to basic questions, such as: what is tourism? what is the essence of tourism? which of its traits are constitutive, which are consecutive, and which are accidental? what should constitute the object of the studies on tourism? what should be the scope and the ways of doing research? In the second stage of the article, the author would like to adopt an epistemological perspective, thus paying more attention to the opportunities and directions of scientific cognition of tourism – within the scope previously defined on the ontological level. To this end, the author suggests (as a starting point) a creative application of methodo-

logical outputs of various scientific disciplines, for which tourism constitutes a diverse object of research.

Such a research approach will be possible and will give expected results only if it manages to integrate various traditions for the needs of the study on tourism. By such an integration of methodological outputs, the studies on tourism should arrive at a new level of methodological maturity and acquire their own scientific identity. Chojnicki (2005), using Bunge's (1983) division of sciences according to the functional criterion, places the studies on tourism in the category of the empirical sciences of descriptive character. Further, he classifies them in the subcategory of social sciences realised in the moderately empirical model. At the same time, Chojnicki admits that the studies on tourism are very complex. This complexity occurs on the two levels: a) empirical – natural and social; b) social, including i.a. economic, geographical and sociological, etc. Finally, the studies on tourism were also classified within another category – of applied sciences which rely on the basic knowledge of social and natural sciences considered in the practical aspect.

It seems, however, that one drawback of the classification suggested by Chojnicki is the level of analysis, which is too high to define the place of the studies on tourism (taking into consideration their diversity) in the system of sciences. This fact prompted the author to try to define the epistemological situation of the studies on tourism on a more detailed level, i.e. that of particular sub-disciplines which deal with the issues of tourism. To this end, the author formulated several basic questions, which should constitute framework for further deliberation (based on: Kuciński, 2010): how can and how should tourism be studied? what are researchers' interests? what research problems do they see and how do they verbalize them? how do they verbalize research theses and how do they shape hypotheses? how do they interpret results that they get? It seems that the major epistemological problem in the studies on tourism is the complexity and diversity of answers that researchers from different fields would give to the above-mentioned questions. This results i.a. from the diversity of theories and research concepts, both original and adopted, that are applied in studying tourism (Bogucki, Woźniak, 1997; Jójczyk, 2009; Kowalczyk, 2001; Kurek, 2008; Przeclawski, 1997), (Table 1). In this context, one needs to ask once again the epistemologically fundamental question about the possibilities of integration of these outputs, even at a high level of generalisation. It seems that a positive answer to this question is a necessary condition for further methodological progress in the study of tourism.

Table 1

Selected theories and research conceptions employed in tourism research

Economic sciences and related	Economic base theory (staple theory) and tourist functions conceptions
	Theory of tourism developmet (based on dependence theory)
	Formal and informal sector concept
	Theory of endogenous development (especially on regional level)
	Cascady flow theory
	Theory of network development (based on cluster theory)
	Theory of polarisation in regional development
Geographical sciences with particular emphasis on tourism geography	Central place theory and Periphery theory
	Tourist area life cycle (TALC)
	Theory of tourist space
	Concept of turism business district
	Concept of tourism urbanizastion
	Concept of territorial recreation systems
	Concept of integrated tourist resort
	Concept of tourism region
	Concept of tourist landscape
Sociology, cultural anthropology	Theory of fun
	Theory of compensation
	Theory of conflict and social comunication
	Concept of tourism as an encounter of culture
	Concept of self destructive tourism
Environmental science	Concept of carrying capacity
	Concept of limits of acceptable change (LAC)
	Concept of spatial zoning
	Concept of limited availability
Others including interdisciplinary approaches	Concept of sustainable tourism

Source: personal findings.

2. In search of the scientific identity of tourism research

When we speak of a scientific identity (both in the ontological and in the epistemological context) of the studies on tourism, we should search for answers to the following research questions: 1) what should constitute the research object of the studies on tourism (ontological perspective)? 2) in what wider context and aspect is this research object located? 3) in what way is research conducted and what do we want to learn? (epistemological perspective) 4) with which scientific tradition do we identify ourselves? 5) within what wider paradigms do we conduct our research? 6) the output of which scientific discipline enriches the results of our research?

A discussion on these issues can begin with a review of a representative diagnostic survey conducted within Polish academia. The group of the interviewees consisted of 85 tourism scholars of various age, profile, experience and academic degree. They were representatives of the main scientific disciplines which deal with the issues connected with tourism in Poland (Table 2).

Table 2

Structure of respondents by academic specialisations, by academic degree and by age (%)

Respondents by academic specialisations	Economics	Geographic sciences	Physical Culture & Sport	Other disciplines
Part of the sample	32	28	21	19

Respondents by academic degree	MA	Ph.D.	Associate Professor	Full Professor
Part of the sample	12	54	25	9

Respondents by age	<35 years of age	ages 36–50	ages 50+
Part of the sample	11	26	63

Source: personal findings.

The survey was intended to answer questions concerning: 1) the settlement of the studies on tourism within various scientific paradigms; 2) relationships of tourism scholars with various scientific traditions (scientific fields and disciplines); 3) the status and the methodological maturity of the studies on tourism. The author assumed that the answers given by the respondents should help to

define the scientific identity of tourism scholars. The results of the survey allowed the author to make certain significant observations:

1. Scientific paradigms in the studies on tourism
 - a) the majority of respondents (62%) claimed that they conducted their research projects within paradigms of traditional scientific disciplines; however, 24% of the respondents stated that they used specific paradigms of the studies on tourism (14% did not express an opinion on this matter);
 - b) it seems, also, that the bigger the theoretical output of a given discipline, the bigger its attachment to its paradigms (Economics – 84%, Geography – 63%) – Table 3;

Table 3

Scientific paradigms in studies on tourism by disciplines (%)

Disciplines	Traditional paradigms	Specific tourism studies paradigms	Uncertain
Economics	84	13	3
Geography	63	27	10
Physical Culture & Sport	36	41	23
Other disciplines	47	23	30

Source: personal findings.

- c) the group of full professors (40%) and Ph.D. (29%) holders was relatively the most eager to recognise a new paradigm of the studies on tourism; the representatives of associate professors claimed in majority (66%) that their research projects on tourism were conducted within paradigms of the traditional disciplines, the representatives of master’s degree declared the hignets number of the “uncertain” responses (Table 4).

Table 4

Scientific paradigms in studies on tourism by scientific degrees (%)

Scientific degree	Traditional Paradigms	Specific tourism studies paradigms	Uncertain
Master’s	58	8	34
Ph.D.	60	29	11
Associate Professor	66	19	15
Full Professor	60	40	0

Source: personal findings.

2. Tourism scholars and their relationships with various scientific traditions
 - a) a slight majority of the respondents claimed that when doing research on tourism they felt representatives of their mother disciplines (51%), but 40% of the respondents stated that they represented Tourism Sciences, 10% declared the “uncertain” responses;
 - b) it seems that the scholars who originate from the disciplines which have been dealing with tourism research for a longer period of time (i.a. Economics, Geography, Physical Culture & Sport) are relatively more eager to name themselves representatives of Tourism Sciences than scholars from other disciplines (Table 5);

Table 5

Researchers of tourism as representatives of traditional disciplines
or Tourism Sciences by represented discipline (%)

Scientific disciplines	Traditional disciplines	Tourism Sciences	Uncertain
Economics	53	47	0
Geography	39	43	18
Physical Culture & Sport	48	48	4
Other disciplines	67	11	22

Source: personal findings.

- c) it also seems that there is a certain correlation between the academic degree and the eagerness to call oneself a representative of Tourism Sciences; the higher the academic degree of a person (full professors, associate professors), the more eager the person to call himself or herself a representative of Tourism Sciences (Table 6);

Table 6

Researchers of tourism as representatives of traditional disciplines
or Tourism Sciences by scientific degrees (%)

Scientific degree	Traditional disciplines	Tourism Sciences	Uncertain
Master's	50	33	17
Ph.D.	54	35	11
Associate Professor	48	48	4
Full Professor	40	60	0

Source: personal findings.

3. The status of Tourism Sciences as an autonomous scientific discipline (the term ‘Tourism Sciences’ is used in this article in the broad sense, i.e. encompassing both the theoretical and the applied research on tourism (Ritchie, Sheehan and Timur, 2008).
 - a) quite apparent majority (49%) of the respondents stated that the Tourism Sciences deserved the status of an autonomous scientific discipline; 33% of the respondents held the opposing view, remaining 18% had not a clear opinion on this matter;
 - b) the relatively bigger number (40%) of opponents of the autonomy of Tourism Sciences were the respondents who held a Full Professor’s degree (but it is worth mentioning that almost half of them declared “yes” for tourism as an autonomous discipline), the proponents were representatives of holders of the remaining degrees (Table 7);

Table 7

Tourism Sciences as an autonomous discipline by scientific degrees (%)

Scientific degree	Yes	No	Uncertain
Master’s	92	6	2
Ph.D.	48	35	17
Associate Professor	52	28	20
Full Professor	40	40	20

Source: personal findings.

- c) the majority of the scholars who had shorter experience with research on tourism were in favour of the separation of Tourism Sciences as an autonomous discipline; the scholars with longer experience were equally divided between the two options (Table 8);

Table 8

Tourism Sciences as an autonomous discipline by years of experience in researching tourism (%)

Experience in tourism research	Yes	No	Uncertain
<10 years	65	16	19
>10 years	41	41	18

Source: personal findings.

The higher the age, the higher the percentage of those who oppose the autonomization of Tourism Sciences (Table 9).

Table 9

Tourism Sciences as an autonomous scientific discipline by age of researcher (%)

Age of researcher	Yes	No	Uncertain
<35 years of age	45	18	36
ages 36–50	44	37	19
ages 50+	51	33	16

Source: personal findings.

The results of the survey project concerning the scientific identity of the Polish tourism scholars allow for a formulation of more general conclusions:

1. A quite significant majority of the respondents (62%) claimed that they conducted their research projects on tourism within various paradigms of the 'traditional' scientific disciplines. Only $\frac{1}{4}$ expressed the opinion that they based on specific paradigms which belong to the studies on tourism, thus acknowledging the existence of an autonomous discipline called Tourism Sciences. Such results may suggest that this new discipline called Tourism Sciences is at the so called pre-paradigm stage, which is characteristic of new emerging scientific disciplines (see next chapter).
2. At the same time, a slight majority of the respondents (51%) considered themselves representatives of the traditional scientific disciplines, however as much as 40% of the respondents were ready to call themselves representatives of the Tourism Sciences. It is worth noticing that the percentage of those ready to call themselves representatives of the Tourism Sciences was much higher than the percentage of those who were ready to acknowledge the existence of specific paradigms of the studies on tourism.
3. Finally, almost half of the respondents were ready to formally recognise Tourism Sciences as an autonomus scientific discipline (Tourism Sciences do not have that status in the Polish system of sciences); nearly $\frac{1}{3}$ held the opposing view.
4. The analysis reveals a certain inconsistency in the responses of the informants regarding the scientific (and methodological) identity and the formal status of Tourism Sciences. On the one hand, they quite clearly advocate the autonomy of Tourism Sciences, on the other hand, they seem to be

attached to the paradigms of other disciplines of which they themselves feel representatives (Figure 1).

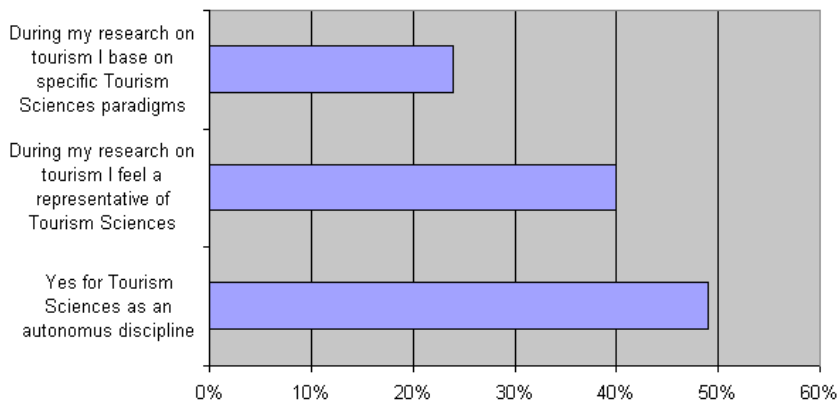


Fig. 1. Controversies on scientific identity and formal status of Tourism Sciences

Source: personal findings.

3. In search of a new scientific paradigm for the studies on tourism

In the literature of the studies on tourism the term “scientific paradigm” is used in a wide variety of contexts, which hampers understanding of it and allows for a free interpretation (Alejziak, 2008). Therefore, throughout this article, the term ‘scientific paradigm’ will be used according to the view of T. Kuhn (1996), who introduced it to the international literature. The creator of the paradigm model of the development of science defined “scientific paradigm” as: 1) a set of theories acknowledged by most scholars of a given scientific field; and 2) a set of research problems which are sufficiently attractive for scholars and which can be investigated in the light of the acknowledged theories. In this way, Kuhn assigned to a scientific theory two functions: 1) of a tool used to solve research problems; and 2) of a source which generates significant (and attractive from the point of view of science) research problems. It resulted from Kuhn’s firm belief about close relatedness between the development of science and the social, economic and political environment in which it takes place (in particular histori-

cal periods), (Okasha, 2002). According to the Kuhn's concept, the functioning of paradigms within a given scientific discipline testifies to its methodological maturity and may constitute grounds for its formal autonomization. The formation of a given paradigm is preceded by the so called "pre-paradigm period", in which various conflicting views exist and none of the options dominates.

In this context, one could ask about the place of the studies on tourism in the Kuhn's model. Pearce (1993) claims that the studies on tourism are at the pre-paradigm stage. This claim is essentially true, but it should also be added that in the case of the studies on tourism the so called local paradigms function within scientific disciplines for which tourism is an object of interest (Szubert-Zarzewny, 2001). It is the case in particular with such subdisciplines as the tourism geographies, the economics of tourism, the sociology of tourism. In this context, a crucial question emerges: is it possible for one new paradigm to dominate the whole field of the studies on tourism (or at least a significant majority of it) and to integrate various previous approaches and research traditions? When seeking an answer to this question, one should once again refer to the Kuhn's view about the influence of the external environment on the development of science. In the case of the studies on tourism, one can easily notice the strict correlation with the functions that tourism was assigned in different periods (Butowski, 2012; Hall, Page, 2006). Perceiving tourism as a tool of economic policies of a country (which dominated in the years 1918–1939 and after 1945) had a very strong influence on the economic and geographical aspects of the studies on tourism. The same type of correlation can be noticed in the following period. At least to the end of the 1980s tourism was perceived as an important instrument of regional and local development (primarily in the aspect of the economic growth). In that period, first numerous interdisciplinary research projects on local and regional scale were carried out. Also in that period, first voices which advocated an integration of the scientific output of studies on tourism (both in the theoretical and in the empirical aspect) were heard (Woźniak 1995, 2005). Since the middle of the 1980s, more and more scholars have been adhering to the ideas of the sustainable tourism, which is undoubtedly a result of the growing popularity of the concept of sustainable development.

Conclusion

The article presents the issues connected with the theoretical, methodological and formal foundations of the studies on tourism, seen from three different perspectives: 1) ontological and epistemological, which involves questions about the object of research and the scope and possibilities of the cognition of this object; 2) scientific identity and traditions of tourism scholars (based on the example of the Polish academic environment); 3) scientific paradigms which constitute the basis for the studies on tourism, in the context of the studies' theoretical and empirical maturity. The aim of this analysis was to search for answers to the questions about: 1) the cognitive and formal status of the studies on tourism in the context of the essence of the phenomenon of contemporary tourism; and 2) the possibilities of the cognition of the phenomenon on the theoretical and empirical ground. A huge part of the conclusions was formulated based on the results of a diagnostic survey conducted within the Polish academic environment, among tourism scholars. It seems, however, that in order to increase the reliability and universality of the results one should conduct such surveys also in different countries.

To sum up the particular observations and results of the analysis, one could state that it is very difficult to precisely define the cognitive status of the contemporary studies on tourism. Undoubtedly, they are methodologically rooted in the "older" scientific disciplines which traditionally dealt with phenomena connected with tourism. Tourism scholars still use their methodological outputs. Unfortunately, the genuine output that could be credited to Tourism Sciences seems to be still rather scarce. Also, the academia (based on the discussed example of the Polish scholars and the experience of the international debate from the 1990s–2000s) is divided and, so far, it has not been able to come up with a common, coherent answer to this question. Despite the fact that a significant part of the scholars declare their support for the idea of the autonomization of Tourism Sciences, on the other hand they still consider themselves representatives of the "traditional" scientific disciplines and they base on the paradigms developed within them.

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**ONTOLOGICZNE I EPISTEMOLOGICZNE
PODSTAWY BADAŃ NAD TURYSTYKĄ.
TOŻSAMOŚĆ NAUKOWA POLSKICH BADACZY TURYSTYKI**

Streszczenie

Celem artykułu jest przedstawienie ontologicznych i epistemologicznych podstaw studiów nad turystyką w kontekście współczesnej literatury przedmiotu oraz wyników badań empirycznych dotyczących tożsamości naukowej polskiej kadry naukowej. Zostały one przeprowadzone przy uwzględnieniu ontologicznych i epistemologicznych założeń odnoszących się do: 1) przedmiotu badań nad turystyką; 2) związanych z nim specyficznych problemów badawczych; 3) możliwości ich rozwiązania w ramach różnych dyscyplin naukowych; 4) miejsca badań nad turystyką w systemie nauk. Artykuł składa się z kilku części obejmujących: 1) teoretyczną dyskusję oraz przegląd literatury poświęconej omawianemu zagadnieniu; 2) omówienie wyników badań empirycznych odnoszących się do tożsamości naukowej polskich badaczy turystyki; 3) podsumowania wraz z rekomendacją dalszych badań.

Podstawowe wnioski oparte na przeglądzie literatury przedmiotu oraz na wynikach badań empirycznych są niejednoznaczne. Nie dają one podstaw do określenia statusu poznawczego i formalnego współczesnych badań nad turystyką. Przejawia się to m.in. w deklaracyjnym poparciu przez polskich badaczy autonomizacji badań nad turystyką w kierunku ich „naukowego” usamodzielnienia, przy jednoczesnym mocnym przywiązaniu do tradycyjnych dyscyplin i panujących tam paradygmatów.

Słowa kluczowe: ontologiczne i epistemologiczne aspekty badań nad turystyką, tożsamość naukowa, polscy badacze turystyki

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STAKEHOLDERS' RELATIONSHIPS IN THE SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT OF TOURIST DESTINATIONS

Abstract

The aim of the article is to present various types of relationships occurring between stakeholders in a tourist destination and to indicate their role in the sustainable development. The article consists of four parts preceded by the introduction. In the first part, the essence and role of the sustainable development were presented. Secondly, the particular types of relationships which may occur between actors in tourist destinations were defined and discussed – conflict, competition, coexistence, coordination, cooperation and collaboration. In further discussion, the roles of these particular relationships in the sustainable development were presented. In the third part, on basis of examples, it was indicated and explained which relationships serve to stimulate this development and how, and which ones hamper this development. The last fourth part consists of the conclusions in which it was emphasized that even though in the economic reality the presented scenarios of relationships are frequently of a mixed character, their model presentation allows to understand better their role in the sustainable development of tourist destinations.

Keywords: relationships, sustainable development, tourist destinations

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Introduction

The formation of proper relationships between various stakeholders in tourist destinations is one of the crucial conditions for the sustainable development of these destinations. In the literature, different types of these relationships are analyzed. These are: conflict, competition, coexistence, as well as coordination, cooperation and collaboration.¹ Some of them, e.g. conflict or unjustified competition hinder this development, others, however, e.g. coordination or collaboration stimulate this development, including sustainable one.² In literature it has been stressed for years that cooperation is very important for the sustainable development. According to some authors, it is even a condition indispensable for this development.³ For the benefits obtained due to proper relationships between stakeholders result from sharing complementary resources and lead to reaching synergic effects, which would be impossible to reach when acting individually. In the conditions of the sustainable development the complexity of a tourist product requires not only cooperation in the creation of this product, but also the pro-

¹ T.B. Jamal., D. Getz, *Collaboration theory and community tourism planning*, "Annals of Tourism Research" 1995, Vol. 22, No. 1, pp. 186–204; M. Watkin, B. Bell, *The Experience of Forming Business Relationships in Tourism*, "International Journal of Tourism Research" 2002, 4, pp. 15–28; A. Fyall, B. Garrod, *Tourism Marketing. A collaborative Approach*, Channel View Publications, Clevedon-Buffalo-Toronto 2005.

² M. Augustyn, T. Knowles, *Performance of tourism partnerships: A focus on York*, "Tourism Management" 2000, Vol. 21, No. 4, pp. 341–351; B. Bramwell, B. Lane, *Collaborative Tourism Planning: Issues and Future Directions*, in: *Tourism Collaboration and Partnerships. Politics, Practice and Sustainability*, B. Bramwell, B. Lane (eds.), Channel View Publications, Clevedon 2000, pp. 1–19; A. Caffyn., *Is there a Tourism Partnership Life Cycle?*, *Collaborative Tourism Planning: Issues and Future Directions*, in: *Tourism Collaboration and Partnerships. Politics, Practice and Sustainability*, B. Bramwell, B. Lane (eds.), Channel View Publications, Clevedon 2000, pp. 200–229; *Co-operation and Partnerships in Tourism: A Global Perspective*, Canadian Tourism Commission, World Tourism Organization, World Tourism Organization Business Council, Madrid 2004; K. Czernek., *Uwarunkowania współpracy na rzecz rozwoju turystyki w regionie*, Proksenia, Kraków 2012.

³ *Action for more Sustainable European Tourism*, report of the Tourism Sustainability Group, EU, February 2007; www.europa.eu/enterprise/sectors/tourism/files/docs/tgs (access: 18.02.2014), E.T. Byrd, *Stakeholders in Sustainable Tourism Development and their Roles: Applying Stakeholder Theory to Sustainable Tourism Development*, "Tourism Review", 2007, Vol. 62, No. 2, pp. 6–13; D. Lorant, *Cities, events and environmental protection: tasks of sustainability*, in: *Transformation of historical cities' function*, Publishing House University of Economy in Bydgoszcz, Bydgoszcz 2012, pp. 55–62; A. Niezgoda, *Problems of implementing sustainable tourism in Poland*, "The Poznań University of Economics Review", 2004, Vol. 4, No. 1, pp. 30–42.

ecological behaviors resulting from the similar level of awareness and ecological education of all entities involved. The lack of pro-ecological actions on the part of only one participant may annihilate the actions of the rest.⁴

Despite the great role of cooperation in the sustainable development in the economic reality, it is observed that frequently collaboration between stakeholders ought to exist, there occurs a conflict or competition or entities coexist not noticing their mutual dependence. Therefore a question appears how these relationships may affect the sustainable development and whether some of them, generally regarded as negative, e.g. conflict or competition may consequently stimulate this development. Therefore the aim of this article is to present various relationships occurring between stakeholders in a tourist destination and to present their role in the sustainable development.

1. The essence and role of the sustainable development

The concept of the sustainable development is the result of development tendencies research and formulating warnings against global consequences of civilization development, in particular economic growth and natural environment resources damaging. The guidelines in the scope of the sustainable development occur increasingly frequently in academic discussions, as well as legal and strategic documents in many countries in the world. In Poland, the sustainable development is included in the Constitution (Art. 5) and basic legal acts. In the Environmental Law the sustainable development is defined as: "such social-economic development, where the process of integrating political, economic and social actions occurs with the preservation of natural balance and the stability of basic nature processes in order to guarantee the opportunity to satisfy the basic needs of particular societies or their citizens of both contemporary generation and the future generations".⁵

The popularity of the concept causes it to be increasingly frequently included in the strategic documents at the level of voivodeships, counties, municipalities

⁴ More: A. Niezgodna, *The role of environmental knowledge, attitudes and initiatives in the development of tourism product*, "Tourism", 2011, No. 21, pp. 34–39.

⁵ Ustawa Prawo ochrony środowiska z dnia 27 kwietnia 2001 r. (Dz.U. nr 62, poz 627, art. 3, pkt 50).

as well as individual economic enterprises. However, one may notice that there are cases when the concept of sustainable development is treated as a popular slogan without reflection in actions.

One should stress that the premises of the sustainable development require the three aim groups to be realized in the specific area, that is, ecological, economic and social aims. This triad is codependent and the aims should be realized jointly. The frequent mistake involves the reduction of sustainable development issues to ecological matters. According to the state policy, the rules of the sustainable development should be translated to other areas of economy. In reference to tourist economy, they are connected to the concept of tourism not only economically effective but also friendly towards the environment (natural, social and cultural).

When making developmental decisions, the decision-making entities ought to consider tourism as an option of (sustainable) economic development, treated equally with other forms of economic activity.⁶ It is also necessary to diagnose the resources existing in the given area and the perspective analysis of the possible development paths considering different variant forms. One ought to remember that the regions exist where the development of industry or agriculture may conform to the sustainable development concept. The condition is to plan how to use the existent resources. There may occur conflicts between stakeholders. The closing of industrial plants does not always equal the improvement of natural environment and it may additionally contribute to the negative social and economic effects. Therefore, the codependency of economic, social and ecological aims requires the complex approach towards the possibility of other regions development. The resignation from the foregoing economy sectors for the tourism development is not always beneficial.⁷ The complex nature of a tourist product and the discussed aims of the sustainable development require various specific forms of relationships between different stakeholders.

⁶ A. Niezgoda, *Obszar recepcji turystycznej w warunkach rozwoju zrównoważonego*, Publishing House of University of Economics in Poznań, Poznań 2006, p. 46.

⁷ A. Niezgoda, *Uwarunkowania wdrażania koncepcji rozwoju zrównoważonego na obszarach recepcji turystycznej*, in: *Wyzwania współczesnej polityki turystycznej*, A. Rapacz (ed.), Academic works No. 259, Publishing House of University of Economics in Wrocław, Wrocław 2012, p. 267.

2. Types of relationships between stakeholders in a tourist destination

In academic works on the problem of ties between entities in a tourist destination, among the possible relationships, one enumerates: antagonism/conflict, competition, coexistence, coordination, cooperation and collaboration.⁸ According to the authors, they often constitute continuum – from the most conflictual to the integrated ones in which every next type of relationships means the stronger tie between the partners and in some cases, includes the features of the previous relationship.

Watkins and Bell claim that competition is placed at the bottom of this continuum. They define it as achieving greater economic benefits by organizations, usually at the expense of others.⁹ For instance, places of accommodation of similar standard, similar tourist attractions or objects enabling entertainment can compete against one another. Competition is also constituted by the rivalry of entities from a given tourist destination against the stakeholders from the other, competing destinations. Competition is a natural mechanism, which characterizes the functioning of the private sector, hence until it is justified it should not be regarded as an unwanted relationship scenario because such competition can stimulate cooperation. In the scope of competition, the entities from a tourist region may cooperate to attract a tourist to this particular area. However, when the tourist has already chosen the given destination, the entities compete so that the tourist chooses their offer and not the competitor's one. Cooperation, which will be discussed later and the competition take place at different stages. Therefore one should stress that the one does not have to exclude the other.¹⁰

Also the European Economic and Social Committee (EESC)¹¹ indicates the important for the tourist regions (including sustainable development) role of proper relationships between entities acting in a given area. In its opinion

⁸ E.g. T.B. Jamal., D. Getz, *Collaboration...*, op. cit.; Watkins M., Bell B., *The Experience...*, op. cit.; Long P., *Researching tourism partnership organizations: From practice to theory to methodology*, in: *Quality Management in Urban Tourism*, P. Murphy (ed.), John Wiley & Sons, Chichester 1995.

⁹ M. Watkins, B. Bell, *The Experience...*, op. cit.

¹⁰ Here one talks about the so-called *coopetition* – which means cooperation and competition at the same time and between the same entities (the name is derived from the blending of these two words).

¹¹ European Union advisory and consultative body.

entitled “Tourist policy and cooperation between public and private sectors”, the committee acknowledges that at the lowest level of the continuum of relationships which may occur between entities in a tourist destination (representing public and private sectors) are confrontational relationships, however, they are not called competition but antagonism/conflict.¹²

Antagonism constitutes a scenario where one side perceives the other as opposing or hindering its aims and interests. With regard to the sustainable development, striving for legal protection of areas environmentally valuable may be the example of such conflict. Residents may oppose and do not support the striving of organizations, authorities or entities connected to tourism to assign areas legally protected. The conflict may involve not only entities representing the same, but also separate sectors. For instance, the private sector representative may believe that the public sector hinders him to maximize the profit. It may occur, for example, through negligence in the scope of ensuring the appropriate technical and social infrastructure needed to conduct economic activity effectively and/or due to a bad quality of public service for tourists. In the opinion of the committee the private sector may be regarded by public authorities mainly as an apparatus for tax collecting, which to an increasingly greater extent drains financial resources of private sector which faces tough price competition. On the other hand, public authorities often believe that commercial sector creates problems, disturbs or disenables the realization of public aims connected with social wealth, protection and preservation of natural resources, the social cohesiveness and responsibility towards local communities.¹³ However, conflict may sometimes be necessary as a starting point for agreement forming and a constructive dialogue between the sides.

The next scenario listed in the relationship continuum is the scenario of co-existence.¹⁴ In this case, the entities tolerate one another but they act separately to reach their own aims. Simultaneously they respect their scopes of competences, they fulfill the legal and social obligations and obey the rights of other entities acting in favor of tourist development. It is the scenario of mutual tolerance,

¹² *The opinion of European Economic and Social Committee* entitled: „*Polityka turystyczna a współpraca między sektorem publicznym i prywatnym*”, European Union Official Journal 2005/C 74/02 of 23.02.2005.

¹³ *Opinia...*, op. cit.

¹⁴ *Ibidem*.

which, despite being better than the previous one – is still insufficient for the sustainable development.

The next type of relationship between stakeholders in a tourist region is coordination. According to Long, coordination constitutes a process where two or more organizations create and/or use the existent decisional rules in order to jointly handle the tasks connected to environment in which they act.¹⁵ Thus, this is a coordination – proper orientation – of strategy, policies and the management of resources between different entities, each of which has its own aims but also realizes that the coordination and information exchange increase the complementarity of these aims which is beneficial for the society. Such form of relationship requires a higher level of cooperation.¹⁶

In the works of some authors (e.g. Himmelman, Long) including the authors of EESC opinion, coordination is an element of the next relationship scenario – cooperation.¹⁷ In the literature one may use interchangeably the terms “collaboration” and “cooperation”. Wood and Gray acknowledge that collaboration takes place when a group of autonomic stakeholders engages in an interactive process using common regulations, norms and structures to act or decide in matters connected with a given field¹⁸. In contrast to collaboration, the aim of cooperation (named by the authors also *ad hoc* cooperation) is less complex, it is easier to define, to reach and to measure the results. Jamal and Getz agree with it claiming that cooperation means generally joint work aiming at a certain result. It does not, however, meet necessary conditions of a developed, dynamic cooperation (collaboration).¹⁹ The authors claim that the term collaboration should be restricted only to such circumstances in which stakeholders recognize that there occur conflicts resulting from the complex problems and they want to reinforce the potential to overcome them. The problems and the aims connected with the sustainable development in a tourist destination are of such character due to the precedence of long-term aims.

¹⁵ P. Long, *Researching...*, op. cit.

¹⁶ *The opinion...*, op. cit.

¹⁷ A.T. Himmelman, (1996) *On the theory and practice of transformational collaboration: from social service to social justice*, in: C. Huxham (ed), *Creating collaborative advantage*, London: Sage, pp. 19–43; P. Long, *Researching...*, op. cit.; *Opinia...*, op. cit.

¹⁸ D.J. Wood, B. Gray, *Toward a comprehensive theory of collaboration*, “Journal of Applied Behavioral Science” 1991, Vol. 27, No. 2, pp. 139–162.

¹⁹ T.B. Jamal, D. Getz, *Collaboration...*, op. cit.

The authors of this article also believe that every collaboration is a form of cooperation, however, not every type of cooperation may constitute collaboration. For instance, recommending the offer of other economic entities to tourists, creating *ad hoc* working groups to solve a sudden problem in a tourist destination, one-time initiatives of collecting funds for the aim connected to tourism – all these actions constitute an example of *ad hoc* cooperation, not collaboration. The examples of the latter include actions, undertaken consecutively, for instance by Local/Regional Tourist Organizations, associated partnership groups, consortia, associations and other structures.²⁰ For they have specified long-term aims serving sustainable development of tourist areas and specific, advised and carefully planned actions of a tactic and strategic character are subject to these aims.

3. The role of particular relationships in the sustainable development of tourist destinations

After the presentation and organization of methods of defining various relationships between stakeholders in a tourist destination, one should contemplate which of them serve sustainable development, and how.

Conflict definitely does not serve the sustainable development. When analyzing a conflict at the level of economic entities or local authorities, one may notice that it causes, among other things, mismanagement of resources of material character – in the form of finances, tangible assets, etc. as well as those of intangible character – time, human energy, etc. An example may be a conflict between residents and economic entities with regard to environment protection (referring to, for instance, garbage segregation, energy management or environment pollution) or even a conflict between different groups of residents. According to research conducted by S. Grönholm²¹ temporary residents

²⁰ A. Fyall, B. Garrod, *Tourism Marketing. A collaborative Approach*, Channel View Publications, Clevedon-Buffalo-Toronto 2005; B. Bramwell, B. Lane, *Collaborative Tourism Planning: Issues and Future Directions*, in: *Tourism Collaboration and Partnerships. Politics, Practice and Sustainability*, B. Bramwell, B. Lane (eds.), Channel View Publications, Clevedon 2000, p. 1–19.

²¹ S. Grönholm, *Perceptions of rural needs and policy – the case of the archipelago of Turku, “Regions”* 2010, No. 278, Regional Studies Association, pp. 12–14.

evaluated pro-ecological actions higher than permanent inhabitants of Turku archipelago in Finland. It appears that both inhabitants and temporary residents prefer protective attitudes, do not want dynamic economy development, they demand to “preserve paradise for resting and recreation”. One may talk here about the conflict between striving for economic development of enterprises and the inhabitants' willingness to preserve the existent state. Different results were obtained by J. Willet,²² who analyzed pro-ecological attitudes of tourists and inhabitants in Cornwall. The tourists would like to preserve the idyllic landscape which remains in conflict with the residents' attitudes who, in turn, would like the region to develop more dynamically.

Competition cannot be identified with conflict, however, it may serve sustainable development. The condition is to treat a tourist product in a complex way and simultaneously take into consideration the aims of a social, economic and natural environment. Competition stimulates mechanisms which make the entities work more effectively and efficiently. The use of renewable energy sources favoring the reduction of costs for enterprises which, while competing, strive to achieve ecological aims may constitute an example. Competition through such actions, simultaneously favors social aims by improving the conditions of inhabitants' lives. However, competition which is unjustified and occurs in areas where various actors ought to join forces to achieve synergic results does not favor sustainable development.

Coexistence does not serve sustainable development as well. Such relationship scenario, similarly to conflict, causes the mismanagement of resources. Actions which may be undertaken jointly in the scope of cooperation or at least owing to coordination and which are realized by stakeholders separately and multiply the efforts of different people may constitute an example. Such a direct example may be constituted by organizing ecological trainings repeatedly by various entities and separate actions in the scope of promotion of these trainings by different entities. Another example might be constituted by separate categorization systems introduced by various entities for agrotourism farms. As a result, a tourist has to address the problem of different marking and is unable to decipher the symbols of set categories.

²² J. Willet, *Cornwall, the experience economy and the tourist return*, “Regions” 2010, No. 278, Regional Studies Association, pp. 19–21.

In contrast, coordination favors sustainable development. Due to it, it is possible to orient the efforts of various entities in the scope of this development. The tourist enterprises commitment for natural environment protection and undertaking pro-ecological enterprises in conducting a company are becoming an important instrument of Public Relations and the improvement of one's own image on the tourist market. If actions are coordinated, it may encourage the tourist flow to the destination and become an important factor for gaining competitive advantage without eliminating sustainable development aims. Independently from the fact that whether enterprises decide to make their ecological character public or not, they can affect the reduction of negative results evoked by the tourist surge. The coordination is also needed in planning and realizing the actions undertaken by self-government authorities in tourist areas. Local authorities may specify the standards regarding ecological functioning of enterprises, including the tourist ones (e.g. garbage segregation, the limitation of waste emission) through space planning, tax reliefs, etc. Due to these instruments, one may control the type of developing accommodation, transport and auxiliary infrastructure. A different action in the scope of coordination is ecological education, which local authorities may conduct through trainings, competitions, conferences organization as well as informative actions (notice boards, bulletin issuing, organization of ecological paths, etc.). The nature of a tourist product may also be affected by public institutions promoting tourism and tourist organizations, and associations. The role of promotional institutions may consist in conducting campaigns to educate tourists, local communities as well as contractors and tourism organizers. Through promotional actions one may form tourists' attitudes, develop interests in natural environment values, form ecological sensitivity in local community and visitors. The promotion of tourism in Poland for foreign recipients may emphasize the uniqueness of natural environment of many regions.²³

Sustainable development is definitely favored by short and medium-term cooperation. The cooperation of hotels aspiring to have pro-ecological character with the suppliers who accepted the requirements regarding environment protection may constitute an example. Another action which may be an example of cooperation serving sustainable development may be joint organization of ecological trainings for employees of different enterprises or joint employment of specialists, whose obligation is to prepare and realize various ecological programs for reposing tourists.

²³ A. Niezgodna, *The role...*, op. cit., p. 38.

Cooperation may also consist in common marketing actions undertaken by various tourist entrepreneurs in order to acquire tourists and consequently, to generate profit which allows to develop the entrepreneurship further in a tourist region. However, this type of cooperation may be insufficient to achieve the aims of sustainable development. Enterprises may cooperate, for instance, by creating the joint stall at the trade fair, but neither the ecological character of the offer is emphasized there nor it is aimed at promoting local suppliers or food manufacturers.

Sustainable development is a long-term process of planned and coordinated actions, it is often necessary to constitute different forms of long-term cooperation (some may even last several or more years), that is collaboration. Collaboration is connected to the higher level of trust between the partners, with the wide benefits not only for the cooperating organizations, but mostly, for the whole destination, with the great commitment on the part of both sides in order to gain wide benefits resulting from the collaboration and oriented to make decisions jointly and to reach a consensus. These are necessary conditions for the sustainable development to take place in a possibly most effective way. The long-term action in the scope of creating tourist trails, which is connected to the creation of a complex tourist product by various entities, may constitute an example as well as actions in the scope of joint control of tourist development results in a destination or referring to actions involving local communities in tourist development planning. One ought to add that the democratization of social life and the citizens' permanent participation in the development planning become the conditions for sustainable development.²⁴

Therefore, to sum up, in order to talk about sustainable development between stakeholders in a tourist destination, at least the coordination of actions of various partners is needed, however, one cannot acknowledge that this is a sufficient scenario. One needs cooperation or even collaboration which constituting the highest level of partnership relationships, includes the features of both coordination and cooperation

²⁴ More: A. Niezgoda, *Obszar...*, op. cit., pp. 245–246.

Conclusion

The aim of this article was to present the relationships between stakeholders acting in a tourist destination and indicating what role the particular types of these relationships have in the sustainable development. This aim was reached. However, one should stress that the relationships scenarios presented in the academic works are of a model character – in economic reality they hardly ever occur in a pure form and it would be difficult to unambiguously qualify the situation in a given tourist destination to the one of these scenarios. It also refers to Polish regions where the cooperation relationships are just starting to be formed, often with difficulties. In economic reality one usually encounters rather mixed forms – the conditions which constitute various relationships are fulfilled to a greater or lesser extent. Due to the complexity of a regional tourist product and the necessity to participate on the part of various stakeholders in the process of creating this product, the reaching of consensus will always, to a certain extent, be connected to the conflict between interest groups, even if, for some time, the high level of understanding and harmony would be reached. Similarly, one should not negate competition. As was mentioned, it constitutes the natural mechanism of private sector functioning and it is necessary to ensure its efficiency.

For the sustainable development not to become a slogan without the reflection in real actions, this concept ought to be translated to the awareness of both policymakers and citizens. The awareness and understanding of codependency of economic, ecological and social aims constitutes the basis for cooperation and collaboration between stakeholders and favors synergic effect.

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RELACJE INTERESARIUSZY W ROZWOJU ZRÓWNOWAŻONYM REGIONÓW TURYSTYCZNYCH

Streszczenie

Celem artykułu jest przedstawienie różnego rodzaju relacji zachodzących między interesariuszami w regionie turystycznym oraz wskazanie na rolę tych relacji w rozwoju zrównoważonym. Artykuł składa się z czterech części poprzedzonych wstępem. W części pierwszej przedstawiono istotę i znaczenie rozwoju zrównoważonego. Następnie, zdefiniowano i omówiono poszczególne rodzaje relacji jakie mogą występować między aktorami w regionach turystycznych – konflikt, konkurencję, koegzystencję, koordynację, kooperację i kolaborację. W kolejnych rozważaniach zaprezentowano znaczenie poszczególnych rodzajów relacji dla rozwoju zrównoważonego. W części trzeciej, odwołując się do przykładów, wskazano i uzasadniono, które relacje oraz w jaki sposób służą stymulowaniu tego rozwoju, a które ten rozwój blokują. Ostatnią – czwartą część – stanowi zakończenie, w którym podkreślono, że mimo iż w rzeczywistości gospodarczej przedstawione scenariusze relacji często mają charakter mieszany, to ich modelowe ujęcie pozwala lepiej zrozumieć ich rolę w rozwoju zrównoważonym regionów turystycznych.

Słowa kluczowe: relacje, rozwój zrównoważony, regiony turystyczne

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ABOUT THE ESSENCE OF SOCIAL TOURISM AND ITS FINANCING POSSIBILITIES IN POLAND

Abstract

The objective of the article is an attempt to define the contemporary understanding of social tourism concept at the background of its previous definitions and approaches towards its essence explanation as well as the identification of its financing sources in Poland. The basic method applied in solving the research problem was the review of literature covering the areas of economics, management and the sociology of tourism and also programme documents, statistical data of Eurostat, Central Statistical Office in Poland (GUS) and European Commission and also source materials of entities dealing with social tourism problems.

Keywords: social tourism, financing

Introduction

Extending access to tourism by including these social groups in the sphere of tourist activity which are in any way excluded from it or have limited access to it, brings about diverse advantages. It results not only in equal opportunities and living standards of a given country citizens, but also in the development of tourism economy, in strengthening the supply sphere of the tourist market, activating tour-

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ist locations and regions and thus creating additional employment opportunities. Therefore, social tourism allows not only to enjoy travelling by people with limited access to tourism (i.e. people with disabilities, in poor health, senior citizens, the poor, etc.), but also facilitates taking better advantage of the tourist potential offered by enterprises, locations and tourist areas. Supporting the realization of the right to take holiday rest, to travel and tourism exerts impact on life quality and mental comfort of a given society members and at the same time the sustainable development postulates are also implemented. The objective of the article is an attempt to define the contemporary understanding of social tourism concept at the background of its previous definitions and approaches towards its essence explanation as well as the identification of its financing sources in Poland. The basic method applied in solving the research problem was the review of literature covering the areas of economics, management and the sociology of tourism and also programme documents, statistical data of Eurostat, Central Statistical Office in Poland (GUS) and European Commission and also source materials of entities dealing with social tourism problems (i.e. UN's Universal Declaration of Human Rights 1948, UN's International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights 1976, WTO's Manila Declaration on World Tourism 1980, WTO's Tourism Bill of Rights and Tourist Code 1985, WTO's Global Code of Ethics for Tourism and International Social Tourism Organisation Statutes, 2003, 2010).

1. The need for social tourism development

The growing awareness of advantages resulting from social tourism has become the basic reason for the European countries high interest in this subject matter. The inclusion of social groups in tourism, which were not capable, for various reasons, to carry out their tourist needs, plays important functions in a society. It results in reducing social stratification, increases the entire society participation in economic development and the growing life quality level. Therefore, it is an instrument of social cohesion policy, the significance of which is emphasized in the European Union programme documents. There is also evidence that higher demand in tourism, as the result of carrying out different initiatives in the field of social tourism (e.g. the inclusion of people aged 55+ to tourism within the framework of "Europe Senior Tourism" programme) results in positive, also economic, consequences and has a particular significance

for the development of tourist enterprises, locations and regions. On the other hand, the need to support participation in tourism will become intensified due to the occurrence of unfavourable social phenomena (decline in fertility, population aging and the accompanying increase of people suffering poor health and with disabilities, changes in family structure) and economic (unemployment, financial limitations, poverty, etc.).

The above listed phenomena represent crucial factors reducing the participation in tourism. Eurostat data illustrate that in 2012 about 39% of the European Union citizens did not leave for a 7-day holiday even though the situation in this matter was significantly diversified in particular countries.¹ In Norway only slightly above the 6% of population could not afford a one week holiday, whereas in Romania and Bulgaria it was over 2/3 of its citizens who did not participate in longer tourist trips (Tab. 1). Poland is ranked as 19th among the European Community countries and thus the percentages of Poles reporting their lack of financial resources to afford a week vacation outside the place of their residence once a year, amounting to 62%, is relatively high (significantly higher than the average for 15 “old” EU member states – 34.7%, and close to the level recorded for 12² “new” EU members 62.3%).

Table 1

Inability to afford paying for one week annual holiday away from home
(European Union and its chosen members)

Specifications	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
European Union (28 countries)	-	-	-	37.3	38.2	39.6
European Union (27 countries)	36.3	36.6	36.8	36.9	37.7	39.3
European Union (15 “old” countries)	29.1	30.2	30.8	30.6	31.4	33.3
European Union (12 “new” countries)	63.5	60.8	60.2	61.2	61.3	62.3
Norway	6.3	6.5	7.3	6.6	6.9	6.2
Switzerland	-	12.1	13.9	9.3	8.6	7.4
Poland	64.6	63.3	61.2	59.9	60.5	62.0
Bulgaria	80.4	59.1	59.8	62.4	73.3	74.0
Romania	75.7	75.6	75.6	77.1	76.1	75.1

Source: <http://appsso.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/nui/show.do> (access 05.02.2014).

¹ <http://appsso.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/nui/show.do> (access 05.02.2014).

² Excluding Croatia.

The presented data indicate that in many EU countries, including also Poland, there is a large group of citizens suffering exclusion from tourism. Among the reasons responsible for such exclusion the following, among others, are listed: age, health condition, family and personal matters, professional issues, but most of all the reasons result from economic background. In 2012 16.9% of the European Union population was at risk of poverty. This indicates that their income, having taken social transfers into account, was below the level of poverty. In Poland the percentage of population at risk of poverty presented the range between 16% and 17%. In 2010 the highest percentage of poverty threatened citizens was 17.1% (for comparison, the highest rate in the EU was recorded in Greece – 23.1%, while the lowest level was reported in the Czech Republic 9.6%).³ Every sixth Pole lives in a household the expenditure of which does not exceed the level of the so-called relative poverty (for Poland it amounts to 4 924 PPS).⁴ The problem mainly refers to such households as: households with the disabled persons (21.9% people), single parents (47.4%) and families with many children (19.5%).⁵

Poland is affected by the problem of population aging. Every seventh Polish is aged 65 and above, whereas the number of people in the range 0–19 is significantly decreasing. The drop in women fertility rate (falls short the replacement rate amounting to 2.1 children per one woman) and the resulting drop in birth-rate. In relation to the above-mentioned phenomena and the tendency towards an average life duration lengthening (Tab. 2), the burden of main dependent social groups, i.e. children, teenagers and senior citizens is significantly moved towards the latter. *The forecast of Polish population for the period 2008–2035* indicates that the number of senior citizens in Polish society is continuously growing

³ *Europejskie badanie dochodów i warunków życia [The European study of income and living conditions] (EU-SILC) in 2012*, http://www.stat.gov.pl/gus/5840_7556_PLK_HTML.htm – access 5.03.2014).

⁴ Common conventional currency which unit takes the form of the Purchasing Power Standard (PPS). The value of one PPS equals the number of a given country currency units corresponding to 1 Euro at the domestic market, having considered price relations of a given country against prices of the remaining countries participating in the comparison. *Ubóstwo w Polsce w świetle badań GUS [Poverty in Poland in the perspective of the Central Statistical Office studies]*, GUS, Warsaw 2013, p. 24.

⁵ *Ubóstwo w Polsce w świetle badań... [Poverty in Poland in the perspective of...]*, op. cit., pp. 18–19.

and in 2035 will reach the level of about 23.2%⁶, which means that almost every fourth Pole will be at least 65 years of age.

Table 2

Life expectancy in EU by age and gender, 2002–2009.

Specification	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Men	69.9	70.0	70.1	70.3	70.4	70.4	70.7	71.0
Women	78.3	78.3	78.7	78.8	79.1	79.2	79.4	79.5

Source: <http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu> (access 15.02.2014).

The ratio of years lived in good health, in 2009 presented the average level of 58.1 years in case of men and 62.0 years for women.⁷ Based on such measures as life expectancy and healthy life years it has been assessed that within the population, who are 70 years of age and over, only every fifth person is in good health and the period of senile infirmity may refer to as many as 38% of the average further life expectancy regarding women over 65 years of age and 27% of the average further life expectancy for men in the same age group.⁸ The results of the census carried out in Poland in 2011 have initially indicated that the number of people who declared limited capacity in performing basic activities, typical for their age and/or had valid medical statement to be qualified as the disabled, amounted to 4.7 million, which constituted 12.2% of Polish population.⁹ More than 70% of these people were over 50 years of age.

One of the consequences resulting from the European population aging, including Poland, is manifested not only in the increasing number of senior citizens share in the overall population number, but also in the growing percentage of the disabled and those in poor health, as well as pensioners (usually having at their disposal much lower income level comparing to salaries earned

⁶ *Prognoza ludności Polski na lata 2008–2035 [The forecast of Polish population for the period 2008–2035]*, Central Statistical Office, Warsaw 2009, p. 182.

⁷ *Demography Report 2010. Older, more numerous and diverse Europeans*, European Commission, Luxembourg 2011, p. 38.

⁸ M. Burzyńska, J.T. Marcinkowski, M. Bryła, I. Maniecka-Bryła, *Life Expectancy in Healthy Life Years jako podstawowe miary oceny sytuacji zdrowotnej ludności [Life expectancy in Healthy Life Years as basic measures for the assessment of the population health situation]*, “Problemy Higieniczno-Epidemiologiczne [Hygienic and Epidemiological Problems]” 2010, No. 91(4), pp. 530–536.

⁹ www.niepelnosprawni.gov.pl (access 10.11.2012).

in the course of professional activity). These individuals, due to health, social or economic reasons, may experience certain difficulties in carrying out their tourism oriented needs and, at the same time, it should also be remembered that they can present specific expectations regarding tourist offers targeted at their needs.

Referring to the available sources it can be accepted that basic social tourism segments, i.e. senior citizens and people with disabilities in Poland amount to the total number of about 8.6 mln¹⁰, which constitutes over 22% of Polish population. If this number is enlarged by those at risk of poverty or livingly slightly above this level (not included in the group of senior citizens or the disabled) the share of social tourism segments, in the structure of Polish population, would be much higher.

In the perspective of the above presented data social tourism is observed as a serious problem. It can be referred to as a passing trend, but rather as a problem which should constitute one of the most important research subjects and programmes in the area of social and economic policy in Poland and other EU countries.

2. The concept of social tourism

The concept of social tourism is not new since it has over 60 years long lasting history, even though today it has taken on a new meaning. The first attempt to define social tourism was undertaken by W. Hunziker in the 50s of the 20th century (the review of different definitions is presented in table 3).

¹⁰ Estimations according to J. Berbeka, *Udział w ruchu turystycznym a spójność społeczna w Polsce – wybrane zagadnienia [Participation in tourist traffic vs. social cohesion in Poland – selected problems]*, in: *Wyzwania współczesnej polityki turystycznej. Problemy polityki turystycznej [Challenges of contemporary tourism policy. Problems of tourism policy]*, A. Rapacz (ed.), Research Studies of Wrocław University of Economics No. 259, Wrocław 2012, pp. 43–53.

Table 3

Definitions of social tourism

Author	Definitions
W. Hunziker (1951, 1957)	Social tourism represents the overall relations and phenomena resulting from participation in tourist trips by economically poorer or in any other way disadvantaged social groups (1951). Social tourism as a particular type of tourism characterised by the participation of people with low income, providing them with the special type of services (1957).
Z. Filipowicz (1965)	Social tourism means financial support for units or socially valuable, but economically weak groups. It is e.g.: tourism for trade unions members (poor health condition, large family, low income) – covered by the system of joined costs coverage: worker + company + trade unions (the system of deliberate saving); tourism of the youth – subsidized in the amount complementing the full cost – by schools or companies; tourism of social organization members (discounts).
T. Sajewski (1984)	Social tourism in its broad meaning refers to every tourist enterprise the participation in which is financed from the means of any social funds. This form of tourism is subsidized with social funds.
The European Commission (1993)	Social tourism is organized in some countries by associations, cooperatives and trade unions, the goal of which is to facilitate travelling for the largest possible number of people and especially people included in the least privileged social groups.
R. Łazarek (2005)	Social tourism refers to such form of tourism in which low income social groups participate, whereas such participation is facilitated by social benefits and other facilitating factors referring to both, demand and supply in tourism.
The European Social and Economic Committee (2006)	Social tourism represents all types of activities meeting the below listed conditions: real-life situation which either totally or partially makes taking full advantage of the right to tourism impossible. This maybe due to economic conditions, physical or mental disability, personal or family isolation, reduced mobility, geographical difficulties, and a wide variety of causes which ultimately constitute a real obstacle, particular entities, be it a public or private institution, a company, a trade union, or simply an organised group of people, undertake activities aimed at eliminating or reducing barriers preventing the interested persons to take advantage of tourism, the above-mentioned actions are effective and actually facilitate a group of people to participate in tourism in a manner which respects the values of sustainability, accessibility and solidarity.
L. Minnaert, R. Maitland, G. Miller (2006)	Social tourism is the tourism with an added moral value resulting in advantages for both, the host communities and the visitors as the result of tourism exchange.

Author	Definitions
OITS – ISTO (2003, 2010)	<p>The overall relations and phenomena resulting from low income social groups' participation in tourism. This participation is possible or facilitated by the clearly defined measures of social nature (2003).</p> <p>Social tourism means relations and phenomena referring to the participation of both inhabitants of tourist destinations and holidaymakers from the disadvantaged social groups or those who, for any reason, are not able to participate in tourism and the resulting advantages (2010).</p>
B. Włodarczyk (2010)	<p>Social tourism is the type (form) of tourism totally or partially financed (subsidized) externally or organized based on voluntary activities aimed at exercising the right for common access to tourism and also as the tool for achieving other, important from the perspective of its beneficiaries, objectives of social nature (patriotic, educational, life quality improvement, etc.).</p>

Source: A. Rapacz, P. Gryszel, D.E. Jaremen, *Wybrane aspekty turystyki społecznej w Polsce i Republice Czeskiej. Analiza komparatystyczna [The selected aspects of social tourism in Poland and The Czech Republic. Comparative analysis]*, in: *Współczesne uwarunkowania i problemy rozwoju turystyki [Contemporary determinants and problems of the development of tourism]*, R. Pawlusiński (ed.), Jagiellonian University, Cracow 2013, pp. 93–104.

A single and commonly used definition of social tourism does not exist. H. Zawistowska distinguishes three groups of definitions referring to social tourism:¹¹

- definitions concentrated on the demand side of tourism market based on the assumption that the right to practice tourism represents one of the fundamental human rights (Tourism for all) and its realization requires undertaking and implementing activities which aim at eliminating barriers in accessing tourism (support of social groups which, for various reasons, cannot participate in tourism on their own),
- definitions pointing to both the demand and supply aspect of tourism market and emphasizing not only social (equal social chances), but also economic significance of social tourism (economic advantages for tourism sector),
- definitions focused on financing sources for social tourism participation and indicating the important role of state budget, budgets of enterpri-

¹¹ H. Zawistowska, *Możliwości i kierunki rozwoju turystyki społecznej w Polsce*, in: *Wyzwania współczesnej polityki turystycznej. Problemy polityki turystycznej [Possibilities and directions of social tourism development in Poland, in: Challenges of contemporary tourism policy. Problems of tourism policy]*, A. Rapacz (ed.), Scientific Studies of Wrocław University of Economics 2012, No. 259, Wrocław University of Economics, Wrocław 2012, pp. 109–122.

ses, social associations and foundations in eliminating various barriers, having in mind these social groups participation in tourism which have limited access to it.

After the World War II the term of social tourism was popularized in the block of socialist countries. The problem of its definition appeared in the first decade of the 21st century, along with the European Union bodies and mainly the European Commission becoming interested in positive effects brought about by the development of social tourism. Since then the significance of social tourism for the development of economy and society is broadly discussed at both, the entire European Union level and at the level of its particular Member States.

It is not easy to define the concept of social tourism. From an etymological perspective two terms have to be explained, i.e. tourism and social. Both categories have a complex and multi-meaning nature. Having assumed the broad understanding of the well-known term of tourism (as undertaking temporary trips for various reasons) the word “social” needs a closer look. According to the Dictionary of Polish language it means something that:

- refers to a society or its part,
- was created by a society and constitutes its common property,
- is intended to be used by the public,
- is created selflessly for the benefit of some community,
- refers to attitudes and activities of the majority of the society members,
- was organized by some community independently, without any involvement of the state.

Having taken into consideration the presented semantic scope of the term social it can be assumed that social tourism refers to the entire society or its particular (larger) part. Its fundamental useful advantage is meeting tourist needs presented by the society members. Social tourism also results in a particular dosage of selflessness (which could be explained by the fact that at least partly it is of non-market nature, does not involve the purchasing power of population), is subsidized, financially supported by different entities, including mainly the state). The analysis of the above-mentioned meanings also indicates that this kind of tourism is created by the society for the society (which can be understood as social tourism being the domain of social organizations and social economy entities). Nevertheless, it seems crucial that social tourism represents mainly the result of a broad, and extending outside the rich social elites, provision of gen-

erally understood tourism. Social tourism is focused on disseminating the availability of tourism in society. The process of spreading the access to tourism was initiated at the beginning of the 20th century along with struggling to win basic rights improving the existence of the working class in the developing capitalist countries. Some of these rights, e.g. paid leaves and shorter weekly working time established the foundations for extending the participation in tourism outside the existing social elites (capital and land owners). It was the first step made in the development of social tourism. The following important events (referred to by F. Higgins-Desbiolles as milestones on the path towards establishing the human right to travel and tourism) took place in: 1948 (the establishment of UN's Universal Declaration of Human Rights), 1963 (the establishment of International Bureau of Social Tourism, BITS, in Belgium), 1976 (the establishment of UN's International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights), 1980 (adopting the WTO's Manila Declaration on World Tourism), 1985 (adopting the WTO's Tourism Bill of Rights and Tourist Code in Sofia) and in 1999 (WTO's Global Code of Ethics for Tourism).¹² The above presented discussion suggests that the fundamental component of the earliest approaches towards understanding the concept of social tourism is exercising the universal right to participate in tourism. Social tourism refers to the form of tourism which everybody can participate in regardless of their age, origin, represented social class or economic status. It should, however, be remembered that adopting codes or signing declarations is not sufficient to make participation in tourism possible for everybody. There occur other (apart from legal and political ones) obstacles which can result in excluding an individual from participating in tourism. In the literature on tourism the following five main groups of barriers encountered while travelling can be identified, i.e.:¹³

- external resources covering the absence of information, knowledge about the range of opportunities available, financial resources and no access to appropriate transport facilities,

¹² F. Higgins-Desbiolles, *More than an "industry": the forgotten power of tourism as a social force*, "Tourism Management" 2006, No. 27(6), pp. 1192–1208.

¹³ S. McCabe, T. Joldersma, Ch. Li, *Understanding the benefits of social tourism: linking participation to subjective well-being and quality of life*, "International Journal of Tourism Research" 2010, No. 12(6), pp. 761–773.

- physical well-being constraints including physical health and disability, as well as age-related factors which account for the significant proportion of non-participation in travelling,
- time related constraints,
- social factors including the absence of a partner or a suitable travelling companion, together with those who have no interest in travelling,
- fifth factors are also important whereby constraints are felt in relation to the impact of decisions on others perceptions.

Due to the existence of numerous and quite diversified barriers of participation in tourism, exercising the right to tourism frequently requires an external intervention. Such interference may come from both, national authorities and local ones, but also other institutions of non-governmental nature and appointed to establish conditions for exercising the above-mentioned right. In this perspective social tourism becomes the component of the state social policy counteracting market imperfections.

The debate, in the world of science and practice, on social tourism was initiated by accepting that the participation in tourism is of key significance for human development and is highly desirable from the perspective of maintaining good physical and mental condition. Therefore, at the beginning access to tourism has to be ensured also for the groups of other background than those economically and socially privileged (as it has already been mentioned it referred mainly to the working class which had limited access to tourism mainly as the result of two factors: long working hours and insufficient financial means at their disposal). The main role in extending this access was played by trade unions, which in the first half of the 20th century were systematically achieving their goals regarding gradual lengthening of time off from work, whereas their largest success was the right for paid holiday. These solutions, supported by the growing income earned and the growing social wealth as the result of economic development, gave grounds for mass (common) taking advantage of tourist services.

For ideological reasons, originating from class struggle, social tourism became of particular significance in the countries characterized by the command-and-distribution economy (among others in Polish People's Republic, Soviet Union, Czechoslovakia and in Hungarian People's Republic). In these countries social tourism, associated with welfare benefits, represented a particular and dominating method for organizing and managing tourism. The state was its main organizer, constitutionally responsible for establishing conditions to

meet tourism oriented needs of its citizens. In practice tourist trips were mainly organized by companies for their workers, paid from their own means and based on the so-called company tourist (holiday) base, as well as from the means of the so-called Employee Holiday Fund (from the state budget), which also had its own tourist infrastructure at the disposal of workers. Therefore, it took the form of general and common tourism (targeted at all citizens) subsidized from the means of enterprises, trade unions and the state budget, whereas participation in it was distributed outside the market (even though it was usually associated with the population purchasing means). In 1984 T. Sajewski explained that social tourism covers every tourist project participation in which is subsidized from the means of any social funds. In this perspective the financial/economic aspect of social tourism was emphasized considering, however, only the expenditure factors.

The two above described approaches to the understanding of social tourism essence did not refer to the type of its participants (consumers of social tourism offer). W. Hunziker started defining it from the perspective of its segments and his approach is the most popular one in the majority of the discussed term definitions which were created both, at the scientific background and the practical one since mid 20th century (see Tab. 1). Nevertheless, based on numerous discussions and conclusions from the research carried out in the field of social tourism effects the approach to its understanding was changed, which was manifested, among others, in the definition suggested in 2006 by L. Minnaert, R. Maitland and G. Miller and in the new statute of the International Social Tourism Organization (ISTO/OITS, former BITS). New definitions paid attention to the fact that the advantages resulting from social tourism do not refer exclusively to consumers, but also other entities, including entrepreneurs and inhabitants of tourist areas. In this perspective social tourism beneficiaries represent not only the demand entities (as the result of making it possible to exercise the right to tourism and holiday rest), but also supply entities and others (inhabitants of tourist destinations or even social tourism donors and sponsors, including also: the state, social organizations, associations and foundations, local authority units or employers).¹⁴ The abundance of social tourism development

¹⁴ Based on: A. Stasiak, *Cele i zadania turystyki społecznej – kilka uwag o istocie zjawiska [Goals and tasks of social tourism – several remarks about the essence of the phenomenon]*, in: *Turystyka społeczna w regionie łódzkim [Social tourism in Łódź region]*, A. Stasiak (ed.), WSTH [High School of Theology and Humanities], Łódź 2010, pp. 37–56.

beneficiaries results from the positive effects it brings about. The most important ones are as follows:

- counteracting exclusion and social stratification owing to equalizing opportunities and living standards of a given country citizens,
- higher demand for tourist services by exercising the right for common participation in tourism,
- higher income and profitability of enterprises functioning in tourism and outside it,
- counteracting negative effects of seasonality in tourism,
- maintaining or increasing employment in tourism,
- stimulating entrepreneurship in tourism and activating tourism oriented locations and regions,
- higher revenues from tourism for the state budget and local authority units' budgets.

Recently, in the field of social tourism research, new problems have appeared which will definitely result in its definition further evolution. Currently discussed research problems have a more interdisciplinary and complex nature. The increasingly popular research problems are: the relations of social tourism and social economy (economics), interdependencies between social tourism and sustainable development, as well as the influence of social tourism on the quality of life and the subjective well-being.

3. Social tourism – its financing possibilities in Poland

One of the important determinants of social tourism is its co-financing (partial or total subsidizing) or implementing within the framework of non-profit activities as the result of which the offer of services is cheaper and more available for its recipients. Financial aid may refer to both, demand and supply aspect of the market. It can take the direct form (e.g. vouchers or grants to purchase tourist services for large families or holiday benefits for employees, etc.) or an indirect form (e.g. aid in adjusting public transport means to transporting people with disabilities or subsidizing the third age universities, the listeners of which, within the framework of educational programmes, can realize educational trips). The sources can be of both, public nature (the means from the state budget, from local authority units, from the budgets of earmarked funds and also from

the European Union budget as part of aid funds, as well as from the budgets of public benefit organizations) and of private nature (employee benefit funds in enterprises or funds from donors).

The discussed aid is dispersed between different entities (e.g. the Ministries of Labour and Social Policy, National Education, Sport and Tourism or Economy), different programmes and initiatives (e.g. *Social Activity Programme for Senior Citizens 2014–2020*, *Large family Card*, *Social support for people with mental disorders*) and also different European Union aid funds and programmes.

In the new financing perspective 2014–2020 the European Union budget unfortunately does not provide, as it did in its previous edition, a separate line for subsidizing tourism, including social tourism. The opportunities for support should be searched for in different operational programmes (OP), such as e.g.:

- OP Infrastructure and Environment (financial means originate from the Cohesion Fund and the European Regional Development Fund) within which a pool of means was designated, among others, for: cultural heritage development and protection, as well as culture resources, including culture institutions (here the means for adapting cultural heritage objects to the needs of people with disabilities could be searched for) and extending access to the European transport network, i.e. better accessibility of cities and road infrastructure capacity (financing possible facilities to make travelling for the disabled and senior citizens easier),
- OP Knowledge, Education, Development (means from the European Social Fund), here the financial goal could be considered which refers to social inclusion and fighting poverty, which is to be implemented mainly based on active methods and also cover the support for establishing social enterprises (such entities can offer services for the social tourism market);
- OP Digital Poland (means from the European Regional Development Fund) within which the focus can be put on the line of subsidies for higher information and communication technologies application in services and on applying for the means to support two priorities, i.e.: common access to high-speed Internet and Polish society digitalization.

The absence of direct EU means flow to the development of tourism generates serious problems in applying for them, whereas the need to search for subsidy lines suitable for the possible and planned, by a tourist entity, activities requires high level of creativity from beneficiaries. Thus, it can also be the reason of refraining from applying for the necessary means.

It should also be emphasized, at this point, that a coherent social tourism development programme is still missing in Poland, which definitely does not facilitate distributing and concentrating financial means on activities carried out in this matter. If there is no doubt about social and economic advantages resulting from social tourism, developing such programme should become the priority of the state administration in Poland manifested in its tourism policy.

Conclusion

The review of Polish and foreign literature references allows for indicating the common characteristics regarding the contemporary approach towards defining social tourism. It is a broad perspective which pays attention to the role of social tourism both, in establishing the demand and supply aspects of tourism market. It emphasizes the significance of social tourism for achieving social, economic and environmental goals. A strong relationship between social tourism and the implementation of sustainable development principles is observed, such as: improved efficiency of natural, cultural and infrastructural resources implementation, higher welfare and life quality of citizens, the reduction of social differences, better quality of employment or more equalized access to the right of taking a holiday rest. Unfortunately recently, comparing to the period of the so-called financial perspective 2007–2013, a decreasing interest of the state administration in Poland is observed in the problems of social tourism, which raises serious concerns. There are no clear priorities in terms of tourism development support, including social tourism, from the EU means in the new financial perspective 2014–2020, which puts the valuable initiatives, undertaken in previous years, at risk of discontinuation. Is it correct to give up this tourism form development in the perspective of advantages resulting from this phenomenon, the growing number of people excluded from tourism as well as crisis phenomena having impact on the tourism sector? The answer should be: definitely NOT. The absence of direct reference to tourism in the new financial perspective 2014–2020 put forward quite a challenge before the state administration in Poland and other EU countries. They definitely have to find adequate financing sources to support further development of social tourism.

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O ISTOCIE TURYSTYKI SPOŁECZNEJ I JEJ FINANSOWANIU W POLSCE

Streszczenie

Celem artykułu jest próba ustalenia współczesnego rozumienia pojęcia turystyki społecznej na tle jej wcześniejszych definicji i podejść do wyjaśniania jej istoty oraz zidentyfikowania źródeł jej finansowania w Polsce. Podstawową metodą zastosowaną w rozwiązywaniu problemu badawczego był przegląd literatury z zakresu ekonomiki, zarządzania i socjologii turystyki, a także materiałów statystycznych Eurostatu, Głównego Urzędu Statystycznego i Komisji Europejskiej oraz dokumentów programowych (statuty, programy, informacje o podmiocie) organizacji zajmujących się problematyką turystyki, w tym turystyki społecznej.

Słowa kluczowe: turystyka społeczna, finansowanie

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SPA FUNCTION INDICATOR AS A MEASURE OF TOURIST AND HEALING ACTIVITY IN A SPA

Abstract

The paper presents an authorial concept of a spa function indicator. The indicator construction is based on tourism and healing development level, defining spa function and spa potentials. The author also presents the result of applying the indicator showing a ranking of spa communes and explains the development of the spa town of Kolobrzeg in the years 1995–2011 in accordance with the used methodology.

Keywords: spa, health tourism, spa tourism, indicator

Introduction

Spas are polyfunctional regions, which provide significant tourism destination with varied specialization. They include spa specialization, which results from the tourism and spa features function in the area of a wide range of therapeutic services from the field of spa treatment and wellness.

Literature specifies only the concept of the tourist function.¹ However, this function takes into account the diverse range of tourism activities, and thus the concept of the tourist function does not always adequately clarifies the role,

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¹ i.e. A. Matczak, *Funkcja wypoczynkowa strefy podmiejskiej Łodzi*. Zakład Geografii Miast i Turyzmu, Uniwersytet Łódzki, Łódź 1982, p. 6.

which is fulfilled in the analyzed area. One of the tourist area sub-functions, which often defies from the scientific framework definition of the tourist function is the spa function. It is, therefore, worth defining this specific tourist function, and then submit a proposal to measure the level of advancement, using the concept of spa function indicator, which is also the purpose of this article.

1. Spa function definition

The spa function is the socio-economic activity carried out in the spa, which is aimed at spa tourists and patients services, and which is fulfilled in the national economy and health care of the spa.² Expanding slightly the above definition, we can conclude that the *spa function* is the role of fully-related activities connected with spa treatment carried out there and tourism in the spa. Thus, this function takes into account the patients' activity in the area of tourism and tourists in the area of the spa.

Therefore, the development of the spa functions will be understood (widely understood) as development of tourist and therapeutic activity conducted at the spa, including the activities of Department of Spa Treatment (DST) in respect of provided spa treatment services and tourism services.³

Tourist function specialization in the spa is deliberately not limited to the therapeutic aspect (as a therapeutic function), since it is wider than of purely medical nature only. Contemporary DST are not only of therapeutic but also of tourist function, that is why there is the concept of the spa and not curative functions. This approach does not eliminate the application of *tourist-healing function* as a synonym, because, although it does not cover all the functions performed in the spa, it certainly mentions two main, i.e., tourist and treatment.

² A.R. Szromek, *Wskaźniki funkcji turystycznej. Koncepcja wskaźnika funkcji turystycznej i uzdrowiskowej*, Wyd. Politechniki Śląskiej, Gliwice 2012, p. 193.

³ A.R. Szromek, *Przegląd wskaźników funkcji turystycznej i ich zastosowanie w ocenie rozwoju turystycznego obszaru na przykładzie gmin województwa śląskiego*, Zeszyty Naukowe Politechniki Śląskiej, Seria Organizacja i Zarządzanie, z. 54, Gliwice 2010, pp. 295–309.

2. Spa function measurement

Tourist function indicators which are used nowadays, describe the function of spa area only to a limited extent. It results from several specific features of the spa area and the fact of generalization of certain characteristics that describe the movement in the spa, in the phase of data collection and their analysis using traditional indicators of tourist function. Some of the numbers required for the calculations of the tourist function, e.g. a number of visitors, include tourists arriving on a specific area regardless of purposes of visits. Meanwhile, it seems reasonable to study the development of specific features of interest (e.g. spa) to determine the causes of changes in tourism development area function. By studying the function of spa, more attention will be paid to information on the number of both spa tourists and paratourists, parapatients and patients of DST⁴ or even spa tourists and travelers in general, than only the number of generally categorized tourists coming to the spa.

It is also worth expanding the scope of spa function analysis outside the spa function development, taking into account other aspects of this phenomenon as well. Therefore, it seems that assessing the spa function, three aspects describing spa function development should be taken into account (Fig. 1). They are:

- Spa function development level,
- Spa function definition level,
- Spa potential.⁵

⁴ A.R. Szromek, *Typologia turystów a typologia odwiedzających uzdrowisko – przegląd typologii*, in: *Zeszyty Naukowe Politechniki Śląskiej, Seria Organizacja i Zarządzanie*, z. 54, Gliwice 2010, pp. 291–304.

⁵ Hence, the development of the tourist and therapeutic activity of the area spas to the concept of the development of the spa functions are not deliberately limited, as it would be unauthorized limitation, resulting not only from the threat of committing a tautology, but primarily from the fact that a broader understanding of the scope of the properties of the specific function. According to the author this includes not only the development of features, but also its definition and potential.

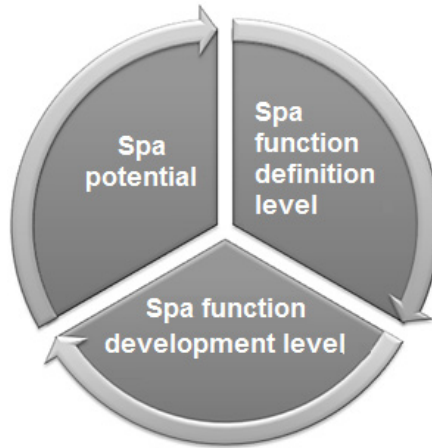


Fig. 1. Components of spa function indicator

Source: own study.

This approach is known in the literature through the concept of J. Warszyńska, who estimated the functions of tourist in a similar manner,⁶ characterizing it by the degree of development and defining the tourist function and modification of this idea made by the author.⁷

The first category of spa function evaluation is the degree of development of the spa function, which can be determined by the number of patients' relationship to the number of permanent residents $S_{P/R}$.

$$S_{P/R} = \frac{P}{R}, \quad (1)$$

where:

P – number of spa patients staying in a resort in the considered period,

R – number of permanent residents in the period.

⁶ J. Warszyńska, *Funkcja turystyczna Karpat polskich*, "Folia Geographica. Series Geographica – Oeconomica", 1985, 18:1, pp. 79–104.

⁷ A.R. Szromek, *Dwuwymiarowy wskaźnik funkcji turystycznej i jego zastosowanie w ocenie rozwoju turystycznego obszaru*, in: *Zeszyty Metodyczno-Naukowe AWF Katowice Nr 34, Spoty i turystyka – aspekty społeczne, ekonomiczne i prawne*, J. Kantyka (ed.), Katowice 2012, pp. 127–142.

Defining spa features can be described as the degree of dominance of activity resulting from the spa function, so it is proposed to adopt the determinant of this aspect of the spa feature as the ratio of treatment activity in relation to the total tourist activities conducted within the area of the spa.

Due to the differences in length of stay in the spa it seems reasonable to take into account both the number of patients $S_{P/T}$ (2), accommodation granted by DST $DSTGB_{U/N}$ (3), and the accommodation in DST $S_{DSTB/M}$ (4). The average of these three indices convention is a degree of definition of the spa functions $S\%$ (5).

$$S_{P/T} = \frac{P}{T} 100\% , \quad (2)$$

$$DSTGB_{U/N} = \frac{UDSTGB}{GB} 100\% , \quad (3)$$

$$S_{MDSTB/M} = \frac{DSTB}{B} 100\% , \quad (4)$$

$$S_{\%} = \frac{1}{3} S_{P/T} + DSTGB_{U/N} + S_{MDSTB/M} , \quad (5)$$

where:

P – number of patients staying in the spa in the considered period,

T – number of tourists staying in the spa in the considered period,

B – number of beds in the spa in the considered period,

$DSTB$ – number of beds in DST in the considered period,

$DSTGB$ – number of granted beds in DST in the considered period,

GB – number of granted beds in the spa in the considered period.

The third aspect, which should be taken into account in the measurement of the spa function is the ability of further development of this function. It seems that every obtained therapeutic profile is an additional resource potential of the area, because their number (F) can be a symptom of the capacity for further development.

A phased approach to a spa function indicator is presented in a diagram (Fig. 2).

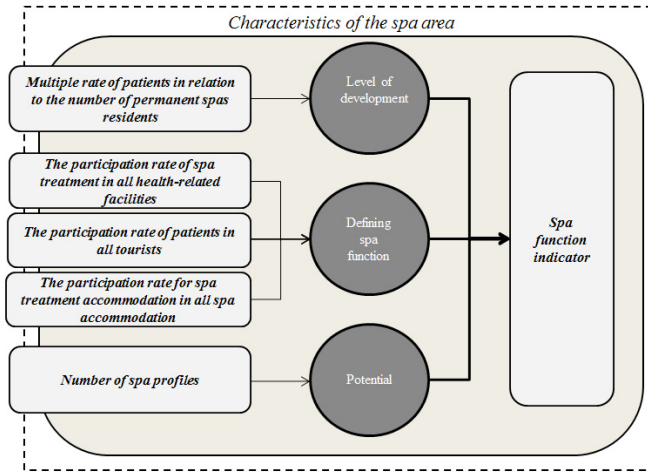


Fig. 2. Scheme of the calculation of the spa function development indicator
Source: own study

Synthetic measure of the spa function can be therefore determined using the following spa function indicator⁸:

$$S = \frac{P}{R} \cdot S_{\%} \cdot F = \frac{P \cdot F \cdot S_{\%}}{R} \quad (6)$$

3. The use of spa function indicator

In determining the specific terms of the criterion of ranking spa functions, CSO data from 2009 (collected in 2010) were used, from which it follows that the best developed spa area is located in Ciechocinek. The spa significantly dissociates the remaining spa communes (Table 1). This result is mainly due to the significant defining of spa function (because for each inhabitant of Ciechocinek there are 6.6 patients) and a large number of medicinal profiles.

It is worth noting, however, that another spas are Kolobrzeg and Krynica, which complement the three most developed resorts. The result of Krakow is also interesting, where a spa feature seems to be the least developed compared to other spa communes. This is, of course, from the fact that a large population

⁸ A.R. Szromek, *Wskaźniki funkcji turystycznej...*, op. cit., pp. 193–200.

Static view illustrated in Table 1 recognizes the nature of the level of tourism development for a specified year. It seems, however, that dynamic look can support analysis of the development of individual spas in over several years. The study was expanded to include the value of the spa function indicator for Kolobrzeg in the years 1995–2011 (for the adjusted data).

Figure 3 shows the value of the indicator function of the spa for Kolobrzeg with the number of patients who came to Kolobrzeg each year. This statement is not accidental, as it is noted that the number of patients significantly affects the volatility of spa function indicator. This is particularly evident in relation to patients' residents of spas, which also is a mapping of spa function indicator. However, do not ignore the important role played by the definition of a spa function indicator.

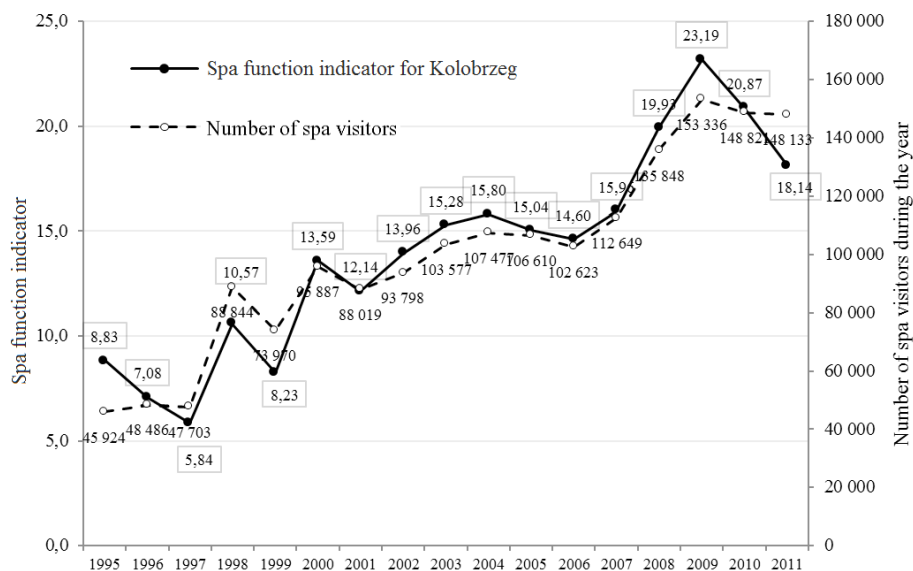


Fig. 3. Spa function Indicator of Kolobrzeg and the number of patients in 1995–2009

Source: own study.

It is worth noticing that the value of the spa functions of Kolobrzeg took upward trend, though not without corrections visible in 1995–1997, 1999, 2001, 2005–2006 and 2010–2011 (Fig. 4).

of Krakow and the presence of many other functions than that of a spa area.

Table 1

Calculation results of development of spa function indicator in 2009

No	Spa commune	Level of spa function development	The share of spas among all locations (%)	The share of patients among all tourists (%)	The share of spa accommodation among all accommodation (%)	Defining spa function (%)	Profile numbers	Spa function indicators
		P/R	SMDSTB/M	SP/T	DSTGBU/N	S	F	S
1	Ciechocinek	6.6	77.1	74.6	93.2	81.6	13	70.33
2	Kołobrzeg	2.8	42.3	44.0	64.7	50.3	11	15.49 *
3	Krynica Zdrój	2.6	29.0	24.7	52.8	35.5	14	12.75
4	Uście Gorlickie	1.6	52.9	57.1	84.7	64.9	11	11.14
5	Iwonicz Zdrój	1.2	57.4	65.1	86.3	69.6	12	10.41
6	Szczawnica	3.0	44.9	37.4	70.9	51.1	6	9.28
7	Ustroní	2.4	36.5	19.6	63.8	40.0	9	8.46
8	Solina	2.7	21.7	20.6	44.2	28.8	10	7.70
9	Busko Zdrój	0.7	84.8	76.8	95.3	85.6	11	6.60
10	Muszyna	1.3	31.4	47.7	64.4	47.8	10	6.23
11	Goczałkowice	0.6	90.8	89.8	99.1	93.2	9	5.45
12	Inowrocław	0.4	90.5	80.1	96.7	89.1	11	4.28
13	Niemcza	0.6	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	6	3.85
14	Goldap	0.4	84.4	80.4	97.9	87.6	10	3.36
15	Naléczów	3.4	86.4	68.2	93.4	82.7	1	2.77
16	Szczawnno Zdrój	0.5	40.3	25.5	45.6	37.1	13	2.63

17	Horyniec Zdrój	0.8	78.5%	72.8%	88.9%	80.1%	4	2.49
18	Świnoujście	0.7	18.6%	25.7%	40.4%	28.2%	10	2.11
19	Rabka Zdrój	0.5	32.8%	32.2%	55.2%	40.1%	8	1.46
20	Brześć Kujawski	0.5	93.9%	95.4%	95.1%	94.8%	3	1.44
21	Duszniki Zdrój	0.8	20.5%	9.2%	24.5%	18.1%	8	1.12
22	Poleczyn Zdrój	0.3	34.4%	47.4%	68.1%	50.0%	8	1.04
23	Polanica Zdrój	0.5	21.7%	10.1%	27.2%	19.7%	9	0.96
24	Solec Zdrój	0.4	35.1%	16.1%	37.0%	29.4%	6	0.69
25	Rymanów	0.2	26.9%	20.5%	75.9%	41.1%	9	0.64
26	Sopot	0.4	15.9%	8.3%	33.0%	19.1%	7	0.48
27	Piwniczna Zdrój	0.5	11.9%	14.9%	34.6%	20.5%	4	0.45
28	Darłowo	0.6	5.1%	15.2%	20.0%	13.4%	6	0.45
29	Kudowa Zdrój	0.3	11.6%	6.5%	12.5%	10.2%	10	0.35
30	Ustka	0.3	4.0%	7.0%	15.2%	8.7%	12	0.33
31	Łądek Zdrój	0.2	14.3%	8.4%	23.4%	15.4%	10	0.32
32	Świeradów Zdrój	0.5	8.3%	4.9%	5.2%	6.1%	7	0.23
33	Augustów	0.1	8.6%	6.9%	28.4%	14.6%	6	0.11
34	Jelenia Góra	0.0	15.6%	7.0%	21.8%	14.8%	7	0.05
35	Kraków	0.0	0.2%	0.0%	0.4%	0.2%	6	0.00

Source: own study.

