TOURISM RESEARCH IN A CHANGING WORLD

Editors: Francisco Dias, Joanna Kosmaczewska, Ewa Dziedzic and Antonio Magliulo

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In our increasingly complex and diverse world, the problems facing the tourism research community are also increasingly heterogeneous and multifaceted. It is therefore natural and even vital that the development of tourism studies must be strongly supported by research networks that reflect an intense collaborative work of many researchers worldwide.

This Monograph is a clear expression of this new collaborative environment, since the articles published here represent the efforts of the 45 researchers from 8 countries, namely: Brazil, Hungary, Iraq, Italy, Poland, Portugal, Serbia and Spain. But it is also the contribution of 50 other researchers from 13 countries, who kindly agreed to review the articles submitted by authors. It was up to the task of giving publishers an overall coherence to the document, standardizing it and framing the various contributions.

The Monography is structured in three parts. The first one is dedicated to the issue of sustainability and competitiveness in tourism sector. Three measurements systems are presented: ETIS Model, NECSTouR Model and DBI Model. The impact of tourism for the sustainable development is addressed in connection with the Blue Flag (for the case of coastal tourism), rural tourism, natural environment, cultural tourism attraction (in the example of the Festival Wedding in Heidelberg). The social responsibility (in the case of Amazon River), the solid waste management in mountain tourism (the case of Serbia) and the tourism as a factor of regional economic development in Middle East, are also issues deserving the readers' attention.

The second part of the Monograph the tourism competitiveness is analysed in close connection with three important factors: cooperation, innovation and creativity. The role of creativity and innovation in the tourism development is illustrated on the cases of the Polish cities and of the Polish region of Zachodniopomorskie Voivodeship, and as mean for participation of foster family members in tourism and recreation. The innovation in the tourism sector is also presented in connection with the cooperation (the case of Krakow). But the cooperation is itself
be nuclear issue in new conceptualization of tourism destination, as it is referred in the Jovicic’s article.

The last part of the Monograph, titled “Current Issues of Tourism, Hospitality and Recreation” presents nine chapters of tourism research agenda, ranging from the conceptual level of the phenomenology of tourism to the highly specific issue of holiday preferences of Polish vegans, but addressing issues so diverses like medicinal and thermal tourism, city running tours, timesharing, catering in rural open museums or web communication.

Poznan, 19th May, 2014
PART 1

SUSTAINABILITY AND COMPETITIVENESS IN TOURISM SECTOR
INTRODUCTION

SUSTAINABLE AND COMPETITIVE TOURISM:
TARGETS, DETERMINANTS AND MEASUREMENT SYSTEMS

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A short premise

The European Commission has recently approved the Programme for the Competitiveness of Enterprises and SMEs (COSME). The program covers the years from 2014 to 2020 and includes actions for the tourism sector too.

This is just the most recent decision. For a long time the Commission has considered tourism a key sector for reinforcing the sustainability and the competitiveness of the entire European economy. For a long time public authorities, regions, private companies, non-profit organizations, scholars of different disciplines have been engaged in the challenge of making tourism destinations more competitive and sustainable.

Three preliminary questions arise in this challenge. Firstly, what does it mean to pursue the target of a sustainable competitiveness? Secondly, what are its main determinants? Thirdly, how can we measure it?

Here, I would like to highlight some significant points perhaps useful to sketch an answer.

1. The Target

In times of crisis, the doubt arises whether sustainability is something that particularly small destinations can or cannot afford if they want to remain or become competitive. In general, in order to be competitive, costs and prices need to be lowered, whilst to be sustainable expensive quality processes are required.

If we wish to attempt to eliminate this doubt, we need to free up the terrain from slippery terminological misunderstandings and clarify the meaning of the words we are using. The objective, as repeatedly announced by European, national and regional authorities, is the competitiveness and sustainability of tourism destinations.
We are dealing with three keywords - destination, competitiveness and sustainability - and we are trying to evaluate if and how a territory can become more competitive and more sustainable at the same time.

A tourism destination is a large or small physical space with attractions. Tourists temporarily leave their usual place of residence and embark on a trip because they are attracted by a destination: natural, cultural, recreational or of another type. The destination is the real product that the tourist chooses and judges\(^1\).

Destinations can differ and be analysed in different ways. Perhaps the most important distinction to be drawn is that based on the nature of the product. There are corporate destinations and community destinations. The first are similar to businesses. Theme parks or ski resorts are, for example, corporate destinations: they offer just one (or mainly one) service, they target managers appointed by the owners and they pursue economic growth objectives that may potentially be shared by all those working there.

Community destinations, on the other hand, are territorial communities and have far more complex characteristics.

- They have variable boundaries. St. Moritz is a tourism destination, but so are the Canton of Graubünden, Switzerland and Europe. The borders are marked out by tourists. St. Moritz is mainly a destination for the Germans, French, English and Italians. It is not for the Chinese. No one would travel that far merely to visit St. Moritz and maybe not even to see the Canton of Graubünden and Switzerland. From the far East, people would come to visit Europe. Scholars speak of a “sense-making phenomenon from a demand perspective”.
- They offer different goods and services. When a tourist spends a week in St. Moritz, he considers, on the whole, if the climate was pleasant, if there was plenty of snow, if lift services were efficient, if the roads were looked after, if hotels were comfortable and if the locals were welcoming... It is a blend of goods and services that are partly private and partly public and common.
- They are exposed to asymmetrical information. The consumer seeks to have an authentically human experience. He demands and evaluates as a whole the goods and the services offered in that place. Producers, instead, are busy packaging specific services: transport, intermediation or accommodation. No one knows, wants or indeed can package the destination as "merchandise".

The destination is therefore the tourism product that consumers demand and evaluate: whether it is a theme park or a ski resort. In corporate destinations, a business strategy can more easily be identified, aimed at promoting and marketing the only (or main) product sold. In

\(^{1}\) On the nature and type of tourism destinations, see Vanhove (2005) and Franch (2010).
Community destinations, instead, we have a major coordination problem: who can convert a heterogeneous set of goods and services into a homogeneous product to be offered to tourists, and how can they do it?

Community destinations cannot use the visible hand of the private entrepreneur nor the invisible hand of the market. They cannot use the first because, by definition, they are communities in which a great many public and private entrepreneurs operate. There is no mayor nor commissioner nor hotelier who can force his vision on the rest. But nor can community destinations use the invisible hand of the market, which orders and arranges everything, because, as it has been extensively explained by the economists, the market fails and it is unable to allocate resources efficiently when there are public goods, common resources or asymmetries in information. So what then? Then we need to use the gentle strength of social dialogue. We need to convene, to involve and listen to all stakeholders of a destination so that their points could give rise to operative solutions aimed at making the services offered more integrated.

Competitiveness is our second keyword. In 1998, Michael Porter published an influential volume entitled *The Competitive Advantage of Nations*. A little while later, Paul Krugman, future Nobel prize-winner for Economics, spoke of a "dangerous obsession" for the competitiveness of countries and territories. Since then, the theoretical debate has run incessantly and has also been extended to the tourism economy.

In a recent study, we read: “We can define (systemic) competitiveness of a territory as the ability of a locality or region to generate high and rising incomes and improve livelihoods of the people living there.”

To take this approach, the competitiveness of a tourism destination should be defined as the capacity to generate high or growing well-being for its residents. And this well-being can be measured in terms of income, employment, education and, perhaps, also happiness. It would be a partial, unsatisfactory definition that would take no consideration of the level of tourist satisfaction. The well-being of the residents may be obtained by "exploiting" the tourists or the environment and would therefore only be temporary, unsustainable.

And thus we reach our third and final word: sustainability. In the Brundtland Report approved by the United Nations in 1987, it is said that economic development is sustainable if it meets the demands of present generations without affecting the possibility of future generations to meet their needs. The next year, in 1988, the World Tourism Organisation set the idea out for tourism: tourism development is sustainable if it meets the demands of the residents and visitors of today without affecting the options of the residents and visitors of tomorrow. In tangible,

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3 See Annoni – Kozovska (2010: 2).
operative terms, tourism development is sustainable if the generations of today deliver intact assets to future generations⁴.

In short, sustainable competitiveness is the capacity to generate high or growing well-being for residents and tourists, whilst safeguarding the destination's assets.

2. The main determinants

According to Ritchie and Crouch, perhaps the most authoritative scholars of tourism economics, the competitiveness of a tourism destination depends on two factors: the "assets" (resource endowments) and the capacity to use them (resource deployment) and, therefore, to transform them into an offer of tourism goods and services⁵.

The tourism "assets" are the sum of various resources: natural, cultural, intellectual and infrastructural. The assets of a ski resort, for example, include the mountains, climate, art, history, tradition, the courtesy of the people, professionalism of operators and a great deal besides. These are assets that can be looked after and optimised or eroded and destroyed.

A destination may have great assets (natural or cultural) but it may be unable to make the most of them. Or, it may develop by consuming the assets it inherited. It is a bit like a family: for a while the tangible well-being stays unchanged, or even grows. But then, inevitably, comes the decline. A destination that does not protect its environment, its local traditions and the quality of work destroys the resources generating well-being. It cuts the tree of life. To be lasting, development must preserve and if possible increase the assets it has inherited. Otherwise, we are dealing with ephemeral, transient, unsustainable development.

So far, sustainability has been basically understood as a principle of inter-generational fairness, and in times of crisis, the temptation may prevail to seek prudent selfishness, deferring care for the interests of future generations to better times.

The fact is that assets are also important for today's generations. A destination that protects the environment, that improves the quality of life of its residents, that protects the local identities and reduces waste of energy resources, is not only more sustainable in the future, but also more competitive in the present. Sustainability is therefore a driver of competitiveness. More and more tourists will choose and reward sustainable destinations. As Ritchie and Crouch wrote (2003: 9): “Competitiveness without sustainability is illusory”.

A third driver of competitiveness and sustainability is innovation. Innovation can improve both resource endowments (and therefore sustainability) and resource deployment. According to Schumpeter, innovation is a new combination of inputs aimed at producing both “other things” and the “same things” by a different method. This idea covers five main cases: 1) the introduction

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⁵ See Ritchie – Crouch (2003).
of a new good; 2) the introduction of new methods of production; 3) the opening of a new market; 4) the conquest of a new source of raw materials; 5) the carrying out of the new organization of any industry.

In the tourism sector one can find the same cases, with a peculiarity\(^6\). The true tourism product, as we have seen, is the destination, and the destination is a bundle of different goods and services: search and experiences, public, private and mixed goods. An innovation could refer to a single good (or process) as well as to the destination in its entirety. A global innovation, for example, is the attempt to build “smart destinations” pursued by several countries\(^7\). Moreover, there are innovations that improve either sustainability or competitiveness. The former, *coeteris paribus*, enhances the competitiveness too. The latter could contrast with sustainability: in fact, we could have innovations (of goods, processes, markets...) which destroy the destination assets.

In brief, the sustainable competitiveness of tourism destinations depends basically on resource endowments, resource deployment and innovation.

3. The measurement systems

“If you can’t measure it, – a famous aphorism of contemporary business economics declares – you can’t manage it”. “Science is measurement”, as another famous motto coined in 1933 by the Econometric Society says.

In our times, the belief has become firmly rooted that only what can be measured has a scientific basis and can be managed with the standards of human reason. Measuring is not wrong. Indeed, where possible, it is useful in order to improve our knowledge of the natural and social phenomena we seek to dominate. But we must be aware that measurement is always partial and cannot constitute the be-all and end-all of knowledge of the phenomena investigated.

In recent years, various different methods have been developed to calculate the competitiveness and sustainability of businesses and territories. The World Economic Forum publishes an annual report on the competitiveness of the national economic systems constructed on the basis of 14 pillars; these pillars use a set of statistical indicators to measure the level of safety, the effectiveness of regulations, the efficiency of the public administration, the quality and prices of services, the available assets and other dimensions. The same parameters have been used to prepare a Travel & Tourism Competitiveness Index. The drivers of competitiveness include sustainability, but restricted to the environmental sphere. We are, therefore, talking about competitiveness without sustainability (or with limited sustainability). In 2011, the World Economic Forum proposed, for the first time, a method for calculating "sustainable competitiveness" considering all dimensions of sustainability: environmental, social and


\(^7\) See Government of Spain (2012) and La Rocca (2013).
economic. The New Sustainable Competitiveness Index remains, however, a method of assessment that is valid above all for comparing the performance of the different national economic systems.

There are also scholars who have sought to measure the sustainability of tourism development using analysis techniques that had originally been prepared and experimented in other areas: the carrying capacity, namely the maximum number of tourists a destination can host without risking its territorial assets, and the ecological footprint, namely the human consumption of natural resources with respect to the amount of resources available (renewable). In these cases, we are dealing with sustainability without competitiveness.

In October 2007, the European Commission approved the important communication entitled “Agenda for a Sustainable and Competitive European Tourism”.

In June 2009, in the wake of that document, three European regions - Catalonia, PACA and Tuscany - founded NECSTouR (Network of European Regions for a Sustainable and Competitive Tourism), a non-profit association that brings together regions, universities and businesses working in the European tourism industry. The aim is to promote social dialogue between all public and private stakeholders, in order to develop an integrated, sustainable, competitive tourism offer.

NECSTouR sets out the idea of sustainable competitiveness into ten major objectives - taken from the European Agenda - which can be measured using a set of statistical indicators to be prepared on the basis of data already available from research institutes and administrative headquarters of large and small destinations.