* the table presents a summary compiled on the basis of CSO data for 2009 released in 2010, but in 2013 some of the data were corrected, thus the corrected rate for Kołobrzeg for 2009 is 23.10.

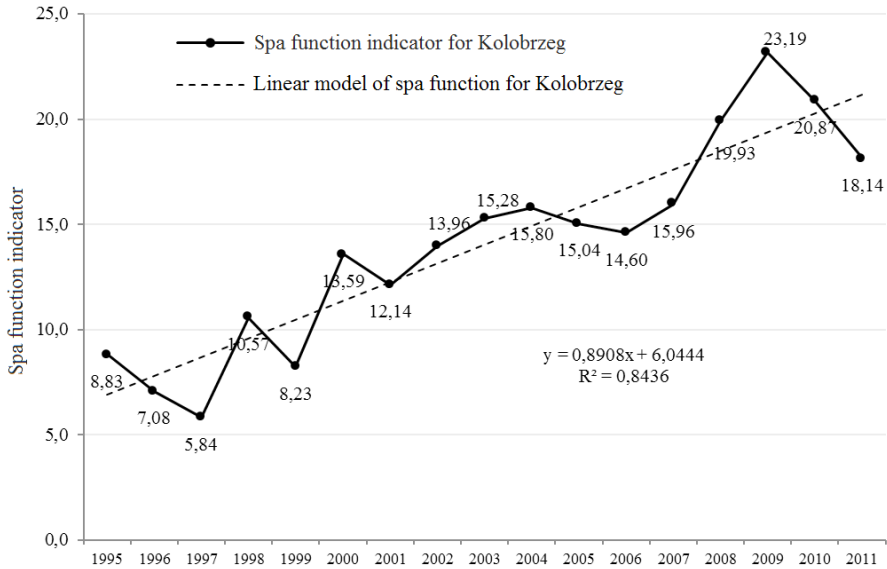


Fig. 4. Spa function Indicator of Kolobrzeg and its model

Source: own study.

Overall view of the development of this size indicates a relatively regular increase in take into account not only the amount of traffic the spa, but also the size of the potential and defines the spa function. On average, the indicator function of Kolobrzeg spa increases by 0.89 each year.

Conclusion

Kolobrzeg is a unique city implementing the function of tourism. Its uniqueness lies not only in the tourist attractions, but it also performs many specific features of interest, one of the most important being a spa. There is no way not to notice Ciechocinek which is also noted as an area of best developed spa features. However, it should be noted that Ciechocinek is primarily a health resort, which is visited mainly by (because 76%) patients having to take spa treatment. Meanwhile, Kolobrzeg is visited mainly during holiday – by the sea oriented tourists, and spa visitors account for 44% of the population of people coming to this resort. It can also be noted that a higher degree of development

of the spa feature is not only Ciechocinek, but also Szczawnica and Naleczów. However, Kolobrzeg has a well-developed and documented potential of tourism and spa, which allows for the implementation of both traditional and modern spa functions (combining traditional treatments of naturopathy treatments type of spa & wellness).

The presented method of estimating functions of the spa is one of the proposals for measuring the complex phenomenon of the development of the tourist and therapeutic activity of the spa area. Although the impact of the traffic volume of the spa is the key here, however, it is balanced with other aspects of this phenomenon, such as defining spa features, and a number of ongoing therapeutic profiles, representing the determinant of the potential of natural medicine. The advantage of this approach to measure the function of the spa is to reduce the influence of the amount of tourist traffic in the spa to assess the level of development of the spa functions. Thus, the indicator function of the spa can specify the measurements made using tourist function indicators and point to the specific role of the area.

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**WSKAŹNIK FUNKCJI UZDROWISKOWEJ JAKO MIARA ROZWOJU
DZIAŁALNOŚCI TURYSTYCZNO-LECZNICZEJ W UZDROWISKU****Streszczenie**

Praca prezentuje autorską koncepcję wskaźnika funkcji uzdrowiskowej. Konstrukcję wskaźnika oparto stopniu rozwoju działalności turystyczno-leczniczej, zdefiniowaniu funkcji uzdrowiskowej oraz wielkości potencjału uzdrowiskowego. Autor prezentuje również wynik zastosowania wskaźnika przedstawiając ranking gmin uzdrowiskowych oraz wyjaśnia rozwój uzdrowiska Kołobrzeg w latach 1995–2011 zgodnie z zastosowaną metodologią.

Słowa kluczowe: uzdrowisko, turystyka zdrowotna, turystyka uzdrowiskowa, wskaźnik

FUNCTIONING OF TOURISM MARKET

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NATIONAL AND INTERNATIONAL TOURISM POLICY IN THE FACE OF 21ST CENTURY CHALLENGES

Abstract

The purpose of this paper is to introduce the reader to the most important dilemma of tourism and problems of tourism policy at the beginning of the 21st century. Practically all prognosis show that in the next twenty years tourism will be one of the fastest growing branch of the world economy. The dynamic growth of tourism is accompanied by deep changes in quality. They are seen as a matter of tourism demand as well as a matter of tourism supply. Fast changes in social, environmental and technological structure widely also affect the tourism policy, both on national and international level. The range of the transformation is so big that without any hesitation we can speak about a revolution which occurs in the whole world of travel and tourism in general. This places new challenges before the traditional conception of tourism policy. The basis for it is the analysis of the most important factors which are called "megatrends". There is more particular information directly connected with problems of the tourism system and tourism policy on national and international level. In this article, author puts forward the thesis that the extraordinarily dynamic changes underway in the broadly-defined tourism "environment" (such as the globalization of the economy, and others that are transforming the whole modern world: "megatrends") have such a major impact on the way the tourism market functions, and generate such problems for the industry that it is crucial to revise our views on the scope and forms of tourism policies. Many of the key issues for the further development of tourism are such that they require solving not only on a national scale, but on an international, or even a global one.

Keywords: tourism policy, megatrends, globalization, international cooperation, Multi-Level Governance

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Contemporary tourism is a very complex phenomenon, that affects millions of people around the world. Among them are consumers, deliverers of tourist products or simply residents of reception areas. All of these people interact with the tourist sector everyday. In particular the significance of tourism is emphasized in terms of importance to functioning of contemporary societies. Tourism is one of the largest sectors in global economy and in addition it is a specific designator of modern era and a measure of quality of life. It is characterized by numerous ties with many branches of social and economic life. Tourism has a major influence on the use of space and character of infrastructure, boosts employment and regional development, and depicts strong ties with education, culture and healthcare. At the same time it's heavily dependent on environment quality, transport, security, new technologies etc. All of the factors mentioned above suggest that tourism (in the last several decades) is recognized by the government and is considered one of the elements of policy carried out at various levels of management and administration. In the recent years scientists developed some generalization and theories, which facilitate the planning process and guidance of tourism development. Such achievements, in great summary may be referred to as tourism policy.

Tourism requires coordinated activity in different branches of economy as well as solving countless problems regarding social backgrounds. Having said that, the development of tourism must be planned. The best way to achieve this is goal is to initiate conscious tourism policy in individual countries. Regions and countries where tourism development is not controlled, experience many problems (social, economical, ecological, cultural and even political). On the other hand, carefully planned tourism development enables to eliminate such problems. It should be noted here, that most of these problems are an internal characteristic of most regions that undergo rapid development.¹ Conscious tourism policy, carried out by specialized governmental institutions in agreement with the private sector and territorial self-managements, successfully impedes any problems. Therefore, most countries nowadays realize their own tourism policy.²

¹ D.L. Edgell, M.D. Allen, G. Smith, J. Swanson, *Tourism Policy and Planning: Yesterday, Today and Tomorrow*, Elsevier, 2008.

² J. Elliot, *Tourism. Politics and Public Sector Management*, Routledge, London 1997.

1. Definition of tourism policy including approaches used for analysis on national and international level

The interdisciplinary character of tourism as well as variable nature of tourist market creates a challenge for tourism development planning and successful accomplishment of tourism policy. Broad knowledge is obviously required in this matter.³ It should be emphasized that one of the most important conditions that allows achieving success in every domain and on various levels of tourist activity is the knowledge of mechanisms that pertain to tourist market operation. Making rational decisions and stimulating desired processes that enable development, requires the ability to forecast development processes. Without them it's hard to achieve successful tourism policy management. It should be stressed, that in case of tourism, the knowledge and skills that enable proper utilization within its boundaries, must pertain to a rather broad group of processes. This of course, is highly reflected in the research methods that are being applied. We can distinguish at least 10 basic approaches that deal with tourism studies: institutional, historical, organizational, economic, sociological, geographic, via products, interdisciplinary and systemic.⁴ As pointed out, tourism can be analyzed from different points of view. Subsequently this provides vast possibilities of usage and application of ideas by people engaged in tourism policy issues.

The term of *tourism policy* has two meanings. The first meaning pertains to the practical activity of decision-making centers (usually federal), which thanks to certain means strive to achieve established goals in the tourist sector. The second meaning is more often used when referring to an independent discipline of knowledge, which studies the interactions that take place between the state and functioning of tourism. This existing ambiguity of *tourism policy* hinders the presentation of various standpoints in this matter. It is difficult to define tourism policy because definition problems also relate to the term tourism itself. In scientific literature there are several interesting definitions of tourism, but we

³ L. Ambrosie, *Tourism policy research: avenues for the future*, in: "International Journal of Tourism Policy" 2010, Vol. 3(1), pp. 33–50.

⁴ Ch.R. Goeldner, B.J.R. Ritchie, *Tourism. Principles, Practices, Philosophies*, Tenth Edition, John Wiley & Sons, New Jersey 2006.

will not get involved in lengthy discussions concerning this matter.⁵ Therefore, we can assume that: “*tourism policy includes any activity of federal authorities at various levels (national, regional, local) that are aimed at satisfying tourist needs of the community, rational usage of tourist qualities as well as work, resources and capital within tourist economic branch. This activity also incorporates shaping the optimal size and structure of tourist movement, and coordinating tourism development that includes its numerous functions and ties with various spheres of social and economic life*”.⁶

The above-mentioned definition of tourism policy concentrates on the most common understanding of this term, namely that its accomplishment is the key domain of federal institutions. In fact, tourism policy is primarily carried out by governments of individual countries. They designate various types of institutions that function on different levels of federal and self-governmental administration.⁷ It should be added, however, that individual enterprises that operate in different branches of the tourist market are capable of managing their own tourism policy.⁸ This situation pertains mainly to large non-national companies (tour-operators, hotel chains, air lines).⁹ It is possible that effects of tourism policy carried out by such companies often have greater impact on the functioning of tourism in individual countries than federal policy of these nations. At present certain economic and regional societies aspire to conduct their own tourism policy (such as OECD, ASEAN).¹⁰ This also includes international tourist organizations – both those geared toward tourism (e.g. UNWTO, WT&TC, UFTAA) and para-tourism

⁵ The discussion concerning the evolution of the term tourism as well as various contemporary interpretations of tourism is presented among others in the book: W. Alejziak, *Turystyka w obliczu wyzwań XXI wieku [Tourism in the Face of 21st Century's Challenges]*, Albis, Kraków 1999, pp. 15–29.

⁶ W. Alejziak, *Polityka turystyczna [Tourism Policy]*, in: *Nauki o turystyce [Tourism Sciences]*, part II, R. Winiarski (ed.), *Studia i Monografie*, 7, AWF Kraków 2004, pp. 40–91 (in Polish).

⁷ Apart from tourism policy in macro-scale, own policy, although somewhat limited is carried out by regions, counties and specific tourist resorts.

⁸ M. Frenck, *Establishing a travel policy*, in: *Business Travel News* 4/21 (20), 2003, p. 9.

⁹ P. Jones, A. Pizam, (eds.), *The International Hospitality Industry. Organizational and Operational Issues*, John Wiley & Sons, Pitman Publishing, 1993; W.F. Theobald, *Global Tourism*, Butterworth-Heinemann, 2004.

¹⁰ S.J. Page, *Tourism Management. Managing for Change*, Butterworth/Heinemann, 2003, pp. 286–287.

(IATA, IFN).¹¹ For many years, mutual tourism policy is carried out in certain fields by nations that belong to the European Union.¹² It should be mentioned, that in such cases appropriate organs are appointed in these nations, which are responsible for tourism policy. Nevertheless, most decisions have been passed within EU institutions, particularly in the European Committee. Under these circumstances we are able to point out certain elements of mutual international tourism policy,¹³ and maybe global tourism policy.¹⁴ Given that the tourism research community acknowledges the lack of a definition that renders the essence of the conditions, phenomena, and processes in the international tourism market and the contemporary tourism policy presented here, we have provisionally accepted that: “*an international (global?) tourism policy is, in general terms, an activity accepted by the international society, undertaken by various decision-making centers on the basis of contemporary international relations, which aims to rein in negative phenomena accompanying contemporary tourism, and to create the optimal conditions for its further development on a global scale*”.

2. The prognosis of tourism development in the beginning of the 21st century

The prognosis of tourism's development are very optimistic. All prognostic reports says about its quick development and claim that during the next twenty years tourism industry will be one of the fastest developing departments of the world's economy. But in this reports experts pointed also main dangers to

¹¹ W. Alejsiak, T. Marciniec, *Międzynarodowe organizacje turystyczne [International tourist organizations]*, Albis, Kraków 2003 (in Polish).

¹² G. Akehurst, *European Community tourism policy*, in: *Perspectives on Tourism Policy*, P. Johnson, B. Thomas (eds.), Mansell, London, 1992, pp. 215–231; H. Zawistowska, *Polityka Unii Europejskiej wobec sektora turystycznego [European Union policy in relation to tourist branch]*, in: *Unia Europejska a przyszłość polskiej turystyki [European Union and the future of Polish tourism]*, Katedra Turystyki, SGH, Warszawa 2003, pp. 9–24 (in Polish).

¹³ D.L. Edgell, *International Tourism Policy*, Van Nostrand Reinhold, New York 1990.

¹⁴ The range and forms of such policy have not been fully outlined so far, however, global issues (degradation of environment for example) create a situation where international cooperation will have a greater impact in the future. The principal role in shaping global tourism policy is attributed to World Tourism Organization (UNWTO). Its mission is to “serve as a global forum in establishing tourism policy and at the same time being a practical source of tourist know how”. Online: <http://www.world-tourism.org>.

tourism development, including problems with political situation in the world, especially: ethnic conflicts, unstable situation in the Arab World, disorganisation of the authorities and conflicts in the former territory of the Soviet's empire (especially the recent problem "Russia-Ukraine"). Less important are economic factors like: economic recession, increase of gas prices etc. Nevertheless all forecasts are optimistic about tourism development in the 21st century. The quantitative tourism development is accompanied by multiaspect qualitative and structural transformations of contemporary tourist market. They are connected with demand and tourist supply. The transformations in a sphere of needs, motivations, and tourist's demands create a new directions of working in a tourist firms. A quick tempo of bringing a modern technologies into tourism is a herald of a real revolution in organisation of the tourism system.

A phenomenon that poses a number challenges for tourism is globalization.¹⁵ Tourism is an inherently international phenomenon, and thus substantially globalized from its inception. Globalization demands that tourism creates the ability to balance global standards with local demands and needs, and can meet the material needs of a global community without increasing inequalities or destroying the environment. In opinion of C. Cooper, these are the real challenges of the global/local nexus.¹⁶

These selected examples show that tourism – like all civilisation undergoes changes. What kind of tasks will tourism have in the beginning of the new century? It seems that an attempt at answering these questions should be started from the analysis of these trends. There are a lot of factors which decide about the future shape of the tourist market, moreover many of them are out of the tourism control.¹⁷ The more important conditions of the tourism development and their influence on components of the tourism system are presented below.

¹⁵ S. Cornelissen, *The global tourism system: governance, development, and lessons from South Africa*, Ashgate Publishing, 2005; H.L. Theuns, *Globalization and Tourism: Pros and cons*, "Tourism Recreation Research" 2008, Vol. 33(1), pp. 99–105; S. Wahab, C. Cooper (eds.), *Tourism in the Age of Globalisation*, Routledge, London-New York 2001.

¹⁶ C. Cooper, *Globalization is More than Economic Phenomenon*, "Tourism Recreation Research" 2008, Vol. 33(1), pp. 109–111.

¹⁷ R.Ch. Mill, A.M. Morrison, *The Tourism System*, Third Edition, Kendaal/Hunt Publishing Company, Prentice-Hall, 1998; A. Sessa, *The Science of Systems for Tourism Development*, "Annals of Tourism Research" 1988, Vol. 15, pp. 19–235.

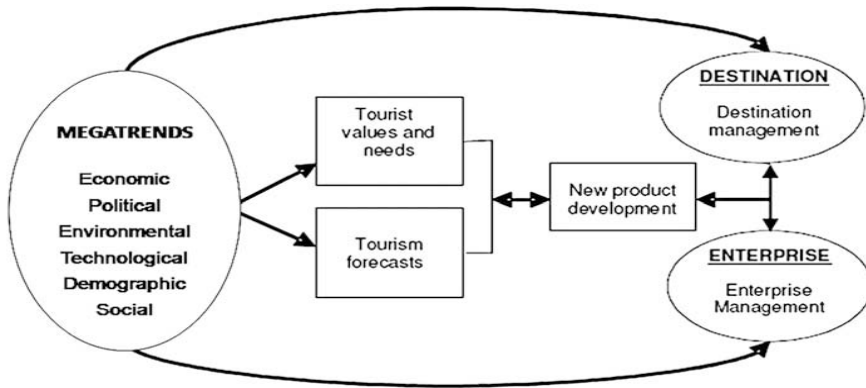


Fig. 1. Forces of changes in the tourist system – influence of megatrends on tourism

Source: L. Dwyer, D. Edwards, N. Mistilis, C. Roman, *Destination and enterprise management for a tourism future*, „Tourism Management” 2009 Vol. 30, p. 64.

The graph shows multitude and diverse character of factors decisive in tourism development. Consequently these factors constitute the principles of formulating tourism policy. The diagram stressed significance of the main groups of factors which decide about tourism in the 21st century. Because of limited frames of this publication the megatrends influencing to tourism are presented in Table I.

Table 1

The main six group of megatrends affecting tourism

<p>Demographic Factors:</p> <p>The age of societies; The tendency to set up home late; Smaller number of family/households; Increase in the number of childless families; Increasing number of lonely persons; Increasing number of working women. Increase in economic migration from “South” to “North” and from “East” to “West”.</p>	<p>Political Factors:</p> <p>Changes in the Central/Western Europe; Integration of the European Union; Liberalisation of international migration; The convenience of passports, visas, currency; Unstable political situations in many regions of the world; Radical demands and an increase in the importance of ethnic, fundamentalist movements etc. International terrorism.</p>
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<p>Social & Cultural Factors: Shortened work day, more free time and longer vacations; Earlier retirements; Increase of time for additional work; Increased number of “two-income” households; Turn toward healthy lifestyles; Family crisis; Crisis of faith and religion as important elements and factors shaping social relations; Conflicts between identity and modernisation, especially in developing countries and among immigrants.</p>	<p>Economic Factors: Globalization; Diversity and regional changes in economic development on a world scale (increase in the significance of the “BRIC countries” – Brazil, Russia, India, and China); Greater disproportion between rich and poor countries; Economic and financial crisis in many countries and regions of the world; Increasing price of petroleum and natural gas and hopes linked to the use of shale gas; Liberalisation and development of international trade; Concentration of capital in the world’s economy; Introduction of a single European currency (the euro) and the growth of its significance in international economic circulation.</p>
<p>Technological Factors: Automation and computerisation (development of computing systems); Development of telecommunication Development of transport and infrastructure (airports, highways); Use of modern technologies in everyday life (household articles, satellite television, Internet, sports equipment); Development of soft technologies (e.g. franchising, outsourcing);</p>	<p>Environmental & Ecological Factors: Smaller environmental resources; Climate change and natural disasters; Increased ecological awareness of society – development of the ecological movement; Conflicts caused by the development of large agglomerations (in developing and developed countries); Government care for the environment and international collaboration in the fields of natural and cultural environment protection.</p>

Source: author’s materials.

In the all of these groups, there are positive factors that will be stimulating or braking tourism development. Each of them has a different strength of effect. They are difficult to verify, they decide about dynamism and directions of tourism development. The most of them (especially demographic, social-cultural, ecological and technological trends) have such strong character and influence on tourism development, that even economical recession and political crisis in some regions, is not able to stop its development.¹⁸ The main, but only chosen changes (trends) in contemporary tourist market are presented in Table 2.

¹⁸ L. Dwyer (ed.), *Megatrends underpinning Tourism to 2020. Analysis of key drivers for change*, Sustainable Tourism Cooperative Research, Australia, 2008, <http://www.sustainabletourisonline.com/5/understanding-visitors/megatrends-underpinning-tourism-to-2020-analysis-of-key-drivers-for-change>.

Table 2

Changes in the tourism system – the conception “Old & New Tourism”

The characteristic features of the modern tourism	The characteristic features of the traditional tourism
A buyer's market dominates, and travel agencies work in a permanent international competition system, which causes a narrow margin of profit.	In recent years – there was a balance, and a producer's market dominated in some countries and all geographical regions (e.g. socialistic countries).
Trans-border character of the tourism industry. The larger number of big corporations. Uniting and buying companies out.	In recent years – at a national markets dominated local travel agencies, airlines, and hotels
Extension of spheres of activity in the tourist market, among so called “great players” (airlines, hotel chains).	In recent years – domination of a clear specialization, extension of activity field with the help of other firms.
Decrease of agent's meaning, especially travel agencies. Delivers try to reach a client individually (Internet, telemarketing)	In recent years – at the detail sale markets dominated some great agencies, connected with a main tour-operators and wholesalers.
Conscious tourist policy of countries and international organisations (UNWTO, IATA etc.).	In recent years – spontaneous development of tourism.
Analysis of tourism development. Taking into consideration all factors (economical social, cultural, ecological etc.).	In recent years – analyses of tourism development considered mainly economical factors – the economical development, profits.
Liberalisation in the field of international travelling.	In recent years – a lot of difficulties with international travelling.
Standardisation of products and the tourist law (e.g. The Tourist Card in the UE countries).	In recent years – there wasn't any popular system of client protection (e.g. categorisation of hotels).
Strong stress at a quality side of tourism.	In recent years – only a quantitative aspect (growth)
Diversity of tourist products. Their adaptation to different preferences of clients (special offers).	In recent years – domination of standard package tours, without any tourist motivations, needs and preferences.
Orientation at a new values, as a factor which decides about purchasing of tourist services. Additional free services or a small fee.	In recent years – orientation at prices, as a factor which decides about purchasing. Disorganisation of the tourist market, some spectacular bankruptcies.
Increase of marketing activity. Popularity of a violent promotion, directed to a concrete, selected segments of the market.	In recent years – a fixed catalogue prices. Promotion of companies, not concrete products. Promotion directed to all potential clients.
Flexibility of tourist firms' activity. Spontaneous decisions made at the last minute.	In recent years – reservations made in tourist firms, many months before a trip.

The characteristic features of the modern tourism	The characteristic features of the traditional tourism
Using of modern mass-media, and promotion technologies (CD-Room, a Gable TV).	In recent years – a traditional brochure was a basic source of tourism information.
Care of the environment protection, culture and local people business. Sustainable tourism development.	In recent years – lack of the environment care and bad influence of tourism on the environment and local people business.
Demand for a high qualified tourist staff. Natural flow of workers. A high education development.	In recent years – staff were from different trades, consider that the work in tourism requires more predisposition than knowledge.

Source: author's materials.

An analysis of megatrends and changes in tourist market presented earlier poses many questions concerning the development of tourism and the role of tourism policy. How will these changes affect tourism itself, and nations' attitudes toward tourist companies, states, and destinations? Is it possible to solve problems caused by the expected increase in tourism development by implementing the present canons of tourism policy?

3. Perspectives and new concepts of national and international tourism policy

The development of tourism, however – particularly given how dramatic it has been over the past few years – yields many problems. These problems are generated both within the tourism system and outside of it. The first few years of the 21st century have indicated that they are not going to go away, and that tourism will continue to confront new challenges. This also affects tourism policies, which – much like tourism itself – will need to undergo changes.¹⁹ There is a common belief that people engaged in the practical side of tourism policy should concentrate on making tourism a modern economic sector and a source of economic prosperity for the organizers, service personnel and residents of highly tourist regions. At the same time, negative processes that accompany tourism development need to be eliminated. These include: environment degradation, unequal distribution of benefits created by this development, the reduction

¹⁹ C. Cooper, C.M. Hall, *Contemporary tourism: an international approach*, Butterworth-Heinemann 2007.

of local influence on decision-making processes, the dominance of corporations, social pathologies etc.²⁰

The above-mentioned problems form the main study area on tourism policy. Unfortunately, the majority only contribute to the dilemma, and such studies pertain only to selected aspects of how tourism functions [predominately marketing and management]. There is an insufficient number of studies that treat tourism policy as a complex phenomenon linked with processes that change the image of contemporary world.²¹ These processes include: globalization, accumulation of capital, the decreasing role of nations and the growing significance of international organizations, changes in social structure, new models for organizing public life etc. There is a clear lack of publications that would signal a breakthrough or determine a new quality in a national approach to tourism. On the other hand, unusually rapid change occurring in tourist branch and other affiliated areas make previously developed models unverifiable and prevent us from solving various problems in tourism policy.²²

An analysis of megatrends and changes in tourist market presented earlier poses many questions concerning the development of tourism and the role of tourism policy. How will these changes affect tourism itself, and nations' attitudes toward tourist companies, states, destinations and the main international tourist organizations? Is it possible to solve problems caused by the expected increase in tourism development by implementing the present canons of tourism policy? It would seem that we should find new forms, new instruments and new platforms of tourism policy developing, including international cooperation. One of the most interesting and the most applicable conception here is the Multi-Level Governance (MLG) Theory.²³ The basic value of this concept comes not only

²⁰ W. Alejziak, *Política turística en el siglo XXI*, in: *Cambio Climático y Turismo: Realidad y Ficción*, E. Fayos-Sola, J. Jafari (eds.), Universitat de Valencia, World Tourism Organization, 2009, pp. 187–210 (in Spanish).

²¹ L. Ambrosie, *Tourism policy research: avenues for the future...*, op. cit.; P.M. Burns, *Tourism Planning. A Third way?* "Annals of Tourism Research" 2003, Vol. 31, pp. 24–43; Leslie D. (1993), *Review of Perspectives on Tourism Policy*, in: *The Service Industry Journal*, Vol. 13 (4), pp. 338–340.

²² M. Kozak, *Turystyka i polityka turystyczna a rozwój: między starym a nowym paradygmatem [Tourism, tourism policy and development: between old and new paradigm]*, EUROREG, Wydawnictwo Naukowe SCHOOLAR, Warszawa 2009 (in Polish).

²³ G. Marks, L. Hooghe, K. Blank, *European Integration from the 1980s: State-Centric v. Multi-Level Governance*, "Journal of Common Market Studies" 1996, Vol. 34 (3), pp. 343–378.

from the content of the hypotheses presented, but also from the fact that – unlike many other theories – it is based on fairly solid methodological foundations, but it is also good for international cooperation in tourism policy.²⁴ This concept not only takes a modern approach to the issues, but also has a wide-angle research problem, whose basic aim is to illuminate both the conditions and the course of the cooperation and integration process itself, as well as its “product,” such as the European Union – as the most complex and effectively realized example of international cooperation and integration, also in the field of tourism policy.

It would seem that, for the time being, the development of tourism policy (both: national, and regional and local, and also international) Multi-Level Governance will probably occur along the paths described in this approach. The concept of Multi Level Governance, similarly as the “Theory of Third Way in Tourism Planning” developed by P.M. Burns,²⁵ is currently regarded as one of the more interesting attempts (approach) to use in tourism policy. MLG theory is based on the fundamental premise that there is a variety of planes for executing political interests and integration processes (local, regional, national, European, and in some cases, even global), which are linked, creating a network of sorts. Instead of a hierarchy of planes, we are dealing with numerous communication channels, which often bypass intermediate planes. National subjects (parties, relevant organizations, corporations etc.) and various sub-national actors (regional and local) try to communicate directly with institutions that make decisions on the supranational level. In relation to system of tourism policy, the MLG theory states that development of tourism and cooperation in this field cannot be based on an unbending hierarchy or the domination of a single center of power, but be based on multiplicity and diversity of actors in the contemporary tourist market and institutions creating of tourism policy. The stratus, levels and the ties between them are illustrated in the ideogram presented below.

²⁴ W. Alejziak, *A Global Tourism Policy – Utopia, Alternative or Necessity?*, “Folia Turistica”, Special Edition: “The Master Classes” 2011, No. 25(1), pp. 313–356.

²⁵ P.M. Burns, *Tourism Planning. A Third way?*, “Annals of Tourism Research” 2003, Vol. 31, pp. 24–43.

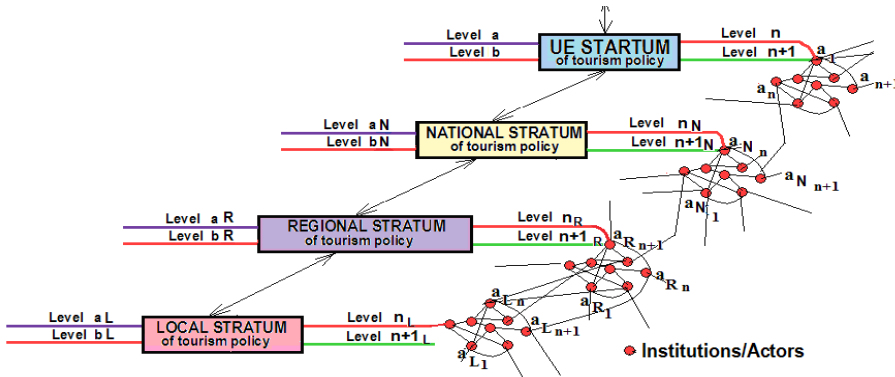


Fig. 2. Stratus, levels and networks MLG in the system of tourism policy

Source: author's diagram, based on: S. Kojło, K. Leszczyńska, S. Lipski, E. Wiszczun, *Nowe koncepcje koordynacji w systemie Multilevel Governance polityki spójności* [New Conceptions on Coordination In system of Multilevel Governance of Cohesion Policy], Warszawa 2009, p. 12.

Online: http://www.mir.gov.pl/aktualnosci/ministerstwo/Documents/Nowe_koncepcje_koordynacji_w_systemie_multi_level_governance_polityki_spojnosci.pdf.

The great corporations, the professional associations, lobbying organizations, and many other actors on the tourism market enter into set interaction with each other, above state boundaries, as it were, thus themselves becoming participants in international relations. In tourism integration processes (whether perceived in their entirety, or only in sectors – e.g. hotels, tourist transport, tour operators, tourist agencies etc.), many different subjects are engaged, and the borders between public and private actors begin to blur. Each is after his own interests, interacting with others, building various coalitions etc. There is also a certain sphere of activity in which all the actors work for the “common good” (e.g. protection of the natural environment or the cultural heritage). Considering that these interests may be local, regional, national, European, or global, and that they can be executed on various scales, it should be clear that the interactions characteristic of the MLG concept are multileveled. Tourism is a fine example of the phenomena and processes described here, which is also why this theory is adequate for analyzing the perspectives and directions of tourism policy in general and possibility and applicability of creating an international tourism policy.

Possibility of using and eventual utility of the MLG theory for the creating of tourism policy at all its level (but especially sub-national) confirm the findings of research and study of World Tourism Organization presented in the work “*Governance for the Tourism Sector and Measurements*”²⁶ – see below. The tourism governance and measurements of theirs influence on components of the tourism system are presented in the ideogram below.

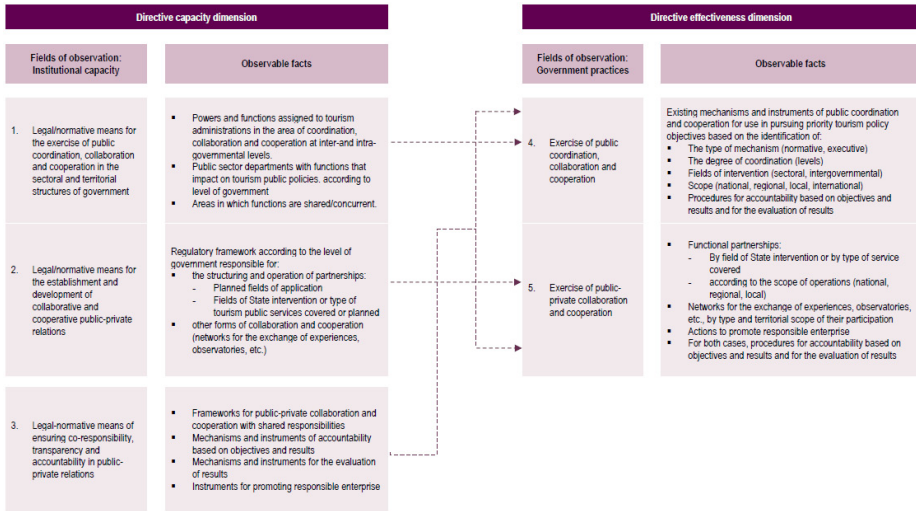


Fig. 3. Basic approach to observation for the measurement of governance in the tourism sector

Source: C.D. Fuentes, *Governance for the Tourism Sector and Measurements*, Statistics and TSA Issue Paper Series, UNWTO, Madrid 2013, p. 20.

Conclusion

The 20th century was marked by an unprecedented dynamism and scale of transformations, which took place in practically all spheres of human life. Tourism is one of the effects, and simultaneously an important indicator of these

²⁶ C.D. Fuentes, *Governance for the Tourism Sector and Measurements*, Statistics and TSA Issue Paper Series, UNWTO, Madrid 2013, p. 1.

transformations. Today, in the second decade of the 21st century, tourism is perceived as an important element of politics, both in the developed and developing countries of the world. In the former it is regarded not only as an important branch of the economy, but also as one of the most effective factors in social and cultural progress. However, changes in the world's economy and our life in general create new situation and cause that development of tourism needs changes in sphere of tourism policy. Author in this article tried to show the challenges of national and international tourism policy, which - in opinion of many researchers - correspond with more widespread discussions on the future of humanity.

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KRAJOWA I MIĘDZYNARODOWA POLITYKA TURYSTYCZNA W OBLICZU WYZWAŃ XXI WIEKU

Streszczenie

Artykuł ma na celu wprowadzenie czytelnika w problematykę podstawowych dylematów rozwoju turystyki oraz problemów polityki turystycznej w początkach XXI wieku. Praktycznie wszystkie prognozy wskazują na to, że w najbliższych dwudziestu latach turystyka będzie jedną z najszybciej rozwijających się gałęzi światowej gospodarki. Temu dynamicznemu rozwojowi towarzyszyć będą jednak głębokie zmiany jakościowe, które uwidocznia się zarówno w sferze popytu, jak i podaży turystycznej. Szybko zmieniające się uwarunkowania gospodarcze, społeczne, środowiskowe i technologiczne, mają też istotny wpływ na politykę państw w dziedzinie turystyki, zarówno na poziomie narodowym, jak i międzynarodowym. Zakres i dynamika tych zmian mogą doprowadzić do prawdziwej rewolucji w całym systemie organizacji i funkcjonowania rynku podróży i turystyki. Stawia to przed tradycyjnie pojmowaną polityką turystyczną nowe wyzwania. Punktem wyjścia do analiz na ten temat jest identyfikacja czynników nazywanych megatrendami rozwojowymi cywilizacji. Dopiero na tym tle dokonano szczegółowych analiz dotyczących uwarunkowań i problemów tkwiących wewnątrz systemu turystycznego oraz polityki turystycznej w wymiarze narodowym i międzynarodowym. W pracy autor stawia bowiem tezę, że niezwykle dynamiczne zmiany zachodzące w szeroko pojętym "otoczeniu" turystyki (takie jak globalizacja gospodarki oraz inne - zmieniające cały współczesny świat - tzw. megatrendy cywilizacyjne) mają na tyle duży wpływ na funkcjonowanie rynku turystycznego oraz generują takie problemy dla branży, iż konieczna staje się rewizja poglądów na temat zakresu oraz form prowadzenia polityki turystycznej. Wiele z kluczowych dla dalszego rozwoju turystyki problemów ma bowiem taki charakter, że wymaga ich rozwiązywania już nie tylko w skali krajowej, ale także międzynarodowej, a nawet globalnej.

Słowa kluczowe: polityka turystyczna, megatrendy, współpraca międzynarodowa, Multi-Level Governance

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TOURISM VALUE ADDED CREATION THROUGH A USER-CENTRIC CONTEXT-AWARE DIGITAL SYSTEM

Abstract

This paper seeks to focus on the idea of a user-centric context-aware digital system and its rationale in a process of tourism value creation. The purpose of the study is to offer an understanding of the context-aware applications in order to analyse their usefulness in tourism marketing. This is achieved through a literature review of existing research and the demonstration of several applications in travel and hospitality which might enrich the set of marketing tools adopted by tourism regions and enterprises.

Keywords: context-aware system, mobile applications in tourism, digital tourism, tourism value added

Introduction

Contemporary tourists like to change their itinerary during the trip and to combine several purposes with travelling, such as business, leisure, entertainment and education. The result is what can be called “bleasure” and “edutainment” tourism (Tala *et al.*, 2011; Kachniewska, 2014). The “postmodern tourists” look for the possibility to compose their tourism packages personally and to modify them during the trip according to their personal needs and interests (Kachniewska, 2011) thus becoming what Toffler defined “prosumers” (Toffler, 1970). They are not likely to invest a great deal of time to pre-plan a travel schedule in detail. For

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all the reasons they need pragmatic and logistic information within an easy reach (available anytime and anyhow) during their travel.

On the one hand, modern tourists' requirements constitute a new challenge for destination marketers. Traditional web sites and old-school CRM systems no longer provide organisations with marketing tools which could meet requirements of the advanced tourists or provide them with adequate and sufficient information. On the other hand, once having access to new marketing technologies the marketers gain a unique chance to get information about tourists' needs and habits, to affect travellers buying behaviour and provide them with the customised information on the destination attractions.

Tourism industry has been strongly influenced by the IT growth, which affected the change in marketing strategies of tourism regions and companies. Information and communication technologies (ICT) have created innovative ways for providing value to clients. The adoption of mobile devices has grown tremendously and their characteristics of mobility and connectivity support on-demand services that are tailored to users and their specific situations. With the advent of Web 2.0 digital systems became collaborative, bringing a social layer to the Web. Wearable sensors are feeding user information to social, medical and edutainment networks – there is no reason why not to use them in tourism marketing. The more that virtual communities show new opportunities for tourism firms and destinations.

Mobile value services create customer value with the support of mobile technology. While using the applications customers provide useful information on their interests and preferences thus enabling more precise market segmentation and better targeting. The future competitive advantages for a successful tourism industry will most probably be built around effective mobile value services, but few tourism destinations have already started leveraging customer relationships and building loyalty ties through virtual communities and mobile applications.

This paper is focused on the idea and the role of a user-centric and context-aware digital system. The main purpose of the study is to offer a deeper and clear-cut understanding of the context-aware applications in order to analyse their usefulness in tourism. This is achieved through a literature review of existing research and the demonstration of several applications in travel and hospitality which meet the criteria of context-awareness.

1. The idea of the user-centric context-aware digital system

With the emergence of mobile technologies, new communication platforms are emerging, making the delivery of services available through a variety of multi-channel mediums without losing their integrity or quality of their content. Inevitably, this increases user requirements: as the available products and services become more and more sophisticated, users expect to be able to personalize a service to meet their individual needs.

The explosive growth in the size and use of the World Wide Web may lead to orientation difficulties, as users often lose sight of the goal of their inquiry, look for stimulating rather than informative material, or even use the navigational features unwisely. To alleviate such navigational difficulties, researchers try to identify the peculiarities of each user group and design systems that could deliver a personalized content. Challenges therefore range not only from adapting to the heterogeneous user needs and user environment issues, such as current location and time (Panayiotou and Samaras, 2004), but also to a number of other considerations with respect to multi-channel delivery of applications. The personalisation of mobile services needs a new way of thinking about the user's role in a digital system.

A **digital system** is a distributed, adaptive, open socio-technical system with properties of self-organisation, scalability and sustainability inspired from natural ecosystems (Briscoe and Wilde, 2006). The “digital ecosystem” metaphor has been applied to a number of business areas related to the production and distribution of knowledge-intensive products and services (Damiani et al., 2007). The perspective of the research in this field is providing tools to achieve a set of objectives, e.g. sustainability, fairness, bounded information asymmetry, risk control and gracious failure as well as the context-aware designing and user centricity.

Context is any information that can be used to characterise the situation of an entity. An **entity** is a person (e.g. a tourist), place or object that is considered relevant to the interaction between a user and an application (Lau, 2012). For example, modern tourists expect location-aware information about the destination domain, including history, culture, folk, art, economics, environment and nature. They also expect individualised information and services taking into account their own interest and history of their activities (Poslad et al., 2001). By analysing users' needs and emotional sides organizations can better understand

customer demographics, buying patterns and feelings, thus planning so called “total experience design” (TxD).

Researchers have proposed different **context types** in their definitions of context. Dey and Abowd (2000) defined context to include location, temporal elements, identity and activity. Context-aware mobile tourism applications are designed to support different context types: location, identity, social and environmental context as well as network and device contexts (Cheverst et al., 2002; Setten et al., 2004; Poslad et al., 2001). Some context types, such as the identity context and social context, are supported by rich contextual properties. They include the user’s name, age, preference in food, lodgings, information-seeking trend, shopping lists and travel agenda (Pashtan et al., 2003; Poslad et al., 2001; Setten et al., 2004) as well as information on tour companions and other tourists’ comments (Cheverst et al., 2002).

2. The rationale for context-awareness in tourism marketing

Naturally mobile tourists need mobile information. The trend has been strengthened by new technological means. Independence and an easy access to information constitute one of the priorities to modern tourists. The application of QR codes was one of the first efforts made in this field.² Placed on the buildings, facilities and tourist attractions, QR codes provide quick and effortless access to the website with the appropriate information. Though it seems to be a good answer for the tourists’ search for information, it is still the traveller who needs to get to a place and look for more information about the attractions. The development of mobile technology and context-aware applications has opened absolutely new possibilities to communicate with (potential) tourist and to shape marketing strategies.

An important approach to personalise tourism services is based on automatic user localisation.

The current position of a user can be used to specify the user’s request and further filter the relevant information. If a tourist is moving in a region, this can be used as a clue to his interests (when he or she visits palaces – he or

² “Odkoduj Łódź” [Decode Lodz city] was one of the most spectacular projects of this kind in Poland.

she might be interested in some other historical buildings). Users generate a lot of events when walking around - this can be exploited for the user modelling, to detect and anticipate relevant user interests and to offer him individual tourists context-aware recommendations and services based on his geographical location.

Recognition of different context types seems to be easier than ever: GPSs are appearing in buses and taxis, providing unprecedented volumes of location data. Social networks (like Facebook or Twitter) are collecting information on everything from events to personal tastes and behaviours. Tourism virtual communities (TripAdvisor, SocialTravel) make it easy for people to obtain information, maintain connections, deepen relationships and meet people they would otherwise never have met. The reach and efficiency of online communities enhance the dynamics of social learning processes relative to exchanges that are face-to-face or facilitated by other media (Miller et al., 2009).

A professional system has to include all the digital spaces where the users' context might be available and where new services might be offered. The same way advertising is moving from billboards to interactive, context-sensitive displays. Corrigan and Miller (2011) anticipate that in the nearby future there will be no need to deliberately connect to the Web or an application platform as all manner of devices will follow a user through a typical day, transparently connecting at just the right times to enhance users' willingness to make some orders – whether they are working, playing, traveling, eating or even sleeping. “GPSs, activity monitors, cameras and mobile phones will seamlessly collaborate in providing data about user behaviour, buying preferences, social patterns and work habits, adjusting room temperatures, posting energy consumption data or carbon footprints or issuing reminders to pick up a roast for dinner” (Corrigan and Miller, 2011).

Although tourists were certainly a central consideration in traditional desktop marketing, nowadays the user's context has shifted to a dynamic, mobile setting involving a myriad of interactions with other people (Bradley and Dunlop, 2004). As user centricity moves up the value chain, more organizations are approaching usability as strategy (Schaffer and Weinschenk, 2009). The economy and prevalence of technology are redefining user-centric computing. In the age of mobile applications systems adapt to users, not vice versa.

Research into mobile context-aware computing has uncovered new ways in which to support people in their daily lives. Application areas include tourist guides (e.g. Cheverst et al., 2000) as well as navigation systems for visually

impaired people (e.g. Helal et al., 2001). In order to supply users with digital services that ensure value creation, mobile applications are to be designed as “self-learning systems” and “context-aware systems” (Lau, 2012).

The context types depend on tourists’ characteristics and trip scenarios (e.g. visiting places of interest, watching performances, purchasing souvenirs, selecting restaurants). Different kinds of travel scenario generate different information needs which can be then grouped into several context types (e.g. temporal, identity, location, environmental, social). Tan et al. (2009) give some examples of context types concerning the restaurant information needs. In the temporal context they include time of day and time of year as tourists’ selection of restaurants depends on whether they are planning for breakfast, lunch or dinner. In the identity context, they include preferences such as preferred price range, preferred transport, preferred portion size, acceptable waiting time and acceptable hygiene level. In the location context, they include nearby available food and route to the nearest restaurant. Finally, tourists may wish to classify what others were eating in the same place and how others rated the restaurant (social context).

Carlsson and Walden (2010) proved that contextual information is important when adapting information to meet tourists’ needs, however tourist information needs are to be studied from different perspectives. In the consumer behaviour framework, tourists are seen as decision makers using various information search strategies to support their pre-visit and onsite decisions, such as choice of destination, accommodation, transportation or activities (e.g. Sirakaya and Woodside 2005). In the pre-visit phase information is sought for destination assessment, itinerary planning and logistics (transportation, accommodation); onsite, ad-hoc information is sought on directions, recommendations and activities on location; in the post-visit phase tourists want to recollect views from the trip and share them with others, information is collected to support the storytelling. There are some marketing possibilities at every stage – provided marketers are equipped with context-aware applications.

The idea of the user-centric digital system implies the complete integration of physical space and cyberspace and reaching out to the tourist with possibly wide information they might be interested in. In the digital system, the user should be the centre of an integrated collection of interaction channels. The most successful organizations as well as the most competitive tourism destinations will be those that can leverage such channels not only to engage tourists but also to alter their behaviour and provide them with a value added.

3. The role of context-awareness in a value creation process

Organisations focus on creating value by providing clients with the service they require (i.e. client-perceived value). In the context-aware user-centric systems, this value creation is achieved through a combination of technology-driven processes and human inputs. Kitson (2011) states that everyone involved in the development of a product or service, needs to understand that ultimately his decisions affect the user's experience and perception. These build a transaction environment that allows customers to be the centre of the transaction, helping him design the product features and informing them about new products relevant to them. The client-perceived value is regarded as the fundamental basis for marketing (Parasuraman, 1997), a key strategic variable to help explain repeat purchase behaviour, brand loyalty and commitment (Patterson and Spreng, 1997) and one of the most successful competitive strategies of the 1990s (Ravald and Grönroos, 1996).

Adapting the Maslow's hierarchy of needs Bradley (2010) argues that it is analogous to the user experience (UX). Once the availability and basic support needs are satisfied, users move to an experience that gives them significance (connection, growth or personal contribution). Interaction platforms that can successfully address user needs and emotions promote a viral and addictive effect among their users, resulting in higher user satisfaction rates.

According to Gronroos (2008), customers are not predominantly interested in goods or services but in how these can be used for value creation. Therefore, tourism application designers need to focus on understanding their customers' everyday practices and value-generating processes so that they can assist in customers' value creation. They should not aspire to create value for customers – the focus should be on finding ways to co-create value with customers. This insight is a guiding principle for building mobile value services.

Saracevic (1996), Mizzaro (1997), Albers & Kim (2002) and Setten et al. (2004) have demonstrated that context can be used to measure the relevance of information such that only appropriate information is presented. Delivering the right content for the right context has always been crucial for successful marketing. The adaptation of services and contents to the tourists' personal interests and their current location is pivotal in the process of value creation. Information filtering process is based on a user profile describing his or her interests, abilities and characteristics. For these reasons, applications in different

fields (tourism, medicine, office automation) are designed with context-awareness features (Kjeldskov & Skov, 2004).

Mobile value service for tourists makes it possible to carry out activities that would be either unknown to them or impossible to accomplish without it (Carlsson & Walden, 2010). While getting the right information in the right moment they might change their mind about the specific activities or about their plans for the evening. They might suddenly decide to leave a place or to prolong the stay easily changing reservations for a flight or accommodation. While reading the comments of the social community they might get to know about the place they didn't know about before. They can make comments influencing the others' plans, share photographs and information, acting as the "destination's ambassadors".

Compared to the Internet, mobile technologies promise to offer tourists a new level of freedom to explore various sites and thereby opening the site for new experiences. However, it appears that plenty of mobile services have been launched on the market because they are technically feasible, even when not necessarily wanted by consumers. Grönroos (2008) points the way when he states that value is not created by the provider but rather in the customers' value-generating processes. In other words, mobile services cannot be designed for the tourists to create value for them but possibly in cooperation with tourists – that is why contextual properties are so important.

4. Context-aware applications in tourism

Rasinger et al. (2007) state that mobile tourist guides show potential for supporting tourists when they are in places which are new and unknown for them. Tourists are commonly supported with digital information throughout their travel and in sharing information with fellow travellers (Carlsson et al., 2008). The web-services developed, the advanced mobile networks (3G, Wi-Fi, bluetooth), the mobile handsets and the new generations of data-oriented mobile services are designed to offer information and entertainment to tourists. Location awareness, time sensitivity and personalization are implemented in hand devices, making them ideal for giving travellers a continuous access to interactive and personalized travel information and services. Plenty of tourism applications (Guide, Compass, and Catis) have been designed to be aware of the tourist's loca-

tion and interests. As they are sensitive to a user's context, they are described as context-aware applications.

One could expect that mobile tourist guides would have come a long way since the late 1990s (Abowd et al. 1997) as there has been much talk about them. However, most of the work seems to have stopped at working prototypes. For example, Carlsson and Walden (2010) took on the research task to find out what mobile service value should be and how it was created in cooperation between the service providers and the users (tourists). They built a prototype for a guide services on mobile phones that told the story about the Bomarsund Fortress from six different angles depending on the origin and background knowledge of the tourists.

Several other mobile services can be found on the market: the Travel Buddy service, launched in April 2006, is available for several destinations in Europe. The service provides location-based information to visitors and residents about local activities, events, restaurants, clubs as well as weather forecasts. The service is SMS-based and is operated by sending keywords to get information (good, intuitive keywords as "whatson, kidstuff, mustdo, tours, dining, clubbin, weather"). A visitor to Manchester could access the Travel Buddy service by filling in an online form or by sending an SMS "Manchester" to a mobile phone number.

Grün et al. (2008) worked through four mobile tourist guides: etPlanner is a platform for interactive mobile travel guidance for Innsbrück; Digital Concierge is a personal assistant to offer tourism content for the visitor in Singapore; Berlin Tainment offers a framework for assisting service providers in developing context-aware entertainment services and MobileStuttgart is a mobile city guide developed for the World Cup 2006 in Germany. Similar application (Polish Guide) was developed for the 2012 UEFA European Championship in Poland. The Polish Ministry of Foreign Affairs has launched a special application "Check-in Poland", which helps to look for other foreigners and communicate with them.

There are also some older systems, such as Guide (Cheverst et al. 2000), Crumppet (Poslad et al. 2001), m-ToGuide and Compass (Setten et al. 2004) which use GPS to give the tourist suggestions and recommendations and to offer guidance based on the context. The more advanced ones develop location-based services to give tourists up-to-date and context-aware information about a city (the information is based on the user's current physical location, his/her past behaviour and personal preferences). Many applications of Geographical

Information Systems (GIS) for tourism have been developed in order to allow access to regional information through the Internet. For instance, the Deep Map WebGIS integrates services and information for the city of Heidelberg (Malaka and Zipf, 2000).

More recently research projects have started to focus on the standardised, flexible dissemination of (high volume) geographic data on wireless networks for nomadic applications. This geographical information is a pivotal feature for tourism applications as tourists want their individualised information on site with details on topics such as traffic, weather, sights, availability of services, navigation aid, historical and economic background.

Pospischil et al. (2002) analyse another mobile guide – Local Location Assistant (LoL@), which uses GPS to show tourist locations and information about important tourist sites in Vienna on a map with route planning and multimedia interaction. An innovative m-ToGuide supports recording of experiences with text and snapshots for after-tour personal diaries.

In Poland the Local Tourism Organisation of “The Land of Loess Gorges” (LOT “Kraina Lessowych Wąwozów”) has launched the mobile guide (for mobile phones or special devices which can be borrowed at Tourist Information Points) pointing the most interesting tourism attractions and suggesting the most interesting routes, places to stop for a snack or dinner, accommodation etc., so that the visitors get to know about any opportunities to have an attractive trip and not to miss any interesting event. The application allows tourist to plan an individual travel route. Tourist attractions are described in detail (an audio text is read by Tomasz Knapik, the well-known Polish voice-over speaker). The application – however context-aware – supports only two context types (time and location). Actually there are much more tourists’ information needs and problems they encounter during their trips.

5. Main obstacles for the adoption of user-centric digital system in tourism

The process of user-centric digital system design should start with the identification of the most valuable contextual information which is to be extracted from the research on tourists information needs. The contextual information helps to validate and extend the list of context types and context properties which are to be inserted in the application so that it can support tourists’ informa-

tion needs. However it is difficult to identify the context types necessary for context-aware applications as there is no standard set of context types designated for applications in each field (Kaasinen, 2003). Christensen et al. (2006) state that gathering more contextual information will not necessarily help application meet users' needs. The key lies in how to adopt the appropriate context types and interpret and use them in the applications.

As stated before, majority of tourism applications are limited to the time and location context. Few of them take into account social and environmental contexts. Travelling companions constitute a property supported only by some applications: e.g. Guide and Compass incorporate features indicating people near the tourists. The design allows tourists to prompt these people for comments and ratings of the places of interest (Cheverst et al., 2002). For example, a tourist can prompt another person located at a nearby cafe for comments. The comments given would be ranked by the relevancy, such as travelling companions with the assumption that those travelling with young children would appreciate comments from tourists with similar travel companions. Plenty of tourists make decisions by considering what others do, as people have a social urge to join in with others.

Future work should thus include refining the contextual information framework and exploring ways to fill the gaps of existing mobile tourism applications. The research should be done on the focus groups basis through participants with travelling experience, analysing contextual information based on specific tourist profiles (complying tourists' information needs by gender, age group and type of travel: leisure or business) and focusing on using social contextual data to filter information. Developing location based services for tourism in mobile apps necessitates management of large volumes of geographical data in order to allow for a broad range of functions on geo-objects for multiple clients.

Bradley and Dunlop (2004) claim that research into computing has not sufficiently addressed human and social aspects of design. Existing design frameworks are predominantly software orientated, make little use of cross-disciplinary work, and do not provide an easily transferable structure for cross-application of design principles. There is still little understanding of the user's role and place in the new digital system.

One major problem in user modelling is the acquisition of knowledge about the user and the lack of proper research in this field. How can the system determine what the interests of a certain user are? It can either ask the user

for such interests (explicit feedback) or it can observe the user's system usage (implicit feedback) and infer certain interests. The latter method is inexact but does not disturb the user. Explicitly asking the user would be more precise but it disrupts his current task, may be time-consuming and annoying. Many users are unwilling to fill in forms and here again the small displays for mobile devices are a restriction. Therefore, user model acquisition should mainly rely on implicit feedback.

One more reason why tourism destinations and enterprises do not use the concept of context-aware application is that many tourism leaders fail to grasp how user-centric design can help them achieve their promotional objectives or how they can integrate it into their existing marketing strategy. Late user-interface design, conflicting user feedback and incorrectly measuring user analytics can easily weaken a potentially successful user-experience project.

Another obstacle is a low level of information literacy among tourism marketers and the high cost of technological design as well as the need to promote an application itself.

Conclusion

Mobile devices are a communication medium that keeps people connected at any place, wherever they go and any time. Therefore, it is accounted as the most effective tool of direct marketing, while wireless marketing involves reaching and servicing customers and developing relationships with them through premium services. Furthermore, the total user's experience cannot be provided by the mobile Internet itself, "the representation of the physical world" in the wireless devices, but rather within the mobile marketplace in which different kinds of transactions take place: communication services, obtaining valuable and personalised information and wireless purchase. The mobile marketplace covers three dimensions: 1) personalisation according to local position of the holder and the relevance of information to his preferences, 2) localisation through the local based services and 3) immediacy (Germanakos et al., 2008), thus providing users with a value added.

The proper personalisation of mobile information services needs a new way of thinking about the users' role in a digital system: the pivotal characteristics of the system are users' centricity and context-awareness as they enable forming

a unique user experience, unobtainable in any other way. Despite some obstacles this is the only way of modern tourism marketing and the core of nowadays promotional strategies.

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**TWORZENIE WARTOŚCI DODANEJ W TURYSTYCE
W OPARCIU O KONTEKSTUALNY SYSTEM CYFROWY
ZORIENTOWANY NA UŻYTKOWNIKA**

Streszczenie

Celem opracowania jest prezentacja koncepcji kontekstualnego ekosystemu cyfrowego zorientowanego na użytkownika oraz uzasadnienie zastosowania tej koncepcji w procesie tworzenia wartości dodanej w turystyce. W artykule przedstawiono pojęcie, cechy i znaczenie kontekstowych aplikacji mobilnych w perspektywie ich zdolności dostarczania wartości dodanej. Następnie dokonano przeglądu wybranych aplikacji turystycznych o różnym stopniu zdolności rozpoznawania kontekstu i dostarczania adekwatnej informacji użytkownikom (turystom). Artykuł oparto na analizie literatury przedmiotu i wyników dotychczasowych badań oraz na przeglądzie praktycznych przykładów zastosowania mobilnych aplikacji kontekstualnych w turystyce.

Słowa kluczowe: system kontekstualny, aplikacje mobilne w turystyce, turystyka cyfrowa, wartość dodana w turystyce

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TOUR MANAGEMENT AND TOURIST GUIDANCE IN POLAND DEREGULATION AND NEW CHALLENGES

Abstract

Together with the changes which are currently taking place in world tourism, the social and professional roles of tourist guides are also undergoing a process of gradual transformation. A deregulation of the profession of tourist guide and tour manager which was initiated in the EU countries contrasts with the protection of the tourist guide job market in the majority of countries which do not belong to the European Union. Despite and maybe because of the deregulation, the need to maintain the quality of the services offered by local tourist guides and tour managers in EU countries, leads to an implementation of trade-specific systems of certification. Such a situation is currently taking place in Poland. In the article, the author discusses the changes taking place in tourism and tries to identify the consequences which these changes have on tourist guidance and tour management; he also presents the models of functioning of tourist guidance in world tourism and presents the main principles of associated with the certification of tour managers and tourist guides in Poland.

Keywords: tourist guide, tour manager /leader/, deregulation, qualifications, certification

Introduction

The main topic of the analysis focuses on problems associated with the functioning of tourist guidance and tour management. In the article, the author analyzes the changes taking place in contemporary tourism as well as their

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consequences for the social and vocational roles of tourist guides. The fundamental goal of the article is to analyze the models of functioning of tourist guidance in the world as well as the systemic and qualitative changes taking place in it. The author points to both negative and positive consequences of deregulation within the profession of tourist guide and tour manager which is gradually being implemented in EU countries. Deregulation forces the tourist sector to develop a separate system whereby it becomes necessary to confirm one's qualifications by means of special certificates. In Poland, the above activities have been linked to the creation of a trade-specific framework of qualifications for the professions which operate within the tourist sector, but are not covered by the formal school and academic education.

1. New trends in tourism

The observed trends in tourism are chiefly the result of demographic changes (age, health, education), technological changes (transport, internet) as well as changes in lifestyle. The above changes lead to certain definite consequences for the tourist sector. As regards its motivation, contemporary tourism has done away with the "3S" (*sun, sea and sand*), while more and more frequently tourists are motivated to travel by factors which could be defined as "3E" (*entertainment, excitement, education*), i.e. by motivations focusing on becoming acquainted with cultural values, taking an interest in people's everyday life today and in the past, as well as on entertainment and active tourism. Within the so called cultural tourism, there has also arisen a "4H" rule (*habitat, heritage, history, handicrafts*). Heritage tourism which creates a demand for tourist guidance and to a large degree tour management services, also belongs to these modern-day formulas of 21st century tourism.

As a consequence of the changing trends in tourism, one can also expect changes in the behavior of modern-day tourists. One should mention here the main features which characterize the new type of tourist. Among the most important ones, we ought to mention: independence (self-reliance) and earlier tourist experience, as well as an interest in and active use of new technologies. Another important characteristic of modern tourists is their emphasis on quality (value for money) and an expectation that they will receive the best possible quality for a good price. The "new tourist" is also characterized by enhanced

self-activity, greater curiosity of the world and of various cultures, an increase of the number of trips during the year at the expense of their duration and a special sensitivity to the issues associated with the natural and social environment.

From various reports, analyses and prognoses, there emerges an image of a “new tourist”. As it turns out, the latter is more experienced in his travels, finds it easier to “adjust” to the conditions in the places he travels to and is more aware of his own needs. Moreover, the “new tourist” is better educated, and is quicker to learn (e.g. from the mass-media). He does not discover the world (anew), but wants to confirm his knowledge of the world with his trip. The “new tourist” will need more entertainment and more adventure, but he will also have greater possibilities to satisfy all of his costly needs.

It will also be a tourist with a different system of values, professing the principle of “to be and not to have”, a tourist who is sensitive to the environment and looks for naturalness and authenticity. In accordance with the spirit of the age, he will accept cultural differences, will be more open and tolerant and will respect local customs, culture and religion; he will always be ready to interact and make new acquaintances.¹

The modern lifestyle has changed and the “new tourist” has become more affluent and at the same time, he has more free time at his disposal. He leads a healthier, more active lifestyle, practicing sports and taking advantage of various forms of recreation. The flexible working hours allow him to go on many more such short trips. Travel is treated by him as a way of life, an opportunity to learn, to attain self-fulfillment and spiritual development.

The demographic features of the “new tourist” have also undergone change; a typical tourist is a member of an aging community whose members set up family at a more mature age. The preferred family model (2+1) allows them to engage in more intensive tourist activities. In many cases, the tourist is a single or childless person.

One may assume that the “new tourist” will be more spontaneous, but at the same time that he will be more focused on consumption, more unpredictable till the very end, a person who does not plan vacations until the very last moment. It is often a person who wishes to be “somebody” during the holidays, a person

¹ Z. Kruczek, *Nowa turystyka i nowi turyści. Wyzwania XXI w. dla pilotów i przewodników. Trendy i tendencje w turystyce XXI w.*, in: *Jakość usług w pilotażu i przewodnictwie*, Materiały z IV Forum Pilotażu i Przewodnictwa, Proksenia, Kraków 2009, pp. 7–12.

who wants to get noticed in the crowd. To all that one should add an interest in quality (an expectation to obtain the best possible quality for a reasonable price).

Therefore, what sort of tourist guide and tour manager does the “new tourist” expect? The conclusions from the above analysis may be addressed to three major professional groups: local tourist guides, tour managers (on so called roadshow tours and shuttle trips) as well as tour resort representatives.

The local tourist guides will be expected not only to display an expert knowledge of their own territory, but also an ability to select suitable information for each particular group of tourists. The accepted standard involves a high level of service – guided tours are a “tourist service”; a customer “pays and demands a high quality service”. The basis of this service will be thorough care of the tourists, taking into consideration their safety and comfort while on tour. It will be advisable to combine guided tours on one’s territory with other abilities, e.g. belonging to the scope of active, cultural tourism. The future tourist guide will be expected to possess the ability to go beyond the level of ordinary information, and to be able to master the principles of interpretation of the phenomena and landmarks which he/she is commenting on. The “new tourist” is well educated and prepared to the trip (“erudite” tourist); he often asks difficult and troublesome questions; therefore the tourist guide must be “better than him”, both as regards the knowledge of the destination and the multi-layer interpretation of the questions he had been asked. The growing popularity of cultural tourism offers a chance for the development of the market of local guides’ services.

As regards tour managers, apart from the obvious knowledge of the principles of customer care, one often hears that they need to specialize both in the different forms of tourism and in various destinations.² Tour managers are expected to be able to follow the latest trends in the motifs and forms of travel as well as the changing preferences of tourists. Both tour managers and local representatives of travel agencies are a visiting card of the tour organizer and their work influences directly the quality of the provided service as well as the overall opinion of the tour in the eyes of the tourists.

² *Specjalizacja i profesjonalizacja we współczesnym pilotażu i przewodnictwie*, Z. Kruczek (ed.), Materiały z VII Forum Pilotażu i Przewodnictwa, Proksenia, Kraków 2012.

2. Liberalization of professional regulations and the protection of the local job markets

In Europe there operate three models of qualifications for tourist guides:³

Model 1.

This model is based on a set of restrictive legal regulations which impose on persons providing tourist guide services the obligation to possess qualifications granted by the state, whereas performing tourist guide tasks without such qualifications is considered to be illegal. This model has been adopted by many countries throughout the world, including some European states. Following the recent deregulation, according to the Polish law, it is only a mountain guide who has remained in the group of regulated occupations.

Model 2.

It is a model which requires qualifications for performing tourist guide tasks in certain strictly defined places – in most cases, museums or historical sites. Such licenses are granted on the basis of state examinations, examinations before an organizer of training, or before the management of a given site /landmark/. Such a model has been adopted e.g. in Russia, France or Great Britain as well as in the Czech Republic.

Model 3.

This model is based exclusively on the principle of a free market and freedom to provide tourist services, where performing tourist guide tasks is not legally regulated and it does not require from potential guides the need to obtain licenses or pass any examinations. In this system, there only exist voluntary tourist guide associations which organize training courses, create standards, give a certain prestige to the trade and offer technical support to their members. Such a system has been adopted, among others, by Holland and Germany.

³ K. Sobierajska, *Europejskie tendencje w kształtowaniu przewodnictwa i pilotażu w Polsce*, in: *Przewodnictwo turystyczne i pilotaż we współczesnej Europie*, 2 Międzynarodowy Sejmik Przewodnicki, Sopot–Gdańsk 18–20 May 2011, Oddział Gdański PTTK, Gdańsk 2011, pp. 21–28.

As regards tourist guidance, we come across different kinds of guidance, depending on the country and the local tradition. And thus, we distinguish the following types of tourist guide services:

- mountain, recreational, sports and tourist (Czech Republic),
- tourist movement guides employed by specific travel agencies, culture oriented and local guides showing visitors round historical and cultural monuments, mountain guides, cave guides in the case of caves made accessible to the general public (Slovakia),
- national guide-lecturer, national guide, regional guide, city and regional guide-lecturer, art and history guide, cultural heritage animator (France),
- guide: urban, museum, field, mountain (Germany, Poland).

Mutual recognition of tourist guide qualifications as well as the freedom to practice the trade in the individual member states are ensured by the existing regulations. In this context, one should mention directive 1999/42/EC (the so called “third” one) concerning training principles, the recognition of professional qualifications and providing services in EU countries and directive 2005/36/WE concerning the recognition of professional qualifications (including those of tourist guides and tour managers).⁴

According to the principles introduced by the above-mentioned directives:

- Performing the duties of a tourist guide on a permanent basis in a different member state from the one where a given person obtained tourist guide qualifications, requires the fulfillment of the conditions which remain in force in a given state; in the case where one of the above-mentioned conditions is possession of necessary qualifications (license) – when assessing the fulfillment of these conditions by a foreigner from another EU member state, one should take into account the qualifications acquired by this person in the EU member state from which he/she comes from; in the case where significant differences are observed, the potential tourist guide should be given a chance to supplement his knowledge by either being granted an internship placement or by passing a skills test;
- A temporary – cross-border license requires only notification of the appropriate authorities in the EU member states.

⁴ H. Zawistowska, *Przewodnictwo turystyczne w prawodawstwie unijnym*, in: *Przewodnictwo turystyczne w prawodawstwie polskim i europejskim*, Materiały seminaryjne. Biblioteka Górskiego Centralnego Ośrodka Turystyki Górskiej, T. 16, Kraków 2011, pp. 18–35.

The ongoing deregulation of the tourist guide profession in the EU member states

In recent years, on the territory of EU member states, we have been observing a process of gradual abandonment of regulations relating to the tourist guide profession. Deregulation had first extended to tourist guide services on the territory of the Czech Republic and subsequently to those in Greece and Poland. At the present moment, a tourist guide as a regulated profession operates on Cyprus and Malta as well as in Hungary, France, Spain, Lithuania, Rumania, Austria and Italy. As can be seen, the local job market on the territory of the EU is protected by regulations, chiefly in the receiving countries (Italy, Spain, France); such an approach also tends to be the norm in non-European countries (Turkey, China, the Caribbean etc.).

The European tourist guide training and qualifications norm (PN EN 15565) also constitutes a certain form of regulation which defines the educational programs of tourist guides, although it does not have an obligatory character. Yet the very fact that it exists should make one take into consideration the solutions proposed in it while preparing the Polish model of tourist guide instruction.

At the initiative of the Ministry of Sport and Tourism, in the year 2014, work has begun on the so called sector European Qualifications Framework for careers associated with tourism. The above framework sets out to define the necessary knowledge, skills and qualifications for all careers associated with gastronomy, hotel services and tourism, including those of tour managers and tourist guides. The above qualifications will be ascribed to a suitable level of the European Qualifications Program; the diplomas and certificates issued by the EU member states will contain all the appropriate information which should make it possible to compare them and mutually recognize them on the territory of all the member states.⁵

3. Tour managers in the EU

According to the Polish legal system, apart from a tourist guide there exists the profession of a tour manager. In many countries tour managers operate

⁵ *Europejskie Ramy Kwalifikacji w obszarze sportu i turystyki*, Konferencja Ekspercka, Ministerstwo Sportu i Turystyki, Instytut Badań Edukacyjnych, Toruń 2011.

on an informal basis as no state licenses for tour managers are granted; in most cases, the activity of tour managers /leaders/ is not defined by any regulations and neither a system of tour manager instruction nor of obtaining qualifications and licenses has been legally defined. As regards the performance of tour manager tasks, there is complete freedom for providing these types of services. Only a few countries have specific legislation which defines the legal status of this type of activity, among them Austria, Slovakia, Italy and Denmark.

The European Committee for Standardization CEN has ascribed appellations in English, French and German for the equivalent of the Polish 'tour manager'. In English the equivalent appellation is *tour manager* (or else *tour leader, tour escort*). In French the equivalent name is *directeur de circuit, accompagnateur* and in German *reiseleiter, reisebegleiter*. In Slovakia they use the name *technický sprievodca*, and in Russian a tour manager is referred to as *gid-pierewodczik*.

In Germany, the profession of a tour manager does exist, yet it is not regulated; it is more of a function within the tourist services sector. An agency which specializes in the training of tour managers is the German Federal Tourism Association and the Higher School in Bremen. The persons who have completed the training obtain certificates which confirm their qualifications, whereas subjecting oneself to the process of certification is voluntary. The training program puts emphasis on organizational skills, the ability to control the obtained benefits, the ability to settle claims and solve conflicts, the knowledge of legal regulations, as well as general communication skills. All of the above elements are treated on a par with the knowledge of a given country or countries. The acquired certificate of the Federal Association of the German Tourism Industry is valid for 3 years and its validity may be further extended after the candidate proves his/her professional activity. The Association also issues its own membership cards whose validity may be extended, and in the case of professional malpractice they may be taken away, following a strictly defined procedure.

The function of a tour manager does exist in France and is referred to as "*guide accompagnateur*", that is a person accompanying tourists during a tour. The requirements of travel agencies with regard to such persons are very high and the ones who get employed are usually those who have university diplomas, not infrequently Ph.D. degrees.

In contrast to the functioning supra-national travel guide associations, such as for instance the World or European Federation⁶, tour managers do not have such a form of association.

For although an International Organization of Tour Managers⁷ does operate in London, its range of activity is rather limited. Among others, it issues certificates to tour managers after they have completed training or a course of studies in Holland and once they have passed a suitable examination. What is definitely missing within the structure of the London branch of IATM is the “CE Europe” region. Therefore it may be advisable to create such a center in Poland for the countries of Central and Eastern Europe; it should be possible to organize it within the Visegrád Pact and finance it from its funds. Yet it would require cooperation between tourism faculties of various universities as well as associations of tour managers, so as to submit suitable applications.

4. The project of tour managers certification in Poland

deregulation should be taken advantage of to introduce fundamental changes into the system of assessing professional competence, so as to make it more suited to the present-day knowledge regarding the management of human resources. Certification seems to be a necessary step in the tourist sector, particularly after the implementation of the deregulation of certain professions. For the Act of 13 June 2013 concerning a change of legal acts regulating certain professions assumes that as of 01.01.2014, a person performing the tasks of tour manager should meet three rather banal conditions, namely:⁸

- he/she should be of age (18 years)
- he/she should not have a criminal record (for a voluntary or another type of offense, committed in connection with the exercise of tasks associated with the occupation of tourist guide or tour manager)
- he/she should have completed at least a secondary school education.

⁶ European Federation of Tourist Guide Associations in Vienna – www.touristguides-europe.org, Vienna; The World Federation of Tourist Guide Associations in London – www.wftga.org.

⁷ IATM (International Association of Tour Managers Ltd.), <http://iatm.co.uk>, 397 Walworth Road, London SE17 2AW.

⁸ Dziennik Ustaw, 23.07.2013, p. 829.

Whereas the tasks of a tour manager, as defined in the Act on tourist services remain unaltered, they are associated primarily with taking care of tourists within the scope defined in the contract, supervising the way services are provided to clients in the name of tourism organizers, accepting complaints from dissatisfied customers and relaying to their employers the fundamental information concerning the country and place they have visited.⁹

A tourism organizer who makes a decision to employ a given tour manager must be sure that he entrusts the plight of his clients to a suitable person who is able to ensure safety during the tour and correctly realize its program. Therefore employing a competent and well-qualified tour manager gives a sense of security also to the organizer himself. For the qualifications of a tour manager condition the way in which the tasks defined in the Act on tourist services are realized, and in this way they exert a direct impact on the level of the service which is being provided.

The best signal for a tourism organizer that he is dealing with a competent tour manager is a document which informs him about the tour manager's qualifications. Up until recently, it was a tour manager's ID card issued by Marshall's Offices and formerly by Provincial Offices that constituted such a document. Despite deregulation, these licenses will continue to be a form of confirmation for tourism organizers that tour managers they have selected possess suitable qualifications. In a situation when state regulations ceased to operate as of 1 January 2014, there arises the need for implementing a system of certification which will to some extent substitute the previous regulations. Tourism organizers will presently face the challenge of having to carry out a selection of bona fide service providers (tour managers); it is by no means an easy task, particularly in the case of small and medium-size travel agencies. For if up until the end of 2013, the competence of tour managers was verified time and time again in the course of internal examinations organized during training courses, by state examinations and the recruitment process organized by the tourism organizer, at the present moment, the assessment of tour managers' competence will be confirmed exclusively by the future employer.

The project of the Polish Chamber of Tourism, prepared in cooperation with the Polish Federation of Tourist Guides and Tour Managers assumes a far-reaching standardization of the way of assessing candidates for tour managers.

⁹ Dziennik Ustaw z 2014 poz. 196.

The certificate which will be issued to future tour managers will constitute an objective, bona fide confirmation of their professional competence and skills based on the same, universal criteria.

The main principle of the project consists in the concept of checking the practical abilities of candidates for tour managers, rather than the previously applied concept of checking exclusively their theoretical knowledge. The project also assumes the introduction of standardized ways of evaluating candidates for tour managers. The certificate which will be issued to them will therefore constitute an objective and genuine confirmation of their professional competence and their assessment will be based on the same criteria.

It is assumed that professional competence, conforming to the prepared competence profile of a tour manager, will be verified, among others, on the basis of the method of an assessment center. The innovative element of this method consists in an evaluation based on the completion of tasks. During the examination, the examiners observe the candidate's abilities to apply theoretical knowledge in situations which are directly associated with the performed trade. In the processes of certification, one moves away from verifying exclusively one's knowledge; what counts is the ability to apply knowledge in practical situations.

The introduction of uniform standards of verification in the entire country, will contribute to greater standardization of the method of final assessment of candidates to the trade, and therefore, it will provide more exhaustive information for tourism organizers concerning the level of the candidates' preparation to the trade of tour manager.

Conclusion

Undoubtedly, the changes which are currently taking place in tourism will force the associations of tourist guides and tour managers to introduce new solutions. The new forms of communication, the new media and the general accessibility of the Internet will result in a decrease of the need for classical tourist guide and tour manager services. Thanks to the existing applications, the information about tourist attractions as well as practical information about tourist services is now available on smartphones, and through QR and NFC codes. The technology of extended reality allows one to identify tourist landmarks in space. The number of gadgets which facilitate travel and provide tourists with useful information

at any given moment is constantly growing. In museums and other institutions where visitors have to purchase tickets, information is mostly generated by electronic audio-guides; the latter are becoming somewhat of a standard on guided-tours round well-known landmarks. Young tourists who are well-accustomed to modern technology will definitely make less use of tourist guide services.

The classical guided tours offered to groups of tourists will constitute a sophisticated, high-level service which will be offered to selected groups. Guided tours will be decidedly more attractive in form and will often be combined with various innovative forms such as dramatized tours, special interpretation or urban games.

At this point, it is only natural to ask whether all of these electronic gadgets will one day be able to substitute a real, flesh and bone local guide? According to Armin Mikos von Rohrscheidt, there are certain areas of a tourist guide's trade which no machine is able to stand in for. Thus, for instance, in the course of sightseeing, tourists may have all kinds of questions and they may either not be bothered to look for answers to them among the thicket of available texts and presentations, or else they may simply prefer to ask a living guide. Only a living guide is able to ensure an authentic encounter with the place and discuss various topics associated with it, emphasize certain unique values. He then becomes a representative or the remembered "face" of a given place. For many tourists, an excursion is a chance to liberate themselves from electronic gadgets which have taken control of our everyday life. There will therefore arise a need for real-life encounters, for interactions with living people who are able to talk about their surroundings – "here and now", and not for places enclosed in texts and images.

A well prepared, modern guide who is equipped with the necessary sociological and psychological knowledge is able to serve his client in a much better way. He is able to change the program of sightseeing in a flexible way, so as to adjust it to the tourist's individual interests. He may become an invaluable culinary adviser or else a shopping consultant advising his clients on how to make original purchases. One should also mention combined services, e.g. a guide hired together with the car, that is in a double role of driver and guide, or else a guide realizing a thematic order, when a guide assumes the role of a historical figure in dramatized tours. The individualization of tourism also gives guides a chance: for although a smaller percentage of tourists will probably make use of their services (some of them will unavoidably become immersed in their smartphones), this may result in an increase of the absolute number of com-

missions. For orders will not be realized for huge, several-dozen strong groups of tourists brought on site by coaches, but will rather consist of individual tourists or small, private groups of tourists who stay in a given hotel and learn about the guide's offer from leaflets displayed in the hotel reception or else in the hotel room; such tourists often decide to join hands and take advantage of the guide's offer, so as to reduce the costs.

Yet this will require a change of mentality of the guides themselves; the ones who will survive on the changing market will be those who will be able to adjust to the changes. Changes in the very methodology of a tour guide's work are also expected, the guides will have to alter the structure of their narration. They will have to focus primarily on what the tourist wants and what brings him the greatest pleasure and satisfaction. The guides will have to change the scope of their services as well; they will be forced to become advisers and shopping experts. They will have to enter into cooperation with hotels and guesthouses. They will also have to change the rhythm of their work, e.g. they will have to take orders placed on the same day and not in advance. They will have to alter their typical "didactic" approach by limiting the role of the so far immortal lecture-monologue.¹⁰

As regards tour managers, it is expected that they will skillfully adjust themselves to the new organizational structures and that they will obtain adequate competence skills comparable to the ones that are recognized in other EU countries and on other outbound tourist markets. The process should be facilitated by the European Qualifications Framework for careers associated with tourism.

In this context it ought to be mentioned that invariably a professional knowledge of the principles of customer care is of particular value here as it decides about success at work. Among some of the other factors which may be useful in the search for employment and orders, one should mention specializations in both the various forms of tourism and destination places, as well as attempts to look for niche employment opportunities. Tour managers should be characterized by the ability to keep up with the changing trends both as regards destinations and forms of travel as well as the changing preferences of the tourists who are being catered for. This requires permanent self-improvement in the form of participation in organized training sessions and self-study efforts.

¹⁰ I quote fragments of Armin Mikos von Rohrscheidt's opinions published in the journal "Turystyka Kulturowa", www.turystykakulturowa.org, No. 12/2013 (December 2013), p. 96.

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**PILOTAŻ I PRZEWODNICTWO TURYSTYCZNE W POLSCE.
DEREGULACJA I NOWE WYZWANIA****Streszczenie**

Wraz ze zmianami jakie zachodzą w światowej turystyce zmieniają się również role społeczne i zawodowe przewodników turystycznych. Zainicjowana w krajach Unii Europejskiej deregulacja zawodów przewodnika turystycznego i pilota wycieczek kontrastuje z ochroną przewodnickiego rynku pracy w większości krajów poza UE. Utrzymanie na przyzwoitym poziomie jakości usług przewodników lokalnych a także pilotów wycieczek w krajach UE, w związku z deregulacją tych zawodów, skutkuje wdrażaniem branżowych systemów certyfikacji. Tak sytuacja ma miejsce obecnie w Polsce. W artykule omówiono zmiany zachodzące w turystyce wraz z identyfikacją ich skutków dla przewodnictwa i pilotażu, modele funkcjonowania przewodnictwa w światowej turystyce a także zaprezentowano założenia certyfikacji pilotów wycieczek i przewodników turystycznych w Polsce.

Słowa kluczowe: przewodnik turystyczny, pilot wycieczek, deregulacja, kwalifikacje, certyfikacja

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CONSUMER BEHAVIOURS ON THE TOURISM MARKET

Abstract

The modern tourism services market is an exceptionally varied market which is still broadening both its spatial and product scope. Tourists and visitors, who constitute the main group of tourism services consumers, make decisions concerning travelling under the influence of various factors – internal and external ones, and they more and more often do it on a sudden impulse. Adjusting the offer to consumer expectations is more difficult and requires more detailed knowledge of determinants of making travelling decisions by tourists. There are a few universal trends that set the direction of changes in consumer behaviour on the tourism market. The main trends seem to be a progressing diversification of tourist needs connected to different expectations of various tourist groups (examined from the point of view of different nationalities and societies) and a stable growth of demand for tourism services, which changes faster than the travellers growth suggests. Trend-setting media have more and more influence on the decisions made by consumers on the tourism service markets.

Keywords: tourist, tourism market, tourism consumption

Introduction

The modern tourism services market is an exceptionally varied market which is still broadening both its spatial and product scope. Tourists and visitors, who constitute the main group of tourism services consumers, make decisions concerning travelling under the influence of various factors – internal and ex-

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ternal ones, and they more and more often do it on a sudden impulse. Previous years' experience indicates that the economic crisis did not cause a decrease in interest in tourist trips (as it was expected) and the number of travellers exceeded one billion in 2012. Apart from the increase in the number of consumers on the tourism services market, their diversification is progressing which is connected with, among others, tourism democratization, namely participation of social and national groups that previously were not involved in tourism activity. The scope of tourists' needs connected with travelling is also still increasing and diversifying. These factors make it more and more difficult to adjust offers to tourists' expectations, as it requires more detailed knowledge of determinants of making travelling decisions by tourists. The aim of the paper is to identify main factors determining consumer behaviours on the tourism services market and to indicate new trends in this matter.

1. The tourism services market

The tourism services market is a part of the market where the main subjects of exchange are tourism services, which are most often defined as "all socially beneficial activities aimed at satisfying people's material and non-material tourism needs".¹ According to *Tourism Services Act*, tourism services include "guide services, hotel services and any other services provided for tourists and visitors".² It means that all services can be considered "tourist services" as long as they are provided for tourists or visitors, and hotel and guide services are defined as "tourist" regardless of who makes use of them.

The tourism services market is the whole of exchange relations between entities providing tourism services (supply) and people and institutions purchasing services which are the subject of tourism needs (demand). The third element of the tourism services market (next to supply and demand) is price. From the object perspective the tourism services market is regarded as a process in which purchasers and suppliers of tourism services define what they want to buy and sell and on what terms. The subject perspective defines the tour-

¹ W. Gaworecki, *Turystyka*, PWE, Warszawa 2000, p. 251.

² Ustawa o usługach turystycznych, z dnia 29 sierpnia 1997 roku, Dz. U. 2004, nr 223, poz. 2268, z późn. zm.

ism services market as a determined set of purchasers and suppliers of tourism services making market transactions, the subjects of which are tourism services.³

From the narrow perspective, supply on the tourism services market is defined as the volume of goods and services offered to tourists. From the broad perspective, it is the whole of activities of entities doing business aimed at satisfying tourism clients' needs.⁴ The unique character of the tourism services market is related to the fact that, as opposed to other markets, it is not the product that comes to the client, but a client/tourist comes to it. Supply on the tourism services market can be examined from the point of view of tourism-related enterprises or tourism-related areas. In the first case it includes goods and services offered (for a fee or free of charge) by enterprises, whereas in the second case it includes the ones offered by a given area.⁵ Similarly, the tourism product, which is the subject of supply on the tourism services market, can be diversified and it is most often defined as a package of material and non-material elements making it possible to carry out a tourist trip.⁶ The most common differentiation was introduced by W. Middleton,⁷ who differentiates the general (complete) tourism product – meaning an idea, expectations or a mental structure existing in the tourist's mind at the moment of making the decision about travelling and based on the idea of spending time in a destination; and the specific products – meaning particular goods and services offered to a tourist. The differences between tourism products offered by entrepreneurs and regions are conveyed well by the view of L. Mazurkiewicz⁸ who examines the tourist product on a micro and macro scale. On a micro scale Mazurkiewicz treats the tourism product as any services and material goods offered to a single tourist in a tourism area, whereas on a macro scale the tourism product includes services and material goods offered to all tourists in a tourism area. The tourism product has the characteristics of a service such as complementarity,

³ *Marketing usług turystycznych i rekreacyjnych*, A. Panasiuk (ed.), PWN, Warszawa 2013, pp. 32–33.

⁴ *Ekonomika turystyki i rekreacji*, A. Panasiuk (ed.), PWN, Warszawa 2011, pp. 203–204.

⁵ *Turystyka*, ed. W. Kurek, PWN, Warszawa 2008, p. 360.

⁶ B. Marciszewska, *Produkt turystyczny a ekonomia doświadczeń*, C.H. Beck, Warszawa Wydawnictwo 2010, p. 42.

⁷ A. Niezgoda, *Obszar recepcji turystycznej w warunkach rozwoju zrównoważonego*, Wydawnictwo Akademii Ekonomicznej w Poznaniu, Poznań 2006, p. 65.

⁸ L. Mazurkiewicz, *Produkt turystyczny w ujęciu marketingu terytorialnego*, in: *Konkurencyjność produktu turystycznego*, K. Pieńkoś (ed.), Wyższa Szkoła Ekonomiczna, Warszawa, p. 83.

complexity, intangibility, unity of production, exchange and consumption processes, the lack of possibility for producing beforehand and storing and seasonality.⁹

Tourism demand is (next to supply) the main element shaping the tourism services market. It is defined as “the sum of tourism goods and services which tourists are willing to purchase at a particular price and in a particular period of time”.¹⁰ Tourism demand is a complex category and includes various tourists’ needs which, in general, are satisfied at the same time. The unique character of tourism demand consists in the fact that purchasing tourism goods means purchasing the right to make use of these goods: the sun, water, clean air or examining of pieces of art.¹¹ The main features of tourism demand are:¹²

1. Mobility, which means the tourists’ necessity of moving from a permanent place of living because tourism demand is declared at a permanent place of living, but it is satisfied in a destination of a tourist trip and/or during the trip.
2. Complexity, which means that tourism demand occurs in the form of a conglomeration of needs and wishes which appear because of a tourist trip, among which there is a relation of generating further needs by those which have already occurred. The needs are, among others, the need of sleep and shelter, food, movement, relaxation and rest, physical activity, health, information and learning, entertainment, culture, safety, aesthetics.
3. Flexibility, which defines the extent of sensitivity of demand to changes of market factors, among which the most important remains the purchasers’ income. Income flexibility of tourism demand is a relative change of tourism demand to a relative change of people’s income; price flexibility of tourism demand is a relative change of tourism demand for particular goods or services to a relative change of price of these goods or services; mixed flexibility of tourism demand is a relative change of tourism demand for particular goods or services x as a result of a relative change of price of goods of services y . In each case, the level of flexibility depends on types and kinds of tourist trips.

⁹ *Kompendium wiedzy o turystyce*, G. Gołembski (ed.), PWN, Warszawa 2009, p. 71.

¹⁰ A. Niezgoda, P. Zmyślony, *Popyt turystyczny. Uwarunkowania i perspektywy rozwoju*, Wydawnictwo Akademii Ekonomicznej w Poznaniu, Poznań 2003, p. 38.

¹¹ *Kompendium*, op. cit., p. 38.

¹² A. Niezgoda, P. Zmyślony, op. cit., pp. 45–68.

4. Seasonality, i.e. repeated regular quantitative changes (qualitative changes to a smaller extent) of tourism movement occurring most often in the annual cycle and which causes can concern natural (most often), social or economic issues.

Tourism demand is also defined in foreign literature as “a total number of people who travel or want to travel in order to use equipment and services available outside their workplace and whereabouts”.¹³ However, it is a definition which is more relevant to tourism movement, defined most often as “the whole of voluntary, temporary and spatial movements outside a place of living taken in order to fulfil recreational, cognitive, health and entertainment goals”,¹⁴ which together with tourism expense can be treated as a measure of effective tourism demand.¹⁵ Such an approach makes it easier to present and compare statistical data representing tourism demand equated with the number of travellers (and expenses connected with a tourist trip that they have to incur) which is relatively easier to quantify than to assess the quantity and quality of reported and fulfilled tourists’ needs. Tourism movement is not yet identical to tourism demand – it is the subjects of tourism movement that are the carriers of various needs and, in consequence, the source of tourism demand for goods and services.¹⁶

The tourism services market is a market where the number of participants of tourism movement and their expenses are still increasing. The number of tourists in 2012 reached 1,035,000 (in 1990 it was 436 million people, in 2000 677 million and in 2012 954 million) and the biggest increase was in Asian (7%) and African (6%) countries. Europe, still being the world’s biggest destination (over 550 million people in 2012), reported an increase of 3%. The number of tourists is forecast to increase to 1.4 billion by 2020 and to 1.8 billion by 2030. For several years the steadily most popular tourist destinations have been France (83 million tourists), the USA (67 million tourists), China (57 million tourists), Spain (57 million tourists) and Italy (46 million tourists). Also in the top ten of the main tourist destinations are Turkey, Germany, the UK, Russia and Malaysia. The highest tourism expenses per tourist are characteristic for tourists from Australia, Canada and Germany (over 1000 US dollars), and when it comes to the absolute

¹³ *Turystyka*, op. cit., p. 355.

¹⁴ *Kompendium*, op. cit., p. 26.

¹⁵ A.Niezgoda, P. Zmysłony, op. cit., p. 168.

¹⁶ *Ekonomiczne podstawy turystyki*, A. Panasiuk (ed.), Fundacja na rzecz Uniwersytetu Szczecińskiego, Szczecin 2004, p. 36.

numbers, the largest amount of money is spent by the Chinese (102 million dollars), Germans (85 million dollars), Americans (84 million dollars), the British (52 million dollars) and Russians (43 million dollars). The largest increase of expenses is noted by Russians and the Chinese – more than 36% in 2011/2012.¹⁷

2. Tourist as a consumer

Creating the best possible conditions for building an offer and providing services for customers on the tourism market is an impulse, encouraging attempts of grouping tourists into relatively homogenous groups (tourist segmentation process). Due to similar characteristics, these groups display a similar demand for particular products on the tourism market.¹⁸ There are many possible criteria and their combinations that allow conducting consumer segmentation on the tourism services market depending on an established objective. The following criteria are considered to be universal and standard tourist segmentation criteria:¹⁹ demographic (e.g. the tourists' age directly affects the specialization of an offer for particular tourist age groups, thus the tourism operators that target their offer at young tourists (18–25 years old) have the words “student” or “youth” in their names, which preordains the nature of the offer as entertaining or active. The accommodation offer of youth hostels is mainly aimed at the same segment, as those types of businesses provide basic services which are most often shared rooms – something unacceptable for people in older age groups,²⁰ due to socio-economic, psychological or the nature of consumption. Aforementioned criteria do not comprise a closed list of possible tourist segmentation rules. It is possible to extend the segmentation by geographic, geo-demographic, destination, sought after benefits or other criteria as it depends on the objective that an entity conducting the segmentation has.²¹

¹⁷ <http://mkt.unwto.org/publication/unwto-tourism-highlights-2013-edition> (accessed on 6.02.2014).

¹⁸ W. Alejziak, *Determinanty i różnicowanie społeczne aktywności turystycznej*, AWF Kraków, Kraków 2009, p. 80.

¹⁹ Ibidem, p. 80.

²⁰ A. Niezgodą, P. Zmyślony, op. cit., p. 150.

²¹ Ibidem.

Decisions made by consumers on the tourism services market are strongly influenced by their attitudes and approaches towards the subject of consumption (i.e. tourism travel or its elements) as commonly they have a decisive impact on market decisions. Basic categorization of tourists is based on the motives of going away from home and behaviours related to them, because they influence the level and nature of consumption. According to M.Bassand, we can distinguish tourists focused on²² fun and entertainment, sightseeing, exploring other cultures, contact with nature, visiting as many attractions as possible in shortest possible time. A broader version (by K.Przeclawski) identifies following types of tourists:²³

- cognitive, which includes people whose aim is to commune with nature, culture or/and people;
- integrative, which is related to people whose main objective is the relationship in the social group they travel with (family, friends, new acquaintances);
- task-based, when the trip is to serve as a tool to finishing a particular task, e.g. enlarging exotic mask or sea photo collections;
- entertainment or fun and leisure that encompass people who want to break away from the everyday humdrum;
- competitive, including people who look for different forms of active tourism (climbing, cycling, skiing tourism and others);
- health-oriented, for which attention to health and endurance is of crucial importance;
- contemplative, which includes people who participate in pilgrimages and those who want to find secluded places to meditate.

Empirical studies led to establishing four basic types of tourists based on the intensity of the contact with the visited environment. According to E.Cohen, following types of tourists can be distinguished:²⁴

- organized mass tourist – a tourist that participates in mass tourism, travels in an organized way, tied to the habits of their environment, does not identify himself with the culture of visited places in any manner;

²² *Marketing*, op. cit., p. 66.

²³ A. Niezgodą, P. Zmysłony, op. cit., p. 164.

²⁴ W. Alejziak, op. cit., p. 64.

- individual mass tourist – a tourist that participates in mass tourism but individually chooses popular routes/places/dates of travel, trying to get to know a local culture (even if only superficially);
- explorer – a tourist that travels individually, avoiding travel dates and routes of mass tourism, focused on experiencing new cultures, is willing to give up some habits but still requires the fulfilment of basic needs in terms of comfort and hygiene;
- drifter – a tourist set on maximum integration with the culture of the visited region, willing to completely give up habits; makes decisions about travelling spontaneously;

Both organized and individual mass tourist heavily depend on the producers and sellers of tourism offers, as well as use packages offered by travel agencies or ready-made products available on the market. Explorers and drifters travel individually or in small groups and avoid organized tourism. They practically do not use tourism broker services and try to purchase necessary products and services from direct producers.

Tourist behaviours on the market are heavily influenced by the diversity of motivation and destinations as well as preferred behaviours at tourism-related destinations, affecting the choice of:

1. method for organizing travelling: individually or via a travel agency;
2. destination, which is connected not only with selecting a tourism region, but also (in a direct or indirect manner) implies used means of transport;
3. products and services and the way and time of purchasing them.

The choice of a way of organizing travelling is of crucial importance for consumer behaviours on the tourism market, because it usually determines other decisions made by a tourist. Independent organization involves making decisions individually and being able to modify them virtually at any time (including resigning from a trip or changing its destination). All consumer decisions about each service or stage during travelling are made freely (before departure and during travelling). The costs can be incurred at all stages. When choosing a trip organized by a travel agency, a tourist mainly chooses an organizer who will provide the services and a particular offer that usually includes a comprehensive service. In such a case, a tourist makes the majority of decisions before the departure (and incurs most costs), while decisions about less important elements (optional events, souvenirs) are made during the trip.

Standard consumer behaviours can be identified on the tourism services market. They arise from travelling preferences, which are related to tourists' permanent place of living. Such stereotypes, while they are not true for whole nationalities, allow for a quite accurate characteristic of behaviours of most nationalities in the world. Europeans are thought to have completely different characteristics and behaviours than non-European tourists, especially the Chinese, a nation that is becoming more significant in world tourism. There were almost 100 million Chinese who went abroad for touristic reasons in 2012 (estimates show a more than twofold increase by 2020) and they spent more than \$102 billion on travelling abroad (the highest amount in the world). This nation's increased interest in travelling is primarily a result of middle class wealth grow, more moderate visa regulations in most countries across the globe and higher exchange rate of yuan. Despite the fact that the Chinese are perceived as uncivil, bad-mannered, belligerent, noisy and focused on "doing" as many tourist attractions as possible in the shortest time available, most countries try to attract them due to expected financial gain. The consumption structure of Chinese tourists is slightly different from that of European ones, as most of their expenses on tourism products and services (accommodation, food, transport) are relatively lower than those of other tourists but in the end they do their shopping at shopping centres buying expensive branded products.²⁵

Nowadays, the term post-tourist is becoming more common. It describes a person who is aware of the fact that there are neither authentic experiences nor authentic tourism products around them. Such a person accepts tailor-made pseudo-events and chooses from a variety of tourism offers.²⁶ Modern tourists mainly search for otherness and freshness and it pertains destinations to the same extent as experiences connected with travelling. Their decisions on the tourism services market are supposed to reflect their preferred value system and express their consumer identity. Following phenomena can influence modern customer behaviour on the tourism services market:²⁷

²⁵ <http://www.forbes.pl/jacy-sa-chinscy-turysci-,artykuly,160114,1,1.html> (accessed on 6.02.2014), http://www.e-hotelarstwo.com/branza/rynek_turystyczny.html (accessed on 6.07.2014).

²⁶ *Marketing*, op. cit., p. 72.

²⁷ *Ibidem*, pp. 73–74

1. Ephemeralization – a constant pursuit of new sensation; it implies that old tourism offers will constantly be replaced by new ones.
 - a) Tourist profile change, which means the disappearance of the traveller model, where travelling is an active strive to cognition, and its replacement by a tourist model, where travelling is a passive search for sensations.
 - b) Individualization
 - c) Standardization
2. Happynomics (the economy of happiness) the goal of which is to attain an internal harmony through conscious consumption.
3. Determinants influencing consumer behaviours on the tourism market

Consumer behaviours on the tourism services market are shaped by a set of varied factors that can be grouped into external factors (influencing a consumer) and internal factors (characterizing a consumer). The external factors for tourists are economic, demographic, geographic, legal and political.²⁸ Internal determinants influencing consumer behaviours on the tourism market are social and psychological qualities that characterize a consumer and motivations that are inextricably connected with them, which evolve during a person's lifespan as their social and psychological profile changes.

Tourism goods purchasing process has five stages during which various determinants shape the decision-making:²⁹ needs identification, information gathering, options evaluation, purchase decision, behaviour after the purchase. Research conducted by TNS OBOP in 2009 showed³⁰ that the process of purchasing tourism services in a form of a package/tourism event on average takes a few weeks (even in the case of “last minute” offers, as over 20% respondents planned such a trip at least 3 months before the purchase), and the most popular pattern of tourism event purchase (and information sources used) is as follows:

- Stage I – looking for an idea/inspiration for travelling (Internet 65%),
- Stage II – selecting a destination (Internet 58%),
- Stage III – selecting a travel agency/tour operator (own experience 53%),
- Stage IV – looking for an attractive price for a trip/comparing offer prices (Internet 61%),

²⁸ A. Niezgoda, P. Zmysłony, op. cit., pp. 70–71.

²⁹ *Marketing*, op. cit., pp. 65–67.

³⁰ *Ibidem*, p. 79.

- Stage V – making a final decision to purchase a trip (a personal visit at a travel agency 63%),
- Stage VI – looking for useful information about the destination after a trip was chosen (Internet 76%),

The differences in the decision-making process between “last minute” and “first minute” offer are presented in Table 1 below.

Table 1

Last minute vs. early planners

Last minute	Early planners
<p>Shorter decision-making process; almost half of respondents purchased a trip one month or less after coming up with such an idea</p> <p>Price is a more important factor than usually and information is looked for by comparing prices</p> <p>They refer to Internet forums as sources of information</p> <p>Price comparison websites are treated as a more valuable information source</p> <p>Such people like to have the possibility to compare many offers</p>	<p>Long period between coming up with an idea for a trip and its purchase</p> <p>They use a visit to a travel agency as source of information less often</p> <p>TV commercials are completely rejected as an information source</p> <p>The main advantage of the Internet is providing information quickly and without leaving the house</p>

Source: http://obop-arch.tnsglobal.pl/uploads/6451/PL_ROPO_Travel_szczegolowy_raport_z_badan.pdf (accessed on 23.02.2014)

Among all determinants influencing consumer behaviour on the tourism services market, changes in the lifestyle of society that have greatly increased the significance of tourism activity for contemporary people should be considered crucial. As a result of these changes tourism activity, which was still treated as a rare element (occurring about once a year) not so long ago, is currently a constant and rather standard element of life treated equally with other activities. Decisions about travelling are made a few/several times a year and are usually considered first in terms of spending free time actively.

New and gradually stronger trends that shape customer behaviours on the tourism services market include³¹:

³¹ B. Meyer, *Nowe trendy w kreowaniu produktów turystycznych*, “Acta Scientiarum Polonorum, Oeconomia” 2010, No. 9(4), p. 317.

- a) an increase in the number of tourists and trips while their length is shortened; as a consequence there is a demand for more tourism products and their constant modification as well as launching new products, because even if tourists choose the same destination, they expect new/updated products in the offer.
- b) recreational democracy proliferation which means that new social groups (families with small children, disabled, elders, business travellers, single travellers) can participate in tourism and there is a need to create appropriate products for them.
- c) deeper diversification of tourists' needs which means that the diversification of needs related to travelling is wider and it requires a more varied range of tourism products.
- d) gradual increase of demand for services and their quality (even when the number of tourists does not change).
- e) growing impact of trend-setting media (which usually create seasonal trends) that create a demand for particular types of activity, destination regions, types of trips (i.e. all inclusive or 7+7³²).
- f) changes to a preferred lifestyle that promote health and ecological living. As a result, ways of spending free time (active leisure time instead of passive leisure) have been changed and the expectations in terms of environment quality in a tourism region are higher.

Conclusion

Continual changes on the tourism services market are caused by an increasing number of tourists and constant diversification of their travelling interests. There are a few universal trends that set the direction of changes in consumer behaviour on the tourism market. The main trends seem to be a progressing diversification of tourist needs connected to different expectations of various tourist groups (examined from the point of view of different nationalities and societies) and a stable growth of demand for tourism services, which changes faster than the travellers growth suggests. Trend-setting media have more and more influence on the decisions made by consumers on the tourism service markets,

³² A trip that has 7 days of sightseeing and 7 days of leisure.

but they affect it both positively and negatively. However, new trends that create a healthy and ecological lifestyle have an absolutely positive effect on customer behaviour on the market because they build ecological awareness in tourists and may contribute to a change in consumer behaviours on the tourism services market. This may decrease the negative impact of tourism on visited regions.

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ZACHOWANIA KONSUMENTÓW NA RYNKU TURYSTYCZNYM

Streszczenie

Rynek usług turystycznych jest rynkiem zróżnicowanym i stale rozszerzającym swój zasięg, zarówno przestrzenny, jak i produktowy. Turyści i odwiedzający stanowiący

główną grupę konsumentów usług turystycznych podejmują decyzje dotyczące podróży pod wpływem zróżnicowanych czynników, o charakterze wewnętrznym i zewnętrznym, a coraz częściej również pod wpływem chwilowego impulsu. Dostosowanie oferty do oczekiwań konsumentów jest coraz trudniejsze i wymaga szczegółowej identyfikacji determinant podejmowania decyzji wyjazdowych przez turystów. Wyraźnie zaznacza się kilka uniwersalnych trendów wyznaczających kierunki zmian w zachowaniach konsumentów na rynku turystycznym. Głównymi z nich wydają się postępująca dywersyfikacja potrzeb turystów związana z odmiennymi oczekiwaniami różnych grup turystów (rozpatrywanych w różnych kontekstach-grup narodowościowych czy społecznych) oraz stały wzrost zapotrzebowania na usługi turystyczne, rosnący szybciej niż wskazywałyby na to wzrost liczby podróżujących. Coraz większy wpływ na decyzje podejmowane przez konsumentów na rynku usług turystycznych mają media kreujące modę oraz trendy, których celem jest zmiana trybu życia na zdrowy i proekologiczny.

Słowa kluczowe: turysta, rynek turystyczny, konsumpcja turystyczna

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**THE DIRECTIONS OF SHAPING THE REGIONAL
TOURISM POLICY IN VIEW OF THE USE
OF THE EUROPEAN UNION FUNDS**

Abstract

The paper concerns issues of developing tourism policy at the regional level. The main objective of the paper is to present theoretical problems of regional tourism policy, indicating the possibility of its support in the financial perspective for 2014–2020 from the European Union funds in selected Polish regions. European Union funds are means of regional tourism policy and they also shape the state of development of regional and local tourism economy. The research will result in recommendations concerning regional tourism policy in the EU financial perspective 2014–2020.

Keywords: regional policy, tourism economy, tourism policy, EU funds

Introduction

The main part in the implementation of the tourist function at the regional level belongs to local authorities. Thanks to legal regulations, they become the subjects of tourism policy and receive a number of means which shape functioning of regional tourism economy. In Poland, regional authorities are in charge of regional tourism policy and they are responsible for determining regional strategy for tourism development. The key means of regional authorities activity are European funds which through regional operational programmes affect certain

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fields of the social and economic life in the region, including tourism. The primary objective of this paper is to present theoretical problems of regional tourism policy, indicating the possibility of its support in the financial perspective for 2014–2020 from the European Union funds. There were shown the possibilities of the regional authorities to be not only the subject of the regional tourism policy, but also the active subject of tourism economy. The research will result in recommendations concerning regional tourism policy in the EU financial perspective 2014–2020.

1. Tourism economy

The whole sphere of activities, facilities and resources designed to meet the needs created by tourists is called tourism economy. It is “... a set of various economic and social functions, directly or indirectly developed to meet the growing demand for tourist services”.² This definition emphasizes the complexity of the tourism economy and its close relationship with the process of the tourist consumption.³ In the systematic approach tourism economy is defined as a system of interdependencies that may arise between institutions and organizations that are involved in a process of meeting the needs expressed by tourists.⁴ This system includes all measures to meet tourism demand, from changing natural environment to the needs of tourism up to the creation of conditions for tourism development.⁵ Tourism economy manifests itself in all areas of management: the production of goods and services, their distribution, exchange and consumption; it is also found in most sectors of the national economy, operations of which more or less influence, directly or indirectly, meeting the tourist demand.

In the classic approach tourism economy consists of direct and indirect tourism economy. The criterion of assigning entities’ activities to each of the groups is the degree of activity’s indispensability for servicing of tourism movement

² W.W. Gaworecki, *Turystyka*, PWE, Warszawa 2003, p. 161.

³ A.S. Kornak, A. Rapacz, *Zarządzanie turystyką i jej podmiotami w miejscowości i regionie*, Wydawnictwo Akademii Ekonomicznej im. O. Langego we Wrocławiu, Wrocław 2001, p. 11.

⁴ A. Nowakowska, *Gospodarka turystyczna w ujęciu systemowym*, “Folia Oeconomica Cracoviensia” 1988, Vol. 21.

⁵ G. Gołębski (ed.), *Kompendium wiedzy o turystyce*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN, Warszawa–Poznań 2002, p. 135.

and the importance of an activity to tourism for a given entity. The development and changes in the sphere of tourism caused the additional division of tourism economy into usual and complementary. Direct tourism economy (the tourism industry) includes activity of only those subjects which functioning results from meeting the needs reported by tourists.⁶ Usual tourism economy covers above all: hospitality, catering, passenger transportation, travel agencies, companies that operate tourist attractions and tourism information. Complementary tourism economy covers activities in the production of goods and services, companies among other producing sport equipment, trade of products aimed at the tourism market, activities of cultural-entertaining and sport-recreational facilities. The significant scope of activities concerns functions conducted by local authorities and activities of tourism organizations. Indirect tourism economy is the activity of these organizations which respond to the needs expressed by different groups of people (tourists, inhabitants of tourist regions) and that do not create typical and characteristic tourist products,⁷ e.g. in the field of banking and insurance sector, trade, post and telecommunication, public utilities.

From the point of further dissertation, it is necessary to narrow down to direct usual tourism economy since these subjects are potential beneficiaries of EU resources for tourism economy. Among the mentioned types of tourism economy activities, there are tourism enterprises which through their services create an offer in the tourist field. A tourism enterprise can be characterized as a purposefully organized, economically independent and distinguished in technically service, spatial and legal respect team of people, material and financial resources, appointed to conduct a certain business activity (through providing tourist services) in the scope of meeting the needs (existential) of travelling people (and not only) in the sphere of tourism and in a way that allows the enterprise to maximize its benefits.⁸ Therefore, it is an organizational unit conducting a business activity based on chargeable providing of services for participants of various types and kinds of tourism.⁹

⁶ N. Leiper, *The Framework of tourism: Towards a definition of tourism, tourist, and the tourist industry*, "Annals of Tourism Research" 1979, Vol. 6, Iss. 4, pp. 390–407.

⁷ S.J. Page, J. Connell, *Tourism a modern synthesis*, Thomson Learning, London 2006, p. 53.

⁸ A. Rapacz, *Przedsiębiorstwo turystyczne. Podstawy i zasady działania*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN, Warszawa 1994, p. 19.

⁹ A. Rapacz, *Przedsiębiorstwo turystyczne na rynku*, Wydawnictwo Akademii Ekonomicznej im. Oskara Langego we Wrocławiu, Wrocław 1998, p. 15.

2. Regional tourism policy

The condition for the effective operation of tourism economy subjects at the regional level is the development of the cooperation system between:

- a) bodies conducting business activity (tourism enterprises),
- b) voivodeship authorities,
- c) organizations and tourism industry associations, including economic authorities,
- d) regional tourism organization.¹⁰

A country and its authorities play the regulatory role in the processes of tourism economy.¹¹ Tourism policy is an activity which determines economic, political, social and cultural objectives connected with tourism development, achieving versatile positive effects which result from the existence of demand and supply, trying to meet the social needs in terms of tourism and specifying essential means to do that.¹² The strategy for carrying out economic politics should be based on creating and protecting conditions, so that the mechanism of automatic adjustment of supply to demand through prices, that is market, works. However, it requires the protection of property law and the settlement of disputes over contracts and also the existence of many independent producers, well-informed and well-protected customers, free price formation, free entrance and exit from the given market. Creating such conditions requires many regulations and public institutions.

According to the division of tasks of public administration at the national and regional level, the primary institution responsible for tourism policy at the regional level in Poland are voivodeship authorities (the voivodeship board and the voivodeship assembly). The basic objectives of tourism policy are:

- fulfilling the tourism needs of a society,
- reasonable use of tourist attractions and labour and capital resources in the sphere of tourism economy,
- development of the optimal size and structure of tourism movement,

¹⁰ A. Panasiuk (ed.), *Gospodarka turystyczna*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN, Warszawa 2008, p. 25.

¹¹ L. Pender, R. Sharpley (ed.), *Zarządzanie turystyką*, PWE, Warszawa 2008, p. 270.

¹² S. Wodejko, *Ekonomiczne zagadnienia turystyki*. Wyższa Szkoła Handlu i Prawa, Warszawa 1998, p. 170.

- coordination of tourism development which takes into account its various features and links with other areas of economy.¹³

Regional authorities are a tourism economy entity which is, on the one hand, a sub-system of national government and, on the other hand, a type of civil society organization.¹⁴ From the point of regional tourism economy, regional authorities through their activities protect functioning of this economy.

A cooperation platform for voivodeship authorities and entrepreneurs and tourism organizations in voivodeship is the regional tourism organization. This is the most advanced form of cooperation between all entities interested in tourism development in the spatial aspect. In practice, it creates a direct support for the voivodeship authorities in the implementation of tourism policy.

3. Instruments of regional tourism policy

Activities conducted by the voivodeship authorities result from regulations in three basic legal acts: tourism services act,¹⁵ voivodeship government act,¹⁶ Polish Tourism Organization act.¹⁷ The activities of voivodeship authorities under the regulations of the aforementioned legal acts related to tourism are as follows:

1. Formulating of a strategy for tourism development.
2. Current tourism policy:
 - influences on tourism development,
 - improvement of competitiveness of tourism products,
 - natural environment protection,
 - culture,
 - monuments protection,
 - land planning in the area of tourism,
 - consumers rights protection,

¹³ W. Kurek (ed.), *Turystyka*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN, Warszawa 2007, p. 388.

¹⁴ A. Miszczyk, M. Miszczyk, K. Żuk, *Gospodarka samorządu terytorialnego*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN, Warszawa 2007, p. 29.

¹⁵ *Ustawa z dnia 29 sierpnia 1997 roku o usługach turystycznych*, (tekst jednolity), Dz. U. 2004, nr 223, poz. 2268.

¹⁶ *Ustawa z dnia 5 czerwca 1998 roku o samorządzie województwa*, Dz. U. z 2001, nr 142, poz. 1590.

¹⁷ *Ustawa z dnia 25 czerwca 1999 roku o Polskiej Organizacji Turystycznej*, Dz. U. nr 62, poz. 689.

- acquisition of funds for tourism development,
 - cooperation with tourism industry,
 - cooperation on creating tourist offers,
 - euroregional cooperation on tourism,
 - tourism promotion,
 - regional tourism information system.
3. Tasks assigned by the national government:
- keeping record of regulatory activities of tourism operators and middlemen,
 - classifying hospitality facilities into the particular type and category,
 - issuing of the authorization to give training for candidates for tour leaders and tour guides,
 - giving language qualifications and issuing of ID badges for tour leaders and tour guides.

Voivodeship authorities' activities are crucial in creating regional tourism products that combine services of individual providers of direct tourism economy and para-tourist services in the tourist region. By specifying location of tourism in the structure of the regional economy, particularly through the creation of the tourism development strategy, cooperation and integration of tourism sector, there is a possibility of activating economy at this level and creating new workplaces.¹⁸

Activities of voivodeship authorities, thus creating regional tourism policy, lead to the diversity of particular voivodeships in terms of political style and its actual influence on tourism economy development. Voivodeship authorities use both active and passive instruments of tourism policy affecting directly the level of tourism economy development. Some authorities limit themselves solely to using passive administrative instruments, e.g. tasks assigned from the scope of government administration operations, which means a reluctant, conservative or only declarative attitude to tourism economy development. In consequence, it determines the low level of tourism economy development. Such activities of voivodeship authorities result from the conviction that an attractive tourist area is a sufficient base for retaining a position in the tourism market. Passive instru-

¹⁸ A. Rapacz, *Aktywność jednostek samorządu lokalnego na rzecz wspierania przedsiębiorczości firm turystycznych*, in: *Turystyka w ujęciu podmiotowym i przestrzennym. Człowiek-Przestrzeń-Przedsiębiorstwo*, G. Gołębski (ed.), Wydawnictwo Akademii Ekonomicznej w Poznaniu, Poznań 2006, pp. 296–299.

ments maintain the state of tourism economy at the same level, however, they do not develop economy and in the long term they lead to limiting the role of an area as a tourist destination. The steady and progressive development of tourism economy is guaranteed by activating of authorities into protourist initiatives with the use of active instruments. The principal premise for these activities being successful is an active cooperation between institutions (appointing and cooperating with regional tourism organization, supporting cluster structures), the involvement in investment through one's own resources and EU funds and the influence on creating local and regional tourism products.

The key task of the regional tourism policy should be constituted by actions directed to direct providers of tourism services that determine the actual income arising from servicing tourism movement, i.e. to the tourism industry. The scope of the government policy in relation to the tourism industry is a derivative of a general economic policy. Tourism economy entities are beneficiaries of the policy, similarly as other entrepreneurs in the market. Among the tasks addressed in relation to tourism enterprises, one can distinguish following aspects:

- encouragement of the development of tourism infrastructure,
- creation of conditions for the modernization of the material base of tourism,
- stimulating actions that improve efficiency of tourism enterprises,
- state aid (including grants),
- institutional support and investment.

4. The evaluation of actions of regional tourism policy entities in terms of EU funds use

Local authorities have a decisive role in implementing tourist function at the regional and local levels. Direct tourism economy entities, especially tourism entrepreneurs, conduct activities within the scope of providing tourist services. Cooperation between local authorities and tourism industry entities is a base for tourism economy operations, and thus implementation of synergy effects. The use of EU funds is an active instrument of local authorities actions that enables a comprehensive development of tourism economy. Activities within that scope should be undertaken both independently by local authorities, but also in cooperation with tourism organizations and enterprises.

Comprehensive research¹⁹ showed that the main beneficiaries of EU funds for tourism economy are local authorities.²⁰ Whereas tourism entrepreneurs mainly benefit from a dedicated support for business entities from SME sector.

From entrepreneurs' point of view, it appears that during the financial perspective 2007–2013 the activity of municipal authorities was limited to carrying out initiatives related to EU financing of tourism projects independently, without a will to cooperate with tourism entrepreneurs. Hence, the cooperation in terms of development of local tourism products was rather limited and the development needs of tourism entrepreneurs were almost not seen.

5. Recommendations for the tourism development strategy in financial perspective 2014–2020

The issue of changes in terms of facilitating awarding EU funds that were suggested by tourism enterprises' representatives should be taken into consideration during the next EU's financial perspective. According to research, above all it is essential to introduce changes in the application settlement procedure (47% of recommendations), streamline the application structure (45%), reduce delays in reimbursement of expenditures (42%) and provide conceptual support from a financing institution (37%).²¹

Looking at the issue in a broader perspective, we should comment on the government strategic documents on a comprehensive development of tourism economy in which spatial aspects are emphasized. The priority areas of reinforcing the dynamics and harmonization of tourism development defined in *Directions for Tourism Development until 2015* encompass, as previously stated: the development of tourism products, human resource development, marketing support and the development of the tourist space. The main premise of this document was to approach tourism as a field strictly connected with nu-

¹⁹ A. Panasiuk, *European Union Funds in the Development of Regional Sustainable Tourism Economy in 2007–2013*, 2nd International Scientific Conference Tourism in South East Europe 2013, Rijeka 2013, pp. 267–277.

²⁰ A. Panasiuk (ed.), *Fundusze Unii Europejskiej w gospodarce turystycznej*, Difin, Warszawa 2014.

²¹ Ibidem.

merous development processes and to shape it in tune with other socio-economic development objectives of the country. The implementation of the document's principles was supposed to support building strong foundations for tourism economy, increase the competitiveness of Polish tourist offer in the domestic and international markets, and use tourism as an important factor that would support entrepreneurship. However, the referred strategic document practically did not point to particular actions connected with using EU funds for the development of a typical direct tourism economy. It is expected that, for the upcoming EU financial perspective, a government department responsible for tourism will prepare a new document for the period until 2022, which will be then accepted by the government. Such document should explicitly point out what the strategic activities of the country in terms of tourism economic are, where funds from European Union's support should be allocated to. The following main areas of support should be listed:

- the development of passenger transport system that would focus on the needs of tourist movement (especially rail and air transport), although these activities are outside of the Ministry of Sport and Tourism's competences, but the ministry should cooperate with the ministry responsible for infrastructure;
- impact on the development of the tourist space, including the development of tourist facilities that would extend the tourist season and create new forms of tourism;
- actions directly aimed at tourism entrepreneurs and the development of tourist offer;
- actions aimed at tourist demand that would be mainly connected with social tourism and financing tourism of social groups (seniors, children and teenagers, disabled people); mobilisation of some social groups would increase the volume of use of tourist base and directly influence the results of the tourism industry.²²

The most crucial aspect of EU support for tourism economy pertains to the regional level. The basic source of financing are regional operational programmes. Available data show that in the next financial perspective there will not be any actions directly dedicated to tourism economy in the programmes. Additionally, financial support will be limited to about 50% of planned costs

²² A. Panasiuk, *Rynek turystyczny. Studium strukturalne*, Difin, Warszawa 2014.

of tourism projects. It means that the beneficiaries will have to obtain larger own contribution for tourism projects. Such change will probably reduce the number of applications for tourism economy objectives filed by local authorities. Lack of clear emphasis of support for tourism objectives does not mean that tourism economy entities will be excluded from EU financing. However, it will be harder to indicate priorities related to the development of tourism economy in operational programmes. The issue of coexistence of tourism and culture will also become marginal. In previous financial perspectives, it limited the possibility of obtaining funds for strictly tourist objectives. The main scope of financing will, among others, include innovations and so called creative industries. It seems that there should be some mechanism functioning in this aspect and first of all there should be some special actions directed to direct tourism economy entities that were marginalized in the previous financial perspectives.

At the microeconomic level, strategies are developed by tourism enterprises. They have the most specified market scope, as they are a concrete action plans, and they formulate main objectives and response policy. Conducted analyses show that only to small extent were tourism entrepreneurs the beneficiaries of EU funds for their market activities. They were not also perceived as partners to cooperate with in terms of activities undertaken by local authorities. It seems that indicated EU financing priorities in the new financial perspective should favour entrepreneurs. Hence, local authority bodies that want to obtain financing through EU funds will more eagerly cooperate with direct tourism economy entities in order to realize joint tourism projects. Thus a broader implementation is to be expected in terms of public-private partnership in tourism economy. Therefore, an important issue that need model solutions is enabling access to financing of activities within the scope of the development of tourism economy by as large range of entities that created it as possible. Thus, entities that will have a possibility to apply for EU funds in terms of tourism projects should include:

- tourism enterprises,
- local authority bodies,
- tourism organizations.

Projects realized in cooperation by the abovementioned entities should constitute a special area of EU support. Then, EU funds will directly determine the development of tourism enterprises, as well as the whole local and regional tourism economy.

Conclusion

A synthetic summary of presented considerations shows that the basis for the development of regional tourism economy is developing tourism policy through making active instruments (economic, institutional) more prevalent than passive instruments (administrative and especially declarative) in the structure of local authorities' actions. This should be done while retaining essential range of obligatory activities that stem from the provisions of self-government law and the Tourism Services Act. Comprehensive cooperation is the base for effective operations of tourism economy. European Union funds managed by voivodeship government as part of ROP constitute an active formula for implementing regional tourism policy, which unfortunately is not completely effective.

Obtaining financing from EU funds should result in raising the tourist attractiveness level of areas. The scope of actions carried out in tourism economy, both in case of local authorities and tourism enterprises, determine the development of regional and local tourism economies of the two analysed regions.

It will be possible to propose actions necessary to change the structure of regional operational programmes and the tourism development strategy to authorities managing EU funds thanks to the conducted diagnosis of the tourism enterprises' engagement in applying for EU funds and the evaluation of EU funds use in tourism economy. One of the important problems is the issue of expanding the availability of EU funds for business entities (tourism enterprises – hospitality sector, transport sector, travel agencies and other entities responsible for available offer at tourist destinations). Higher percentage of tourism entrepreneurs that use EU funds should ensure a more dynamic development of tourist offer, tourism development and have a real influence on economic growth of regions, the labour market and the quality of life of inhabitants.

It should be emphasized that tourism economy contributes to socio-economic development of the country. Only active cooperation between local authorities, tourism organizations and tourism enterprises can result in expected effects that would be in line with implementation of provisions in strategic documents. The conducted research can be the basis for determining the objectives for the development of tourist areas and it should be the foundation for shaping actions for regional tourism policy for the next EU financing perspective, i.e. 2014–2020.

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**KIERUNKI KSZTAŁTOWANIA REGIONALNEJ POLITYKI
TURYSTYCZNEJ W ASPEKCIE WYKORZYSTANIA ŚRODKÓW
UNII EUROPEJSKIEJ**

Streszczenie

W referacie zostaną zaprezentowane zagadnienia kształtowania polityki turystycznej na szczeblu regionalnym. Podstawowym celem opracowania jest przedstawienie teoretycznych podstaw regionalnej polityki turystycznej wraz ze wskazaniem możliwości jej wsparcia w perspektywie finansowej na lata 2014–2020 ze środków Unii Europejskiej w wybranych regionach Polski. Fundusze Unii Europejskiej są instrumentem regionalnej polityki turystycznej a także kształtują stan rozwoju regionalnej i lokalnej gospodarki turystycznej. Efektem przeprowadzonych badań będą wskazania dotyczące regionalnej polityki turystycznej w perspektywie finansowej UE na lata 2014–2020.

Słowa kluczowe: polityka regionalna, gospodarka turystyczna, polityka turystyczna, fundusze Unii Europejskiej

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RURAL TOURISM AND NON-AGRICULTURAL ACTIVITIES IN RURAL AREAS IN POLAND

Abstract

Rural tourism is increasingly incorporated in strategies of development of rural areas in Poland. This paper presents a characterization of the development of rural tourism in the context of other types of non-agricultural activities in the countryside. The socio-economic status of rural areas and the respective needs of the inhabitants of the country were indicated. The basic need is searching for additional incomes for households. Rural tourism represents an example of supplementation of budgets of agricultural households and takes the third place among other types of non-agricultural entrepreneurship (following services for agricultural farms and forestry, services for rural population and retail sales). These activities are performed by families and mainly provided by small-sized agricultural farms.

This paper points to the regions where, due to the advantageous tourism potential, this type of economic activity is developing most dynamically.

The paper was based on the analysis of secondary source materials, with the main emphasis on the related literature, statistical materials and reports from national-scale empirical surveys devoted to the subject discussed.

Keywords: rural tourism, non-agricultural activities, the country

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Introduction

Development of rural areas in Poland is determined not only by the agriculture but also by other forms of non-agricultural business activity. The focus of Rural Development Programmes for the years 2007–2013 and 2014–2020 is on implementation of the strategy of multifunctional development of the countryside and agriculture. This means that the inhabitants of rural areas who want to increase the incomes in their households, including farmers, should focus on development of different forms of non-agricultural entrepreneurship. One of these forms of entrepreneurship is tourist, sport and relax services that accompany rural tourism.

The aim of this paper is to present the development of services connected with rural tourism in the context of other forms of agricultural activity. The paper also emphasizes socio-economic status of rural areas and the respective needs of the inhabitants of rural areas. One of the basic needs of the people leaving in rural areas is improvement in incomes earned. This need can be met by e.g. development of tourist services that accompany rural tourism, including agritourism.

The basis for writing the paper was analysis of secondary source materials, i.e. the literature, statistical materials and the reports from national-scale empirical surveys in Poland containing the results concerning the problem discussed.

1. Socio-economic aspects of rural areas

Rural areas in Poland account for 93.1% of its surface, with 39.2% of population (15.1 million people). Polish countryside is characterized by a distributed network of locations, with 52,000 countryside locations, including 43,000 villages. Among 15.6 million working people in total in Poland, 38.7% worked in the countryside. The number of people working in the agricultural sector in general reached nearly 2 million, which accounts for 12.9% of the employed. Among those working in individual agricultural farms, ca. 98% are people working in their family agricultural farms, with remaining 2% being hired labour, which was relatively high in the group of farms with the surface area of 50 ha or bigger. The people working in Polish agriculture accounted for ca. 20% of the total of people employed in the EU agriculture.

The biggest problem in Polish agriculture is fragmentation of agricultural farms and unfavourable layout of the land used, which limits the effectiveness of the costs of production and competitive position of the farms. Around 50% of the agricultural farms that were present in 2010 were those with the surface area of up to 5 ha. Small farms with area of up to 5 ha were predominant in the Lesser Poland, Subcarpathian and Świętokrzyskie Voivodeships, whereas the biggest percentage of farms with the area of over 100 ha was in the West Pomeranian, Warmian-Masurian and Pomeranian Voivodeships. A substantial number of farms with area of 50 to 100 ha (thus the farms with high production potential) were present in Lubusz, Opole, Lower Silesian, Kuyavian-Pomeranian and Greater Poland Voivodeships.

There were 4.4 million (of 13.6 in total) of households in rural areas in Poland in 2011. The most of the households were connected with agricultural farms. Average number of people living in the household farms in the country was 3.40, compared to 2.82 in Poland in general.

The unemployment rate in 2011 in the country was 14.0% (compared to 12.4% in cities). Among the unemployed, 40% were inhabitants of rural areas. High level was also observed in the unemployment rate among young people (up to 25 years of age). The rate of increase in the unemployment rate in the countryside was higher among the population that worked in their agricultural farms compared to the non-agricultural population.¹ The inhabitants of the country, including farmers, are exposed to the highest degree of poverty, similar to pensioners and people who subsist on non-income sources (e.g. provided by social assistance institutions).

In 2006–2012, the percentage of the people threatened with extreme poverty and living in the countryside was at the level of 2 to 3 times higher than in the cities, whereas this number among farmers was 3 to 5 times higher than those who run their own businesses.

The most serious barriers in development of rural areas include the condition of technical and functional infrastructure as well as social infrastructure.² Considering technical and functional infrastructure, the highly unsatisfactory status is observed in local transport infrastructure and public communication. Almost 50% of road surface in the country is taken by unpaved roads, with

¹ *Narodowy Spis Powszechny Ludności i Mieszkań 2011*, GUS, Warszawa 2012.

² J. Bański, *Geografia polskiej wsi*, PWE, Warszawa 2008, p. 164.

the remaining part that requires modernization and general renovation. Many gminas (gminas are principal units of territorial division in Poland) are located outside the railway networks, including those liquidated. Sanitary infrastructure also does not provide the suitable quality of living to the inhabitants of these areas.

The state of social infrastructure is highly unsatisfactory, with its main goal being meeting social, educational, cultural, health and safety needs in rural areas. This infrastructure shows serious underinvestment and maladjustment to the present needs. Insufficient development concerns in particular health service centres as well as cultural, recreational, tourist and educational centres.

2. Basic needs in rural areas

Socio-economic status in rural areas in Poland poses a serious risk of the increase in the level of poverty and a risk of deepening of the developmental differences between the voivodeships and in individual voivodeships between the city and the countryside. Therefore, it generates the problems that necessitate solutions and the needs to be met. One of the basic needs in rural areas in Poland is the improvement in incomes in small farms. Small agricultural farms, with low production potential, can either be transformed or develop their agricultural production as well as diversify the products offered in the field of non-agricultural activities. All these directions require adequate investments.

Another need is to create the opportunities for employment outside the agriculture without the necessity of changing the place of residence. The highest employment rate (including hidden unemployment), low share of non-agricultural activities in the structure of employment in rural areas, lower (compared to cities) level of incomes of the inhabitants of rural areas and higher percentage of people at risk of poverty point to the need for supporting the initiatives that would help people in the countryside find jobs without the necessity of leaving their own place of residence.³ Therefore, it is necessary to support the development of non-agricultural entrepreneurship, create workplaces and facilitate telework.

³ J. Wilkin, *Polska wieś i rolnictwo w obliczu wielkiej szansy*, in: *Wymiary życia społecznego. Polska na przełomie XX i XXI wieku*, M. Marody (ed.), Wydawnictwo Naukowe Scholar, Warszawa 2007, p. 161.

Therefore, the need arises for activation of inhabitants of rural areas and utilization of endogenous potential for local development. It is also necessary to utilize the cultural and tourist potential of rural areas and to stimulate local communities in order to accelerate local economic growth and increase the share of incomes earned by the inhabitants of rural areas on non-agricultural activities.⁴

3. Rural tourism and agritourism as an example of non-agricultural activities in the country

Considering the problems in the country and the respective needs, the European Union create the Rural Development Programme for 2007–2013 and the Rural Development Programme for 2014–2020. The first and the second programmes have implemented the EU's policies that took into consideration the strategy of multifunctional development of rural areas. The aim of this strategy is in particular to ensure proper social and economic conditions of living of rural population, creation of alternative sources of incomes for those living in the country, stabilization of agricultural incomes, modernization of agricultural farms, and ensuring sustainable development of agriculture and rural areas.⁵

The multifunctional development of rural areas in Poland is determined by natural, ecological, economic, financial, and socio-cultural potential of these areas. More specifically, this means initiatives taken or developed by farmers, household members and spouses of farmers, non-agricultural activities or the activities connected with agriculture in order to create non-agricultural sources of incomes and promote employment apart from agriculture in rural areas.

The help within the framework of the Rural Development Programmes is provided for investments connected with starting or development of activities in terms of: services for agricultural farms or forestry; services for population; wholesale and retail sale; craftsmanship and handicraft; construction and installation services; tourist services and services connected with sport, recreation and relax; transport services; communal services; processing of agricultural

⁴ J. Sikora, A. Wartecka-Ważyńska, *Wybrane uwarunkowania turystyki wiejskiej*, Bogucki Wydawnictwo Naukowe, Poznań 2013, p. 34.

⁵ W. Poczta, *Wspólna polityka rolna po 2013 roku – uzasadnienie, funkcje, kierunki rozwoju w kontekście interesu polskiego rolnictwa*, "Wieś i Rolnictwo" 2010, No. 3/2010, PAN IRWiR, Warszawa, p. 81.

goods or edible forest goods; warehousing or storage of goods; production of energy products made of biomass; accountancy; counselling or information services.

The beneficiaries of these activities include people insured based on the Act of December 20, 1996 on social insurance of farmers as farmers, spouses of farmers or household goods members. The examinations carried out by the Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development on implementation of the Rural Development Programme for 2007–2013 concerning the activity No. 311 “Diversification into non-agricultural activities” within the axis III of this programme, focused on the quality of living in rural areas and differentiation of the economy, showed that the most of the initiatives (82%) are the projects implemented by farmers. Members of their families account for 18% of beneficiaries in total, with those with the status of a household member being 3%.⁶ Therefore, one of the preconditions for the support granted to a beneficiary was to start or develop non-agricultural activity, included into one of the 12 groups defined in the Rural Development Programmes 2007–2013. According to the report “Activity 311: Differentiation...”, these groups were aggregated into 5 groups of supported non-agricultural activities. Diagram 1 illustrates the structure of non-agricultural activities.

⁶ Activity 311 “Differentiation into non-agricultural activities” – information about the results of implementation in 2007–2009, Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development, Warsaw, p. 8.

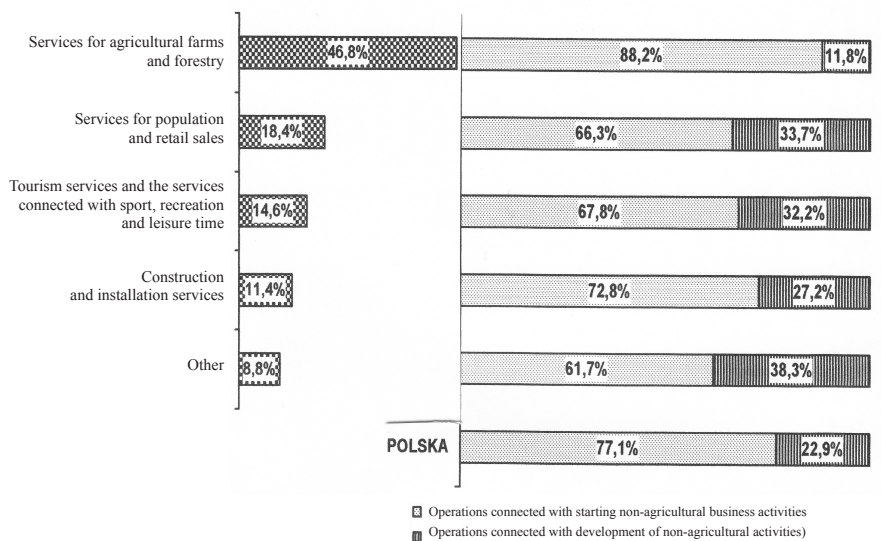


Diagram 1. Types of non-agricultural business activities, including tourism within the framework of the Rural Development Programme 2007–2013

Source: Activity 311 “Diversification into non-agricultural activities” – information about the results of implementation in 2007–2009, Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development, Warsaw 2009, p. 11.

As results from the data presented in the Diagram 1, the activities in the areas of tourist services and the services connected with sport, recreation and leisure time accounts for ca. 15% of non-agricultural activities in rural areas. Comparison of the scope of these activities connected with starting and development of the business activities reveals nearly twice higher level of the operations from the first group (67.8%).

The survey carried out by the Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development also analysed the type of non-agricultural activities depending on sex and social group of beneficiaries (Diagram 2).

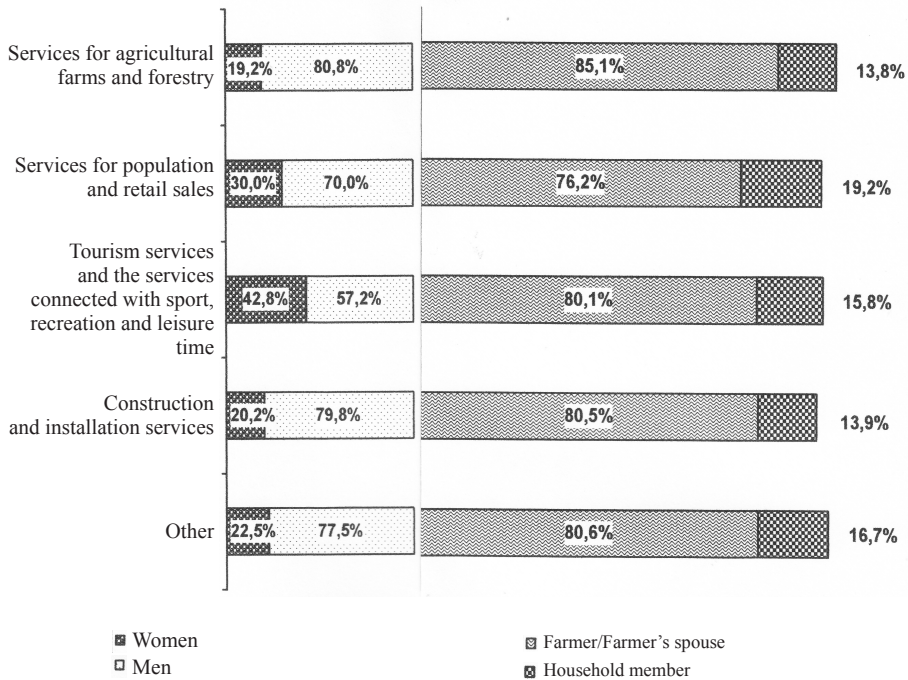


Diagram 2. Types of non-agricultural activities supported, including tourism activities with division into sex and social groups

Source: Activity 311 “Diversification into non-agricultural activities” – information about the results of implementation in 2007–2009, the Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development, Warsaw 2009, p. 12.

Analysis also concerned the type of non-agricultural activity depending on gender and the social group of beneficiary. It can be observed that 42.8% of tourism, recreation and other services (e.g. connected with sport and leisure time) are provided by women. They represent the most substantial group of beneficiaries among all the types of non-agricultural activities. Considering the role that a beneficiary plays in an agricultural farm, it can be found that, in terms of tourism services in the country, the percentage of people who performed a role of a manager of the agricultural farm was over 80.1%. Members of farmers’ families (spouse, household member) accounted for 16% of beneficiaries in tourism and recreation services.

The essential problem analysed in the study is the structure of directions of investments in non-agricultural activities, including tourism in rural areas in individual voivodeship. The respective data are presented in the Diagram 3.

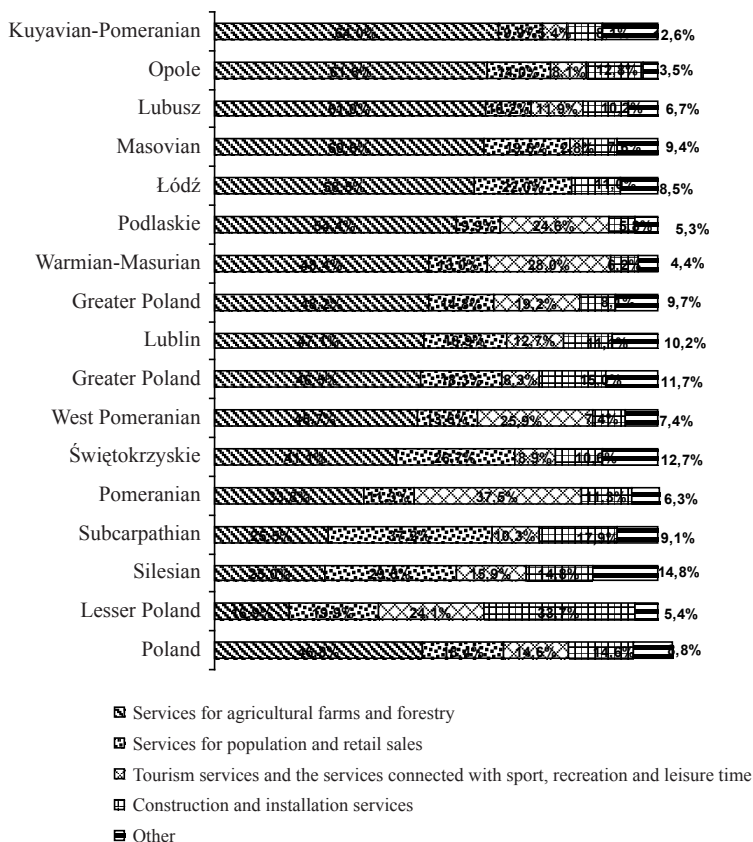


Diagram 3. Type of non-agricultural activities supported, including tourism (according to voivodeships)

Source: Activity 311 “Diversification into non-agricultural activities” – information about the results of implementation in 2007–2009, the Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development, Warsaw 2009, p. 12.

The data above show that tourism, recreation, sport and leisure time services in rural areas are best developed in Pomeranian (37.5%), Warmian-Masurian (28.0%) and West Pomeranian (25.9%) Voivodeships. The level in these voivodeships is substantially higher than the mean level in Poland (14.6%). These voivodeships are traditionally the locations of rural holidays, especially due to their structural and functional potential and the natural conditions present. The basic tourist potential of rural areas according to voivodeships

with respect for natural and cultural values, tourism management and economic and infrastructural conditions is presented in Table 1.

Table 1

Tourist potential of rural areas according to voivodeships in Poland

Voivodeship	Index w (natural and cultural values)	Index z (tourist development)	Index e (economic and infrastructural conditions)	Typ
Lower Silesia	0.369	0.498	0.624	wCzBeA
Kuyavian-Pomeranian	0.363	0.250	0.368	wCzCeB
Lublin	0.343	0.309	0.036	wCzCeC
Lubusz	0.394	0.294	0.464	wBzCeA
Łódź	0.328	0.141	0.279	wCzCeB
Lesser Poland	0.685	0.987	0.450	wAzAeA
Masovian	0.440	0.174	0.378	wBzCeB
Opole	0.295	0.150	0.364	wCzCeB
Subcarpathian	0.659	0.625	0.275	wAzBeB
Podlaskie	0.449	0.874	0.021	wBzAeC
Pomeranian	0.474	0.955	0.535	wBzAeA
Silesian	0.369	0.355	0.549	wCzBeA
Świętokrzyskie	0.421	0.347	0.158	wBzBeC
Warmian-Masurian	0.468	0.932	0.175	wBzAeC
Greater Poland	0.405	0.208	0.524	wBzCeA
West Pomeranian	0.402	1.000	0.478	wBzAeA

A – the most beneficial conditions, B – average conditions, C – the least beneficial conditions

Source: *Turystyka wiejska, w tym agroturystyka, jako element zrównoważonego i wielofunkcyjnego rozwoju obszarów wiejskich. Raport końcowy*, Agrotec. Polska Sp. z o.o., PAN IGiPZ, Warsaw 2012, p. 50.

The data contained in the Table 1 confirm that the Lesser Poland Voivodeship has the highest tourist potential. All three indices (natural and cultural values – 0.685, tourist development – 0.987, and economic and infrastructural conditions – 0.450) have category A, i.e. the most beneficial conditions (wAzAeA). The investment activities oriented at tourism, recreation, sport and leisure time in the country are also implemented at a good level in this voivodeship (24.1%, Diagram 3). The Pomeranian Voivodeship (wBzAeA) and West Pomeranian Voivodeship (wBzAeA) have very advantageous conditions of tourism potential

in rural areas, conducive to development of tourism in the areas where the index of supporting tourism activities in the country is, 37.5% and 25.9%, respectively, Diagram 3). In conclusion, it can be concluded that the interest in investments and starting tourist activities in rural areas is consistent with present character of tourism potential in rural areas in individual voivodeships in Poland.

The data concerning the support for an additional non-agricultural activity i.e. rural tourism according to the size of agricultural farms seems to be interesting (Diagram 4). It turns out that tourist activity as an additional activity in the agricultural farm was the most often started by farmers working in smaller farms (up to 20 ha). In the farms with the surface area of over 20 ha, the interest in tourism and recreation services was decreasing. The opposite tendency was observed in the services for agricultural farms and forestry. These activities developed more intensively in bigger farms (Diagram 4).

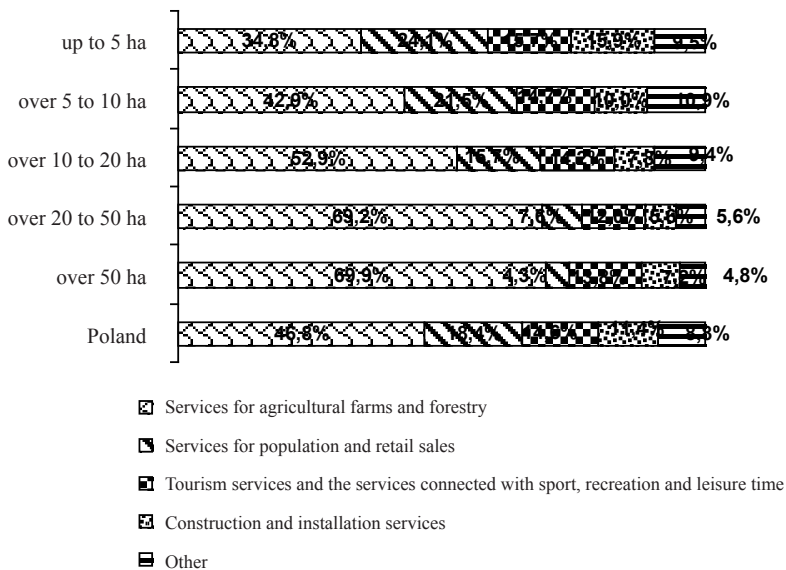


Diagram 4. Types of non-agricultural activities supported, including tourism activities divided according to the size of the agricultural farm

Source: Activity 311 “Diversification into non-agricultural activities” – information about the results of implementation in 2007–2009, the Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development, Warsaw 2009, p. 13.

Development of tourism services in small agricultural farms involves not only the necessity of searching for additional sources of incomes as they ceased to be self-sufficient. Supporting tourism activities in these activities is also affected by other factors. For example, by using (often out of the necessity) the low level of fertilizers and chemical means of protecting plants, the farms might offer foods that meet ecological criteria, although they do not have any formal ecological certifications⁷.

Conclusion

Socio-economic status of the Polish countryside, which manifests in e.g. fragmentation of agricultural farms, which are mainly oriented at meeting the current needs of families rather than the market, high unemployment and social poverty, points to the need for searching for incomes outside the agriculture. Development of rural tourism as an example of non-agricultural entrepreneurship is determined not only by the resources of natural and cultural potential of rural areas but first and foremost by the socio-economic needs of the inhabitants of the country. The substantial motivator for revival of non-agricultural entrepreneurship in rural areas is also the policy of the European Union contained in the strategy of multifunctional development of the country and agriculture.

The study shows that services connected with rural tourism account for 15% of non-agricultural activities in rural areas. The most developed services provided are those for rural and forestry farms (46.8%) and rural population, including, retail sales (18.4%). Tourism services are at the third place.

It is remarkable that, compared to other types of non-agricultural activities, tourism activities in the countryside are mainly performed by women (42.8%) with the help of farmer's spouse (80.1%). Therefore, it can be concluded that rural tourism is an activity that involves the families in agricultural farms.

As an additional activity in agricultural farms, rural tourism is most often started in smaller farms (up to 20 ha). In bigger farms, with their areas of over 20 ha, the interest in this type of entrepreneurship decreases.

⁷ J. Sikora, *Agroturystyka. Przedsiębiorczość na obszarach wiejskich*, Wydawnictwo C.H. Beck, Warszawa 2012, p. 215.

Services connected with rural tourism are most often developed in Pomeranian, West Pomeranian and Lesser Poland Voivodeships, i.e. in the voivodeships with substantial tourism potential in the form of natural and cultural values, tourism development and economic and infrastructural conditions.

Development of rural tourism is determined not only by objective conditions but also by subjective factors, inherent in awareness of farmers and inhabitants of the village, motivated in particular by supply-related determinants. There are substantial barriers that continue to be present in awareness and attitudes of the inhabitants of rural areas and limit the development of rural tourism. These difficulties have to be overcome to motivate people in the country, especially farmers, to open towards the needs of non-rural population.

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TURYSTYKA WIEJSKA W DZIAŁALNOŚCI POZAROLNICZEJ NA OBSZARACH WIEJSKICH W POLSCE

Streszczenie

Turystyka wiejska coraz szerzej wpisuje się w strategię wielofunkcyjnego rozwoju obszarów wiejskich w Polsce. W artykule przedstawiono charakterystykę stanu rozwoju turystyki wiejskiej w kontekście innych rodzajów działalności pozarolniczej na wsi. Wskazano na sytuację społeczno-ekonomiczną obszarów wiejskich i wynikające z niej potrzeby mieszkańców wsi. Podstawową potrzebą jest poszukiwanie dodatkowych dochodów w gospodarstwach domowych. Turystyka wiejska stanowi przykład uzupełniania budżetów gospodarstw rolnych i znajduje się na trzecim miejscu wśród innych rodzajów przedsiębiorczości pozarolniczej (po usługach dla gospodarstw rolnych i leśnictwa oraz usługach dla ludności wiejskiej i sprzedaży detalicznej). Jest to działalność rodzinna, w przeważającym zakresie świadczona przez mniejsze obszarowo gospodarstwa rolne.

W artykule wskazano na regiony, w których ze względu na sprzyjający potencjał turystyczny najszerzej rozwija się ta działalność gospodarcza.

Artykuł napisany został na podstawie analizy materiałów wtórnych, głównie literatury przedmiotu, materiałów statystycznych i raportów z ogólnopolskich badań empirycznych poświęconych omawianemu tematowi.

Słowa kluczowe: turystyka wiejska, działalność pozarolnicza, wieś

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DETERMINANTS AND FORMS OF COOPERATION IN TOURISM

Abstract

The article covers the following issues: factors determining cooperation of tourism entities, forms of such cooperation and influence on its scope exerted by the state and local authorities. The conducted considerations that the basis for the cooperation of tourist operators, regardless of size, is preparing tourist products and actions aimed at their enhancement by innovations, product quality improvement and portfolio extension. Additionally, the subject of cooperation in the case of entities operating in a limited scale is bridging gaps in resources and skills as well as educational and advisory activities, while in entities operating in a larger scale – extending the market and gaining access to tourist assets and specialist skills. A significant role in shaping such cooperation is played by a tourism policy pursued by the state, region and in a local scale through development programmes and strategies applying to tourism activities and their implementation tools.

Keywords: tourism, tourism entities, cooperation

Introduction

Needs regarding cooperation between tourism entities are varied as, on the one hand, they result from their internal operational factors, and on the other – from external factors associated with their environment. Generally, greater attention is paid to external factors, thus focusing on opportunities and limitations of cooperation between tourism entities in competitive conditions. Internal

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factors are treated as a result of these determinants having influence on forms and scope of cooperation between tourism entities, not always acting in favour of producing a finished product or a comprehensive portfolio. It results from insufficient capacities of action of these entities, limited operational scale, lack of resources for development and changes as well as maintaining the position in the market or strengthening it, and independent entering the market. Such situation occurs in developing areas – like in the case of tourism in Poland in the period of transformation and crisis of the economy. This is where a need of support provided by governmental and local authorities arise with respect to using various tools supporting tourism entities' development and operations.

Taking into account the complexity of the presented issues, the article attempts at determining factors and forms of cooperation between tourism entities, and in particular between entities pursuing similar activities in a limited scale in a local and regional market. The aim of the paper is both cognitive and application. The article covers the following issues: factors determining cooperation of tourism entities, forms of such cooperation and influence on its scope exerted by the state and local authorities. The issues have been analysed based on subject literature, observation of cooperation between tourism entities and activity in this regard displayed by governmental and local authorities as well as the author's own considerations.

1. Determinants of cooperation in tourism

Cooperation between economic entities has been in place since the moment the exchange economy emerged, but its scope, intensity and forms changed in particular stages of economic development, from exchange and trade in goods, through cooperation and integration of actions, providing specialist services and deliveries and franchising, to joint ventures and projects.¹ Needs for joint actions are mostly similar in individual domains of economic life, but they also have a specific nature resulting from the manner of conducting a given activity and determinants associated with it, like for example in tourism.

¹ See: J. Lichtarski, *Formy kooperacyjne [Cooperative forms]*, in: *Podstawy nauki o przedsiębiorstwie [Foundations of business research]*, J. Lichtarski (ed.), Wyd. Akademii Ekonomicznej [University of Economics Publishing House], Wrocław 2005, p. 443.

Needs for cooperation in tourism result from various groups of factors. The primary ones, comprising its specific character, may be listed as follows:

1. Complexity of tourist demand, comprising varied assets and tourist infrastructure as well as tourist product preparation services performed by different entities.
2. Fulfilment of tourist demand through linking of various services and preparation of a tourist package.
3. Geographic diversification of demand for tourist services and travels, encompassing different places and countries, along with cooperation between entities operating there.
4. Policy of tourist assets protection and conservation for future generations.
5. Policy of economic activity development, including tourist activities pursued by individual places, local authorities or countries and unions of countries (i.e., European Union).

The mentioned determinants of cooperation in tourism are varied but linked with regards to tourist product preparation and care for the product quality. The activities are performed directly by the concerned tourism entities in line with concluded agreements stipulating the scope and forms of cooperation. They may be supported by national, regional and local authorities by way of programmes and strategies related to development of economic activity, also in tourism, along with such programmes and strategies implementation tools. Similar support occurs in the cases of joint activities of different countries (e.g., in cross-border regions). Actions supporting cooperation between tourism entities aim at stimulating their activation and joint activities for the benefit of a particular region or product development.

Joint preparation of a tourist product is also associated with noticing common benefits by the cooperating entities on account of increasing the scale of operations and gaining a synergy effect.² In addition, a range of various factors of cooperation between tourism entities should be taken into consideration, resulting from their current situation and position in the market, as well as from management actions in the scope of cooperation.

² M. Zdon-Korzeniewska, *Jak kształtować regionalnie produkty turystyczne? Teoria i praktyka [How to develop regional tourist products? Theory and practice]*, Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Jagiellońskiego [Jagiellonian University Publishing House], Kraków 2009, pp. 142–144.

2. Tourism policy impact on cooperation between tourism entities

Tourism policy is deliberate supporting and shaping tourism by a country (or a union of countries) and local authorities, involving establishment of economic, political, social, cultural and ecological objectives with respect to its development as well as implementation tools. Thus, EU tourism policy objectives are as follows:³

- adopting the concept of sustained and sustainable tourism development;
- increasing tourism economy competitiveness and profitability;
- supporting improvement in the quality of tourist product.

The established EU tourism development objectives are a reference for tourism policy objectives in particular countries. In Poland, in *Directions for tourism development until 2015*, four priority areas have been adopted:⁴

1. Highly competitive tourist product.
2. Development of human resources contributing to tourism development.
3. Marketing support.
4. Shaping the tourist space.

Within the four areas, operational objectives have been established, mostly including or potentially including support for cooperation between tourism entities. In particular, this applies to Priority Area I, “Creating and developing competitive tourist products”, where cooperation between tourism entities may include concentration of resources, implementation of innovations and preparation of tourist services packages. Actions with respect to creating a competitive product of a given area may be supported by the development of leading types of tourism related with the area’s assets (e.g., health resort or pilgrimage tourism) and with tourist infrastructure development. In addition, a significant role in these activities may be played by supporting entrepreneurship in tourism and aiding it by way of educational activities (e.g., through advisory programmes for tourist businesses). The other three priority areas include actions supporting operations of tourism entities and preparation of competitive tourist products, including products preserving and enhancing the quality of tourist space in line

³ R. Pawłusiński, *Gospodarcze aspekty turystyki [Economic aspects of tourism]*, in: *Turystyka [Tourism]*, W. Kurek (ed.), Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN [Polish Scientific Publishers PWN], Warszawa 2008, p. 393.

⁴ *Directions for tourism development until 2015*, Ministry of Sport and Tourism of the Republic of Poland, Warszawa 2008, pp. 23–54.

with sustainable development.⁵ Operational objectives of tourism and activities aimed at their accomplishment vary, but share comprehensive focus on tourism development. From the point of view of supporting tourism entities cooperation, the objectives may be listed as follows:

- tourism economy development and tourism management in a given area;
- alignment of tourist infrastructure and services to tourist assets held;
- reasonable use of production factors resources engaged in tourism economy;
- coordination of development of tourism and its associations with other spheres of life;
- use of means necessary for the accomplishment of the listed objectives.

Such support may be carried out at the state level as well as in particular regions and local structures preparing tourism development programmes and strategies. Bałtów municipality may serve as the example, with a Jurassic park, containing life-size reconstructions of dinosaurs (over 100 models at the moment), opened in 2004. The park's trails are divided into sections demonstrating subsequent Earth geologic ages, from the Cambrian until the moment of appearance of humans in the Neolithic period. The park is linked with other attractions prepared for tourists, such as: Lost World of Dinosaurs – an educational trail Żydowski Jar, where, surrounded by steep walls of gorges, tourists can encounter authentic footprints left by dinosaurs, Bałtów menagerie with exotic animals from various continents or historical oceanarium where one can see how underwater life looked like millions years ago, etc. The park has become a leading attraction of the municipality and the Świętokrzyskie province, visited by more than 300 thousand guests from all over Poland each year⁶. The starting point for tourism activities in the municipality were local excavations which gave rise to the creation of tourist assets and basing various tourist products on them. Currently, these products are loosely related to the local excavations but make thematic references to them, like presenting dinosaurs from all over the world or displaying exotic animals. Moreover, the products refer to local natural and cultural assets, which is expressed, i.a., in the following products:

⁵ Ibidem.

⁶ *Bałtów Tourist Complex – JuraPark Dinosaur Park. Bałtów Menagerie (Zwierzyniec Bałtowski), Szwajcaria Bałtowska, Prehistorical Oceanarium (Prehistoryczne Oceanarium) – <http://www.juraparkbaltow.pl>, accessed on: 26 February 2014.*

Kamienna river raft trips, Stary Młyn mill, Sabathówka – the world of ancient Slavic gods and demons, Amusement Park, etc.⁷

The discussed actions and products were made possible thanks to the activities of local inhabitants, but above all because of the development of well thought-out action programmes within the municipality, but also in cooperation with a Local Action Group “Krzemienny Krąg”, uniting 9 municipalities, with the Bałtów municipality performing the role of the leader. The activities are based on a development strategy whose vision has been adopted in the following wording: “We perceive the region as an area of sustainable socio-economic development – eco-development based on clean natural environment, historic and cultural heritage, which thanks to partner cooperation between local authorities, businesses and social organizations will create conditions for better quality of life for its current and future inhabitants, and for tourists visiting it – conditions for attractive rest and recreation”.⁸ It should be emphasized that mission and strategic objectives have been developed simultaneously with the manner and instruments of their accomplishment, encompassing:⁹

- developing new tourist products;
- building tourist infrastructure;
- providing advisory services and conducting trainings in the field of tourism industry;
- acting in favour of creation of conditions for attractive rest and recreation for tourists;
- promoting the region, its assets and tourist offer;
- researching municipality tourist market and providing the results to entities;
- ensuring conditions for efficient sales of local tourist products, including on-line reservation system.

Actions contained in the discussed strategy facilitate functioning of tourism entities but also their cooperation which is emphasized in the operational mission with the following wording: “The Local Action Group “Krzemienny Krąg” is a way of solving economic, social and ecological problems of the region

⁷ Ibidem.

⁸ *Lokalna Strategia Rozwoju na lata 2009–2015 dla Lokalnej Grupy Działania “Krzemienny Krąg”* [Local Development Strategy for the years 2009–2015 for the Local Action Group “Krzemienny Krąg”], Bałtów 2008, p. 41.

⁹ Ibidem, p. 41 et seq.

in a partner manner, consisting in consolidating resources, competences and possibilities of the local authorities, economic and social organizations, with the aim of developing integrated and coordinated actions in order to efficiently carry out the joint vision¹⁰. Cooperation between tourism entities facilitate their start, especially in conditions where possibilities of entering a new market independently are limited or where the operational risk is too high. Such needs arise especially in local economy (in regions inhabited by low-income population which is capable of assessing its capacities and requirements associated with conducting operations and competing in the market. Such is the case also with the discussed strategy encompassing several municipalities, specifying the scope and forms of cooperation in line with the adopted local development policy. This operational model is worth disseminating as it enables engaging resources and strengthening actions.

3. Forms of cooperation between tourism entities

Cooperation between tourism entities can be discussed in various aspects, while the primary ones include the place of operations which influences the type of cooperation and form of partners' association. As far as place of operations is concerned, international, national, regional and local markets should be taken into consideration, depending on which determinants of cooperation change. In the case of local and mostly regional markets, cooperation between tourism entities encompasses in particular:

- bridging gaps in resources and skills;
- educational and advisory activities;
- enhancement of developed products' quality;
- joint preparation of products, including creation of new products;
- joint supplies;
- tourist activities marketing and products sales.

The discussed actions generally apply to competitive entities, only bridging gaps in resources and skills is complementary in nature. Undertaken activities, like in the case of the Local Action Group "Krzemienny Krąg", aim at facilitating conducting tourism activities and increasing their competitiveness. Therefore, a significant role – apart from primary operations, associated with tourist prod-

¹⁰ Ibidem, p. 41.

ucts preparation – is played by educational and advisory activities supporting qualifications and skills of tourism industry entrepreneurs. A training program in the field of agro-tourism in Austria may serve as the example, encompassing the following modules:¹¹

1. *Tourism and agro-tourism* – the issue of conducting tourism activities and the place of agro-tourism, economic and tourism policy, tourism organizations.
2. *Social leadership development* – leadership, motivation, engagement, impact on shaping interpersonal relations, formation of teams, development of group and its dynamics, integration and way of communicating.
3. *Management and decision-making* – problem identification and solving, decision-making and planning, organizing, executing and controlling.
4. *Capital and finance management* – funds sources, estimation of required capital, cash flow, balance sheet, insurance and accounting, etc.
5. *Product development* – current situation, review of resources and possibilities of further actions, market research and determination of future clients' needs, regulations and standards applying to a given product, product technology, development plan with respect to a product and its components.
6. *Market development* – promotion strategy, including advertising and publications, marketing plan (market segments, services classification, competition assessment, sales forecasts) and delivery deadlines.
7. *Client care* – care for the client and their servicing, distribution system, manner of communicating with the client, including provision of feedback on the offered products and their enhancement.

In Poland, similar actions are also undertaken with respect to rural tourism. Agro-tourism or rural tourism associations provide support as regards preparation of tourist products,¹² thus facilitating operations to agro-tourism farms and rural tourism businesses, including their activities aimed at preparation of quality

¹¹ See: N. Gannon, *Szkolenie w dziedzinie agroturystyki [Agro-tourism training]*, in: *Agroturystyka a rozwój wsi. Wprowadzenie do rozwijania przedsięwzięć agroturystycznych [Agro-tourism and rural development. Introduction to developing agro-tourism ventures]*. Wydawnictwo Centrum Doradztwa i Edukacji w Rolnictwie [Rural Advisory and Educational Centre Publishing House], Kraków 1993, pp. 97–98.

¹² See: E. Kmita-Dziasek, *Partnerstwo dla turystyki wiejskiej [Partnership for rural tourism]*, Wydawnictwo Centrum Doradztwa Rolniczego w Brwinowie Oddział w Krakowie [Brwinów Rural Advisory Centre Kraków Branch Publishing House], Kraków 2011.

tourist products. Support in this scope is provided also by rural advisory centres which in this manner pursue the objectives of rural and tourism policy.

Cooperation between tourism entities operating in various markets, including national and international ones, and entities pursuing complementary activities, results from different conditions. In this case, cooperation is primarily based on the following prerequisites:

- access to tourist assets and specialist skills;
- access to the market or its extension;
- globalisation of tastes with respect to tourism;
- globalisation in products preparation;
- operational risk mitigation.

The selection of an entity for cooperation of tourism entities is also determined by a variety of factors, but it is based on price in connection with ensuring continuity and security of provision of services and deliveries, timeliness of offers execution along with their quality and compliance with the order. Taking these factors into consideration, collaborating tourism entities usually pursue the strategy of close and long-term cooperation, focusing on selected providers and tour operators¹³ who implement the objectives of a concluded agreement in the best manner. The main benefits of development of cooperation between tourism entities, especially small ones, like in tourism, are as follows:¹⁴

- increasing allocation of resources and capital and ensuring more flexible operations;
- shortening of the concept preparation and tourist products development cycle;
- gaining increased bidding power through consolidating efforts and strengthening impact on the market;
- consumer investing;
- decreasing costs of product preparation and their sale through the use of scale and scope benefits;
- achieving a competitive position, etc.

¹³ See: R. Baran, *Strategie wobec dostawców i pośredników [Strategies towards providers and agents]*, in: *Strategie marketingowe [Marketing strategies]*, W. Wrzosek (ed.), PWE, Warszawa 2004, pp. 96–101.

¹⁴ See: A.P. Wiatrak, *Organizacje sieciowe – istota ich działania i zarządzania [Network organizations – the essence of their operations and management]*, “Współczesne Zarządzanie” 2003, Iss. 3, pp. 10–12.

In addition, it should be taken into consideration that currently such cooperation may also be the result of organizational restructuring and organization leaning by way of outsourcing and lean management. Perceiving a tourism stakeholder from the point of view of value chain makes it possible to identify individual links of the chain and perform actions associated with them by various entities depending on the size of gained added value.¹⁵ As a result, it leads to costs reduction but also to changes in the organizational structure and work organization as well as management quality improvement.

Conclusion

The conducted considerations result, i.a. in the following conclusions:

1. Cooperation between tourism entities may have various forms and scopes, regardless of their size, while it primarily applies to tourist products preparation.
2. The cooperation should be based, in particular at the current stage of development of tourism entities in Poland, on tourism policy pursued on the national, regional and local level through adopted tourism development programmes and strategies along with implementation tools.
3. Support within the scope of tourism policy tools may appear irrespectively of the efforts of tourism entities, or even exceed their efforts and promote particular forms of cooperation and types of operation.
4. Such support and area development management (with respect to a region or a local structure) will not only benefit cooperation between tourism entities, but also development of joint actions model and cooperation management which will enable the participants to effectively and efficiently accomplish the established objectives and tasks.
5. Joint actions create enhanced possibilities of product preparation and innovations implementation, operational scale extension, products quality improvement, adjustment to the environment, risk management, etc., and favour a change in the current manner of organization and management.

¹⁵ K. Klincewicz, *Organizacje bez granic – łańcuchy dostaw, sieci i „ekosystemy”* [Organizations without borders – deliveries chains, networks and “ecosystems”], in: *Nowe kierunki w zarządzaniu* [New directions in management], M. Kostera (ed.), Wydawnictwo Akademickie i Profesjonalne, Warszawa 2008, p. 118 et seq.

6. Successful and beneficial cooperation requires mutual trust and loyalty of the partners manifested in quick exchange of information necessary for coordination of actions in businesses and management, as well as settlements.
7. Formulated objective of cooperation, rules of conducting it and established manner of communicating between tourism entities limit the possibility of a conflict and risk associated with their joint activities.