The ten objectives (pillars) are:

- To limit the environmental impact of transport
- To increase the quality of life of residents
- To increase the quality of employment
- To reduce the seasonality of tourism flows
- To protect the cultural heritage
- To protect the environmental heritage
- To protect the identity of destinations
- To reduce and optimise the use of natural resources and water in particular
- To reduce and optimise energy consumption
- To reduce and manage waste

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9 See Commission of the European Communities (2007) and European Union (2007). See also the communication setting out the strategy aimed at keeping Europe the world’s number one destination in terms of the number of arrivals, European Commission (2010).
10 On the NECSTouR model, see the documents published at www.necstour.eu and Varra (2012).
Statistical indicators should constitute the core of an information system in support of
destination management decisions. The Region of Tuscany, for example, has already begun
establishing a Network of Tourism Destination Observers involving local institutions, universities
and companies. The working party is collecting and selecting a series of statistical indicators by
which to construct an integrated information system that, once completed, will enable the
monitoring and comparison over time of the sustainable competitiveness of various destinations:
from the Mount Abetone to the thermal baths of Montecatini\textsuperscript{11}.

NECSTouR has the potential to become a major network connecting different European
destinations.
There are, however, limits of which it is important to be aware.

The ten objectives are certainly drivers of sustainable competitiveness. A tourism
destination, to the extent to which it is able to limit the environmental impact of transport, to
increase the quality of life of residents and of employment, to reduce the seasonality of tourism
flows and to achieve the other objectives, becomes - as we have already seen - not only more
sustainable in the future, but also more competitive in the present. Those listed, however, are just
some of the factors of competitiveness and sustainability of a territory. A destination may have
achieved the ten objectives and yet not be competitive, and therefore suffer economic decline.
Competitiveness also depends on other factors. It depends, for example, on the safety of the
locations or on the quality and prices of the goods and services offered.

The indicators proposed by NECSTouR are useful and interesting. Indeed, very praiseworthy
work has been done to connect objectives and indicators. But there are a great many indicators
for some objectives, whilst few for others and not all are true indicators.

In a recent article I proposed to add an eleventh pillar - price competitiveness - and select
the indicators more carefully\textsuperscript{12}.

In brief, there are several methods to measure the sustainable competitiveness of tourism
destination.

4. A short conclusion

Nowadays, many stakeholders are engaged in the challenge of making European tourism
more sustainable and competitive.

As we have seen, the sustainable competitiveness of tourism destinations is the capacity to
generate high or growing well-being for residents and tourists safeguarding the assets. It depends
on resource endowments, resource deployment and innovation, and it can be measured with
different systems.

\textsuperscript{11} On the use of statistics and indicators in tourism, see WTO (2004), \texttt{www.necstour.eu} and Varra (2012).
\textsuperscript{12} Magliulo (2013).
In my opinion, the so-called NECSTouR model can become a robust platform to manage an integrated tourism development policy in Europe.

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CHAPTER 1.1.

DESTINATION BRAND INDEX:
A NEW METHOD FOR ASSESSMENT OF DESTINATION COMPETITIVENESS

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ABSTRACT

The most fundamental decisions made by tourists are: whether to travel, where to travel (destination choice) and what to do (motivations and experiences), when to travel, how long to stay, with whom to go, and how much to spend. Although all of these decisions are very important for destination marketers, the most significant of these concerns is the destination choice. For this reason, Destination Management Organizations (DMOs) dedicate most of their marketing activity trying to persuade potential tourists that they offer the best place they could visit on their vacation. Nowadays the concepts of branding and destination brand stand out among the many tools that DMOs are using to attract and retain tourists, and get their preference and loyalty. Due to the growing importance that branding strategies are achieving in the tourism destination marketing, the assessment of the competitive performance of destinations becomes increasingly relevant for all stakeholders of tourism, including for public authorities. However, taking into account that in the consumers’ mind a tourism destination is just a mental category that can be defined by multiple and subjective criteria, any empirical study to get information from consumers’ mind for assessing the destination branding performance of all tourism destinations competing in the world market seems an impossible mission. Indeed, all attempts to create an international comparative monitoring system of destination branding performance have failed as they tend to miss the most important definition of a destination: the consumer’s perspective. Instead of producing destination brand indexes, all existing monitoring systems produce country (or city) scale brand indexes, and follow a rigid, administrative and reductionist approach in the use of their results, ignoring that categories of destination and country (or city) are considerably different in many aspects.

In this article we present the project of creation of a Destination Brand Index (DBI) based on a new conceptual approach that avoids the reductionist confusion between tourism destination and country or city. The DBI is being conceptualized as a truly useful marketing decision support system, and its main conceptual tools are the following: hierarchical system of destinations
choice, International Collaborative Research Network, Worldwide Code File of Destinations and Multilingual DBI Online Platform. This new approach is flexible and dynamic enough to encompass all the complex and somewhat contradictory attributes of destination hierarchies existing in consumers’ mind.

**Keywords:** Tourism destination, destination branding, hierarchical system of destinations, marketing decision support systems, brand equity, Destination Brand Index.

**INTRODUCTION**

The conceptualization of tourism destination has changed in the last decade. The traditional view of destination was largely based on its geographical characteristics, which meant that the destination is a geographical unit visited by tourists, regardless of its boundaries. According to Jovicic (in Chapter 2.3 of this book), nowadays it is a common understanding that a destination is a complex adaptive system that can be conceptualized as a network of connected stakeholders directly or indirectly related to tourism, whose activity is crucial for the good functioning of the destination system (Boniface and Cooper, 2009; Baggio, 2008). Consequently, “consideration of tourism destinations as complex adaptive systems implies that the focus of observation (analysis) must be diverted from the solid structures to flexible processes, networked opinion, and opinion directed towards processes, as a prerequisite for mastering the principles of directing such systems (Jovicic, in this book, pp: 193-194).

Furthermore, the no-coincidence between tourism destination and the geopolitical units of country, region or city is also due to the fact that every tourist product (such as beach tourism, wellness tourism, wine tourism, nature tourism, etc.) establishes a specific geographical configuration that depends more on the existing tourist resources and attractions than on already exiting administrative boundaries.

From the consumer’s point of view, destinations are represented as a complex hierarchical system of destinations choice (Crompton, 1992), that means a complex cognitive-affective hierarchical structure that organizes and regulates the relationship of the consumer with all the destinations he/she knows. The content of the most salient destination categories corresponds to what is described by branding experts as destination brand equity: the value of brand based on the extent to which it has a high brand loyalty, name awareness, perceived quality and strong brand associations (Aaker, 1991; Kotler and Armstrong, 2001; Kotler and Gartner, 2002; Keller, 1993).

However, the analysis of destination brand performance has been damaged by the reductionism inherent to the epistemological approaches and methodological tools used by consulting firms that annually publish country indexes (namely, Country Brand Index, Nation...
Brand Index, Country Brand Ranking, among others), which are misleading for the DMOs, due to the fact that they replace the analysis of destination performance with generic data focused on the «country performance».

Nowadays, in a context of high competitiveness, the comparative performance of marketing strategies of destinations can only be evaluated through a worldwide and collaborative network of researchers, on the basis of a totally different methodological approach. The present project aims to create this worldwide network research system for the implementation of the Destination Brand Index (DBI) intended to be a very useful marketing decision support system (MDSS) for all DMOs. The DBI becomes of particular importance as it supports organizations in collecting, storing, processing, and disseminating information, and in supporting decision-making processes by providing forecasts and decision models.

DBI will deliver crucial data for assessing the different aspects of destination brand equity (such as information availability, awareness, familiarity, associations, preference and loyalty), producing the following worldwide destination indexes:

- General ranking of tourism destinations
- General ranking of tourism destinations per attribute
- Product-based destination rankings (beach tourism, nature tourism, etc...)
- Destination rankings per geographic criteria, according to the demand of DMO's
- Flexible “customer made rankings”, according to motivations and personal requirements.

CONCEPTUALIZING TOURISM DESTINATION FROM THE CONSUMER POINT OF VIEW

The decision-making process underlying the choice of tourism destinations depends on many factors, but the information is the essential variable. Regardless how consumers choose a given destination (individually or as a group), their choice is always based on information and beliefs. No one can choose a destination that is absent in his/her mind, because the decision to depart to somewhere is always ruled by anticipatory processes (Amirou, 1995; Bofice and Cooper, 2009). Consequently, the attentive consideration of how destinations are represented in people’s minds becomes a crucial dimension of the marketing decision support system (MDSS).

The data collection of the hierarchical system of destinations existing in the consumer’ mind becomes a sine qua non condition of assessing the competitive performance of tourism destinations (Pike, 2004; Keller, 1993). However, for achieving this, a previous consideration of what a destination means for consumers is crucial (Keller, 1993; Yoo, Donthu, and Lee, 2000).

At first glance, the common sense definition of tourism destination describes it as a well-defined geographical unit that corresponds to a country, administrative region, city, island or an
attractive place, such as a beach, a volcano, a mountain or a cave. However, even in the common sense perspective, the scope of the destination concept may be broader to encompass the wide variety and diversity of types of tourism (Novelli, 2005). This means that it is not necessary to be a tourism expert to be fully aware that the geographical configuration of destinations also depends on the characteristics of each tourism product: thus, any tourist product organizes in the human mind a specific territorial configuration of tourism destinations around the world (Blain, Levy and Ritchie, 2005; Boniface and Cooper, 2009).

In the human mind, a tourism destination can be a continent, a set of countries, a country, a region, a city, an island, a place or even a cruise itinerary, depending on many contextual factors (personal, cultural, historical, geographical and political). Furthermore, all these categories can be mixed in the consumer’s mind, regardless of their different geographic scales. For example, to the question “In the light of everything you know, please indicate the worldwide beach tourism destinations”, a respondent answered: “1st - Maldives; 2nd - Brazil; 3rd - Algarve; 4th - Saint Tropez”. That is, the so-called “psychogeography” of tourists doesn’t fit the hierarchical criteria used in the political geography.

Furthermore, each tourism product (beach tourism, wellness tourism, nature tourism, etc...) is scattered around the world in a specific way. Additionally, most destinations usually include a mix of tourist products, which introduces an additional source of complexity to the concept of destination.

On the other hand, even from the DMO’s point of view, the traditional concept of tourism destination, largely based on its geographical characteristics, has been supplanted by a more dynamic and interactive understanding, as a complex adaptive system that can be conceptualized as a network of connected stakeholders directly or indirectly related to tourism, whose activity is very important for the good functioning of the destination system. Crucial to this new conception is the fact that some relevant stakeholders, such as Internet providers, tour operators, transport companies, etc., are not necessarily located in the territory traditionally considered as «destination».

Besides the issue of the destination concept itself, another important dimension must be introduced to cover all the complexity of this phenomenon: the way destinations can be positioned in the consumers’ mind. According to the experts of place branding, the mental images of places are brands (cognitive categories or social representations) and, in consequence, all techniques of branding are being introduced in the field of tourism promotion (Ritchie and Crouch, 2003; Westwood, et al., 1999). This is why nowadays all DMOs existing in the world are developing branding strategies in order to insert their destinations in the consumers’ mind.

At same time, there are other information and normative sources (friends and relatives, TV, cinema, social networks, personal experience, etc.) continuously providing the consumer with additional inputs which can or cannot be congruent with these strategies. The status that a specific tourism destination achieves in the consumer’s mind will depend on the
summary/symbiotic confluence of all these normative and informational effects. A given destination can reach a high or a low status in the hierarchical system of destinations choice (HSDC) of the consumer’s mind (Blain, Levy, and Ritchie, 2005; Knapp and Sherwin, 2005).

Shortly, it should be emphasized that destinations mainly compete based on their perceived images relative to competitors in the marketplace (Baloglu & Mangaloglu, 2001). Consequently, it is necessary to develop a positive image of the tourist destination in target markets to achieve a real competitive advantage (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999b; Gartner, 1993).

DESTINATION CHOICE SETS

The existing literature on destination choice addresses specific aspects of destination choice behaviour, such as travel motivations and destination image, as well as more general, overall models of the destination choice decision-making process.

According to the choice set theory, consumers initially categorize in their mind the alternatives of which they are aware into a number of sets (Moutinho, 1987; Woodside and Lysonski, 1989; Um and Crompton, 1990). The careful consideration of these mental sets becomes very pertinent for many areas of destination choice behavior, including the specific issue of the destination branding assessment.

The main assumption of traditional choice-set approach is that tourism consumers, once they recognise having a decision problem, start out by making a broad selection of (acceptable) alternatives from among the many available alternatives. This activity continues until they have gathered sufficient information, after which they spend time inspecting more closely the alternatives selected in this consideration set. After making their final trade-offs, decision makers choose what alternative to purchase. The following choice-set models are among the most recognized in the literature:

a) **Woodside and Lyonski’s General Model of Destination Choice**

The general model of destination choice proposed by Woodside and Lyonski (1989) points the existence of four sets (Figure 1):

1. Unavailable/aware set of destinations – it includes destinations which a consumer knows about but which are ruled out of consideration because they are unavailable for one reason or another (e.g., on the basis of cost and travel budget, visa restrictions, etc.).
2. Inept set of destinations – it includes those of which the tourism consumer has a negative perception and are therefore ruled out early in the decision-making process.
3. Inert destinations - by comparison with inept set, inert destinations are not associated with significant positive or negative perceptions. They neither deter nor attract.

4. Consideration set consists of destinations which the tourism consumer decides to consider in greater detail before making a final choice.

![Diagram](from Woodside and Lyonski, 1989)

**Figure 1: Woodside and Lyonski’s General Model of Destination Choice**

b) Um and Crompton’s model (1990)

The model of pleasure travel destination choice developed by Um and Crompton (1990) describes a set of processes which are presented as flows (Figure 2):

1. the formation of subjective beliefs about destination attributes in the awareness set, through passive information catching or incidental learning;
2. a decision to undertake a pleasure trip (initiation of a destination choice process) which includes consideration of situational constraints;
3. evolution of an evoked set from the awareness set of destinations;
3. the formation of subjective beliefs about the destination attributes of each alternative in the evoked set of destinations, through active solicitation of information;

4. selection of a specific travel destination (or destinations).

According to this model the destination choice includes three important cognitive constructs: the awareness set, the evoked set, and travel destination selection.