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UWARUNKOWANIA I FORMY WSPÓŁPRACY W TURYSTYCE

Streszczenie

Na treść artykułu składają się następujące zagadnienia: czynniki określające współdziałanie i współpracę podmiotów turystycznych, formy tej współpracy oraz oddziaływanie na jej zakres ze strony państwa i samorządów terytorialnych. Z przeprowadzonych rozważań wynika, że podstawą współpracy podmiotów turystycznych, niezależnie od ich wielkości, jest przygotowanie produktów turystycznych i działań związanych z jego doskonaleniem, obejmujących wprowadzanie innowacji, poprawę jakości produktów i poszerzenie oferty. Ponadto w podmiotach o małej skali działania przedmiotem współpracy jest wypełnianie luk w zasobach i umiejętnościach oraz działania edukacyjno-doradcze, a w podmiotach o większej skali działania – poszerzenie rynku zbytu oraz uzyskanie dostępu do walorów turystycznych i specjalistycznych umiejętności. Istotną rolę w kształtowaniu tej współpracy ma polityka turystyczna prowadzona na szczeblu kraju, regionu i w skali lokalnej poprzez programy i strategie rozwojowe działań turystycznych i narzędzi ich wdrażania.

Słowa kluczowe: turystyka, podmioty turystyczne, współpraca

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TOURISM MARKET – INNOVATIVE FORMS OF ADVERTISING

Abstract

The tourist market, considering its specificity associated with the offered complex product and rarity of its acquisition, is constantly changing both in terms of demand and supply. One of the directions is conditioned by the growing competition, which forces companies to implement innovative solutions in all areas of business, including marketing communication. It appears a key issue for advertising and commercials authors to raise the level of their messages visibility and recall.

This article is all about innovative ideas in advertising (ambient media, guerrilla marketing, comparative advertising, shockvertising, teaser, brand hero) used by companies operating in the tourism market. The theoretical background of the case study is based on reflections about the specifics of the tourism market in terms of supply and demand, as well as the directions of innovations in the field of advertising .

Keywords: tourism product, tourism market, innovative advertising

Introduction

The tourist market is extremely competitive with so many entities including international corporations operating on it. They have sufficient capital reserves to

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enable the implementation of innovative solutions in all areas of business, including marketing communications. As a result, the market imposes high requirements on businesses and obliges them to apply modern promotional activities.

When planning and implementing promotional activities at the tourist market one should take into account its specific features, determinants of consumer behaviour on the tourism market, consumer preferences in relation to the ways and forms of promotion of tourism products, as well as legal regulations for the promotion, including tourism products.

The purpose of this study is to present innovative ways of advertising applied by companies on the tourism market on the background of theoretical considerations regarding the specific features of the tourism market in terms of supply and demand and the directions of innovation in the field of advertising.

1. Product specific features and tourism market

A product, in terms of marketing, means all that is offered to buyers on the market and is able to meet a particular need or desire. It may be a tangible thing, a service, a notion, an idea, a place, a project, people or a combination of these factors.¹ In the meaning of the tourist industry a product is the tourist product, which is characterized by the extent, diversity, complexity and multidimensionality of perspectives and is described by many definitions. The tourist product is a package consisting of a number of constituent components, both of a material and immaterial kind, which lead to reach the target, which is a tourist trip. Once it is sold, it brings economic benefits to the trader. The components of the tourist product are resources (attractions), tourist destination (natural and anthropogenic), tourism and associated tourism infrastructure, availability of the tourist stay, its image (existing mostly in the minds of potential buyers) and the price of the product, which depends on its location, standards of services, season, means of transport, etc.

A tourism product may be a single service (e.g. accommodation, catering, transport), as well as multicomponent tourist event with a high thematic cohesion in a given place and time. Tourism products also include a place,

¹ Ph. Kotler, *Marketing – analiza, planowanie, wdrażanie i kontrola*, Felberg SJA, Warszawa 1999, p. 7.

an object, a path, and a thing (e.g. a tourist guide, a map, equipment). A tourist product may be considered from a spatial perspective (touristic area), which may be shaped by various entities, as well as from the perspective of tourism businesses (travel agencies, hotel facilities, catering establishments, transporters). Regardless of the classification, tourism products provide the needs of tourism interest as they constitute the supply of the tourism market.

In the branch literature there are many definitions of the market, where the tourist and recreation market is only a sector. Generally, you can specify it as overall exchange relations between persons and institutions providing travel services, representing supply, and individuals and institutions acquiring these services. They represent the demand. The tourist market is characterized by specific features, among others: services are more important than goods, joint demand for goods and services with intertwined sales, shaping the tourism market both at the place of residence (before the tourist's holiday and after his return) and at the place of temporary stay, seasonality of demand.²

The tourist market with its specificity associated with a complex product offer and rarity of its acquisition (it meets sophisticated needs) undergoes constant changes in terms of demand and supply. These are the most important features of modern tourism market:

- an increase in human spatial and social mobility and an increase in our resources and the importance of leisure time and changes in the structure of its use, which may change into an increase in the activity of various social groups in the field of tourism and recreation (e.g. the elderly);
- directing tourists' attention on other than traditional social ties, culture and the desire to improve one's own personality;
- changing of patterns of tourists' conduct under the influence of civilizational and cultural transition and their decision-making regarding ways and means of needs fulfilment, as well as increase of interest in the strategic disposition of the budget (e.g. the use of last and first minute offers);
- increase in the wealth of the society;
- increase in requirements and consumer awareness of the quality of tourist offers, increase in awareness of their rights;

² D. Milewski, *Rynek usług turystycznych i rekreacyjnych*, in: *Marketing w turystyce i rekreacji*, A. Panasiuk (ed.), PWN, Warszawa 2013, p. 32.

- tourists' interests in health, attractive appearance, youth, active recreation which is reflected in an increased interest of qualified health, medical tourism, or SPA and Wellness;
- nature-friendly products preference, growing importance of efforts to protect the environment;
- search for new exploration of tourism and its forms (eg enotourism, tanatourism);
- globalization of world economies affecting the growth of business contacts which influence on the interest of business tourism;
- development of new forms of distribution of tourism services;
- development of means of transport that enable faster way to reach the destination;
- increase in the supply of new, previously unknown tourist products that enable satisfaction abstracting the market segments (eg seniors, teens, singles);
- tightening competitive struggle between the tourist services traders, forcing the introduction of new information systems and technology solutions;
- emerging of new, innovative types of forms of media promotion.

In these changes in the tourism market it is extremely important to have knowledge about the behaviour of consumers and purchasers of tourism services. It may be understood as a complex of actions and activities designed to meet their diverse needs through the purchase of a tourism product according to preference system and perceived reality of cash, and the use of purchased products, including psychological and sociological mechanisms preceding these actions and the ones following them.³ In such behavior the following phases of consumer actions may be distinguished:

- emergence of tourism needs, which are affected by the appearance of many different factors (e.g. marketing of tourism enterprises, the emergence of new financial opportunities of the buyer, imitation of reference groups); the existence of a need is a prerequisite for a motive of action, which means the exciting flow resulting from unfulfilled needs and human behaviour oriented to satisfy such needs;

³ K. Żelazna, *Uwarunkowania zachowań konsumentów na rynku turystycznym*, Zeszyty Naukowe, WSTiR, Problemy Turystyki i Rekreacji nr 3, 2012, p. 27.

- evaluating the alternatives of choosing a tourist offer consists in the analysis of the ability to satisfy the same needs through a variety of offer;
- the decision to purchase a tourist offer that relates to a choice of a village, tourist site, the date and length of stay, means of transport, prices, composition of additional services;
- use of tourist services (consumption), at which stage/level there is a confrontation between ideas (image) of the tourist offer before traveling with its assessment of the place of stay.

Collection and preservation of impression of stay.

A variety of factors which act on any consumer with different force and effect influence the behaviour of consumers and buyers of travel services that is related to the individual characteristic features.

Dichotomy division between economic and non-economic factors as well as internal and external ones in relation to the consumer and his household is most commonly used. Taking into account this last division one can distinguish:

- internal factors, including physiological and psychological factors (general fitness and psychological ability, needs and motives, personality traits), demographic (gender, age, place of residence, education level, stage of development of the life cycle of the family), social factors (leisure time, lifestyle, involvement in a social and professional group), economic (income and its application, savings, access to loans);
- external factors, including geographic factors, macroeconomic (price of tourism and complementary services, tourist supply), social (culture, cultural heritage), information-educational (system of market information, promotional activities of tourism enterprises, local government entities).⁴

2. Innovative advertising in tourism

The modern consumer is constantly bombarded with market information. As a result, advertising actions do not bring the desirable effect, and the efforts spent on them are becoming less effective. Therefore raising the level of visibility and recall of advertising messages is the key issue for advertisers. The way to achieve this objective is the use of modern methods of advertising which, thanks

⁴ Ibidem, pp. 32–35.

to the original idea and the use of innovative technologies, will surprise and impress the recipient, and as a result they will turn his attention to the promoted products, which in turn will translate into the purchase decision.⁵

One of the ways to attract consumers' attention to advertising is the use of ambient media. The term "ambient" was first used in 1996 by a British advertising agency Concorde Advertising. It emerged from the need to provide short and concise name to the thing that the orderers wanted more and more often: "something different" in their campaign.⁶ It is most often explained as alternative advertising carriers, other than commonly known classic media and non-standard campaigns, promotional actions run through this type of the media.⁷ Ambient advertising concentrates on the way of transmission. With the use of a surprise, humour and most of all – creativity – it causes the increase of receivers' interest and their commitment in the promotion process.⁸

Since there is no coherent definition of ambient advertising it is difficult to classify its parts. In the Polish literature and practice of advertising agencies functioning the most common classification includes:⁹

- advertising during trips (on railway tickets, ticket covers, distributors at fuel stations, on floors or stairways or in railway stations etc.);
- advertising during play (on beer coasters and other things in pubs, restaurants and cinema tickets etc.);
- advertising during learning and recreation (advertising on manuals, various objects in schools, gyms and other places of recreation etc.);
- advertising during shopping (on the floor, in shops and in front of them, at the cash, on shopping baskets and carts etc.);
- other forms of advertising, which cannot be included in the above categories (skinvertising, laser shows etc.).

⁵ I. Kowalczuk, U. Ratyńska-Bojar, *Innowacyjne formy promocji na rynku żywności*, Wyd. SCRIPT, Warszawa 2010.

⁶ S. Luxton, L. Drummond, *What is This Thing Called "Ambient Advertising"?* Proceedings of the ANZMAC Conference, *Visionary Marketing for the 21st Century: Facing the Challenge Gold Coast*, Australia 2000, p. 734.

⁷ M. Gębarowski, *Nowoczesne formy promocji*, Oficyna Wydawnicza Politechniki Rzeszowskiej, Rzeszów 2007, p. 24.

⁸ W. J. Paluchowski, M. Marciniak, *Reklama ambientowa – laboratorium kreatywności*, "Marketing i Rynek" 2005, No. 8, p. 37.

⁹ N. Hatałska, *Niestandardowe formy promocji*, "Marketing i Rynek" 2002, No. 11, p. 9.

The idea of ambient marketing is close of the phenomenon of guerilla marketing, which consists in very original, typically low budget solutions in the scope of marketing communication (Media & Marketing Polska, 2006). The terms ambient media and guerilla marketing are sometimes mistaken as synonyms, despite considerable differences between them. The term ambient media is mostly associated with all kinds of unconventional advertising carriers or their untypical location, whereas guerilla marketing means low budget, original marketing actions based on an interesting idea.¹⁰ A good example of ambient advertising may be the campaign of an Internet travel agency Webjet Singapore. In August 2011 in the streets of Singapore huge red suitcases appeared with information about the offer of the office. They were supporting standard city lights of Clear Channel and at the same time they were the intriguing tool encouraging to use the company's services. Another travel agency, Virgin Holidays, had a similar idea four years earlier in London. In its advertising campaign red suitcases were used too and they were placed near the monuments of well known persons in Great Britain in places willingly visited by Londoners and tourists.¹¹

A Russian touroperator of Voyanga in 2012 completed an original idea on the verge of advertising and marketing. They sent seashells to all potential clients. In every seashell there was a small player installed, which played the real sound of the sea and the ocean, seagulls, sounds of fun and information from the touroperator: "Tropical countries are waiting for you. Travel with Voyanga."¹² Meu Mundo agency from Brazil also had the idea: in January 2012 they sent batteries to their clients, more precisely "tourist batteries", which was a rolled leaflet with the offer of the agency. The lead of the campaign was the positive and motivating: "Recharge your batteries!"¹³

Expedia.de portal, on the other hand, decided to use coffee as the advertising carrier. This untypical advertising event was made in 2008 in Germany in Deli Star network. Clients received coffee with the advertising message visible

¹⁰ W.J. Paluchowski, M. Marciniak, *Ambient! Ambient! Ambient!*, Display Poland, 2006, 2, p. 35.

¹¹ <http://www.wirtualnemedia.pl/kreacje/webjet-the-world-supersized-3d-luggage> (accessed 3.03.2014).

¹² <http://www.adeevee.com/2012/01/travel-company-voyanga-the-call-of-sea-direct-marketing/> (accessed 6.03.2014).

¹³ http://adsoftheworld.com/media/dm/meu_mundo_travel_agency_recharge_your_batteries (accessed 26.02.2014).

on the cappuccino top. Additionally, under the cup there was a paper coaster with information about the brand and details of the offer.¹⁴ Another interesting ambient concept was used by D-reizen Travel Agency from the Netherlands. The promotional campaign based was based on raindrops, which showed the message on pavements: “Do you miss the sun too?” Around 1000 locations were used in the campaign nearby 175 offices of D-reizen.¹⁵

A good way to attract clients attention is to compare the offer to another product, which is the comparative advertising, defined as advertising, which directly, or indirectly enables to recognize the competitor or goods/services offered by him.¹⁶ We distinguish two basic forms of comparative advertising – indirect and direct, in which the advertised brand/product is explicitly counteracted with the competitive brand/product and indirect, where certain connections with the competitive brand are implied without direct indications. There are two options for indirect comparative advertising: comparison with “the whole world”, namely depicting one’s own brand as number one, the best of all and comparison with “X brand”, which is advertising with the perspective of a secret product, for example “any washing powder”.¹⁷

Comparative advertising may also be classified in terms of the nature of comparing to competitors. This criterion allows to specify a positive and negative type. The positive type of advertising presents the competitive brand as useful and functional and at the same time it claims that the advertised brand has the same advantages or even more. This type of comparison is commonly formulated as follows: “X product is great, but our product – not only has all the features of the X product, but additionally...”. In the meantime the negative type of comparative advertising points to the disadvantages of the competitive product and claims that they do not exist in the advertised brand at all or are considerably reduced. In such advertising message sentences like: “comparing to our product, X product is not so good at all”. Market analyses prove that the positive type is better seen by the clients.¹⁸

¹⁴ <http://www.coloribus.com/adsarchive/ambient/expedia-milk-foam-12506505/> (accessed 6.03.2014).

¹⁵ <http://freshgreenads.com/raincampaign> (accessed 7.03.2014).

¹⁶ M. Gębarowski, op. cit., p. 44.

¹⁷ B. Kwarciak, *Po plecach lidera*, Aida Media 1996, 6, p. 30.

¹⁸ A. Falkowski, A. Woźnica, *Pułapki reklamy porównawczej*, “Marketing i Rynek” 2008, No. 1, p. 17.

Applying comparative advertising in promotional actions has always been the source of many controversies. Considering numerous discussions on admitting or prohibiting the comparative advertising, European Union decided to uniform the law on the subject issue and in 1997 the European Parliament and the Council adopted Directive 97/55/W, which forms a general rule of admitting this form of advertising, but with a list of reservations, which must be obeyed.

Analyses of the comparative advertising efficiency show that it is more profitable than the conventional forms of advertising in terms of catching client's attention, awareness and commitment.¹⁹ The message is also better adjusted to clients' expectations, as it enhances the positive attitude to the advertised brand, it favourably influences the purchasing intentions and has a stronger impact on the decision on buying a dedicated product.²⁰

An example of comparable advertising is the widely commented campaign of Ecco Holiday touroperator of July 2009. It confronts two popular places to spend vacation: Polish people go to Egypt and Międzyzdroje. Affirmative photos, weather spots and information on the prices of stay leave no doubts which offer is better. In case of this campaign its efficiency was enhanced by the reaction of the authorities of Międzyzdroje, which demanded to remove the name of the town from the ad and media response to the same. The idea of comparing potential holiday places was also used by Neckerman travel agency and it showed weather symbols, which differed between the Baltic beaches and the "Neckerman beaches", which guaranteed comparable prices and 100% sun.

When talking about innovations we must point to so called advergaming (adgaming), which is an interesting example. It is defined as promotional use of video games (meant for consoles, computers, mobile phones), most of all in order to create the brand image and to raise the awareness of the product existence. A special feature of adgaming is influencing the recipient in the atmosphere of fun and leisure, which is very favourable for the brand perception.²¹ We can distinguish two types of application. The first one includes special games

¹⁹ D. Grewal, S. Kavanoor, E.F. Fern, C. Costley, J. Barnes, *Comparative vs. Noncomparative Advertising: a Meta-analysis*, "Journal of Marketing" 1997, No. 4(61), p. 10.

²⁰ A. Falkowski, A. Woźnica, *Reklama porównawcza w praktyce*, "Marketing i Rynek" 2008, No. 2, p. 25.

²¹ Z. Wałaszewski, *Interaktywność gier komputerowych*, in: *Nowe media w komunikacji społecznej w XX wieku*, M. Hopfinger (ed.), Wydawnictwo Oficyna Naukowa, Warszawa 2002, p. 410.

dedicated for the promotional needs of a given brand and the other one – the application of a product placement in the already existing games.

The idea of advergaming was used by the TUI travel agency in Germany in 2011 in one of the most popular Facebook competitions Bad Weather Vacation. It was based on social media and mobile application. The rules of the game were simple – it was enough to download the application to a mobile phone and then log in and check the current weather conditions: rain, winds and temperature. The worse the weather on the mobile phone, the better the competition result. The ratings were updated at the TUI Facebook profile. The award for the winner, who was the person with the worst weather, was a trip to the Dominican Republic.

The advertising, which is ambiguous and problematic appears to catch attention too. Such conditions are fulfilled by the shockvertising. Its rule is the use of motives in such a form or content, which is contrary to the commonly accepted stereotypes in a given society. Most often this type of messages contain sexual context, religious symbols and factors, which evoke fear and disgust. Controversial advertising is often created on the verge of law and their purpose is to efficiently catch clients' attention to the promoted product.

There is a milder form of shockvertising too and we call it a teaser. The teaser advertisements are defined as a form of communication, which before presenting the proper message, tries to activate the recipient's perception in order to direct his attention to the main message. The aim of the teaser advert is to lead the client out of the routine reception of advertising in general and gain his interest, involve emotionally in looking for new information. Making a teaser is the art of conveying many emotions in a relatively short and mysterious message.²² Additionally the teaser, by intriguing the recipient, encourages him to share his impressions with other clients, which spreads information fast.

In the teaser advertising we can enumerate several levels of impact:

- lead impact, which evokes the client's interest;
- maintaining the client's interest, evoking the passive process of waiting for the teaser solution (series effect);
- client's commitment, encouraging him to look for his own solution of the mysterious teaser.²³

²² M. Musioł, A. Gołębiccka, *Reklama teaserowa*, "Marketing w Praktyce" 2004, No. 8, p. 5.

²³ M. Wasilewska-Węgrzyn, *Reklama teaserowa*, "Marketing w Praktyce" 2006, No. 2, p. 34.

Presently the classic teaser is vanishing, but the idea of its impact is still up-to-date. The future of this form are the new media (Internet, ambient media) and places, which were not associated with advertising normally. The use of modern forms of teaser advertising makes the marketing communication more attractive, whereas it should be emphasised that the classification of the advertising message as shocking or annoying is an individual matter depending on the recipient.

An example of such advertising, maybe not so much annoying, but puzzling and evoking reflections may be the Kilroy Travels campaign from 2005–2006 with the message: “Go before it’s too late”, which showed places in the Earth which are threatened with disappearance and with negative people’s impact upon the natural environment. A crucial educational and social value of the message made it long-lasting in recipients’ memories.²⁴ There are much more controversial examples, as the one of a German portal *Queer-Travel.de*, dedicated to sexual minorities. The gist of the idea was to show one of American symbols – Mount Rushmore monument, presenting the presidents of the USA... from their backs. The message was given in a humorous form, which managed to neutralize it a little, but still, the reaction of the disgusted ones, gave the matter a lot of attention and increased the power of the campaign.²⁵

There was another big surprise when cheap Canadian airlines WestJet announced their program Kargo Kids on April 1st. It was connected with a new service, which consisted in placing children in the luggage hold, which would allow the parents relax and rest. The idea of the offer and its funny visualisation made the commercial very popular, over 600 thousand people watched it on YouTube and the company itself had a wide response in the media.²⁶

The recall of a company and its offer is effectively increased by so called brand heroes, fantasy characters, which represent positive values of the brand. Their task is to evoke positive emotions connected with the brand and building bonds, which should connect the clients with the best things the brand can offer. In the Polish market they are the Heart and the Brain, The Only, Tesco experts, Turbodynamoman, Mr Pikuś, Small Hunger. Brand hero is created to increase

²⁴ <http://www.adeevee.com/2006/06/kilroy-travels-jungle-casino-arnold-schwarzenegger-silvio-berlusconi-print/> (accessed 1.03.2014).

²⁵ <http://www.mariuszsadurski.pl/2011/01/poznaj-ameryke-od-drugiej-strony.html> (accessed 2.03.2014).

²⁶ <http://news.nationalpost.com/2012/04/01/westjet-april-fools-2012/> (accessed 4.03.2014).

the offer usefulness and provide the client something more than the product itself – emotions, interest, friendship.

It is not easy to create a character, who will present the ideas of the company in a way, which develops the image, but at the same time not too pushy. According to Darell (2013) we can choose among 12 potential types of heroes: The Emperor, The Imaginer, The Protector, The Entertainer, The Seducer, The Straight Shooter, The Wizard, The Rebel, The Conqueror, The Source, The Pioneer, The Purist. The author claims that for the tourist market the best would be the Imaginer, the Wizard, the Conqueror and the Pioneer.²⁷

The Conqueror's and the Pioneer's features were used when creating the Air New Zealand mascot named Rico. After a year of his "life" he gathered over 38 thousand fans at Facebook and almost 4200 viewers at YouTube. Rico even has his own Internet website www.airnzrico.com, which moves the net surfers to the Air New Zealand website at Youtube, which, thanks to this support, is in the top ten YT channels in New Zealand.

In the Polish tourist market there are brand heroes too. One of them is the Ziggi mascot (dynamic, red bird), which supports the promotion of PolskiBus.com and its task is to distinguish the company at the background of its competitors and arouse potential customer's interest. Ziggi's image is present at the Internet website and it is used in the outdoor and publishing advertising, on advertising gadgets and during events.

Conclusion

Facing more and more passive consumers in relation to traditional forms of marketing communication it appears to be necessary to introduce new solutions in the area of all promotional instruments. New promotional ideas should be creative first of all – both in terms of actions and tools, as well as the way of getting to a potential recipient. Alternative media, shocking messages, extraordinary events applied in the framework of marketing communication by the effect of surprise increase the visibility of undertaken actions and in effect they enable efficient

²⁷ R. Darell, *Business Branding Through Characterization Guide*, <http://www.bitrebels.com/social/business-branding-characterization-guide/> (accessed 20.02.2014).

memorizing of the message and the promoted product despite the information humming, which is created by the competitors.

In the future we expect further dynamic growth of new forms of promotion, especially based on technological advances in the area of communication. The condition of their efficiency shall be the authors' creativity, but also the individual message and its coherence with the system of recipients' values. It is also necessary to take into account the obligatory legal regulations and widely understood ethical rules. It is also worth to remember about the necessity of integration of tools applied in marketing communication as well as promotional actions. Coherent concepts of using all instruments of promotion enhances the power of the message, it increases its efficiency and effectiveness.

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Streszczenie

Rynek turystyczny z jego specyfiką związaną z oferowanym złożonym produktem wymiany oraz rzadkością jego nabywania ulega ciągłym zmianom tak po stronie popytu, jak i podaży. Jednym z kierunków zmian jest coraz większa konkurencja, co obliguje przedsiębiorstwa do wprowadzania innowacyjnych rozwiązań w ramach wszystkich obszarów działalności, w tym także komunikacji marketingowej. Kluczowe dla nadawców komunikatów reklamowych staje się podniesienie stopnia ich zauważalności oraz zapamiętywalności.

W artykule zaprezentowano innowacyjne pomysły działań reklamowych (ambient media, guerilla marketing, comperative advertishment, shockvertising, teaser, brand hero) stosowane przez firmy działające na rynku turystycznym. Tłem teoretycznym dla prezentacji case study były rozważania teoretyczne na temat specyfiki rynku turystycznego w aspekcie podażowym i popytowym oraz kierunków innowacyjności w obszarze działań reklamowych.

Słowa kluczowe: produkt turystyczny, rynek turystyczny, innowacyjna reklama

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**FILM-INDUCED TOURISM. BASIC RELATIONS
BETWEEN FILMS AND TOURISM
FROM TOURISM DESTINATIONS PERSPECTIVE**

Abstract

The objective of the article is to discuss relations between films or other TV productions and tourism industry from the perspective of tourism destinations. The article presents an in-depth review of literature references, both scientific ones offering theoretical studies and business ones describing examples of film tourism. The authors present the essence of set-jetting and city placement, as well as advantages for cities and regions resulting from implementing such activities. Further part of the article points to film as the crucial factor enhancing tourism development of many areas. Additionally, film tourism is presented as the important sector of research in tourism. The authors have also undertaken an attempt of this tourism form typology with particular emphasis on the conducted activities' effects, as well as the division into diverse forms based on numerous domestic and foreign examples. The final part of the article discusses practical activities carried out by local authorities aimed at attracting film producers.

Keywords: film tourism, set-jetting, city placement

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Introduction

A rapid expansion in the literature over a ten year period and a developing body of knowledge as demonstrated by the quantity of new research, and the number of journals featuring special issues on the subject of film-induced tourism, including: *World Hospitality and Tourism Themes* (2011), *Teoros, Revue de Recherché en Tourism* (2011), *Tourism Planning and Development* (2010), *Tourism Review International* (2009), *Tourism Analysis* (2009), *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing* (2008), *Tourism, Culture and Communication* (2006) and *Tourist Studies* (2006) reflects growing importance of the topic.¹ However, most of the papers are case studies and summaries and theory development trials are rare.

The aim of the paper is to outline and group basic links between films, and other similar productions, like TV series and programmes, and tourism industry visible from the perspective of tourism destinations. The most important notice, which is presented with more in-depth review is the fact that being presented in a film might enhance destination's product and/or destination promotion depending on the nature of the film and the presentation and on action taken in the destination. Proposed structure of described relations is developed on the basis of literature review including scientific literature containing theoretical issues as well as data on particular described cases and business literature presenting numerous facts and data about results of use of films in tourism development.

1. Literature review

Arguably, film became the dominant art form of the 20th century. As Shiel argues, "cinema is the most important cultural form".² Films as they are now commonly referred to while not produced with the prime intent of inducing people to visit destinations as tourists nonetheless enhance the awareness, appeal

¹ J. Connell, *Film tourism – Evolution, progress and prospects*, "Tourism Management" 2012, Vol. 33, No. 5, p. 1008.

² M. Shiel, *Cinema and the city in history and theory*, in: *Cinema and the city: Film and urban societies in an urban context*, M. Shiel, T. Fitzmaurice (eds.), Blackwell, Oxford 2003, p. 1.

and profitability of locations through the power of imagery and fantasy of story that they portray.³ A growing body of evidence from authors such as Hudson and Ritchie,⁴ Beeton,⁵ Grihault,⁶ Riley et al.,⁷ Tooke & Baker⁸ and Butler⁹ support this phenomenon of tourists visiting particular destinations because of their association with particular films.¹⁰

The most commonly cited definition of film-induced tourism is the one given by Hudson and Ritchie. According to those authors, tourist visits to a destination or attraction as a result of the destination being featured on television, video, DVD or the cinema screen.¹¹ Despite being a relatively niche element of tourism activity, a marked uptake of film tourism initiatives by destination marketing organisations (DMOs) and economic development organisations, eager to capture additional promotion, visitor awareness and visitor numbers, is notable within an increasingly global context. Film tourism is a growing phenomenon worldwide, fuelled by both the growth of the entertainment industry and the increase in international travel, and in addition research shows the main motive for this type of holiday is purely for entertainment and enjoyment and therefore for some, may provide a sense of excitement or a thrill. Important features of this particular type of holiday to some include the aspect of reality. Whilst this type of tourism is not a new phenomenon, it is only in recent years that tourism authorities such as Visit Britain have attempted to capitalise upon the beneficial effects of screen

³ N. Macionis, *Understanding the film-induced tourist*, in: *Proceedings of the international tourism and media conference*, W. Frost, W. G. Croy, & S. Beeton (eds.), Tourism Research Unit, Monash University, Melbourne 2004.

⁴ S. Hudson, J.R.B. Ritchie, *Promoting Destinations via Film Tourism: An Empirical Identification of Supporting Marketing Initiatives*, "Journal of Travel Research" May 2006, Vol. 44.

⁵ S. Beeton, *Film-Induced Tourism*, Channel View Publications, Clevedon 2005.

⁶ N. Grihault, *Film Tourism – The Global Picture*, Travel and Tourism Analyst, 2005 October.

⁷ R.W. Riley, D. Baker, C.S. Van Doren, *Movie Induced Tourism*, "Annals of Tourism Research" 1998, Vol 25, No. 4.

⁸ N. Tooke, M. Baker, *Seeing is Believing: the Effect of Film on Visitor Numbers to Screened Locations*, "Tourism Management" 1996, Vol 17, No. 2.

⁹ R. Butler, *The Influence of the Media in Shaping International Tourist Patterns*, "Tourism Recreation Research" 1990, Vol 15, No. 2.

¹⁰ P. Bolan., S. Boyd, J. Bell, *Displacement theory: Probing new ground in film-induced tourism*, in: 6th Annual Tourism and Hospitality Research in Ireland Conference, June 2010, Shannon, Ireland.

¹¹ S. Hudson, J.R.B. Ritchie, *Promoting...*, op. cit., p. 256.

tourism through promotional tie-ins or “movie maps”. This increased focus upon the potential of screen tourism has coincided with a marked shift in the direction of film policy in many countries like the UK for example.¹² Bolan and Williams stated six year ago that although many regions have benefited tourism-wise from this, in many cases there still has not been enough real support from tourist authorities to this growth phenomenon, and as such, the full potential of film to tap into the consumer psyche has not yet been fully realized.¹³ However, in the latest studies we can find information that a number of high-profile tourism destinations utilise film-related aspects in inbound marketing campaigns, most notably the UK, USA, Korea, Australia and New Zealand. In the UK, film has featured as a distinct arm of the VisitBritain marketing portfolio since the 1990s, while the 2004 Visit America Alliance inbound television (TV) marketing campaign featured the line: ‘*you’ve seen the movies, now visit the set*’.¹⁴ Among the most notable examples of the impact of film-induced tourism on tourism destinations development Bolan, Caterer and Williams point the *Lord of the Rings* trilogy (2001–2003) and the impact on New Zealand tourism, *Braveheart* (1995) and its impact on tourism to Scotland and *The Sound of Music* (1965) and its impact on Austria (most notably Salzburg).¹⁵ This list is even prolonged by Connell who gives examples of films of different kinds together with scientific research dedicated the link between film and tourism.¹⁶ Her list include: blockbusters and ‘must-see’ films like *Braveheart*,¹⁷ *Lord of the Rings*,¹⁸ romantic films

¹² P. Bolan., S. Boyd, J. Bell, *Displacement...*, op. cit.

¹³ P. Bolan, L. Williams, *The role of image in service promotion : focusing on the influence of film on consumer choice within tourism*, “International Journal of Consumer Studies” 2008, Vol. 32, No. 4, p. 382.

¹⁴ J. Connell, *Film tourism...*, op. cit.

¹⁵ P. Bolan, J. Caterer, L. Williams, ‘*If you film it, they will come!*’ *Film and TV-related Tourism and Screen Policy in the UK*. In: Media, Communication and Cultural Studies Association (MeCCSA) Conference, National Media Museum, Bradford, UK. 2009.

¹⁶ J. Connell, *Film tourism...*, op. cit.

¹⁷ T. Edensor, *Mediating William Wallace: audiovisual technologies in tourism*, in: *The media and the tourist imagination. Converging cultures*, D. Crouch, R. Jackson, & F. Thompson (eds.), Routledge, London 2005.

¹⁸ D. Jones, K. Smith, *Middle-earth meets New Zealand: authenticity and location in the making of the Lord of the Rings*, “Journal of Management Studies” 2005, Vol. 42, No. 5.

like *Notting Hill*,¹⁹ heritage and costume film and TV dramas, such as *Pride and Prejudice*,²⁰ *Sense and Sensibility* and *Downton Abbey*; continuing dramas, or ‘soaps’, such as *Winter Sonata*,²¹ more cult offerings like *Monty Python*,²² through to thrillers such as *Motor Cycle Diaries*,²³ travel-gastronomy style shows such as those presented by Rick Stein, and; even children’s programmes such as *Balamory*.²⁴

The curiosity of the places, in which the famous film and TV productions were shot become, for many people, the major incentive encouraging them to visit such locations. The study conducted in Great Britain by *Halifax Travel* revealed that in case of locations presented in films the increase of tourists arriving to visit them amounted to 30%. It was also observed that 25% of all British tourists decided to choose their holiday destination based on a film, a book or a TV series. More intensive tourist traffic of the British was recorded, among others, in Japan. In 2003, within three months from the emission of two films – *The Last Samurai* and *Lost in Translation*, the number of British tourists visiting Japan went up by 28%. A year later the Oscar winning movie *Sideways* became a stimulating factor for Great Britain citizens to visit California at a mass scale (the increase by 42%), in the vineyards of which the films was shot.²⁵

The scope of advantages for a city, resulting from the city placement, covers the following:

- higher city recognition,
- the possibility to show the most interesting places and facilities,

¹⁹ G. Busby, J. Klug, *Movie-induced tourism: the challenge of measurement and other issues*, “Journal of Vacation Marketing” 2001, Vol. 7, No. 4.

²⁰ A. Sargent, *The Darcy effect: regional tourism and costume drama*, “International Journal of Heritage Studies” 1998, Vol. 4, No. 3/4.

²¹ S.S. Kim, J. Agrusa, H. Lee, K. Chon, *Effects of Korean TV dramas on the flow of Japanese tourists*, “Tourism Management” 2007, Vol. 28, No. 5.

²² S. Beeton, *Film-Induced...*, op. cit.

²³ A. Shani, S. Wang, S. Hudson, S.M. Gil, *Impacts of a historical film on the destination image of South America*, “Journal of Vacation Marketing” 2009, Vol. 15, No. 3.

²⁴ J. Connell, ‘*What’s the Story in Balamory?*’: *the impacts of a Children’s TV programme on small tourism enterprises on the Isle of Mull, Scotland*. “Journal of Sustainable Tourism” 2005, Vol. 13.

²⁵ S. Sachno, A. Sijka, *Podróże z filmem [Travelling with a movie]*, “Wprost” 2008, No. 26 (1331).

- changing the image of a particular territorial unit,
- increasing the city prestige,
- attracting new groups of the city product clients, e.g. young people,
- higher level of local residents' identification,
- advantages for entities functioning in the city,
- the growing number of investments,
- the possibility of presenting information about a city in other TV productions, e.g. breakfast TV.²⁶

Film tourism has emerged also as a major growth sector for research in tourism and it is widely recognised as a driver of tourism development for many destinations. To date, there has been a relatively substantial literature on the subject, little of which has sought to synthesise and engage with the wider social science paradigm of culture, film and media research. Much of the research to date in this field has focused on the promotional aspects and the impacts of the phenomenon with little research into the motivations of the film induced tourists themselves.²⁷ Many of publications are concentrated on identifying the occurrence and impact of film tourism, and the associated management and marketing implications, opportunities and challenges. Research in this category more usually comprises empirical study of a particular destination or film/TV production.²⁸ However, many of the studies explore other topics connected with film-induced tourism taking demand or supply perspective: the film tourism as a consumer (characteristics and profile of the film tourist, tourist motivation, the experience of being a film tourist, perceptions of destinations); the impact of film tourism (mainly economic, community, cultural and social implications, and some environmental themes); the business of film tourism (consumer marketing initiatives, destination branding, marketing to film-makers); and the appropriation of place through film tourism (power relations, conflict, misrepresentation of place, people and cultures).²⁹

²⁶ P. Zawadzki, *City placement as an element of town tourism product promotion*, in: *Tourism economy in the region*, A. Rapacz (ed.), Research Papers of Wrocław University of Economics No. 304, Wrocław 2013, p. 375.

²⁷ P. Bolan, S. Boyd, J. Bell, *Displacement...*, op. cit.

²⁸ J. Connell, *Film tourism...*, op. cit.

²⁹ Ibidem.

2. Classification of relations between films and tourism

When taking tourism destinations perspective, the link between film industry and tourism development might be regarded from two main sides. The first is connected with the promotional effect that is benefitted by destinations shown in films. The second includes development of new tourism product connected with visiting places presented in films (or in TV productions also). Both areas are strongly interconnected but needs different actions and attitudes taken by destination stakeholders and generate different effects.

2.1. Product development and set jetting

Contemporary research revealed that travelling to the places presented in films or TV productions called often as set jetting embrace visiting many different places. The most common is the division between on-location and off-location film-induced tourism.

On-locations are filming locations or film-related locations found from the natural environment like actual buildings and streets. Some locations have been touristic attractions on their own and they have not reached their popularity because of the portrayal in a film, yet people visiting them because inspired by a film can be called film tourists. Other locations can experience a high rise in visitor popularity and can be turned into attractions because their appearance in a film. In these cases lands that have earlier been considered as unimportant can turn into touristic attractions off their own. Sometimes even set pieces are left behind by the filming crews and tourist attractions are created around them, for example the *Star Wars* movie set in Tunisian desert that was left behind after the filming and is still standing because it was seen so important tourist attraction by the locals.³⁰

Beeton lists several forms of on-location tourism.³¹ Sometimes the film set oneself is strong enough motivator that it can be the whole purpose of a trip or sometimes film tourism can be part of a general holiday trip. Film tourism can be nostalgic tourism, where the locations present another era or the film in general

³⁰ S. Roesch, *The experiences of film location tourists*, Channel View Publications 2009.

³¹ S. Beeton, *Film-Induced...*, op. cit.

can inspire the person to visit historic locations. Film tourism can show oneself in a form of a pilgrimage where visitors want to honour the movie by visiting the places, feel connected to the imaginary world and maybe even re-act parts of the film on-location. Similarities with pilgrimage can also be seen in the communality as the first pilgrims tend to travel in groups and see the journey also as a social event, so do many times the film tourists. Part of the film tourism experience is the sense of belonging and meeting other people with similar interests. Also buying souvenirs of a film location and placing them on display can be compared to the relics and religious figures that were brought home by the pilgrims.³²

Off-locations are artificial and built especially for the filming or for tourism purposes like film studios or film parks.³³ Nowadays almost every major film studio, like Warner Bros, Universal and Fox, is operating either film studio tours or themed film parks. Probably the most well known themed park is the Universal Studios in Florida which is built entirely for tourism purposes including several movie based rides like the Terminator and E.T and themed areas like Harry Potter and Jurassic Park also including souvenir shops based on the movies. In theme parks there has not been any filming or production taking place. From the existing tourism destinations the most tempting is the idea of becoming on-location film-induced tourism destination and building the tourism product for film tourists on the basis of existing potential. Although attracting film studios to build new off-location film-induced tourism attractions, this topic seems to be restricted for very limited number of destinations world-wide.

More in-depth classification of activities which might be labelled as set jetting presents Connell. According to her they include:

- visits to locations portrayed within a specific film/television production;
- visits to studio sets;
- visits to specific film/TV theme parks and attractions;
- visits to themed attractions with a film theme: the world's most popular visitor attractions and theme parks are directly related to film but have general tourist appeal;
- visits to locations where filming is taking place;

³² Ibidem.

³³ S. Roesch, *The experiences...*, op. cit., pp. 6–7.

- visits to a location marketed as a filmic location, where the film may not have been experienced by the tourist but attractive marketing imagery induces interest: e.g. *Braveheart Country*, which has touristic value in recognition of Scottish national identity and heritage, regardless of the film connection;
- participation in organised tours of film locations;
- participation in organised tours of film celebrity homes, haunts and associated film sites;
- visits to film festivals.³⁴

2.2. Promotion and city placement

2.2.1. Promotional potential of city placement

Achieving the promotional effect is often connected with the wider idea of city placement. According to Morgan and Pritchard, placing a destination in a film is the ultimate in tourism product placement.³⁵ Product placement is an emerging phenomenon, and has been defined as the planned entries of products into movies or television shows that may influence viewers' product beliefs and/or behaviours favourably.³⁶ Its growth has been spurred by the diminishing effectiveness of traditional advertising techniques, and marketers are realizing that communications via product placement can be more sophisticated, more targeted, and more widely seen than traditional advertising methods.³⁷ Just as product placements will influence a viewer's attitude toward a brand, so too will films have an impact on destination image if the location plays a part in a film.³⁸ Because destination images influence tourist behaviour, a destination

³⁴ J. Connell, *Film tourism...*, op. cit., pp. 1009–1010.

³⁵ N. Morgan, A. Pritchard, *Tourism promotion and power: creating images, creating identities*, John Wiley & Sons Ltd, 1998.

³⁶ S.K. Balasubramanian, *Beyond advertising and publicity: Hybrid messages and public policy issues*, "Journal of Advertising" 1994, Vol. 23, No. 4.

³⁷ J.A. Karrh, K.B. McKee, C.J. Pardun, *Practitioners' evolving views on product placement effectiveness*, "Journal of Advertising Research" 2003, Vol. 43, No. 2.

³⁸ S. Hudson, J.R.B. Ritchie, *Promoting...*, op. cit.

must be favourably differentiated from its competition and positively positioned in the minds of consumers.³⁹ Schofield suggested that contemporary tourists' organic images of places are shaped through the vicarious consumption of film and television without the perceptual bias of promotional material.⁴⁰

Local authorities are more and more often verifying the effects of cooperation entered into with film and TV series producers. For this reason they use, among others, telemetry studies provided by TV and obtain information about, e.g. the range of city promotion in a given TV series. For many local authorities such projects are more profitable for a city than financing advertisement campaigns involving billboards or TV spots.

It has to be emphasized that the effectiveness of city placement depends, to a great extent, on a movie rating – the more attractive a film is for its viewers the more interested they become in the location where it is shot. Such transfer of information can additionally be strengthened by the main characters starring in a movie. Combined with beautiful views they constitute an even more powerful encouragement to visit the city. This tool can play the publicity role provided it is in line with an overall city promotion strategy.

Woody Allen sets his films in his favourite cities worldwide. It was already in 1978 when this director, in his film entitled *Manhattan*, presented the life of a young woman and her friends living in Manhattan, the neurotic part of New York. In 1996 the two most romantic cities in the world – Venice and Paris – became the venue of his the film entitled *Everyone Says I Love You*. It is the first, in over twenty years, film made by Woody Allen which was shot outside USA. The film represents a type of picture-postcard of both cities, observed through the eyes of an American tourist. The next movie by this director, taking place in London, is the film entitled *Match Point*.

The potential of city placement was best experienced by such cities as Rome (*To Rome with Love*), Paris (*Midnight in Paris*) or Barcelona (*Vicky, Cristina, Barcelona*), where the above-mentioned films are set. In each of these productions Woody Allen presents the urban space of the most culturally intensive cities in Italy, France and Spain. In case of Barcelona the advertisement was part

³⁹ S. Pike, C. Ryan, *Destination Positioning Analysis through a Comparison of Cognitive, Affective, and Conative Perceptions*, "Journal of Travel Research" 2004, Vol. 42, No. 4; M.D. Joppe, W. Martin, J. Waalen, *Toronto's Image as a Destination: A Comparative Importance-Satisfaction Analysis by Origin of Visitors*, "Journal of Travel Research" 2001, Vol. 39, No. 3.

⁴⁰ P. Schofield, *Cinematographic Images of a City*, "Tourism Management" 1996, Vol. 17, No. 5.

of the film in which the city authorities invested about 2 mln Euro. Additionally, apart from the fact that the city name is part of its title, it also appeared in a song promoting this film. The production was accompanied by great popularity among its viewers and the promotion of Catalonian capital turned out extremely beneficial.

The most recent film by Woody Allen also refers to the activities connected with city placement. *Blue Jasmine* is set in two cities located at the American coast – Eastern coast represented by hectic New York and Western coast with its sunny San Francisco. More and more cities are waiting for their turn with Woody Allen, one of which is also Cracow. It is, however, estimated that the expenses associated with attracting Woody Allen to a given city currently amount to 5–10 mln Euro.

Another significant example of the city placement idea application is the series entitled *Sex and the City*, presenting the lives of four friends from New York. In this soap opera the city plays a particularly important role, the name of which (even though not literally) appears in the title. The series viewers are fully aware that the “great city” is New York where the main characters live and work. The city is the crucial background for the films events, whereas the busy streets, skyscrapers and exclusive restaurants make the space of New York, created in the film, a very characteristic one.

2.2.2. Active and passive attitude of local stakeholders

There are numerous examples, also widely analysed in the literature, showing that the way in which placing a destination in a film or TV production might influence destination’s image in very different way. The first, and probably the most important difference is connected with the level of engagement of local authorities in promotional use of placement the destination in a film. Even though, the term city placement indicates some kind of marketing activity which is undertaken, numerous examples prove that image improvement might be “donated” to a destination actually without any effort of its stakeholders. This might be the case of Cracow, and especially its Jewish quarter called Kazimierz, which became extremely popular among international tourists and improved its status from dangerous to fashionable and expensive thanks to being shown in Steven Spielberg’s film *The Schindler’s list*. Neither municipal authorities

nor tourism businesses from the city didn't attract film producers nor used it in promotion when the film was ready, at least at the beginning, still the image was boosted and the number of tourists increased steadily. At the opposite end the case of the *Lord of the Rings* trilogy might be presented. New Zealand tourism authorities from the very beginning attracted Peters Jackson and his team to make the film in this country. Additionally this fact was widely used in tourism promotion messages for a long time. Finally the product for set jetters was produced.

Similar examples of active attitude of local authorities might be found also in Poland. Here participation of Świętokrzyskie voivodeship Regional Tourism Organization in production of TV series *Father Matthew* might be the best and the most commonly cited example.⁴¹ The authorities of Świętokrzyskie region and the Regional Tourist Organization signed an agreement with Polish Television and 2 mln PLN was spent on taking advantage of city placement in 20 episodes of the soap opera.⁴² In the subsequent seasons of *Father Matthew* the action of selected episodes was also taking place in other cities of the region (e.g. Kielce, Bałtów, Busko-Zdrój, Solec-Zdrój, Pacanów, Michałów, Krzemionki Opatowskie and Opatów). It has already been several years that the city has been experiencing crowds of visitors arriving from all over the country to visit the places in which the main movie characters are functioning. The local division of Polish Tourist Society in Sandomierz, in response to the increasing tourist traffic, prepared the route "Following the Father Matthew Footsteps" and a leaflet under the same title. The publication includes the city map and pictures of the main movie characters and also the list of streets, buildings and other places (e.g. Pieprzowe Mountains, Saski Garden), which appeared in the soap opera. Additionally, an alley presenting photos from *Father Matthew* soap opera making was created. The city popularity is also beneficial for both hotel and restaurant owners who take advantage of the famous reverend character image. In case of this TV series it is also important that the TV station – the producer of the first season – made the promotion of Sandomierz for free and the city itself incurred minor costs covering only the preparation of locations to shoot the film scenes. In the times when city authorities from all over Poland spend more and more money on advertising

⁴¹ *The attraction of screen destinations*, Euroscreen Case Studies 2013. Euroscreen, London 2013.

⁴² J. Mateusz, *Serial ściąga turystów*, "Rzeczpospolita" 2010, No. 5858, p. 9.

campaigns and participate in the race of ideas to present original promotional spots by outsourcing them with professional advertising agencies, Sandomierz is an example of the city which received such promotion almost for free and at the scale which other cities can only dream of.

Another example of city placement activities was the promotion of Cracow in the soap opera entitled *Majka*, produced by the commercial TVN TV station. The series uses the stereotype of Cracow, perceived as one of the most beautiful cities in Poland, visited by tourists from all over the world. City placement was, however, applied in order to change the city image. It was taken advantage of, not so much to show Cracow's attractions, but rather to present its image as a modern business centre offering extensive opportunities for professional development. Moreover, the soap opera popularity was combined with the tourist attractiveness of the city and a book entitled "Majka in Cracow. A guide to the film and the city" was prepared. The idea was quite original and resulted in an additional promotion of both, the city and the soap opera.

At the beginning of 2013 the Information Agency PRESS-SERVICE Media Monitoring analyzed the results of 11 locations' names presence in the context of 12 selected titles of Polish soap operas. The top position, in terms of the number of publications and potential information contacts with viewers, was taken by Sandomierz showed in the series *Father Matthew*. In 2012 the city name was presented almost 900 times and the publication range presented the level of 550 mln people. Toruń where the soap opera *Doctors* was shot and Wrocław (*First Love*) also exceeded the level of 800 publications. The chance to come across some information about the city of Copernicus had almost 450 mln viewers. By almost 100 mln less such potential contacts were recorded in case of Lower Silesian capital. Next in the ranking, considering the number of media reports, were the following cities: Łódź – 650 (*Alex the Police Officer*), Lublin – 487 (*Everything before us*) and Cracow (*Julie*). It is, however, worth emphasizing, that Lublin and especially Cracow, which received less media coverage, exceeded Łódź, in terms of reaching viewers, by over 20 mln.⁴³

Contacts with film producers have become possible for local authorities as the result of appointing regional film funds, following the local government

⁴³ More about the Information Agency "PRESS SERVICE Media Monitoring" at http://www.marketingmiejsca.com.pl/wiedza-i-praktyka---marketingmiejsca.com,19,wiedza-i-praktyka,18,city-placement_-czyli-polskie-miasta-w-filmach-i-serialach,1110 (accessed 18.02.2014).

authorities' initiative, which provide funding for the best productions directly related with a given region. In 2012 eleven funds were functioning in Poland at the regional level and covered the following cities: Łódź, Gdynia, Gdańsk (suspended), Lublin and the provinces: Śląskie, Zachodniopomorskie, Mazowieckie, as well as the regions: Poznań and Wielkopolska, Wrocław and Lower Silesia, Cracow and Małopolskie.⁴⁴ These funds have, at their disposal, the resources amounting to about 1 mln PLN and are, to a large extent, dependent on a given local authority budget. There are over 100 funds operating in the European Union and financing film projects, the scenes for which are shot in different locations. The majority of such organizations function in Germany where almost all cinematography is supported by the resources coming from such funds. The level of budgets at their disposal exceeds the total of 50 mln Euro.⁴⁵

Local authorities also offer the producers all possible organizational support. Among such activities city authorities grant permissions to change a given facility function, most often a public one, in order to adjust it to the needs of a particular film or a TV series. In case of *Father Matthew* the City Hall building in Sandomierz functions as the local Court, the Revenue Office is the seat of the Police Station, whereas the Oleśnicki's Tenement House, where Polish Post Office is situated on a daily basis, functions as a bank.

City authorities are becoming more and more intensely involved in numerous projects focused on attracting film producers. Among the tasks performed by local authorities and aimed at attracting them the following are listed:

- financial support by establishing special, regional film funds to finance the selected film productions;
- participation in branch meetings, conferences and fairs, e.g. 'Regiofun' International Film Festival in Katowice;
- lower charges for film makers, e.g. for occupying a road lane or discounts in transportation fees;
- film production support by making selected city locations available for film makers;
- granting permissions to change a given public facility function for the purposes of a film or a TV series;

⁴⁴ The data provided by Polish Film Institute.

⁴⁵ Vide D. Kalinowska, *Miasto movie*, "Press" 2011, No. 3 (182), p. 81.

- organization of trips for films producers and screenwriters to visit particular cities and regions which could become a film making venue in the future.

2.2.3. The role “played” by the destination

Another important factor influencing the way in which a destination might benefit being placed in film or TV production is the “role” played by the destination. The most typical and easiest in promotional use is the situation when the plot of the film is located in a real place shown. This is the case of Krakow in *The Schindler list* or New York and *Sex and the city*. The effect can be even strengthen if this place gives an important, positive background or other input to the plot like Sandomierz in *Father Mathew* and/or is presented in the title of the film like *Vicki Christina Barcelona* or *Notting Hill*. Much more difficult situation to be benefited is when a destination is playing the “role” of a different place. This is mainly connected with fantasy and s-f films in which real places have to “pretend” those which where invented by the writers or screenwriters. This can be observed in the case of New Zealand and the *Lord of the Rings* trilogy and in Tunisian *Star Wars* village. In the first situation, when the place plays itself, the promotional effect might be achieved even without purposely conducted activities, like it happened in Krakow. However, there is no guarantee that the image improvement is going to happen then. We might compare with the example of the effect of *The Schindler list* in Krakow, the case of the film on very similar topic and similar popularity worldwide which is *The pianist*. The plot is located here in Jewish quarter of Warsaw. In this example any effects of the film on the image of Warsaw or on the tourism traffic in the city can be observed.

Surely purposely taken promotional actions, and even preparation of specific tourism product is necessary to benefit image improvement on the base of a destination playing a role of non-existing places. The success of New Zealand would not be possible without strong and well prepared promotional support. The same example also proves that this promotional support needs big effort and cost to be spent. This makes destinations authorities might not be willing to do so and purposely not benefiting the chance. Another fantasy film with only a bit lower popularity worldwide is the Narnia stories which was partially filmed

in Poland and The Czech Republic and this fact is almost unknown for tourists and film lovers. Such information even can't be found at the places being showed in the film (Kamieńczyk Waterfall in Karkonosze Mountains for example).

Division between promotional effect achieved by destinations playing in films the "role" of themselves or other places is for some extent similar to the division between on-location and off-location film destination. Off-location destinations might exercise similar problem to the places playing the role of imagined, not existing places from fantasy films. Many places in Dinara Mountains in Croatia like Paklenica Canyon still benefit the fact that several years ago they "played" American Rocky Mountains in Yugoslav-German films about *Winnetou*. However, this would not happen without promotional effort (mainly leaflets and web pages content) and without preparation of attractive product (tables informing tourists about which scenes were filmed in particular places).

Conclusion

Tourism destination might benefit their presentation in popular film production. Those benefits might be of different importance and of different kind. In the paper there was offered a basic typology of effects that might be achieved thanks films by a tourism destination. The destination might increase attractiveness of its product as well as use it in its promotional activities. Both situations were illustrated by various examples from Poland and from other countries. Those examples prove that some of positive effects might be achieved even without purposely taken actions, but might happen only in some circumstances. However, big success usually depend on strong involvement of local tourism stakeholders even from the moment of decision of producing the film by the film company and director and should be continued during peak popularity of the film and even later on.

Proposed classification of benefits connected with ways of achieving them and necessary circumstances should be useful both for academicians developing the theory of film-induced tourism and practitioners looking for inspirations for their decisions. Presented examples of success on tourism market thanks to wise use of presentation in a film show that those benefits are not only in the theory but they are achievable for many different destinations.

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TURYSTYKA FILMOWA. GŁÓWNE RELACJE POMIĘDZY FILMAMI A TURYSTYKĄ Z PERSPEKTYWY TURYSTYCZNYCH KIERUNKÓW DESTYNACJI

Streszczenie

Celem artykułu jest pokazanie powiązań między filmami i innymi produkcjami telewizyjnymi a przemysłem turystycznym z perspektywy destynacji turystycznych. W artykule zaprezentowano wnikliwy przegląd literatury, zarówno literatury naukowej zawierającej zagadnienia teoretyczne, jak i literatury biznesowej opisującej przykłady w zakresie turystyki filmowej. Autorzy prezentują istotę *set-jetting* oraz *city place-*

ment, a także korzyści dla miast i regionów wynikające z zastosowania tych działań. W dalszej części artykułu wskazano na film jako istotny czynnik rozwoju turystyki wielu obszarów, a także przedstawiono turystykę filmową jako istotny sektor badań w turystyce. Autorzy przedstawili również próbę typologii tej formy turystyki ze szczególnym uwzględnieniem efektów prowadzonych działań, a także podział na różne formy w oparciu o liczne przykłady krajowe i zagraniczne. W końcowej części zaprezentowano praktyczne działania realizowane przez władze lokalne, których celem jest przyciągnięcie producentów filmowych.

Słowa kluczowe: turystyka filmowa, set-jetting, city placement

REGIONAL ASPECTS OF TOURISM

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CONSEQUENCES OF APPLICATION TO HOST 2022 WINTER OLYMPIC GAMES FOR TOURISM IN KRAKOW

Abstract

This article highlights the main issues concerned with the consequences of hosting Winter Olympic Games faced by a city. The following research questions were considered:

1. What are the benefits and costs of organizing a mega-event?
2. What consequences does submitting a bid to host the 24th Winter Olympic Games and the 13th Winter Paralympic Games in 2022 have for tourism in Krakow?¹

The answer to the first question was found by means of literature *quaerenda*. The review of secondary sources led to the conclusion that each example of a host city was different and each should be analysed with a rather comprehensive approach: economic, political, social, environmental, sporting and recreational, marketing and tourist in both short- and long-term view.

Krakow wanted to submit the bid to host 2022 Winter Olympics. It might have created both pull (facilitated transport accessibility, communicating to the world the openness and organizational capability of Krakow according to the signalling theory, creating its image) and push factors (motivation to visit one of the Applicant Cities) that would have determined the tourist demand in Krakow.

Keywords: Winter Olympic Games, application, tourism, Krakow

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¹ The article was written in January 2014, when Krakow intended to submit the bid to host 2022 Winter Olympics. After the decision of withdrawing from the bid this is only a theoretical discussion.

Introduction

The Department's Jubilee is a special occasion. The invitation to take part in preparation of an occasional Journal is a great distinction, yet it increases the responsibility for the choice of topic. Thus, while searching for the proper one, I presumed that it should also be special. That is how I came up with the idea of taking advantage of the fact that for the first time in our history, Poland has joined the bid for Winter Olympics with exceptional engagement. The application of Krakow prepared by the city officials brought about a major stir in the society, hence my decision to make an attempt to present the consequences of undertaken actions for tourism in Krakow in an unbiased and academic way. This paper holds the answers to the following questions:

1. What is the influence of mega-events on a host city/region – based on literature *quaerenda*.
2. What is the impact of bid submission on economic, social and environment sectors – based on secondary sources.

Thus, this is a review article.

1. The importance of mega-events for the host city

Olympic Games belong to the group of mega-events. The prefix *mega-* defines both the number of spectators/viewers and the scale of preparations, as well as the importance of the event. It is considered that such events have a major impact on the reception area.² J. Ritchie³ classified mega-events as potentially having economic, tourism/commercial, socio-cultural, psychological and political impacts, out of which each can be either positive or negative and short- or long-lasting. H. Preuss, who also dealt with classification of the effects, coined the term “legacy cube” which shows the holistic analysis approach.⁴

² M. Roche, 2000, *Mega-Events and Modernity: Olympics and Expos in the Growth of Global Culture*, Routledge, London, p. 261; D. Getz, *Event management and event tourism*, “Annals of Tourism Research” 1998, No. 1 (25), pp. 248–249.

³ J. Ritchie, *Assessing the Impact of Hallmark Events*, “Journal of Travel Research” 1984, No. 23, pp. 2–11.

⁴ H. Preuss, 2007, *Global tourism*, R. Conrady, M. Buck (eds.), Berlin, Springer.

There is a shared interest in **economic impact of mega-events** observed in literature. Generally, among positive effects the following can be found: income from the events; increases in employment before during and after the event; improved public welfare and increased local business opportunities due to the inflow of investments.⁵ Among the negative effects the following are listed: higher prices during the event; speculations on the real estate market;⁶ high construction costs, usually burdening the local budget (city) and problem of temporary “crowding out”⁷.

The assessment of the impact of a mega-event is not a trivial task due to the simultaneous occurrence of a number of factors and difficulty with isolating only the event-related ones, problems with gathering data and finally, with the choice of analysis tools.

The increase in the widespread international awareness of the city/region as a tourist destination and the zone for potential investments and economic activity is treated as the economic legacy of a mega-event. This awareness may attract investors and tourists, which in turn shall result in the creation of new vacancies and future economic growth of the city/region.

P. Matos coined the term of “holy trinity”⁸ of mega-events benefits: economic growth, image promotion and general infrastructure, which becomes the “legacy” of the destination after the event.

A few more issues should be mentioned at this point. The assessment of events’ impact is done by means of *ex ante* and *ex post* analyses. The purpose of the first type of analysis is to justify the organization of a particular event and it has to be admitted that they mostly prove its positive balance. Apparently, strong political influences might be found here. As for *ex-ante* analyses, V. Matheson

⁵ W. Song, *Impacts Of Olympics On Exports And Tourism*, “Journal Of Economic Development” 2010, Vol. 35, No. 4, p. 93.

⁶ J. Ritchie 1984, *op. cit.*, p. 261.

⁷ Crowding out might be interpreted in various ways. It is used when determining the choice of one investment over the other and is connected with the situation where public funds are allocated to event-related infrastructure (e.g. stadium, sports arena), whereas financing the current needs of local communities is postponed. On the other hand, it is interpreted as tourists’ resignation from the visit at a given date due to the mega-event taking place and the related increase in tourist movement at the destination. W. Song 2010, *op. cit.*, p. 94.

⁸ P. Matos, 2006, *Hosting mega sports events: A brief assessment of their multidimensional impacts*, Department of land economy University of Cambridge/UK.

indicated two major types: Input/Output method and Computable General Equilibrium (CGE)⁹.

Data collected by A. Rose and M. Spiegel were used by W. Song and S. Kim to show that events such as Olympics, World Championships and Expos have major impacts on the size of export, foreign investments and tourist consumption.¹⁰ The long lasting and permanent impacts of organizing Summer Olympics on the size of export were also discussed by W. Song in his work.¹¹

What should be considered when trying to measure economic impact of a mega-event, is the equivalent annual cost category. High expenditures on building Olympic venue (e.g. Richmond Oval construction) might be the consequence of using cutting-edge energy-saving technologies and solutions (*Ice Battery*),¹² which brings down the costs of operation over its entire lifespan.

Summing up, the net income from mega-events is dependent on the city's ability to take advantage of a strong impulse of staging an event to obtain a sustainable economic growth via changing the economic structure, making use of new infrastructure, attracting other events, forging new business relations between partners/regions. Another thing is the interplay between the scope of benefits and economic condition of the city. The growth in event-related investments and increase in consumption costs is beneficial in case of economic downturn as in economic boom period the economic legacy is weakened and "crowding out" effect may appear.¹³

Despite the problems with measurement, events are still thought to have positive impact on **tourism and commerce**.¹⁴ A direct effect of staging an event is the inflow of visitors willing to watch it. Thus, the size of event directly deter-

⁹ V. Matheson, 2006, *Mega-Events: The effect of the world's biggest sporting events on local, regional and national economies*, College of the Holy Cross, Department of Economics Faculty Research Series, Paper No. 06–10, Massachusetts.

¹⁰ W. Song, S. Kim, 2010, *Estimation of the Economic Impacts of Mega-events*, Ministry of Culture, Sports, & Tourism, Unpublished Manuscript, p. 103.

¹¹ W. Song 2010, op. cit., p. 106.

¹² Vitaliew D, *Canada Aims for Green Games*, "Engineering & Technology" 2010, No. 2, pp. 23–25.

¹³ M. Malfas, E. Theodoraki, B. Houlihan, *Impacts of the Olympic Games as mega-events*, Proceedings of the Institution of Civil Engineers Municipal Engineer 157 September 2004, Issue ME3, p. 214.

¹⁴ J. Ritchie 1984, op. cit., p. 261.

mines the size of tourist movement. However, what should be taken into account is the problem of crowding, the result of which is the loss of visitors who are either not interested in the show or discouraged or scared by the potentially large number of visitors to the destination during the event.¹⁵ As a result, they choose to go elsewhere or to change the date of a visit.

On the other hand, what seems the effect which should be treated as the induced one is the increased post-event tourism in the city/region obtained thanks to great media coverage and recommendations – both personal and posted in social media. Therefore, they should not be ignored.¹⁶

Not once has the International Olympic Committee (IOC) expressed their opinion about the increase in tourist movement in host cities for the Olympics.¹⁷ However, it is the IOC interest to create such image.

The links between mega-events and the level of tourist movement have been discussed in H. Solberg and H. Preuss's works and the aforementioned publication by H. Preuss.¹⁸ As for the wide empirical research in measuring the impact of mega-events on tourism, there is not much to mention, besides J. Fourie and M. Santana-Gallego's work.¹⁹ They applied the gravity model and, with the use of data collected by Rose and Spigel, determined the impact of mega-events on tourism. Their findings prove that such events promote destinations but the legacy depends on the kind of event, participants' country of origin, host country stage of development and the season, i.e. if the event takes place in season or out of season. The same data was used by Song and Kim and their findings show that events like the Olympics and World Championships contribute to the increase in tourist movement.²⁰

¹⁵ N. Chen, 2008, *What economic effect do mega-events have on host cities and their surroundings? An investigation into the literature surrounding mega-events and the impacts felt by holders of the tournaments*, University of Nottingham, Nottingham.

¹⁶ *The Impact of Staging European Football Championships EURO 2012 in Poland on tourism in Krakow*, 2013, J. Berbeka (ed.), Fundacja UEK, http://fundacjauek.krakow.pl/raport_euro2012/.

¹⁷ W. Song 2010, op. cit., p. 96.

¹⁸ H.A. Solberg, H. Preuss, *Major Sport Events and Long-Term Tourism Impacts*, "Journal of Sport Management" 2006, No. 21 (2), pp. 215–236.

¹⁹ J. Fourie, M. Santana-Gallego, 2010, *The impact of mega-events on tourist arrivals*, Working Paper Number 171, Department of Economics, Stellenbosch University, South Africa.

²⁰ W. Song, S. Kim 2010, op. cit., p. 107.

The **physical (material) effect** of events is the construction or modernisation of event structures. The term “legacy” is often used to name these effects. From the city/region point of view, the evaluation of the effects of creating sports infrastructure depends on its future use. What should be done at the project stage is deciding the future use of facilities after the Games. The more multifunctional the facility is, the more opportunities to use it as a venue for various events appear. The more yearlong character it gets, the greater chances for gaining profit and realization of social objectives, including integration and inclusion. Generally, the facilities prepared for the Summer Games have a chance not only to help realise the region’s goals like raising physical culture and recreation level, but also social and cultural ones. Whereas the Winter Games facilities such as ski jumping hills or bobsleigh/luge tracks are rather specialist²¹ and can be later used as training facilities for sportsmen, future events venues or made available for visitors pursuing nostalgic sports tourism.²²

Furthermore, road, accommodation and other objects of infrastructure are either built and/or modernised, as well.²³ Moreover, the public transport network is often enhanced.²⁴ It may be assumed that these changes would not have taken place at all or would not have been introduced in such short time, if it had not been for the event. Some of these changes include revitalising municipal areas, frequently of bad reputation. The event also forces the improvements in telecommunication infrastructure.

The negative side of staging mega-event might be pressure felt by the environment connected with the event or appointed at preparation stage. There is also the problem of overcrowding and occupation of facilities preventing the locals from using them.

As far as **socio-cultural** dimension is concerned, positive impact means the increased interest and involvement of local community in event-related activities. And what is even more important is the reinforcement of regional

²¹ H.C. Alberts, *The Reuse of Sports Facilities after the Winter Olympic Games*, “FOCUS on Geography” 2011, Vol. 54, No. 1.

²² J. Berbeka, 2013, *Ewolucja form i roli obiektów sportowych w turystyce miejskiej* [Evolution of forms and roles of sport venues in city space – in Polish], *Zeszyty Naukowe Uniwersytetu Ekonomicznego w Katowicach* nr 147, Katowice, pp. 9–20.

²³ J. Ritchie 1984, op. cit., p. 261.

²⁴ M. Malfas, E. Theodoraki, B. Houlihan, op. cit., p. 215.

traditions and values. Another positive legacy of staging a mega-event might be the increase in sports and recreational activity of local community. Some further conclusions were drawn concerning the impact of high involvement in physical activity on wellbeing, quality of individuals' and communities' lives, increasing social coherence, limiting exclusion.²⁵ As far as negative legacies are concerned, what seems a threat is a kind of commercialisation of activities, which may take social or individual character. Moreover, modification of the event itself might take place in order to attract more tourists.²⁶

Data collected in Barcelona make for the empirical justification of the above theories regarding the positive aspects. After the 1992 Olympics, growth in participation of new social groups in sports was observed. What was also observed was the higher number of individuals using municipal leisure centres, which rose by 46 thousand, and higher number of women participating in sports activities, which rose from 35% in 1989 to 45% in 1995²⁷, i.e. by 10 pp. What is more, in 1994, more than 300 thousand people took part in street sporting events.²⁸ It is said that the growth in social participation of Catalan People was the effect of renewed local community spirit caused by the Games. Similar effects were observed after the Games in Atlanta. It was emphasised that it elicited the growth of national pride and that 93% of the state of Georgia residents expressed the opinion that it had a positive impact on the local community spirit.²⁹

Psychological effect of staging mega-event is sometimes the improved local pride and communal unity. However, some negative consequences might be listed, like the tendency to keep defensive attitude concerning the region and significant probability of misunderstandings leading to civil unrest of different intensity between the locals and tourists.³⁰ These issues are hard to measure and literature does not provide the results of representative study in this range.

²⁵ I. Hooper, 2001, *The value of sport in urban regeneration*. in: *Sport and the City: the Role of Sport in Economic and Social Generation*, C. Gratton, I. Henry (eds.), Routledge, London, p. 16.

²⁶ J. Ritchie, 1984, p. 261.

²⁷ M. Malfas, E. Theodoraki, B. Houlihan, op. cit., p. 214.

²⁸ E. Truno E., 1995, *Barcelona: city of sport*, w: *The Keys to Success*, M. De Moragas, M. Botella (eds.), Centre d'Estudis Olímpics de l'Esport, Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona, Barcelona.

²⁹ T. Stevens, B. Bevan, *Olympic legacy*, "Sport Management" 1999, No. 9 (19), pp. 16–19.

³⁰ J. Ritchie, 1984, op. cit., p. 261.

Political significance of mega-events is brought to the higher international recognition of the region and its attributes. It also involves supporting the values followed by government and local people.³¹ Apparently, the decision concerning the bid for hosting a mega-event is political. The right to organise the event is granted to the cities. Single cities or regions are usually not capable of managing financial side of preparations for the event on their own. They need support from the government, which means government's consent to apply for the event. This, in turn, is connected with the attempt to achieve own political or economic objectives and playing a kind of game. Certain micro-political factors appear and some elevated people try to take advantage of mega-event to build their own political capital and image.³²

Another threat that emerges is the risk of taking economic advantage of the local community in order to gain political advantage and distortion of the real nature of the event in order to express political views of given authorities.

Summing up, it should be stressed that the impact of mega-events on the reception area depends on:³³

- the kind of sport – niche sport disciplines attract lower number of tourists; however, the popularity of disciplines differs according to a country/continent,
- the size of event,
- way of organizing and the length of games,
- advertising tools and other components of tourism marketing,
- the level of competition – from the regional to national and international,
- existence of event-related infrastructure which enables taking advantage of leisure time,
- localization of contests – big and well-known cities have the advantage over the unrecognized ones and the proximity of shopping facilities contributes to the growth of economic index.

³¹ Ibidem.

³² J. Berbeka, 2004, *Marketing w sporcie* [Sport Marketing – in Polish], Wydawnictwo AE, Kraków, p. 55.

³³ J. Higham, 2005, *Sport tourism destinations: issues, opportunities and analysis*, Elsevier, Oxford, p. 72.

A review of literature shows that there is an impact of mega-events on the host city/region or even a country. It also shows that legacies are not unequivocal and may be of different character. This leads to the conclusion that further research, search for methods and tools most useful for effect analysis should be undertaken.

2. The importance of submitting the bid to host Winter Olympics for tourism in Krakow

The idea to stage the Winter Olympics in Poland first appeared in 1993. Unfortunately, the bid was declined in 1999 by IOC. In 2012 the idea to organize the Winter Olympics in Krakow arose and appropriate actions were taken in order to make it viable. The Council of Krakow and the Board of Małopolska have passed appropriate regulations. "Krakow 2022 Winter Olympics" Submission Committee and its chairman, Jagna Marczułajtis-Walczak have been appointed. Being aware of the size of undertaking in terms of organization and logistics, the authorities and institutions involved in the project have tried hard to establish cooperation and partnership for the project. The official invitation sent by the Mayor of Krakow and Marshal of Małopolska Region to the presidents and mayors of cities and municipalities whose infrastructure is capable of staging mega-event was promptly accepted. Pertinent contact has also been made with Slovakia authorities on the ministerial level and in March 2013 the "Letter of intent to support Krakow's candidature for the host of Winter Olympics and Paralympics in 2022" was signed by the Governments of Poland and Slovakia. On 10th May 2013 Polish *Sejm* passed a resolution on granting support to the city of Krakow bidding to stage the 24th Winter Olympics and 13th Winter Paralympics in 2022 together with the Tatra Region located on both sides of the Polish-Slovakian border.

Olympic Games is an international, multitask and multiphase project which involves many entities and a lot of financial expenditures allocated from the budgets of both local government units and the Polish and Slovakian governments, not to mention the contribution of sponsors. The Ministry of Sport and Tourism decided to take responsibility for coordinating the entirety of tasks.

Not only did the project brought about a discussion in Krakow, but also in the whole Małopolska Region. Numerous initiatives either to negate or support it have come to life. They naturally concentrate on the question if Krakow and Poland can afford to stage the event. It seems that answering this question has to be postponed till March 2014, when the preliminary costs will be presented and submitted.

The effects of application and organization per se might be divided into economic, social, environmental and sporting. In the case of economic, it is the Minister of Sport and Tourism who allocated PLN 2.5 million in 2013 to subsidies for organizing and promoting sport by supporting the bidding process for hosting the Winter Olympics and Paralympics in 2022 in Krakow. A mere fact of Krakow competing against Oslo, Almaty, Beijing and Lviv has already enhanced the city image abroad. Referring to the Fry and Willis's statement about places on margin³⁴ - and Krakow is one of them for the majority of the globe, especially for its Asian part – the application itself contributes to building the awareness of the destination and creation of city brand. In this light, Malotch's conception of the "city as the machine of growth" seems justified and what is more, it can be perceived as positive. The city should be capable of enterprise (entrepreneurial city)³⁵ and competitive (competitive state)³⁶ as required by the global competitive market and expected by the entities operating there.

Decisions concerning the infrastructure have already been made, e.g. construction of the two-lane road to Rabka and extension of runway in Krakow Airport; investments awaiting realization for years and now advanced as a result of the application.

A. Rose and M. Spiegel talk about "signalling model", relating to the increase in foreign trade turnover of the candidate country wishing to stage Olympic Games.³⁷ The authors claim that just the fact of taking part in a bid for staging the Olympics is a kind of signal of the future liberalization of economy, which as a result leads to the increased turnover in the international trade. The authors

³⁴ T. Fry, A. Willis, *Expo '88: backwoods into the future*, "Cultural Studies" 1988, No. 2 (1), pp. 127–138.

³⁵ D. Harvey, 1989, *The Condition of Postmodernity*, Blackwell, Oxford, p. 17.

³⁶ B. Jessop, 2002, *The Future of the Capitalist State*, Polity, Cambridge.

³⁷ A.K. Rose, M.M. Spiegel, 2010, *The Olympic Effects*, Working Paper, University of California, Berkeley.

indicated a strong, statistically relevant link between the increase in export and import and the participation in the bid to host Summer Olympics.

The process of building social capital which is the attempt to integrate the environments (Krakow, Podhale Municipalities) in the name of common objective has begun. This is an important aspect of relations among the supply side tourism operators in Małopolska Region.

Following the application to stage the Olympics, Krakow must take active part in improving the condition of environment, including the quality of air in the city. However, the latter problem needs to be addressed irrespectively of the event-related actions.

The possibility of organizing the Olympics resulted in creating a comprehensive programme to prepare future national representatives. As a result, the National Programme for Winter Sports Development's presumptions were made.

The successes of Polish sportsmen in Sochi 2014 Olympics justify their engagement in striving for training facilities. It seems enough for a reason to create social legitimization for building such infrastructure (or at least a part of it), which is equally important for staging the Olympics.

Conclusion

The literature review proves that organizing mega-events, including Winter Olympics, brings benefits. However, it also requires dramatic expenditures. The experiences gained by other host cities are various as their starting positions were unique in terms of their level of economic development and infrastructure available, as well as their preparation strategies, which also differed. Apparently, they should be appreciated as good practice for Krakow.

The decision to bid for the Olympics and Paralympics seems to be thoroughly thought over by the city and voivodship authorities and consulted with the central bodies. Nevertheless, it has not won public acceptance yet, which is a key factor for success and striving after it based on strong arguments and dialogue is crucial.

It can be stated that submitting the bid to organize the Winter Olympics by Krakow could be a pull factor increasing tourist demand by improving the transport and communication accessibility of the city, advertising which contributes to building city awareness and enhancing city image, that is creating the brand.

This might turn into a push factor encouraging foreigners like Asians to visit and explore these uncharted regions.

These theoretical assumptions will stay assumptions because Krakow's citizens decided that they didn't want to host the Games and Krakow withdrew its candidature, so they will not be verified.

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KONSEKWENCJE APLIKOWANIA O ZIMOWE IGRZYSKA OLIMPIJSKIE 2022 DLA TURYSTYKI W KRAKOWIE

Streszczenie

W artykule podjęto temat konsekwencji pełnienia roli gospodarza Zimowych Igrzysk Olimpijskich dla miasta. Postawiono pytania badawcze: Jakie są korzyści, a jakie koszty podjęcia się organizacji mega wydarzenia?

Jakie skutki dla turystyki w Krakowie ma aplikowanie przez miasto o prawo do organizowania XXIV ZIO i XIII Igrzysk Paraolimpijskich w 2022 roku?

Odpowiedzi na pierwsze pytanie dostarcza kwerenda literatury. Przegląd źródeł wtórnych prowadzi do wniosku, że każdy przypadek miasta goszczącego był inny i należy go rozpatrywać w ujęciu całościowym: gospodarczym, politycznym, społecznym, środowiskowym, sportowo-rekreacyjnym, marketingowym i turystycznym, w dodatku w krótkim i długim okresie.

Zgłoszenie kandydatury Krakowa do organizacji Igrzysk w 2022 roku tworzy zarówno czynniki pull (poprawa dostępności komunikacyjnej miasta, zgodnie z teorią sygnałną komunikowanie światu otwartości i kompetencji organizacyjnych Krakowa, kształtowanie jego wizerunku) jak i push (motywacja odwiedzin jednego z miast-kandydatów) determinujące popyt turystyczny w Krakowie już obecnie i w najbliższych latach.

Słowa kluczowe: Zimowe Igrzyska Olimpijskie, aplikowanie, turystyka, Kraków

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**CULTURE AS AN INPUT INTO INDUCED DESTINATION
IMAGE: THE CASE OF POLAND,
CZECH REPUBLIC AND SLOVAKIA**

Abstract

The paper addresses the issue of the use of culture as an input into induced image formation by NTOs. It shows the potential dimensions of such input as far as tourism offering, identity and creative communication are considered. All dimensions are further elaborated and the findings applied to content analysis of official websites of Poland, the Czech Republic and Slovakia NTOs. The outcome of the analysis reveals that they promote traditional built heritage, only occasionally some examples of arts or creative industries input can be traced. The presentation of the offer is also rather conventional. Only the Czech Republic may be seen as destination that positions itself through rich cultural themes, intangible heritage including.

Keywords: culture, destination image, NTO

Introduction

The growing tourism market attracts more and more competitors who perceive it as an opportunity for setting up a business and more generally for economic growth. The success of those undertakings will depend on the power with which particular places can attract visitors. It is commonly posited that the power is strongly related to the image of the place. Although the concept

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of image is slightly ambiguous as both theoretical and practical approaches are concerned,¹ it has got a lot of attention as a subject of research and theoretical reflection. One of the strains of the scrutiny focuses on agents of image process formation. As image of tourism destinations is concerned, the most robust model was proposed by W. Gartner.² The model is founded on the distinction between the “organic image” formed by many influences and sources of information a person encounters during life and the “induced image” that is purposefully created by parties interested in shaping it. Among the latter destination marketing/promotion organizations play the key role. They are the only agents of destination image formation for whom that task is a priority and a basic responsibility. At the same time destination marketing organizations (DMO) have a quasi-official status and their activities are usually linked to the broader policies of the governments. Thus the DMOs try to promote the image that could be attractive for visitors and would influence their choices but at the same time they are often tacitly involved in actions with some political aims. That is especially true as a country image is at stake, and the creation of such is the task of the national tourism organizations (NTO). Despite the fact that effectiveness of the induced image formation may be limited, such campaigns can play an important role as a method for creating a unique selling proposition and thus funneling efforts of the tourism trade in the country.

The issues of formation of the destination image is especially relevant for the Central European countries that entered the international tourism market after the fall of the communist regime. They lacked both the distinct tourism offer and expertise how to operate in the competitive environment.³ In such situation culture seemed to be an obvious option as the basic input into their induced image because it allows unique positioning supported by genuine tourism resources in those countries.⁴ It seems interesting to find out if and how that solution has

¹ Ch. J. White, *Destination image: to see or not to see?*, “International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management” 2005, No. 5/2004, pp. 309–314; Ch. White, *Destination image: to see or not to see? Part II*, “International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management” 2005, Vol. 17, No. 2, pp. 191–196.

² W. Gartner, *Image formation process*, “Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing” 1993, No. 2, pp. 191–215.

³ H. Hughes, D. Allen, *Cultural tourism in Central and Eastern Europe: the views of “induction image formation agents”*, “Tourism Management” 2005, No. 26, pp. 173–183.

⁴ *Ibidem*.

been adopted. The purpose of the paper is to examine the role of culture in the induced image of three neighbouring countries in the Central Europe: Poland, the Czech Republic and Slovakia. It addresses the following issues:

- a) what is the role of culture in the induced image of those countries?
- b) how they position themselves using cultural themes to create unique selling proposition?

The research has been founded on the content analysis of the official websites operated by NTOs in the countries and was carried out in February/March of 2014 . The choice of the medium examined has been motivated by the popularity of internet as a source of information for travel planning, although obviously it is not the only means for dissemination of the destination image.

1. Culture as an ingredient of induced image

As it has been mentioned above, the term “image” is to some extent ambiguous both as its meaning and practical applications are concerned. The review of the “image” conceptualization in the literature was done by Ch. J. White.⁵ His findings show that there is no distinct border between conceptualization of “image” as an amalgam of beliefs about the features of a destination and as a general imaginary and attitude towards the particular place. If the concept is to be operationalized to allow image measurement and formation, the former approach is more viable. It allows to focus on visitors’ perceptions, feelings and intentions to travel. In other words image embraces cognitive, affective and behavioral dimensions.

As perceptions and feelings are concerned, there is a body of research in which the knowledge and attitudes towards the place attributes have been examined. Some of them have been reviewed by K. Byon and J. Zhang.⁶ Most of the scales that attempt to measure the image of a particular destination take into account qualities that embrace the basic elements of the tourism supply, such

⁵ Ch. J. White, *Destination image...*, Part I, op. cit.

⁶ K. Byon, J. Zhang, *Development of a scale measuring destination image*, “Marketing Intelligence & Planning” 2010, No. 4, pp. 508–532; S. Baloglu, K. McCleary, *A model of image formation*, “Annals of Tourism Research” 1999, Vol. 26, No. 4, pp. 868–897.

as natural and cultural amenities and accommodation, transportation and infrastructure. Those basic elements are supplemented by other factors such as:

- a) social opportunities and attractions,
- b) friendly people,
- c) safety,
- d) novelty, etc.

Most of the research applied factor analysis and originally included tens of items⁷. Because the mentioned above cognitive factors include tangible and intangible elements, it seems reasonable to distinguish functional qualities of a destination (scenery, facilities, accommodation, etc.) and psychological ones (friendliness, feeling and atmosphere). In fact the latter can be attributed to the affective aspects of the image. Some of the research reviewed by K. Byron and J. Zhang adopted a slightly different approach identifying three cognitive factors (quality of experience, attractions, value/entertainment) and two bipolar affective factors (such as arousing-sleepy and pleasant-unpleasant; and exciting-gloomy and relaxing-distressing).⁸

The conceptualization of the destination image is important not only for its measurement and prediction of travel choices, it can be also used as a guideline for actions aimed at creation of the induced image. R. Groves and F. Go developed the tourism destination image formation model that shows the context of the induced image development.⁹ The model shows the process of image formation as an encounter between forces shaping visitor's attitude and beliefs about the destination, and factors behind the image projected by the host community or in fact by the body with the mandate for doing that. The latter directly affects the induced destination image in minds of the potential visitors.

At the centre of the projected image there are two building blocks: tourism product offering and identity which play a role of an anchor for the projected image. The concept of identity itself is both complex and sensitive. Originally it has been developed in psychology and then adapted for explaining the intergroup

⁷ Ibidem; B. Pan, R. Li, *The long tail of destination image and on line marketing*, "Annals of Tourism Research" 2011, Vol. 34, No. 1, pp. 132–152.

⁸ Ibidem.

⁹ R. Groves, F. Go, *Cultural identities constructed, imagined and experienced: A 3-gap tourism destination model*, "Tourism" 2004, No. 2, pp. 165–182.

discrimination.¹⁰ The authors of the concept posit that persons tend to enhance their self-esteem by increasing the status of the group with which they identify themselves. The identity may be constructed around natural environment, culture and religion, history and authenticity.¹¹ As the identity of destinations is concerned, it may cause conflicts when different groups are interested in presentation of the qualities they consider as the most valuable. It is especially relevant to the case of multi-national destinations or destinations with turbulent past when they were populated by different ethnic groups or were incorporated into other states.

The factors influencing the projected image embrace tourism development strategy, service delivery and supply. They form the foundation for the content of the projected image and activities aimed at its deployment. The activities themselves involve communication and other marketing tools, narratives and expressed meaning, produced imagination (art and literature) and media as an enabler.¹²

Even the cursory overview of the described model of an induced image formation allows assumption that culture can play important, even crucial, role in almost all elements of the process. The closer scrutiny of that role requires analysis of the notion of culture so that the possibilities it offers could be better understood. As D. Throsby remarks, the scope of the term “culture” has been recently significantly expanded from the arts and heritage to interpretation of culture as a way of life, i.e. the expression of the shared values and experiences.¹³ The new understanding of the term resulted in broadening of the range of activities that are considered as “cultural”. They embrace arts and heritage, film, print and broadcast media, and also fashion, design and architecture. In some countries the scope of culture is even broader and covers also gastronomy and agricultural products, agriculture, wine and handicraft.¹⁴

¹⁰ H. Tajfel, J. Turner, *The social identity theory of inter-group behavior*, in: *Psychology of Intergroup Relations*, S. Worchel, L.W. Austin (eds.), Chicago 1986, Nelson-Hall.

¹¹ R. Groves, F. Go, op. cit.

¹² According to R. Groves, F. Go, op. cit., p. 167.

¹³ D. Throsby, *The Economics of Cultural Policy*, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge 2010, p. 2.

¹⁴ *The Impact of Culture on Tourism*, OECD, Paris 2009, p. 26; City Tourism and Culture, ETC/UNWTO, Brussels 2005, p. 3.

The usual link between culture and tourism in the context of destination image focuses on cultural tourism.¹⁵ It may be defined from the demand side with interest in culture and cultural experience as the main criterion of classification.¹⁶ The supply side approach defines cultural tourism according to a core offer. It may embrace:

- **Heritage:** the predominant cultural product is the cultural heritage (artefacts relating to the past) of the place;
- **The Arts:** the predominant cultural product is the contemporary performing and visual arts of the place;
- **Creative Industries:** the predominant cultural product is the creative industries (i.e. design, fashion, contemporary architecture, advertising, etc.).¹⁷

The model of destination image formation that has been discussed above offers the possibility of additional insights. The input of culture can have more dimensions than just offer of attractions. Firstly, for many destinations cultural values form their identity. As it has been mentioned above the choice of the particular cultural heritage may be politically motivated and has implications concerning the choice of the heritage or performing arts that will form the projected image. The potential of culture is so strong that it is often used to create the unique selling proposition.¹⁸ Such selling proposition will stress those elements of the culture that are perceived as especially important by the host community and believed to be interesting for potential visitors. Secondly, creative communication of the cultural values will improve chances of the destination in the market. In fact, skillful development of the identity themes may create the new intangible value attracting visitors.

The choice of cultural themes the destination wants to offer creates the cognitive but also affective dimension of the image. The cultural input embracing heritage, performing arts and creative industries offers almost infinite opportunities for positioning destination but also for rejuvenation of its image. The unique and changing culture based offer may also create a sense of immediate action on the part of visitors adding the behavioral dimension to destination image.

¹⁵ *City Tourism and Culture*, op. cit., pp. 5–7; H. Hughes, D. Allen, op. cit.

¹⁶ *City Tourism and Culture*, op. cit.

¹⁷ *Ibidem*, pp. 5–6.

¹⁸ H. Hughes, D. Allen, op. cit.

2. Culture in promotion of Poland, Czech Republic and Slovakia

Poland, the Czech Republic and Slovakia may still be considered newcomers in the international tourism market. The research on the countries' image as tourism destinations reveal their weakness in this respect.¹⁹ It is posited that culture is the best way to overcome that problem, especially because the countries enjoy some distinctive qualities in this respect.²⁰ But it is an open question what cultural traits will be chosen to form the projected image and how they will be used.

As it has been outlined in the previous section, cultural themes may permeate all aspects of the projected image formation. It may be deployed by a range of media but at present internet is one of the most popular sources of information used by people planning trips and also one of the most flexible as content presentation is considered. Due to that fact the analysis of websites allows some conclusions on the role of culture in the projected image. The research presented below uses the method of content analysis²¹ in which two coders took part.²² The findings described in the paper are the reconciled version but there were not major differences between data provided by the coders. Interpretation of the data and conclusions have been added by the author. Content analysis has been applied to text and photographs presented on the official websites operated by NTOs responsible for promotion of Poland, Czech Republic and Slovakia: www.poland.travel/en, www.czechtourism.com, www.slovakia.travel/en. The analysis was carried out in February/March 2014. It covered home page of the website and first screen of the landing page for particular items. The limitation of the number of screens examined was based on the observations concerning internet viewers behaviour.

The basic research questions presented in the introduction have been developed into a set of more detailed topics following the assumptions on the role of culture in induced destination image formation:

- a) the significance of culture as an ingredient of the image: it has been assessed as an exposure of cultural themes on the home page;

¹⁹ For example survey carried out in 2008 and 2009 by S. Anholt; www.simonanholt.com/Research/research-introduction.aspx.

²⁰ H. Hughes, D. Allen, op. cit.

²¹ S.J. Smith, *Practical Tourism Research*, CABI, Wallingford 2010, pp. 201–220; D. Silverman, *Methods of Analysing Talk, Text and Interactions*, 2nd ed., Sage, Thousand Oaks and New Delhi 2001.

²² The author would like to acknowledge the role of Hanna Zawistowska as the second coder.

- b) the input of culture into cognitive dimension of the image: attractions promoted on the website;
- c) how cultural ingredients are presented as the affective aspect of the image is concerned;
- d) the occurrence of elements that can be classified as prompting visitors to come;
- e) the way of the presentation of culture as creative input into marketing communication is considered.

The findings on the exposure of culture in the projected image are shown in Table 1.

Table 1

Exposure of culture on the website

	Poland	Czech Republic	Slovakia
First screen content	No direct indication	Prague, cultural heritage	UNESCO heritage
Visual content	Fairytale stylization	Photographs, access to video, Architectural monuments	Photographs, architectural monuments
Display	None, occasional information on news, bottom of the page	The top and bottom of the page	Bottom of the page
% of the first screen	20%	Up to 90% if changing anchor picture shows culture; 100% of the static visual content	10%
Lead on culture	No direct lead on home page – what to see?, what to do? on the bar, after clicking heritage, UNESCO sites, cities & towns, arts & culture	Cultural heritage on the bar; direct links to particular photographs	No direct indication – places to go, events on the bar; after clicking TOP 10 in Slovakia UNESCO; Special routes; Towns; Event calendar; Regular event
Length of the text on culture	605 words	1272 words	2 584 words

Source: own elaboration.

The analysis of the cognitive aspect of the projected image has embraced several layers of meaning. The cultural offer has been attributed to heritage (tangible and intangible), arts and creative industries. The attribution has been done according to the use of particular phrases related to the type of the activity. The second layer of the analysis has been focused on classification of types of cultural attractions. The following classification has been applied: architecture (includes words: architecture, monuments, castle, manor houses, burgher house, chateaux, villa, church, monastery, cathedral), park and gardens, theatre, opera, music and concert, dance, museum, gallery, painting, fashion, cuisine. The phrases: tradition, traditional, past, historical (additionally historical period has been distinguished like Gothic, medieval, Baroque etc.), modern, contemporary have been used as the additional criterion of classification. The third layer has been aimed at tracing the identity projected via cultural offers. It focuses of the utilization of phrases indicating religious, national, folk and political affiliation of culture promoted.

The affective aspect of the projected image has been linked to the use of phrases like: romance, romantic, spiritual, magic, aroma, flavor, fairytale. The sense of urgency has been attributed to the use of phrases like: unique, splendid. The findings are shown in Table 2.

Table 2

The cultural content of the website projected image
(traced phrases as % of words in the text)

	Poland	Czech Republic	Slovakia
Heritage	32.9	18.9	3.0
Intangible heritage	0	0.2	0.1
Arts	5.5	1.1	1.4
Creative industries	0	0.2	0.2
Architecture	22.0	14.9	2.6
Park	1.3	0.5	0.1
Theatre	0.7	0.2	0.1
Music	2.6	0	0.7
Opera	0.8	0	0.1
Dance	0	0.3	0.1
Museum	10.4	3.1	0.7
Gallery	0	0.4	0

	Poland	Czech Republic	Slovakia
Open air museum/ skansen	0	0.3	0.2
Past	1.2	0	0.8
Modern	0.3	0	0
Tradition	0.7	0.2	0.1
Religion	0.7	0	0.9
National	0.2	0.6	0
Multicultural	0.2	0	0.2
Folk	0	0	0.2
Europe	0.3	0.2	0.2
Romance	0	0.9	0.1
Spiritual	0	0.6	0
Magic, fairytale	1.3	0.9	0.1
Aroma, flavour	0	0.2	0
Unique	2.1	0.7	0.5
Splendid	0.7	0.6	0

Source: own elaboration.

In addition to the data provided in Table 2 it is worthwhile to mention that the Czech Republic strongly stresses the broad array of styles in architecture that can be enjoyed in the country: from Romanesque to Functionalism, with stress on Gothic, Renaissance and Baroque/Rococo. Gothic is also strongly present in the offer of Poland and Slovakia, while in both countries modern styles are completely omitted. Generally, all websites describe mainly tangible heritage that can be associated with traditional approach to national heritage and culture. The only exception can be found in the Czech Republic promotion in which comments on traditional beverages, i.e. beer and Becherovka, are placed.

In Slovakia and Poland the tradition of numerous ethnic groups are mentioned, with special focus on Jewish heritage in Poland. As religious themes are considered they are prominent in Poland's and Slovakia's promotion, especially as Roman Catholic religion is considered, in Poland churches are among the most often mentioned monuments. In the Czech Republic there are only neutral comments on spirituality, meditation and contemplation in the context of religious buildings.

As the last of the mentioned above topics on the input of culture into destination image projection is concerned the analysis has shown that the application

of innovative methods of expression are limited. Only in the content provided by the Czech Republic, and to some extent by Poland, there are attempts to set some places within narration related to famous personalities or fairytale ambience. The use of innovative technical solutions is also rather limited, the Czech Republic website is the most advanced in respect of IT solutions.

The analysis of the content of official websites run by the national NTOs of Poland, the Czech Republic and Slovakia reveals how they perceive and use culture as an ingredient of the projected image. It shows that only the Czech Republic consequently builds its image on culture, mainly material heritage but also on intangible one. Its website is also most advanced as exposure and expression are considered. In the case of Poland and Slovakia, culture plays an important role in tourism offer but it is not directly addressed as such. Especially Slovakia seems to place more stress on natural attractions which are listed together with cultural ones under the same titles. In all cases prevails rather traditional approach as use of culture is considered. It is strongly present as tourism offering and dominated by traditional themes linked to heritage, and it is mainly heritage of nobles or rich cities and towns. Only Slovakia stresses its folk heritage and contemporary culture. The presence of themes linked to arts is limited and creative industries are practically absent. The traces of them can be found only in the projected image of the Czech Republic and Slovakia.

In all countries the projected image stresses rather than cultural traits that can be considered as common European heritage, i.e. historical heritage. Generally the theme of universality is stressed, the exposure of UNESCO heritage list may be considered as a proof.

The answer to the second research question concerning the role of culture as a base of unique selling proposition is more complex. It seems that only in the case of the Czech Republic it is possible to argue that point. Poland and Slovakia treat culture more conventionally as one of country's attraction, shown under leads "what to see" or "what to do".

Conclusion

The presented analysis gives some insight into the use of culture as an ingredient of creation of the induced image. Its findings cannot give the complete picture of the issue but reveal some similarities and differences in the countries

examined, as well as deficiencies that can be traced. It gives the impression that maybe with an exception of the Czech Republic culture is a underutilized resource as induced destination image is considered. The outcome of the content analysis shows that the themes presented favour the traditional passive encounter with built heritage and universal values. It is obvious that the research findings need more elaboration so that the actual role of culture could be better defined. But it seems also worthwhile to undertake research that could shed some light on processes that influence that role and possibly could help better utilize possibilities it offers.

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**KULTURA JAKO TWORZYWO KREOWANEGO WIZERUNKU KRAJU:
PRZYPADEK POLSKI, REPUBLIKI CZESKIEJ I SŁOWACJI.****Streszczenie**

W artykule podjęto temat wykorzystania kultury jako tworzywa kreowanego przez narodowe organizacje turystyczne wizerunku kraju. Przedstawiono różne wymiary tworzenia wizerunku, w których kultura może być mieć istotny wkład, tj. ofertę turystyczną, tożsamość i kreatywną komunikację wizerunku. Wszystkie wymienione wymiary zostały szerzej scharakteryzowane, a wynikające z tej analizy ustalenia wykorzystane w analizie treści oficjalnych stron internetowych organizacji turystycznych Polski, Republiki Czeskiej i Słowacji. Wyniki tej analizy ujawniają że promowane jest głównie tradycyjne dziedzictwo architektoniczne, tylko okazjonalnie można znaleźć przykłady odwołań do sztuk wykonawczych lub branż kreatywnych. Także sposób prezentacji wizerunku jest konwencjonalny. Jedynie Republika Czeska może być postrzegana jako kraj, który pozycjonuje swój wizerunek za pomocą motywów kulturowych, w tym za pomocą elementów dziedzictwa niematerialnego.

Słowa kluczowe: Kultura, obszar recepcji turystycznej, NOT

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**PILGRIMAGES AND RELIGIOUS TOURISM
IN POLAND IN THE 21ST CENTURY – CURRENT SITUATION
AND PERSPECTIVES FOR DEVELOPMENT**

Abstract

The purpose of the paper is to analyze the current situation in the area of pilgrimages and religious tourism in Poland. According to various sources there are between 500 and 800 Catholic holy sites in Poland characterized by various degrees of spatial impact. Most of the sites are dedicated to Mary the Mother of God – approximately 430 sites. More than 200 of these sites feature an image of the Mother of God wearing a crown. Other holy sites belong to other religious organizations including Orthodox Christians, Greek Catholics, Muslims, and Jews. Between five and seven million Poles take part in pilgrimages every year. This is more than 15% of the country's total population. Poles currently constitute about 5% of all Christians making pilgrimages throughout the world and more than 20% of Christians making pilgrimages in Europe. About 1.5 million foreign pilgrims visit Poland every year.

Current pilgrimage patterns in Poland are largely a reflection of Poland's pilgrimage heritage and strong association with this type of religious practice. The pilgrimage tradition remains a key part of religious life in Poland today. This fact is confirmed by the number of pilgrims, level of pastoral activity at holy sites, and the development of new sites.

Keywords: pilgrimages, religious tourism, holy sites, Poland

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Introduction

A pilgrimage is a social phenomenon observed in many religions. Early pilgrimages in the Christian religion were associated with two key Christian sites – Jerusalem and Rome. The former was essentially a symbol of the Holy Land as a whole. Poland became a Christian nation in the 10th century and pilgrimages also became a popular religious activity in Poland. Unlike the case in many parts of contemporary Western Europe, pilgrimages remain popular in Poland today.

The role of Poland in the global pilgrimage community is significant. Every year several million Poles participate in organized pilgrimages to holy sites in Poland and abroad. New types of pilgrimages have also emerged. New holy sites and pilgrimage trails have also emerged in recent years. The purpose of the paper is to analyze today's pilgrimage movement and religious tourism in Poland as well as to identify growth patterns.

1. Pilgrimages and religious tourism at the turn of the 21st century

Poles currently constitute about 5% of all Christians making pilgrimages throughout the world and more than 20% of Christians making pilgrimages in Europe. Between five and seven million Poles take part in pilgrimages every year, which is more than 15% of the country's total population. In addition to Roman Catholics and Greek Catholics, pilgrims include Orthodox Christians, Muslims, and Hasidic Jews. According to available data, Poland receives about 1.5 million foreign pilgrims every year.

According to various sources, Poland boasts between 500 and 800 holy sites, most of which belong to the Roman Catholic Church (98%). Most Catholic holy sites in Poland are devoted to Mary the Mother of God (430 sites). More than two hundred of these sites feature an image of the Mother of God wearing a crown.¹

The largest pilgrimage centers in Poland attract pilgrims from across the world. These include the Catholic Shrine of Jasna Góra in Częstochowa and the Sanctuary of Divine Mercy in Kraków as well as shrines in Kalwaria

¹ A. Jackowski, *Święta przestrzeń świata. Podstawy geografii religii*, Wyd. UJ, Kraków, 2003, p. 226.

Zebrzydowska, St. Anne's Mountain, and Licheń. The former concentration camp in Auschwitz is also a unique site that resembles a pilgrimage site. It is visited by members of many religions and faiths. Other holy sites with international appeal include the Orthodox Christian site in Grabarka as well as Hasidic burial sites of the Tzadikim in Leżajsk, Bobowa, Góra Kalwaria, and Remuh Cemetery in Kraków.

The following cities and towns feature holy sites with primarily domestic pilgrims: Piekary Śląskie, Gniezno, Warsaw, Zakopane-Krzepiówki, and the Orthodox Christian site of Jabłeczna. Each site has a different history of pilgrimages. The most important holy sites for Polish Muslims are mosques in Bohoniki and Kruszyniany in Sokółka County.

Twenty five holy sites attract pilgrims from even larger regions (several dioceses) in Poland. The most renowned of these are Bardo Śląskie, Wambierzyce, Trzebnica, Ludźmierz, Tuchów, Kalwaria Paławska, Kodeń, Leśna Podlaska, Gietrzwałd, Święta Lipka, Wejherowo, Swarzewo, Święty Krzyż, Dukla, and Kałków-Godów. In addition, 135 holy sites attract pilgrims from smaller regions and more than 300 sites attract mostly local pilgrims.

1.1. Pilgrimages to holy sites with an international reputation

The oldest pilgrimage center in Poland with an international reputation is Jasna Góra in the city of Częstochowa – with 3.5 to 4.0 million pilgrims per year.² The Shrine of Jasna Góra was founded in 1382 by the Pauline Fathers who continue to own and operate it. The shrine remained in private hands even during the occupation of Poland by its three powerful neighbors (Russia, Prussia, Austria) in the 19th century. At the time, many holy sites in Poland had been taken over by the three occupying powers, but Jasna Góra remained in the hands of the Pauline Fathers. Russia was the power occupying the Częstochowa region at the time.

While Jasna Góra has been a popular destination for foreign pilgrims since the Middle Ages, its primary significance is associated with events in the history of Poland. The shrine has been a key factor in the establishment of ethnic bonds and government unity in Poland, especially in times when religion was a very

² www.jasnagora.pl (1.03.2014).

important part of national life and government policy. Jasna Góra has exerted influence far beyond its role as a holy site for centuries. Its effects on the Roman Catholic Church have been observed at the national level and even the international level. Jasna Góra received its right to issue indulgences in 1429. The Feast of Our Lady of Jasna Góra became a Roman Catholic holy day on August 26, 1904 thanks to Pope Pius X. In 1906 the shrine was designated a minor basilica also by Pope Pius X. The next pope – Pius XI – established a new holy day in 1924, which became a national holy day in Poland – the Feast of Our Lady the Queen of Poland (May 3). This new holy day became synonymous in Poland with the image of Our Lady of Jasna Góra.³

Officials of the Roman Catholic Church have been visiting the Jasna Góra Shrine for centuries including Papal Ambassador Achilles Ratti in 1918 who later became Pope Pius XI and the future Pope Paul VI (1923). The image of Our Lady of Częstochowa was placed in 1920 in the Papal Chapel at the Castel Gandolfo papal summer residence. Visits by popes themselves were also quite meaningful and included John Paul II in 1979, 1983, 1987, 1991, 1997, and 1999, as well as Benedict XVI in 2006.

The close relationship between John Paul II and Jasna Góra upgraded the status of the shrine during his time in office. Pope John Paul II also helped organize the 6th World Youth Day at Jasna Góra in 1991. Other major events held at the request of the Pope included the 19th International Mariological Congress and 12th International Marian Congress in 1996. The two meetings were the largest international events to have taken place at Jasna Góra. The election of a Polish pope helped spark a great deal of national enthusiasm in Poland, which helped produce many new prayer services and pilgrimages to Jasna Góra in the intention of John Paul II. This fact is borne out by pilgrimage statistics. The number of pilgrims making the trek to Jasna Góra increased rapidly in the 1980s. The changing politics of the era in Poland also helped increase the number of pilgrims. By 1989 Poland had initiated a transition from communism to capitalism. The number of pilgrims at Jasna Góra had ranged between half a million and one million between 1945 and 1975.⁴

³ S. Kośnik OSPPE, *Jasna Góra – Sanktuarium Kościoła*, “Peregrinus Cracoviensis” 1996, Vol. 3, pp. 17–19.

⁴ E. Bilska-Wodecka, I. Soljan, *Przemiany krajobrazu religijnego Częstochowy w XX wieku*, “Peregrinus Cracoviensis” 2011, Vol. 22, pp. 346–347.

It seems unusual that the Jasna Góra Shrine is the only medieval shrine to effectively compete with great shrines built in the 20th century and which had served as locations for apparitions of the Mother of God (Lourdes and Fatima). Prior to World War II, both Jasna Góra and Lourdes welcomed the same number of visitors every year – around one million. While the trend in the last few years has been one of growth in the case of Fatima and Lourdes and decline in the case of Jasna Góra, this was not always the case. In the mid-1990s all three shrines received more or less the same number of visitors – between four and five million per year. The percentage of foreign pilgrims visiting Lourdes and Fatima is much higher than that at Jasna Góra. As a result, Jasna Góra is a key national shrine for the Polish nation in addition to being a major Christian shrine. Jasna Góra still receives several million visitors per year, although that number is decreasing every year, as is the case with other pilgrimage-oriented shrines in Poland.⁵

Organized pilgrimages headed to Jasna Góra include national pilgrimages, short range regional pilgrimages, pilgrimages on foot, and groups of tourists who use the services of tourist guides. The Jasna Góra Information Center keeps track of tourist traffic. More than half the pilgrims who come to Jasna Góra arrive as part of organized pilgrimages. This high percentage of organized pilgrims is uncommon at other shrines. Organized pilgrimages account for 20% to 30% of all traffic at other major shrines. The prevalence of organized pilgrimages at Jasna Góra is the result of centuries of organized pilgrimages to this shrine.

The largest number of organized pilgrims in Poland arrive at Jasna Góra as part of national pilgrimages – about one million pilgrims per year in recent years. The majority of these pilgrims organize themselves into groups of professionals such as farmers, teachers, railway workers, miners, doctors, veterinarians, fire fighters, hairdressers, and lawyers, as well as associations and religious organizations including Radio Maryja, Catholic Action, Marian Sodality, Local Children's Rosary Clubs, and the Marian legion. New pilgrimages appear every year and are often the product of the changing political and social situation in Poland (e.g. Pilgrimage of the Unemployed). More than one hundred national pilgrimages head to Jasna Góra every year. The number of participants ranges from 20,000 to 100,000 people. The largest pilgrimages are designated the Radio Maryja Pilgrimage and the Working People's Pilgrimage.

⁵ I. Soljan, *Sanktuaria i ich rola w organizacji przestrzeni miast na przykładzie największych europejskich ośrodków katolickich*, Wyd. IGiGP UJ, Kraków 2012, pp. 159–162.

Two special groups of pilgrims coming to Jasna Góra are new high school graduates and children following their First Communion. The former are a really sensational group – up to 50% of new graduates make a pilgrimage to Jasna Góra. Diocesan pilgrimages tend to attract the largest number of new high school graduates – up to 80,000 per group.

Pilgrimages on foot provide about 140,000 visitors per year. About 250 groups come to Jasna Góra on foot each year. These pilgrimages often start in major cities as well as in small parishes throughout Poland. Larger pilgrimages are managed by regional dioceses. No other Catholic shrine attracts so many pilgrims on foot. Another unique pilgrimage to Jasna Góra is the Pilgrimage of the Disabled, which takes place on foot starting in Warsaw.⁶

Night vigils are a popular form of prayer service at Jasna Góra. More than 200 night vigils take place at the Chapel of the Miraculous Picture every year. Many are preplanned as part of pilgrimage programs. Most two-day pilgrimages (except those on foot) include a night vigil: Marian Legion Pilgrimage, Teachers' Pilgrimage, Scouts' Pilgrimage, and the Sobriety Apostleship Pilgrimage.

It is difficult to estimate the exact number of foreign visitors at Jasna Góra. The shrine's information bureau indicates that pilgrims and tourists from around the world visit the holy site every year – 65 to 83 countries in the period 2000–2010. Several thousand groups of visitors have been identified. Each group includes tens of thousands of visitors. In 2008 a total of 5,807 groups of foreign visitors were identified for a total of 142,000 visitors. Most foreign visitors are Italian, German, and American. Each of the three groups contributes between 10,000 and 20,000 visitors per year. Some foreigners also take part in pilgrimages on foot. More than a thousand Italians usually take part in the Kraków (Nowa Huta section) pilgrimage since the year 2003. The Soldiers' Pilgrimage consists of pilgrims from Poland, Lithuania, Slovakia, Germany, and the United States. It is really several pilgrimages that start in several cities. Finally, another internationally oriented pilgrimage to Jasna Góra is the International Pilgrimage of Youth from Many Backgrounds and Cultures. This pilgrimage also takes place on foot. The estimated total number of foreign pilgrims is 300,000 to 400,000 per year.

⁶ D. Ptaszycka-Jackowska, A. Jackowski, *Jasnogórskie pielgrzymowanie w przestrzeni miasta i regionu Częstochowy*, IG UJ, Kraków 1998, p. 19; I. Soljan, *Sanktuaria i ich rola w organizacji przestrzeni miast na przykładzie największych europejskich ośrodków katolickich*, Wyd. IGiGP UJ, Kraków 2012, pp. 161–162.

The Sanctuary of Divine Mercy in Kraków (Łagiewniki) is also considered a site with an international reputation. The sanctuary has experienced dynamic growth since the 1990s due to a number of important events. These include the beatification of Sister Faustina in 1993 and her canonization in the year 2000. Other key events include the construction and blessing of a new basilica and the recognition of this new basilica as a global center of the devotion to Divine Mercy. The basilica was consecrated by Pope John Paul II in 2002 and named the Basilica of Divine Mercy. In addition, the Pope made an official pronouncement at the basilica where he entrusted all of humanity to Divine Mercy.

The key to the growth of the Sanctuary of Divine Mercy is the universal message of the immense love and mercy of God. This message is directed to everyone and not just one particular audience. An additional key driver of growth has been the Congregation of Our Lady of Divine Mercy. The congregation consists of religious sisters who lecture on the mission of Sister Faustina in many countries around the world. The image of the Merciful Christ found in the sisters' chapel is now recognized by millions of people around the world. Copies of this image can be found in faraway places such as chapels in Madagascar, Senegal, and Indonesia as well as Catholic churches in India.

Pilgrimages to Łagiewniki began shortly after the death of Sister Faustina on October 5, 1938. This was a period of war, but still the sisters made their chapel available to the faithful. The future Pope John Paul II prayed in this chapel quite often during the war. In 1943 the painter Józef Hyła placed an image of the Merciful Christ in the sisters' chapel. Once the war ended, devotion to the Divine Mercy became even stronger and Łagiewniki became its epicenter. One reason for this was that Vilnius – the home of the first image of the Merciful Christ – was no longer in Poland. The Vilnius image had been painted during the lifetime of Sister Faustina. On June 22, 1968, the Archbishop of Kraków, Karol Wojtyła, designated the Łagiewniki shrine a diocesan sanctuary. In the 1970s and 1980s most pilgrims came from the Kraków Archdiocese, Katowice Diocese, and Tarnów Diocese. The three regions are adjacent to one another, which makes Łagiewniki more accessible to pilgrims.⁷ The number of pilgrims was small at the time, and the number of groups of pilgrims was small as well (several groups per year in the 1970s).

⁷ I. Soljan, H. Matlak, *Pilgrimages to the Shrine of the Divine Mercy at Cracow-Łagiewniki*, "Peregrinus Cracoviensis" 2001, Vol. 11, pp. 154–156.

The number of pilgrims coming to Łagiewniki ranges between 1.5 and 2.0 million per year. Pilgrims arrive from across Poland and various foreign countries. It is the second largest pilgrimage site in Poland today – after Jasna Góra – and one of the thirty largest sites in the Christian world. Key celebrations at the Łagiewniki sanctuary include the Feast of Divine Mercy (first Sunday after Easter) and the Feast of Sister Faustina (October 5). The former is attended by about 150,000 pilgrims every year.

Visitors from close to 100 countries come to the Łagiewniki sanctuary in Kraków. Most visitors are European (78%) and North American (16%). There is a large contingent of Slovaks whose Radio Lumen pilgrimage is one of the largest to visit the sanctuary. In recent years Polish pilgrims have begun to walk to Łagiewniki from distant cities including Poznań, Warsaw, and Białystok.⁸

The congregation running the sanctuary expects to expand the site and especially its sacred areas. The goal is to enrich the pastoral offering as well as the tourist offering. The city government of Kraków is also eager to work with the sanctuary and its closest neighbor, the John Paul II Center, in order to take advantage of the fact that religious tourism is currently one of the city's three main pillars of the tourist industry. The 2006 municipal document "Tourism growth strategy for Kraków in the period 2006–2013" assumes new development near the Sanctuary of Divine Mercy site in Kraków. The document proposed to increase the role of the sanctuary as a center of religion in Kraków and help tourism-oriented businesses thrive in the vicinity of the holy site. However, in practice, this has not happened to any significant degree in terms of actual investment.

Other holy sites such as Kalwaria Zebrzydowska and Licheń receive about one million pilgrims and tourists per year. The former is thus far the only holy site in Poland to make the UNESCO World Heritage List (1999). It is the only holy site in Europe to provide religious reenactments of the Holy Week and the Funeral and Triumph of the Mother of God, which is associated with the Assumption. Both events draw more than 200,000 participants. Despite the significant growth of the Łagiewniki sanctuary in Kraków, the sanctuary in Kalwaria Zebrzydowska continues to thrive and receives a steady influx of pilgrims.

⁸ A. Jackowski, I. Soljan, *Zasięg oddziaływania Orędzia Miłosierdzia na podstawie ruchu pielgrzymkowego do Sanktuarium Bożego Miłosierdzia w Krakowie-Łagiewnikach*, in: *Promieniowanie Orędzia Miłosierdzia. 10 lat po kanonizacji św. Faustyny*, F. Ślusarczyk (ed.), Wyd. Misericordia, Kraków 2010, p. 151.

The sanctuary in Licheń, on the other hand, is an example of sensational growth. Its period of growth began in 1945 and continued through the 1980s. The number of pilgrims has reached two million per year. The site is also interesting from a spatial planning point of view. The Licheń sanctuary has progressed from a large regional center to an international religious center in a matter of twenty years. The sacred area on the grounds of the center is expansive. Its design mirrors that of the largest sanctuaries in Europe including Łagiewniki. What is surprising about Licheń is the degree of national symbolism involved. This is not matched by any European religious center outside of Poland. Licheń includes a number of symbols within its sacred area that do not serve any religious purpose.

Saint Anne's Mountain has served as a "holy mountain" for the inhabitants of Silesia for a number of centuries. This is especially true of the Opole region of Silesia. The number of pilgrims has increased significantly since the mountain was visited by Pope John Paul II on June 21, 1983. The influx of foreign pilgrims increased significantly in the 1990s – driven mostly by Germans coming to the area to visit lands they or their parents used to inhabit.

1.2. Pilgrimages to national-level sanctuaries

Piekary Śląskie and Gniezno are pilgrimage centers that attract pilgrims from across Poland. In the former, a men's pilgrimage serves as a special feature on the last Sunday in May. It is attended by an average of 150,000 men. In addition, workers' pilgrimages to Piekary Śląskie have increased since the late 1970s.

Gniezno, the first capital of Poland, receives several hundred thousand pilgrims and tourists every year. The city became a key pilgrimage center following the 1,000th anniversary of the death Saint Adalbert in June of 1997. The anniversary mass was celebrated in Gniezno by Pope John Paul II who also met with a group of leaders of Central European countries.

The influx of pilgrims intensifies close to major religious celebrations, especially key events associated with indulgences. More than 450 such events are held in Poland at major religious centers characterized by regional impact or more. The granting of indulgences is a major part of the pilgrimage world. Every sanctuary in Poland is allowed to celebrate several feasts associated with indulgences – a custom reaching back to the Middle Ages. Only one or two such

feasts are considered major feasts that attract the largest number of pilgrims over the course of several days. Major feasts are usually associated with a specific holy site and its Marian imagery. The best known feast in Poland is that of Our Lady of Częstochowa, which is celebrated on August 26. This feast attracts pilgrims from across the world. Close to twenty other holy sites in Poland celebrate major feasts associated with indulgences and focus their celebration on the local image of the Mother of God.⁹

1.3. New sanctuaries and pilgrimage trails

One sign that pilgrimages are a permanent fixture of Polish religious culture is the emergence of new sanctuaries. The first example is the John Paul II Center in Kraków, which is still under construction, but already receiving pilgrims. The Church of the Blessed John Paul II was consecrated at the site in June of 2013, while a pastoral center, educational center, and tourist center remain under construction. The plan is to build several hostels for pilgrims, a multifunctional Museum of John Paul II, and a convention center.

One reason for the construction of new sanctuaries is the growing strength of the devotion to Divine Mercy in Poland. Another trend is the construction of sanctuaries devoted to the Mother of God including the Diocesan Sanctuary of Our Lady of Perpetual Help in Polanica-Zdrój as well as new sites in Wojcieszów, Rumia, Rokitnica, Jastrzębie-Zdrój, and Bydgoszcz. Another holy site with significant cultural value is the Włocławek Sanctuary of Blessed Father Jerzy Popiełuszko – a priest murdered by Poland’s communist government in the 1980s. Another new holy site receiving significant attention today is the Church of Saint Anthony in Sokółka. The church served as the site of an officially recognized miracle in 2008. The object of the miracle was a host, which is now available for viewing by pilgrims. While the Church of Saint Anthony is not an official sanctuary, pilgrims do come in large numbers and include organized groups.

Another important phenomenon in the pilgrimage tradition in Poland is the growth of the number of trails leading to the main Trail of Santiago de Compostela in northern Spain. The popularity of the trail leading to the grave

⁹ A. Jackowski, *Pielgrzymowanie*, Wyd. Dolnośląskie, Wrocław 1998, pp. 128–135.

of Saint James is increasing in Europe and also in Poland. This new pattern is even more interesting in light of the fact that Poles did not trek to Santiago de Compostela in large numbers in the Middle Ages. Today new trails are being identified in Poland that follow old trade routes and churches named after Saint James. Sixteen segments have been identified since 2005, with the first being the Lower Silesian Way of Saint James. Several new trails are in the planning stages. The total length of the trails is supposed to be 3,250 km.¹⁰

1.4. New forms of pilgrimages

Pilgrimage has been a phenomenon occurring for centuries, but its forms have been changing over time. This is primarily caused by civilisation changes and technological progress, which in turn translates into change of cultural patterns and standard of living. Pilgrimage today takes a large variety of forms, and more and more often there are pilgrimages deviating from their traditional image. Considering the three main stages of the pilgrimage: the starting point, the route and the stay in the sacred place, the most important changes regard the last two, i.e. the route and the stay in a sacred place. And these changes are also the most noticeable in the pilgrimage space. They include qualitatively different structural elements of the pilgrimage, both related to the external sphere and the internal, spiritual sphere. Therefore, new forms of pilgrimage can be systematized as follows:

- related to the different than the traditional ways (forms) of travelling the path to the sanctuary;
- related to new evangelism and pilgrimage priesthood forms;
- arising from changes in the Church and the development of ecumenical movements.

¹⁰ F. Mróz, Ł. Mróz, *Geneza i rozwój polskich odcinków Camino de Santiago – najpiękniejszej drogi świata*, in: Š. Sittek, N. Widok ks., *Drogi Jakubowe i inne szlaki pątnicze w Polsce i Czechach. Svatojakubské cesty a jiné poutní stezky v Polsku a v Česku*, Wydział Teologiczny Uniwersytetu Opolskiego, Opole 2012, pp. 73–100.

1.4.1. New forms of pilgrimage associated with other than the traditional ways of travelling the path to the sanctuary

Since the late 1990s, there is an increasing number of pilgrimages choosing unprecedented forms of travelling. The reasons for this should be undoubtedly sought in the need for more attractive forms of pilgrimage and for attracting new potential pilgrims. The target group of this kind of pilgrimage are primarily young people, seeking adventures and experiences also in the area of religion. The most common forms are cycling and hiking pilgrimages. Cycling pilgrimages to Jasna Góra brought over 6000 people in recent years. Other unprecedented pilgrimage forms are also skating, roller skiing, motorcycles or horse-back riding pilgrimages. The only roller skater pilgrimage organised every year since 2003 goes from Warsaw to Jasna Góra. The number of participants continues to grow: in 2003 there were 40 people participating, in 2013 as many as 95. There is also the annual pilgrimage of more than 1,000 people on motorcycles from Wadowice to Kalwaria Zebrzydowska. In 2012, at the Shrine of Jasna Góra, there was the first Polish Caravan Pilgrimage. There was also a registered moto-glider pilgrimage. New forms of pilgrimage are also organized in the Orthodox Church, an example of which is the annual canoe pilgrimage from Gródek to Supraśl (since 2011).

1.4.2. New forms of pilgrimage associated with new ways of evangelism and new forms of pilgrimage priesthood

Decreasing religiosity and progressive secularization of the society are becoming more and more evident in the life of the Church and do not remain without effect on pilgrimage forms. In order to revive the pilgrimage movement, the organizers and pilgrimage priests offer both new pilgrimage type events and enrich the programme for the visitors of sanctuaries. In this context, a good example is the Lednica nationwide youth meeting, organized yearly since 2000. In a dozen or so years Lednica has become the largest religious gathering of Polish youth, also increasingly attracting pilgrims from abroad. Poles also participate in great numbers in the International Youth Day, held at the initiative of John Paul II since 2000. Such meetings of the youth are certainly a new form of pilgrimage, distinguished by an extremely attractive programme and combining religious

elements with elements typical for entertainment and culture. Religious events for youth being a part of the pilgrimage movement are the response of the Church to the current needs and expectations of the young generation.

When writing about new forms of pilgrimage in Poland, it should be noted that there is lack of certain actions that are noticeable in foreign pilgrimage destinations. For several years, the largest sanctuaries in Europe have been introducing special programs for individual pilgrims. Unfortunately, such an initiative has not yet appeared in Polish sanctuaries. And this is an important requirement of our times, as the number of individual visitors in sanctuaries is constantly growing. In Poland, the only initiative that could be considered such a response was marking up St. James's trails, destined for individual pilgrims or small groups.

1.4.3. Ecumenical pilgrimages

European Young Adults Meetings organized since 1978 in many European cities by the ecumenical community of Taizé enjoy great interest among young people. Polish youth hosted those meetings four times: in 1989 and in 1995 in Wrocław, in 1999 in Warsaw and in 2009 in Poznań. Ecumenical meetings are also held in the sanctuary of St. Adalbert in Gniezno, initiated by a pilgrimage of Pope John Paul II and the meeting of the presidents of Central European countries in 2000. Since 2005, there is an ecumenical pilgrimage from Gniezno to Magdeburg, with participants from Poland and Germany, Christians of various denominations. The initiative of ecumenical pilgrimage is developing. In 2014, a small group of cyclists covered more than 600 km in the pilgrimage of Catholics from Kłodawa to Oschatz in Saxony, visiting Catholic, Evangelical and Protestant churches on their way (Niedziela 2014, No. 33).

2. Growth perspectives in the pilgrimage and religious tourism sector in Poland

Existing research on pilgrimages and religious tourism in Poland has focused on the spiritual dimension of such activity. However, there is also a social and economic dimension that needs further attention. This is especially true of villages, towns, and cities found along pilgrimage routes.

When analyzing the growth perspectives of Poland's pilgrimage and religious tourism sector, it is important to focus on the geography of pilgrims and tourists who flock to selected holy sites in large numbers. An understanding of this pilgrimage geography is the key to proper hotel and restaurant management as well as other tourist-oriented services.

The following is a list of religious centers that already enjoy a large influx of domestic and foreign visitors. We believe these centers should be given priority in the assignment of investment funds and other development privileges:

1. Jasna Góra – a major holy site that will remain the center of religious life in Poland for decades or centuries to come. It is also expected to remain a key religious site for foreign visitors and individuals devoted to Our Lady of Częstochowa. The devotion to Our Lady of Częstochowa was made especially popular by Pope John Paul II. Jasna Góra is located in the heart of Europe at the point of intersection between Western and Eastern Christianity. It is sometimes called an ecumenical location – a term used to describe Częstochowa and no other city in Poland. The city could also become an intersection for pilgrimage trails from the East to the West and from the North to the South. This, of course, assumes that secularization will not overwhelm European society, as statistical evidence seems to suggest. Today Jasna Góra is found along the International Marian Trail linking Mariazell in Austria with Częstochowa. What makes Jasna Góra unique is its number of pilgrims who come to the shrine on foot. Many of these pilgrims are not from Poland. In light of the long tradition of pilgrimages and their geographic reach, pilgrimages to Częstochowa are considered to be some of the most important religious migrations in the world.¹¹ In light of the initiative to create a Central European pilgrimage trail in Slovenia, Austria, and neighboring countries, it may become possible to include Jasna Góra as a stop along this trail. The purpose of this project is to help integrate Central European countries on a cultural and religious level.
2. Kraków – Łagiewniki – a global center of the devotion to Divine Mercy established by Pope John Paul II. This particular devotion is becoming increasingly popular around the world, which makes this holy site special among

¹¹ A. Jackowski, *Jasnogórskie pielgrzymowanie bez granic*, Tyg. Katolicki „Niedziela”, Częstochowa 2005, p. 20; D. Ptaszycka-Jackowska, A. Jackowski, *Jasnogórskie pielgrzymowanie w przestrzeni miasta i regionu Częstochowy*, IG UJ, Kraków 1998, pp. 23–25.

others in Europe and elsewhere. The holy site at Łagiewniki is already one of the thirty largest Christian holy sites in the world. The universal message propagated by the Łagiewniki holy site in conjunction with its extensive pastoral offering may help make the site a key pilgrimage center in Europe in the near future. This is also an opportunity for the city of Kraków, which was selected to be the home of the new John Paul II Center (“Fear Not”). In addition, the city is home to a number of much older religious sites such as the Wawel Cathedral, Skafka Church, Ecce Homo Church, and Mogiła.

3. Kalwaria Zebrzydowska – one of the best known European centers of the devotion to the Suffering Christ and the Mother of God. Pilgrims and tourists come from all over Europe to participate in the celebration of the Passion of Christ during Holy Week and the Feast of the Mother of God in August. Foreign visitors are also drawn to the site because of its status as a UNESCO World Heritage Site. The listing includes the holy site’s shrine, park, and cross, all of which were classified as very valuable in 1999. The nearby town of Wadowice may join Kalwaria Zebrzydowska in creating a joint pilgrimage destination based on the fact that Pope John Paul II was born in the former. An addition favorable factor is the town’s location near Kraków (Łagiewniki) as well as Ludźmierz in the nearby Podhale region, both of which are already pilgrimage destinations.
4. Licheń – a religious center popular with Poles living in Poland and abroad. The center’s existing infrastructure favors the expansion of its sacred area, which is already being realized.
5. Saint Anne’s Mountain – a popular destination for pilgrims and tourists from neighboring Germany. The percentage of German visitors is quite high. Other holy sites in Poland that may become attractive to German visitors in the future include Bardo Śląskie, Wambierzyce, Trzebnica, Gietrzwałd, and Saint Lipka.
6. Warsaw – the hometown of Father Jerzy Popiełuszko. His beatification has led to increased devotion to his person, which should spark a pilgrimage movement to his grave in Warsaw. The residents of Eastern Europe often like to view the relics of Saint Andrew Bobola. In addition, many individuals staying in Warsaw make the short trip to nearby Niepokalanów, which is associated with the figure of Saint Maximilian Kolbe.

7. Piekary Śląskie – the town’s men’s pilgrimage is gaining attention around the world. The town is located in an industrial part of Poland, which is why it may be the perfect location for workers’ pilgrimages from across Europe.
8. Gniezno – given the tradition of the Gniezno Conventions and the town’s association with John Paul II, it ought to become a key pilgrimage center for all Slavic peoples.
9. Grabarka – an Orthodox Christian holy site with a growing international reputation. Young Orthodox Christians from many different countries come here to meet and discuss their faith.
10. Leżajsk – a Hasidic pilgrimage center drawing Jews from around the world – more than 10,000 per year, especially during the *yahrzeit* (21 Adar) of Tzadik Elimelech Weisblum. The site does not yet feature infrastructure for pilgrims. A Hasidic Center is planned with an area of 6,500 square meters. The center will include a museum for the general public focused on Hasidic traditions in Poland. The museum will feature exhibits on rabbis, Jewish life in the town of Leżajsk, and a film screening room. The site will also include a synagogue, mikveh, hotel, restaurant, and forty public restrooms.
11. Oświęcim – also known by its German name Auschwitz. This is the site of the former German concentration camp, which now resembles a pilgrimage site for a variety of faithful from around the world. Oświęcim now serves as a meeting site for international ecumenical events.

Additional pilgrims and tourists are expected to come to the site in conjunction with the 2014 canonization of John Paul II and the opening of the Trail of John Paul II as well as the opening of the John Paul II Center (“Fear Not”) in nearby Kraków.

Pilgrimages in Poland do not boost the local economy in most cases. The Licheń site is one exception to this rule. Research has shown that more collaboration is needed between site operators (e.g. religious orders) and local governments. Such efforts have been made here and there, but with little economic benefit to show for.

One key feature of many pilgrimages in Poland is their regional character that may in itself become a tourist attraction. This includes local folklore and customs that can be found in abundance in regions such as Silesia, Kaszuby, Kujawy, Warmia, and the Carpathians.

Closing remarks

The current state of the pilgrimage movement in Poland is largely the result of a long heritage of pilgrimages and a strong cultural link to this type of religious practice. Pilgrimages are also a key part of actual religious practice in Poland. The proof for this is in the numbers of pilgrims. Other key indicators of activity in this area include the pastoral work of old holy sites as well as the establishment of new holy sites in Poland. One site that has grown quite rapidly in the last twenty years is the Kraków – Łagiewniki Sanctuary of Divine Mercy. This relatively new holy site has become one of the key pilgrimage centers in Europe and a global center of the devotion to Divine Mercy.

The art of the pilgrimage has changed in the last few decades due to technological progress and changes in social attitudes. These two factors affect the entire Catholic world and not just pilgrimages. Special services designed for pilgrims and religious tourists are often provided by pilgrimage site operators (e.g. religious orders). Holy sites are starting to offer other attractions on-site and off-site. New pastoral offerings for pilgrims and upgrades within sacred areas are all designed to meet the needs of modern pilgrims and tourists. In addition, local governments and community organizations are becoming active in the area of religious tourism in Poland. Ultimately, better collaboration is needed between all stakeholders in order to help maximize potential benefits in the emerging sector of religious tourism.

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PIELGRZYMOWANIE I TURYSTYKA RELIGIJNA W POLSCE NA POCZĄTKU XXI WIEKU – STAN OBECNY I PERSPEKTYWY ROZWOJU

Streszczenie

Celem artykułu jest analiza współczesnego stanu pielgrzymek i turystyki religijnej w Polsce. Obecnie w Polsce funkcjonuje, według różnych autorów od 500 do 800 sanktuariów katolickich o różnym zasięgu oddziaływania. Wśród nich dominują sanktuaria maryjne – około 430, z tego ponad 200 z koronowanymi wizerunkami Matki Bożej. Ponadto swoje obiekty kultu religijnego posiadają wyznawcy prawosławia, grekokatolicy, muzułmanie oraz Żydzi. W migracjach pielgrzymkowych w Polsce uczestniczy 5-7 mln osób rocznie (ponad 15% ludności kraju). Polacy stanowią obecnie około 5% chrześcijan pielgrzymujących na świecie i ponad 20% w Europie. Polskę odwiedza rocznie około 1,5 mln pielgrzymów zagranicznych.

Współczesny stan polskiego pielgrzymowania to w znacznym stopniu dziedzictwo historycznej przeszłości i silnego przywiązania do tego typu praktyk religijnych. Równocześnie zjawisko to jest nadal obecne w życiu religijnym Polaków. Świadczy o tym zarówno liczba pielgrzymujących, jak i aktywność duszpasterska istniejących sanktuariów oraz rozwój nowych ośrodków pielgrzymkowych.

Słowa kluczowe: pielgrzymki, turystyka religijna, sanktuaria, Polska

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DEVELOPMENT OF FISHING TOURISM IN SELECTED AGRITOURISM FARMS IN PODLASIE PROVINCE

Abstract

Fishing tourism has many followers. Tourists plan their stay mainly in water regions and as for the accommodation they choose agritourism farms. Fishing fans are willing to use the services of accommodation and some food. Fishing tourism might have a significant influence on the development of agritourism farms. A good example of this can be some chosen agritourism farms in Podlasie province. Some studies have shown that tourism affects the attractiveness of fishing farms, and hence it is worth to take actions to improve its development.

Keywords: fishing tourism, angling, agritourism, agritourism farm

Introduction

The changes that occurred after the transformation of socio-economic system in Poland are conducive to the development of different types and forms of tourism. Tourism, as a branch of economy and a way of spending free time is becoming increasingly important in recent years. As a form of recreation and economic activity it is, and it should be, one of the most important factors initiating processes of economic change. It is estimated that tourism can be ranked second only to electronics and computing among the branches of economy as far as the amount of generated income is concerned, being ahead of such industries

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as petrochemical and automotive. Tourism is not a homogeneous part of the national economy. Its development and operation involves construction, agriculture, forestry, transport, trade, and other branches of economy.

More and more tourists want to gain new experiences, and learn about the culture and folklore of various regions. In Poland a new form of alternative tourism, called an agritourism, came into existence in the early nineties of the twentieth century. Its dynamic development has become noticeable over the last few years, which is associated with an increase in the attractiveness of rural areas, the propagation of regional culture, and increasing the number of agritourism farms offering various forms of physical activity. Angling is offered as a way of spending free time in many agritourism farms in Podlasie province.

In Podlasie region there are numerous lakes, rivers, reservoirs and ponds that create good conditions for rest and recreation. Some agritourism farms are located near various reservoirs, and angling is a perfect way of spending free time, so its inclusion in the offer of agritourism farms is a good and inspirational idea, given such favorable natural conditions in many farms. More and more people go angling, and the combination of recreation with fishing is a good option both for a client and an agritourism farm owner. Angling contributes to the growth of environmental awareness, teaches how to commune with nature and allows anyone to relax after work.¹ For some people, angling is also a sport that caters to the desire to compete. Angling clubs are being created in the region of Podlasie, and their membership is growing each year. This demonstrates the significant interest in angling of the inhabitants of Podlasie region, as well as people who live in other parts of the country.

The purpose of this article is to present state and development potential of angling on agricultural farms in Podlasie province. The author wishes to point out the impact of angling on the development of agritourism farms and rural areas. The study is based on the research that was carried out, the analysis of professional literature, and the own experience of the author.

¹ A. Sikora, *Wędkarstwo muchowe*, Wyd. Multico, Warszawa 1997, p. 27.

1. The organization and area of studies

The selection of the study area had a crucial impact on the solving of a research problem and the confirmation of hypotheses that had been put. A questionnaire was used in the research study. It contained 32 questions, both open and closed. The questionnaire was sent to the owners of agritourism farms and potential anglers staying on holiday on the farm, who practice such a form of recreation. The largest group were people between the ages of 32 and 65 years (67%), in the second place there were young people aged 15–32 years old (24%), and then young people under the age of 15 years (9%). The studies have assessed what is the interest in angling among the people who are on holidays and what are the expectations of customers with respect to service providers. This allowed the formulation of conclusions that will be very helpful in conducting agritourism activities. The study was conducted in the period from January to April 2013 in 22 selected agritourism farms located in five border counties in Podlasie province, which are situated near the surface water and have angling in their offer (Table 1). The owners of agritourism farms are also able to provide basic information on angling.

Table 1

Selected counties of the north-eastern part of Podlasie province

The name of a county	The area of a county (in square km)	Type of surface water	The number of agritourism farms including those that offer angling services
białostocki	2987	Rivers: Narew, Supraśl, artificial lakes: Siemianówka, Zarzeczany, and Czapielówka	83 (8)
bielski	1385	The river Narew, Nurzec, Orlanka	9 (-)
hajnowski	1624	Rivers: Narew, Narewka, artificial lakes Bachmaty, and Repczyce	101 (5)
siemiatycki	1460	Rivers: Bug, Nurzec, and an artificial lake in Siemiatycze	42 (8)
sokólski	2054	Rivers Biebrza, Sokołda, Łosośna, Sidra, Słoja, and Sokólski artificial lake	40 (4)
Total			275 (25)

Source: own study based on data provided by the Regional Farmers' Advisory Center in Szepietowo and a thesis by Ł. Andzielewicz, PB, Białystok 2013.

The studies have shown that those rivers and artificial lakes that are presented in Table 1 were the most popular ones. They are stocked with fry and attract many angling fans. There are also smaller rivers and artificial lakes in the analyzed area where angling is also practiced.

The biggest number of agritourism farms that provide angling services can be found in counties of Białystok (8) and Siemiatycze (8). Only in the county of Bielsk Podlaski there are no farms providing this type of service (Table 1).

Owners of agritourism farms who want to encourage the use of their services, place their offers near grocery shops, fishing stores, municipal offices, municipalities, as well as during different competitions. However, angling competitions are those that attract the biggest number of people, as there are many experienced anglers who take part in them. They benefit from the accommodation on an agritourism farm at the same time. Therefore, research that is carried out during a fishing contest can provide a wealth of valuable information. It should be emphasized that anglers were filling in their questionnaires with great satisfaction, and some of them even expressed their desire to know the final results.

The second group consisted of some of the owners of agritourism farms in the audited counties. They were also given a research survey. The vast majority of agritourism farms were located near rivers such as Narew, Biebrza, Supraśl, Bug, Narewka, and not far from artificial lakes such as Siemianówka and Repczyce, as well as in Sokółka and Siemiatycze. The greatest interest in the results of the studies has been shown by the owners of agritourism farms located near Siemianówka artificial lake, and the rivers Bug, Narew, Biebrza and Supraśl.

2. The essence of angling and fishing tourism

The vast majority of respondents take part in fishing competitions – 37% of anglers participate in such events regularly, and 42% at least a few times a year. This type of event is an opportunity for the development of fishing tourism. Fishing competitions are mostly held in naturally valuable areas, around some water bodies, which attracts many people interested in angling. Anglers are not generally looking for luxurious hotels, they are completely pleased with agritourism farms situated in the vicinity of some water bodies as they are interested in fishing competitions that are organized nearby.

It is believed that the best source of information on the fishery is the knowledge of the local population or meetings in angling clubs.² People who have lived near a body of water since their childhood frequently go fishing, which makes them know the best time of feeding and behavior of fish. Therefore, the potential agritourism farm owner should have some knowledge in this field and advise their visitors. If his knowledge is quite rich, then he can provide services in the field of fishing guiding.

Angling is a hobby, a recreational activity and a sport involving fishing with a pole.³ The following have the right of fishing: the members of Polski Związek Wędkarski (PZW) [Polish Angling Association] and persons who are not affiliated with PZW but have a fishing license, as well as amateur anglers, after paying applicable fees. The exception are fisheries that are located mostly on agricultural farms. These are private bodies of water, where separate laws are applicable. In such bodies of water rules are determined by farm owners and they can differ from the Rules of Amateur Fishing.

Another important element is the purchase of water equipment. Renting agritourism farm on one's own can be a significant undertaking. It often happens that in order to fish effectively a floating agent is needed, such as a canoe, a boat or a dinghy, because most of the places are not accessible from the shore. A big advantage is to have an internal combustion engine provided by the owner of an agricultural farm which would be used as a means of transportation to get around the water basin. With such equipment provided by agritourism farm a tourist will not worry about where to acquire the equipment needed to facilitate fishing.

Not all tourists are professional anglers. Some of them fish recreationally and very rarely. The owner of an agritourism farm, to raise its attractiveness, may sign a contract with an angling club or the owner of a body of water. It is the perfect solution for both sides because the farm owner gets an equivalent of licenses sold, and a customer does not have to seek any places for fishing or deal with various institutions.

Typically, each angler has his own equipment he cares for. He or she collects baits, armors sets, and follows every novelty on the market. Preparing to go

² *Encyklopedia rybactwa*, J.A. Szczerbowski (ed.), Wyd. Instytutu Rybactwa Śródlądowego, Olsztyn 2011 (co-author).

³ A. Skrzypczak, *Ocena przydatności rekreacyjnej naturalnych zbiorników wodnych dla wędkarstwa*, "Folia Turistica" 2005, Kraków, No. 115, p. 87.

fishing consumes a lot of time, so it is good to have a rental of fishing equipment on a farm. It will serve novice anglers who want to catch the angling bug and to see for the first time in their live how fascinating that hobby is. A farm owner should have in his or her assortment several different types of fishing rods (spinning, float, ground, ice), reels, hooks, some fishing lines, floats, natural and artificial lures, weights, landing nets, netting for fish storage, and pliers for pulling hooks.⁴ Such a set is more than enough to meet the customer's needs.

An important factor in the development of an agritourism farm is its promotion. It is useful for a farm to have its own website. The farm should give some announcements on different internet portals and have its own brochures. A good first step would be to take part in a regional tourism fair, which tends to be visited by a large number of people. To promote an agritourism farm that provides angling services, it is important to cooperate with different fishing clubs and post in fishing forums, where there is a very large flow of information. If the services provided by the owner of the farm are at a high level, then this news will spread very quickly and gaining new customers will not be a difficult endeavor.

Fishing can be divided as follows: angling on commercial fisheries, i.e. private ones, and fishing in public fisheries. All public fisheries in Poland belong to the Polish Angling Association, the organization that cares for their stocking. It also helps to preserve them and regulates the legal provisions.⁵ To be able to practice angling on public waters each angler is obliged to observe the principles contained in the Rules of Amateur Fishing, which is a set of provisions concerning angling and the conservation of fish fauna.⁶ These regulations apply to all anglers who fish on waters that are in use by the Polish Anglers' Association, both affiliated to the Association and those who are not affiliated, Polish citizens and foreigners alike.

In many places that were studied, so called ice fishing is practiced, which involves fishing on the frozen waters under the ice.⁷ This kind of fishing is also organized in agritourism farms. It is practiced primarily in the winter months

⁴ Ł. Andzielewicz, *Rozwój turystyki wędkarskiej w gospodarstwach agroturystycznych województwa podlaskiego*, praca magisterska, Wyd. Politechnika Białostocka, Wydział Zarządzania, Białystok 2013.

⁵ Ibidem.

⁶ <http://www.falko-ryby.eu> (accessed 5.01.2013).

⁷ A. Skarżyński, *Tajemnice wędkowania*, Wyd. Sport i Turystyka, Warszawa 1981, p. 25.

(from January to March), in minus temperatures. Therefore, in areas where there are surface waters it is worth thinking about expanding the offering and creating one's own commercial fisheries. This could increase the competitiveness and attractiveness of agritourism farm and improve family budget.

One area that is often visited by tourists is a county of Hajnówka. This is due to the fact that in the area there are Białowieża Forest, Siemianówka artificial lake and the Narew river, as well as a number of architectural monuments, which creates an attractive opportunity to rest and break from everyday urban life. In that area angling should mainly be developed because of the favorable conditions to practice it. Agritourism farms located near surface waters and forests are the most attractive for tourists. In addition to angling, visitors can enjoy other attractions such as water sports (swimming, canoeing, using water equipment), active leisure in the bosom of nature, camping, boat sailing, kayaking, boating, and rafting.

Attractive areas for the development of fishing tourism (and that fact would contribute to increase in the attractiveness of agritourism farms) are definitely the following localities and their surroundings: Białowieża, Narewka, Tykocin, Sokółka, Supraśl, Doktorce, Siemianówka, Siemiatycze, Drohiczyn, Mielnik, Strękowa Góra, Korycin, Topiło, and others. At the same time it would be helpful for the owner of the farm to become an advisor and a fishing guide who has good knowledge of water bodies and mainly of the hiding places and behavior of fish at any time of the year.

The tourist who is fishing must have a place where he or she can fulfill his or her intentions. Having their own pond that is well stocked with fry constitutes an advantage of each agritourism farm, which is associated with additional responsibilities such as its stocking, oxygenation of water, protection from poachers, and ensuring services, e. g. the price of fish that was caught.⁸

It is advisable for an agritourism farm to be located within a short distance from a given body of water (such as a lake, river, reservoir or a private well stocked pond), which will create greater business opportunities. Many service recipients believe that angling can become a significant way of attracting customers, because it is the most attractive way of spending free time after work.

⁸ M. Jalinik, *Typologia gospodarstw agroturystycznych jako determinanta rozwoju usług*, Wyd. Politechniki Białostockiej, Białystok 2005, p. 16.

3. The results of the survey

The study has shown that the largest number of respondents considered fishing as a hobby –

58% of respondents, 38% of them treat it as a sport, and only 4% were ready to use the fish that had been caught to supplement the food in their families (Figure 1).

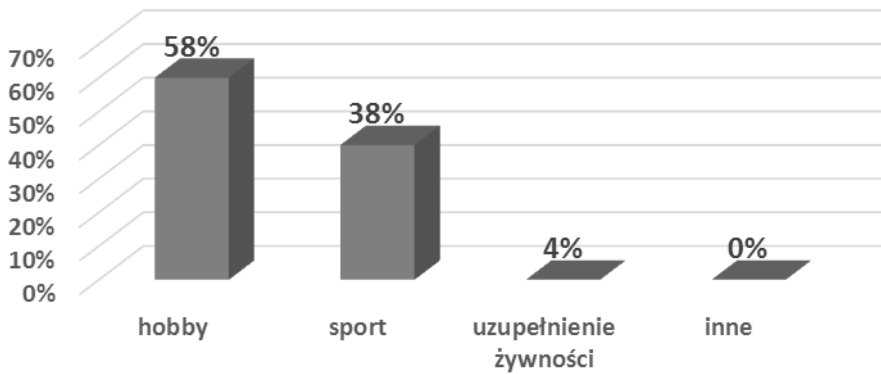


Fig. 1. Treatment of fishing in the opinion of the respondents

Source: the study based on surveys.

Participation in the fishing competitions organized by angling clubs varied among the individual respondents – Figure 2. Only 31% of the respondents participate regularly in the competitions, while 40% do it several times a year, 25% are those who take part in them occasionally, and 4% of respondents do not participate in them at all. Hence, it follows that fishing competitions are treated by the majority of anglers as amateur events, i.e. while resting and spending their leisure time they turn to an attractive form of recreation that is angling.

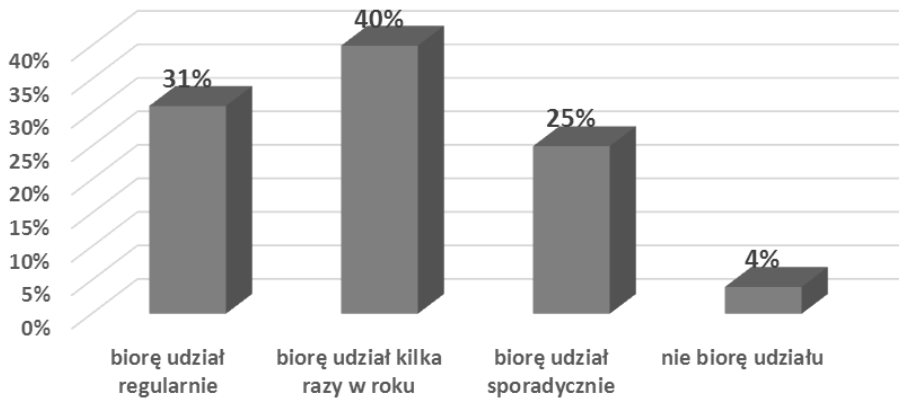


Fig. 2. Participation in the fishing competitions organized by angling clubs

Source: the study based on surveys.

Not all surface waters are equally visited by anglers. When asked which of the water bodies enjoys the greatest popularity among anglers, 45% of the respondents indicated Siemianówka artificial lake, 40% of them mentioned the river Narew, and 8% cited the river Biebrza. Other rivers such as Supraśl, Bug, Nurzec, and Orlanka, as well as other artificial lakes attract less popularity among anglers (Figure 3).

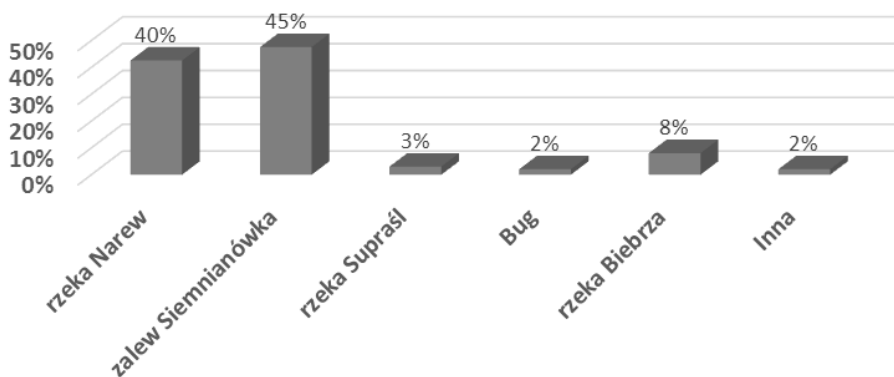


Fig. 3. The attractiveness of bodies of water in terms of the abundance of fish

Source: the study prepared on the basis of surveys.

It is important for each agritourism farm whether through the provision of fishing services tourism flow will increase on a farm. The answer to this question presents Figure 4. The respondents stated that fishing largely affects the development of agritourism services. 45% of the respondents are of such an opinion, while 31% thought it would increase significantly, 17% of them felt that the promotion has an impact on the development of angling on the farm, and 7% of the people surveyed said that it will increase to a lesser extent.

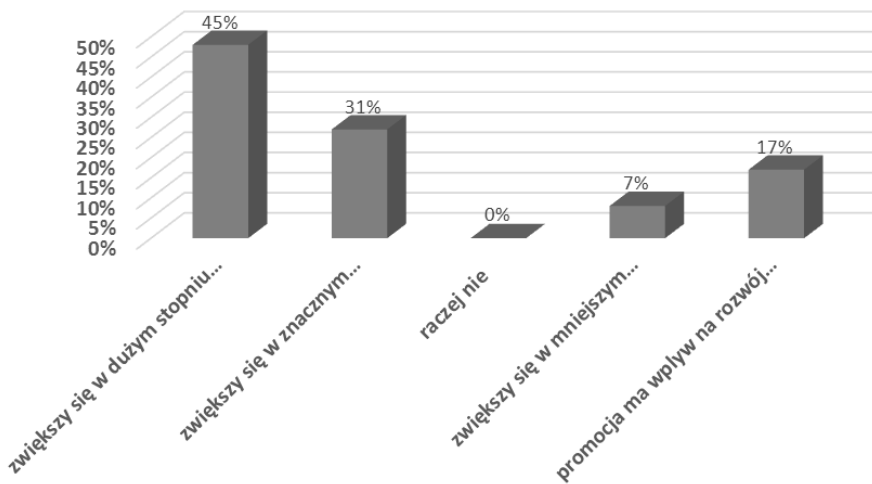


Fig. 4. The impact of angling on the development of agritourism services
Source: the study based on surveys.

It is important, however, what anglers are guided by in choosing an agritourism farm and to what an extent they use agritourism services. The vast majority, 76% of them, selected a particular farm because of the close proximity to the body of water (Figure 5).

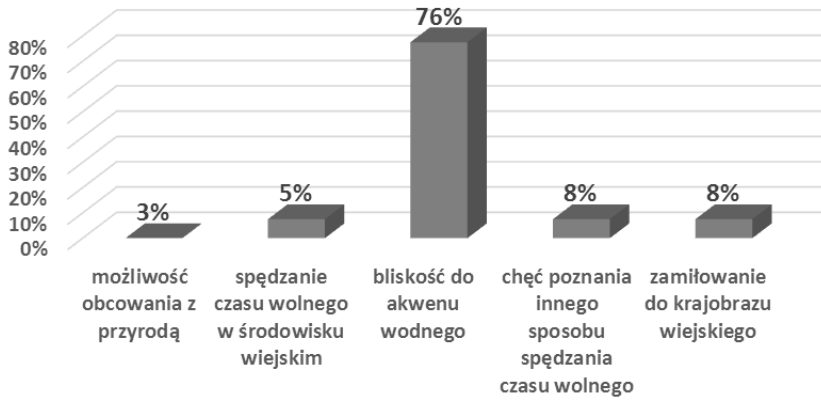


Fig. 5. Motives for choosing a farm where to spend holidays or time off

Source: the study prepared on the basis of surveys.

Other motives, such as desire to explore other ways of spending free time, passion for the countryside, spending leisure time in the rural environment, and the ability to commune with nature do not have a great significance.

Taking into account the type of service, it should be emphasized that the vast majority of anglers use the services of accommodation and catering, that is 78% of the respondents, while 17% of them mentioned using fishing equipment, and 5% chose transport (Figure 6).

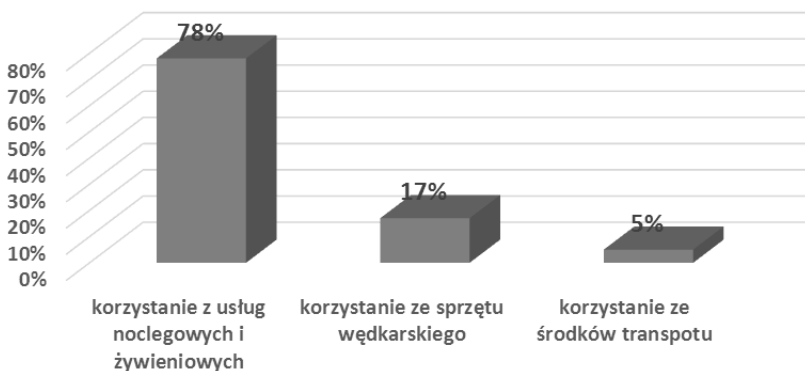


Fig. 6. Types of services enjoyed by anglers who stay on agritourism farms

Source: the study prepared on the basis of surveys.

One of the most important marketing activities in agritourism is the promotion.⁹ It decides about the success of agritourism farm and the amount of money earned. The results of the research on the importance of promoting in the development of fishing on agritourism farms are shown in Figure 7.

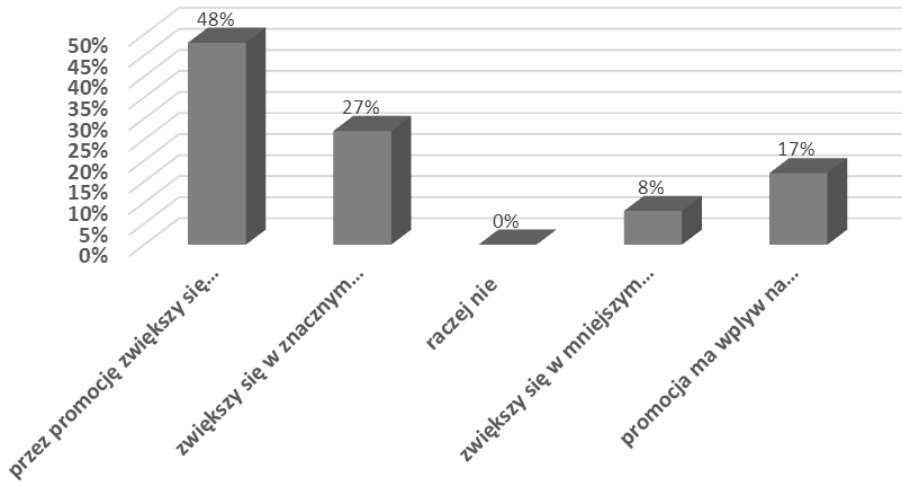


Fig. 7. The importance of promoting the development of angling on an agritourism farm
Source: the study prepared on the basis of surveys.

The studies have shown that promotion significantly affects the development of fishing on an agritourism farm. 48% of the respondents were of such an opinion, while 27% of them stated that promoting will help the development of fishing, 17% those who took part in the survey believed that promotion is a necessary action, and 8% expressed their view that promotion will have rather little impact on the development of fishing in selected farms. There was no one among the respondents who stated that promotion has no effect on the development of angling on a farm.

⁹ K. Michałowski, M. Jalinik, *Wpływ promocji i informacji na rozwój agroturystyki*, w: *Informacja i promocja w turystyce*, K. Michałowski (ed.), Białystok 2002, p. 66.

Conclusion

Podlasie province is among the provinces with the biggest number of agritourism farms in Poland. The favorable natural conditions and the fact that the region is less urbanized allow for the development of angling. Agritourism, especially those that are located near some bodies of water and have the ability to provide services throughout the year, can also provide accommodation for anglers.

Fishing in the border counties of Podlasie province has favorable conditions for development. Numerous rivers, artificial lakes and ponds, and above all not yet fully fished stocks provide an opportunity for the dynamic development of agritourism farms. The introduction of an angling offer by the service providers will certainly increase the attractiveness of farms and serve as an incentive which will attract tourists all year round. Anglers are a group of people who accept peace and tranquility, but most of all love the beauty of nature and the countryside.

It can be concluded that existing agritourism farms are still poorly prepared to host anglers. They mainly limit their offer to renting of modest water sports equipment and fishing tackle. In that context, however, rentals of professional fishing equipment are necessary, and it is important to provide guiding services or providing information about the attractive fishing spots.

The fishing offer of agritourism farms is vague and poorly publicized. Most often it is limited to mere information on a website, but there is a lack of comprehensive information.

Siemianówka artificial lake, the rivers Narew, Bug, Biebrza and Supraśl are abundant in different species of fish. According to the respondents fish stocks in the present state are satisfactory, despite rampant poaching that is present in different forms, and the lack of fish translates into lack of anglers in areas of water.

Agritourism farms located near water bodies have an easier task and do not have to pay large financial outlays to restock their ponds as the responsibility for the protection of fish stocks falls on the Polish Angling Association.

In conclusion, it should be noted that angling has a high chance to develop on an agritourism farm and it is an important factor that can significantly improve the attractiveness and competitiveness of agritourism farms, and thus improve the family budget.

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ROZWÓJ TURYSTYKI WĘDKARSKIEJ W WYBRANYCH GOSPODARSTWACH AGROTURYSTYCZNYCH WOJEWÓDZTWA PODLASKIEGO

Streszczenie

Turystyka wędkarska ma wielu zwolenników. Turyści swój pobyt opierają głównie na akwenach wodnych, a miejscem zakwaterowania stały się gospodarstwa agroturystyczne. Wędkarze chętnie korzystają z usług noclegowych i częściowo żywieniowych. Na bazie turystyki wędkarskiej jest duża szansa rozwoju gospodarstw agroturystycznych. Dobrym przykładem stały się wybrane gospodarstwa agroturystyczne województwa podlaskiego. Badania wykazały, że turystyka wędkarska wpływa na atrakcyjność gospodarstw, ich dochodowość i stąd też warto podjąć działania usprawniające jej rozwój.

Słowa kluczowe: turystyka wędkarska, wędkarstwo, agroturystyka, gospodarstwa agroturystyczne

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**THE TRANSFORMATION OF TOURISM MODEL
IN THE POLISH CARPATHIANS
– REPORTING ON THE LAST 20 YEARS OF EXPERIENCES**

Abstract

The Carpathians are the main Polish tourism destination, because of rich qualities as well as long tourism traditions in the region. The period of socialism in this region, as in the whole country, has however left a significant mark in terms of clear dominance of the socialist priorities in all aspects of tourism development. That period was mainly dominated by mass tourism, organized and financed by the state and social funds. The majority of accommodation was dominated by workplace-related recreational centers, predominantly located in the most attractive tourist destinations. It was however also a period of intensive development of private initiatives, especially in terms of rental accommodation. Therapeutic stays at spas were also characteristic for this area.

Socio-economic transformation, associated with the political changes after 1989, significantly changed the image of tourism, which today is in the process of adaptation to the model, characteristic for the developed countries of Western Europe. This system is based largely on the private accommodation facilities, as well as private services. The development of ski resorts is very intense. Competitive offers of neighboring Slovakia resulted in the development of the thermal baths based on local thermal

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water resources. Visible is the intensive development of agritourism offer. According to the observed trends in the world, the role of cognitive tourism based on cultural values (new attractions, cultural routes, etc.) has increased over the last years. These changes refer also to the spas and resorts (progressive privatization), which could be associated with the growing importance and popularity of the *spa and wellness* offer. Suburban recreation is also developing, which is strictly connected with vicinity of large urban areas (GOP, Kraków, Tarnów, Rzeszów). This closeness results in an increase in the number of second homes.

Keywords: mountains, the Carpathians, tourism, transformation

Introduction

Tourism in Poland has undergone major changes in the past 20 years. The external conditions for tourism development in the country have significantly changed as a result of newly opened European borders in the early 1990s, European integration and related adjustment to the new rules imposed by the European Union, as well as the ongoing financial recession. The fundamental changes in tourism supply and demand associated with democratic and economic reforms had started in Poland in the 1990s. The tourism sector has undergone ownership transformation processes associated with the privatization of tourist facilities and efforts to transform the nature of tourism product, which involved tourist service provision enhancement and adjustment of the scope of tourist services to the global trends and solutions. This has significantly changed the model of tourism on the demand side. Long-term vacations have been substituted with weekend and one day trips. This has also led to the development of new forms of tourism (e.g. spa tourism, ski tourism). Lastly, the number of outbound trips have increased significantly.

The changes in tourism have had the most significant effect on the traditional tourist destinations, which have had to adapt to the new conditions. An example of such destination in Poland is the Carpathian Mountains, which represent the most important holiday destination in Poland after its Baltic coast, with a long-standing tourism traditions dating back to the 19th century.

The purpose of this article is to identify the factors which have significantly altered the pattern of tourism development in the Polish Carpathians and to indicate the forms of tourism that have changed in the last 20 years, or play an important role in the modern tourism development in the Carpathians.

1. Tourism development in the Carpathians

The modern state of tourism development in the Carpathians is primarily dependent on previous social, economic and political processes. The significant interest in the development of tourism in mountain areas, which had been first observed in the 19th century, had continued in the first half of the 20th century. From the phenomenon of being an elite experience, tourism has gradually moved to being the phenomenon of a common experience. This was due to the increase in the importance of the working class in Europe and fast-growing developments (including the legal protection of labour, the reduction in working hours, holidays). Therefore, apart from the traditional forms of tourism, such as stays in spas, recreational trips for lower social classes, along with their families (especially in the 1930s) have started developing. During this time first group resorts, camps and centres for children and young people as well as sanatoriums already existed. Simultaneously, summer villages, providing recreation to city dwellers (e.g. Lanckorona in the Pogórze Wielickie, or Zawoja in the Beskid Żywiecki) have evolved. In the early 20th century, in the whole Carpathians, there existed dozens of holiday and recreational villages. Spas which have moved from being a form of elite tourism to becoming a more mass tourism experience, including spas of the Beskid Sądecki (e.g. Krynica) and the eastern part of the Carpathian Mountains, today in Ukraine (e.g. Truskawiec) had also played an important role in tourism development. The increased health awareness, especially among urban residents, the development of medical science and better access to health care (especially in cities) had made the largest contribution to their popularity. Furthermore, social organizations and associations played an important role in promoting tourism. They first occurred during the period of the partition of Poland, both in Warsaw (Polish Tourist Association/*Polskie Towarzystwo Krajoznawcze* in 1906), as well as in then Austrian Galicia (*Polish Tatra Society/ Polskie Towarzystwo Tatrzańskie* founded in 1887 as *Galician Tatra Society/ Galicyjskie Towarzystwo Tatrzańskie*). They cared for, inter alia, network of mountain huts in the Carpathian Mountains (including the current Ukrainian side), which today form the backbone of the whole system of shelters. The highest mountain tourism centres were Zakopane and Krynica. Other places, such as Rabka Zdrój, Szczawnica, Iwonicz-Zdrój, Ustroń, Muszyna, Wisła, had also developed. In 1939, the entire Carpathian Mountains located within the Polish

borders operated 288 accommodation facilities, which accounted for in total a 9651 bed capacity, of which more than 60% were in the Western Carpathians.¹

Significant changes in tourism took place after World War II. One of the first signs of a new economic order was the nationalization of the tourism base, including accommodation facilities and sanatoriums, which were private before the war. Some of them were put under the management of the Employee Holiday Fund [pol. Fundusz Wczasów Pracowniczych “FWP”], an organisation set up in 1949 which, on behalf of trade unions, managed holiday houses. Unification of the rules for employees to take holiday packages was typical for centralized socialist system of citizens’ participation in public life of the state. In the Polish Carpathians, FWP owned most objects in Zakopane and Krynica.²

Another distinct step in the development of the tourism sector in Poland, including the Polish Carpathians, is associated with the entry into force of the provisions under which workplaces provided social benefits funds for its workers for holiday and leisure purposes. As a consequence, a number of recreational centres were created, particularly in the 1960s and 1970s. The largest number of them were located in the Beskid Śląski, in the Tatras and Podhale region and in the Beskid Sądecki. The proximity of artificial water reservoirs (e.g. Międzybrodzkie, Rożnowskie or Solina)³ was the key factor which contributed to their development.

Intensive investment in Polish spas took place in the second half of the 1960s. The owners of buildings were unions and workplaces, as well as the ministries and other institutions of centralised government. New facilities were built mostly in large, most visited spas, such as Krynica or Ustroń, while small, underdeveloped resorts were neglected. A number of new spas had also emerged, such as Polańczyk with the Solina Reservoir. Curative stays were organized both within the national health system and the institution of an industrial nature.⁴

¹ J. Groch, W. Kurek, 1995, *Turystyka*, in: *Karpaty Polskie, Przyroda, człowiek i jego działalność*, J. Warszńska (ed.), Uniwersytet Jagielloński, Kraków, p. 269.

² R. Okrasa, 1979, *Wczasy pracownicze. System organizacyjny*, Instytut Wydawniczy CRZZ, Warszawa, pp. 81,83.

³ B. Rogalewska, 1978, *Tendencje lokalizacyjne zakładowych ośrodków wczasowych w Polsce do 1971 r.*, Instytut Geografii i Przestrzennego Zagospodarowania PAN, Warszawa, pp. 39–57, 67–85.

⁴ E. Pitrus, 2004, *Uzdrowiska karpaccie – porównanie współczesnych problemów i strategii rozwoju*, mps. pr. doktorskiej, Zakład Gospodarki Turystycznej i Uzdrowiskowej, IGiGP UJ, Kraków.

Because of its environmental advantages, the Carpathians were the most significant Polish skiing resort, with the largest ski stations located in the Beskid Śląski, the Beskid Żywiecki (Pilsko), in the region of Zakopane and the Beskid Sądecki.