![Figure 2. A Model of the Pleasure Travel Destination Choice Process](from Um and Crompton, 1990)

c) Decrop Model (2010)

Alain Decrop (Decrop 2010) analyses the formation and evolution of the tourist destination choice set through a longitudinal approach. The proposed destination choice set model considers five stages, that conduct the formation of a choice set starting at the initial market stage, through the consideration, evaluation, and constraints stages to conclude, finally, into the destination choice (Figure 3). Under this framework, a typology of seven choice sets is presented (available set, awareness set, dream set, evoked set, exclusion set, surrogate set, unavailable set).

Decrop’s choice set model is based on the theoretical foundation that all choice sets are under the dynamic influence of a continuous constraint/opportunity evaluation. An interesting Decrop’s (2010) contribution to the existing literature of destination choice is that, due to the situational constraints, consumers are lead to evoke destinations, but categorize them under the dream set, unavailable set or under the available set.
Keller (2003) defined consumer brand knowledge as all descriptive and evaluative brand-related information stored in a consumer’s memory. The brand knowledge is multi-dimensional as it incorporates all kinds of personal meaning that consumers associate with a brand, and it includes brand awareness, attributes, benefits, images, thoughts, feelings, attitudes, experiences, and so on. Brand knowledge is the source and antecedent of brand equity (Keller, 2003), which is “the sum of factors or dimensions contributing to a brand’s value in the consumer’s mind” (Konecnik and Gartner, 2007, p. 401).

The existence of a mental category is a sine qua non condition for the existence mental image. It means that a decisive previous condition for consumers create an image (positive or negative) of a given destination is its inclusion in their consideration set. Departing from this obvious statement - without minimal knowledge any image can be created – we can realize that almost all tourism destinations existing in the world in fact don’t exist for consumers!

Woodside and Lyonski (1989) and Crompton, Botha and Kim (1998) estimated the size or number of destinations in the various choice sets. The average number is presented in the Table 1.
Table 1. Number of destinations in the mental sets

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N.º of destinations in each mental set</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Woodside and Lysonski (1989)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consideration set</td>
<td>4,2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inert set</td>
<td>1,7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unavailable set</td>
<td>2,2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inept sets</td>
<td>1,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crompton, Botha and Kim (1998)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Early consideration set</td>
<td>4,02</td>
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<tr>
<td>Late consideration set</td>
<td>3.54</td>
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Because a minimal awareness of a destination is the basic condition for the image formation in the consumer’s mind, the destination branding assessment must start by examining which destinations the consumers can evoke and the significance they assign them along the flow sheet of decision process or, in other words, in which mental set a given destination is located in case it achieved a minimal awareness.

METHODOLOGICAL APPROACH OF DBI

Aiming to assess the competitiveness of tourism destinations for different tourism products (sun & sea tourism, mountain tourism, urban tourism, cultural tourism, etc...) according to their specific attributes (authenticity, value for money, prestige, etc...), and without inducing respondents to any geographic scale or boundaries (like country, city, region, island, etc.), the Destination Brand Index will collect information based on free evocation of desired tourism destination, following the Decrop’s choice set model. This way, respondents will inform their evoked sets and, depending on each kind of constraints, the specific content of the dream sets, unavailable sets and available sets.

The final output of DBI will consist on the hierarchy of destinations and the detailed positioning of destinations in each mental set.

The collaborative research network

With these ideas in mind, a collaborative networking methodology for assessing destinations brands from the point of view of consumers is proposed. The main goal of this collaborative networking research is to compare the competitive performance of all relevant destinations existing in the world, providing DMOs the aggregate information of destination brand preferences at different geographic scales (national, regional and local).
In order to achieve this ambitious goal an innovative research tool will be created: the Destination Brand Index (DBI), meant to be a broad information source for the tourism sector, useful for almost all countries, regions and cities of the world.

1. **Destination Brand Index as a marketing decision support system**

Currently, information gains more and more importance, playing a vital role in tourism for entrepreneurs and managers who spend the whole day involved in information processing. In the tourism industry there is no lack of market research data, on the contrary, there is a rather uncontrolled growth of various data sources, each having different survey purposes and survey designs (Wöber and Gretzel, 2000; Wöber, 2003). So, the problem is not the quantity of information, but its quality, due to the existence of a chaotic flood of eyedropper reports often with contradictory data. This situation tends to undermine the understanding of what actually is happening in tourism worldwide.

In fact, there is a huge lack of credible information on how consumers represent the tourist destinations. The DBI intends to respond to the enormous challenge of creating a coherent and uniform methodology that will provide the MDSS valuable information about consumer’s preferences of tourism destinations worldwide.

In order to achieve this goal, the proposed new methodology for the DBI will be supported by an International Collaborative Research Network (ICRN) that will be ruled by the following criteria:

a) **Universality**
b) **Transparence**
c) **Equidistance**
d) **Objectivity**
e) **Quality and usefulness of the information**

**Universality:** The International Collaborative Research Network (ICRN) for DBI will be an inclusive and democratic structure that will promote the contribution of all members, aiming to find out the best and universal solutions in terms of inputs (methodology for collecting data) and outputs (platform that will deliver information for the tourism sector of all countries of the world). The universality also means the inclusion in the ICRN of scholars from all countries in the world, and the multilingual approach in the data collecting, with the simultaneous delivering of the same questionnaire in a large number of national languages.

**Transparence:** An independent scientific council consisting of some of the most reputable researchers in the world will assess and validate the methodology used by the ICRN, its operating model and the system of information delivering to the tourism sector.

**Equidistance:** In the tourist industry there is a huge profusion of economic and political interests, and there are already many consulting firms that directly or indirectly seek to obtain
benefits related to the provision of information to the industry. To ensure its impartiality in relation to the various interests, researchers professionally involved with consulting firms will not be accepted in ICRN. Aiming to achieve this goal, as main partners of the DBI the worldwide tourism organizations will be invited, namely: UNWTO, IATA and WTTC.

**Objectivity**: Although the information to be collected has a subjective nature, due to the selectivity of human perception and memory, the methods to be used to extract this information will be validated to ensure non-intrusiveness and neutrality. As it will be explained below, the method of free recall is the best way to obtain the spontaneous information on destinations that respondents have in their mind. And such spontaneous information is more reliable if the answer is given in their mother tongue. Consequently, the ideal situation should be to customize the questionnaires translating them in all the existing languages in the world. But even being impossible to reach such level of linguistic customization, the ICRN must implement a multilingual system of inquiry with the most representative languages existing in the world: English, Chinese, Spanish, Portuguese, Japanese, French, German, Arabian, Russian, Turkish, Hindi, Bengali, Korean and Italian.

**Quality and usefulness of the information**: To be useful for the tourism sector of many countries, in particular for their marketing decision support systems (MDSS), the information provided by the DBI must be reliable. The huge profusion of indexes (there are “top 10” and “top 50” systems for all purposes) tends to discredit the serious and credible investigation on comparative destination performance and hinders the implementation of universal frameworks to assess the marketing strategies in the tourism sector. The DBI was meant to generate a reliable system for the assessment of destinations brand strategies through the monitoring of the brand equity performance of tourism destinations worldwide, but avoiding the already existing reductionist attempts of assimilating destination to countries, implemented by consulting firms. The data collection for the DBI will be based on a set of open questions, each of them inviting respondents to recall spontaneously the best destinations that fit two criteria: a product-based destination and an attribute. For example: “In the light of everything you know, please indicate the best worldwide beach tourism destinations, from the point of view of prestige”. The overall score of a given destination (for example, Taiwan) in the General Index of the DBI system will be the combination of the scores assigned to this destination in all tourist product rankings.

2. **The Implementation of the Destination Brand Index**

For the implementation of the DBI a collaborative research chain passing around the world will be created: the International Collaborative Research Network (ICRN).

During the first step, each of these 11 researchers, representing 11 countries and correspondently 11 universities, will try to get support of their national institutions, aiming to in order to improve the cooperation. At same time, this group will collaborate to reach consensus on the detailed aspects of the methodology.
The multilingual model approach

According to this proposal, the global sample of the Destination Brand Index will include 21 linguist samples, namely: Chinese, Hindi, Spanish, English, Portuguese, Arabic, Russian, Japanese, French, German, Korean, Italian, Turkish, Polish, Romanian, Dutch, Hungarian, Czech, Swedish, Finnish, and Lithuanian.

The choice of these specific languages was based on the four criteria: (1) amount of native population; (2) use of Internet; (3) percent of national population engaged in international tourism; (4) existence of research institutions that are prompt to connect the International Collaborative Research Network.

The level of representativeness of the linguist sample can be described as following:
- Around 70% of all population in the world;
- More than 90% of international tourists
- A significant majority of the Internet users (see Figure 5).

![Figure 5: Top 10 languages in the Internet (millions of users)](source: Internet World Stats - www.internetworldstats.com/stats7.htm)

Steps for the implementation of DBI

**Step1: Pilot test with a multilingual research procedure**

Before starting the massive implementation of DBI, a pilot study is conducted during the first semester of 2014. The main goal of this study is to validate the methodological assumptions...
and identify the key operational difficulties, in order to transfer the acquired experience to the extended network of collaborators that will be engaged in the data collection worldwide.

In this pilot study four linguistic version of the questionnaire are been used: Portuguese, Chinese, Russian and Polish. The collected date of this exploratory and comparative study will be very useful to establish the criteria for the creation of the International Collaborative Research Network, which will be extended to encompass around twenty languages and more than hundred countries of the world.

**Step 2: Involving worldwide tourism organizations as partners:**

Being the DBI a global comparative system of destination brand performance, the support of global tourism organizations will be needed to ensure its sustainable and long term success. To achieve this goal, the following initiatives are scheduled:

1. To involve in the research network members of the most reputable universities of Europe, North America, South American and Asian countries.
2. Perform a promotional brochure of the project, highlighting the main advantages of its outputs for all the tourism actors in the world.
3. When this research network will proof its consistency the global tourism organizations (UNWTO, IATA, WTTC, PATA, ETC, Caribbean Tourism Organization, Centroamérica, NECSTour) will be invited as partners.

**Step 3: Achieving consensus among the core-team**

The mission of the core-team is to reach consensus concerning the methodology and to discuss the general strategic issues, namely:

a) the standardization of work of the broader network;
b) the use of outputs of DBI;
c) the best management model for long term partnership.
d) the best functionalities of the Internet platform;
e) the copyright and all other property rights;
f) protocols of access to the databases and all reserved information;
g) the benefits for the members of the International Collaborative Research Network.
**Step 4: Achieving consensus on the main aspects of the methodology**
Throughout the delphi methodology we will reach consensus about the following issues:

a) The list of tourism products that will be included in the questionnaires (merging all these products in a given territory it will be possible to assess any specific destination);

b) The most pertinent attributes for each specific tourist product (the respondents must inform the best destinations for each product, considering these attributes);

c) The weighting of each attribute for product overall evaluation.

**Step 5: Creation of the International Collaborative Research Network for DBI**
The International Collaborative Research Network (ICRN) will be a large chain of researchers working at the universities of target countries. The ICRN will consist in two main actors: national geographers (one per target country) and the linguistic expert (one per target language). The “national geographer” will validate the structure of destinations existing in his own country and its mains attributes. The “linguistic expert” will be responsible for promotion of the online questionnaire in the countries where his/her mother tongue is used as first language.

**Step 6: Multilingual DBI Online Platform**
Although the tourism is a globalized phenomenon, the mother tongue is always a crucial element in the mental (cognitive and affective) organization of tourism destinations in the consumers’ mind. Because of existing “Babel Tower”, and in order to ensure equal conditions to respondents of any linguistic group, the data collection will be based on a Multilingual Online Platform.

**Step 7: Worldwide Code File of Destinations (WCSD)**
The data collected in different languages will be integrated automatically integrated in a common and unified system - the Worldwide Code File of Destinations (WCSD), that will transform the semantic file of respondents from different languages in a common algebraic file.

The utility of multilingual online platform supported by a worldwide code of destinations is fourfold:

a) **Getting together the ICRN members**
The coordination and cooperation among the members of the International Collaborative Research Network (ICRN) will be supported by the Multilingual DBI Online Platform.
b) **Data collection:**

The platform will hold the online questionnaires and all the necessary guidelines for data collections.

c) **Promotion**

The BDI index consists in a very ambitious and revolutionary research model which implementation will be a result of a coordinate collaboration of many scholars from many universities of the world. The quality of the integration of new members and the quality of the inputs to the system will depend in a great measure on the reputation of this partnership.

d) **Assisting the marketing decision support systems (MDSS)**

For all the tourism sector of all countries in the world, the output generation of DBI will be like a mirror that will show the comparative positioning of all competing destinations of the world. The Multilingual DBI Online Platform will deliver the following outputs:

- Product-based destination rankings (beach tourism, nature tourism, etc...)
- Destination rankings based on several geographic criteria, by demand of the DMO’s
- Flexible “costumer made rankings”, according to motivations and personal requirements.

**MAIN TASKS IN THE SHORT TERM**

These are the main outputs to be achieved in short term (2 years):

- Implementation of the pilot test, using the eight linguistic versions of the same online questionnaires, testing it in the following country groups: English, Chinese, Portuguese, Spanish, Russian, Dutch, Polish, and Arabic.
- Creation of the Multilingual DBI Online Platform with fourfold goals: network coordination, promotion, data collection and outputs.
- Involvement of worldwide tourism organizations as partners
- Creation of the Worldwide Code File of Destinations (WCSD) that will allow to codify in the algebraic system all destinations that will be spontaneously mentioned by the respondents (this way, the same destination – for example “Paris” – will be codified by the same code number doesn’t matter who mention it or the alphabet used in the questionnaire).
- Presentation of the first Destination Brand Index in international conferences organized by members of the International Collaborative Research Network.
REFERENCES


CHAPTER 1.2.