Concentration of the industry and urban population in the southern part of the country, especially in the northern foreland of the Carpathians, constituted the key factor in tourism development and its spatial variation in the Polish Carpathians. Direct proximity of the region to major cities and main urbanized areas (Upper Silesian conurbation, agglomeration of Kraków, Tarnów, Rzeszów) resulted in the development of tourism infrastructure also for weekend and short break holidays. The residents of GOP (Górnośląski Okręg Przemysłowy/Upper Silesian Industrial Region) and the district of Bielsko-Biała participated in tourism in towns of the Beskid Śląski and the Beskid Mały. The residents of Kraków and its vicinity mostly travelled to the region of the Beskid Średni (especially the Raba valley), Zakopane and Podhale, and the Beskid Sądecki.⁵ The emergence of second homes, which covered this part of the Carpathian, located within the impact of large urban areas, was a distinctive feature of tourism development.⁶

Consequently, the Polish Carpathian area had unevenly developed in terms of tourism. The western part of the region was characterized by the significant development of tourist infrastructure, including accommodation facilities. Such regions as the Beskid Śląski, the Beskid Żywiecki, Podhale and the Tatry, or the Pieniny and the Beskid Sądecki, on a scale of the entire Carpathian mountains, both in absolute and relative measures (e.g. density) dominated over the eastern part. This is evidenced by studies on the development of tourism function in the Polish Carpathians.⁷

⁵ J. Warszzyńska, A. Jackowski, 1971, *Turystyka w regionie krakowskim*, Nauka dla Wszystkich, 152, PAN Kraków, Kraków; J. Warszzyńska, *Miejskie województwo krakowskie jako zaplecze rekreacyjne Krakowa*, "Folia Geographica, Series Geographica-Oeconomica" 1978, No. 18, pp. 87–105; J. Groch, W. Kurek, 1989, *Freizeitgestaltung der Werktätigen am Beispiel der Belegschaft des "Lenin-Eisenhüttenkombinats"*, Bochumer Geographische Arbeiten, 51.

⁶ R. Faracik, 2006, *Turystyka w strefie podmiejskiej Krakowa*, IGiGP UJ, Kraków, pp. 60–67; Mika M., 2004, *Turystyka a przemiany środowiska przyrodniczego Beskidu Śląskiego*, IGiGP UJ, Kraków, pp. 105–115; M. Mika, *Kierunki i cechy rozwoju drugich domów w polskich Karpatach w świetle stanu badań*, "Czasopismo Geograficzne" 2012, No. 83, 1–2, 63–79.

⁷ A. Jackowski, 1981, *Typologia funkcjonalna miejscowości turystycznych (na przykładzie województwa nowosądeckiego)*, Rozprawy habilitacyjne nr 53, Uniwersytet Jagielloński, Kraków; J. Warszzyńska, *Funkcja turystyczna Karpat Polskich*, "Folia Geographica, Series Geographica-Oeconomica" 1985, No. 18, pp. 79–104; W. Kurek, 1990, *Wpływ turystyki na przemiany społeczno-ekonomiczne polskich Karpat*, Rozprawy habilitacyjne nr 194, Uniwersytet Jagielloński, Kraków.

This state had become the starting base for the changes that took place across the country after 1989.

2. Factors of transformation in the last 20 years

The 1990s had brought major political and socio-economic changes to Poland; these had significantly affected various spheres of life and economy, including tourism. The determinants of these changes were: moving away from a centrally planned model of economy to the free-market model, privatization of enterprises, transferring responsibilities to local governments, reducing the state's role in social care. The current model of tourism development has transformed from the social model (socialized/ state operators) to the free-market model, which assumes the private nature of ownership in tourism and full remuneration.

The development of tourism in the Carpathians was substantially influenced by the changes in the demand side of tourism. In the early 1990s, in connection with the economic crisis, the number of tourists had significantly reduced. The dominant role of the workplace or school as an organizer of free time for its members had been replaced by individual relationships: tourist – tourist facility, based on the market principles. This change had a significant impact on the condition of many tourist facilities which had to adapt to the new rules. In order to survive, state and company holiday centres which faced financial problems had to introduce market prices while maintaining the low standard of service. This meant that their offer became very attractive for Polish tourists. Many of these companies were privatized. The major changes in the structure of demand had also resulted in opened borders and the abolition of visas, not only in the context of Central and Eastern Europe, but also in the context of many West European countries. As a result, long-term domestic tourism had lost in favour of incoming tourism. Favourable price relations led to an outflow of guests from the Polish Carpathians to Slovakia, and people interested in a higher standard of services, especially those related to skiing, began to travel in the Alps. A growing number of foreign tourist arrivals to Poland in the 1990s did not offset the loss of domestic tourism in the Carpathians. Tourism offer in the Carpathians was unappealing, especially in relation to the outdated accommodation facilities. As a result, in the 1990s, there had been the continuous collapse of accommodation, which,

due to the limited access to capital, could not carry out work aimed at enhancing its attractiveness. This especially applied to old resorts and youth hostels. In the early 90s, such facilities existed in the entire Carpathian Mountains; there were about 600 (including 40.7 thousand beds), and in 2000 only 300 (26.5 thousand beds) of such facilities, while in 2012 the number had decreased to 180 facilities (15.4 thousand beds).⁸ The change in funding rules for youth tourism had led to the collapse of the network of youth hostels. With more than 150 facilities operating in the Carpathians in the early 1990s only a little more than 30 objects had survived to date. This sharp decline was related to the transfer of this type of accommodation to local government regulations which, due to the lack of funds, prevented them from managing such facilities, located mainly in schools. The number of camping sites has also significantly decreased.

The higher standards of service as well as expansion of the consumer market have become the priorities since the end of the last decade of the 20th century. The new Act on Tourist Services, which introduced the obligation of adaptation of certain types of objects to the defined standards of service, had also made a large contribution. These new realities resulted in the large transformation of facilities. The number of hotel-type facilities had significantly increased. In the middle of the 90s there were only 45 hotels in the Carpathians, today there are 192, including a dozen facilities of the highest standard.

Many of the objects have adapted their products to support business tourism, organizing conferences and training courses. The growing number of spa & wellness service can be observed. A response to changes in the demand side was to extend the scope of accommodation services.

Today, over 97% of accommodation facilities in the Carpathians are private. According to data from the Central Statistical Office, in 2012 in the Polish Carpathians there were 1.7 thousand accommodation facilities offering about 90 thousand beds. In the case of hotels, a typical customer profile is quite diverse, although many objects declare a special focus on business customers (especially when it comes to big buildings with conference facilities).

Bed & breakfasts and farmhouses focus on providing services to individual guests, especially those who visit in search of relaxation. Analysing the issue of the functioning of tourist accommodation facilities, it should be emphasized that it must refer to the current market trends, associated with shortening

⁸ According to data of Central Statistical Office/Local Data Bank (www.sta.gov.pl).

the length of stay to increasing the frequency of travel. This is especially important in the case of the Carpathians as their main customer group is represented by the residents of nearby urban agglomerations who prefer short-term stays, including weekend and day trips.

Speaking about the factors affecting the change in the pattern of tourism development of the Carpathians, attention should be paid to the current perception of tourism as a factor which stimulates the local socio-economic development. Tourism has become one of the areas of the local economy, in which it is worth to invest the local capital. Its competitiveness against other sectors of the economy has significantly increased. The Carpathians are predisposed to the development of tourism due to their natural and cultural resources associated with environmental protection. The local authorities consider tourism development as a factor of economic recovery and as a solution to many local problems, especially those related to the collapse of agriculture. Creation of agritourism facilities was supported from the 90s, and these represent an additional source of income for farmers. It is estimated that currently in the Carpathians, there are about 2.5 thousand such facilities, offering approximately 30-40 thousand beds in total.

The development of rural tourism is supported by activities aimed at creating new objects (such as: open-air museums, cultural parks), roads and hiking trails (bike trails, horse riding, etc.) to increase the tourist attractiveness of the region. The model of management of tourism development had undergone a fundamental change. It is currently being implemented in cooperation with the local and regional level (provincial). Local and regional associations and other organizations of interest also play an important role in the promotion of tourism within the region. Contemporary management model of tourist development is strongly related to regional policy of the European Union and associated with the system of financial support. Tourism as one of the preferred directions of socio-economic development of the Carpathians, is covered by a broad system of funding. The financial support provided by the European Union for the tourism sector is one of the primary determinants for this region to achieve a competitive market advantage.

Discussing the factors influencing the transformation of the tourism market, special attention should also be paid to the changing position of the Polish Carpathian region on the tourist map of the whole Carpathians. Polish accession to Schengen agreement and the associated removal of borders had enabled the Carpathians tourist resorts to maintain strong relationships with Slovak or

Czech centres. On the one hand, this emphasises the need for continuous actions aimed at achieving competitive advantages, on the other hand this creates possibilities to cooperate on the development of cross-border tourism. Cross-border cooperation can facilitate the realization of cross-Carpathians entrepreneurships, which can be shared with Slovakia to host the Winter Olympics Games. Equity joint ventures can also be formed. On the Polish side, there are intentions to invest into the Slovak Tourist Company – the Tatra Mountain Resort. The absence of boundaries also raises the possibility for the development of new streams of tourism. For example, in recent years the flow of tourists from the Czech Republic (mainly from the Karwina - Ostrava district) into the Beskid Śląski and Żywiecki has been observed; this is due to the more developed ski, sports and recreation facilities on the Polish side. Currently, the border villages in the Polish Carpathians derive significant benefits from trade tourism (via Slovaks arrivals), which are caused by price differences (euro in Slovakia). This situation will only last until the introduction of euro in Poland, however, today this important element stimulates the local trade. Similar phenomenon has evolved in the opposite direction in the 1990s, from Poland to Slovakia but it has disappeared by now.

3. The main directions of tourism development in the Carpathians

3.1. Rural tourism

Since the 1990s there has been rapid development of rural tourism based on agritourism accommodation. This was the result of clear and effective actions to promote the multifunctional model of rural development, including tourism and recreation. Today, rural tourism is one of the most important segments of the economy in the Carpathians. It allows the urban population to relax away from stressful urban environment; it also stimulates rural economic development and improves living conditions of local residents. Therefore, the regional policies and development strategies of lower-level administrative units in Carpathian provinces have put special emphasis on the development of economic activities of the locals in order to maintain the original character and rural heritage of the Carpathians.

The goal of sustainable tourism development in the Carpathians and promotion of rural tourism was also displayed in the bottom-up initiatives under-

taken by the inhabitants in Małopolska voivodeship: Stowarzyszenie Turystyki i Agroturystyki Ziem Górskich, Góralskie Stowarzyszenie Agroturystyczne, Galicyjskie Gospodarstwa Gościnne; and in Podkarpackie voivodeship: Podkarpackie Stowarzyszenie Agroturystyczne Gospodarstwa Gościnne, Galicyjskie Gospodarstwa Gościnne Bieszczady. These initiatives provide the opportunity to: improve organization, more effective development and promotion of rural tourism, especially agritourism, activation of rural communities, promotion of various forms of relaxation on farms, caring for an increase in the level of services and reporting changes to the existing rules and opinions on draft laws relating to rural tourism and agritourism.⁹

Another phenomenon which contributes to the development of rural tourism is EU funds which have renewed interest in farming. It is worth mentioning that Carpathian agriculture always consisted of “traditional” and organic production.¹⁰ Fashion for the production of regional products based on traditional and natural materials, distinguished the rural tourism offer in the Polish Carpathians.

The increasing popularity of agritourism and organic agricultural products has led to the growing number of tourism accommodation facilities, which are not directly related to agriculture. These facilities began to use the name of “agritourism” in marketing activities or formally operate under such a name. According to the Ministry of Agriculture, over 8 thousand objects operated in Poland in 2005 under the name “agritourism”. The largest concentration of these objects can be observed in rural areas of the Carpathians (about 2 400 tourist farms), especially in Małopolskie and Podkarpackie voivodeships, where approximately 30% of the total agritourism farms in the country are located. This is because the terms “agritourism” and “agritourism farm” are not properly defined in Poland. However, there are certain regulations related to tourism activities. They regulate the scope of services, responsibilities, such as tax or insurance for their owners, but also give many benefits of the various state poli-

⁹ J. Zuba, R. Domański, *Analiza struktur organizacji i działalności niektórych stowarzyszeń agroturystycznych w Polsce*, “Annales Universitatis Mariae Curie-Skłodowska” 2006, Vol. LXI Sectio E, pp. 93–106.

¹⁰ C. Guzik, 1995, *Rolnicze użytkowanie ziemi*, in: *Karpaty Polskie, Przyroda, człowiek i jego działalność*, J. Warszńska (ed.), Uniwersytet Jagielloński, Kraków, pp. 239–252; R. Faracik, W. Kurek, M. Mika, R. Pawlusiński, 2009, *Turystyka w Karpatach Polskich w świetle współczesnych kierunków rozwoju*, in: *Gospodarka i Przestrzeń*, B. Domański, W. Kurek (eds.), Instytut Geografii i Gospodarki Przestrzennej UJ, Kraków, pp. 77–96.

cies aimed at promoting entrepreneurship in rural areas.¹¹ At the same time, it should be added that they do not sufficiently protect the interests of agritourism farm owners.

The number of agritourism farms and the tempo of their development had increased in the 1990s.¹² Today, the number did not change significantly. Further transformation of rural tourism and agrotourism in the Polish Carpathians in the last 20 years was caused by a number of issues. The primary issue is the seasonality of this type of accommodation. Tourists benefit from tourist farms mostly in the summer season. This is explained by the duration of the farming season which takes place in the summer-autumn season, and which serves as the main attraction of an agritourism farm. In addition, visible is the decline in interest in this form of summer recreation. This means that tourists are willing to visit farms for recreation, not are not necessarily willing to participate in farming. More and more agritourism farms entirely abandon agricultural activity or keep them just in this area, which allows to run a favourable tax policy. The research show that almost 1/3 of all agrotourism farms in Małopolska were not visited in the last 3 years by any tourist. This unfavourable situation is vindicated by the competition from newly established, modern accommodation facilities, which have different, innovative products, compared to the traditional offer of rural areas: pensions, B&Bs, private accommodation facilities and hotels. It contains extensive leisure (including a spa) and sports facilities, which become a powerful competitor for agritourism farms. One such example is the ski station Białka Tatrzańska where farm owners resign from rural profile of farms, introducing guest rooms and B&Bs instead. This is caused by new tourist types who visit Białka Tatrzańska for skiing which is an “expensive” and specialized sport, so if a customer decides to ski, they should also be able to pay for other attractions, which can offer accommodation (physiotherapy, massage). In this changing climate farmhouses are forced to raise their competitiveness by introducing new offers, except accommodation and nutrition (treatment and rehabilitation stays for the elderly and disabled, Nordic walking, hippotherapy, hypnotherapy, martial arts, meditation and relaxation stays, yoga, herbal medicine, diet stays,

¹¹ M. Kubal, M. Mika, *Agritourism in Poland – the legal model and the realities of the market*, “Current Issues Of Tourism Research” 2012, Vol. 1, No 2, Presov, pp. 4–11.

¹² K. Szpara, 2011, *Agroturystyka w Karpatach Polskich*, in: *Prace Geograficzne*, M. Mika (ed.), z. 125, Instytut Geografii i Gospodarki Przestrzennej UJ, Kraków, pp. 161–178.

stag and hen parties) and for finding new niches in the market. The direction of changes forces simultaneous search for new audiences for new products. It is worth to add that only a small number of agritourism farms are able to successfully diversify its products while maintaining agricultural production to counter the force of the impact of accommodation and having a number of other complementary services as well. It is in recent years an important, if not the most important direction of agritourism development. Otherwise it becomes a form of rural tourism, without a clearly defined marketing product.

Transformation of rural tourism that took place and is still ongoing in the Polish Carpathians, requires continuous support from central and local governments as well as new and effective projects of a regional nature. Examples of such initiatives in the implementation of regional policy in the area of Małopolska are the creation and promotion of projects aimed at elderly audiences of rural tourism but “in the new edition.” In Małopolska the most well-known projects are: Małopolska Village Fragrant Herbs [Małopolska Wieś Pachnąca Ziołami], Małopolska village for Children [Małopolska Wieś dla Dzieci] and Małopolska village for Senior Citizens [Małopolska Wieś dla Seniora]. These projects are based on the heritage of rural areas of the Carpathians; they use rural accommodation facilities, promoting them to specific groups of customers, not excluding anyone. There are many examples of local rural and village politics (Zubrzyca, Wysowa, Lipnica Wielka, Lipnica Mała), where investments in local infrastructure (sidewalks, roads, sewage systems) had a positive impact on the perception of these areas by tourists.

The activities of a growing number of regional associations of agritourism in Poland are a factor that accelerates and strengthens rural tourism development.¹³ Successful projects of a local nature are taken more often by active members of the local action groups (LAGs, [pol. Lokalne Grupy Działania LGD]). These new actors in the development of rural tourism and agritourism are a form of local partnerships, which are next to public sector entities formed by private entities in collaboration with civil society organizations. An example of a successful initiative of LGD is cyclical - already 6th “Święto Rydza”, held in September in the Beskid Niski.

¹³ A.P. Wiatrak, 2003, *Baza agroturystyczna w Polsce i uwarunkowania jej rozwoju*, Zeszyty Naukowe Akademii Rolniczej im. H. Kołłątaja w Krakowie nr 402, pp. 9–18.

3.2. Spa and health tourism

The Carpathians are the main spa region in Poland (12 cities with a spa status), which contribute to both environmental values and long traditions of functioning spa treatment. At the end of the 20th century, during political transformations, the management system of spa treatment had become more and more cumbersome. On the one hand, the outdated infrastructure, constantly decreasing financial outlays on this form of treatment, had worsened the situation among all Polish, as well as Carpathian, spa resorts. In 1990, the Polish spas hosted the maximum number of bathers (about 800 thousand). Currently, at the number is down to about 530-550 thousand, of which about ¼ are attributed to the Carpathian spas.¹⁴ A particularly large drop in the number of patients has been noticed among children, whose residence requires large expenditures (mainly in Rabka Zdrój, Rymanów-Zdrój). The scope of administrative and legal operation of spas had also changed, which is associated with the entry into force of the new law in 2005¹⁵, which had replaced the earlier act of 1966.

Spas were affected by privatization. So far, only two Carpathian spas had been privatized (Iwonicz-Zdrój and Ustroń), and one had been returned to the heirs of the pre-war owners (Szczawnica). In the future, it seems desirable to undertake further privatization. It may represent the best way to acquire the capital for modernization of existing and development of the new infrastructure. It should be noted, however, that privatization of spas raises social controversy. A model is also considered which assumes operation of two types of spas: the so-called national – which remain in the state hands and are aimed at the realization of medical services financed from public funds, and private spas which have a wide range of offers. So far the Carpathian spas have focused on domestic customers, practically they are not visited by foreigners, as it is the case with most spas in the Sudety. It is worth mentioning that the Carpathian spas are under strong competitive pressure from the Slovak spas, which contributes to the enhancement of their services. No innovation can lead to an outflow of domestic spa visitors abroad, including to Slovakia.

¹⁴ *Lecznictwo uzdrowiskowe w Polsce w latach 2000–2010*, GUS, US w Krakowie, Kraków, p. 49.

¹⁵ *Ustawa z dnia 28 lipca 2005 r. o lecznictwie uzdrowiskowym, uzdrowiskach i obszarach ochrony uzdrowiskowej oraz o gminach uzdrowiskowych*, Dz.U. 2005, nr 167, poz. 1399.

Through the progressive changes in the way of spending free time and a new healthy lifestyle, the spa & wellness sector offers become more and more popular. These offers are provided both by pre-existing entities of a strict spa character as well as by the newly created, private, specialized centres with high standards of service, which are located in especially popular resorts (e.g. Krynica, Szczawnica, Piwniczna). More and more centres, specializing in health stays, are located in tourist areas which do not have the spa status.

The beginning of the 21st century had brought a number of specific changes to the use of groundwater for recreational and medicinal purposes. The trips to thermal baths to Slovakia and Hungary which are very popular with Polish tourists have forced investments in this field in the Polish Carpathians. Until then, the thermal water has been used on a relatively small scale, only in the key centres of spa treatment (Ustroń, Rabka Zdrój, Iwonicz-Zdrój). Today, 4 geothermal centres located close to each other: Zakopane, Szaflary, Bukowina Tatrzańska and Białka Tatrzańska, operate in the Polish Carpathians.¹⁶ They supplement the ski offer, provided by these and neighbouring villages. These places also provide services of disease prevention and recuperation. The development of this type of offer is also reflected in the changes in the landscape and village functions, which is particularly noticeable in Białka Tatrzańska.¹⁷ More and more centres arise that use heated water (including geothermal energy).

Development of water recreation facilities on the basis of thermal waters seems to be one of the possible directions for tourism development in the Carpathians. Nowadays there are a lot of projects which deal with the construction of new water recreation complexes in many parts of the Carpathians, including Orawa and the Beskid Sądecki.

3.3. Ski tourism

Carpathians are the best developed skiing region in Poland. The tradition of skiing in the Carpathians dates back to the late 19th and early 20th century

¹⁶ E. Hałaj, B. Kępińska, 2013, *Stan i perspektywy rozwoju geotermalnej balneoterapii i rekreacji w Polsce*, in: *Rekreacyjne wykorzystanie wód geotermalnych w krajach Grupy Wyszehradzkiej*, M. Dej, M. Huculak, W. Jarczewski (eds.), Instytut Rozwoju Miast, Kraków, p. 80.

¹⁷ M. Heldak, J. Szczepański, 2011, *Wpływ rozwoju turystyki na transformację krajobrazu wsi Białka Tatrzańska*, *Infrastruktura i Ekologia Terenów Wiejskich*, 1/2011, 151–161.

in the Tatra Mountains (Zakopane). An important stage in the development of skiing in the Carpathians took place in the 1970s and 1980s, when more than 240 facilities for downhill skiing were founded in the area. The main ski regions were then Tatra Mountains and Podhale, the Beskid Śląski (mainly Szczyrk) and the Beskid Żywiecki (Korbielów). Since the early 1990s, ski resorts in the Carpathians have undergone significant transformations which include the modernization and construction of new, high-quality ski lifts and cableways, introduction of the ski infrastructure in towns without the ski traditions, creation of new ski resorts based on partnerships and local initiatives, increase in the role of artificial snow and the accompanying development of ski tourism.

More than 500 ski lifts and 560 ski runs with a total length of 320 km are currently located in the Polish Carpathians. The spatial distribution of the major ski stations has not changed significantly, compared to the 1980s and earlier, but the significant increase in the number of places with single lifts (up to 120 localities) can be increased. The most important centres are located in the regions with the most favourable natural conditions for skiing, e.g. in the Tatras and Podhale (Zakopane, Białka Tatrzańska) and in the Beskid Śląski (Wisła, Szczyrk); the role of the ski centres in the Beskid Sądecki (Krynica) has also increased.¹⁸ Ski resorts in the Carpathians are characterized by a different functional profile. The most important centres, such as Zakopane, Krynica, Szczyrk and Wisła are multifunctional and ski tourism is part of the local tourist economy. An example of centers specialized in skiing are Białka Tatrzańska and Bukowina Tatrzańska. The infrastructure for cross-country skiing has also been developed in the Carpathians. It consists of 4 trails with a total length of 150 km. Objects of this type are located in 20 towns and the best cross-country trails are located in Istebna in the Beskid Śląski and Wetlina in the Bieszczady Mountains.

Domestic visitors are essential for the development of ski tourism in the Polish Carpathians. The share of foreign tourists is marginal and associated mainly with the arrival of visitors from Eastern Europe during the Christmas holidays at the beginning of January. The study by K. Krzesiwo¹⁹ shows that the primary factors for choosing ski resorts in the Carpathians are: the distance between a ski resort and the place of residence, quality of ski infrastructure

¹⁸ K. Krzesiwo, 2013, *Rozwój i funkcjonowanie stacji narciarskich w Karpatach Polskich*, mps. pr. doktorskiej, IGiGP UJ, Kraków.

¹⁹ Ibidem.

and word of mouth recommendations. It should be emphasized that the Polish ski centres have to compete with the ski resorts in the neighbouring Slovakia, as well as centres in the Alps, for domestic customers. All this raises the need to strive for a high standard of service, similar to world standards, and the development of a comprehensive tourist package. The combination of skiing with water recreational (water parks: Bukowina, Białka Tatrzańska, Istebna) and spa & wellness offers can be observed in the region at the moment.

The development of skiing in the Carpathians faces a number of barriers of organizational and legal nature. The lack of the so-called Mountain Act, which would regulate the relations between landowners and outline rules for the use of land on the slopes in the winter is very visible. Significant constraints are related to the issue of environmental protection, such as the location of the centres in the direct vicinity of protected areas and the restrictions on investments (the ability to block projects and extending procedures in time by environmental organizations). The other important problems are the limitations associated with the communicational accessibility.

The share of ski tourism in the structure of tourism in the Carpathians will increase and this is closely connected with the increasing popularity of downhill skiing with Poles. The current trends in tourist demand indicate that a strong correlation between water recreation and skiing can be expected.

3.4. Suburban recreation and second homes

Due to their natural potential, the Carpathians area is a desirable resort area, especially for the residents of nearby urban agglomerations, such as Kraków, Tarnów and Rzeszów. There is a growing area of suburban recreation, especially the settlement of second homes.

The rapid growth in second homes in the Carpathians is primarily due to the two factors: the natural environment and the immediate proximity to large urban agglomerations. This has found reflection in the location of second homes, especially setup by the inhabitants of the Upper Silesian conurbation and cities such as Kraków, Tarnów and Rzeszów. The origins of the phenomenon of second homes date back to the time before World War II. On a large scale this phenomenon began to develop only in the late 1960s and 1970s. The first second homes were formed mainly on the basis of family ties. Some objects in the late 1980s and 1990s were built

in specially designated, recreational zones. These were small buildings, in many cases unheated, used mainly for recreational purposes, during the summer season. These are particularly noticeable in the Beskid Śląski and Żywiecki, the Beskid Średni or the Pogórze area, found directly on the back of each agglomeration.

In the 1990s construction of buildings in outdoor seating areas and gardens became popular. This practice was held without legal and planning arrangements. There were brick buildings for recreational purposes, often multi-stored buildings, with a large usable area.²⁰

Today, significant changes are observed in both the location, and use of second homes. Many of the objects created in the 1970s and 1980s, after expansion and modernization, took over the function of main homes for their owners, who were retired and passed their houses in the cities to children and grandchildren. Since the 1990s, newly built houses were created as buildings, often of residential character. They may at any time be used as a principal residence. The localization trend has also changed. Today, these objects are built in the middle of villages, not standing out from the rest, without “summer” features, which was typical for the previous period. More and more often the great mansions of the highest standard are constructed in the areas characterized by high-class natural, including view values. Apartment complexes, located in the major mountain resorts, are also becoming very popular.

Nowadays, about 15-20 thousand individual recreational homes are located in the Polish Carpathians. There is a new trend to build second homes by the inhabitants of the Carpathian medium-sized towns, such as Nowy Sącz and Nowy Targ. The goal of informal and commercial hospitality is a new form of use for second homes.²¹

3.5. Cultural tourism

Rural tourism and agritourism are closely linked to cultural tourism, taking into account the cultural heritage of rural areas. So far, the cultural tourism offer has been based mainly on the passive, traditional forms of exposure: regional chambers, museums, open-air museums. The changes in the travelling model

²⁰ R. Faracik, op. cit., p. 61.

²¹ M. Mika, op. cit., pp. 68, 73.

and leisure activities that have influenced the transformation in the agritourism offer, in the case of cultural tourism offer a number of opportunities. These changes are related to the innovative presentation of local traditions and cultural heritage. The basis for this type of presentation is the direction of “out” of the room - outside the museum to the public. This means a radical change in the pattern of cultural tourism - cultural tourism now goes from the classical model of cognitive tourism model to active learning which is delivered in conjunction with entertainment and recreation. The transformation of the model of cultural tourism has resulted in the “kinaesthetic”, active model of presentation and promotion of the Carpathians’ cultural heritage by:

- creation of new and better adaptation of existing cultural facilities (e.g. the outdoor archaeological museum “Carpathian Troy” [“Karpacka Troja”], the regional museum “Galician Town” [“Miasteczko Galicyjskie”]);
- investments in open-air museums, engaging in learning process not only the vision, but also other senses, such as hearing, touching, smell. These projects are implemented through the reproduction of traditional bread baking process, preparing herbs, crafts and ceramics workshops, etc.;
- organizing regular, annual cultural and folklore events (e.g. the International Festival of Folklore in Zakopane, Beskid Culture Week (Istebna, Maków Podhalański, Wisła, Szczyrk), Parada Gazdowska i Gońba Kumoterska in Biały Dunajec, Sabałowe Bajania in Bukowina Tatrzańska, Tatrzańskie Wici in Zakopane, the Carpathian Feast in Piwniczna;
- creation of cultural routes, which, in addition to enhancing the general fitness levels, aims to provide an innovative and interactive learning opportunity to get better familiar with the regional cultural heritage. More than 30 cultural routes, including the most famous Wooden Architecture Route [Szlak Architektury Drewnianej], Amber Trail Greenways [Bursztynowy Szlak Greenways], Crafts Trail [Szlak Rzemiosła], Pottery Road [Szlak Garncarski], Carpatho-Galician Oil Trail [Karpacko-Galicyjski Szlak Naftowy], Malopolska Romanesque [Małopolska Romańska], Malopolska Wine Route [Małopolski Szlak Winny], Chassidic Trail [Szlak Chasydzki], Carpathian Robbers Trail [Szlak Zbójników Karpackich], were set up in Malopolska part of the Carpathians alone.

It should be noted that these routes are designed not only for the promotion and maintenance but also in order to carry an important educational function, taking into account the customer needs, including the “kinaesthetic” active model of learning in movement and *through* movement. The way to arouse interest in cultural heritage is to organize urban games which are implemented in the full commitment of the organizers and the audience.

Such initiatives on a regional and local level are desirable for raising consumers’ interest in preserved heritage, which is extremely rich in the traditions of the Carpathians’ rural areas.

Conclusion

The last 20 years have had a significant impact on many spheres of socio-economic life of the Polish Carpathians. The actors of the tourism sector which had arisen during the socialism and got adapted to the rules of the market economy, had made a number of quantitative and qualitative changes, including ownerships. The lack of these changes had usually led to the collapse or withdrawal from the market.

The approach to the role of tourism in the local economy had significantly changed. Tourism as a way of development is seen not only through the developed tourist resorts with long traditions, but also through the areas that have developed agriculturally. Tourism activities, especially in rural areas of the Carpathians, are one of the important issues of the regional policy.

Along with urbanization, an increase in the social role of natural areas, including national parks, has been observed. Natural space has a paramount importance for recreation, so increasing pressure from tourism can be expected. This emphasizes the need for better management of space in protected areas.

The Carpathians cease to be a traditional long-term tourism area. The significance of short stays and weekend stays increases. This requires more attention to different forms of tourism in order to increase the competitiveness of the region. Rural areas should seek to link their agritourism offer with cultural tourism or recreational specialization.

Spas face the problem of adapting its offer to the modern market requirements - including modifying therapeutic profiles, as well as introducing other functions to the spas. As the Carpathian mountains remain under a strong influ-

ence of the nearby city agglomerations, the development of the tourist sector is bound to follow. Amusements parks in Andrychów or Zator located on the edge of the Carpathians represent a good example. Business tourism may also develop, especially in the conference sector.

Due to its natural and landscape attractiveness, the Carpathians are becoming a place of living for the residents of nearby urban areas. This especially applies to the areas in the western part of the Carpathians, located relatively close to the Silesian agglomeration or Kraków. This, in turn, can lead to conflicts between different groups of users.

Further development of tourism in the Carpathians should refer to the changes in the globalizing European market, especially in the sphere of tourism demand and new technologies. The main aim of policy development in this area will be to keep the important position in the structure of domestic tourism, because it will determine the existence or the collapse of the tourism function of the Carpathians.

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PRZEKSZTAŁCENIA MODELU TURYSTYKI W KARPATACH POLSKICH. DOŚWIADCZENIA OSTATNICH DWÓCH DEKAD

Streszczenie

Karpaty należą do głównych regionów turystycznych Polski, czemu sprzyjają szczególnie walory turystyczne oraz długie tradycje rozwoju turystyki. Okres socjalizmu w regionie tym, podobnie jak i w całym kraju, zaznaczył się wyraźną dominacją nurtu socjalnego w zasadzie we wszystkich aspektach rozwoju turystyki. Dominował głównie wypoczynek i turystyka zorganizowana i dofinansowana ze środków państwowych i społecznych. Większość bazy noclegowej stanowiły zakładowe i branżowe ośrodki wypoczynkowe, zlokalizowane najczęściej w najatrakcyjniejszych miejscowościach turystycznych. Jest to także okres intensywnego rozwoju prywatnej inicjatywy, zwłaszcza w zakresie wynajmu kwater. Charakterystyczne były pobyty lecznicze w uzdrowiskach.

Transformacja społeczno-gospodarcza związana ze zmianami politycznymi po 1989 r. zmieniła znacząco obraz turystyki, która współcześnie przyjmuje model charakterystyczny dla rozwiniętych krajów Europy Zachodniej. System opiera się w dużej mierze na prywatnej własności zarówno bazy noclegowej, jak i towarzyszącej. Szczególnie intensywny jest rozwój infrastruktury narciarskiej. Oferta sąsiedniej Słowacji spowodowała rozwój kąpielisk termalnych w oparciu o miejscowe zasoby wód cieplicowych. Widoczny jest także intensywny rozwój oferty agroturystycznej. Zgodnie z obserwowanymi na świecie trendami wzrasta rola turystyki poznawczej, opartej na walorach kulturowych (nowe atrakcje, szlaki kulturowe itp.). Zmianom ulegają także uzdrowiska (postępująca prywatyzacja), co wiąże się z ze wzrostem znaczenia usług typu *spa* i *wellness*. Rozwijają się także wypoczynek podmiejski (weekendowy i świąteczny), czemu sprzyja bezpośrednie sąsiedztwo dużych aglomeracji miejskich (GOP, Kraków, Tarnów, Rzeszów). Przekłada się to na wzrastającą liczbę drugich domów.

Słowa kluczowe: góry, Karpaty, turystyka, transformacja

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URBAN TOURIST PENETRATION SPACE – AN INDUSTRIAL CITY CASE STUDY

Abstract

The author defines the concept of the “urban tourist penetration space” and identifies this type of space within an industrial city (Łódź). Research has proved that tourist penetration mainly concerns the areas developed in the 19th c. by industrialists, who were built the city.

Keywords: tourism space, tourist penetration space, urban tourist penetration space, the city of Łódź

Introduction

For several years, tourism space has been an important paradigm in the geographical research on tourism. It can be observed in numerous publications in scientific journals (e.g. “Tourism”) and thematic monographs.¹ There are also conferences devoted to the issues of tourism space.²

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¹ B. Meyer, „*Turystyka jako ekonomiczny czynnik kształtowania przestrzeni*”, *Rozprawy i Studia*, t. 545, Uniwersytet Szczeciński, Szczecin 2004, p. 436; B. Włodarczyk, *Przestrzeń turystyczna. Istota, koncepcje, determinanty rozwoju*, Wyd. Uniwersytetu Łódzkiego, Łódź 2009, p. 268.

² *Przestrzeń turystyczna. Czynniki, różnorodność, zmiany*, M. Durydiwka, K. Duda-Gromada (eds.), Uniwersytet Warszawski, Wydział Geografii i Studiów Regionalnych, Warszawa 2011, p. 456.

In 1995, the author published an article entitled “Tourism space”,³ in which he redefined this space and identified its five sub-types: tourist exploration, penetration, assimilation, colonization and urbanization space.

Several years later, Liszewski⁴ made the meaning of the exploration space more precise, on the basis of an analysis of urban space.

The aim of this article is to define and identify the tourist penetration space. It will be presented using the example of an industrial city, commonly regarded as not touristic. The city is Łódź, the third most populated city in Poland.

1. Terms and definitions. The factual and territorial range

In order to achieve our aim, we must first define the basic terms relating to the space in question. This mainly concerns the urban tourism space and the form of tourist traffic identified with the tourist penetration space. We will also try to explain why it is difficult to identify the urban tourist penetration space.

The assumption of the tourism space concept is that it is “a functionally distinct subspace of broadly understood geographical space, which consists of the natural, economic and social environment”.⁵ Włodarczyk⁶ identifies tourism space with tourist traffic, claiming that “tourism space is the part of geographical space where tourist traffic occurs”.

Without going into much discussion, we should remember, however, that in the geographers’ opinion, the most general term is geographical space, understood as the Earth’s surface consisting of various sub-spaces, including the tourism sub-space.

Following this way of thinking, we shall try to identify urban tourism space, i.e. space which is formed and develops within the city limits.⁷ This will require

³ S. Liszewski, *Przestrzeń turystyczna*, “Turyzm” 1995, t. 5, z. 2, pp. 87–103.

⁴ S. Liszewski, *Miejska przestrzeń eksploracji turystycznej. Przykład Łodzi*, “Turyzm” 2009, t. 19, z. 1-2, pp. 59–65.

⁵ S. Liszewski, *Przestrzeń...*, op. cit., pp. 87–103.

⁶ B. Włodarczyk, *Przestrzeń turystyczna. Istota, koncepcje, determinanty rozwoju*, Wyd. Uniwersytetu Łódzkiego, Łódź 2009, p. 268.

⁷ S. Liszewski, *Przestrzeń turystyczna miasta (przykład Łodzi)*, “Turyzm” 1999, t. 9, z. 1, pp. 51–73.

defining the concept of urban space first. According to Liszewski,⁸ urban space may be defined as “a distinctive type of geographical sub-space, of characteristic organization, function and physiognomy, as well as legal status”. The definition implies that the most important attribute of urban space is its organization, i.e. the way it is arranged to satisfy both, the individual and the social needs of city inhabitants.

Both urban and tourism space are sub-spaces of the general geographical space, but they are identified on the basis of different criteria: tourism space – on the basis of the functional criterion (the occurrence of tourist traffic), and urban space – on the basis of the organization and functions typical of cities (mainly the third sector). This means that both sub-spaces may occupy the same part of the general geographical space. Liszewski⁹ assumes that the urban tourism space is a social product. This means that in given conditions of the civilization development, urban space is considered to be cognitively or recreationally interesting by the people arriving in the city. It is the tourists who discover the tourism space in the city.

Earlier research points to the fact that in order to say to what extent and in what form urban space is used for tourism purposes, we may adopt the types of tourism space proposed by Liszewski.

In his article, Liszewski¹⁰ discussed the tourist exploration space in more detail, identifying its two sub-types: realistic (objective) and individual (subjective). It must not be ignored, because the urban tourist exploration and penetration spaces are sometimes difficult to tell apart and controversial.

In this paper, the author wants to identify the tourist penetration space within the area of Łódź – a large industrial city. The choice of this city was not accidental, because Łódź has never been regarded as a tourist city, and finding out about it has often been a kind of exploration. Practically speaking, it was only after industry in Łódź had declined (after 1989) that many industrial heritage resources were made accessible / available.¹¹ Passing from tourist exploration to tourist penetration of Łódź seems particularly interesting to study, as it involves visitors taking up urban spaces which have been unknown so far.

⁸ S. Liszewski, *Przestrzeń miejska i jej organizacja. Geografia – człowiek – gospodarka (Profesorowi Bronisławowi Kortusowi w 70 rocznicę urodzin)*, Kraków 1997, pp. 55–65.

⁹ S. Liszewski, *Przestrzeń...*, op. cit., pp. 51–73.

¹⁰ S. Liszewski, *Miejska...*, op. cit., pp. 59–65.

¹¹ M. Kronenberg, *Wpływ zasobów dziedzictwa przemysłowego na atrakcyjność turystyczną miasta. Przykład Łodzi*, Wyd. Uniwersytetu Łódzkiego, Łódź 2012, p. 224.

According to “Słownik języka polskiego”,¹² the word “penetration” is used in two meanings: “access, infiltration” and “searching, exploring, e.g. an unknown area”.

For the purpose of this analysis, we will use Liszewski’s definition¹³ (1999): “penetration is a stage in discovery, but it also means understanding phenomena and processes occurring in a given space”.

Embarking on research into urban tourist penetration space in Łódź, the author wants to point to two features typical of tourism development in industrial cities. The first one is the psychological barrier, which prevents the inhabitants and the city authorities from believing that industrial areas, which have been work-related areas until recently, may be interesting from the tourism point of view. The sooner this barrier is overcome, the faster these areas will become accessible, then promoted, and the tourists will be encouraged to penetrate them.

The other feature is the lack of understanding of the difference between discovering pre-industrial and industrial cities. Understanding an industrial city involves discovering and following traces of the activity of specific, recognizable owners of factories, palaces, parks, etc. The tourist is closer to the object of his discovery, which is fascinating, but also requires broader knowledge. Łódź is a very good example of industrialists’ contribution to the creation and development of the city. Tourists may directly identify their fortunes (wealth), which become accessible as original tourist assets / are within their reach as tourist assets

2. The origins and a short description of industrial Łódź

Industrial Łódź was founded according to plan, “from scratch”, south of a small (about 500 inhabitants) medieval agricultural town, called Łodzia. The first cloth making settlement, called “New Town”, was established in 1821–1823, on the land which became state property after the secularization of church property. The government decision to industrialize the Kingdom of Poland was implemented there by Rajmund Rembeliński, with the support of Stanisław Staszic.

¹² *Słownik języka polskiego. Tom drugi*, A. Szymczak (ed.), Państwowe Wydawnictwo Naukowe, Warszawa 1979, p. 1087.

¹³ S. Liszewski, *Przestrzeń...*, op. cit., pp. 51–73.

Founding the “New Town”, and then the cotton-linen settlement “Łódka” with water-factory facilities on the Jasień river (1824–1828), attracted many clothiers and cotton weavers, mainly from the German-speaking countries of that time.

According to Puś,¹⁴ in 1822–1830 alone, 1008 craftsman families settled down in Łódź, which triggered the development of the textile industry. There are three main factors, which caused the city to develop at an unusual rate. The first one was the propaganda and the promotion campaign run by the government of the Kingdom of Poland, which encouraged people to settle down in Łódź. The second one was giving large, long-term, and usually unreturned loans for industry development by the government. In 1821–1829, Łódź received over 580 000 Polish zlotys, i.e. 65% of the total amount of money for the industrial development of the Masovian voivodeship / Mazovia Province.¹⁵ The third of the factors, which occurred intermittently (repressions after the insurrections) but was very effective, was the customs policy blocking the inflow of commodities from the West and facilitating the sale of Łódź products on Eastern markets, mainly in Russia.

Referring all those who are interested in the development of Łódź to numerous monographs,¹⁶ we shall focus on the industrialists – the real creators/makers of industrial Łódź (especially before the First World War), whose spatial layout and land use within the circular railway line remained mostly the same until 2000. It will enable us to verify the hypothesis that the formation and current development of the tourist penetration space of Łódź, inhabited by over 700 000 people, is the result of making the remains of the former industrialist fortunes accessible. It was the factory owners who built this mono-functional industrial city in the 19th century.

In order to better understand the financial power and the investment possibilities of Łódź industrialists, it is worth looking at several figures characterizing the textile industry in the whole Kingdom of Poland in 1913, and comparing it to the situation in Łódź. At the time, there were 689 textile companies, employing 164 000 workers. 59 of them (8.6%) employed over 500 workers each, which made 63% of the total

¹⁴ W. Puś, *Dzieje Łodzi przemysłowej (Zarys historii)*, Muzeum Historii Miasta Łodzi, Łódź 1987, p. 150.

¹⁵ *Ibidem*.

¹⁶ *Ibidem*; *Łódź. Monografia miasta*, S. Liszewski (ed.), Łódzkie Towarzystwo Naukowe, Łódź 2009, p. 501; A. Ginsbert, *Łódź. Studium monograficzne*, Wydawnictwo Łódzkie, Łódź 1962, p. 378; *Łódź. Dzieje miasta. Tom I do 1918 r.*, R. Rosin (ed.), Państwowe Wydawnictwo Naukowe, Warszawa – Łódź 1980, p. 674.

number of the people employed in this trade (104 000).¹⁷ In the same year, there were 35 large textile industry plants in Łódź, employing over 500 people each, which made over 59% of all large companies representing this industry in the Kingdom. Their owners decided about the production output/capacity and employment in Łódź industry, and indirectly about the life and development of the whole city.

According to Puś,¹⁸ at the beginning of the 20th c., there were 17 large industrial plants in Łódź, employing over 1000 workers. Using the names of the owners or founders of these companies, let us list them by the number of the employed workers: K. Scheibler, I.K. Poznański, L. Geyer, J. Heinzel, J. Kunitzer, L. Grohmann, Sz. Rosenblatt (all in cotton production) and J. Heinzel, M. Silberstein, Allart, Rousseau and Co., K. Bennisch, F.W. Szweikert, Leonhard, Woelker and Girbart, I. Richter, M. Kon, J. Wojdysławski (in wool production).

This is not a complete list of the owners of important factories in Łódź who were indirectly or directly building this huge industrial city for about 100 years (1821–1914), with all its disadvantages and advantages. Traces of that activity can still be found in Łódź streets and are currently the main tourist assets of this city. More detailed information about Łódź industrialists and their factories can be found in the work by L. Skrzydło.¹⁹

In search of the remains of industrialists' fortunes, as well as the possibility to use them in the study of the tourist product of Łódź, eight Master's theses were written in 2007–2013, based on detailed field study. Their authors tried to trace the remains of the fortunes of seven industrialists' families and establish the possibility of using them to create partial tourist products of Łódź. The theses concerned the following families: Scheibler,²⁰ Poznański,²¹ Geyer,²²

¹⁷ W. Puś, *Statystyka przemysłu Królestwa Polskiego w latach 1879–1913*, Materiały Źródłowe, Wyd. Uniwersytetu Łódzkiego, Łódź 2013, 260.

¹⁸ W. Puś, *Dzieje...*, op. cit., p. 150.

¹⁹ L. Skrzydło, *Rody fabrykanckie, Oficyna Bibliofilów*, Łódź 1999, p. 116.

²⁰ K. Wrzeńska, *Fortuna rodu Scheiblerów jako element produktu turystycznego Łodzi*. Maszynopis pracy magisterskiej, IGMiT Uniwersytet Łódzki, 2013.

²¹ J. Kostecka, *Kompleks Manufaktura – nowa przestrzeń turystyczno-rekreacyjna Łodzi*. Maszynopis pracy magisterskiej, IGMiT Uniwersytet Łódzki, 2007.

²² M. Rychlik, *Fortuna rodu Geyerów jako element produktu turystycznego Łodzi*. Maszynopis pracy magisterskiej, IGMiT Uniwersytet Łódzki, 2010.

Grohmann,²³ Richter,²⁴ Biedermann,²⁵ and Kindermann.²⁶

Compiling the studies conducted by the authors of these works will allow us to find the regularities in the factory-residential development of Łódź and to define the accessibility of these resources as original assets of industrial heritage for the purpose of the tourist penetration of Łódź.

3. Examples of urban tourist penetration space and its creators

The wealthiest Łódź industrialists were the Scheibler family, started by Karol Wilhelm Scheibler (1820–1881). He arrived in Łódź in 1854 and signed a contract with the city authorities for building a large cotton spinning mill near Wodny Rynek. The Scheiblers' first industrial-residential complex was built there, called "the headquarters". Scheibler's "kingdom" (or "jurydyka") was situated in the Jasień River valley (Fig.1), and comprised the "Księży Młyn" production area and the area spreading west of Kilińskiego Street, including the "New Weaving Plant" and a power plant. According to Ginsbert (1962), after joining business with Grohmann, the Scheiblers owned an area of about 500 hectares, which made one seventh of the total area of Łódź within the boundaries from 1913.

The area consisted of factory buildings, warehouses, palaces, parks, gardens, workers' housing estates, two hospitals, schools, orphanages, a factory food shop, a fire station, other facilities, as well as the "Księży Młyn" farming estate of 100 ha. All those facilities were situated within the administrative borders of the city. Internal transport was provided by a system of sidings connected to the Koluszki line, which was open in 1866 and linked Łódź with Koluszki.

²³ A. Szymańska, *Fortuna rodu Grohmanów jako element produktu turystycznego miasta Łodzi*, Maszynopis pracy magisterskiej, IGMiT Uniwersytet Łódzki, 2008; M. Bednarski, *Królestwo Scheiblera i Grohmana z początku XX wieku jako obszar penetracji turystycznej Łodzi*. Maszynopis pracy magisterskiej, IGMiT Uniwersytet Łódzki, 2012.

²⁴ D. Skowrońska, *Fortuna fabrykanckiego rodu Richterów jako element produktu turystycznego Łodzi*, Maszynopis pracy magisterskiej, IGMiT Uniwersytet Łódzki, 2010.

²⁵ J. Machudera, *Fortuna fabrykanckiego rodu Biedermanów jako element produktu turystycznego Łodzi*, Maszynopis pracy magisterskiej, IGMiT Uniwersytet Łódzki, 2007.

²⁶ A. Wachnik, *Fortuna rodu Kindermanów jako element produktu turystycznego Łodzi*. Maszynopis pracy magisterskiej, IGMiT Uniwersytet Łódzki, 2008.

In 1921, Karol Scheibler's and Ludwik's Grohmann's heirs joined both companies and created "Karol Scheibler and Ludwik Grohmann' United Industrial Plant". It survived under different names until the beginning of the 21st c. Its decline, change of function and the revitalization of some buildings made it available for tourism. The remains of Scheibler property are currently the largest area of the tourist penetration of Łódź industrial complexes. The most significant facilities accessible to tourists are listed in Table 1.

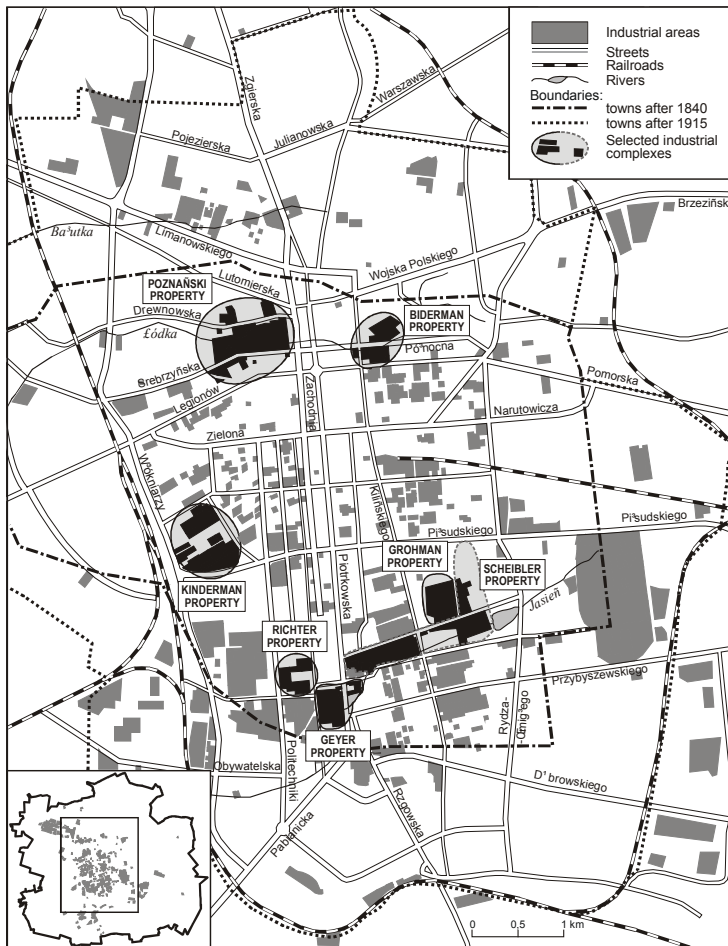


Figure 1. Industrial areas of Łódź in 1986

Source: J. Kotlicka (2008) – revised.

It must also be remembered that the Scheiblers actively participated in the social and cultural life of the city. They financially supported the building of Catholic, Eastern Orthodox churches and synagogues alike; they were the patrons of the Łódź Music Society, and founders and members of the Łódź Christian Charity Society, Municipal Credit Association, Iron Roads Building Society and many other institutions.

Like many other Łódź industrialists, the Scheibler family owned a large building (a goods depot) in the main street of the city (Piotrkowska 11), erected in 1882 according to H.Majewski's design.

The most impressive cemetery construction in Łódź is the Scheiblers' chapel, built in the Neo-gothic style in 1888, at the old Evangelical cemetery in Orodowa Street.

The Scheibler family belong to the greatest builders of industrial Łódź, and the tourist penetration of their "jurydyka" allows us to understand the mechanisms of not only the production organization, but also the life of industrialists and their workers (Bednarski 2012, Wrześcińska 2013).²⁷

The other famous industrialist living in Łódź in the second half of the 19th c. was Izrael Kalmanowicz Poznański, born in Aleksandrów Łódzki (1883–1900), the founder of the Poznański family wealth. Izrael Poznański, who lived with his parents near Stary Rynek in Łódź, in the Jewish district, started his own economic activity from trade. In 1871–1873, he bought plots of land in the Łódka River valley, where he built a textile plant (Fig.1). The fabrics produced there (of rather low quality), were sold to Russia, where he bought cotton.

I.K. Poznański's wealth was growing very fast and towards the end of his life it was worth 7.2 million rubles. Poznański is a classic example of a man, who came into huge wealth over the period of one generation.

He located a complex of factory buildings in the valley of the Łódka River, next to the administration building and his palace - the greatest one in Łódź. Close to the factory, a housing estate for the workers was built. I.K. Poznański funded two hospitals and built three palaces for his children (plus one for himself). Today they accommodate the Museum of Łódź, the Museum of Art and two higher education schools: the Medical University and the Music Academy. Poznański also owned a tenement house at 51 Piotrkowska Street (a goods depot and a shop).

²⁷ K. Wrześcińska, *Fortuna...*, op. cit.; M. Bednarski, *Królestwo...*, op. cit.

Table 1

Urban tourist penetration space on Łódź industrialist families' property (examples)

		Names of Łódź industrialists' families						
Forms of urban tourist penetration space	Industrial facilities	The Scheibler family	The Poznański family	The Geyer family	The Grohman family	The Richter family	The Biederman family	The Kinderman family
		Spinning mill – lofts, restaurants Cotton warehouse – office rooms “Textorial Park”	“Manufaktura” (shopping-gastronomic-entertainment complex)	“White Factory” Central Museum of Textile Industry	Grohman's Barrels (weaving plant gates) – “Gronowalski Crystal Fashion” company	- cotton industry plant – restaurant, pubs - Łódź newspapers offices and printing house	Water tower (protected by law)	Cotton products factory – currently hotel “Fokus”, 21/23 Łąkowa Street
Palaces, villas, residences		(3 buildings) Museum of Cinematography Museum of Art, Palace in Piotrkowska Street (used by the Technical University of Łódź)	(4 buildings) Museum of the City of Łódź, Museum of Art, Medical University Rector's Office, Music Academy Rector's Office	(6 buildings, including:) manor house, residence, 4 villas (e.g. District Medical Chamber, Amplico Life Company)	(6 buildings, including:) Henryk's villa – Museum of Artistic Book, Ludwik's villa	(4 buildings, including:) Scouts' Organisation Headquarters, Technical University of Łódź Rector's Office, International Łódź Fairs Office, Technical University Cooperation Department	(3 buildings) representational University of Łódź buildings	(4 buildings, including:) City Art. Gallery, Polish Teachers' Association Bureau, Appellate Public Prosecutor's Office, private residence

Gardens, parks, green squares	Żródliska I Park, Garden near Herbst's villa	Garden near the palace (Museum of the City of Łódź)	Wł. Reymont Park plus city open-air museum	J. Kiliński Park	Bishop Klepacz Park	park near Alfred Biederman's palace, 19 January Park (Helenów)	-
Houses for workers	"Księży Młyn" estate, workers' housing estate at Zwycięstwa (Victory) Square	Housing estate for workers (Ogrodowa and Drewnowska Street)	Housing estate for workers (Zarzewska Street)	Houses for the family in Tylna Street, Directors' house at 12 Tylna Street	-	Houses for workers (Smugowa Street)	-
Public utility facilities (hospitals, schools, fire brigade, etc.)	Hospital for workers, hospital for children, fire brigade, school and factory shops	Hospitals in Sterlinga and Drewnowska Street, St Joseph Church, cultural site	School, orphanage (Czerwona Street), theatre hall, football pitch, tennis courts	Fire brigade station, founders of the YMCA buildings, German Reformed School (Kosciuszki Avenue)	Co-founders of St Stanislaw Koszka Church (Roman-Catholic Cathedral)	orphanage for Evangelists' children (42 Pólnocna Street)	-
Family tombs in cemeteries in Łódź	Family tomb (old Evangelical cemetery in Ogrodowa Street)	Family tomb at the Jewish cemetery	Family burial space at the old Evangelical cemetery in Ogrodowa Street	Grohman family tomb at the old cemetery in Ogrodowa Street	Richter family tomb at the old cemetery in Ogrodowa Street	Family burial space in the old Evangelical cemetery in Ogrodowa Street	Tombstones at the old Evangelical cemetery in Ogrodowa Street

Sources: MA theses by: A. Wachnik (2008), J. Machudera (2007), D. Skowrońska (2010), M. Rychlik (2010), K. Wrzesińska (2013), A. Szymańska (2008), M. Bednarek (2012), J. Kostecka (2007).

During the interwar period, I.K. Poznański's industrial complex was taken over by an Italian bank for debts, and the main palace became the seat of Łódź voivode. After the Second World War, the factory was nationalized, renamed as "Poltex" and as such it was functioning until the end of the 1990s. In 1990–1998, the factory was being restructured. It was bought by a French developer company "Apsys", which performed a full revitalization and changed the functions of individual buildings. The facility was named "Manufaktura Łódzka" and is currently the largest shopping, cultural and recreational facility in Łódź. It comprises shops, restaurants, a hotel, museums, cinemas, and a large square (a popular meeting place). Changing the functions made it the largest area of the tourist penetration of post-industrial facilities²⁸ (Table 1).

Like other industrialists, I.K. Poznański took part in different forms of community activity.

He was buried in a splendid mausoleum at the Jewish cemetery in Łódź, where one can also find the sarcophaguses of other members of his family.

The first great factory owner in Łódź was Ludwik Geyer (1805–1869), who arrived in the city with his family (mother and father) in 1838, from Saxony. He was an educated man. He received a plot of land in the Łódka settlement from the city authorities (Fig.1), where he built a large weaving and spinning plant, called "White Factory" (for its white-plastered walls), with the first steam engine in Łódź (1840).

Geyer's second factory complex (called "New Factory") was built on the opposite side of Piotrkowska Street, in the valley of the Jasień River. The total area used by Geyer was 32 hectares. After his death, his heirs formed a company called "L.Geyer's Cotton Joint-stock Company" (Towarzystwo Akcyjne WYROBÓW Bawełnianych L. Geyera).

Apart from factory buildings, the Geyer family owned six residential buildings (villas and mansions), a workers' housing estate, a school, an orphanage, a performance hall, a park with a pond on the Jasień River (Table 1), as well as a land estate in Ruda Pabianicka.

After the Second World War, the factory was nationalized (F. Dzierżyński ZPB "Eskimo"), and after 2000 the "New Factory" was demolished. The "White Factory" accommodates Central Museum of Textile Industry and the Łódź open-air museum, while other facilities are being used by various institutions (Table 1).

²⁸ J. Kostecka, *Kompleks...*, op. cit.

The third generation of the Geyer family became polonized / turned Polish (L.Geyer's grandson and nephew were murdered by the Gestapo on 12th December 1939).

The Geyers participated in the social activity in Łódź; Ludwik was the founder of the Łódź Men's Singing Society (1846), as well as a co-founder of the Music Society. He also provided a health care system for his employees.²⁹

The tourist penetration of the facilities which used to belong to the Geyer family makes us familiar with the life and activity of the first industrialists in Łódź, who introduced the steam engine to the industry in this city.

The Geyer family were buried at the old Evangelical cemetery in Łódź, in Orodowa Street.

The group of major Łódź industrialists includes Ludwik Grohmann (1826–1889) and his family. Ludwik was the son of Traugott Grohmann, a weaver from Saxony, who first settled down in Zgierz and in the 1840s moved to Łódź, where he received the "Lamus" production area in the form of perpetual lease (in the future Scheibler's factory would be built nearby) (Fig.1). Ludwik Grohmann developed his fathers cotton spinning mill by adding a weaving plant, first water- and then steam-powered. The modern mechanical weaving plant was accessed through a gate called "Grohmann's Barrels".³⁰

The family owned six residential houses (including two villas), the directors' house, and a vast park. The Grohmanns supported the building of a German gymnasium (school) and the YMCA complex. Leon Grohmann founded a Horse Riding Club, while Ludwik was the chief of the City Fire Brigade. By merging with Scheibler into a joint-stock venture, the Grohmanns held 30% of the shares.

The second and third generation of the Grohmann family were well educated; a part of the family felt Polish. Karol Grohmann died in Katyń.

The Grohmann family tomb is situated at the old Evangelical cemetery in Orodowa Street.

After the factory declined, some of the buildings underwent thorough revitalization and changed their function (Table 1). The spatial proximity, as well as the formal merger of Scheibler's and Grohmann's factories into one company encourages tourist penetration of both factories together.³¹

²⁹ M. Rychlik, *Fortuna...*, op. cit.

³⁰ A. Szymańska, *Fortuna...*, op. cit.; M. Bednarski, *Królestwo...*, op. cit.

³¹ M. Bednarski, *Królestwo...*, op. cit.

The next three examples of urban tourism space are connected with less affluent families – the Richters, Biedermanns and Kindermanns, whose property was located in the western and northern part of Łódź within the 19th c. city limits.

The founder of the Richter family in Łódź was Józef, who came from Bohemia and was a Roman Catholic. He arrived in the city in 1825 and set up a small factory in the village of Wólka (today's Skorupki Street) (Fig.1). Several years later, Józef Richter built a large modern plant and in 1886 he returned to Bohemia, where he died in 1888.

The factory was taken over by his three sons, each of whom built his own factory and a villa. All the buildings were situated in the same part of the city. Currently, the Richters' industrial buildings are either used for different purposes (e.g. as Łódź newspapers offices and a printing mill – 17/18 Skorupki Street) or are being revitalized. The Richters' villas, which are surrounded with gardens or a park, represent the highest cognitive value. They are used by the Technical University Rector's Office and the Foreign Cooperation Office, as well as the International Łódź Fairs Office and the Scout Headquarters.³²

The graves of Józef's sons and their families are situated at the old Catholic cemetery in Ogrodowa Street.

The founder of the Biedermann family in Łódź was Ludwik Karol Robert, who was born in 1836, in Zduńska Wola, in a pastor's family. As a skilled dyer, Robert set up his first factory in the Łódka valley, in 1863 (Fig.1). After his death, his sons set up a company, which they ran together. Its main asset was the R. Biedermann Textile Factory Co. in Łódź, which functioned until 1945.

The sons were very active in public life, for which they were awarded – Alfred Biedermann was awarded the Commander's Cross of the Order of Polonia Restituta in 1928, and Brunon was awarded the Golden Cross of Merit twice (1931 and 1937). Alfred was the founder of joint-stock societies, which developed urban and suburban tram lines in Łódź.

The material traces of the family include three palaces and villas, currently used by different institutions (including the University of Łódź), parks, workers' houses, an orphanage for Evangelists' children, etc. The Biedermanns' memorabilia can be seen in the Museum of the History of Łódź.³³ The Biedermann family tomb is situated in the old Evangelical cemetery in Ogrodowa Street.

³² D. Skowrońska, *Fortuna...*, op. cit.

³³ J. Machudera, *Fortuna...*, op. cit.

An example of the middle class of Łódź industrialists is the Kindermann family,³⁴ started by Franciszek Kindermann, born in Saxony. He was a weaver working on a manually-operated machine. Franciszek's son, also named Franciszek, was born in Łódź in 1837 (died in 1915). He built a wool products factory, which sparked off the economic development of his family (nine children). His sons, Gustaw and Julian, opened two factories, in Łąkowa and Struga Streets. The former one was revitalized and today it is one of Łódź hotels arranged in post-industrial buildings (The Fokus Hotel).

The Kindermann family owned four villas and palaces, two of which are situated in Piotrkowska Street, one in Wólczańska Street and one in Ruda Pabianicka. All but the last one can be visited. The Kindermanns' graves are situated in the old Evangelical cemetery in Ogrodowa Street.

4. Summary and conclusions

The facts presented in this article have led us to several interesting observations and conclusions. The first one refers to the positive verification of the hypothesis which assumed that the formation and development of the tourist penetration space in a large industrial city is the result of making the remains of former industrialists' property (mainly the 19th c.) accessible. Łódź is a very good example here, and the tourist mega-product ("the fortunes of the promised land" – following the traces of the makers of industrial Łódź), proposed in the Strategy for Tourism Development in Łódź,³⁵ was presented in the MA theses mentioned above. The space of the former industrialists' fortunes, which have been made available for penetration, should be regarded as new tourism space of the city.

Analysing the traces of seven Łódź industrialist families' property made it possible to capture the recurring regularities in the buildings and facilities which made up their wealth (Table 1):

- factory buildings – either destroyed or revitalized (often very thoroughly), they have changed their function becoming hotels, high standard offices, museums, or residential buildings ("lofts");

³⁴ A. Wachnik, *Fortuna...*, op. cit.

³⁵ J. Kaczmarek, S. Liszewski, B. Włodarczyk, *Strategia rozwoju turystyki w Łodzi*, Łódzkie Towarzystwo Naukowe, Łódź 2006, p. 129.

- close to the factories, there are the residences of their owners and family members. They include palaces, villas, residences or houses. Building stylish residences was very popular among Łódź industrialists. Generally, they have survived in a relatively good state (e.g. buildings with stained glass intact) and have been transformed into museums, representational buildings, seats of important institutions, etc. The tradition of having many children, which was also shown in this article, resulted in the fact that there are several dozen residences in Łódź (of course in different state of repair), which may be regarded as a characteristic mark of the tourist penetration space (Stefański 2013).³⁶
- larger palaces and villas were surrounded with parks or decorative gardens. Hence, Łódź has substantial green areas incorporated into the compact structure of the city centre;
- the spaces directly related to the families of Łódź industrialists include the oldest, especially 19th c. cemeteries. The majority of wealthy families have their tombs, burial plots or even chapels at the old Evangelical cemetery in Łódź, or the Jewish cemetery, and much fewer at the old Catholic cemetery;
- industrialists' families built housing estates for their workers, hospitals, schools, orphanages or fire facilities. The industrialists financially contributed to the building of churches of various denominations, tram lines, sports clubs, singing societies, etc.

The spatial layout of the industrial estates in Łódź is very interesting. The largest industrialists created a clearly isolated “kingdoms” / “jurydykas” (Scheibler, Grohmann, Poznański, Geyer), which are fascinating enclaves within the city. The less wealthy cared for at least the close distance between the factory and the residence.

A particular role in the functioning of industrial Łódź was played by Piotrkowska Street, which was the main “showroom” of the city. Therefore, every notable industrialist had to have a villa or another residence, or a large tenement house there.

Due to all those regions, it is not possible to understand Łódź without knowing the activity of its industrialists. Finding out more about it may guarantee an increasing and better organized and developed urban space of tourist penetration.

³⁶ K. Stefański, *Łódzkie wille fabrykanckie*, Łódzkie Towarzystwo Naukowe, Łódź 2013, p. 415.

Just like Krakow or Toruń cannot be understood without knowing their history, Łódź cannot be understood without penetrating the space created and developed by the families of Łódź industrialists.

Therefore, it is so important to make new urban tourist penetration spaces accessible.

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MIEJSKA PRZESTRZEŃ PENETRACJI TURYSTYCZNEJ – STUDIUM PRZYPADKU MIASTA PRZEMYSŁOWEGO

Streszczenie

W pracy zdefiniowano pojęcie „miejska przestrzeń penetracji turystycznej” a następnie zidentyfikowano ten typ przestrzeni na obszarze miasta przemysłowego (Łódź). Badania dowiodły, że penetracji turystycznej podlegają tu głównie obszary zagospodarowane w XIX wieku przez fabrykantów, którzy budowali to miasto.

Słowa kluczowe: przestrzeń turystyczna, przestrzeń penetracji turystycznej, miejska przestrzeń penetracji turystycznej, miasto Łódź

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EVOLUTION OF TOURIST ACCOMMODATION IN LOWER SILESIA

Abstract

This paper presents the results of research on quantitative and structural changes concerning accommodation base in Lower Silesia in years 2000–2012. A dynamic development of hotel facilities and a strong decline in other kinds of accommodation facilities have been discovered. When searching for factors determining such changes it appeared that the activity of both state and local administration does not promote small investors in the accommodation services industry.

Keywords: tourist accommodation establishment, factors conditioning changes in accommodation facilities, Lower Silesia

Introduction

Accommodation services, next to transport, constitute the most basic, widespread, almost endogenous for tourism, form of catering to tourist traffic. Accommodation services are a key factor for tourists, who vary considerably in motivation, aspirations and financial resources. Therefore tourist-receiving areas (towns, communes, regions, countries) on their way to benefit from tourism try to create suitable conditions for the development of accommodation, which is always an important element of any tourist product.

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Lower Silesia is one of the Polish regions offering substantial tourist attractions and a well-developed tourist infrastructure. Its accommodation base undergoes constant qualitative and quantitative transformations.

The purpose of this article is to determine the volume and structure of these transformations. At the same time, it attempts to identify more important factors determining the changes.

The analysis of the volume and structure of tourist accommodation base in Lower Silesia has been based on statistical data derived from publications of the Central Statistical Office in Wrocław concerning accommodation facilities in the Lower Silesian Voivodship. The time span which the analysis covers is a consequence of the latest administrative division of Poland, which occurred in 1999. Therefore, for the purpose of comparison of data over time, the analysis encompasses the changes between 2000 and 2012 in 5-year intervals, years 2005 and 2010 are enumerated in statistic tables separately. In order to analyze factors which condition the changes both countrywide and regional documents were used, as well as other tourist-related sources.

1. The characteristics of changes in tourist accommodation base in Lower Silesia in years 2000–2012

In the analyzed period of twelve years there occurred significant qualitative and quantitative changes in tourist accommodation base in Lower Silesia (Table 1).

Table 1

Tourist accommodation facilities in the Lower Silesian Voivodship (“dolnośląskie voivodship”) in years 2000–2012

Accommodation facilities	2000	2005	2010	2012	2012/2010 %
TOTAL	812	712	726	946	116.5
Hotels	112	146	200	218	194.6
Motels	4	7	6	6	150.0
Boarding houses	85	47	58	59	69.4
Other hotel facilities	.	45	99	94	.
Excursion hostels	23	8	5	6	26.1
Shelters	60	44	44	41	68.3

Accommodation facilities	2000	2005	2010	2012	2012/2010 %
Holiday centers	169	133	104	92	54.4
Holiday youth centers	15	12	9	.	.
Training-recreational centers	57	52	43	35	61.4
Creative arts centers	7	6	4	4	57.1
Complexes of tourist cottages	44	19	22	13	29.5
Camping sites	10	14	10	13	130.0
Tent camp sites	14	7	4	6	42.9
Weekend and holiday accommodation establishments	19	10	.	.	.
Health establishments	16	11	12	.	.
Rooms for rent	.	.	.	157	.
Agrotourism lodgings	.	.	.	62	.
Others unqualified	177	151	106	140	79.1

Source: self-study on the basis of: *Tourism in dolnośląskie voivodship in the year 2004–2007*, Statistical Office in Wrocław, Wrocław 2008, p. 17; *Tourism in dolnośląskie voivodship in the year 2008–2011*, Statistical Office in Wrocław, Wrocław 2012, p. 30; *Statistical Yearbook of Dolnośląskie Voivodship 2013*, Statistical Office in Wrocław, Wrocław 2008, p. 243.

The total number of accommodation facilities grew slightly, but there occurred large structural differences. The number of hotels nearly doubled, two new motels and three camping sites appeared. For the remaining types of establishments there happened a strong regression in volume. The most visible decline concerns excursion hostels, complexes of tourist cottages and tent camp sites. The number of holiday centers, creative arts centers, training-recreational centers, boarding houses and shelters (which include shelters, youth hostels and school youth hostels) diminished too, which indicates that the direction tourist accommodation establishments in the region are moving in is towards demanding, but affluent tourists. Business tourism is a good example of such a segment of the tourist market.

The observed changes in the volume and structure of accommodation facilities make it necessary to check the impact they have on the changes in the volume and structure of bed places (Table 2).

Table 2

Beds in tourist accommodation facilities in the Lower Silesian Voivodship
("dolnośląskie voivodship") in years 2000–2012

Accommodation facilities – bed places	2000	2005	2010	2012	2012/2000 %
TOTAL	53518	45631	49067	59072	110.4
Hotels	10977	13594	18419	22330	203.4
Motels	187	419	244	242	129.4
Boarding houses	3005	1885	2481	2390	79.5
Other hotel facilities	.	2017	5065	5154	.
Excursion hostels	1294	651	582	622	48.1
Shelters	3105	2373	2292	813	26.2
Holiday centers	12360	12360	6792	6719	54.4
Holiday youth centers	1373	1071	810	.	.
Training-recreational centers	3862	3452	3138	2661	68.9
Creative arts centers	216	175	115	112	51.9
Complexes of tourist cottages	2268	1033	917	611	26.9
Camping sites	811	1608	1153	1699	209.5
Tent camp sites	1390	1024	804	457	32.9
Weekend and holiday accommodation establishments	1219	583	.	.	.
Hostels	.	.	494	717	.
Health establishments	3549	1395	1539	.	.
Rooms for rent	.	.	.	3316	.
Agrotourism lodgings	.	.	.	1036	.
Others unqualified	7902	5623	2224	8700	110.1

Source: self-study on the basis of: *Tourism in dolnośląskie voivodship in the year 2004–2007*, Statistical Office in Wrocław, Wrocław 2008, p. 17; *Tourism in dolnośląskie voivodship in the year 2008–2011*, Statistical Office in Wrocław, Wrocław 2012, p. 31; *Statistical Yearbook of Dolnośląskie Voivodship 2013*, Statistical Office in Wrocław, Wrocław 2008, p. 243–244.

As it could be expected, changes in the volume and structure of establishments are accompanied by similar changes in volume and structure of bed places. There are, however, some differences. For example a higher percentage increase of beds than establishments concerns hotels (by 8.8%) and camping sites (by 79.5%), whereas the growth of the number of motels (by 50%) is accompanied

by a smaller (by 29.4%) increase in the number of beds. Therefore, in the case of hotels, in the period of time the research covers mainly large establishments were opened and small ones were closed, but in the case of motels an opposite phenomenon took place.

It is also interesting to compare the quantitative and structural changes of establishments and bed places to the number of guests staying (Table 3).

Table 3

Guests staying (in thousands) in tourist accommodation facilities in the Lower Silesian Voivodship (“dolnośląskie voivodship”) in years 2000–2012

Accommodation facilities – Guests to accommodation establishments	2000	2005	2010	2012	2012/2000 %
TOTAL	1515.3	1740.0	1895.5	2186.2	144.3
Hotels	652.3	891.2	1056.8	1301.1	199.5
Motels	22.8	39.7	20.6	19.3	84.6
Boarding houses	43.0	41.7	54.7	51.5	119.8
Other hotel facilities	.	92.9	204.6	195.6	.
Excursion hostels	34.5	27.1	35.8	44.2	128.1
Shelters	107.3	80.1	66.6	22.9	21.3
Holiday centers	229.4	195.5	142.5	145.0	63.2
Holiday youth centers	16.8	21.7	13.7	.	.
Training-recreational centers	97.0	117.2	102.8	94.6	97.5
Creative arts centers	4.8	4.1	2.4	1.7	35.4
Complexes of tourist cottages	25.5	10.5	7.7	6.3	24.7
Camping sites	9.7	16.2	12.2	20.3	209.3
Tent camp sites	4.4	1.6	0.3	1.8	40.9
Weekend and holiday accommodation establishments	15.9	6.7	.	.	.
Hostels	.	.	28.0	43.9	.
Health establishments	59.5	26.1	26.9	.	.
Rooms for rent	.	.	.	55.8	.
Agrotourism lodgings	.	.	.	9.5	.
Others unqualified	192.4	167.7	119.9	172.7	89.8

Source: self-study on the basis of: *Tourism in dolnośląskie voivodship in the year 2004–2007*, Statistical Office in Wrocław, Wrocław 2008, p. 18; *Tourism in dolnośląskie voivodship in the year 2008–2011*, Statistical Office in Wrocław, Wrocław 2012, p. 32; *Statistical Yearbook of Dolnośląskie Voivodship 2013*, Statistical Office in Wrocław, Wrocław 2008, p.244.

It appears that in the period covered, the increase of the total number of guests in tourist accommodation establishments of Lower Silesia was significantly higher than the growth of the total number of establishments and bed places offered. There are, however, important differences when the comparison is done by establishment types. A similar increase of establishments number, bed places and guests concerns hotels and camping sites. On the other hand, the development in the category of motels was not followed by the growth of the number of their guests. An opposite phenomenon is visible in the case of boarding houses and excursion hostels. The fall in the number of accommodation offered is accompanied by the growth of the number of guests. In other kinds of accommodation facilities there is a consistent regression in the number of establishments, bed places and guests.

The group of guests is not internally homogenous. These are people who spend one night in an establishment and those who stay a few days and more. The number of overnight stays in Lower Silesian establishments in years 2000–2012 is provided in Table 4.

Table 4

Overnight stays (in thousands) in tourist accommodation establishments in the Lower Silesian Voivodship (“dolnośląskie voivodship”) in years 2000–2012

Accommodation facilities – Overnight stays	2000	2005	2010	2012	2012/2000 %
TOTAL	5479.9	5479.9	4814.3	5718.1	104.3
Hotels	1306.9	1826.6	2050.6	2525.5	193.2
Motels	28.4	58.3	23.5	22.3	78.5
Boarding houses	201.2	151.4	183.1	176.5	87.7
Other hotel facilities	.	.	536.8	524.9	.
Excursion hostels	107.1	71.8	66.9	78.7	73.5
Shelters	242.9	179.6	154.9	128.4	52.9
Holiday centers	1193.5	799.6	636.5	654.1	54.8
Holiday youth centers	98.8	105.0	62.7	.	.
Training-recreational centers	376.1	391.8	341.4	300.1	79.8
Creative arts centers	15.3	12.5	8.4	5.4	35.3
Complexes of tourist cottages	119.4	48.3	25.4	21.4	17.9
Camping sites	22.8	38.7	26.1	40.1	175.9
Tent camp sites	11.5	4.3	1.0	5.6	48.7

Accommodation facilities – Overnight stays	2000	2005	2010	2012	2012/2000 %
Weekend and holiday accommodation establishments	64.3	33.5	.	.	.
Hostels	.	.	55.3	86.0	.
Health establishments	1136.4	231.5	267.8	.	.
Rooms for rent	.	.	.	163.5	.
Agrotourism lodgings	.	.	.	33.2	.
Others unqualified	555.3	1334.4	373.9	952.4	171.5

Source: self-study on the basis of: *Tourism in dolnośląskie voivodship in the year 2004–2007*, Statistical Office in Wrocław, Wrocław 2008, p. 18; *Tourism in dolnośląskie voivodship in the year 2008–2011*, Statistical Office in Wrocław, Wrocław 2012, p. 33; *Statistical Yearbook of Dolnośląskie Voivodship 2013*, Statistical Office in Wrocław, Wrocław 2008, p. 244.

The largest number of overnight stays in the period covered occurred in hotels, where the highest dynamics was observable. A smaller, but still significant growth in the number of stays concerns also tent camp sites and unclassified facilities. In the remaining categories there occurred a distinct, or even sharp regress.

The culmination of this analysis is determining the degree of use of bed places in tourist accommodation establishments (Table 5).

Table 5

The degree of use of bed places in tourist accommodation establishments in the Lower Silesian Voivodship (“dolnośląskie voivodship”) in years 2000–2012 (in %)

Accommodation facilities – Degree of use of bed places	2000	2005	2010	2012
TOTAL	28.1	32.9	26.9	26.5
Hotels	32.6	36.8	30.5	31.0
Motels	41.6	38.1	26.4	25.3
Boarding houses	18.3	22.0	20.2	20.2
Other hotel facilities	.	.	29.0	27.9
Excursion hostels	22.7	30.2	31.5	34.7
Shelters	21.4	20.7	18.5	43.3
Holiday centers	26.5	17.7	25.7	26.7
Holiday youth centers
Training-recreational centers	26.7	31.1	29.8	30.9

Accommodation facilities – Degree of use of bed places	2000	2005	2010	2012
Creative arts centers	19.4	19.6	20.0	13.2
Complexes of tourist cottages
Camping sites
Tent camp sites
Weekend and holiday accommodation establishments
Hostels
Health establishments	87.7	45.5	47.7	.
Rooms for rent	.	.	.	13.5
Agrotourism lodgings	.	.	.	8.8
Others unqualified

Source: self-study on the basis of: *Tourism in dolnośląskie voivodship in the year 2004–2007*, Statistical Office in Wrocław, Wrocław 2008, p. 18; *Tourism in dolnośląskie voivodship in the year 2008–2011*, Statistical Office in Wrocław, Wrocław 2012, p. 33; *Statistical Yearbook of Dolnośląskie Voivodship 2013*, Statistical Office in Wrocław, Wrocław 2008, p.244.

Information included in the table above shows that in year 2012, the last of those analyzed, the highest degree of bed places use occurred in shelters and excursion hostels, and the lowest one agrotourism lodgings, creative arts centers and rooms for rent. In other facilities – hotels, motels and boarding houses the degree of use was between 20% and 31%. Analyzing this phenomenon dynamically it is possible to see a fluctuation of a few percent in the stage years studied in most types of establishments. However, the clearly progressive fall in the use of beds in boarding houses and its surprisingly large growth in shelters in years 2000–2012 must be noticed.

To sum up the conclusions made in this part of the study it must be said that these were hotels that developed most dynamically in Lower Silesia, especially the high category ones. This is confirmed in Table 6.

In the same period of time there appeared a strong quantitative regress of establishments catering to less affluent tourists, such as excursion hostels, complexes of tourist cottages, tent camp sites, holiday centers, creative arts centers, training-recreational centers, boarding houses and shelters, which include youth hostels and school youth hostels. The fall in their number resulted in the decrease of bed places and guests using them.

Table 6

Hotel facilities in Lower Silesia (“dolnośląskie voivodship”) in years 2004–2011
by category

Hotel facilities - categories	2004	2005	2008	2010	2011	2011/2004 %
*****	-	-	2	4	5	250.0*
****	11	11	14	18	18	163.6
***	55	58	81	95	102	185.5
**	39	40	46	46	41	105.1
*	26	27	27	30	29	111.5
In the process of being categorized	17	10	8	7	7	41.2

* 2011/2008

Source: self-study on the basis of: *Tourism in dolnośląskie voivodship in the year 2004–2007*, Statistical Office in Wrocław, Wrocław 2008, p. 59; *Tourism in dolnośląskie voivodship in the year 2008–2011*, Statistical Office in Wrocław, Wrocław 2012, p. 107.

Finally it must be emphasized that making an attempt to analyze quantitative and structural changes over the period of a dozen years encountered a serious information barrier resulting from numerous changes in the system of qualifying establishments in the Statistical Office’s publications, which makes some data incomparable for the period covered by this study. It made the author resign from analyzing some interesting phenomena.

2. Factors conditioning changes in the accommodation establishments base.

Assuming that conditioning factors are circumstances influencing a given phenomenon, in this case the evolution of tourist accommodation base in Lower Silesia, all the factors were divided into two groups:

- factors influencing the demand for accommodation services and, indirectly, the functioning and development of accommodation establishments base (demand factors),
- factors influencing the supply of accommodation services (supply factors).

From the viewpoint of the evolution of accommodation base in Lower Silesia demand factors may be divided into those that spring from the ambient and those which come from the internal environment of the region.

Demand factors resulting from the **ambient** are mainly the policy of the country with relation to tourism aimed directly or indirectly at the development of tourist flow in Lower Silesia.

An example element of such policy is the government document “Directions of Tourism Development till year 2015” accepted by the Council of Ministers on 26 September 2008. This document formulates four priority areas, one of which was aimed at affecting tourist demand. This pro-demand priority was called “marketing support”. It encompasses two operational objectives:

III.1. Improvement of tourist information system,

III.2. Boosting the effectiveness of marketing activities in tourism.

The sense of the first operational objective is to pursue the dynamic development of existing systems of tourist information and modern IT services adapted to the ever-changing needs of the market. This meant, among other things, including the system into the international one in the face of UEFA’s granting to Poland and Ukraine rights to organize the finals of the European Football Championships EURO 2012. In order to realize this goal two tasks were formulated:

- 1) the development and extension of an integrated system of tourist information,
- 2) incorporating modern technologies into the development of the system of tourist information and reservation.