DEVELOPMENT OF SUSTAINABLE TOURISM IN GREAT POLAND:
ADAPTATION OF SELECTED INDICATORS FROM THE EUROPEAN TOURISM INDICATOR SYSTEM

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Abstract: Europe, from the beginning of the history of contemporary tourism, has been the main tourist destination in the world. In the 21st century we are facing several changes regarding tourism development trends: globalization and individualization at the same time, culture and sport, local culture and international links. One of the strongest trends in tourism is that Europe is beginning to lose its prominence as a tourist destination. It still accounts for over 51% of international tourist arrivals (UNWTO Tourism Highlights 2013: 2) but is developing less dynamically than other destinations. Europe wants and needs to maintain its competitive position. This can be obtained by developing tourism in a sustainable way. As tourism is an important sector of the European Union's economy, the European Commission on Tourism has commissioned a document, a kind of guide, known as the European Tourism Indicator System, which aims to contribute to improving the sustainable management of destinations by providing tourism stakeholders with an easy and useful toolkit. The aim of the article is to show the need for sustainability in developing tourism, in Greater Poland as well, and identify some key issues that need to be introduced to achieve this state. It is based on the analysis of the European Tourism Indicator System and its adaptation for Greater Poland. The article also aims to show the achievements of this region in the sustainable development of tourism, as well as the failures.

Keywords: Sustainable development, destinations management

INTRODUCTION

Great Poland – bringing the region near

Great Poland or Grater Poland (both names are being used in English) is one of 16 Polish provinces as well as historical region and geographically - Lake District, situated in the heart of Poland and Europe as well. As far as it name is concerned, it has historical origins. In the middle ages the first state structures of Poland had been created and first capital settled on the territory of today’s Great Poland. As Latin was its language, its name was Polonia. Its etymology comes
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probably from the description of tribes settling this area, called Poles (Polans). Later on, when the capital of Poland had been relocated and transferred to Cracovia (Cracow) to show the historical sequence, the area of today’s Great Poland was named in latin Polonia Maior (the first, the older) and the neighborhood of Cracow – Polonia Minor (the younger). Now days, its inhabitants are proud about the history of the region which is the oldest part of Poland, the region where polish state actually had been settled. What is Great Poland in the XXI century? What have we preserved from this “greatness”? Let’s try to prove that quite a lot.

Socio demographic profile of Great Poland

The population of Great Poland is 3, 4 million people, which is 9% of the population of Poland. The number of inhabitants in Greater Poland tends to rise, which could be an argument regarding its attractiveness (it has a positive migration balance). The population of the region is comparatively young – 20% is aged between 18-39 years old. The population of urban areas is about 1, 9 million people, and accordingly, 1, 6 million lives in rural areas. Great Poland used to be called an “agricultural land” due to the percentage of rural landscape. Poznan – the capital of the region is one of the biggest cities in Poland, with 550, 7 thousands of inhabitants (5th in Poland). The rate of registered unemployment is comparatively low – due to GUS (Main Statistic Office of Poland) in the end of December 2013 it was 9,8 % in Great Poland and about 4% in the capital – Poznan. The GDP rate in Great Poland is 103, 8% of the average national GDP (based on GUS Poznan, 2013). According to “Social Diagnosis of Poland 2013” (Czapiński J. Panek T. 2013) Poznan is the third best city to live in Poland – after Warsaw and Torun.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Feature</th>
<th>Poznan (the number represents place in the rank of cities according to the given feature)</th>
<th>Great Poland (the number represents place in the rank of regions according to the given feature)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Civilization level</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social wellbeing</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Material/financial wellbeing</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social capital</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fizyczny wellbeing</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychiczny wellbeing</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: based on “Social Diagnosis of Poland 2013” (Czapiński J. Panek T. 2013)

According to the National Report on Social Development (2012) created on the basis of research conducted for The Ministry of Regional Development Great Poland is placed as the 4th region in Poland due to LHD (Local Human Development Index).
Geography

Great Poland is situated centrally in Poland, with a very good communicational connections to the Western Europe (the distance Poznan – Berlin is about 240 km).

The surface of Great Poland is 29 826.51 km² and this is second, after Mazowsze Region (Warsaw), biggest region in Poland. It surface can be compared to the surface of Belgium or Brandenburg region in Germany. There are two major geographic regions: a lake district in the north, characterized by post-glacial lakes and hills, and a rather flat plain in the south. There are 13 natural parks and 1 national park, which represent and protect post-glacial landscape. Natural parks have various character, most of them represent natural landscape with lakes and forests. Generally, these areas have a strong potential for developing various forms of active tourism. The average forestation of the region is about the national average, which is 27%. There are some areas, though, especially in the northern part of the region, where the forestation reaches 50% of the surface.
Tourism and tourist attractions

Although Great Poland does not have such a strong tourism brand as Polish coastline or mountains it is consequently building its tourist image. There have been a few very interesting brand tourism product created and are promoted on the national and international market. Following recent tourism trends worldwide these products face the need of ambitious and aware travelling and give the possibility to experience the region, get to know its culture, cuisine and nature. The Regional Tourism Organization – WOT (Wielkopolska Organizacja Turystyczna) provides potential tourist with publications regarding various tourist product in several languages – English, German, Russian and French. One can choose from the vast range of attractions – from active (water, bike, equestrian) tourism, wooden architecture trails, railway tourism, protected areas tourism, family outgoing and more. Most popular and interesting tourist attractions of Great Poland have been presented in the table below.

Table 1. Most interesting tourist attractions in Great Poland: chosen examples

| Poznan: the capital of the region | Monuments of all architecture styles, from early medieval Cathedral, Renaissance Town hall, parish Baroque Church of St. Mary Madeline to modern architecture examples like known worldwide The Center of Old Brewery, sport and cultural events, 8 theaters, galleries, museums ect. |
| Other cities: cultural centers | Kalisz - known as the oldest city in Poland (first mentioned by Ptolomeus in his chronicle) Gniezno – with its Gothic Cathedral, known as the necropolis of Polish kings and the place of the baptism of Poland (potential) Leszno – with its baroque old market square, baroque town hall and churches, known for its multireligious character in the past, with one of the best preserved lapidarium |
| Natural sites | 13 Natural Parks, 1 National Park, over 100 nature reserves |
| Monuments of technique | Wolsztyn – the Locomotive Depot: wit 13 working engines and “Beautiful Helena” among them – the fastest Polish steam engine Narrow Gauge Railway of Gniezno, Trolley Railway of Krzywin, Grodzisk |
| Castles, palaces and country mansions | Antonin – the haunting lounge, wooden palace from XIX century Goluchów – inspired by Loire Castles, with picturesque park surroundings Rogalin – Baroque palace from the end of XVIII century, with beautiful French and English garden |
| Museums and heritage parks | Dziekanowice, Wielkopolska Ethnographic Park: representing the countryside architecture, dated from XVI till XIX century, one of the biggest in Europe Soplicowo Movie Park: the most know Polish poet, Adam Mickiewicz, used to visit Wielkopolska during his lifetime: in the 1990ties there was a movie created by Andrzej Wajda based on his art. The park is the scenery of the movie Puszczykowo: Museum and Work Studio of Arkady Fidler, - polish traveler Rakoniewice, The Wielkopolska Museum of Firefighting Szreniawa: The National Museum of Agriculture and Food Industry |

From the institutional point of view, it seems that tourism in Great Poland is gaining more attention of the local authorities. In the Strategy of Development of the City of Poznan 2030 one of the strategic objectives is “increasing the importance of the city as the center of knowledge, culture, tourism and sports”. One from the eighteen operational programs is called “Touristic Poznan” and its priorities are:

- obtaining the rank of international center of culture and tourism, and
• creating one of the leading centers of urban and culture tourism on the national and European level.

As far as the tourist infrastructure is concerned – it is constantly developing (there were 703 hotels and motels, offering 42,3 thousands of beds). The number of tourist accommodated in thus was 1 616, 5 thousands. The number of foreign tourists accommodated was 269, 7 thousands. Most of them were German, other nations that tend to visit Great Poland are: Dutch, British, Spanish, Swedish, Lithuanian, Italian (based on Wielkopolskie Voviodship, 2013). There are some innovative projects realized on the tourism field, some of them – like GPSWielkopolska supported with EU funds. The GPS Wielkopolska is the system that enables getting to know the region using tools co-working with Global Positioning System. It contains information about the region, its tourist attractions, facilities, maps. It offers an innovativen way of visiting the region.

**Quality of life in Great Poland –**

The perception of the quality of life may vary due to some personal preferences and characteristics. Generally, describing quality of life we should take into account a few zones of everyday life, as well as the perspectives for a change (for better). There had been led a very interesting research on it by the City of Poznan and Poznan University of Adam Mickiewicz. The research has a continued character and have been realized for 8 years (2002-2010). The last report presents very interesting data regarding quality of life, some of which is strongly connected with sustainable development of the region.

The report states that the general appreciation of the life situation among the population of Poznan is very positive. The trend from 2004 (when the first research had been led) is rising. Regarding the possibilities offered by the city to its inhabitants – the highest results has been achieved in the field of cultural offer, education (40 tertiary schools in Great Poland, 27 in Poznan) and leisure. The worst opinion was given about medical services and the health zone. Another feature that was assessed quite well was public transportation – especially the net of connections. On the other hand, the individual car transportation was rated very low. Bike transportation was assessed on an average level – but the trend in this case is favorable: the development of the net of bike ways can be observed almost everywhere in Poznan and the region. The general safety is described as good, as well as the cleanliness of the everyday surroundings.

There were a lot of different aspects of everyday life presented and assessed by the inhabitants of Poznan, compared, when possible to the whole region and confronted to the objective indicators. To sum up this part there is one more, very positive thing to quote – the inhabitants of Poznan describe their connection to the city as very high and the willing to move out as very low.
Great Poland as a one of the first polish regions started to consequently build its brand. In the XXI century, when the competition is not only between companies, but – maybe even more likely among regions, it is essential to build a recognizable image. The idea of creating the vision of “innovative Great Poland” must be built in a complex way, connecting various fields of everyday life. Innovation on the level of everyday life is changing for better, facilitating. This change can be obtained by sustainable development of the region.

Regarding the environment the opinion of the respondents should be compared to the objective indicators: this confrontation is presented in the table below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Opinion of the respondents</th>
<th>Objective indicators</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Air pollution: described by respondents as “average”</td>
<td>Number of days during the year with the indicators of PM10 surpassed is raising: in 2009 it was 67 days, while 2005 - 42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noise level – described by respondents as “average”, in the city center – as “very bad”</td>
<td>During the day – 58 % of the city surface is influenced by the noise of 70,1-75 Db which is a borderline of the norm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The quantity of waste: the cleanness in the neighborhood, of streets parks and forests was described as generally good</td>
<td>The number of the municipal waste collected per person for the whole region is much higher and equals 270 kg per year (still much lower than average in the UE)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The water cleanness and its usage:</td>
<td>The quantity of the industrial and municipal waste water has increased, and reached 238 hm3 in 2013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Generally described as average, particularly – water in Poznan lakes was assessed as bad and water in Warta river – very bad</td>
<td>The usage of water per person in 2010 equaled 41 m3, which was comparatively low (2004 – 47 m3)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: authors own study based on Jakość życia mieszkańców miasta Poznania and Rocznik Statystyczny województwa Wielkopolskiego, 2013

Tourism as one of the main tools of region’s development

Tourism is a multi-sector industry, influencing a big diversity of services, professions, companies and individuals. Its economic impact is undoubtedly vast, depending on the characteristic of the region: it may yield from about 4–5 % (Poland) up to 70 % of a country’s Gross Domestic Product (GDP; the highest share of tourism in countries’ GDP is being noticed in the case of emerging and island countries). On the global scale tourism industry is one of the largest and most dynamic industries in today’s economy, expected to generate about 9 % of total GDP and provide for more than 235 million jobs in 2010, representing 8 % of global employment. Global Travel & Tourism direct contribution to GDP grew by a robust 3.2 % in 2012. This was faster than the growth of the world economy as whole (2.3 %), and also faster than the growth of a number of broad industries including manufacturing, financial and business services, and retail.(Economic Impact of Travel and Tourism 2013: 2–3)
Since 1950s we are facing constant development of tourism industry on a very large scale – caused by globalization, socio-political changes, and evolution in transport. It seems quite unbelievable, but the number of international tourists increased from 25 million in the 1950 to 1,035 million in 2012. The dynamism of growth and the future perspectives for tourism are shown on the figure below.

![International Tourist Arrivals 1950–2030](source: www.unwto.org)

Over the past six decades, tourism experienced continuous expansion and diversification, becoming one of the largest and fastest growing sectors in the world. This increasing dimension of tourism is quite convincing that tourism is the key driver of the socio-economic progress through export revenues, the creation of jobs and enterprises, and infrastructure development in most regions of the world. Owing to its research and long term observations, the United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) claims that international tourist arrivals worldwide will increase by 3.3 % a year from 2010–2030 to reach 1.8 billion by 2030. This increase will be even greater for emerging economies, estimated at 4.4 % per year, which is also a great chance to balance the differences between regions within Europe and in the whole World (based on UNWTO Tourism Highlights 2013). Regarding Europe, tourism is a very important sector of its economy. It supports economic growth and employment. It generates more than 5 % of the European Union’s GDP, with about 1.8 million enterprises employing 5.2 % of the total labor force (approximately 9.7 million jobs, including a significant number of young people, which seems to be very important these days, when we are facing very high unemployment in this sector) (Enhancing the competitiveness of tourism in the EU 2013: 4). Should the related sectors be taken into account, the estimated contribution of tourism to GDP creation is considerably higher: tourism indirectly
generates more than 10% of the GDP of the European Union (EU) and accounts for 12% of the labor force (Enhancing of competitiveness 2013: 6). Tourism represents the third largest socioeconomic activity in the EU after the trade and distribution and construction sectors (Europe, the world’s No 1 destination – a new political Framework for tourism In Europe 2010: 5) Tourism may provide socioeconomic integration, particularly of mountain and rural areas and islands, by generating growth and employment. Forecasts by UNWTO suggest that international tourist arrivals in Europe will increase by up to 717 million by the 2020, meaning that the number of international tourist arrivals will have doubled over the two decades between 2000–2020. Yet in today’s reality, Europe must focus on maintaining its leadership as a tourism destination on the global scale. To face the global competition and the rising popularity of other destinations, Europe must offer sustainable and high-quality product, playing on its comparative advantages, in particular the diversity of its countryside and the extraordinary cultural wealth (Europe... 2010: 6). Although in 2013 the growth of international tourist arrivals in Europe exceeded the previous forecast and grew by 6%, there are regions in the World that are developing at the same rate, like Asia and Pacific, North Africa with 6% of growth, or even much faster – South East Asia with its growth of 12%. Still, the average growth on the global scale was 5%. One of the biggest challenges for Europe is to improve sustainable tourism development in order to maintain the long term competitiveness of the industry. In 2012 Europe reached 534 million of tourist arrivals, which is 52% of total international arrivals worldwide. Such numbers must impress: they must also influence – on a very different level. There are many positive sides: general development, rising quality of the product, developing infrastructure, improving the quality of life of the inhabitants. Today, the tourist product must be seen in a very broad and complex way: the common definition of tourism product, explaining it as a number of services offered to the customer to fit his touristic needs, does not necessarily seem complete.

The tourist product today not only fulfills needs but also includes one’s impression and perception of the destination. Would we rather spend time in a clean area with efficient public transportation or admire landscapes over the tons of garbage and stuck in a traffic jam? The better is the general perception of the quality of the destination, the higher does the probability of the tourist satisfaction become in general. Thus, such an understanding of tourist product explains so the multidimensional influence of tourism development in tourism. To succeed today, we need to treat tourism as a field of cooperation between the private and public sectors. Improving public space is just as important as increasing the quality of services. Such a way of understanding and developing tourist product at the destination must also serve local communities. On the other hand, there are some serious threats, especially when tourism develops dynamically but spontaneously, without any strategy of (sustainable) development. The basic theoretical SWOT analysis of the development of tourism in a region can be seen in the Table 3.
Table 3. The SWOT analysis of developing tourism in a region

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strengths</th>
<th>Weaknesses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Positive impact on economy on distinct levels: national, regional and local</td>
<td>Lack of tourist virtues (natural and cultural)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Development of infrastructure, such as transportation, construction, media</td>
<td>Rising prices for locals as well</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increased quality of life of the inhabitants, while developed in a sustainable way</td>
<td>Increased population density, traffic</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Opportunities</th>
<th>Threats</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Possibility of multidimensional development</td>
<td>Basing economy on tourism may incur some risk: when this sector collapses, due to some external factors, it influences the whole industry (revolution in Egypt, Icelandic volcano eruption)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developing labor market by creating new jobs, fighting unemployment amongst young people in particular (Spain, Greace)</td>
<td>Negative influence of mass tourism on natural and cultural heritage, e.g., among the 44 Endangered Word Heritage sites there are several places facing mass tourism problem (the Barrier Reef in Belize, the Old City of Jerusalem, Chan Chan Archeological Area, Peru etc.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creating a regional brand</td>
<td>Negative influence on local societies caused by tourists: sex-tourism in Thailand, spreading alcoholism or drugs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: the author’s own study

We need to learn how to maximize the advantages and minimize the disadvantages: to obtain the balance between the tourism development and the socio – cultural and natural environment of the hosting regions, our tourist destinations. The question is how shall we do it? There is one of a few key words: sustainability.

Sustainable tourism development – the need or the tool to build the competitive predominance?

As presented in the previous parts of the article, one can be certain that tourism is a very important part of the EU and worldwide economy, although it cannot be underestimated as a sociological and cultural activity as well. In the past and present decades, we have been facing several changes in our reality (socio-demographic, economic, and ecological). In order to follow these changes, tourism needs to face several challenges and to succeed in converting them into opportunities. One of the most important factors seems to be the adaptation to social developments that will influence tourist demands. Which are they? One of the most discussed and described changes is that within the next 10 years (or less) – until 2020 – the number of persons aged over 65 is expected to rise and reach 20 % of the population of Europe. It means that the sector of “silver head” individuals is becoming a very strong part of the demand, especially having both the purchase power and a lot of leisure time (hopefully). This significant sector is going to bring about several changes to meet its particular needs. Another dynamically rising sector of tourism demand consists of tourists with reduced mobility. It is obvious that their needs require some effort, beginning with public space and accommodation, tourist attraction
accessibility, and other services offered on tourism market. This should lead to equality in tourism service accessibility, which is an important part of sustainable tourism development and management. The other process, but not less important – and often probably even more commonly associated with sustainability – is reducing the influence of climate and natural environment. The key actions here are coping with the scarcity of water supplies, maintaining biodiversity – namely protecting species, inhabitants, and whole natural areas, as well as minimizing the greenhouse gas emissions. The cultural heritage is often endangered by mass tourism development as well. This is also one of the key actions to be undertaken in building the strategy of sustainable tourism development: protecting the cultural sites that are the legacy of our past and our heritage for the future generations.

In these circumstances European tourism is bound to evolve. Some of the European regions have already implemented modern and sustainable strategies of tourism development, while there is a lot of regions that seem to develop tourism in a spontaneous way, counting incomes without seeing costs (even if not countable today, extremely likely to appear in the near future). To answer the seemingly rhetorical question whether introducing sustainable tourism development strategy is the need or the tool of building the competitive predominance, it is the absolute need. And the time to act is now.

**Do we actually know what sustainable development of tourism is?**

Probably there are many more ways than one of understanding the sustainability in tourism. One could say that it is recognizing the limits and the capacity of the tourism resources. On the other hand it is supporting the development of tourism together with optimizing economic, environmental and socio-cultural benefits. According to the European Commission, sustainable development of tourism means “responsible use of natural resources, taking account of the environmental impact of activities (production of waste, pressure on water, land and biodiversity, etc.), the use of ‘clean energy’, protection of the heritage, […] the quality and sustainability of jobs created, local economic fallout or customer care” (Europe… 2010: 10). It should be seen as a process that starts with destination planning and its subsequent management, by developing a strategic plan for tourism, realizing its objectives in the most detailed way – on the conceptual, but most of all on the practical level. It means that the most important thing is not only to notice the problem of the sustainable development and adopting the rhetoric of “sustainability” but introducing it as the idea for managing the region from the local perspective, based on its characteristics, in the field of tourism and yet in the interdisciplinary dimension. To take an action seems to be the key initiative nowadays, as we are provided with research, guides, and case studies of best practices. Taking action means to create an interdisciplinary strategy, introduce it, and then measure and monitor the results and changes.

Some authors claim that sustainability is:
• “using nature’s ability to provide for human needs without undermining its ability to function over time
• ensuring the well-being of community members by offering and encouraging tolerance, creativity, participation and safety
• empowering people with shared responsibility, equal opportunity and access to expertise and knowledge, with the capacity to affect decisions to affect them, and
• ensure that business, companies and institutions which collaborate as well as they compete are environmentally sound and socially responsible, and investing in the local community in a variety of ways” (D.Dredge, J.Macbeth, D.Carlson, N.Beaumont, N.Northcote, F.Richards, 2006, p.6).

The sustainable development might also be understood as:
• a value orientation in which managing tourism impacts should take precedence over market economics
• shaped by global economic restructuring and a local destination’s position within these processes
• requirement of a local control of resources

Sustainable tourism in its contemporary and complex meaning cannot be separated from the wider debate on sustainable development in general (Swarbrooke J., 1999). It is a regional strategy, that may result with strong advantages for a region, but some difficulties can be met as well. It involves cooperation – which is actually a key world. The cooperation between small business and local authorities who compete at the local level, but who wish to attract a boarder segment of the market from greater distances (Edgell L.D, 2006)

Sustainable tourism development is respecting the needs of all the participants of the tourist market, maintaining the harmony between supplies and demand, protecting socio-natural environment and developing a destinations economy.

There are different ways of explaining sustainability. The most important is for each region (a potential tourist destination) to create its own definition of sustainability, based on its resources, strategies of development, and analysis of potential shortages in this field. The context of each community is required. The key object of the sustainable development strategy is the conception of the destination. Contemporary vision of tourist destination is holistic: it is more like experience of the visited place, the impression about it, not only the sum of the services bought during the stay. On the contemporary tourist market, there the demand has a hold over the supply, destinations must fight for competitiveness. The competitiveness today is a multidimensional phenomena and must raised based on the different fields and features of the destination. The destination’s strengths are presented on the Figure 2.
Developing competitiveness in such a complex way is closely linked to the previously mentioned sustainable development strategy.

The European Commission, which has created or supported several tools to develop this ideology of sustainable development, pointed out a large number of indicators that should be taken into account while managing tourist destination in a sustainable way. In February 2013 the European Tourism Indicator System Toolkit was issued, which is a kind of guide for sustainable destinations or, better said, for regions that strive to manage tourism in a sustainable way. It has been commissioned by the European Commission based on the vast research and observation on contemporary tourism trends, the challenges that tourism market (especially supply) is facing, and the need of enforcing the competitive position of Europe as tourist destination on the global scale. It is a practical tool that, among others existing projects that were or are to support sustainable tourism (NECSTouR, Eden), is a kind of guide that provides the possibility to create balance between the needs of tourists, host communities and environment.

![Figure 2. Competitive destination strengths](source: Ritchie, Crouch, 2003)

**Presentation of the European Tourism Indicator System Toolkit**

The European Tourism Indicator System is designed to show that sustainable tourism development in a region is a process and to give to the destinations some suggestions and accurate indicators that may be useful while introducing sustainable management. It should raise awareness of the need of sustainability in tourism and its real meaning. Sustainable management is not only “not to harm” the environment. It is planning, introducing, monitoring and measuring results in a different fields of interests.
The European Tourism Indicator System was created based on previous experiences and studies of best practices and is the product of feedback collected from field testing regions in Europe. It is designed as an instrument for any destination to pick it up and implement it. Technically, it consists of 27 core and 40 optional indicators. It can be integrated into the existing destination monitoring system or introduced as a basic tool. The great advantage of this system is the integration of public and private space, fields of interest (e.g., environmental impact, socio-cultural, economical value). As we already know that the future competitiveness of tourism system is closely linked to its sustainability, the European Commission points out some key motivations for monitoring destination, amongst which one can find: improved information leading to better decision making, managing and minimizing risk, prioritization of projects, and benchmarking performance. In the past one would like to say, while the truth for the most of tourist destinations is – at present local policy makers rely on a very limited range of statistics (such as arrival numbers, employment surveys, and visitor satisfaction) to monitor tourism. These statistics do not create the whole and complete image of the tourism impact. “Collecting data on a broad range of issues relevant to the impact of tourism […] will help destinations build an accurate picture of what is really going on”, claims the European Commission (European Tourism Indicator System TOOLKIT for Sustainable Destinations 2013: 10). Although the positive impact of tourism development on a region is commonly known, it is likely there are destinations with little potential in this field or where the cost of developing tourism is higher than potential multidimensional revenues. The evaluation of the vision of tourism of the regional decision makers may be one of the positive results of implementing the Tourism Indicator System. Tourism is a very dynamic phenomenon: that is why we should not underestimate the need for monitoring it and evolving strategies if necessary, facing global tourism trends.

Before the core and some optional indicators of the system are presented, it seems to be appropriate to present the successive steps to be taken while the destination aims to introduce sustainable management. The first step is to raise awareness, which seems to be obvious, but it is still necessary to mention it and point it out for the majority of destinations. To raise awareness also means to inform most institutions, individuals and stakeholders about the idea of measuring sustainability of the region, in order to increase the possibility of active participation in the project of the above mentioned parties. Moreover, there is a crucial need to create the destination’s profile: depending on tourist virtues and amenities, transportation, geography, etc. Why is it crucial? Depending on the destination profile and its characteristics, some problems will be more important to overcome while others will have a lower priority, so the importance of the mentioned indicators will vary in different regions as well. For instance, for regions that face high unemployment or gender inequality it will be crucial to monitor the indicators connected with this aspect and develop actions that can lead to a change in this field. The next step would be the creation of a Stakeholder Working Group, which is a collection of organizations and individuals involved in tourism industry. To be able to gather data it is crucial to find representatives from the
private sector and destination management organizations, as well as from other fields, such as environment, utility providers, local authorities responsible for planning etc. The possible list of chosen stakeholders with adequate organizations from Great Poland is shown in the Table 4.

| Private sector representative, e.g. head of a local Hotel Association or travel agency | Individual representatives – members of Poznan Local Tourism Organization (travel agencies, hotels, associated companies) |
| Destination management organization | The Department of Sport and Tourism and The Department of Regional Policy of The Marshal’s Office of The Great Poland Province |
| Tourism authority | The Greater Poland Tourism Organization |
| Educational institutions | The Institute of European Integration (Poznan University of Technology), The Institute of Tourism Industry (Poznan University of Economy) Statistical Office in Poznan |
| Organization concerned with the preservation of local culture/heritage | The Department of Culture of The Marshal’s Office of The Great Poland Province, The Provincial office of Monuments in Poznan |
| Local authority transport department | The Department of Transport of The Marshal’s Office of The Great Poland Province |
| Local water and sewage provider | The Aquanet S.A (company), The Local Association of Waste Management of Poznan Agglomeration |
| Organization concerned with the protection of the local environment/wildlife | The Department of Environment of the Marshal’s Office of The Greater Poland |

Source: authors own study based on the European Tourism Indicator System TOOLKIT for Sustainable Destinations

Each member would be responsible for collecting data from the field of their interest and actions. After clearing up responsibilities of each member, the process of collecting data would start and should lead to obtaining actual results and formulating key issues for the destination. The next step will be deciding which actions should be taken and how they should be realized to avoid the failures at the destination. On this base the long term strategy can be developed, aiming at long term improvement.

The indicators are divided into 4 parts (see Table 5): destination management, economic value, social and cultural impact, and environmental impact. They are then subdivided into core and optional indicators.