The second operational goal shows, that the development of marketing should be characterized by the integration of actions in the vertical and horizontal layout and be especially based on the Polish Tourist Organization, as well as the Regional and Local Tourist Organizations. Three objectives are to help reach this aim:

- 1) supporting the creation of competing tourist products,
- 2) building of an integrated system of tourist marketing,
- 3) the development of effective instruments of tourist marketing.

There are reasons to positively evaluate the realization of the demand priority. According to research carried out by the Institute of Tourism and Active Group in 2012, the number of arrivals of international tourists to Poland was estimated to be 14.8 million, that is 11 percent more than in 2011. Only to par-

ticipate in “EURO 2012” 677 thousand tourists from 123 countries came to our country. The Department of Sport and Tourism estimates that the income from tourism related to the tournament amounted to 1.12 billion zloty.¹ Undoubtedly, such a large increase in the number of international tourists arriving in Poland had some impact on the growth of stays in Lower Silesian hotels in year 2012, if only for the fact that Wrocław was one of the host cities of the tournament.

Demand factors springing from **the internal environment of the region** include mostly the policy towards tourism carried out by the authorities of the region. A good example is “Update to the Tourism Development Program for the Lower Silesian Voivodship” created by the Polish Agency for Tourism Development in 2009. Five priorities were defined in it:²

Priority 1. The development of products,

Priority 2. Marketing support,

Priority 3. The improvement of quality infrastructure in the region,

Priority 4. Human capital,

Priority 5. Institutional support in tourist subregions.

Within priority 2. “Marketing support” four operational objectives were formulated, three of which have a pro-demand character:

- Objective 2.1. Implementing a comprehensive system of marketing research and tourist traffic monitoring in the region,
- Objective 2.2. Building the system of e-tourism in Lower Silesia,
- Objective 2.3. Running a campaign promoting the tourist offer of the region.

Priority 3. “Building the system of e-tourism in Lower Silesia” encompasses four operational objectives, one of which, Objective 3.4. “the improvement of modern systems of orientation” has a pro-demand character.

Priority 4. “Human capital” is also composed of four operational objectives, one of which, Objective 4.3. “Preparing the inhabitants of the province to receive tourists” has also got features of a pro-demand objective.

¹ www.propertynews.pl (accessed 6.03.2014).

² *Aktualizacja Programu Rozwoju Turystyki dla Województwa Dolnośląskiego*, Polska Agencja Rozwoju Turystyki, Warszawa 2009 “Update to the Tourism Development Program for the Lower Silesian Voivodship”, Polish Agency for Tourism Development, 2009, <http://www.dip.dolnyslask.pl/683/49382/program-rozwoju-turystyki-dla-wojewodztwa-dolnoslaskiego.html> (accessed 6.03.2014).

In order to realise the objectives mentioned above, a number of actions have been defined that should make Lower Silesia interesting to potential domestic and international tourists, have them visit the region and, in consequence, use accommodation services.

Results of a research on tourist traffic, carried out in 2012 by BIOSTAT³ via direct and telephone surveys on large groups of respondents, show the effects of the pro-demand activity of the authorities of the Lower Silesian Voivodship. 18.4% potential tourists from Greater Poland, Silesian, Opole, Lubusz and Lower Silesian Voivodships who took part in the survey, did not visit Lower Silesia in years 2010–2012. Respondents who did visit the region (about 50% of total) spent time there once or twice. They stayed mostly in hotles, motels and boarding houses. Foreign tourists constituted about 10% of guests in Lower Silesian accommodation facilities. The survey did not include high school or college students. Results of research, based in some part on the data from Central Statistical Office, allow to conclude that the volume and structure of tourist traffic in Lower Silesia is moderately satisfactory.

Moving to the evaluation of **supply factors** in accommodation services it has been assumed that they have their sources mostly in the internal environment of the region. Therefore, going back again to the regional document “Update to the Tourism Development Program for the Lower Silesian Voivodship”, it must be stated that operational objectives of pro-supply character are mentioned in:

Priority 3. “the improvement of quality infrastructure in the region”,

Operational objective 3.2. “Revitalization, revalorization of areas endangered by material and social degradation to serve recreational, cultural goals and activate development”,

Activity 3.2.2. “Implementing solutions which enrich the urban infrastructure of tourist information and its supplementary base on the basis of revitalization and revalorization of industrial facilities processes, among others hostels – boarding houses with an inexpensive accommodation product.

³ *Badanie ruchu turystycznego na Dolnym Śląsku w ujęciu powiatowym i subregionalnym wg Aktualizacji Programu Rozwoju Turystyki dla Województwa Dolnośląskiego*. Raport końcowy, BIOSTAT, Rybnik – Wrocław 2012 www.turystyka.dolnyślask.pl/i (Research on tourist traffic in Lower Silesia by powiats and subregions acc.to “Update to the Tourism Development Program for the Lower Silesian Voivodship” Polish Agency for Tourism Development, 2009) (accessed 6.03.2014).

Priority 5. “The institutional support in tourist subregions”.

Operational objective 5.1. “Organizational strengthening in tourist subregions”,

Activity 5.1.2. “Stimulating the development of the non-government sector and the tourist industry, which includes, among others, creating a system of investment incentives”,

Operational objective 5.2. “ Supporting the creation of co-operation platforms within the PPP (public-private partnership) formula,

Activity 5.2.2. “Stimulating the development of tourist investment and realisation of projects in the PPP formula”, including, among others:

- consulting for tourist sector businesses,
- creating legal procedures making PPP possible.

“Update to the Tourism Development Program for the Lower Silesian Voivodship” formulates five projects, which together include 19 operational objectives and 96 key activities within them. Therefore it must be said that the authorities of the province treat the development of tourist accommodation base as a marginal issue and leave it almost entirely to investors and already existing establishments.

Conclusion

This analysis of the evolution of accommodation base in Lower Silesia in years 2000–2012 shows that even if the total number of accommodation facilities grew slightly, there appeared important structural changes. The number of hotels, especially those of high classification, almost doubled, and yet there occurred a strong decline in the number of the remaining types of facilities, mostly those used by less affluent tourists and young people. As a derivative of these transformations, changes in the number of bed places occurred – a steep increase in hotels and a dip in cheap accommodation establishments. As a consequence, the volume of tourists staying in specific types of facilities changed respectively – it nearly doubled in hotels and fell considerably in other types of establishments. The interesting thing is that the aforementioned transformation did not inspire revolutionary changes in the degree of bed places use. It remains similar in all kinds of facilities, which may prove that these were not changes in demand that brought about the changes, but rather a lack of relevant steps taken in the micro-

and macro-environment. Indeed, the analysis of program documents concerning the development of tourism in Poland and Lower Silesia carried out by the author of this paper, however simplified, leaves no place for doubt that tourist accommodation base is treated marginally. Steps taken by the government and local administration so far are hardly creative with relation to potential and existing accommodation establishments. They refer mostly to quality aimed policy,⁴ which includes classifying, categorizing, listing and controlling accommodation facilities.⁵ Regional and local authorities are mostly interested, for ambition reasons, in creating conditions for large-scale hotel investment. Small investors, who plan to build new facilities, modernize or adapt old, ruined ones to provide less representative accommodation services, are usually left alone. The results of the research carried out in this study prove it distinctly. It may be therefore stated, that in the scope of accommodation products there is a tendency to depart from the educational and pedagogic function of tourism in order to achieve the highest profitability and fulfill ambitions.

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⁴ *Jakość usług turystycznych*, A. Panasiuk (ed.), Wydawnictwo Naukowe Uniwersytetu Szczecińskiego, Szczecin 2007, p. 89–96.

⁵ Ustawa z dnia 29 sierpnia 1997 roku o usługach turystycznych, Dz. U. 2004, nr 223, poz. 2268 z późn. zm., www.propertynews.pl.

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EWOLUCJA TURYSTYCZNEJ BAZY NOCLEGOWEJ NA DOLNYM ŚLĄSKU I JEJ UWARUNKOWANIA

Streszczenie

W opracowaniu zaprezentowano wyniki badania przemian ilościowych i strukturalnych bazy noclegowej na Dolnym Śląsku w latach 2000–2012. Stwierdzono dynamiczny rozwój bazy hotelowej i silny regres pozostałych rodzajów bazy noclegowej. Poszukując uwarunkowań tych przemian stwierdzono, że zarówno działalność administracji rządowej, jak i samorządowej nie ma charakteru kreatywnego w stosunku do drobnych inwestorów w branży usług noclegowych.

Słowa kluczowe: turystyczna baza noclegowa, uwarunkowania przemian bazy noclegowej, Dolny Śląsk

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MUSEUMS AND THE COMMERCIALISATION DILEMMA OF THE CULTURAL INSTITUTIONS

Abstract

Today we witness some significant changes observed in the nonprofit sectors of culture, including growing links between traditional mission of museum and the free market economy. Also in Poland the last two decades have been seen as a period of visible transitions in museums management, reflecting the need to response economical challenge and to meet expectations of new generation of visitors. Museums had to dust down their glass cases, radically change their role and management policy. As a result of the new mission principles, commercialization have been adapted in many state supported museums, treated as a necessity to survive. Museums are opening their door wider than ever before, changing the image of merely “cabinets of curiosities” into new institutions ready to respond to the mixed functions as conservation, scientific research, exhibition, education and entertainment – all for public benefit. As a result, museums have souvenir shops, restaurants, cafes, pubs – generating revenue that is competitive to the state funding and their admission fares. Commercialism in the nonprofit “temples of art and science” sounds like paradox. This phenomenon is caused by factors both on the demand and supply side of market. Unfortunately, too many functions could lead to spatial conflicts and tensions in priorities of museum mission. However, as our research results showed, the potential dilemma could be solved successfully by a proper balance achieved between economy pressure and the uniqueness of museum role. A discussion evaluating these findings concludes that although commercialism of the museums sounds like paradox and cultural institutions could not treat the economy results as their priority, but when bearing in mind their primary distinguished mission and specific function, we should not forget about opportunities of making business with the aim to shape a rational budget.

Keywords: museums and economy, commercialization of culture

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Introduction

In Poland massive change has been recently occurring in the nonprofit sector of culture, including growing links between traditional mission of museum and the free market economy. Today it is not isolated fact; growing commercialization is seen not only in contemporary museums but in various other, traditionally nonprofit institutions, as universities.¹ It is world wide experience that museums have not only souvenir shops, but also restaurants, cafes, pubs – generating revenue that could enrich their income from state funding and admission fares.²

The aim of this paper is to present the relationship between museum role and mission, public demands and commercial services offered by museum (catering, retail and others). In theory the conflict of interests might be clear: unprofitable but socially desirable museum services are limited by profit-making activities. Commercial services use the same resources as are crucial to other museum functions (culture, science, education): restaurant or shop located in the museum share the same management, staff, buildings, space and equipment. These commercial activities are often targeting quite different consumer group, as museum restaurants are often opened later and in different hours than admission time to the museum. Could these potential dilemmas be solved by a proper balance between economy pressure and the uniqueness of museum role? What is the public opinion on these issues? The answers for these questions are important as the further process of changes in the traditional function and program of the museum is inevitable. The principles concerning a new role of museums are described in ICOMOS (International Council on Monuments and Sites) document “A Cultural Tourism Charter”³ and in the Polish law

¹ S. Awoniyi, *The Contemporary Museum and Leisure: Recreation as Museum Function*, “Museum Management and Curatorship” 2001, Vol. 19, iss. 3, pp. 297–308; B.S. Frey, *Superstar museums: An Economic Analysis*, “Journal of Cultural Economics” 1998, Vol. 22, Kluwer Academic Publishers, pp. 113–125.

² B.A. Weisbrod, *The Commercial Transformation of the Nonprofit Sector*, Press Syndicate of the University of Cambridge, UK, 2000, pp. 23–38; F.C. McLean, *Marketing in museum: A conceptual analysis*, “Museum Management and Curatorship” 1993, Vol. 12, iss. 1, pp. 11–27; S. Salwood, *Creativity and innovation in the cultural economy: museums, galleries and visual arts*, in: *Creativity, Innovation and the Cultural Economy*, A.C. Pratt, P. Jeffcut (eds.), Routledge Studies and Global Competition, New York 2009, pp. 276–301; Special Report: Museums, “The Economist” 2013, issued on the December 21st, pp 1–10.

³ <http://www.icomos.org/tourism> (December 2013).

on museums changes, expecting all museums to initiate commercial activities. At present, when museums annual expenses are covered by the state support only in 60%-65% and by admission fees merely in 10%–15%, it is an urgent need to fulfill about 20% - 30% of their budget by income obtained from other sources.⁴

This paper is focused on examining the phenomenon of new commercial functions of museums and the opinion on these recent changes expressed by museum visitors. The first section is about traditional museum meaning and mission in the context of history of museums in Europe and the new role of museum in the contemporary society, while the next section considers the commercial services in the newly opened museums in Warsaw. The third section is an attempt to summarize and discuss some controversial issues, and consider possibilities of achieving a functional and spatial consensus.

1. Research study: material, questions and methods

The research findings presented here are the result of theoretical and field studies conducted in the years 2012 - 2013 in the selected museums in Warsaw. As still little attention has been paid to commercialization of nonprofit cultural institutions in the literature, examining new functions of museums seemed to us a good theme of our research.⁵ Our research was focused on the commercial services offered in the museums (catering, retail, others) and opinions about museum mission and function - expressed by their visitors. This paper deals with a selected four cases, museums recently opened: the Copernicus Science Centre, the Museum of History of Polish Jews, the Museum of Warsaw Uprising and the Museum of Sport and Tourism. It should be noted that not all of surveyed museums have been already registered to the database of the National Institute of Musicology and Conservation in Poland (NiMOZ).⁶ Nevertheless, as the material of our study, we decided to consider all museums established after the year 2000, located in Warsaw and opened to the public. Our field works encompassed

⁴ <http://www.nimoz.pl> (December 2013).

⁵ One of the unique book on this subject in Poland is a recently published work by A. Panasiuk, *Marketing w turystyce i rekreacji*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN, Warszawa 2013 (*Marketing in Tourism and Recreation*).

⁶ <http://www.nimoz.pl> (December 2013).

site visits, participant observations and structured interviews with visitors, undertaken *face to face, in situ*. Our interest was focused on commercial functions of museums as catering or retail services, considered in the context of museum primary functions. We were interested in several questions as: How much have the contemporary function and mission of museum been changed? What are the limits between the traditional role of nonprofit cultural institution and commercial services? What are the visitor's opinions on the new program of museums? To answer all these questions a methodological variety in the research study and analyses of material was necessary, both qualitative and quantitative methods were used, primary and secondary data studied.⁷

This survey was an integral segment of Ds-144 project and has been carried out at the Faculty of Tourism and Recreation, Joseph Pilsudski University of Physical Education in Warsaw, supported by a grant from the Ministry of Science and Higher Education (project scheduled for 2011–2014).

2. The traditional meaning and contemporary mission of museum

A historical analysis of museum role in European civilization shows, that its function evolved within over the past twenty two centuries. At the beginning museums which have existed in Ancient Greece and Rome ('museon') were places dedicated to gods, contemplating and learning. In the eighteen century they developed a role of prestigious private collections of curiosities and artefacts, founded by higher class and not opened for public. The first public museum in Europe was the British Museum created in 1759 by Sir Hans Sloane, however at first opened only for middle and upper class members. This time museums were created by 'elite for the elite'. The turning point was the nineteenth century, which brought another change with establishment of numerous museums aimed for public benefit, opened in grand edifices and managed by professional staff.

The scale of museums popularity could be described by statistic data: today there are more than 55 000 museums in 202 countries, some visited by more than 10 million visitors per year (as Palace Museum in Beijing which annually draws almost 12 million tourists). Among the most visited museums in the world

⁷ M. Finn, M. Elliott-White, *Tourism & Leisure Research Methods*, Pearson Longman Harlow 2000, pp. 19–54

are listed: Louvre in Paris, France (9,720,260), Metropolitan Museum of Art in New York (6,115,881), British Museum in London (5,575,946), Tate Modern in London (5,304,710), National Gallery in London (5,163,902) and Vatican Museums in Vatican City Rome (5,064,546). Museums visitors in EU countries are mainly well-educated, middle aged and the middle-class of background. The richer and better educated society has more museum enthusiasts and for example in Sweden as much as 76% of population declared that had visited museum at least once in 2011 [Table 1, Table 2]. These statistic data are welcomed by governments as it is believed that tourism can greatly contribute to the wealth of a country in promoting its cultural heritage, and enhance cultural diversity. For example, ICOM (International Council of Museums) has always paid attention to the cultural heritage protection and conservation concerns as tourism keeps developing. One of the initiatives, the resolution adopted at the Melbourne General Assembly in 1998, was a significant step towards the development of a sustainable cultural tourism related policy in collaboration with UNESCO (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization), UNDP (United Nation Development Program) and ICOMOS (International Council on Monuments and Sites). The main goal was to “implement standards to protect heritage while making sure that communities involved can benefit from a long – term advantage” (ICOMOS, 2000) and resulted in developing and publishing “A Sustainable Cultural Tourism Charter”. In the year 2009 the annual International Museum Day – celebrated each year worldwide on 18th of May – had a theme “Tourism and Museums”.

Under the terms of the Polish Journal of Laws, the museum is a non-profit institution, main purpose of which is to collect and protect natural assets and cultural heritage of humanity, of material and immaterial character, provide information about the values and contents of the collections, promotion the fundamental values of history, science and culture of Poland as well as the global development of civilization.⁸ Polish museums had derived from the 18th and 19th century tradition of art and scientific collections. In the nineteenth century in Poland, education and patriotism were important missions and privately founded museums (Potocki’s in Wilanów, Czartoryski’s in Puławy) were treated not only as temples of valuable collections, chance of self-improvement but also as bastions of resist-

⁸ *Journal of Laws of 2012, item. 987, amending the Polish Law on Museums from the 21st November 1996.*

ance against occupants. In the mid-twentieth century museums were developed not only by individual collectors and literary societies, but also by government, universities, city municipalities or rural gminas authorities. In this “golden age of museums” not only museums, but also other cultural institutions, became an issue of regional pride developing a sense of social responsibility (National Museum in Kraków, National Museum in Poznań, National Museum in Warsaw, rural open air museums).⁹ The variety of different types of museums showed their different purposes: classical learning, scientific discovery, moral and patriotism up-lift, political propaganda, national values, cultural issues and entertaining recreation. With the economical and political changes after the 1989, the financial constrains (caused by underfunded museum system) and often poor museum organization were the factors to affect the decline and stagnation of museums in Poland. However, in the last decade the government intervention in museums has emerged and as a result not only many already existing institutions were revived, but also new museums have been opened, showing new possibilities and new missions in the organization of cultural activities. Today there are about 800 museums in Poland recognized by the Ministry of Culture (480 officially registered museums and about 300 para museum institutions of various types), covering different categories of collections: fine arts, craft, archeology, biography, history, science and technology, natural history and agriculture. Polish museums, seen as a key drivers of cultural tourism, are visited annually by more than 22 000 000 visitors (24% of Poles declared visiting museum at least once in 2011)¹⁰ [Table 1, Table 2].

Table 1

Population ratio of the museum visitors (in 2011) in the selected EU countries (in %)

Country	Sweden	Netherlands	UK	Germany	France	Italy	Spain	Poland	Portugal	Greece
Population ratio	76	60	52	45	40	30	29	24	19	18

Source: The Special Report. Museums 2013, GUS 2014.

⁹ J.Z. Żygulski, *Muzea na świecie. Wstęp do muzealnictwa*, Państwowe Wydawnictwo Naukowe, Warszawa 1982 (*Museums in the World. The Introduction into Museology*).

¹⁰ <http://www.stat.gov.pl/gus> (December 2013).

Table 2

Number of annual visitors (in 2010) in the selected countries

Country	United States	China	Japan	Germany	South Korea	Britain	Poland
Number of visitors	850000000	500000000	161200000	109600000	90000000	87600000	22000000

Source: *The Special Report. Museums 2013*, GUS 2014.

Modern museums perform not only the traditional tasks associated with the works of art collection, researches undertaken on artifacts and education program developed through organization of permanent or temporary exhibitions. In Poland, as in other countries, museums are also places giving tourists and the local community a chance for entertainment, attractive leisure time, offering a rich program of education, taking into account the interests and needs of visitors being in different age and of different social groups genre.

However, in Poland culture has traditionally been seen as the responsibility of the state, but due to the economy struggle the museums position is becoming more difficult and despite state financing and private donations museums are expected to raise money themselves. Most of the Polish museums, as the cultural institutions in other EU countries, America, Asia now live on a mix of public and private funding and try to raise money themselves, for example by lending their collections (especially famous paintings – as Leonardo da Vinci pieces) to other museums. In the United States of America as much as 27.6% of museum funding is earned by museums themselves (36.5% comes from private funding, 24.4% from government support and remaining 11.5% from other – as various investments resources).¹¹ These changes significantly influence the new directions and ideas of contemporary museum management. In the past, museum directors had a background mainly in art history but rarely had experience in management and economic problems. Today museum is not just a space for permanent and temporary exhibitions, museum lessons, workshops and scientific research – it is also the place used for conferences, major events of national importance, as well as for social events and private celebrations, even of very private character as family weddings. In the challenging economic times sustainable cultural tourism might have a significant economic meaning for museums and heritage sites. Consequently, contemporary museums are also places to dine (one can find there cafes, snack

¹¹ *Special Report: Museums*, “The Economist” 2013, issued on the December 21st, pp. 1–10.

bars, bistros, restaurants, pubs or wine bars). These additional commercial offers are provided to meet the needs of modern society, as well as to improve always too much limited budget and to support museum financially. The spatial and functional solutions of new museums in Warsaw (the Copernicus Science Centre, the Museum of History of Polish Jews, the Museum of Warsaw Uprising and the Museum of Sport and Tourism) question the traditional concepts of museum; show what it can offer its public – also in the commercial context [Table 3].

3. Commercial functions in the newly opened museums in Warsaw

Today in Warsaw there are 67 formally registered museums. These encompass establishments of different character, theme and profile: art museums (11), archaeological museums (1), biographical museums (9), ethnographic museums (2), museums and libraries (18), natural history museums (4), technique and science museums (11), museums of military (5). In public opinion museums in Warsaw are the most important cultural centers of the city and institutions important for the development of cultural tourism.

Due to the changing expectations of modern society, these are also increasingly attractive sites for weekend and holiday recreation for the citizens of Warsaw. This is proven by the statistical results: according to the Central Statistical Office in 2006 all museums in Warsaw were visited by as much as 2 284 685 people. The most popular museums were historic palaces as Royal Castle Museum, Royal Łazienki or Royal Wilanów Museum (1 306 923 visitors), art museums as National Museum (647 812 visitors), biographical museums as Maria Skłodowska Museum (148 648 visitors), science and technology museums (138 969 visitors). The most visited museums, until the opening of the Copernicus Science Centre in 2010, were the Warsaw Uprising Museum and the Museum of the Royal Castle in Warsaw (visited by nearly 500 000 people per year). It should be emphasized that opened in 2010 the Copernicus Science Centre has become extremely popular, visited by more than 1 000 000 people per year [Table 1, Table 2].¹²

Our field surveys, with the use of a standardized questionnaire (*face-to-face, in-situ* polling methods were applied), were conducted from the 1st October 2012 to the 30th of April 2013, organized in the four recently opened museums

¹² <http://www.stat.gov.pl/gus> (December 2013).

in Warsaw: the Warsaw Uprising Museum - 30 questionnaires, the History of Jews in Poland Museum - 25 questionnaires, the Copernicus Science Centre - 30 questionnaires and the Sports and Tourism Museum - 15 questionnaires.

Surveyed museums short characteristic [Table 3]:

- a) The Copernicus Science Centre has been operating since 2010, it is a nonprofit cultural institution (science museum), founded by Warsaw Municipality, Ministry of Science and Higher Education and Ministry of Education. It is one of the most advanced museums of this type in Europe. Its business offer includes conference centre with a large auditorium (300 seats) and a hall of 440 m² area, which could be divided into smaller rooms by moving walls. There are a “Bistro Wiem” restaurant and a café in Planetarium Building. It is a unique Warsaw museum without free admission day. It is visited roughly by one million people per year.¹³
- b) The Museum of the History of Polish Jews, has been operating since 2013, however the formal opening is scheduled for 2014. It is aimed as a nonprofit cultural and education centre, founded by Jewish Historical Institute of Poland, the Warsaw City Council and the Polish Government (Ministry of Culture and National Heritage) together with donors from all over the world. Its business offer includes conference centre (500 seats), exhibition space (600 m²), banqueting hall for 200 seats, museum shop with souvenirs, bistro, café and restaurant. The museum is still under construction and the visitor’s statistic is not available.¹⁴
- c) The Museum of Sport and Tourism, has been operating since 1952 (in the new building since 2007), it is a nonprofit cultural institution (history museum), founded by Polish government (Mazovia Region Self Government), it is a member of the Olympic Museums Network. Its business offer includes possibility of seminars and conferences organized in the museum premises, a small shop with souvenirs, possibility to make purchases on-line, bistro café on the ground floor, restaurant ‘Moonsfera’ on the roof floor and a garden restaurant opened in spring and summer seasons.¹⁵

¹³ <http://www.kopernik.org.pl> (December 2013).

¹⁴ <http://www.jewishmuseum.org.pl> (December 2013).

¹⁵ <http://www.muzeumsportu.waw.pl> (December 2013).

- d) The Warsaw Uprising Museum has been operating since 2004, it is a nonprofit cultural institution (history museum), founded by Polish government (Ministry of Culture and Warsaw Municipality), and dedicated to the Warsaw Uprising in 1944. Its business offer is limited due to the obvious reasons. There are no catering services, only a small shop with souvenirs and a possibility to make purchases in the on-line shop. It is visited roughly by half a million people per year.¹⁶

To our survey questions a hundred of people answered, 62 out of 100 declaring, that they were residents of Warsaw. Our respondents were only adult individuals, organized groups (such as schoolchildren) were not considered in our survey. Our respondents were mainly people visiting museums on average at least twice a year (72%), often returning to the favorite museum, the most of them visiting museums usually with family or friends (81%). Our research aim was to gather both the quantitative data (of the published and original character), but also to learn the visitors opinion about museum commercial services (primary qualitative data). For this latter purpose, our respondents, in addition to the survey questions were asked to express their broader opinions, even very personal comments on visited museums. We were mainly interested in the use of commercial services (catering, retail) offered there. Nearly half of our respondents (49%) were sure that the role of the modern museum, except science and education, should be provision of culture activities and education shaped like family entertainment. More than half of our respondents (59%) thought that commercial services should be provided as important part of the museums budget, helping to develop their non-profit activities (as exhibitions, cultural events and school classes). Although only 2% of our responders were ever interested in retail offer, spending on average 12 PLN (about 3 Euro) per year and only 3% in catering offer, spending on average 29 PLN (about 7 Euro) per year – almost all were positive that these offers in museums were of great importance. The attractiveness of surveyed museums in Warsaw was rated quite highly by 79% of our respondents. According to our respondents, what creates museum value was not only the quality of collections and exhibitions, aesthetic, promotion and information, but also variety of attractive, additional services (trade, culture – such as cinema, catering). Our respondents stressed the high quality of Warsaw museums promotion, their good transparent websites with well organized information, editorial activities, published books

¹⁶ <http://www.1944.pl> (December 2013).

and booklets, educational services, museum guides having high qualifications, including knowledge of foreign languages. Only the Museum of Sport and Tourism was criticized, mainly for unexciting exhibition presented in small areas, the lack of inspiring multimedia displays, and poor promotion of cultural activities offer. Due to the special character of museums theme, the Warsaw Uprising Museum had quite limited commercial services (for example no catering services) but this decision made by museum management was understood and approved by our respondents. Many respondents underlined special meaning of revolutionary changes in program and function, which occurred in the last ten years in several Warsaw museums. In their opinion, these changes are necessary as the contemporary museums are important sites for integration and creation the social identity. Moreover some institutions (as the Warsaw Uprising Museum) are even important in the context of the history and tradition of the family. According to our respondents, contemporary museum should be much more opened than traditional cultural institutions, ready to meet wide public demands. More than 80% of respondents have pointed out that the Warsaw Uprising Museum or the Copernicus Science Centre is the excellent example of the perfect fulfillment of new social expectations.

Table 3

Commercial services in the recently opened Warsaw museums

Museum	Museum Character	Number of visitors per year	Commercial services
The Copernicus Science Centre (opened in 2010)	Science museum	About one million	Conference centre with a large auditorium, a "Bistro Wiem" restaurant and a café in Planetarium Building.
The Museum of the History of Polish Jews (opened in 2013)	Historical museum	No data available yet	Conference centre, exhibition hall, banqueting hall, bistro, café, restaurant, museum shop, purchase on-line offer
The Museum of Sport and Tourism (opened in 2007)	Historical museum	About 150 000	Conference space, exhibition space, shop and purchase on – line offer, bistro, café, restaurant and garden restaurant (operating in spring and summer season)
The Warsaw Uprising Museum (opened in 2004)	Historical museum	About half a million	Conference space, small kiosk with souvenirs, on-line purchase possibility

Source: author's survey, supported by grant from the Ministry of Education and Science (ds-144 AWF Warsaw 2011–2014).

4. Summary and discussion

In Poland the contemporary broad meaning of museum reflects its phenomenon: now it comes in various styles and types, and is governed by different organizations – state, local authority, private institutions. Also in one museum the public attracted may vary from academics and specialists to families with small children. How could all these different expectations be harmoniously composed in one space? What constitutes museum and how programming its function should respond to the needs of its customers to build a good relation between museum and public? As without visitors there is no future for museum...

The complicated and mixed program requires the rational quest for satisfactory functional solutions of museum's space to meet society expectations. It is to be underlined that the question is not whose needs or wants should be met. The museum in modern society has a significantly broader public role than cultural institutions in the past. The goal is to benefit the wider public than ever before. Contemporary museum must enlighten, provoke, stimulate, educate and entertain by opening widely its doors to the public and finding the proper balance between elitism and populism. This requires the revision of traditional role of museum and reconsideration of museum's interaction with visitors. For example to solve how – without abdicating its education role – to ensure provision of facilities that allow leisure and recreation. Our research results show that mixed functions of the museum could be successfully integrated. It is proved by the Warsaw Uprising Museum or the Copernicus Science Centre experience that using their spatial potential, these museums could add an entertainment function and some values of leisure quite harmlessly, with harmony and consensus achieved to fulfill education, cultural values and prestigious mission of these institutions. The mission of future museum is essentially cultural, however the economy concern will be also important in addition to the obvious education and scientific aim. The need of museum management to tackle economic issues in creative and innovative way is expressed by new law regulations in Poland.¹⁷ It recognizes the important fact that traditionally museum was an institution that merely conserves a collection of artifacts and other objects of scientific, artistic, cultural or historical importance – but the new challenges are quite different. Modern museums role is much more complicated: it performs not only the tra-

¹⁷ <http://www.nimoz.pl> (December 2013).

ditional tasks, today museums are places where both the tourists and the local community members have chances for entertainment, attractive leisure time; institutions shaping a rich cultural and educational programs, taking into account the interests and needs of visitors' different age and social groups genre. It is also an elegant and prestigious public space used very often for conferences and major events of national importance, as well as promotion and social events, some of very private character as family weddings. These commercial activities are to meet the needs of modern society, improve always too limited budget and provide some financial help to museums. It is in accordance with the timeless remark of late prof. Stanisław Lorentz: *Museums are not institutions for a particular category of consumers, but should respond broadly to social needs, responding to demands of scholars and artists, people highly educated and school children, researchers and those looking for answers to the simplest questions, adults and youth...*¹⁸

It is to be underlined, that attention to nonprofit cultural institutions (such as museums), growing commercial activity is necessary and further researches should be continued as it could highlight the differences between the expectations of the society and the museum policy. In the “new musicology” concept the border line between traditional aura of prestigious “temple of art and science” and changes developing this cultural institution into a popular theme parks, is very subtle. On the other hand, the contemporary museum should be a social construct, which meets public needs – not merely a display of arte facts. The successful experience of the Warsaw Uprising Museum and the Copernicus Science Centre showed that the delicate balance between these two issues could be solved satisfactory. Today museums in Poland are visited by numerous tourists of very different genres: high and low educated, families with children, elder citizens and schoolchildren groups. Museums are very democratic, broad public, penetrating down and up the Polish social scale. The introduction of too ambitious changes which might create elitism, could be perceived as a great mistake, when responding only to interests of higher social echelons. As today the primary role of museum is being a partner in public education – it must benefit the wider public. Nevertheless, always the important question should be the limits of museum commercialization and the way of properly balanced management policy

¹⁸ S. Lorentz, *Filozofia muzeów. Czy należy spalić Luwr?*, Wydawnictwo Muzeum Narodowe w Warszawie, Warszawa 1999, p. 27 (*Philosophy of Museums. Should the Louvre Be Destroyed?*).

and strategy. We would like to emphasize that in our opinion, despite the many necessary changes, each museum should maintain individual balance and agreement between commercial activity and its primary function – science and education, find a rational consensus between high culture and entertainment. All these changes are foreseen in the vision of modern museum future role in the ICOM and ICOMOS documents.¹⁹

All in all, as we deeply believe, despite the efforts needed to gain popularity and achieve a successful economy results, museums should maintain their uniqueness as well as their dignity being above all the important guardians of national cultural heritage.

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¹⁹ A) International Council of Museums ICOM (2004): *Code of Ethics for Museum* (information available on the ICOM website: <http://www.icom.org>); B) International Council on Monuments and Sites ICOMOS (1999): *A Sustainable Cultural Tourism Charter* (information available on the ICOMOS website: <http://www.icomos.org/tourism>).

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MUZEUM WOBEC DYLEMATÓW KOMERCJALIZACJI INSTYTUCJI KULTURY

Streszczenie

Jesteśmy świadkami wprost rewolucyjnych zmian w programach i sposobach zarządzania placówkami kultury, ich postępującej komercjalizacji. Zadaniem współczesnego muzeum jest już nie tylko realizacja tradycyjnych misji związanych z przechowywaniem dzieł sztuki, badaniami naukowymi oraz udostępnieniem zbiorów publiczności dla celów edukacyjnych. Placówki muzealne są coraz częściej miejscami urządzanymi dla turystów i społeczności lokalnej z myślą o rozrywce, atrakcyjnym spędzaniu czasu wolnego, dysponujące bogatym programem uwzględniającym zainteresowania i potrzeby różnych grup wiekowych i społecznych. Zarówno nowa formuła ekspozycji jak i dodatkowa działalność to nie tylko wychodzenie naprzeciw potrzebom współczesnego społeczeństwa, ale i próba poprawy zawsze zbyt skromnego budżetu, jakim dysponują zarządzający muzeami. Ważnym pytaniem pozostają jednak granice między misją muzeum jako strażnika dziedzictwa – a jego ofertą komercyjną. Wyniki naszych badań dowodzą, że odpowiednia funkcja, program i polityka zarządzania pomagają osiągnąć pożądany rozsądny kompromis pomiędzy różnorodnymi zadaniami tych instytucji kultury – bez uszczerbku dla wypełniania istotnych społecznie misji muzeum w dziedzinie edukacji, nauki i kultury.

Słowa kluczowe: muzea i ekonomia, komercjalizacja kultury

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WINE TOURISM AND LOCAL DEVELOPMENT IN GREECE

Abstract

Wine tourism is a form of agricultural tourism and also is an important resource of income when it comes to organized wine producing countries. Wine tourism in Greece emerged and developed only during the last thirty years. There are various benefits from wine tourism that positively affect the professionals from both industries, wine and tourism and also the local communities and economies. However, these benefits are not widely appreciated. The benefits from the wine industry are related to the building of an image and a reputation, the increase of selling rates, consumers' education and communication with them, the protection of the brand's name credibility. The places-destinations of wine tourism are benefited by the development and differentiation of their local economies, the best utilization of their resources, the establishment of a united and unique positive image and reputation, the increased number of visitors and profits and the attraction of new and permanent tourists during an expanded touristic period.

In order to point out the contribution of wine tourism to local development in Greece in October 2013 an empirical research was carried out. As the field of the study five different areas were chosen. Certain conclusions can be extracted by the analysis of the answers concerning the contribution of Wine tourism in the local Wine industry, the local community and the touristic businesses.

Keywords: wine tourism, wineries, local development, benefits, Greece

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Introduction

Wine tourism is a form of agricultural tourism and also is an important resource of income when it comes to organized wine producing countries. Wine-tourism in Greece emerged and developed only during the last thirty years and the foundation of the “Wine producers’ Association of the Macedonian Vineyard” in November 1993 by 15 wine producers has played a decisive role in the introduction of Wine-tourism in Greece. The foundation of the “Wine producers’ Association of the Macedonian Vineyard” made important decisions and created an innovatory for Greek standards collective project that would reform and pre-empt any progress in wine-related activities. They established common goals and effectively addressed the challenges of the international market. They created and suggest specific routes that go through the most picturesque points of a winery zone. Nowadays, 37 members of the Association suggest 41 wineries open to visitors in 8 routes.

There are various benefits from wine tourism that positively affect the professionals from both industries, wine and tourism and also the local communities and economies. However, these benefits are not widely appreciated.¹ The benefits from the wine industry are related to the building of an image and a reputation, the increase of selling rates, consumers’ education and communication with them, the protection of the brand’s name credibility. Furthermore, the wine industry has the opportunity to attract a larger section of the market and develop exports – the wineries have bigger profits. The benefits are also related to the further improvement of cooperations in the wine trade, the establishment of new cooperations with hotels, folklore museums, restaurants, etc., and the tasting of new wines.

The places-destinations of wine tourism are benefited by the development and differentiation of their local economies, the best utilization of their resources, the establishment of a united and unique positive image and reputation, the increased number of visitors and profits and the attraction of new and permanent tourists during an expanded touristic period. The hosting communities are benefited by the development of communication, the expansion of relationships and knowledge spectrum, the change of mentality, the attraction of new invest-

¹ M.C. Hall, L. Sharples, B. Cambourne, N. Macionis, 2000, *Wine Tourism around the World-Development, Management and Markets*, Butterworth Heineman.

ments, the increase of entrepreneurship and employment, the evolvement of new products and services and the boost of local people's pride.

In order to point out the contribution of wine tourism to local development in Greece in October 2013 an empirical research was carried out. As the field of the study five different areas were chosen. In these areas there are established Wine- Roads and they are in Kreta, Thessaly, Central Macedonia, Western Macedonia and Thrace. Certain conclusions can be drawn by the analysis of the answers concerning the contribution of Winetourism in the local Wine industry, the local community and the touristic businesses. Conclusions can also be drawn for the contribution of the "Wine Roads" in local entrepreneurship.

1. Wine tourism

Wine tourism as a discrete field of research is inchoate, yet there has been rapid development in this field since the mid 1990s. Wine tourism is a form of agricultural tourism and both are parts of alternative touristic industry. Touristic industry aims to expand the touristic period and better utilize the natural resources of a region/country in order to reinforce the local economy.²

Wine tourism is an area of growing interest because of its potential to contribute to regional development and employment at times of rural restructuring, particularly through the development of inter and intra industry networks.³ There have been numerous definitions ascribed to Wine tourism in the international literature.⁴ The most common definitions of Wine tourism are highly connected to visitors' motives and experiences⁵ and can be summarized as such: "Visits to vineyards, wineries, events/festivals and wine exhibitions. In this context, wine tasting and experiencing a wine region are the main reasons Wine tourism is effected".

The definitions that focus on the consumer are of great importance, since it is primarily the consumer that defines the product "Wine tourism". There are actually three dimensions that frame Wine tourism: the wineries, the tourist

² M. Logothetis, (1999), *Tourism and viable development*.

³ M. Hall, N. Macionis (1998), *Wine tourism in Australia and New Zealand*, R.W. Butler.

⁴ G. Peters 1977, Gary Johnson 1997, Brock Camborne 1999.

⁵ M. & N. Macionis (1998), *Wine tourism in Australia and New Zealand*, R.W. Butler.

agents (that represent wine regions) and consumers. According to that, wine tourism is a) a form of consumerist conduct, b) a strategy through which the wine destinations communicate and promote their tempting products, in relation to their wine and image and c) a marketing opportunity for wineries that is associated with public's education and selling wine.⁶

There are many wine regions internationally where the wineries are sceptical about differentiating their wine product through tourism and thus the relationship between wine and tourism is not particularly recognized.⁷ These circumstances are changeable if the benefits from wine tourism become comprehended, because "people change their viewpoints under the light of new information or data".⁸

2. The new networked economy

The rapid technological advancements, the establishment of free trade, the globalization of the markets and the emergence of the internet are all factors that have fundamentally changed the way businesses operate and the way exchanges are realized. The characteristics of the new economic reality unbalance the traditional principles and it is thus necessary for entrepreneurs to adopt new flexible policies.

In the context of a new networked economy, the traditional exchanges are replaced by strategic alliances that base their interest on the common resources and profit. The new economic environment requires changes and integration in a web of mutually profitable relations. By the means of these relations, enterprises will be able to improve the collective attempt and to guarantee the success of the whole web of enterprises and of each enterprise individually.

The webs of enterprises are very flexible and more appropriate for the variable nature of the new globalized economy. The collaboration and the team approach to problem solving situations offer the members with opportunity to quickly respond to external changes. Being a member of such a web entails

⁶ Getz Donald (2000), *Explore wine tourism: Management, Development & Destination*, Cognizant Communication Corporation.

⁷ M. & N. Macionis (1998), *Wine tourism in Australia and New Zealand*, R.W. Batler.

⁸ Piperopoulos G. (1996), *I communicate therefore I exist*, Ellinika Grammata, Athens ISBN 9789603441915, p. 125.

excessive communication with different parties, new perspectives, processing information, continuous activity and reward for innovative thinking. Consequently, the members are more likely to create new relationships, to brainstorm new ideas and to make new strategic plans, operating under a complex environment.

The cooperation and networking of enterprises is a global phenomenon and it concerns all kinds of enterprises independent of the size. The so called "Clusters" have been successful on a global level. Business Clusters are geographical concentrations of interconnected businesses and commissions (of institutional nature) that share common technologies and abilities. They are usually located in a restricted geographical region in order to facilitate the communication between the businesses, the transfer of merchandise and raw material and the creation of intra-personal relations.⁹

The California Wine Cluster¹⁰ is an internationally recognised and long-living business network. Its objective is to produce and distribute the competitive wine of the State of California in the United States of America. It is not yet cleared if it is one Cluster or 17 associated Clusters that represent the 17 provinces of the State.

3. Regional development - agricultural tourism- wine tourism

Wine tourism is a form of agricultural tourism and both are parts of alternative touristic industry. Touristic industry aims to expand the touristic period and better utilize the natural resources of a region/country in order to reinforce the local economy (Logothetis 1999).

In Germany wine tourism was introduced in 1920, while in Greece during the last twenty years. This can be partly attributed to economic investment on this area of business through communal and national funds (Leader, developmental Law, ect.).

The European Union was troubled by the decreasing touristic activity and thus enacted laws to disperse the vacations period, since the middle of 1992.

⁹ D. McDermott, P. McCormack, *Business Networks in the Island of Ireland*, Inter Trade Ireland, Ireland 2005, Logothetis M., (1999), *Tourism & Vialable development*, Athens.

¹⁰ R.A.E. Mueller, D.A. Sumner, J.T. Lapsley, *Clusters of Grapes and Wine*, Department of Agricultural Economics University at Kiel, Germany. Sumner University of California Agricultural Issues, 2005.

At the same time, major changes are realized in the rural areas of Europe. The creation of tempting living conditions in rural areas especially for young people highly depends on the effectiveness of the available resources.

Since the 3rd programming period (2000–2006), investments on agricultural tourism and wine tourism that satisfy the national and local priorities, were promoted through the Ministry of Agriculture: Communal Initiative LEADER+, Agricultural Development & Countryside Reconstruction and Complete Peripheral Programs.¹¹

More particularly, culinary and accommodation infrastructure was improved, farmyards with available accommodation were created, educational, religious and curative tourism was developed, local centres that organize and promote agricultural tourism, pilot applications, professionals' corporate networks were introduced. A number of services, products and activities are related to the development of agricultural tourism. They are provided by the local people and they are based on the best possible utilization of the local human, touristic, cultural and natural resources. The services provided are accessible to the visitors and are directly connected to the environment, the cultural legacy, the architectural structure and the life style of the local people.

Viniculture, as well as the production and consumption of wine in Greece, is directly connected to the history and tradition of the Greek people. The wine producing areas cover the biggest part of the semi-mountainous and insular parts of the country and the most archaeological monuments and natural beauties of the country are surrounded by vineyards. Vineyards along with olive plantations are present everywhere and compose the gentle and beautiful Mediterranean scenery. However, the development of Wine tourism in Greece has started in the decade of 1990¹² and it's far from being a well-organized industry.

¹¹ Ministry of Rural Development and Food (2013), European Community (2013), Agriculture and Rural Development, Rural Development policy 2007–2013, <http://www.agrotikianaptixi.gr/index.php?op=Axis&todo=Load&id=03f68714dba796f8> (accessed 15/12/2013).

¹² Velissariou Efstathios, Galagala Anastasia, Karathanos Athanassios (2009): *Wine Tourism. Planning and Development of a Wine Route Network in the Region of Thessaly in Greece*. "TOURISMOS: An International Multidisciplinary Journal of Tourism" spring 2009, Vol. 4, No. 4, pp. 311–330, ISSN: 1790-8418 TOURISMOS.

4. The empirical research

4.1. The methodology

In October 2013 an empirical research was carried out in order to point out the contribution of wine tourism to local development in Greece. As the field of the study five different areas were chosen. In these areas there are established Wine-Roads and they are in Kreta, Thessaly, Central Macedonia, Western Macedonia and Thrace.

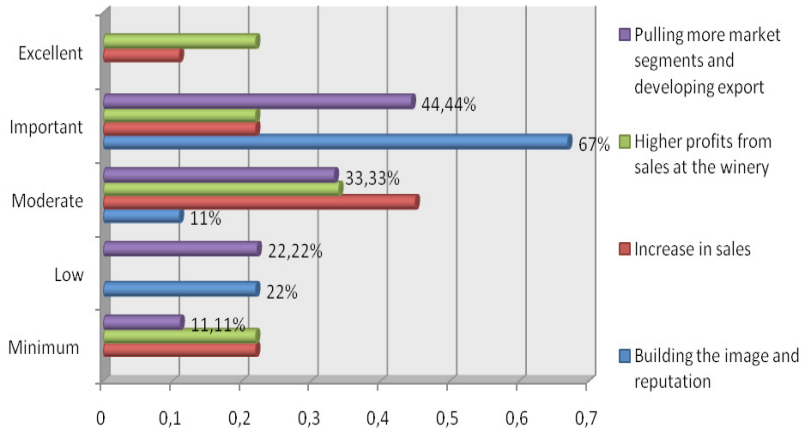
The study was conducted by questionnaires filled during personal interviews. The questionnaires were structured on four units and they included closed and open-ended questions. The first unit includes data for the interviewee and his/her business. The second unit documents the benefits of local wine businesses from wine tourism by asking 10 questions. The third unit evaluates the benefits of the local communities and economies from wine tourism by asking 10 questions. The fourth unit records the entrepreneurial profile of the area, explores how wine tourism affects economic profits and evaluates the contribution of wine tourism to the development of Wine Roads in Greece. All businesses who participated in the research are members of Wine Roads and they have visitable wineries. 31 questionnaires were completed.

4.2. The research findings

The representatives of the wine producing enterprises that participated in the research are mainly from 31 to 40 years old (45%) and from 41 to 50 years old (33%). The majority of them are college graduates (78%) and 11% of them have postgraduates degrees. Their working experience in the specific field varies: 34% of the participants have 1–5 years of working experience. The same percentage has been working in the wine producing industry from 16 to 20 years. 32% of the responders counts 6–15 years of working experience. Their years of experience prove a satisfactory level of knowledge and a certain dynamic.

All of them (100%) believe that the basis for the organization and development of Wine tourism is the conversion of old wineries to visitable and the establishment of new ones.

The wine industries of the area have been promoted by the development of Wine tourism and by their accession to the Wine Routes of Northern Greece. To be more specific, it has been concluded that there is an important benefit for the wineries as far as the building of their image and reputation is concerned (67%). The answers show a moderate benefit for the increase of sales (45%). The effect of Wine tourism on the increase of profits from sales at the wineries are assessed to be moderate (34%), important (22%) and very important (22%). When it comes to the attraction of more market segments and the development of export activity, the benefit for the wineries is considered to be important (44%). The data is presented in the following graph:

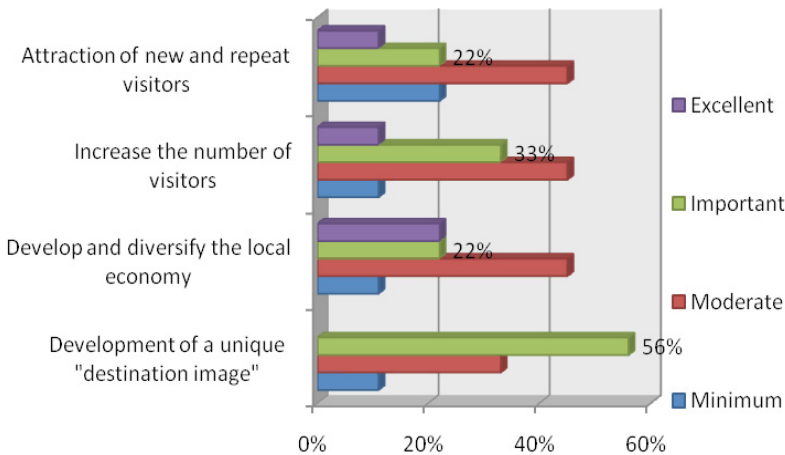


Graph 1. Benefits of the wineries

The positive impact of Wine tourism on the consumers' education and direct communication with them appears to be moderate (56%). 34% of the representatives answered that the benefit of the ability to taste new wines is important and another 34% answered that it is of moderate importance. The rest of the representatives (32%) consider that their wineries have not been benefited on the aspect. The development of Wine tourism has importantly affected (34%) the wineries when it comes to the protection of the credibility of their brand name and the improvement of cooperations in the wine business. Furthermore, Wine tourism plays an important role for the establishment of cooperations between wineries and other associations. 44% of the participants assess this benefit important and 34% moderate.

The development of Wine tourism has a beneficial impact on the local economy, as well. According to the answers, the local economy is importantly supported by Wine tourism as far as the development of a unique “destination image” and reputation is concerned (56%). 45% of the participants consider that Wine tourism moderately helps the local economy to develop and diversify by better utilizing its natural resources.

Almost half of the wineries (45%) believe that there is a moderate benefit on the increase of the number of visitors and the attraction of new stable visitors. 33% of the responders state that the number of visitors increased importantly and 22% of them answered that they attracted new and stable visitors due to Wine tourism.



Graph 2. Benefits for local economy

The research records an important benefit on the expansion of the touristic period (44%) and a moderate benefit on the establishment of new businesses (44%). The representatives of the wineries believe that even more businesses would have been established if it wasn't for the economic crisis.

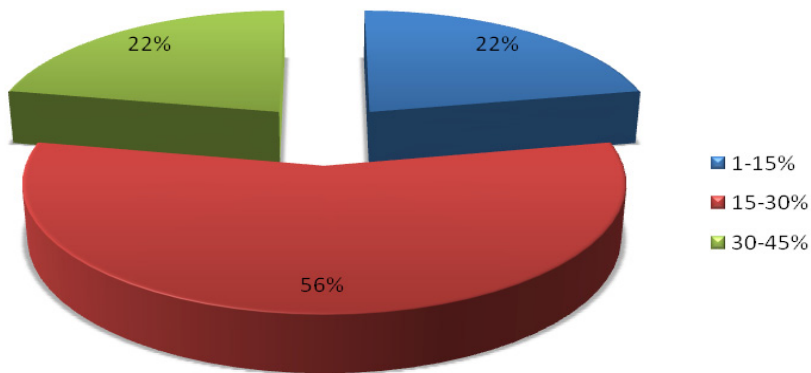
The local community was affected by the activities of Wine tourism. There is a moderate affect (34%) on the development of communication, on the expansion of relationships and knowledge and on the change of mentality. The impact is even stronger when it comes to the enhancement of the pride of the people for their area (45%). The impact of Wine tourism on the local community is also

important for the attraction of new investments, increase of entrepreneurship and employment according to 22% of the responders. 45% of them, however, consider this impact of moderate importance.

Wine tourism created the prerequisites for the introduction of new products and services in the area (45%).

According to the 45% of the participants, Wine tourism plays an important role in the development of the part of the Wine Routes of Northern Greece. 22% of them consider its role extremely important.

The majority of the participants answered that the contribution of Wine tourism to the total turnover of the local enterprises is from 15 to 30%. The rest of the representatives assess this contribution from 1 to 15% and from 30 to 45% of their total turnover.



Graph 3. Level of participation in turnover

Wine tourism has positively affected the relations between the wine producing enterprises and made their bond stronger. 67% of the participants argue that there is no local competition between the enterprises and only 33% feel that there is competition between same enterprises.

Conclusion

The development of Wine tourism and the accession of the wineries into a web benefit the wine producing industries of the area. The positive impact

concerns: the building of an image and a reputation, the increase of sales, the higher profits from sales at the wineries, the consumers' education and the direct communication with them, the possibility to taste new wines that appear in the market, the protection of the credibility of the brand name, the attraction of bigger parts of the market and the development of exports, the improvement of cooperation between the wine industries and finally the establishment of new cooperations with other associations.

The development of Wine tourism has a positive impact on the local economy as well. The local economy is benefited when it comes to the establishment of a unique and positive "destination image" and reputation, the development and diversification of the local economy by better utilizing its natural resources, the increase of the number of visitors and the attraction of new stable tourists in the area, the expansion of the touristic period and the creation of new enterprises.

The local community is also benefited by the activities of Wine tourism. The positive impact of Wine tourism concerns: the development of communication, the expansion of relations and knowledge of the local people, the change of their mentality and the enhancement of their pride for their region.

In addition, the development of Wine tourism creates the prerequisites for new investments, raises the entrepreneurship and employment and introduces new products and services in the market.

The wine producing industry and the local economy need an organized web of Wine tourism in order to develop. The participation of the enterprises in a Wine touristic cluster enhances cooperation and reduces the local competition.

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TURYSTYKA WINNA I ROZWÓJ LOKALNY W GRECJI

Streszczenie

Turystyka winiarska jest ważnym zasobem dochodów w krajach produkujących wino. Turystyka winna zaczęła rozwijać się w Grecji w ciągu ostatnich trzydziestu lat. Istnieje wiele korzyści z turystyki winne, które pozytywnie wpływają na branżę turystyczną jak i winiarską. Jednak korzyści te nie są doceniane. Aby zwrócić uwagę na wkład turystyki winiarskiej w rozwój lokalny w Grecji w październiku 2013 roku przeprowadzono badania empiryczne. Zostało wybranych pięć różnych obszarów w Grecji. Niektóre wnioski mogą być wyodrębnione na podstawie analizy odpowiedzi dotyczących wkładu turystyki winiarskiej w lokalnym przemyśle winiarskim, lokalnej społeczności i firm turystycznych.

Słowa kluczowe: turystyka wina, winiarnie, rozwój lokalny, korzyści, Grecja

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CHARACTERISTICS OF TOURIST FLOWS IN RZESZOW-JASIONKA AIRPORT

Abstract

The paper presents a discussion upon the tourist flows at Rzeszow-Jasionka Airport. Both its quantitative and qualitative features were considered. The study was conducted in 2013 among travelers and administrative staff of the airport. The method of diagnostic survey including poll techniques with original questionnaire, direct interviews, and analysis of documents. Among adult passengers, 800 questionnaires were distributed, of which 683 were properly filled. The study took into account the number of serviced passengers, their age, education, frequency of traveling, the way of airport reaching, and travel motives. Respondents were also asked about the weakest traits of the airport and elements of its environment. A special attention was paid to a different perception of many features and components of travel by men and women. The paper was completed with applicable conclusions.

Keywords: tourist flow, air travel, Rzeszów-Jasionka Airport

Introduction

Such elements of the tourism market as supply, demand, and price function within a very complex environment of interrelationships that exert some remarkable impact on the market mechanisms. The transport services, that are

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integrally related to the tourist flow, operation of tourism, occupy a prominent place.¹ However, the tourist flows cannot be identified with the demand, because this flow's entities, i.e. tourists, are the carriers of needs for goods and services.²

The tourist flow itself is defined as *a whole of voluntary and temporary spatial displacements beyond the domicile undertaken to achieve the recreation, cognitive, health, and entertainment purposes*.³ This definition, however, lacks a compatibility with the tourism terminology recommended by WTO, which means that professional purposes (excluding those, the main objective of which is a gainful activity) should be included as well.⁴ This supplement would allow to include the participants of a business tourism, that is becoming increasingly important, into the tourist flow.

In the context of the above statements, it can be assumed that the passenger traffic at the international airport is referred to as the tourist movement that requires specialized services, and all passengers are tourists, since the flight to another country is usually associated with accommodation. Thus, it can be said that the airport staff is a specific and extremely important part of the tourist services.⁵ It is also worth to underline that the airport is a very significant factor of globalization that allows for technical and economic availability of tourist destinations to all corners of the world in the case of a tourist economy.⁶

The aim of present paper is to characterize the tourist flows at the International Airport Rzeszów-Jasionka. The research included both its quantitative and qualitative features, which is important for the promotion and development of the domestic airport as well as the tourist economy.

¹ *Ekonomika turystyki*, A. Panasiuk (ed.), Wyd. Naukowe PWN, Warszawa, 2009, p. 73.

² *Ibidem*.

³ G. Gołembski, *Kompendium wiedzy o turystyce*, Wyd. Naukowe PWN, Warszawa-Poznań, 2002, p. 26.

⁴ Terminologia turystyczna. Zalecenia WTO, Warszawa 1995, p. 9.

⁵ *Obsługa ruchu turystycznego*, B. Meyer (ed.), Wyd. Naukowe PWN, Warszawa 2006, p. 12.

⁶ J. Hawlena, 2012. *Konkurencja na rynku lotniczych przewozów pasażerskich w warunkach globalizacji*, Wyd. UE w Katowicach, p. 144.

1. Methodology

The research object was Rzeszów-Jasionka Airport. The method of diagnostic survey including questionnaire, direct interviews, and document analysis techniques, were applied. The poll was carried out in 2013. Eight-hundred questionnaires were randomly distributed among adult passengers (more than 18-years-old and after approval) waiting for departure. As a response, 683 correctly completed questionnaires were achieved. Besides, three interviews among the airport administration employees were performed and available documents were analyzed. Following scientific hypothesis was assumed after the initial insight: the tourist flows are still developing in the airport under study, the airport is of regional character, and depends on further broadening and improving the airport-related and auxiliary services. For obvious reasons, the survey could not be too absorbing, hence it contained only ten questions to allow verification of the assumed hypothesis. Other research results were obtained from the interviews and analysis of available documents.

2. Characterization of Rzeszów-Jasionka Airport

The Rzeszów-Jasionka Airport is localized 10 km from Rzeszów near two national roads (No. 19 Rzeszów – Lublin and No. 9 Rzeszów - Warsaw). The A4 highway and S19 expressway will be situated near the airport soon, while at present, they are being built. The connection with the railway station in Rzeszów is provided due to special L line of the city transport. Other nearest airports are: Cracow-Balice (150 km), Lublin-Świdnik (180 km), Warsaw Okęcie, and Warsaw Modlin (300 km).

Establishment of the airport dates back to 1937 and is closely associated with the Central Industrial District. In practice, the airport has functioned under the Polish management only for two years, and then it was used by the Nazis, then by Russians. In 1949, it was taken over by Polish Airlines Lot. In the late 50's, the airport was modernized, and in 2012, modern passenger terminal was put into operation. According to the ICAO definition (Annex 14 Aerodromes), the discussed airport meets the requirements for the international airport.⁷ Nowadays,

⁷ W. Rydzkowski, K. Wojewódzka-Król, *Problemy transportu w rozszerzonej UE*. Wyd. Naukowe PWN, Warszawa 2010, p. 145.

it has 13 permanent connections with several Western European countries (England, Spain, Ireland, Germany) and seasonal connections with Bulgaria, Egypt, Greece, Tunisia, and Turkey). The terminal cooperates with three air carriers: Ryanair, Lufthansa, PLL LOT.

3. Results and Discussion

Analysis of data from Table 1 reveals gradually increasing number of serviced passengers. Since 2008 till 2013, a 107.3% increase in the tourist flows occurred. In 2011, quite sudden drop in the percentage growth rate was observed, which can be accounted for by the terminal improvement, whereas in 2012 after the investment complete, previous growth rate was achieved again. These results should be considered as satisfying, even when compared with well-recognized English airports.⁸ Undoubtedly, this should be counted as the success of the airport, that runs a good system of communication with the market and applies an adequate sales promotion.⁹

Table 1

Number of serviced passengers in Rzeszów–Jasionka Airport in 2008–2013

No	Specification	Years					
		2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
1.	Number of serviced passengers	323838	383184	454203	491325	564992	671381
2.	Increase of the passenger number in relation to 2008 (in %)	100.00	18.3	40.3	51.7	74.5	107.3
3.	Increase of the passenger number in relation to every following year	-	18.3	18.5	8.2	15.0	18.8

Source: own study according to the Marketing Section of the Airport

⁸ S. Holloway, *Straight and Level: Practical Airline Economics*. 2nd Edition. Ashgate Publishing Ltd., Aldershot 2008, pp. 78–81.

⁹ A. Panasiuk, *Marketing usług turystycznych*. Wyd. Naukowe PWN, Warszawa 2006, p. 136.

Analysis of collected polls reveals that the survey subject consisted of 41.7% women and 58.3% men. Considering the respondent's age, it was found that mainly 18 to 50-year-old tourists (78.6%) were passengers, while the remaining proportion was 21.4% (Figure 1). Therefore, further detailed recognition of needs of mentioned age groups and preparation of special offers, would be helpful, which does not mean to neglect the niche groups.

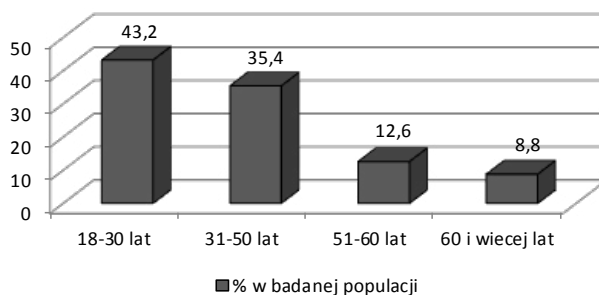


Fig. 1. Age of respondents (% in surveyed population)

Source: own study.

Considering the educational level of surveyed population, travelers with secondary education prevailed (62.3%), then with higher education (31.6%), and the professional education was represented by the lower percentage of tourists (6.1%) (Figure 2).

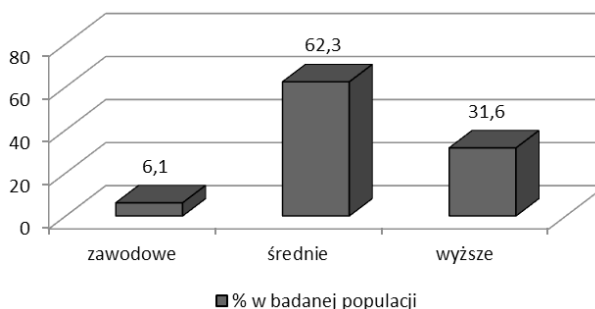


Fig.2. Education of respondents (% in surveyed population)

Source: own study.

Taking into account the area of the tourism generation, Rzeszów-Jasionka Airport is a regional airport, which is confirmed by results of this study: as many as 86.7% of travelers came from the Podkarpackie, while only 6.8% from the nearest Lublin and 1.4% from Świętokrzyskie province. It should be noted, however, that there was 5.1% of travelers from Slovakia. Above presented survey results are a good material to target the marketing efforts.

Based on the analysis of collected material, it was found that 59.1% of passengers used the airport once a year and women were the dominant group. Only 17% of respondents travelled by air several times a year, but there were more than twice as men as women in that group. Very similar relationships were also present in the case of traveling several times a month. In other cases, gender had little effect on the travelling frequency (Figure 3). Results of presented study are consistent with the social profile of the tourist flow participants, which is confirmed in other studies.¹⁰

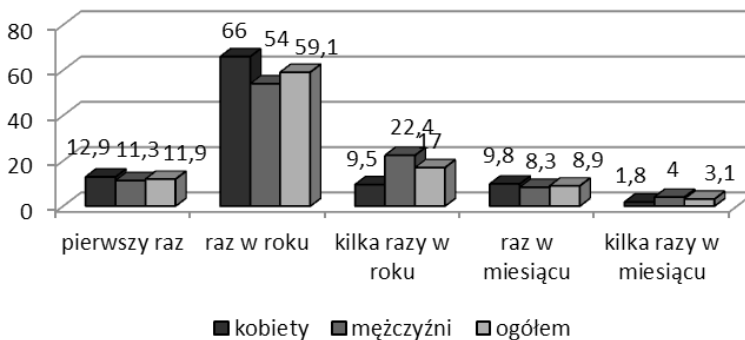


Fig. 3. Frequency of respondents' air travels depending and regardless of a gender (in %) Source: own study.

Competitiveness of a passenger airport increases not only with the number of connections with air hubs, but in this case, the access the connection's to the terminal play some remarkable role.¹¹ Among surveyed passenger popula-

¹⁰ B. Meyer, *Obsługa ruchu turystycznego*. Wyd. Naukowe PWN, Warszawa 2006, 2, pp. 27–28.

¹¹ E. Dziedzic, *Wpływ transportu lotniczego na wykorzystanie bazy noclegowej w Polsce*. in: *Nowe trendy rozwoju turystyki*, E. Gołębski (ed.), Wyd. PWSZ Sulechów 2008, pp. 141–141.

tion, 82% reach the airport by own car, 16% use the bus, and only 2% use rail and commuting bus from Rzeszow. Despite of this, 28% of respondents indicated the need to connect the airport by a rail link from Rzeszow.

When respondents were asked about the convenience of the airport access from Rzeszów, 26% of them had a good opinion, 39% were dissatisfied of the connections, and as many as 35% of travelers did not have a decided opinion, which can be interpreted that they were not interested in this problem at all.

The travel motivation is an important issue in the analysis of tourism, hence respondents of the survey were asked about the purpose of air travel. It appeared that regardless of gender, business objectives prevailed (70.7%); it was declared both by women (67.4%) and men (73.1%). The second place was ranked by visits (18.2%); also in this case either of genders was not predominated (18.2% and 18.1%). In contrast, a holiday destination was declared only by 9.5% of women and 5.8% of men. Only 3.8% of respondents indicated other not specified destination purpose (Figure 4).

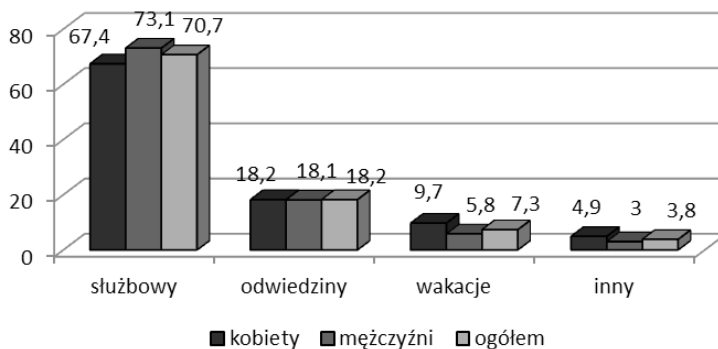


Fig. 4. Purpose of respondents' air travels depending and regardless of a gender (in %) Source: own study.

These results are very surprising, because the seasonal distribution of tourism at Rzeszow-Jasionka Airport is similar to that at other airports, so its apogee falls in July and August, and passengers declare mainly the corporate flights. The reasons for this phenomenon should be seen not on a ground of favorable natural conditions in the summer months, but in social and economic conditions. Interviews suggested that many inhabitants of Podkarpacie province travel by air to seasonal jobs in other European countries, and probably they declared

the business purpose in the survey, because it obviously was not a holiday journey. Such an interpretation of achieved results is confirmed in other studies.¹²

From the marketing point of view, the overall image of the terminal is very important. In the case of Rzeszów-Jasionka Airport, travelers were asked to rate the weakest points of the airport. In general, the largest proportion of respondents mentioned the destination connections (62.1%), promotion of air services was ranked at the second place (59.6%), third place was the architecture and aesthetics of the airport (37.8%), quality of passenger service was at the fourth place (24.7%), while following issues were ranked at further places: price tickets (21.1%), and the punctuality of flights (15.4%) (Figure 5). Great disparities in the assessment of some of the airport weaknesses seen by particular genders, are noteworthy. Women perceived promotion, connection network, architecture and aesthetics, quality of service and punctuality of flights much harder than men, while there was no difference in the assessment of ticket prices.

Taking the interviews as a basis, it can be concluded that travelers treated the airport promotion as a tourist information, thus it can be seen how important is the role of a research upon traveler's needs and trends in the tourism demands.¹³

When analyzing the respondent's answers to the summarizing question concerning the overall satisfaction with Rzeszów-Jasionka Airport services, it was reported that only 8.3% rated them "very high", the largest group of surveyed assessed as "high" (47.4%), 25.7% of travelers ranked the proposed services as "medium level", while 18.6% assessed them as "poor".

In the tourism economy, transportation plays a very important role, and air transport makes available to tourists those areas that traditional transport remains very inaccessible, as the journey would take most of time that tourists can spend on this type of escapade. In addition, available prices of air travel play an important role.¹⁴ Therefore, there is a need to put a special emphasis on the research related to the air transport in Poland, where number of regional airports still grows.

¹² A. Niezgodą, P. Zmyślony, *Popyt turystyczny – uwarunkowania i perspektywy rozwoju*. Wyd. AE w Poznaniu 2003, pp. 65.

¹³ A. Tokarz, *Badania rynku jako źródło danych dla systemu informacji turystycznej*, Uniwersytet Szczeciński, *Zeszyty Naukowe, Ekonomiczne Problemy Turystyki* 2006, 7, p. 366.

¹⁴ J. Hawlena, *Determinanty kształtowania cen usług transportowych*, Wyd. Akademii Ekonomicznej w Katowicach, 2004, p. 45.

Conclusions

1. The assumed hypothesis has been fully proven as the tourist flows on the discussed airport have constant increasing trends. Rzeszow-Jasionka Airport can be defined as regional, since in 86.7% it services the passengers from Podkarpackie province and the remaining portion comes from Lublin and Świętokrzyskie provinces. It should be noted, however, that 5.1% of travelers came from Slovakia that neighbors the Podkarpacie province.
2. It has been found that the main segment of passengers consists of persons aged 18-50 years (78.6%), hence there is the need to recognize their motivations to travel, in order to prepare adequately satisfactory air travel offer. For the same reasons, also attention should be paid to people with secondary (62.3%) and higher education (31.6%).
3. For marketing reasons, a detailed study upon the frequency and purposes (motives) of the journey should be carried out, because it is a very complex issue. The concept of a business travel, that has been a bit overestimated during the survey, should be also clarified. Furthermore, different perspective on the assessment of travel elements by women and men, is also worth appreciation.
4. Elements of the airport surroundings play an important role. For example, it should be emphasized that 39% of respondents were dissatisfied with communication links from Rzeszow to the airport. Perhaps the current bus service is inadequate, and the need to bring the rail link to the airport terminal in Jasionka, should be considered; 28% of the surveyed population opted for such solution. It would be an action for sustainable development in transport.

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CHARAKTERYSTYKA RUCHU TURYSTYCZNEGO W PORCIE LOTNICZYM RZESZÓW - JASIONKA

Streszczenie

W opracowaniu omówiono ruch turystyczny na Lotnisku Rzeszów – Jasionka. Zwrócono uwagę zarówno na jego stronę ilościową jak i jakościową. Badania przeprowadzono w roku 2013 wśród podróżnych i pracowników administracji lotniska. Zastosowano metodę sondażu diagnostycznego, a w niej techniki ankiety z autorskim kwestionariuszem ankiety oraz wywiadu bezpośredniego i analizy dokumentów. Wśród dorosłych pasażerów rozdano 800 ankiet, z czego uzyskano 683 poprawnie wypełnionych. W badaniach uwzględniono liczbę obsługanych pasażerów, ich wiek, wykształcenie, częstotliwość podróży, sposób dojazdu do lotniska i motywy podróży. Pytano także o określenie najsłabszych stron lotniska i elementy jego otoczenia. Zwrócono uwagę na odmienne postrzeganie wielu cech i elementów składowych podróży przez kobiety i mężczyzn. Opracowanie zakończone aplikacyjnymi wnioskami.

Słowa kluczowe: ruch turystyczny, podróże lotnicze, Port Lotniczy Rzeszów-Jasionka

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**THE CURRENT STATE AND PERSPECTIVES
OF DEVELOPMENT OF TOURISM PRODUCTS
IN ROZTOCZE IN THE CONTEXT OF ENVIRONMENTAL
AND EDUCATIONAL TOURISM**

Abstract

The unique environmental heritage of Roztocze provides a superb basis for the development of environmental and educational tourism. Only several products in this scope currently exist in the region. This paper presents the existing and currently prepared offer of environmental and educational tourism in Roztocze. The study is based on sources of indirect and direct data. The level of tourism traffic in one of the most important tourism products, namely the Roztocze National Park, is presented based on data from the years 2006–2010 (quantitative and qualitative monitoring). The analysis also aims at the assessment of new products in Roztocze, with particular consideration of geotourism products. The results indicate that, in most of the analyzed tourism objects/attractions does not have all the components of the tourism product. Only some of them generate funds for the nature conservation and impact on local economic development. Despite this, they are a good starting point for the development of a full, integrated offer. As more and more such products are perceived by local governments, state institutions and local communities as an opportunity to diversify of the existing educational nature offer.

Keywords: tourism product, environmental tourism, education, Roztocze

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Introduction

According to the estimations of the World Travel and Tourism Council,¹ the travel and tourism sector generates approximately 9-10% of the global GDP. One of the fastest developing forms of tourism is environmental tourism.² Stueve et al.³ estimate that in 2005, natural areas and their closely related local cultural and recreational resources accounted for approximately half of the revenues from business activities attributed to the tourism sector. Environmental tourism is the basis of “export” in 83% of developing countries.⁴ It is commonly believed that in spite of lack of detailed statistics and data, tourism based on natural resources⁵ is capable of generating considerable funds for both nature protection and local economic growth.⁶ Environmental tourism particularly develops in natural conditions, with emphasis on promoting awareness in the scope of protection of the natural environment.⁷ It can have various forms, from passive (enjoying views, painting) to active (rafting, mountain biking), and from consumption-oriented (angling, hunting) to non-consumption-oriented (trekking, bird watching). New forms of environmental tourism increasingly popular over the last

¹ *The global travel and tourism summit*, World Travel and Tourism Council, London 2007.

² H.J. Goodwin, *In pursuit of ecotourism*, “Biodiversity and Conservation” 1996, 5, pp. 277–291; L. Mastny, *Treading lightly: new paths for international tourism*, Worldwatch Institute, Washington 2001, pp. 9–17; L. Davenport, W.Y. Brockelman, P.C. Wright, K. Ruf, F.B. Rubio del Valle, *Ecotourism tools for parks*, in: *Making parks work*, J. Terborgh, C. van Schaik, L. Davenport, M. Rao (eds.), Island Press, Washington D.C. 2002, pp. 279–306.

³ A.M. Stueve, S.D. Cock, D. Drew, *The Geotourism Study: Phase 1 Executive Summary*, Travel Industry Association of America, Washington DC 2002, Related online version (cited on 6 November 2006): <http://www.tia.org/pubs/geotourismphasefinal.pdf>.

⁴ L. Mastny, *Treading lightly: new paths for international tourism*, Worldwatch Institute, Washington 2001, pp. 9–17.

⁵ *Millennium Ecosystem Assessment. Ecosystems and human wellbeing: biodiversity synthesis*, World Resources Institute, Washington D.C. 2005, p. 155.

⁶ H.J. Goodwin, *In pursuit of ecotourism*, “Biodiversity and Conservation” 1996, 5, pp. 277–291; E. Boo, *Ecotourism: the potentials and pitfalls*, World Wildlife Fund, Washington D.C. 1990, pp. 1–72; S. Gosling, *Ecotourism: a means to safeguard biodiversity and ecosystem functions?* “Ecological Economics” 1999, 29, pp. 303–320.

⁷ D. Newsome, S.A. Moore, R.K. Dowling, *Natural area tourism: Ecology, impacts and management*, Clevedon, Channel View Publications, Buffalo 2002, p. 340.

several years include among others ecotourism, forest tourism, and geotourism (tourism related to geology and landscape).⁸

In many regions, tourism based on natural resources contributes to an increased economic growth as well as social awareness at the local and global scale.⁹ Environmental tourism is frequently treated as a profitable supplement or alternative to agriculture, forestry, and fishery. It is increasingly perceived as an opportunity to diversify lifestyle in rural areas.¹⁰ Roztocze is a region with agricultural character and exceptional landscape values.

The existing offer of Roztocze in the scope of environmental and educational tourism, and the possibilities of its use and development, are the primary subject of this paper. Therefore gives rise to the following research questions: to what extent tourism objects/products do fulfil the criteria of the tourism product given by J. Kaczmarek et al.,¹¹ or V.T.C. Middleton?,¹² how tourism, based on natural resources, generates funds for the nature conservation, and how this influence the local economic development? The analysis of the issue was based on indirect and direct data sources. At the first stage, involving desk research, secondary data sources were used (related literature, strategic documents, records and registers, promotional materials, and websites). A description (combined with other methods, including screening, historical analysis, and development possibilities analysis) of the conditions of development and functioning of tourism products based on natural resources was provided. The final stage applied direct sources of data obtained as a result of field research and interviews with organisers of the products.

⁸ E. Halpenny, N.R. Otte, *Not just nature*, "Our Planet" 1999(10.1). Related online version (cited on 5 November 2006): <http://www.ourplanet.com/imgversn/101/otte.html>; *Forest Tourism And Recreation. Case Studies in Environmental Management*, X. Font, J. Tribe (eds.), University Press, Cambridge 2000, p. 1–34; S. Bell, L. Tyrväinen, T. Sievänen, U. Pröbstl, M. Simpson, *Outdoor recreation and nature tourism: a European perspective*, "Living Reviews in Landscape Research" 2007, 1(2), pp. 1–46; *Geotourism: The tourism of geology and landscape*, D. Newsome, R. Dowling (eds.), Goodfellow Publishers, Oxford 2010, pp. 4–5.

⁹ R. Buckley, J. Robinson, J. Carmody, N. King, *Monitoring for management of conservation and recreation in Australian protected areas*, "Biodivers. Conserv." 2008, 17, pp. 3589–3606.

¹⁰ L. Tyrväinen, I. Nousiainen, H. Silvennoinen, L. Tahvanainen, *Rural Tourism in Finland: Tourists' Expectation of Landscape and Environment*, "Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research" 2001, 1(2): 133–149, doi:10.1080/150222501317244047.

¹¹ J. Kaczmarek, A. Stasiak, B. Włodarczyk, *Produkt turystyczny*, PWE, Warszawa 2010, pp. 75–76.

¹² V.T.C. Middleton, *Marketing w turystyce*, Polska Agencja Promocji Turystyki, Warszawa 1996, p. 89.

The popularity of one of the products in Roztocze is manifested in results of a study on tourism traffic in the Roztocze National Park. Data from four measurement sites/objects were considered (a parking lot at the Education-Museum Centre, Bukowa Góra, Florianka, and Echo Ponds). The results of the research permitted the analysis of the phenomenon in the daily, monthly, and seasonal scale.

1. Description of the study area

Roztocze is distinguished from the remaining areas of central-eastern Poland by constituting a belt of elevations and plateaus with a NW-SE orientation. Absolute heights vary from 280 m a.s.l. in the north-western part to approximately 395.0 m a.s.l. (Wielki Dział, Krągły Goraj) in the south-eastern part. The features of the geological structure and substantial hypsometric variability constitute the basis for the area's division (in the territory of Poland) into sub-regions: West Roztocze (Gorajskie and Szczebrzeszyńskie), Middle Roztocze (Tomaszowskie), and East Roztocze (Rawskie).

In administrative terms, Roztocze occupies areas belonging to six districts of the Lublin Province (Kraśnicki, Janowski, Lubelski, Biłgorajski, Zamojski, and Tomaszowski), and one district (Lubaczowski) of the Podkarpackie Province. The area of Roztocze includes land belonging to a total of 27 communes. The assessment of tourism attractiveness with the application of multi-dimensional comparative analysis¹³ classified 21 of the communes as “very attractive” and “attractive”.

The value of Roztocze in terms of development of educational environmental tourism is determined by the features of its geological structure¹⁴ and climatic conditions,¹⁵ water phenomena,¹⁶ and organic environment. Outcrops, excava-

¹³ A. Tucki, *Potencjał turystyczny regionu lubelskiego*, “Annales UMCS” 2009, B, 64, issue. 1, pp. 11–31.

¹⁴ T. Brzezińska-Wójcik, M. Harasimiuk, *Natural environment of the Roztocze region*, w: *Cultural Landscapes of the Lublin Upland and Roztocze*, E. Skowronek, W. Wołoszyn, T. Speck, K.M. Born (eds.), Kartpol s.c., Lublin 2006, pp. 59–80.

¹⁵ B. Kaszewski, *Klimat*, in: *Środowisko Przyrodnicze Lubelszczyzny*, S. Uziak, R. Turski (eds.), Lubelskie Towarzystwo Naukowe, Lublin 2008, pp. 75–111.

¹⁶ Z. Michalczyk, T. Wilgat, *Wody*, in: *Środowisko przyrodnicze Lubelszczyzny*, S. Uziak, R. Turski (eds.), Lubelskie Towarzystwo Naukowe, Lublin 2008, pp. 113–210.

tions, and quarries, or more generally geosites, are unique geotourism attractions. Five types of geosites are distinguished in Roztocze: stratigraphic (Phanerozoic), palaeobiological, palaeoenvironmental (Brusno, Huta Różaniecka, Józefów, Łysaków, Nowiny, Żelebsko), geomorphological, and tectonic (waterfalls in river channels). They are included in the Polish central register.¹⁷ The region's varied vegetal resources, depending on the species composition, have filtration-detoxification, healing, and aesthetic properties in different seasons of the year.¹⁸ Features and objects of the region valuable in environmental terms constitute a basis for a number of forms of legal protection (Natura 2000 network, special protection areas, spatial plans of parks and/or rural parks)¹⁹. Some of these areas/objects are adapted to the needs of tourism. They include the Roztocze National Park (dominant contribution of forests in the total area – more than 95%), Landscape Parks, and some nature monuments (groups of trees and alleys, rocks, and springs)²⁰. All of the forms of nature protection established in the region became the basis for designing the Roztocze International Biosphere Reserve.

Already in the 1960's, in the paper by M.J. Mileska,²¹ Roztocze was perceived as a potential recreational-tourist region. In his analysis of recreational areas and towns in Poland, J. Wyrzykowski²² classified one of sub-regions of Roztocze (West Roztocze/Roztocze Gorajskie) as “very attractive”. The tourist-recreational space of Roztocze was a subject of studies by M. Karolczak²³ and A. Tucki.²⁴ The assessment of the tourist function of the Krasnobrodzki Landscape Park,

¹⁷ <http://geostanowiska.pgi.gov.pl/gsap/> (accessed 20.02.2014).

¹⁸ A. Krzymowska-Kostrowicka, *Geoekologia turystyki i wypoczynku*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN, Warszawa 1999, p. 239; D. Fijałkowski, K. Izdebski, *Szata roślinna*, in: *Środowisko przyrodnicze Lubelszczyzny*, S. Uziak, R. Turski (eds.), Lubelskie Towarzystwo Naukowe, Lublin 2008, pp. 317–419.

¹⁹ D. Fijałkowski, M. Kseniak, *Parki wiejskie Lubelszczyzny*, PWN, Warszawa 1982, p. 411.

²⁰ *Ochrona przyrody i środowiska na Lubelszczyźnie*, D. Fijałkowski (ed.), Lubelskie Towarzystwo Naukowe, Lublin 2003, pp. 1–213.

²¹ M.I. Mileska, *Regiony turystyczne Polski. Stan i potencjalne warunki rozwoju*, „Prace Geograficzne PAN” 1963, 43, pp. 1–156.