As one can see, there is a lot of interesting indicators and collecting data following them shall provide local authorities with a great amount of information. The variety of indicators explains the need of interdisciplinary character of the stakeholders.
### Table 5. Chosen indicators from the European Tourism Indicator System Toolkit

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SECTION A: DESTINATION MANAGEMENT</th>
<th>CORE INDICATOR</th>
<th>OPTIONAL INDICATOR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>CRITERIA</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sustainable tourism public policy</td>
<td>Percentage of the destination with a sustainable strategy/action plan</td>
<td>Percentage of residents satisfied with their involvement and influence in the planning and development of tourism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sustainable tourism management in enterprises</td>
<td>Percentage of tourism enterprises/establishments in the destination using a voluntary verified certification/labeling for environmental/quality/sustainability</td>
<td>Number of tourism enterprises with sustainability reports</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Customer satisfaction</td>
<td>Percentage of visitors that are satisfied with their overall experience in the destination</td>
<td>Percentage of return visitors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PART B: ECONOMIC VALUE</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>CRITERIA</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism flow</td>
<td>Number of tourist nights per month</td>
<td>Relative contribution of tourism to the destination’s economy (% GDP)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quantity and quality of employment</td>
<td>Direct tourism employment</td>
<td>Percentage of seasonal jobs in tourism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safety and health</td>
<td>Percentage of tourism enterprises inspected for fire safety</td>
<td>Percentage of tourist that report to the police</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PART C: SOCIAL AND CULTURAL IMPACT</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>CRITERIA</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community/social impact</td>
<td>Number of tourists per 100 residents</td>
<td>Percentage of residents who are satisfied with tourism in the destination</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender equality</td>
<td>Percentage of men and women employed in the tourism sector</td>
<td>Average wage: men and woman compared</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Protecting and enhancing cultural heritage, local identity and assets</td>
<td>Percentage of the destination covered by a policy or plan that protects cultural heritage</td>
<td>Percentage of destination’s biggest events based on local culture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PART D: ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACT</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>CRITERIA</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reducing transport impact</td>
<td>Percentage of tourist and same day visitors using different modes of transport to arrive at the destination</td>
<td>Percentage of usage of local/soft mobility/public transport to get around the destination</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Solid waste management</td>
<td>Waste volume produced by destination</td>
<td>Percentage of tourism enterprises separating different types of waste</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Energy usage</td>
<td>Energy consumption per tourist night compared to general population consumption per person night</td>
<td>Percentage of tourism enterprises that switched off to low energy lighting</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: European Tourism Indicator System TOOLKIT for sustainable Destinations

**Greater Poland as a tourist destination: do we need a sustainable tourism management?**

Greater Poland is the second Polish province regarding its surface and the third regarding the number of inhabitants, usually described as a very enterprising and economical region, proving it with the lowest unemployment rate. In 2012, 1,616,560 of international tourist visited Greater Poland, which was the 7th result among the 16 provinces of Poland (Tourism in 2012: Statistical information and elaborations 2013: 41). Greater Poland is a region where the first Polish state structures had begun to form, there is a lot of material and intangible heritage here worth exposing, as well as interesting nature (1 national park, 13 landscape parks, and over 100
nature reserves). The strategy of development of tourist product in Great Poland is a state responsibility of the Greater Poland Tourism Organization (WTO) which has created several themed tourist products that should fulfill the needs of different consumers, including the niche sectors, such as post-industrial tourists or pilgrims, as well as less niche but active tourists. Besides all of this, Greater Poland does not have any very strong tourist brand. It is creating its brand to emphasize quality and innovation in various fields of its functioning: education, administration, technology, and tourism as well. One of the strategic objectives mentioned in the Development Strategy for Wielkopolskie Province until 2020 (2005) is innovation. Development of tourism is one of local policies in this strategy. Although some great projects have been led and co-founded by the European Union (Creation of the System of Tourist Information, The Complex Promotion of key Tourist Product of Great Poland, The International Promotion of Brand Water Tourism Product “The Great Route”) it seems that Great Poland cannot compete with such strong tourist destinations as the Baltic Sea or the mountains. In order to compete with these regions it is important to follow the idea of innovation and be able to show the innovative way of managing tourism. How? It is easy to guess: by sustainable development. Introducing the European Tourism Indicator System, although it may seem difficult and maybe unnecessary for the region which does not base its economy on tourism, fits the ideology of the Innovative Greater Poland or of Poznan – the city of “know how”.

Propositions of introducing the European Tourism Indicator System in Greater Poland: funding possibilities and benefits

We are about to start the new financial perspective in the European Union. There are a lot of reasons to think that such an interdisciplinary project should find the European Commission’s support. The Article 195 of the Lisbon Treaty is dedicated to Tourism and says that “[t]he Union shall complement the action of the Member States in the tourism sector, in particular by promoting the competitiveness of Union undertakings in this sector” (Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union 2010: 135). Therefore, it shall aim its actions so as to encourage creating a favorable environment to develop tourism and promote cooperation. The general priorities regarding the new perspective for Poland are broadening activities in the field of innovations, sustainable development – especially low emission industry, and regional development favoring social inclusion. While browsing European Projects in Poland in the light of the new perspective, the activities connected with tourism can be found in Environment and Infrastructure, Intelligent Development, Knowledge Education Development. There are possibilities of gaining financial support while realizing the priorities of these project. The details will be known soon, as we are about to open this new perspective. There are also interesting possibilities of receiving European Founds from the 8th Framework, which is aimed to promote cooperation between science and
business, public and private sectors, and generally to promote multinational and multidimensional cooperation leading to innovation and improvement of European space – social, economical, cultural, technological... Again, the new perspective is about to start, there will be new calls for proposals presented. One of the forthcoming examples of the calls, presenting one of the main ideas of European and sustainable development can be: “Europe in the changing world – inclusive, innovative and reflective Societies”. Isn’t this idea close to sustainable development?

These are only general tips, meant to show that there are possibilities to gain European support, especially because the European Tourism Indicator System, which being introduced, fits the main ideology of regional development.

What can Greater Poland gain introducing this system? First of all, having into account recent tourism trends it can gain the competitive predominance. Contemporary tourists are becoming very aware of the importance of sustainability. They also care about the general impression of the destination, they perceive the tourist product as a complex of services offered and the impression of the public space surrounding them. The creation of modern and innovative tourism product may prove to be more important that objective tourist attractions like warm climate, coastline or mountains.

Introducing the Tourism Indicator System may also strengthen the brand of Greater Poland as an innovative and creative region.

Developing sustainability in tourism by introducing this system may also contribute to improve the quality of life in the region by monitoring multiple important aspects of social life.

CONCLUSION

Sustainable tourism development seems to be the unavoidable future for every destination on the tourist market. The sooner local authorities will become aware of this fact, the higher competitive predominance can be built.

There are different ways to introduce sustainable tourism management into destination, but the European Tourism Indicators System Toolkit seems to be very interdisciplinary and can ensure not only the development of tourism but also can upgrade the quality of life of the inhabitants, protecting the social, environmental, cultural, and economical conditions of their everyday life. Such a way of understanding and practical implementation of the philosophy of sustainable (tourism) development also fits the contemporary trends in regional development in the European Union and can be granted some founds. It is strongly recommended that the authorities of Great Poland should have it in mind.
REFERENCES


DOCUMENTS


CHAPTER 1.3.

CONTRIBUTION OF THE BLUE FLAG FOR DECISION MAKING
OF SUN AND SEA DESTINATIONS

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Abstract: Sun and Sea tourists’ priorities and preferences have been changing continuously and this is reflected in their preference for tourist destinations that care for environmental quality or sustainability. Accordingly, when they choose a destination they now value aspects such as the quality of the landscape, the degree of conservation of the ecosystems and natural resources, and pollution levels, etc. Thus, eco-certification (eco labels) instruments applicable to travel and/or tourist companies have been developed, as is the case of including the Blue Flag (BF). Consequently, the aim of this paper is to evaluate the effect that obtaining the BF has in attracting tourists and 819 Portuguese and Spanish tourists were asked about the information they had on the BF and their willingness to pay an extra price for a tourist accommodation situated in BF certified area. In order to determine the preferences of the tourists, nine hypothetical tourist destinations were considered, characterized by four attributes: "quality of sea water and beaches", "mass use", "entertainment and nightlife" and "eco-tax" and its respective levels, which were then analysed by means of the conjoint analysis technique. Final results show that the importance given to the environment in the process of selecting a tourist destination can determine the adoption of good practices and environmental preservation, aligned with sustainable tourism development strategies.

Keywords: Tourist Destinations, Blue Flag, Eco-certification, Sustainability
INTRODUCTION

Always regarded as an economic activity, Tourism reliance on environmental, natural and cultural resources is now recognized as inevitable. However, this dependence has not always had this relevance and visibility, mainly due to the lower extent of the tourism phenomenon in the past.

After the World War II, there was a period in which economic agents related to the tourism industry had the main goal of achieving economic profitability of investments in a short term basis, as Tourism was seen as an immediate answer for the development of the destinations. Yet, this model-based development that aimed easy and quick profit, and somehow based on sun and sea tourism, caused serious negative environmental impacts outweighing the benefits that resulted from it. Moreover, it created this feeling of conflict between tourism and the environment.

The awareness of this threat had inevitable consequences for the population and, in the 80s, there was a structural change in the tourism activity development approaches. Apart from the economic perspective, Tourism has been since then recognized as a social phenomenon, answering to specific needs of local communities and tourists (Partisan, 1999:12). Furthermore, a new profile of tourists, strongly concerned with the conservation of resources and significant levels of demand on environmental quality, emerged (Bosch et al., 1998). This is especially important in those destinations for which the environment is not only important as a factor of production (through the occupation of ecosystems, production of waste and consumption of natural resources), but especially when their environmental values are themselves attributes that represent the tourism product itself and are a key point for attracting tourists (González & León, 1998).

According to Gutiérrez and García (2001), we can highlight the existence of two-way relationship between the activity of tourism businesses and the environment, meaning that the environmental impacts, they somehow produce, can have a negative impact on competitive positioning. This may happen both due to a decrease of the quality of tourism inputs, but also because of a potential consumption fall of those who are "environmentally sensitive".

Thus, tourism is most likely to affect and be affected by the quality of the environment. With more or less precise definitions, sustainable tourism is usually referred to in this context to express the existence of an unambiguous, two-way relationship between tourism and the natural capital resources with the aim of generating high quality experience for the tourists.

Additionally, in recent years, consumers have shown changes with respect to their priorities and preferences. This idea is reinforced by Poon (1994), who highlights the paradigm of "new tourism" versus "old tourism". It describes the "old tourist" as inexperienced, standard, travelling in groups, attracted to sun & sea destinations and with preference for previously organized package holidays. On the other hand, the "new tourist" is more experienced, with greater
ecological concerns, more spontaneous and unpredictable, with a greater degree of flexibility and independence. As mentioned by the author, these new consumers want to be different and want to assert this individuality.

Thus, in recent years there has been a new environmental awareness from the consumers towards this concern for an eco-friendly approach that matches the different qualitative changes that have been shown by these specific segments of demand. Their expectations and motivations are part of this new process of diffusion of a new cultural model, mentioned in the literature whenever the emergence of this new type of tourists, who include in their decisions aspects such as environmental quality or sustainability of tourist destinations, is mentioned. This means that not only do they attach importance to the quality of the environment or the landscape, but also to the degree of conservation of ecosystems and natural resources, and pollution levels, waste treatment, etc. (Ayuso, 2003; Kelly et al, 2007).

Definitely, the continued quantitative growth of tourism has been accompanied by profound qualitative changes, which require constantly up-to-date on offer in order to adapt it to new needs and motivations of tourists. Clearly these changes imply a reformulation of strategies and traditional development processes, aiming the development and planning of destinations in a way that principles targeting quality are ensured, sustainability, a personalized customer service and the ability to become competitive against other products solidly positioned are also to be considered in this approach. It can be said that the companies engaged in tourism, will have to adopt sustainable practices if they want to ensure their survival in the market (WTO, 2001).

Within this framework, consumers have become more aware citizens, requiring further and more accurate tourism services, clearly choosing well-preserved natural environments and non-destructive tourism practices. Furthermore, tourists are sometimes willing to pay more for it, which facilitates the adoption of sustainability strategies in tourism development planning (Hu and Wall, 2005).

It can be said that both the tourism supply and demand show an increasing interest in type of tourism that, on the one hand, works on reducing its impacts on existing resources and is able to promote the protection of the environment and, secondly, that somehow shows to be economic, ethical and socially viable for local communities.

The main aim of this work is then to assess the effect that obtaining certifications, that ensure a friendly approach to the environment in the tourism development of destinations, will have in the process of choosing a destination and also to analyse tourists’ willingness to pay an extra price for a tourist accommodation situated in such a destination.

This paper is structured in four parts: first, a theoretical approach to the main themes is presented; second, the methodological issues are described; third the obtained results are presented and discussed and finally conclusions are put forward.

SUSTAINABILITY PRACTICES AND THE IMPORTANCE OF ECO LABELS
Guidance of the various stakeholders in the tourism industry in order to get them to operate from the perspective of preserving the natural environment and sustainability happens in distinctive ways. There is a number of policy instruments which are mandatory and are part of national legislation of each country and those which are those volunteer and represent a self-regulation approach by the industry itself.

You could say that voluntary instruments may be used in the context of environmental education and information, contributing to a raise of the awareness of businessmen, tourists and the population in general about the environmental problems associated with the tourism activity and also about the different ways to fight them. When compared with the mandatory instruments, voluntary instruments have shown to be faster and more successful to achieve the objectives of environmental policy at a lower cost (Ten, 2002).

Examples of voluntary instruments that can be adopted by companies or tourist destinations are: codes of conduct, guides to good practices, environmental management systems, the "green taxes" and the eco-labels, which are, in this case, the object of our analysis. Thus, labels represent one of the most efficient ways of introducing practices to protect the environment in businesses and institutions in the tourism sector. Besides representing environmental education and promotion instruments, eco-labels are very effective marketing tools because on the one hand, they constitute a guarantee of environmental quality of tourism products and services, and secondly, they provide additional information to the customers on the activities of the company, and therefore introducing a new deciding factor in the choice of a tourist destination (Buckley, 2002).

According to the International Organization for Standardization (ISO) the purpose of a label is "to encourage the demand for and supply of products that cause less pressure on the environment throughout its life cycle, through not misleading, verifiable and reliable information communication about environmental aspects of products and services" (ISO, 2007).

If we consider Chamorro’s definition (2003: 247), than the assignment of a green label can be defined as “a procedure by which an independent third party authorizes a product to use a logo, believing that it meets a set of environmental criteria that make it is less harmful to nature than other competing brands within the same product category environment”. It should also be underlined that ecological labels and awards intend to contribute to continuous improvement of environmental performance of the product or service provided through public recognition of best environmental practices. In addition, and as the tourist destination is the main reason of attraction for tourists, an eco-label or environmental quality award can function as a good tool to distinguish it in relation to its competitors (Buckley, 2002).

According to ECOTRANS, in Europe there are about 100 systems of eco-labels and of environmental recognition. Among these labels there is the Blue Flag certification which appears as a label of environmental quality, awarded by the European Foundation for Environmental Education beaches, harbours, marinas and recreational water craft, that distinguishes effort
towards improving the environment and requires fulfilment of various criteria in the areas of management and safety, water quality and coastal environment, environmental education and information to visitors.

STUDY METHODS

The main objective of this study is to relate tourists’ behaviour with the environmental quality of tourist destinations. Hence, we aim to understand the importance attributed to the Blue Flag eco-label when choosing a tourist destination for sun and sea.

Our choice fell on the typology of Sun and Sea tourism - tourism carried out in coastal areas during mainly the summer period because of the weather, beach activities centred – currently associated with mass tourism, mainly dependent on loyal tourists that revisit the same destinations, as we believe it can also be developed in a sustainable manner, where the quality of natural resources are of great importance.

Knowing in advance that the relationship between tourism and the environment is particularly critical in tourist destinations of sun and sea, the introduction of environmental practices in tourist attractions and facilities can be valued by tourists and influence their purchasing decisions. So, bearing in mind the overall aim of our study and in accordance with the theoretical framework explained before, there are specific goals that we intend to develop, such as:

1) Estimate the importance that the environmental quality, certified through the Blue Flag, presents over other attributes when choosing a tourist destination;

2) Analyse the availability to pay more for certified tourist destinations with the Blue Flag.

To estimate the relative importance of environmental quality compared with other attributes of the destination, we chose to use Conjoint Analysis technique. This is a common technique when you want to understand the extent to which certain attributes of a product or service (tourism destination) focus on the consumers (tourists) preferences. Thus, Conjoint Analysis technique attempts to set closer to the underlying structure of selection, determining the relative importance of each attribute, as well as the combination that is more attractive for tourists.

Conjoint Analysis technique is based on the premise that products or services are composed of several attributes that cannot easily dissociate (Johnson, 1974). This technique is, among all multivariate methods, one in which the researcher first constructs a set of products or services (real or hypothetical) by combining the selected levels of each attribute.

To succeed the researcher should be able to describe the product or service in terms of both its attributes as all relevant levels for each attribute. In a simplified way, one can say that this technique consists of presenting to a sample of buyers, a set of products (incentive) and ask them to order them according to their preference or purchase intention.
To identify the determinant attributes that we have applied in this study, we based our selection according to the many studies that relate to the quality of the environment in tourism (Table 1).

### Table 1. Literature review about the attributes used by several authors in previous studies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Attributes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Borgers <em>et al.</em></td>
<td>1988</td>
<td>Facilities for swimming, fishing, walking and cycling&lt;br&gt;The holiday general atmosphere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ramos, M.</td>
<td>1989</td>
<td>The price of products and services&lt;br&gt;External services&lt;br&gt;Activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Huybers &amp; Bennett</td>
<td>2000</td>
<td>Environmental conditions&lt;br&gt;Development / crowdedness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Picón &amp; Varela</td>
<td>2000</td>
<td>Night life</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hanley <em>et al.</em></td>
<td>2002</td>
<td>Massification&lt;br&gt;Beauty of the landscap&lt;br&gt;Quality of the beach and sea water</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reig &amp; Coenders</td>
<td>2002</td>
<td>Surroundings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bengochea <em>et al.</em></td>
<td>2003</td>
<td>Degree of biodiversity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Devkota <em>et al.</em></td>
<td>2003</td>
<td>Environmental characteristics&lt;br&gt;Superstructures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Huybers, T.</td>
<td>2003</td>
<td>Massification&lt;br&gt;The type of activities that can be performed&lt;br&gt;Quality of the local for recreational practices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Klenosky, B.</td>
<td>2004</td>
<td>Residential areas’ development&lt;br&gt;Air Quality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shoji &amp; Yamaki</td>
<td>2004</td>
<td>Environmental Fee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Varela <em>et al.</em></td>
<td>2004</td>
<td>Entertainment and nightlife</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ortega &amp; Recio</td>
<td>2006</td>
<td>Surroundings and location&lt;br&gt;Supply and leisure services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kelly <em>et al.</em></td>
<td>2007</td>
<td>Recreational activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Riaganti, P.</td>
<td>2008</td>
<td>Rising cost of hotel rooms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brau <em>et al.</em></td>
<td>2009</td>
<td>Massification&lt;br&gt;Environmental impact of commercial premises and beach services&lt;br&gt;Nightlife activities on the beach&lt;br&gt;Cost of accommodation per person per night</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figini <em>et al.</em></td>
<td>2009</td>
<td>Massification&lt;br&gt;Environmental impact of commercial premises and beach services</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Authors

In order to achieve the objectives of the study and based on literature review, four attributes were defined: "Quality of sea water and beaches", "massification", "Recreational
activities and nightlife" and "eco-tax". When selecting the number of attributes and levels we tried to find a right balance between information overload and simplification of incentives/stimuli, and for each of the attributes three levels were identified:

- **Quality of sea water and beaches**

  Through this attribute we want to understand the importance tourists give to the quality of sea water and beach certifies with the “Blue Flag”. Accordingly, we intend to evaluate if the tourists when choosing their holiday destination prefer beaches with the eco-label “Blue Flag”, which is synonymous with good quality, good sand quality, safety, good access to water, as well as services and support facilities for bathers. This attribute presented three levels: Low quality, Good quality, Good quality certified by Blue Flag (Table 2).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Levels</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Low quality</td>
<td>This tourism destination offers a low quality of bathing waters and sand. There is no concern to inform and warn tourists about the preservation of the environment, neither about environmental management, and the safety and wellbeing of users, as well as some support structures, are not guaranteed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good quality</td>
<td>This destination offers a good quality of bathing waters and sand, but it is not distinguished as a destination with Blue Flag.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good quality certified by the “Blue Flag” eco-label</td>
<td>This tourism destination features the logo of the Blue Flag, ensuring strict levels regarding the quality of bathing waters and sand. It also offers information about environment and environmental education campaigns, local environmental management, safety procedures for bathers, as well as some additional services and facilities for the tourist.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Authors

- **Massification**

  The massification attribute refers to the number of visitors who are in the tourist destination at a certain time, associated with the degree of urbanization and congestion of equipment and infrastructures. It is common to assume that the less massified destinations are preferred to those which suffer from massification as far as tourism is concerned. In consequence, it is expected that the preferred tourist destinations fall on the least massified ones. This attribute has shown to have three levels: slightly congested, moderately congested, and very congested (Table 3).
Table 3. Levels for the attribute: “Massification”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Levels</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rarely congested</td>
<td>It is a tourism destination with few tourists and few areas of urban concentration (only a few hotels, predominance of scattered single family houses). In this destination it is still possible to unwind as it is a quiet and relaxing place.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderately congested</td>
<td>It is a tourism destination with a moderate number of tourists and some areas of urban concentration. Congestion of infrastructures and equipment happens occasionally. A relaxed atmosphere prevails.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Highly congested</td>
<td>It is a tourism destination with a large number of tourists, with a high concentration of buildings close to the beach. It frequently happens that infrastructures and equipment are overcrowded. An agitated atmosphere prevails.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Authors

- **Recreational activities and nightlife**

The attribute recreational activities and nightlife concerns the number of recreational activities that exist at the destination in order to occupy tourists’ leisure time as well as local nightlife (bars, restaurants, discos, terraces). It is our aim to verify if tourists who choose destinations with certified environmental quality prefer rather quiet and with few local nightlife environments (Table 4).

Table 4. Levels for the attribute: “Entertainment and nightlife”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Levels</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Few</td>
<td>There is a reduced supply of recreational activities on the beach (volleyball and beach football, radical area, area for aerobics and dance ...) and local nightlife (bars, restaurants, clubs...).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some</td>
<td>There are some recreational beach activities (volleyball and beach football, radical area, area for aerobics and dance ...) and some local nightlife (bars, restaurants, clubs, ...)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A lot</td>
<td>There are many recreational activities on the beach (volleyball and beach football, radical area, area for aerobics and dance ...) and a great diversity of local nightlife (bars, restaurants, clubs,..)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Authors

- **Green Tax**

This attribute is related to the implementation of a tourist tax, meaning an increase in the price of accommodation, per tourist and per night, which is expected to be applied in the protection and conservation of the environment protection of the destination. Thus, the aim will be to reduce the negative impacts of tourism development and enhance the quality of the tourism
product. The choice of this attribute is related to the interest in understanding if tourists are willing to pay more to enjoy and preserve environment quality. This attribute had three levels: no tax, 5% on the price of accommodation, 10% on the price of accommodation (Table 5).

**Table 5. – Levels for the attribute: “Ecological Tax”**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Levels</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No tax</td>
<td>There is no reference to the existence of an eco-tax.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5% over rate tax</td>
<td>Tourists who stay in this tourist destination pay 5% of the cost of their daily accommodation for an environmental tax which aims to maintain and improve the natural conditions of the area.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10% over rate tax</td>
<td>Tourists who stay in this tourist destination pay 10% of the cost of their daily accommodation for an environmental tax which aims to maintain and improve the natural conditions of the area.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Authors

According to literature review, the number of levels chosen for each attribute is similar to that used in similar studies (Ramos, 1999; Huybers and Bennett, 2000; Reig and Coenders, 2002; Brau et al., 2009). We also attempted to balance between the numbers of levels for the various attributes, have them combined in a realistic form and make it easy for the interviewed to establish differences between them.

After selecting the attributes and their respective levels, it is important to select the method for data collection and presentation of stimuli. There are several procedures that can be followed to determine the form of stimulus presentation to respondents (trade-off, traditional full-profile, peer combinations, discrete choice, adaptive or hybrid). The choice of either method is defined by statistical software is to be used. In this study we used the CONJOINT module of SPSS 15.0. Consequently we worked with the Traditional Method full profile. This method provides a more realistic depiction of the stimuli through the various levels of each attribute (Hair et al., 2005). By using the method of reporting the full profile, the interviewed will evaluate all stimuli and their different levels of attributes.

Having chosen the full profile method, the number of stimuli to consider would be 81 (3x3x3x3). Yet this number of combinations would make the analysis of the respondents quite complex, exhaustive and difficult. Thus, in order to reduce the number of combinations to evaluate, we proceeded to an orthogonal design reducing the number of stimuli only to 9, which is the minimum number of combinations needed to be able to estimate accurately the function of individuals’ preferences (Table 6).
Table 6. – Motivations presented to sun and sea tourists

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Card number</th>
<th>Quality of beaches and sea water</th>
<th>Massification</th>
<th>Entertainment and nightlife</th>
<th>Ecological Tax</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Good quality certified by “Blue Flag”</td>
<td>Moderately congested</td>
<td>Few</td>
<td>10% over rate tax</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Good quality certified by “Blue Flag”</td>
<td>Highly congested</td>
<td>Some</td>
<td>No tax</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Good quality</td>
<td>Rarely congested</td>
<td>Some</td>
<td>10% over rate tax</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Good quality</td>
<td>Highly congested</td>
<td>Few</td>
<td>5% over rate tax</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Good quality</td>
<td>Moderately congested</td>
<td>A lot</td>
<td>No tax</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Low quality</td>
<td>Highly congested</td>
<td>A lot</td>
<td>10% over rate tax</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Low quality</td>
<td>Rarely congested</td>
<td>Few</td>
<td>No tax</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Low quality certified by “Blue Flag”</td>
<td>Rarely congested</td>
<td>A lot</td>
<td>5% over rate tax</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Low quality</td>
<td>Moderately congested</td>
<td>Some</td>
<td>5% over rate tax</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Authors

Regarding the presentation of the stimuli to respondents, there was a first moment in which a framework describing the various attributes and their respective levels was elaborated, detailing each of the levels of the attributes considered in the study. Afterwards, several cards with a summary of this was presented to the respondents. The description of the different hypothetical tourism destinations was presented in paragraph form, reflecting the way the common layout of brochures that usually display this information (Figure 1).

![Figure 1. Example of a card presented to interviewed with an hypothetical tourism destination](image)

The information was collected during the year 2009, with a questionnaire addressed to sun and sea Portuguese tourists (Leiria district) and also Spanish (region of Extremadura), over 18 years of age. A sample of 819 tourists was obtained, and a non-random sampling method was
used, thus obtaining a convenience sample. Of the obtained questionnaires, 439 are from Portuguese citizens and 380 are from Spanish citizens (Table 7).