²² J. Wyrzykowski, *Geograficzne uwarunkowania rozwoju urlopowej turystyki wypoczynkowej w Polsce*, “Acta Universitatis Wratislaviensis” 1986, 935, *Studia Geograficzne* 44, p. 1–264.

²³ M. Karolczak, *Przestrzeń turystyczno-wypoczynkowa Roztocza*, “Turyzm” 2002, issue 1, pp. 5–36.

²⁴ A. Tucki, *Formy ochrony przyrody jako element atrakcyjności turystycznej na przykładzie regionu lubelskiego*, “Problemy Ekologii Krajobrazu” 2010, 27, pp. 239–244.

and the tourism management of Roztocze, were presented by M. Garbula.²⁵ The issue of making the geological heritage of Roztocze available to tourism has also been analysed.²⁶ The tourism-related use of the Roztocze National Park was discussed by A. Anasiewicz,²⁷ E. Skowronek et al.,²⁸ and A. Świeca et al.²⁹ The authors also analysed the possibilities of development of tourism in Krasnobród³⁰ and Zwierzyniec.³¹

2. Education through environmental tourism

The environmental resources of Roztocze are explored particularly in the scope of *environmental tourism, landscape tourism, geotourism, and forest tourism*.

An extensive review of the concept and definition of *environmental tourism* is presented by S. Graja-Zwolińska and A. Spychała³² (2013). Travel aimed

²⁵ M. Garbula, *Zagospodarowanie turystyczne Roztocza*, „Turyzm” 2000, issue 1: 93–109.

²⁶ T. Brzezińska-Wójcik, A. Świeca, W. Kociuba, *Nature values and tourism development in the Roztocze region*, in: *Przyroda a turystyka we wschodniej Polsce*, M. Żabka, R. Kowalski (eds.), Akademia Podlaska, Siedlce 2007, pp. 13–34; T. Brzezińska-Wójcik, M. Harasimiuk, *Dziedzictwo geologiczne Roztocza – problemy ochrony i udostępnienia turystycznego*, in: *ROZTOCZE – region pogranicza przyrodniczo-kulturowego*, R. Reszel, T. Grabowski (eds.), Roztoczański Park Narodowy, Zwierzyniec 2009, pp. 27–42.

²⁷ A. Anasiewicz, *Turystyka w Roztoczańskim Parku Narodowym*, in: *Użytkowanie turystyczne parków narodowych*, J. Partyka (ed.), Ojcowski Park Narodowy, Ojców 2002, pp. 333–342.

²⁸ E. Skowronek, A. Świeca, A. Tucki, R. Krukowska, *The role of National Parks of the Lublin Region for Tourism Development in Polish-Ukrainian Border Areas*, in: *Przyroda a turystyka we wschodniej Polsce*, M. Żabka, R. Kowalski (eds.), Akademia Podlaska, Siedlce 2007, pp. 35–52.

²⁹ A. Świeca, T. Brzezińska-Wójcik, T. Grabowski, K. Kałamucki, R. Krukowska, A. Tucki, *Turystyka i edukacja w Roztoczańskim Parku Narodowym i w jego otulinie*, in: *Roztoczański Park Narodowy – przyroda i człowiek*, R. Reszel, T. Grądział (eds.), Wyd. RPN, Zwierzyniec 2013, pp. 219–230.

³⁰ R. Krukowska, *Krasnobród – uzdrowisko i miejscowość wypoczynkowa*, in: *Stan i zmiany środowiska geograficznego wybranych regionów wschodniej Polski*, R. Dobrowolski, S. Terpiłowski (eds.), UMCS 2004, Lublin, pp. 159–163; T. Brzezińska-Wójcik, E. Skowronek, *The tourism potential of Tomaszów Roztocze as exemplified by the urban-rural commune of Krasnobród*, „Annales UMCS” 2009, Lublin, B, 64, 1, pp. 171–199.

³¹ R. Krukowska, M.J. Józwiak, *Walory turystyczne Zwierzynca i okolic*, in: *Stan i zmiany środowiska geograficznego wybranych regionów wschodniej Polski*, R. Dobrowolski, S. Terpiłowski (eds.), UMCS, Lublin 2004, pp. 147–152.

³² S. Graja-Zwolińska, A. Spychała, *What is nature tourism? Case study: university students*, „Turyzm” 2013, 23, 1, pp. 37–45.

at the exploration of environmental values and gaining knowledge on nature and new experiences is referred to as: *nature tourism*, *wildlife tourism*, or *green tourism*.³³ The primary motive of environmental tourism is the exploration, observation, and admiration of nature, and the subject of interest of tourists are areas with exceptional landscape values with unique plant and animal species.

The cognitive motive, frequently combined with educational and recreational objectives, is also dominant in *landscape tourism*. Landscape tourism is currently associated with a non-commercial form of travel involving exploration of the country or region in the scope of trips, rallies (school children, students), and individual treks.³⁴ From the educational point of view, landscape tourism also contributes to raising awareness of the need of protection of the natural heritage.

The idea of *geotourism*³⁵ developed based on the concept of tourism involving admiration of living nature. This form of tourism was initially defined by T.A. Hose³⁶ as “providing tourists with information and facilities due to which, during their visits to attractive places, apart from exclusively aesthetic impressions, tourists can become familiar with knowledge needed to understand the geology and geomorphology of the visited place”. The importance of geotourism is perceived in various ways. An extensive review of definitions was carried out by A. Osadczyk and K. Osadczyk,³⁷ and P. Migoń³⁸. According to the authors, and other cited authors (among others M. Mika,³⁹ A. Kowalczyk,⁴⁰ D. Newsome,

³³ M. Mika, *Formy turystyki poznawczej*, in: *Turystyka*, W. Kurek (ed.), Wyd. Nauk. PWN, Warszawa 2007, pp. 198–232.

³⁴ Z. Kruczek, A. Kurek, M. Nowacki, *Krajoznawstwo. Zarys teorii i metodyki*, Wyd. PROKSENIA, Kraków 2003, pp. 1–11.

³⁵ T. Słomka, A. Kicińska-Świdorska, *Geoturystyka – podstawowe pojęcia*, “Geoturystyka” 2004, 1(1), pp. 1–7.

³⁶ T.A. Hose, *Geotourism and interpretation*, in: *Geotourism*, R.K. Dowling, D. Newsome (eds.), Butterworth-Heinemann, Oxford 1995, pp. 221–241.

³⁷ A. Osadczyk, K. Osadczyk, *Szanse i perspektywy rozwoju geoturystyki jako nowej formy postrzegania obiektów przyrody nieożywionej i poznawania zjawisk naturalnych*, in: *Problemy turystyki i rekreacji*, M. Dudkowski (ed.), Vol. 1, Uniw. Szczeciński, Szczecin 2008, pp. 131–141.

³⁸ P. Migoń, *Geoturystyka*, Wyd. Nauk. PWN, Warszawa 2012, pp. 1–197.

³⁹ M. Mika, *Formy turystyki poznawczej*, in: *Turystyka*, W. Kurek (ed.), Wyd. Nauk. PWN, Warszawa 2007, pp. 198–232.

⁴⁰ A. Kowalczyk, *Turystyka zrównoważona*, Wyd. Nauk. PWN, Warszawa 2010, p. 323.

R. Dowling⁴¹), geotourism should be understood not merely as “exploring geological objects and processes”,⁴² but also in a much broader sense, and a type of tourism at the boundary of environmental and cultural tourism. Understood as such, it also concerns issues related to the excavation of rocks and minerals (mining), their use in architecture, and display in museums, exhibitions, and fairs, as well as collecting fossils. The subjects of interest of geotourism, apart from rocks and tectonic structures, minerals, fossils, volcanoes, geothermal phenomena, landforms, caves, waterfalls, well heads, and glaciers, are therefore also former and modern mining objects, architectural monuments made of stone, and cultural landscapes (theme towns/villages, e.g. Austrian Maissau – World of Amethyst).⁴³

Forest tourism is a new area of environmental tourism. A number of didactic trails have been established in the Roztocze state forests, including places of rest and recreation (parking lots and camping sites). Recreational centres, ecological education centres, game lodges, and guesthouses have also been established in Roztocze. The possibilities of practicing this form of environmental tourism are presented in the Forest Tourist Guide available on the internet.⁴⁴

Tourist trails are currently of high importance for environmental tourism in Roztocze. The natural objects and features of the region can be explored along the cross-border (Kraśnik-Lwów) Central Bicycle Trail of Roztocze. *Labelled regional and local trails* are established for *pedestrians* (“Krawędziowy” and “Szumów” in Roztocze Tomaszowskie) and *bicycles* (“Jastrzębia Zdebrz” in Roztocze Gorajskie), as well as *exploration trails* and *educational trails* (environmental trails in the “Czartowe Pole” reserve and “Na Bukową Górę” in Roztocze Tomaszowskie).

Green schools combined with workshops for children and teenagers play an important role in education through tourism, e.g. in Roztocze Gorajskie: Janów Lubelski-Forest Treasury (Janów Lubelski-Leśny Skarbiec),⁴⁵ or Green School in the Solska Forest (Zielona Szkoła w Puszczy Solskiej).⁴⁶

⁴¹ D. Newsome, R. Dowling, *The scope and nature of geotourism*. in: *Geotourism*, D. Newsome, R. Dowling (eds.), Butterworth-Heinemann, Oxford 2006, pp. 3–25.

⁴² T. Słomka, A. Kicińska-Świdarska, *Geoturystyka – podstawowe pojęcia*, ”Geoturystyka” 2004, 1(1), pp. 1–7.

⁴³ <http://www.amethystwelt.at/> (accessed 2.10.2012).

⁴⁴ <http://www.czaswlas.pl/#> (accessed 20.02.2014).

⁴⁵ A.E. Szczepanowski, *Markowe produkty turystyczne*, Polskie Wydawnictwo Ekonomiczne, Warszawa 2012, pp. 1–212.

⁴⁶ www.gala-travel.pl (accessed 20.02.2014).

3. Tourism products propagating environmental tourism

In this paper, the tourist product was considered in terms of the significance of tourism values representing the dominant destination.⁴⁷ Just in the case of Roztoczański National Park, it was possible to apply a research tool, allowing quantitative analysis of the measurable characteristics of the tourism product. The records of tourist traffic based on the number of sold tickets to nature trails in **Roztocze National Park** and the **Educational-Museum Centre** of the Roztoczański National Park in the years 2002–2010 suggest that an average of 43 thousand persons more visit them every year, with relatively high variability from year to year, from approximately 27 thousand to approximately 50 thousand visitors. The visitors are dominated by persons coming in groups – approximately 30.5 thousand of the average (71%). Individual visitors – approximately 12.5 thousand (29% – approximately every third person) – are mainly adults.⁴⁸

Tourist traffic in the Roztocze National Park and the Educational-Museum Centre is very variable from month to month (Fig. 1). Relatively low tourist traffic is observed from November to March. In these months in the multi-annual 2006–2010, the average number of visitors varied from approximately 300 to approximately 750. A substantial increase in tourist traffic is particularly observed in May (7845 visitors) and June (7518 visitors). The frequency in these two months constitutes approximately 40% of the annual value. It is worth emphasising that only in July and August, visitors coming in groups (42.7% and 29.7%, respectively) have a lower contribution than individual visitors. In the remaining ten months, visitors coming in groups predominate (from 69.1% to 91.1% of the total number of visitors).⁴⁹

⁴⁷ B. Meyer, A. Gardzińska, *Znaczenie współpracy podmiotów samorządowych w procesie kreowania transgranicznego produktu turystycznego (na przykładzie województwa zachodniopomorskiego i Meklemburgii – Pomorza Przedniego)*. Zeszyty Naukowe Uniwersytetu Szczecińskiego 2014, Szczecin, Ekonomiczne Problemy Turystyki, No. 3 (27), pp. 209–225.

⁴⁸ A. Świeca, T. Brzezińska-Wójcik, T. Grabowski, K. Kałamucki, R. Krukowska, A. Tucki, *Turystyka i edukacja w Roztoczańskim Parku Narodowym i w jego otulinie*, in: *Roztoczański Park Narodowy – przyroda i człowiek*, R. Reszel, T. Grądziel (eds.), Wyd. RPN, Zwierzyniec 2013, pp. 219–230.

⁴⁹ Ibidem. pp. 219–230.

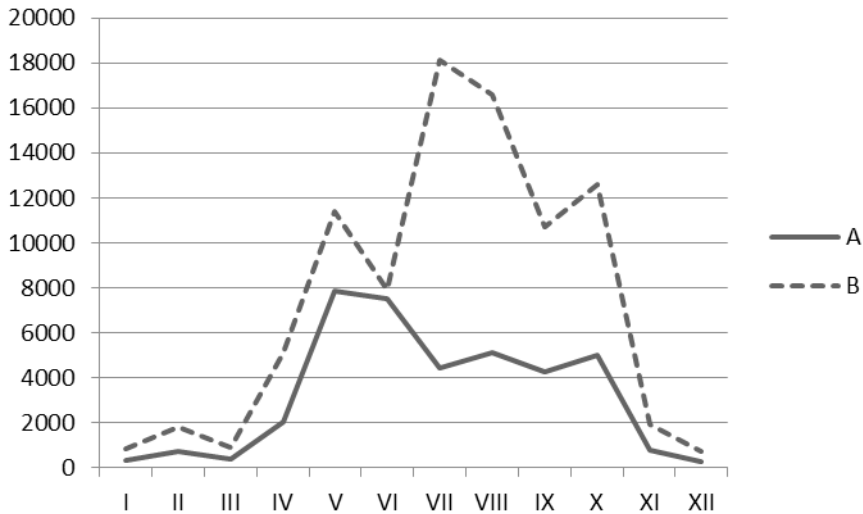


Fig. 1. Average numbers and seasonal character of tourist traffic in the Roztocze National Park in the years 2006–2010

A – number of visitors based on sold tickets to the trails of the Roztocze National Park and the Educational-Museum Centre

B – estimated tourist traffic based on monitoring

Source: own study based on the number of tickets sold for the path of Roztocze National Park and the Educational-Museum Centre and monitoring of tourism in Roztocze National Park.

Research on tourist traffic conducted at four sites (parking lot at the Educational-Museum Centre, Bukowa Góra, Florianka, and Echo Ponds) in the years 2006–2010 showed that the daily frequency of tourists varied from 1 to 5148 persons. The lowest frequency was recorded on the trail to Florianka, and the highest on the Echo Ponds. Very high disproportions were recorded in the tourist traffic in the studied objects: the Echo Ponds generated 52.6% of frequency, the Educational-Museum Centre – 24.9%, Bukowa Góra – 14.2%, and Florianka – 8.3%. Measurements in four periods (May, June, July, and August) showed that the Echo Ponds are the most popular in July (57.7% frequency), the Educational-Museum Centre – in August and July (29.6% and 29.5%, respectively), and Bukowa Góra and Florianka in May (38.3% and 36.9% frequency).⁵⁰

⁵⁰ Ibidem.

The distribution of tourist traffic at the four measurement sites in the Roztocze National Park was the basis for calculating the values for the four considered months, and the average for the study period. The average annual tourist traffic in the Park is estimated at approximately 95-120 thousand persons.⁵¹

Since 1994, the Park's primary reception point has been the Educational-Museum Centre. It includes a tourist information office and a library with a reading room. The implementation of the statutory objectives related to making the Park available to tourism and education involves the organisation of various temporary exhibitions. The permanent exposition "In the land of fir, beech, and tarpan" is also functioning. Moreover, lectures, presentations, meetings, workshops, conferences, concerts, galas, and open-air photography and art workshops are held here. Their task is to generate a better understanding of the natural environment of Roztocze. Schools in the Park's buffer zone participate in a programme entitled "Roztoczański National Park and Us", based on the original drafts and syllabuses of educational classes developed in the Park, implemented in both schools and the Park. Moreover, interdisciplinary desk and field classes are conducted in the Park for various recipients. Cyclical educational programmes, among others "Nature's Senses", "Roztocze in Lens", "Closer to Nature", "Poetry and Nature" are part of the permanent calendar of events in Roztocze, and are very popular with visitors.⁵²

Since 2011, the infrastructure of the Roztocze Scientific-Educational Centre has also been used for the implementation of educational programmes. It includes conference-exhibition rooms and the Forest Base in Florianka, where the permanent exposition presents the life of people in the forest settlement in the former Zamoyski Ordinance in the inter-war period of the 20th century. The park also coordinates extensive activities popularising the natural values of Roztocze by publishing folders, information booklets, maps, tourist guides, monographies, calendars, and lectures in the scope of the programme "Meetings in Roztocze".

The unique geological heritage of Roztocze provides a superb basis for the development of products in the scope of geotourism and landscape tourism. **Geotourism products** functioning in Roztocze include: 1) linear products – didactic trail "Mining Excavations in Senderki", Educational Trail "Krasnobród

⁵¹ A. Świeca, T. Brzezińska-Wójcik, T. Grabowski, K. Kałamucki, R. Krukowska, A. Tucki, *Turystyka i edukacja w Roztoczańskim Parku Narodowym i w jego otulinie*, in: *Roztoczański Park Narodowy – przyroda i człowiek*, R. Reszel, T. Grądziel (eds.), Wyd. RPN, Zwierzyniec 2013, pp. 219–230.

⁵² Ibidem, p. 230.

DINOSAURS”, and the Geotourist Trail of Middle Roztocze; 2) local products: museums – Krasnobród Village and Geological-Pottery Museum, Masonry Museum in Józefów, Petrified Trees Museum in Siedliska, museum in the Guciów Settlement; and 3) items – Geotourism Map of the Roztocze National Park. Some of them are already recognizable in supra-regional scale: museum in the Guciów Settlement (14.1% of responses), the Geotourist Trail of Middle Roztocze associated with the quarry “Babia Valley” in Józefów (9.1%), Petrified Trees Museum in Siedliska (5.1%).⁵³

The design of the “**Mining Excavations in Senderki**” educational trail by the State Forests involves the publication of two folders, particularly in relation to the SAC (Special Areas of Conservation) of Natura 2000, protecting one of the most interesting winter colonies of bats in the Lublin region.⁵⁴ Moreover, the board sign designed in the scope of the Geotourist Trail of Middle Roztocze displays information regarding the remains of the underground and surface exploitation of Miocene rocks, mainly used for making millstones and quernstones, as well as for the production of lime, aggregates, and crushed rock gravel. The excavation, however, is not appropriately adjusted for tourism, and no records of tourists are performed. The object is proposed as one of the geosites⁵⁵ of the Stone Forest in Roztocze geopark.

The “**Krasnobród DINOSAURS**” Educational Trail in the St. Roch valley in Krasnobród has been functioning since May 2010.⁵⁶ It occupies an area of approximately 2 hectares, including models of reptiles made of epoxy resin, harmoniously composed with the forest space. The product, available from April through October, is inspired by the Jurassic Park in Bałtów. The “Journey in time” begins in the Archaic and Proterozoic, through Palaeozoic (“great explosion” in the Cambrian, traces of life in the Ordovician and Silurian) to the Mesozoic (Upper Cretaceous). In the playground, children can become palaeontologists searching for the buried model of a 13 m-long skeleton of *Tyrannosaurus rex*.⁵⁷

⁵³ S. Kula, *Percepcja i wykorzystanie walorów turystycznych Roztocza przez osoby odwiedzające region*, in: *Wpływ sektora B+R na wzrost polskiej konkurencyjności polskiej gospodarki poprzez rozwój innowacji*, t. 1, D. Jegorow, A. Niedużak (eds.), Wyd. CIVIS, Chełm 2012, pp. 55–65.

⁵⁴ <http://www.lublin.lasy.gov.pl/web/zwierzyniec/wydawnictwa> (accessed 20.02.2014).

⁵⁵ J. Urban, T. Młeczek, Z. Cierech, *Historyczne podziemne kopalnie kamieni młyńskich w Senderkach*, <http://geoportals.pgi.gov.pl/gsap/ObjectDetails.aspx?id=2243> (accessed 3.03.2014).

⁵⁶ <http://www.infoveriti.pl/firma-krs/357424.html> (accessed 20.02.2014).

⁵⁷ <http://www.dinozaury-krasnobrod.pl/pl> (accessed 4.03.2014).

The educational trail is equipped with information boards; therefore, the park can be visited with no tourist guide. Unfortunately, no statistics of visitors are available.⁵⁸

The Geotourist Trail of Middle Roztocze and the **Geotourist Pavilion** in Józefów constitute the youngest geotourism product in Roztocze. It was developed by the Municipal and Commune Offices of Józefów (project leader) and Krasnobród, Commune Office of Susiec, and Forest Divisions of Józefów and Zwierzyniec, as well as the Roztocze National Park in the scope of a project co-financed from the Regional Operational Programme of the Lublin Province. Particularly interesting places along the trail include: a quarry of Miocene organodentric limestone in Józefów, Szopowem (Góra Młynarka), and Nowiny; a former quarry of Upper Cretaceous opokas in Krasnobród; mining excavations in Senderki; Wapielnia – the highest elevation of the Middle Roztocze; “Nad Tanwią” and “Czartowe Pole” reserves, and the sculpture workshop in Majdan Nepryski. The sites are equipped with so-called small infrastructure facilities – information boards with descriptions of particular sites, sheds, tables with benches and individual benches, bicycle parking racks, and garbage bins. The trail is described in a tourist-geologic map available in the geotourist pavilion in Józefów. The trail also includes three vantage points in Józefów and Krasnobród, and a view platform in the quarry in Nowiny. The trail has been only functioning since 2012. According to the interview with an employee of the tourist information office in the pavilion, it is very popular (recording tourist traffic by means of pyroelectric sensors is planned).⁵⁹

Krasnobród Village and Geological-Pottery Museum in Krasnobród, located in the monastery yard, was developed in the years 1989–1994. The museum includes among others an exhibition of Upper Cretaceous fossils of plants and animals (more than one hundred specimens of calcareous rocks, particularly from the quarry in Krasnobród). The all year round, free of charge tourist offer is targeted at a wide range of recipients. No records of visitors are conducted.⁶⁰

⁵⁸ T. Brzezińska-Wójcik, *Produkty geoturystyczne w województwie lubelskim jako przykład działań innowacyjnych, poszerzających dotychczasową ofertę turystyczną regionu*, in: *Wpływ sektora B+R na wzrost polskiej konkurencyjności polskiej gospodarki poprzez rozwój innowacji*, t. 1, D. Jęgorow, A. Niedużak (eds.), Wyd. CIVIS, Chełm 2012, pp. 127–148.

⁵⁹ Ibidem, pp. 138–139.

⁶⁰ Ibidem, p. 140.

The Masonry Museum in the Municipal-Commune Cultural Centre in Józefów, located at the town's central square, is dedicated to the folklore sculptor Adam Grochowicz. It includes a small collection of pieces made of organodentric (Józefów) limestone with sacred and secular art details. The museum also presents tools used for the excavation and processing of limestone. The all year round, free of charge tourist offer is targeted at various groups of recipients, with a requirement of prior telephone reservation. No record of visitors is conducted.⁶¹

The Petrified Trees Museum in Siedliska, opened in June 2003, continuously collects new exhibits and obtains funds for further development and promotion. The largest and most important among its three thematic rooms is the room with the exposition of approximately 500 fragments of petrified tree trunks (the largest collection in Poland).⁶² Cognitive tourism oriented at aesthetic impressions is encouraged by: the very high scientific value of the product, and its illustrativeness. Unfortunately, relevant informative posters are still missing. Inspired by several global examples of geoparks exhibiting petrified wood, modern swamp cypress trees were planted in the park as "living fossils", although quite far from the museum exposition. This is beneficial, however, because a thematic trail was designed, also including other places with exposition of fragments of fossilised wood ("Jalinka" reserve, lapidaria – at the church and at the oak next to the forester's lodge, tombstone in the local cemetery). The all year round, free of charge tourist offer is targeted at various groups of recipients: regional, domestic, and foreign tourists, young and older, organised and individual. The free of charge parking lot for couches and passenger cars, a shed with benches next to the object, and adjustments for handicapped persons are very useful facilities. According to the interview with the museum's curator, the number of museum pieces is continuously increased. Tourist traffic in the object is seasonal. It is the most frequently visited from May to September, particularly by organised groups. Unfortunately, no statistics of visitors have been conducted so far.⁶³

⁶¹ Ibidem, pp. 139–140.

⁶² <http://www.siedliska.com.pl/muzeum> (accessed 13.01.2014).

⁶³ T. Brzezińska-Wójcik, *Produkty geoturystyczne w województwie lubelskim jako przykład działań innowacyjnych, poszerzających dotychczasową ofertę turystyczną regionu*, in: *Wpływ sektora B+R na wzrost polskiej konkurencyjności polskiej gospodarki poprzez rozwój innowacji*, t. 1, D. Jegorow, A. Nieduzak (eds.), Wyd. CIVIS, Chełm 2012, pp. 127–148.

A peculiar environmental tourism offer in Roztocze is the collection of items in the **Guciów Settlement**. Since 2013, the wooden building from the 18th century has been housing a museum with a permanent exposition including meteors, tektites, and impactites, entitled “Falling Stars”. The exhibits include, among others, the Polish meteor called Zakłodzie (from the name of the village in Roztocze where it was found in 1998 by S. Jachymek). It is an initially classified original enstatite chondrite with a weight of 8.68 kg, covered with a rusty layer.⁶⁴ Moreover, the museum displays spoors of dinosaurs found in Roztocze in the Potok village, 5 km from Guciów. They are tracks of herbivorous duck-billed dinosaurs – hadrosaurids, and a several meters long predator from family Tyrannosaurus.⁶⁵ Fragments of the trunk of a Cretaceous tree fern and leaves of trees imprinted in an Upper Cretaceous opoka, as well as numerous ammonites, are also displayed.

A new geotourism product, currently at the stage of development, is the **Stone Forest in Roztocze geopark**. This large-area tourism product is at the first stage of designing.⁶⁶ The next stage involves obtaining the status of a National Geopark.

An extensive educational offer is provided by the **NATURE ZOOM Recreation Park** (with an area of more than 10 ha), located on the Janów Lubelski Reservoir, functioning since 2013. The Centre of the Park is occupied by modern educational laboratories (Nature ZOOM, Avifauna and Troposphere, Energy and Recycling, and Forest Floor), combining active exploration of nature and fun. In the Park, natural vegetation is harmoniously composed with walking trails with fountains, bicycle paths, outdoor gyms, and a bouldrome. The primary educational objective is to raise ecological awareness, and develop proecological attitudes

⁶⁴ <http://www.guciw.pl/muzeum> (accessed 15.01.2014); T.A. Przylibski, P.P. Zagożdżon, R. Kryza, A.S. Pilski, *Mineralogia, Petrologia, Geneza I Propozycja Nowej Klasyfikacji Meteorytu Enstatytowego „Zakłodzie”*, Olsztyńskie Planetarium i Obserwatorium Astronomiczne, Polskie Towarzystwo Meteorytowe, II Seminarium Meteorytowe, Olsztyn 2003, pp. 80–101. <http://www.ptmet.org.pl/wydawnictwa/2003%2012%20Przylibski%20et.al.pdf>.

⁶⁵ G.D. Gierliński, I. Ploch, E. Gawor-Biedowa, G. Niedźwiedzki, *The first evidence of dinosaur tracks in the Upper Cretaceous of Poland*, “Oryctos” 2008, 8, pp. 107–113.

⁶⁶ M. Krapiec, L. Jankowski, W. Margielewski, J. Buraczyński, P. Krapiec, J. Urban, A. Wysocka, M. Danek, E. Szychowska-Krapiec, M. Bolka, T. Brzezińska-Wójcik, Ł. Chabudziński, A. Waškowska, „*GEOPARK KAMIENNY LAS NA ROZTOCZU*” koncepcja geochrony wraz z wykonaniem dokumentacji i badań naukowych niezbędnych dla funkcjonowania tej formy ochrony, Akademia Górniczo-Hutnicza im. Stanisława Staszica, Kraków 2011, pp. 1–278.

in participants. For the youngest visitors, Zoom is preparing a special educational laboratory (planned opening in spring 2014). In this “forest kindergarten”, children will be able to become familiar with the basic principles of functioning of the environment and ecology while having fun (workshops and sensory-physical activities with the application of multimedia). Among others, an installation with transparent illuminated root systems of vegetables and grasses is designed, facilitating fun education (games, films, riddles, animations, etc.). Parents can visit the laboratories, and learn about bird species or types of clouds. The designers of the Recreation Park also support the idea of active cognition, combining cognitive content with multi-sensory experiences and live emotions. The Park will organise annual meetings for amateur herbalists and gardeners. The activity of the Nature Zoom Recreation Park will also include (from 2014) meetings and conferences regarding among others the following issues: ecological energy sources, active and educational tourism, herbal medicine, and nature in the cosmetics industry⁶⁷.

Conclusion

The didactic value of environmental tourism in Roztocze involves generating the need of contact with nature. This is suggested by the results of the analysis of tourist traffic in one of the most important tourism products, namely the Roztocze National Park.

Although most (except Roztoczański National Park) of the analyzed tourism objects/attractions do not contain all the components of the tourism product, that they are a good starting point to form a complete, integrated offer. Due to the varied geological-geomorphological conditions, diversified landscape, high forest cover, and well developed network of tourist trails, Roztocze offers favourable conditions for the development of environmental tourism. The substantial educational values of the outcrops of Upper Cretaceous, Eocene, and Miocene rocks, as well as Quaternary deposits, rocks, knickpoints in river channels, springs, and well-heads provide the basis for the development of cognitive tourism products.

The current offer of Roztocze in the field of nature tourism and tourism education is no possibility of its use and expansion. The analysed products pro-

⁶⁷ <http://www.zoomnatury.pl/> (accessed 28.02.2014).

vide the basis for the development of ecotourism (personal contact with specific elements or forms of nature, natural complexes, or landscapes), contemplation tourism (experiencing intimate contact with nature, and its beauty variable in time and space), and self-fulfilment tourism (getting to know oneself, one's own mental and physical possibilities).

Currently tourism, based on natural resources, generates funds for the nature conservation only in the Roztocze National Park. Two offers – Educational Trail “Krasnobród DINOSAURS” and museum in the Guciów Settlement – affect local economic development because they generate income and give the jobs.

Changes in the awareness of the local community regarding the geological heritage demonstrates the organization and functioning of the Petrified Trees Museum in Siedliska. Because the group of Siedliska residents founded the association “Our Habitat,” which was gained funds for the preparation of the exhibition. In addition, individual residents has supported the initiative, bringing pieces of petrified wood exposure.

Increasingly also products made in relation to the geological heritage (Masonry Museum in Józefów, the Geotourist Trail of Middle Roztocze with the map, Krasnobród Village and Geological-Pottery Museum, didactic trail “Mining Excavations in Senderki”) are perceived by local governments, state institutions and local communities as a chance to diversify the existing of the nature educational offer.

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STAN I PERSPEKTYWY ROZWOJU PRODUKTÓW TURYSTYCZNYCH NA ROZTOCZU W KONTEKŚCIE TURYSTYKI PRZYRODNICZEJ I EDUKACYJNEJ

Streszczenie

Unikatowe dziedzictwo przyrodnicze Roztocza stanowi bardzo dobre podstawy do rozwoju turystyki przyrodniczej i edukacyjnej. Aktualnie w tym regionie istnieje zaledwie kilka produktów z tego zakresu. W niniejszym opracowaniu zaprezentowano aktualną oraz przygotowywaną ofertę w zakresie turystyki przyrodniczej i edukacji na Roztoczu. Podstawą opracowania są źródła danych pośrednich (literatura przedmiotu, dokumenty strategiczne, materiały promocyjne, strony internetowe) oraz bezpośrednich (inventaryzacja terenowa, wywiady z organizatorami ofert geoturystycznych). Wielkość ruchu turystycznego w jednym z ważniejszych produktów turystycznych, jakim jest Roztoczański Park Narodowy, przedstawiono na podstawie danych z lat 2006–2010 (monitoring o charakterze ilościowym i jakościowym, ujęcia dzienne, miesięczne, sezonowe). Przedmiotem analizy jest również oferta nowych produktów na Roztoczu, ze szczególnym uwzględnieniem produktów geoturystycznych. Wyniki badań wskazują, że, większość spośród przeanalizowanych obiektów/atrakcji turystycznych nie zawiera wszystkich składowych produktu turystycznego. Tylko niektóre spośród nich generują środki na ochronę przyrody oraz wpływają na lokalny rozwój gospodarczy. Mimo to stanowią one dobry punkt wyjścia do kształtowania pełnej, zintegrowanej oferty. Ponieważ coraz bardziej produkty takie postrzegane są przez samorządy, instytucje państwowe i społeczności lokalne jako szansa na dywersyfikację dotychczasowej przyrodniczej oferty edukacyjnej.

Słowa kluczowe: produkt turystyczny, turystyka przyrodnicza, edukacja, Roztocze

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TOURISM IN HYPERARID (DESERT) REGIONS: PRIMARY CONCERNS FOR DEVELOPMENT

Abstract

Recently a couple from the State of Qatar died of thirst when their car overturned in the Rub al Khali desert south of the city of Doha. Although this region contains stunning natural beauty, including unusual fauna and biota, oases, sand dunes, and unique geomorphology, the Empty Quarter (Rub al Khali) desert is still a forbidding and extreme environment which must be explored with extreme caution. Drylands and deserts, defined by the ratio of precipitation to evapotranspiration, cover approximately 40–50% of the world's surface (including the dry Polar regions); thus they represent an important and underutilized tourist resource. This study reviews the challenges of developing the desert regions of MENA and the Arabian Gulf for sustainable natural and cultural tourism and the potential strategies for utilizing their unique gifts while at the same time maintaining their fragile existence. Deserts do not regenerate quickly and human impacts can remain and degrade these biomes for decades. Thus planners must determine whether mass tourism, niche market (adventure or extreme), or other strategies are appropriate, and the policies to prevent the destruction of the unique environmental features of these locales. As case studies of both successful and harmful projects in Jordan, Egypt and the UAE have demonstrated, desert tourism can be either beneficial to national GDP, local stakeholders, and international tourists, or, on the other hand, harmful to the environmental, socially divisive, and unsustainable in the long term. A general consensus is emerging among tourism researchers that in order to productively add value to an economy and nation, tourism must be sustainable: it must take into account both short and long term environmental effects as well as the impact on local communities. Although seemingly counter-intuitive, lessons learned from sustainable

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extreme environment tourism development can be applied to all regions of the world, including water-rich tropical zones.

Keywords: Sustainable tourism, drylands and desert tourism, extreme environments, Middle East and North Africa (MENA), Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC)

Introduction

The development of arid and hyperarid regions (drylands and deserts) with minimal rainfall presents several important concerns for tourism management and policy planning. The primary issue of course is the particularly complex issue of water resources and water scarcity, which includes not only strictly geophysical and hydrogeological dimensions, but also social and economic issues such as sustainability, distributive justice and cultural concerns since trade-offs are inevitable between large scale tourism infrastructure and local inhabitant needs and traditional patterns of desert life. Taking a case study approach from selected countries of the Arabian Gulf and MENA region, this contribution analyzes factors that must be considered for sustainable, profitable, and equitable tourist industry development in highly arid regions.

Deserts and Drylands are normally defined by their aridity index, which is the ratio between annual precipitation and potential evapotranspiration (evaporation + transpiration) or $AI = P/PET$. Extreme environments are here defined as biomes which are Hyperarid ($AI < 0.05$) and Arid ($AI = 0.05-0.20$). Lands which fit this definition comprise approximately 20% of the earth's land mass. Rainfall in these regions can vary from 0–200 mm per annum. Hyperarid and Arid lands occur across North Africa (Sahara desert) extending into the Arabian Peninsula and southern Iran and India, the western United States, Australia, China/Mongolia, Chile and South Africa. Water availability is a dominant concern for these regions and scarcity of this essential resource presents serious economic, environmental and political (security) dimensions. Water is particularly important for the Arabian Gulf (GCC), since as Spiess points out, “four GCC member states are rated among the 10 most water-scarce countries in the world. Kuwait (10 m^3 p.a.), the UAE (58 m^3 p.a.), Qatar (94 m^3 p.a.), and Saudi Arabia (118 m^3 p.a.)

rank as the first, third, fifth, and eighth water-deficient countries respectively”.² Since tourist water needs typically exceed those of local inhabitants for a variety of reasons, including the fact that tourists tend to abandon conservation-minded behaviors when on holiday, increasing tourist capacity in water scarce areas must take local water resources, as well as other related environmental factors, into account in developing tourist policy and strategies.

Countries such as southern Tunisia, Egypt, and Jordan have begun to develop mass tourism infrastructures in arid regions, and some of the challenges encountered are chronicled below. Human activities, in particular farming, unregulated irrigation, grazing, and now tourism (water use in desert hotels and parks can be especially heavy for swimming pools, laundry, fountains, outdoor cleaning, and maintaining parks and green spaces) have been implicated in desertification, a recognized international problem. Desertification occurs when formerly productive land becomes non-productive wasteland with soil erosion, loss of plant and animal life, and decreases in biodiversity. Although not entirely understood, the causes of desertification are specifically linked by Imeson to the explosive growth of human population from 1850 to the present, and man’s increasing technological ability to alter his own environment.³ Unfortunately, due to the remoteness from scientific centers of expertise and poor technical infrastructure of many of the countries dominated by desert climates, a wide array of key scientific and environmental indicators from desert regions are missing or incomplete, such as the size and quality of underground aquifers, regional drought patterns, hydrogeological cycles, soil chemistry, animal impacts, biodiversity, and plant lifecycles and succession, which calls for a cautious approach to full scale mass tourism development, in colloquial terms ‘better safe than sorry.’

As a World Bank report warned as early as 1990, “the problem of desertification has been poorly characterized by public statements, books, magazines and sometimes scientific articles. It has been poorly characterized in five ways. First, the impression has been conveyed that the extent of the problem of desertification is well known, when in fact the evidence is extraordinarily scanty.

² A. Spiess, 2012, *Environmental Degradation, Climate Uncertainties, and Human Vulnerabilities: Realm of Possible Actions toward a Shifting Security Paradigm in the Arab Gulf Monarchies*. In: *Climate Change, Human Security and Violent Conflict*, J. Scheffran et al. (eds.), Hexagon Series on Human and Environmental Security and Peace 8, Berlin, Springer, p. 388.

³ A. Imeson, 2012, *Desertification, Land Degradation and Sustainability*, Oxford, Wiley-Blackwell, pp. 10–11.

Second, the degree to which there is professional agreement among scientists and practitioners on the extent, causes and solutions has been overestimated. Third, the extent of desertification as an irreversible state has probably been exaggerated, although it is correct to classify it as a serious problem. Fourth, the image created has too often been of inexorably advancing sands, as opposed to more subtle, more complex, pulsating deteriorations, sometimes with reversals, but at least, with substantial periodic remissions, radiating out from centers of excessive population pressure. Fifth, the availability of profitable technologies to combat the problem has been overestimated because the gap between what is socially profitable and what is perceived as privately profitable has been underestimated”.⁴ Desertification involves loss of vegetation, from either human activities such as intensive agriculture and poor soil conservation practices, from overgrazing or naturally high animal populations, or from climatic changes.

When plant cover is removed for long periods due to animal grazing or during plant harvest times, soil dries and erodes away leaving unproductive soil layers or bedrock below. However, paleodesert sediments exist from the Cambrian period (c. 500 million years ago) which long predates the arrival of humans; thus man cannot be the sole cause of deserts and desertification. Similarly, the Sand Hills of Nebraska, with clear geological features of moving barchan sand dunes also found in the Sahara and other arid deserts, have been naturally reclaimed and stabilized with vegetation, probably due to moist air masses from the Gulf of Mexico and microclimate establishment from local interdune wetlands (dune-blocked stream drainage). But humans certainly can exacerbate naturally occurring climatic events such as droughts by poor farming methods including lack of contour plowing, neglecting fallow land practices, wasteful and inefficient irrigation (which produces runoff and high evaporation), and maintaining animal herds above environmental carrying capacity. Thus geological and climatic events that occur naturally need to be better studied so that human and natural impacts can be more fully understood in order to place sustainable tourist practice on an evidence-based and scientific footing.

Sustainable and eco-friendly tourism represents one of the most promising futures for desert regions and the populations who live in them. Other uses of arid lands, such as pastoralism or irrigated farming, must be closely monitored,

⁴ R. Nelson, 1990, *Dryland Management: The “Desertification” Problem*, Washington: DC, World Bank, p. 1.

since overuse by introducing tourism impacts can permanently exhaust fossil water sources or degrade the soil reducing its ability to sustain life. Mining for minerals and petroleum is another land use strategy that can provide economic benefits from drylands since many are rich in metallic ores. Yet similar to fossil water, mineral resources in deserts are non-renewable and finite; for example, the sodium nitrate fertilizer deposits of the Atacama desert of Chile sparked the momentous War of the Pacific in 1879-83 among Chile, Bolivia and Peru, but now the mines and mining towns are abandoned due to the introduction of the cheaper Haber-Bosch ammonia process in Germany. Copper mines have replaced the nitrate mines in the Atacama desert, and account for a significant portion of Chile's GDP, but when they are exhausted, domestic and regional conflict will undoubtedly resurface as the country seeks new sources of income. Economic diversity, as opposed to economies that rely heavily on rents from mineral resources, has been shown to temper boom and bust cycles. Adding sustainable tourism to other sustainable economic activities thus promotes economic and political stability.

1. Methods

This contribution draws on the direct observations of the author as a frequent guided and unguided traveler and explorer in the MENA and Arabian Gulf deserts of Morocco, Kuwait, Jordan, Oman, UAE, Qatar, and Egypt. The paper also reviews the small body of peer-reviewed scholarly literature on desert tourism as well as recent scientific research into the geomorphology, ecology, hydrology, botany, and anthropogenic biome impacts (habitat sustainability) in highly arid regions. A case study approach from various arid and hyperarid regions is adopted to highlight specific concerns, which are summarized in Table 1 below along with recommendations for minimizing human impacts and achieving environmental and social sustainability in tourism development plans.

2. Discussion and Results

2.1. Water and tourism

The water scarcity problem in desert regions should not be underestimated – overpopulation and unsustainable water withdrawals when coupled with drought leading to crop and cattle destruction have fueled numerous political conflicts in North Africa and the Jordan River Valley over the centuries as well as direct deaths and outmigration from famine. Although among the most water scarce nations on earth, the countries of the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC)—including Bahrain, Qatar, UAE, Saudi Arabia, Kuwait and Oman—have temporarily solved their water shortage problems by installed water desalination plants powered by the region’s cheap and plentiful natural gas and oil resources. To give a sense of the scale of produced water in the region, the country of Qatar with a current population of 1.9 million has five desalination plants with a capacity of 217 MIGD (986,000 m³/day) with two more plants scheduled to come online with 108 MIGD (491,000 m³/day) capacity.⁵ Almost 100% of domestic and drinking water needs in Qatar are met by desalination, since groundwater is used primarily for low-yield agriculture. The wisdom of using this groundwater for a sector which produces less than 1% of GDP has recently been called into question in Qatar. The country contains 5,400 km of water transmission pipes and 22 pumping stations. The fact that water is provided for free or is subsidized by many Gulf governments increases consumption, and Gulf nations will soon become the highest per capita users of water in the world.⁶ Thus introducing a water conservation ethic into the Arabian Gulf tourist industry is particularly challenging since true water costs are obscured by government subsidy, and almost no domestic water consumption reduction technologies or public information campaigns on water usage now exist in the Gulf.

The obvious sustainability issue with the desalinated water systems that have arisen throughout the Gulf is the reliance on finite hydrocarbon resources to fuel

⁵ S. Atilhan, A.B. Mahfouz, B. Batchelor, P. Linke, A. Abdel-Wahab, F. Nápoles-Rivera, M.H. El-Halwagi, 2012, *A systems-integration approach to the optimization of macroscopic water desalination and distribution networks: a general framework applied to Qatar’s water resources*, Clean Technologies and Environmental Policy, 14, p. 162.

⁶ S. Atilhan, et al. op. cit., p. 162; J. McKenna, A. Freudmann, J. Kinninmont, 2010, *The GCC in 2020: Resources for the Future*, London, The Economist Intelligence Unit Limited.

the desalination process. In addition, the lack of water tariffs in oil-rich countries does not instill in consumers a sense of the real costs and value of water, who take the resource for granted. Qatar is currently countering this future challenge by supporting research through Qatar National Research Fund and Qatar Science and Technology Park into more efficient and renewable energy-based desalination techniques, such as solar desalination. The government will also upgrade the distribution network, which leaks an estimated 30–35% of water volume into the ground. Research is also underway to treat and reuse produced water (PW) which originates in gas and oil wells, much of which is currently dumped.

Adding tourist infrastructure to water-scarce areas creates new water needs in a number of areas: water for the construction of buildings, roads and attractions; water for imported construction workers (all Gulf nations have severe manual labor shortages – thus tourist development will increase the local population); and water for the tourists themselves. Although there is not enough current reliable evidence to make accurate generalized comparisons, the water usage of desert hotels probably exceeds that of a typical hotel in a humid and temperate climate for the following reasons: outdoor pools and fountains experience high evaporation rates, and greenery must be artificially irrigated (and many hotels witnessed by the author use inefficient and poorly installed spray irrigation, and often irrigate during the daytime hours instead of at night). In addition, the lack of rainfall and persistent dust and sand deposits necessitate the constant cleaning of external surfaces with water. Also few hotels in the Gulf capture and reuse wastewater (greywater) for recycling. Air conditioning condensate, which is considerable due to the high humidity in the Gulf, is rarely collected on a small or large scale, even though this water is almost pure enough for human consumption.⁷ Many of these problems, such as daytime irrigation, can be directly attributed to a lack of environmental consciousness and a lack of concern for efficiency and productivity – also, due to monopolistic economic behavior in the Middle East (both the *wasta* system and government dominance of the tourism sector), and access to extremely inexpensive expatriate labor from India and South Asia, free market forces and competition do not drive efficient and sustainable practices in the tourist sector.

A case study from southern Tunisia by Dłuzewska in 2008 indicated that tourist attitudes about water usage can negatively impact the behaviors and eco-

⁷ K.J. Loveless, A. Farooq, N. Ghaffour, , *Collection of condensate water: Global potential and water quality impacts*, “Water Resource Management” 2013, 27, pp. 1351–1361.

logical attitudes of the indigenous population, even in the face of their own traditional knowledge about water use. In water scarce southern Tunisia, water usage by primarily European tourists in Tozeur and Nefta is estimated at approximately 200–300 liters per day per capita, close to 20 times greater than the usage by local inhabitants in the near past.⁸ Water conservation is not practiced or encouraged in the Tunisian tourist industry, through warning signs or instruction by staff in the hotels and due to the abundance of swimming pools and the practice of ornamental plant watering, European visitors may in fact be unaware that they are in a water scarce area. Dłuzewska found in addition that local inhabitants themselves believe that water is plentiful, pointing to the practices of the hotel industry as evidence for a bountiful water supply. If water were in fact scarce, locals reported to Dłuzewska in interviews, why would hotels be constantly refilling pools and watering plants? The lack of concern for environmentally-friendly tourist behavior becomes acute in mass tourism settings, since the primary destination motivation for this consumer segment is low cost, and not necessarily an interest in natural beauty or cultural education. Also, large masses of people increase the amount of environmental stress from simple day-to-day activities, such as walking over vegetation, and they generate large amounts of non-biodegradable waste, for example plastic water bottles in hot environments.

Another case study from Oman demonstrates that distributive justice must be taken into account in allocation of finite water resources in order to achieve culturally sustainable tourism that does not negatively impact traditional activities such as farming, which contains a cultural component (the customs and rituals of agricultural life) as well as a strictly economic dimension.⁹ Several inexorable forces are transforming modern Omani society, including the urbanization of Oman and migration to the city of Muscat, and abandonment of agriculture, such as date palm production in oases. Omanis have for thousands of years developed a complicated system of water capture and transport called falaj (plural aflaj), which still supplies 410 Million m³ of water per year in Oman.¹⁰ Most

⁸ A. Dłuzewska, *Direct and indirect impact of the tourism industry on drylands: the tourism industry example of southern Tunisia*, "Management of Environmental Quality: An International Journal" 2008, 19(6), p. 664.

⁹ S. Zekri, M. Mbagha, A. Fouzai, S. Al-Shaqsi, 2011, *Recreational value of an oasis in Oman*, *Environmental Management*, 48, pp. 81–88.

¹⁰ Zekri S et al., 2011, *op. cit.*, p. 82.

of this water is used in irrigated agriculture, but significant amounts are diverted for domestic, tourist and industrial use. If agricultural users neglect regular maintenance of this system or migrate elsewhere, then new water systems eventually will need to be built and new wells dug. Also, a decline in domestic agriculture from water diversion will necessitate more food imports, which are costly due to the continuing high price of transportation fuel. The full contribution of the many thousands of Omanis who maintain the traditional sluices, canals, cisterns, tanks and pipes of the falaj system is undervalued in Oman today, although five falaj sites were listed as World Heritage Sites by UNESCO in 2006.

In water scarce areas such as parts of Oman (the southern regions are well watered by monsoon rains), all human activity can cause water quality degradation due to agriculture, domestic use, and over pumping of wells which causes salt water intrusion and salinization of soils. If there is not sufficient rain water to flush out the salt from groundwater used in agriculture, salt buildup in soils becomes toxic to plants, and agricultural land must be abandoned. Ahmed et al. estimated that soil salinity problems in Oman in 2005 alone caused \$18.9 – 36.0 million USD in damages.¹¹ Increased tourist infrastructure which incorporates irrigated ornamental plants and green spaces will thus exacerbate the soil salinity problem. Therefore water policy and water allocation in regions such as Oman are obviously complicated questions that require competent cost-benefit analyses that examine long-term trends such as soil degradation. Soil degradation is a real phenomenon that has been measured directly as well as modeled extensively by computer programs in Australia and Canada¹². A simple solution would be to accept the natural desert aesthetic of limited plant cover and dry soil and sand, and design hotel landscapes that reflect the local flora that exists on the limited rainfall or dew, instead of using imported plants that cannot live without being watered artificially.

The international food crisis of 2007–2008 which saw large spikes in food prices and bottled water in the GCC caused widespread concern about food security

¹¹ M. Ahmed, N. Hussain, S.A. Al-Rawahy, 2013, *Management of saline lands in Oman: Learning to live with salinity*. In: *Developments in soil salinity assessment and reclamation: Innovative thinking and use of marginal soil and water resources in irrigated agriculture*, ed. S.A. Shahid et al., Dordrecht: Springer Science+Business Media B.V., pp. 265; N. Hussain, 2005, *Strategic plan for combating water and soil salinity in Sultanate of Oman for 2005–2015*, Oman, Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries (unpublished).

¹² J.A. Dixon, D.E. James, P.B. Sherman, 1990, *Dryland Management: Economic Case Studies*. London: Earthscan Publications, pp. 241–303.

in the Gulf, and a re-examination of agricultural practices and water use. Qatar currently imports over 90% of its foodstuffs. Some Gulf nations responded to the crisis by purchasing land and land rights in water-rich countries (primarily Africa) to insure a reliable and secure supply of imported food crops. However, the long-term sustainability of these practices has been challenged, since some of these land purchases have been characterized as ‘land-grabs’ in which the farmland of poor indigenous farmers has been illegally appropriated or sold below cost by governments with unreliable claims to this farmland¹³. The food security issue underscores the regional and global interconnectedness of all areas of human development. For low population desert countries like Kuwait, Qatar and UAE, large scale tourism obviously puts additional stress on strained local food and water sources, and the natural environment from off-road vehicles, camping, and trekking.

Some concrete evidence does exist for the economic importance of maintaining biodiversity for both tourism and maintaining the health of ecosystems: using the example of Iceland’s whaling industry, Hudson and Lee have argued that preserving species for sustainable tourist practice, such as whale-watching in Iceland or Australia, can actually provide more value than commercially killing those same species for food and oil, which can lead to species extinction or threat of extinction¹⁴. Similarly, by banning the hunting of the nearly extinct Arabian oryx (*Oryx leucoryx*) in Qatar and the reintroduction of new herds now generates tourist dollars through zoos and an oryx breeding farm outside of Doha. Well documented in modern historical periods are permanent extinctions of various species caused by human hunting, introduction of invasive species, and habitat destruction, such as the Dodo bird (*Raphus cucullatus*) and Passenger Pigeon (*Ectopistes migratorius*). Also, the economically valuable Canadian cod industry was decimated by overfishing the Grand Banks, and completely collapsed in 1992–93 sparking a government moratorium on fishing. Ecological theories of niche and the food web maintain that life is one interconnected web in consumer-resource systems, and that breaks in the web such as mass extinctions of key species could present serious consequences for the human food chain. Due to the limited number of species adapted to survive in deserts, breaks in the food chain in hyperarid regions could be catastrophic and have been under-studied.

¹³ Oxfam, 2012, *Our Land our Lives: Time Out on the Global Land Rush*, London, Oxfam.

¹⁴ K. Hudson, D. Lee, *Biodiversity and tourism: A valuable relationship*, “Social Alternatives” 2010, 29(3), pp. 39–43.

2.2. Cultural impacts of desert tourism

Desert tourism development has been implicated in potentially causing permanent cultural change to local populations and shifts in economic means of production (abandonment of farming, child begging, lifestyles revolving around tourist businesses, etc.). Hobbs argues that tourism may be encouraging sedentarization of the traditional Bedouin in Egypt.¹⁵ Hobbs has chronicled the tourism boom experienced by the Khushmaan Bedouin tribe in the northern Eastern Desert of Egypt. The 1997–2005 drought forced the Bedouin either to enter the tourist trade or migrate to cities along the Nile or other tourist resorts along the Red Sea. Hobbs believes that continued drought along with continuation of tourist activities could prevent the transfer of indigenous Bedouin knowledge such as hunting, tracking, and desert survival from parents to children, and that “sustained drought combined with tourism impacts could take Khushmaan culture beyond a tipping point, depriving youth of traditional pastoral education and channeling them toward a permanent settled existence”.¹⁶ Stafford Smith and others¹⁷ have argued that in addition to lifestyle change initiated by tourism, several other factors increase the vulnerability of desert inhabitants – general poverty, since arid lands have fewer exploitable natural resources (with the exception of mineral wealth), and remoteness from population centers leading to economic exposure and lack of political voice. Thus laws and policies such as national tourism strategies that impact desert regions are often implemented by national power centers without consultation with locals, which has led to government conflicts with native Bedouins in the Negev Desert, Taureg and Berbers in North Africa and Morocco, and Bedouins in Jordan and Kuwait (specifically the bidoon or stateless persons). The most contentious and sometimes violent conflicts have involved resettlement of locals to make way for tourist projects.

Similar cultural concerns have been documented for the Bedul and Liyathnah tribes who inhabited the Nabataean and Roman ruins around Petra, Jordan before

¹⁵ J.J. Hobbs, F. Tsunemi, *Soft sedentarization: Bedouin tourist stations as a response to drought in Egypt's eastern desert*, “Human Ecology” 2007, 35, pp. 209–222.

¹⁶ J.J. Hobbs, F. Tsunemi, 2007, op. cit., p. 209.

¹⁷ M. Stafford Smith, , *The ‘desert syndrome’—causally linked factors that characterise outback Australia*, “The Rangeland Journal” 2008, 30(1), pp. 3–14; J. Davies, S. Holcombe, *Desert knowledge: integrating knowledge and development in arid and semi-arid drylands*, “GeoJournal” 2009, 74, p. 365.

they were removed by the government park service to a settled village.¹⁸ As tourist numbers increased in Petra, more and more traditional inhabitants were drawn into tourism service jobs. Petra has also been experiencing serious built heritage problems: Tom Paradise studied two popular sites in Petra over a ten year period—the Khazneh and Theatre—“finding that touching, leaning and rubbing the surface of Khazneh have receded the surface by 40mm in less than 10 years, for the theater, markings of the stone masonry are continuously disappearing; less than 5% of them can be seen now”.¹⁹ This alarming rate of destruction means that unprotected stone relief, engravings and inscriptions will disappear within decades. Moisture from tourists’ breath is also cracking the interior walls of sandstone caves and monuments in the park. Lubick also notes that neglect of the traditional water collection and diversion system in Petra (damaged in an earthquake in 363 A.D.) has increased flash flooding and damage to the bases of the sandstone monuments.²⁰ Intelligent and sustainable practice would dictate that the Nabataean water system should be thoroughly studied by Water Engineers and historians, and potentially restored to functionality to capture and divert rain water. Captured water could provide water for toilets (which are virtually non-existent in the park) and treated drinking water for tourists, and decrease damage to historical buildings. Water policy in Jordan, just as in the Gulf, is again a critical concern since “with 167 m³/capita/year, Jordan falls into the category of ‘absolute scarcity.’ The scarcity of water in Jordan is the single most important constraint to the country’s growth and development because water is not only a factor for food production but a very crucial factor of health, survival, and social and economical development”.²¹

¹⁸ A.S. Weber, 2011, *Bedouin memory between city and desert*, Memory Connection, 1(1), pp. 135-37; A.S. Weber, 2013, *Sustainable tourism in extreme environments: Lessons from desert regions*, in: *Proceedings of the 2nd International Scientific Conference - Tourism in Southern and Eastern Europe: Crisis - A Challenge of Sustainable Tourism Development?*, vol. 2, Opatija: University of Rijeka, Faculty of Tourism and Hospitality Management, pp. 430–31.

¹⁹ M.H. Mustafa, S.N. Abu Tayeh, *The impacts of tourism development on the archaeological site of Petra and local communities in surrounding villages*, “Asian Social Science” 2011, 7(8), p. 90.

²⁰ Lubick N, 2004, *Petra: An eroding ancient city*, Geotimes, 2004, http://www.geotimes.org/june04/feature_petra.html [4 July 2014].

²¹ M. Al-Alawi, 2008, *Desertification in Jordan: A security issue*. In: *Environmental Change and Human Security*, P.H. Liotta et al. (eds.), (pp. 81–102), Dordrecht: Springer Science+Business Media B.V., p. 92.

3. Conclusion and Recommendations

Table 1 below summarizes the major desert tourism challenges and suggested solutions. Due to the well known destructive examples of deliberately introduced invasive species such as cane toads and rabbits in Australia, the author in general does not support human intervention in land regeneration and prefers leaving nature to correct any imbalances. However, deserts may require human assistance to regenerate, such as artificial breeding of endangered animals and returning them to their former natural habitat or re-establishing native plants that stabilize soils and retain moisture. Also, heat, drought and salinity tolerant plant hybrids, such as Jojoba plant used in India which stabilizes soil and produces commercial oil can be used to mitigate tourist impacts in Drylands and help return them to their natural state. Windbreaks and man-made dune stabilization may also be beneficial and the problems of wind erosion, advancing dunes, and desert micro-climates require much more additional scientific study.

In addition, preserves and exclusion zones, management of herd sizes, and limits on water use – which require enforcement, education, and negotiation with local stakeholders – can also be integrated into rational sustainable tourism management schemes. Unfortunately, many desert dwellers, especially those maintaining a semi-nomadic existence, are hostile or indifferent to urban elites and government agencies since they feel neglected in the distribution of state goods and services such as roads, wells, and social welfare and education. Thus many small-scale tourist enterprises are locally controlled with little interference from government agencies, a situation with both advantages and disadvantages. The obvious advantage is that locally run establishments are better adapted to their environments and more sensitive to challenges and constraints of their particular tourist locale, including very important cultural considerations involving Muslim attitudes towards alcohol and pre-marital and extra-marital behaviors. Disadvantages include the fact that national policies and regulations that protect both operators and tourists and which promote sustainable tourist practices are difficult to implement, and sound management and oversight becomes logistically difficult when factored into transportation and communication problems in remote regions. Remoteness (limited accessibility) in and of itself was cited as a key obstacle in desert tourism development, along with harsh physical

conditions, poor infrastructure, and limited and untrained manpower in Krakover's study of sparselands tourism in Israel's Dead Sea area.²²

Table 1

Summary of Desert Tourism Management Problems and Recommended Solutions

Desert Tourism Problem	Recommended Mitigation Strategies
Flora and fauna fragility	Off-limits and protected zones; restrict travel to marked trails and roads only; rotate fallow regions; temporary off-limits zones during breeding; patrols and fines for hunting or damaging wildlife; artificial breeding and reintroduction of indigenous plants and animals
Slow biome regeneration	Fallow areas; limited entrance; permits; environmental education; required video viewing on responsible tourist behaviors before entering parks
Landscape destruction	Initial environmental impact assessment, including natural aesthetics; ban or limit activities such as camping, open fires, collection of natural objects
Water scarcity	Desalination, pumped ground water, rain water collection, dams; limit entrance to day trips or water carried in by tourists; building codes requiring water saving technologies; research into renewable energy desalination
Water competition	Engage farmers, ranchers, government agencies, and tourist developers in discussions on equitable water distribution
Local culture change	Engage local leaders; education on tourist impacts on culture; government subsidy of traditional local cultural activities

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²² S. Krakover, 1985, *Development of tourism resort areas in arid regions*. In: *Desert development: Man and technology in sparselands*, Y Gradus (ed.), (pp. 271–284), Dordrecht, D. Reidel Publishing Company.

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TOURISM IN HYPERARID (DESERT) REGIONS: PRIMARY CONCERNS FOR DEVELOPMENT

Streszczenie

Recently a couple from the State of Qatar died of thirst when their car overturned in the Rub al Khali desert south of the city of Doha. Although this region contains stunning natural beauty, including unusual fauna and biota, oases, sand dunes, and unique geomorphology, the Empty Quarter (Rub al Khali) desert is still a forbidding and extreme environment which must be explored with extreme caution. Drylands and deserts, defined by the ratio of precipitation to evapotranspiration, cover approximately 40-50% of the world's surface (including the dry Polar regions); thus they represent an important and underutilized tourist resource. This study reviews the challenges of developing the desert regions of MENA and the Arabian Gulf for sustainable natural and cultural tourism and the potential strategies for utilizing their unique gifts while at the same time maintaining their fragile existence. Deserts do not regenerate quickly and human impacts can remain and degrade these biomes for decades. Thus planners must determine whether mass tourism, niche market (adventure or extreme), or other strategies are appropriate, and the policies to prevent the destruction of the unique environmental features of these locales. As case studies of both successful and harmful projects in Jordan, Egypt and the UAE have demonstrated, desert tourism can be either beneficial to national GDP, local stakeholders, and international tourists, or, on the other hand, harmful to the environmental, socially divisive, and unsustainable in the long term. A general consensus is emerging among tourism researchers that in order to productively add value to an economy and nation, tourism must be sustainable: it must take into account both short and long term environmental effects as well as the impact on local communities. Although seemingly counter-intuitive, lessons learned from sustainable extreme environment tourism development can be applied to all regions of the world, including water-rich tropical zones.

Słowa kluczowe: Sustainable tourism, drylands and desert tourism, extreme environments, Middle East and North Africa (MENA), Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC)

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THE POSITION OF LOWER SILESIA ON DOMESTIC AND INTERNATIONAL TOURIST MARKET

Abstract

The article presents the position of Lower Silesia on the domestic and international tourist market. The data used here concern the potential of tourist value, the volume of tourist accommodation, the number of domestic and international tourists making use of the accommodation and the number of their stays. The perspectives of tourism development in Lower Silesia are also presented.

Keywords: Lower Silesia, tourist group accommodation facility, domestic tourism, international tourism, tourist market

Introduction

Lower Silesia as a historic region may, as a certain simplification, be identified with the Lower Silesian Voivodeship, which occupies about 19.9 thousand km², i.e. 6.4 % of Poland's territory. The voivodeship is connected with a few large geographic regions: the Silesian Lowland, the Silesian-Sorbian Lowland, the Sudetean Foothills and the Sudetes. Lower Silesia, especially the Sudetes, belong to the most attractive areas in Poland boasting a long tourist tradition. This appeal comes from, among others: landscape values (two national parks, over a dozen landscape parks), natural wonders (caves, waterfalls, river breaks, picturesque rock formations), numerous spa towns, good skiing areas, rich

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and multinational cultural heritage and the location on the crossroads of important European routes as well as bordering the Czech Republic and Germany. This potential creates wide perspectives for the development of domestic and international tourism. Determining the current position of Lower Silesia on the domestic and international tourist market is the purpose of the paper. This research is based on the review of literature concerning spatial aspects of tourism in Central and Eastern Europe, and in Poland, with particular attention paid to tourist potential of the areas, current ways of use and perspectives of future development (among others: Wyrzykowski 1995, 1997, 2007, Marak, Wyrzykowski, 2012). Theoretical framework of the analyses presented in this research is available, among others, in “Turystyka w ujęciu interdyscyplinarnym” [Interdisciplinary approach to tourism] eds. J. Wyrzykowski, J. Marak (2010).

1. Lower Silesia on the domestic tourist market

The Sudetes play the most important part in the Lower Silesian tourism. T. Lijewski et al.¹ (2008) include them into seven main tourist regions of Poland. Within the Sudetes four sub-regions (more important tourist regions) may be distinguished: the Jelenia Góra Sudetes, the Wałbrzych Sudetes, the Kłodzko Sudetes and the West Sudetean Foothills. Moreover, the more important tourist areas of Lower Silesia are: the Ślęża Massif, the Trzebnickie Hills, The Lower Silesian Forest with the Kwisa River Valley, the Barycz River Valley, the Odra River Valley and Wrocław (as a large tourist center) with its surroundings.

The sightseeing potential of the region is illustrated by Chart 1. Against the rest of Poland Lower Silesia stands out taking into account, among other things, the number of landscape parks, objects of UNESCO World Heritage sites, Polish monuments of history and immovable relics.

¹ T. Lijewski, B. Mikułowski, J. Wyrzykowski, *Geografia turystyki Polski* (5th edition), PWE, Warszawa 2008.

Table 1

Potential of sightseeing values in Lower Silesia as compared to the rest of Poland

No.	Features of potential	Poland	Lower Silesia	% share
1	Number of national parks	23	2	8.7
2	Number of landscape parks	122	13	10.6
3	Number of nature reserves	1469	66	4.5
4	Number of UNESCO World Heritage Sites	14	2	14.3
5	Number of monuments of history	54	7	13.0
6	Number of immovable relics	66424	8173	12.3
7	Number of museums and museum branches	768	58	7.5

The current position of Lower Silesia on the domestic tourist market will be described by the volume of tourist accommodation and the number of domestic tourists using it, as well as by the number of their overnight stays.

Taking into account the total number of beds for tourists in group accommodation facilities Lower Silesia (the Lower Silesian Voivodeship) with accommodation base of around 50 thousand beds occupies the fourth position in the country following the West Pomeranian, Pomeranian and Lesser Poland Voivodeships (Table 2). It is noteworthy that after World War II for a long time Lower Silesia was considered to be a well-developed area, thus not requiring special attention and as a result it kept losing its outstanding position on the map of tourist development of Poland.² The structure of tourist accommodation base shows a big share of hotels (56.4%) and a comparatively small share of beds in spa facilities (1.4 thousand), which may be explained by some inefficiency of Central Statistical Office's data.³ The signaling information for The Statistical Office in Wrocław for year 2012⁴ states 3.7 thousand beds in spa facilities. The largest number of beds occurs in Wrocław and the Jelenia Góra and Kłodzko powiats.

² *Turystyka na Dolnym Śląsku. Stan i kierunki rozwoju*, J. Wyrzykowski (ed), Akademia Wychowania Fizycznego we Wrocławiu, Wrocław 2004.

³ *Rocznik Statystyczny Województwa Dolnośląskiego 2012*, Urząd Statystyczny we Wrocławiu, Wrocław 2012 (ASSETS_ROCZNIK_TI_2013); *Turystyka w 2011 roku*, GUS, Warszawa 2012.

⁴ *Turystyka w województwie dolnośląskim w 2012 r. Informacja sygnałowa*, Urząd Statystyczny we Wrocławiu, Wrocław 2013 (ASSTS_sygnalna_turystyka_2012).

Table 2

Beds available for tourists in group accommodation facilities
in year 2011 by voivodeships

Voivodeship	Total	Hotels	Other accommodation facilities
Lower Silesian	49 551	27 942	21 609
Kuyavian-Pomeranian	24 274	8 964	15 310
Lublin	18 232	6 994	11 238
Lubusz	18 944	7 531	11 413
Łódź	20 245	12 534	7 711
Lesser Poland	73 319	37 097	36 222
Masovian	42 781	31 193	11 588
Opole Silesian	8 213	2 923	5 290
Subcarpathian	21 591	7 841	13 750
Podlaskie	11 032	5 151	5 881
Pomeranian	78 115	20 439	59 676
Silesian (Upper Silesian)	42 053	23 881	18 172
Świętokrzyskie	12 106	6 514	5 592
Warmian-Masurian	37 810	14 746	23 064
Greater Poland	41 304	21 394	19 910
West Pomeranian	106 676	17 367	89 309
Poland	606 246	252 511	353 735

Source: *Tourism in 2011*, Central Statistical Office (GUS), Warszawa 2012.

According to the Statistical Yearbook for the Lower Silesian Voivodeshp⁵ up to the half of year 2012 (as of 31.07.) the number of tourist beds in Lower Silesia increased to 59.1 thousand. This means a growth of 19.2% which might be associated with the region's preparations to the European football championships.

Tourist accommodation base in Lower Silesia in 2011 was used by 1.6 million domestic tourists, which constitutes 9.4% of total. A vast majority (67%) stayed in hotels. In catering to domestic tourists in 2011 Lower Silesia took the third position after the Masovian (2.3 million) and the Lesser Poland Voivodeships (2.2 million) and before the Silesian (1.5 million), the West Pomeranian (1.5 million), the Greater Poland (1.4 million) and the Pomeranian (1.4 million) Voivodeships.

⁵ *Rocznik Statystyczny Województwa Dolnośląskiego 2013*, Urząd Statystyczny we Wrocławiu, Wrocław 2013.

Table 3

Domestic tourists staying in tourist group accommodation facilities
in year 2011 by voivodeships

Voivodeship	Total	Hotels	Other accommodation facilities
Lower Silesian	1 595 981	1 100 326	495 655
Kuyavian-Pomeranian	737 318	490 855	246 463
Lublin	557 275	371 016	186 259
Lubusz	493 105	360 583	132 522
Łódź	921 556	706 276	215 288
Lesser Poland	2 192 056	1 313 795	878 261
Masovian	2 335 117	2 011 829	323 288
Opole Silesian	209 208	113 654	95 554
Subcarpathian	648 965	407 485	241 480
Podlaskie	383 329	269 895	113 434
Pomeranian	1 379 167	787 575	591 592
Silesian (Upper Silesian)	1 530 869	1 055 235	475 634
Świętokrzyskie	406 947	309 767	97 180
Warmian-Masurian	807 045	584 679	222 366
Greater Poland	1 407 259	1 040 051	367 208
West Pomeranian	1 461 905	578 450	883 455
Poland	17 067 066	11 578 068	5 488 998

Source: *Tourism in 2011*, Central Statistical Office (GUS), Warszawa 2012.

Authors of vast research on tourist traffic in Lower Silesia in 2007⁶ used results of their questionnaire poll and estimated the number of visitors to the region (both domestic and international) in the following way:

number of tourists in categorized base according to CSO	1 849 727 people
number of one-day tourists (25%)	462 432 people
number of tourists staying at their friends' (21.3%)	393 992 people
number of tourists in uncategorized base (18.2%)	336 650 people
total	3 042 801 people

⁶ *Raport z badań ruchu turystycznego na Dolnym Śląsku i we Wrocławiu w 2007*, Dolnośląska Organizacja Turystyczna, Wrocław 2007 (Badanie_Ruchu_Turystycznego_na_Dolnym_Slasku-2007).

This estimate shows that the degree to which tourist facilities are used in Lower Silesia is far greater than described by indexes based on CSO's data. It concerns both domestic and international tourists.

A survey on tourist traffic in 2012⁷ shows, that the most often visited in Lower Silesia (by visitors from Poland and abroad) were: Wrocław (52.9 marks), Karpacz (27.8), Szklarska Poręba (11.5), Jelenia Góra (9.6), Kudowa-Zdrój (8.9), Duszniki-Zdrój and Wałbrzych (6.4 each), Kłodzko (6.3), Polanica-Zdrój (6.0) and Legnica (5.2).

In year 2011 domestic tourists had 4.0 million stays in group facilities, which is 8.5% of total stays for domestic tourists. Just as with the number of beds available, as far as the number stays of domestic tourists is concerned Lower Silesia took the fourth position in the country after West Pomerania (7.7 million stays), Lesser Poland (6.2 million) and Pomerania (5 million). Most stays in Lower Silesia was in hotels, whereas in the whole of Poland domestic tourism was dominated by stays qualified as "other accommodation types", which mostly were holiday resorts and training-leisure centers.

Table 4

Overnight stays of domestic tourists in tourist group accommodation facilities in year 2011 by voivodeships

Voivodeship	Total	Hotels	Other accommodation facilities
Lower Silesian	3 970 628	2 228 777	1 741 851
Kuyavian-Pomeranian	2 625 491	782 371	1 843 120
Lublin	1 341 663	562 425	779 238
Lubusz	1 086 854	563 428	523 426
Łódź	1 713 577	1 122 225	591 352
Lesser Poland	6 219 067	2 899 668	3 319 399
Masovian	3 882 121	3 066 896	815 225
Opole Silesian	488 714	217 871	270 303
Subcarpathian	1 955 199	706 569	1 248 630
Podlaskie	765 247	437 387	327 860

⁷ *Badania ruchu turystycznego na Dolnym Śląsku w ujęciu powiatowym i subregionalnym wg Aktualizacji Programu Rozwoju Turystyki dla Województwa Dolnośląskiego. Raport końcowy, Urząd Marszałkowski Województwa Dolnośląskiego, BIOSTAT, Wrocław 2012, (<http://www.turystyka.dolnyslask.pl/images/stories/wiadomosci5/badanie%20ruchu%20turystycznego%20>).*

Voivodeship	Total	Hotels	Other accommodation facilities
Pomeranian	4 969 296	1 656 913	3 312 383
Silesian (Upper Silesian)	3 998 682	2 008 846	1 989 836
Świętokrzyskie	1 183 112	593 803	589 309
Warmian-Masurian	2 108 001	1 133 423	974 578
Greater Poland	2 527 271	1 556 973	970 298
West Pomeranian	7 693 066	1 246 837	6 446 229
Poland	46 527 989	20 784 952	25 743 037

Source: *Tourism in 2011*, Central Statistical Office (GUS), Warszawa 2012.

2. Lower Silesia in the international tourist market

Lower Silesia is highly attractive for international tourists. The areas of highest appeal are the Karkonosze National Park and the Table Mountains National Park, of high appeal – The Ślęza Massif Landscape Park, the Sowie Mountains Landscape Park and the Śnieżnik Landscape Park.⁸ The huge potential of cultural values of Lower Silesia, which constitutes a shared heritage of the Poles, the Czechs the Austrians and the Germans, creates exceptional predispositions for the development of culture tourism and preparing common tourist offers in this scope with the Land of Saxony and the northern Czech Republic, maybe also with the city of Prague. This could draw the attention of foreign visitors, maybe even from outside Europe. Some towns of international significance might become: Duszniki-Zdrój, Henryków, Jawor, Jelenia Góra, Kamieniec Ząbkowicki, Karpacz, Kłodzko, Krzeszów, Książ (a district of Wałbrzych), Kudowa-Zdrój, Łądek-Zdrój, Legnica, Legnickie Pole, Lubiąż, Polanica-Zdrój, Szklarska Poręba, Świdnica, Trzebnica, Wambierzyce and Wrocław.⁹

The current position of Lower Silesia on the international tourist market will be expressed with the number of foreign tourists making use of the tourist accommodation base of the region as well as the number of their overnight stays.

In 2001 tourist facilities of collective accommodation in Lower Silesia was used by 430.7 thousand international visitors. This constitutes 9.8% of the to-

⁸ T. Lijewski, B. Mikułowski, J. Wyrzykowski, op. cit.

⁹ *Turystyka na Dolnym...*

tal number of international tourists making use of accommodation facilities in Poland. Lower Silesia took the third position among all voivodeships, after Masovian and Lesser Poland voivodeships. The vast majority of foreign tourists in Lower Silesia (86.3%) stopped in hotels. More than a half of them used accommodation facilities in Wrocław. Some powiats: Jelenia Góra, Zgorzelec, Kłodzko and Lubań also stood out as far as the number of international tourists making use of qualified accommodation base was concerned.

Table 5

International tourists in tourist group accommodation facilities
in year 2011 by voivodeships

Voivodeship	Total	Hotels	Other accommodation facilities
Lower Silesian	430 745	371 854	58 891
Kuyavian-Pomeranian	84 170	75 155	9 015
Lublin	97 835	91 870	5 965
Lubusz	176 501	167 176	9 325
Łódź	126 630	119 635	6 995
Lesser Poland	943 315	823 317	119 998
Masovian	976 793	936 092	40 701
Opole Silesian	32 346	28 623	3 723
Subcarpathian	69 946	62 518	7 428
Podlaskie	90 293	76 010	14 283
Pomeranian	282 373	250 361	32 012
Silesian (Upper Silesian)	274 151	251 587	22 564
Świętokrzyskie	28 073	25 396	2 677
Warmian-Masurian	152 382	138 678	13 704
Greater Poland	242 343	226 284	16 059
West Pomeranian	401 654	262 866	138 788
Poland	4 409 550	3 907 422	502 128

Source: *Tourism in 2011*, Central Statistical Office (GUS), Warszawa 2012.

Among international tourists staying in 2011 in Lower Silesia these were the Germans who were most numerous (41% of total). Others were: the Russians (10.3%), the British (5%), the French (4%), the Spanish and Italians (3.5% each), the Ukrainians (3.2%), the Dutch (2.8%), the Czechs (2.4%) and tourists from the USA (2.2%) (*Tourism in Lower Silesia...*, 2012).

In 2012 Wrocław was one of the organizing cities for European Football Championships, thus the number of international tourists increased to 483.9 thousand. That meant a growth of over 12%, significant, but below expectations. The share for German tourists reached 38.1% and apart from them other more frequent nations were: the Russians (13.7 %), the English (4.5 %), the Ukrainians (3.9 %) and the French and Italians (3.6 % each) (Statistical Yearbook for the Lower Silesian Voivodeship 2013, 2013).

In research concerning tourist traffic in year 2012 in Lower Silesia (Research of Tourist Traffic..., 2012) results concerning the structure of nationalities of foreign visitors was a little different. The Germans obviously took the first position (90.0 positive answers in analyzed accommodation facilities), next came the Russians (19.6), the Ukrainians (17.4), the Dutch (15.5), the Czechs (15.1), the English (13.2), the French (11.9), the Italians (5.9) and tourists from the USA (5.5). Lower Silesian tourism organizers emphasize the growing share of visitors from Russia and the Ukraine.

In 2011 international tourists scored over a million (1 028 065) stays in tourist accommodation facilities. That made the region fourth in Poland in this category after West Pomeranian, Lesser Poland and Masovian Voivodeships. An average stay of a foreign tourist lasted 2.4 nights.

Table 6

Overnight stays of international tourists in tourist group accommodation facilities in year 2011 by voivodeships

Voivodeship	Total	Hotels	Other accommodation facilities
Lower Silesian	1 028 065	826 951	201 114
Kuyavian-Pomeranian	192 288	162 460	29 828
Lublin	145 998	131 815	14 183
Lubusz	246 682	221 551	25 131
Łódź	267 350	227 762	39 588
Lesser Poland	2 175 036	1 861 105	313 931
Masovian	1 740 860	1 660 715	80 145
Opole Silesian	79 949	67 768	12 181
Subcarpathian	153 253	127 915	25 338
Podlaskie	136 448	113 987	22 461
Pomeranian	729 170	618 325	110 845
Silesian (Upper Silesian)	585 390	516 547	68 843

Voivodeship	Total	Hotels	Other accommodation facilities
Świętokrzyskie	65 510	54 566	10 944
Warmian-Masurian	362 095	316 661	45 434
Greater Poland	485 049	441 293	43 756
West Pomeranian	2 234 941	1 055 791	1 179 150
Poland	10 620 264	8 397 392	2 222 872

Source: *Tourism in 2011*, Central Statistical Office (GUS), Warszawa 2012.

In 2012 the number of overnight stays of international tourists in Lower Silesia grew to 1128.8 thousand, which meant an increase of 9.8%. An average tourist stayed 2.6 nights.

The current position of Lower Silesia on the international tourist market is unsatisfactory and it does not represent the potential of the region as expressed by its tourist values.

Perspectives

In “The Strategy for the Development of the Lower Silesian Voivodeship 2020” (2013) the main development directions in the region were determined as: the development of manufacturing based on mining industry and the development of tourist services on the basis of rich values of the natural and cultural environment. As a consequence the region should in future play a much more significant role on the domestic and international tourist market.

Taking into account all factors determining the development of tourism in Lower Silesia, to-date tourist offer of the region and current trends in European and Polish tourism, it is possible to point to a few branded products with the capacity to be tourist packages, which nowadays have the best chance of success and around which the strategy of tourist development of a region should be built. These are: active tourism, culture tourism, spa tourism, business tourism and weekend tourism (Turystyka na Dolnym Śląsku..., 2004).

Active tourism includes varied forms of active recreation in natural environment, such as swimming and water sports, hiking, cycling, canoeing, horse riding, field games, downhill skiing and cross country skiing, sledging, ice-skating and activities referred to as specialized or qualified tourism, such as sailing, mountain climbing, rock climbing, speleology, aviation sports, etc. Such product should be addressed to regional, domestic and international tourism both within the short term and long term tourism.

Choosing active tourism to be the branded product is justified by current tendencies in European and Polish tourism, results of research on tourist preferences of the Poles, wide promotion of healthy lifestyle in mass media and arguments from the medical world supporting active lifestyle as a protection against diseases of civilization. Recognizing the product to be the branded one is also supported by especially advantageous environmental factors facilitating the development of many forms of physical activity in the region.

Cultural tourism includes sightseeing tourism targeting objects of cultural heritage, ethnic tourism (sentimental) geared towards visiting objects of national cultural heritage which were left behind borders of a country of residence, as well as religious and pilgrimage tourism. The exceptional value of Lower Silesian multicultural heritage has already been mentioned above.

Spa tourism boasts a specially long tradition in Lower Silesia. The region, particularly the Sudetes, has always been treated as a large spa region in Poland. The accession of Poland to the European Union bringing about further facilitation in travel and taking treatment, but also the process of European societies aging, which also applies to the Polish society, more attention paid to keeping fit among working people – all of them should bring about further growth of demand in spa services. The offer of spa tourism should be targeted at both domestic and international tourists. As far as international tourists are concerned these should be the Germans that might be expected to show most interest.

Business tourism includes business trips, participation in fairs, congresses and conferences, taking part in professional trainings, integration events for employees. Business tourism constitutes an important segment of tourist market in many regions and towns, however it must be mentioned that Lower Silesia has particular predispositions to develop this type of product due to its large economic significance in trans-region and international co-operation as well as its location at the crossroads of important European routes and in the borderland between Poland, Germany and the Czech Republic. The offer should be aimed at both domestic and international tourists.

The acknowledgement of transit tourism as a branded product of Lower Silesia was determined by the regions location at the crossroads of important European routes. The development of transit tourism is facilitated by its being the borderland between Poland, Germany and the Czech Republic. Handling transit traffic of both people and merchandise includes accommodation, catering, tourist, cultural, sports and recreation services and may make the sector of ser-

vices an important branch of tourist industry. The offer should target domestic and international tourism.

Weekend tourism takes a special place among branded tourist products. Variety and a high rank of tourist values and good (though in need of further improvement) accessibility in the region may determine that short term, weekend, offers aimed at the very region's inhabitants, inhabitants of neighboring regions (particularly of Greater Poland, Opole Silesia and Upper Silesia), but also German and Czech agglomerations like Berlin, Dresden or Prague, may become especially attractive. Weekend tourism might make use of products of active, cultural and spa tourism. This type of offer may also prove attractive for business and transit tourists.

It might also be advantageous to build common tourist offer together with the German Land of Saxony and the northern parts of the Czech Republic (including Prague), which could attract the attention of foreign visitors, even from outside Europe.

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POZYCJA DOLNEGO ŚLĄSKA NA KRAJOWYM I MIĘDZYNARODOWYM RYNKU TURYSTYCZNYM

Streszczenie

W artykule przedstawiono pozycję Dolnego Śląska na krajowym i międzynarodowym rynku turystycznym. Wykorzystane dane dotyczą wartości potencjału turystycznego, wielkości bazy turystycznej, liczby turystów krajowych i zagranicznych korzystających z noclegów i liczby ich pobytu. Przedstawione zostały również perspektywy rozwoju turystyki na Dolnym Śląsku.

Słowa kluczowe: Dolny Śląsk, turystyka krajowa, turystyka międzynarodowa, rynek turystyczny