**Table 7. Technical information about the study**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Population</th>
<th>Sun and sea tourists residents in the district of Leiria (Portugal) and Extremadura region (Spain)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Method for gathering information</td>
<td>Self-completion questionnaire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population size</td>
<td>Infinite population</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sampling type</td>
<td>Convenience sampling approach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sample size</td>
<td>819 individuals (439 Portuguese e 380 Spanish)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error size</td>
<td>3.42%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of confidence</td>
<td>95%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Date of field work</td>
<td>From February to June, 2009</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Authors

**DISCUSSION OF RESULTS**

**Importance of Blue Flag in the choice of a tourism destination**

Respondents have been shown nine cards of hypothetical tourist destinations of sun and sea, and they were expected to order them according to their preference from 1 (most preferred) to 9 (least preferred). From this process we obtained the necessary data to estimate the structure of preferences from the respondents. To estimate the utilities and the relative importance of the various attributes of the destination, we used the Linear Regression Model, through the method of OLS to estimate the model parameters. The dependent variable was the order of preference of the respondents and the independent variables represented the various attributes of the destination and the respective associated levels.

The Conjoint Analysis Technique was applied to the entire sample (Portuguese and Spanish) in order to obtain, on the one hand, the relative importance of each attribute considering all the respondents and, on the other hand, the utilities given by respondents for each attribute level.

Thus, results show that the ideal sun and sea tourism destinations will ensure the quality of seawater and beaches through the Blue Flag certification, guaranteeing mandatory and strict principles related to: the quality of bathing waters and sand; the existence of information about the environment and environmental education projects; environmental management of the local; safety issues, as well as the existence of some additional services and facilities for the tourist. Furthermore, it should be a destination with a well-adjusted number of tourist, not overloaded with buildings and it should promote the well-being of tourists, giving them the possibility to unwind. Nevertheless, it should also offer a wide range of recreational activities on the beach.
(sports) and a great diversity of local nightlife (bars, restaurants, clubs), where tourists will not be asked to pay an environmental tax (Table 8).

The obtained results also show that as far as the relative importance of each attribute is concerned, the "quality of sea water and beaches" is the key attribute for the whole sample when choosing a tourist destination (46.4 % important), followed by "massification" which represents 25.1 % of the respondents' preferences, and by the "recreational activities and nightlife" (16.8 %) and, finally by the "eco-tax" that influences the selection of a destination in 11.7 % (Table 8).

Table 8 Estimated utilities and relative importance of attributes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ATTRIBUTE</th>
<th>LEVEL</th>
<th>UTILITY</th>
<th>IMPORTANCE (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Quality of beaches and seawater</td>
<td>Low quality</td>
<td>-2,5385</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Good quality</td>
<td>0,9642</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Good quality certified by “Blue Flag” eco-label</td>
<td>1,5743</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Massification</td>
<td>Rarely congested</td>
<td>0,7957</td>
<td>25,12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Moderately congested</td>
<td>0,3423</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Highly congested</td>
<td>-1,1380</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entertainment and nightlife</td>
<td>A lot</td>
<td>0,5922</td>
<td>16,78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Some</td>
<td>-0,0956</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Few</td>
<td>-0,4965</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No tax</td>
<td>-0,1062</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ecological Tax</td>
<td>5% over rate tax</td>
<td>-0,2125</td>
<td>11,68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10% over rate tax</td>
<td>-0,3187</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Kendall Tau and R Pearson coefficient significance <0.001

It is important to stress the importance given to attribute of seawater and beaches quality, which is nearly 50 %, having been highly valued compared to other attributes. Though, it is also important to note that the attribute eco-tax was the one that had less importance when compared with the others. Thus, we can conclude that the "quality of sea water and beaches" is the most valued attribute when choosing a holiday destination of sun and sea, followed in order of importance the "massification", the "Recreational activities and nightlife" and the "eco-tax", the latter being the attribute that presents itself as less relevant when choosing a tourism destination.

These findings are in line with the results obtained in previous studies who used some of the attributes analysed in our study (Rahemtulla, 1998; Huybers & Bennett, 2000; Huybers, 2003; Brau et al., 2009; Figini et al., 2009). For example, Rahemtulla (1998) states that the quality of marine life is the most important attribute when choosing the Seychelles as a tourism destination, followed by the existence of rare wildlife species, the development of beaches and,
lastly, local prices for goods and services. This study concluded that the environmental quality contributes significantly to the decision of choosing a tourism destination.

Huybers and Bennett (2000) concluded that UK tourists confer more utility in and greater willingness to pay for destinations where the natural environment is unspoilt and less crowded. Additionally, Huybers (2003) reached the same conclusions with a sample of Australian tourists. However, Brau et al. (2009) and Figini et al. (2009) came to the conclusion that the target tourists of Rimini (Italy) confer more importance to entertainment and nightlife activities and less importance to the massification aspect and environmental impact.

Availability to pay more for destinations certified with the Blue Flag

Respondents were also asked about their willingness to pay an extra price for staying in an accommodation located near a Blue Flag beach. The obtained results show that only 394 respondents (48%) are willing to pay more in order to be on a beach with this eco-label, and 60% from this group reported that they would not mind paying from 1% to 5% more of the fixed price per night in the accommodation, 30% would be willing to experience a price increase between 6% and 10% and the remaining 10% would pay between 11% and 30%. Still, it should be noted that 52% of respondents do not show availability to pay an extra amount for this reason (Figure 2).

After analysing the importance of Blue Flag in the choice of a tourism destination and the availability to pay more for destinations certified with the Blue Flag, we verified if the utility values assigned to each attribute level, as well as their relative importance, differ depending on the availability or not to pay an extra price for benefiting from a beach with the Blue Flag label.

Table 9 shows that respondents who are willing to pay an extra price for a touristic accommodation due to its location near a Blue Flag beach, assign greater utility to destinations with "good quality certified through Blue Flag" ($u = 1.69$) and those who are not willing to pay that price for this allocate to this attribute level a utility of 1.45. In addition, respondents who are willing to pay an extra price show preference for less crowded destinations ($u=90$) in contrast to the "massified" ones ($u=-1.24$). Respondents who are not willing to pay this extra amount of money, also show the same tendency but with lower utility values: less crowded destinations ($u=70$). As for recreational activities and nightlife, respondents showed higher values of utilities for tourism destinations with "many recreational activities and nightlife" ($u=58$).

For that reason, we can conclude that the availability to pay for an extra value, for a touristic accommodation near a Blue Flag beach, reflects the structure of tourists’ preferences. Thus, tourists who are willing to pay this extra value show statistically significant differences with regard to those who are not, as far as the "quality of seawater and beaches’ attributes", the "massification" and "eco-tax" are concerned. So, tourists who are willing to pay this extra value have a preference for destinations which are not crowded, and they do not mind paying 10% of environmental tax.
As for those respondents who are willing to pay more for being on a Blue Flag beach, even though with low values of estimated utilities, all utilities associated to environmental tax attribute have positive values, and they also attach higher utility to the level that represents the payment of a "10% tax" (\(u = .06\)). Thus, it appears that this willingness to pay for improved environmental quality is reflected when you select your holiday destination of sun and sea.

For respondents who are not willing to pay an extra price for touristic accommodation, more utility is assigned to "duty free" destinations (\(u = -.22\)) and less to those which request the payment of an "environmental tax of 10%" (\(u = - .67\)).

When analysing the relative importance of each attribute to both categories of respondents (willing and not willing to pay an extra price) it appears that the "quality of sea water and beaches" is the attribute with the highest relative importance compared with other attributes displayed (Figure 3).

It was also part of this study to proceed to a Linear Regression Analysis by using the method of OLS, aiming to check whether the differences between individuals who are willing to pay for an extra price for the quality of certified Blue Flag beach and those who are not are statistically significant. The obtained results show that most of the dummy variables relating the attributes with the willingness to pay are statistically significant, namely the quality of sea water and beaches, massification and destinations without environmental tax.
Table 9 Willingness to pay an extra value for touristic accommodation close to a Blue Flag beach

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attribute</th>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Availability to pay Utility</th>
<th>Availability to pay Importance (%)</th>
<th>Non availability to pay Utility</th>
<th>Non availability to pay Importance (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Quality</td>
<td>Low quality</td>
<td>2,652</td>
<td>-2,652</td>
<td>2,433</td>
<td>48,35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Good quality</td>
<td>0,959</td>
<td>0,959</td>
<td>0,969</td>
<td>44,64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Blue Flag</td>
<td>1,693</td>
<td>1,693</td>
<td>1,464</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Few</td>
<td>0,904</td>
<td>0,904</td>
<td>0,695</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Massification</td>
<td>Moderately</td>
<td>0,333</td>
<td>0,333</td>
<td>0,351</td>
<td>25,95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A lot</td>
<td>-1,238</td>
<td>-1,238</td>
<td>-1,045</td>
<td>24,35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A lot</td>
<td>0,576</td>
<td>0,576</td>
<td>0,607</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Activities</td>
<td>Some</td>
<td>-0,071</td>
<td>-0,071</td>
<td>-0,118</td>
<td>16,17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Few</td>
<td>-0,505</td>
<td>-0,505</td>
<td>-0,489</td>
<td>17,35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No tax</td>
<td>0,020</td>
<td>0,020</td>
<td>-0,224</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tax</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>0,041</td>
<td>0,041</td>
<td>-0,447</td>
<td>9,54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>0,061</td>
<td>0,061</td>
<td>-0,671</td>
<td>13,66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interviewed (total)</td>
<td></td>
<td>394</td>
<td>394</td>
<td>425</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 3 Relative importance of the attribute according to the availability to pay an extra value for the Blue Flag

In addition to the analysis, described previously, we also considered important to question which socio-demographic variables had an influence on the willingness to pay. Thus, contingency tables between socio-demographic variables (gender, age, marital status, children, adolescents and adults, educational background and income) and willingness to pay were used. By means of the chi-square test, results show that only variables related to academic achievement (sig. = 0.011) and income (sig. = 0.008) are statistically significant. Consequently, it
can be said that the level of education as well as income influence the availability to pay an extra price for the tourism accommodation situated near a Blue Flag beach.

The obtained results are similar to others from different studies where it is common to assert that individuals with higher educational attainment and higher income levels have increased awareness and more sustainable behaviour (Zimmer et al., 1994 Roberts, 1996, Daniere and Takahashi, 1999; Fraj and Martinez, 2003; Yan, 2008; Brau et al., 2009).

CONCLUSIONS

The ecological impacts produced by the tourism activity may adversely affect the competitive positioning of tourism destinations, not only by decreasing the quality of its tourism inputs, but also due to a potential fall in demand as a result of a new segment of environment friendly tourists. Nowadays, any tourism destination should consider the environmental issue in its development strategy as the environmental quality has shown to be a key factor in the process of choosing a destination. For this reason it is important to know that the environmental concerns of tourists influence their choice of holiday destinations.

This study helps to better understand the relationship between tourist behaviour and the environmental quality of tourism destinations of sea and sun, namely as far as the importance given to different environment elements that can be considered in a tourism destination and that somehow affect decision of choice by tourists. This paper reflects on the importance of one of these elements, the Blue Flag label and its effect in the process of choosing a destination.

In general, the obtained results demonstrate that the certification of a tourism destination with the Blue Flag label is an attractive bet for its managers as it attracts tourists to visit it. In fact, up to 60 % of the sample takes the certification into account when selecting a tourism destination.

In addition to this, the market value for a system such as the Blue Flag increases if the tourist is willing to choose a certified tourism destination even if this means having to consider higher expenses. Although we have concluded that the percentage of the extra amount of money to be addressed to this issue is somehow low (around 5% of the normal cost of the accommodation), the results are still positive.

Thus, we can conclude that the Blue Flag is a useful tool for the management of tourism destinations and can be an asset to increase the demand for these destinations. The certification with the Blue Flag can be used both by the destination managers as by the tourism businesses as a communication tool that works as a guarantee of quality and safety for tourists, and it can also be considered as an efficient instrument of differentiation over other competing tourism destinations.
REFERENCES


CHAPTER 1.4.

DIVERSIFICATION OF RURAL TOURISM AND AGRITOURISM SPACE
IN POLAND

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Abstract: Rural tourism and agritourism are not totally new in Poland, however “the new” tourism activities in rural areas has accelerated in the nineties and it was a result of introducing market economy and restructuring agricultural sector. Rural tourism and agritourism develop in a space, which can be described as the rural tourism /agritourism space. In the broad sense rural tourism space refers to rural areas providing tourism services, its natural landscape and the landscape of the expanse that is the result of human activity. It includes the architecture, the farm landscape and the scenery formed by production activity (Sznajder, Przezbórska and Scrimgeour, 2009). There are several factors influencing development of rural tourism /agritourism space and rural tourism /agritourism activities. The main objective of the paper was to identify the factors influencing rural tourism /agritourism space development, to introduce the diversification of rural tourism space in Poland and to evaluate its usefulness for rural tourism and agritourism development. Two groups of methods were essentially used in the research, in addition to a thorough analysis of the already existing studies along with the literature study. The first one there was a questionnaire investigation conducted among the owners of rural tourism /agritourism operators in Poland and the second group there was the descriptive statistics methods, including e.g. cluster analysis. The description of rural tourism space of Poland and its diversification is the main result of the paper.

Keywords: rural tourism, agritourism, space, rural areas, valorisation

INTRODUCTION
The diversification of the economy of rural areas to other sectors than agriculture is progressing. It is extremely important as, because rural areas in Europe represent 92% of the territory and 56% of the population (Rural Development in the EU, 2006) and face a common challenge of economic regeneration and employment creation, especially for young people (OECD, 1994). Travel and tourism has emerged as one of the leading service sectors drivers of wealth and job
Tourism research in a changing world

creation and many rural areas already benefit from tourism and travel (Travel and Tourism: A Job Creator for Rural Economies, 1998). Tourism is increasingly in the centre of popular and policy discourses being both demonized and idealized (Sharply, 2001; Shaw and Williams, 2004; Tourism Strategies and Rural Development, 1994). However, tourism as a socioeconomic phenomenon is a spatial concept and the environment where tourism develops must be transformed so that tourist values can be used better (Douglas, Douglas and Derrett, 2001) and the development of tourism could be sustainable (Notearstefano, 2007). “While the growth of tourism is assumed to benefit rural communities, it should be noted that increased visitor numbers may also result in adverse environmental, social and cultural impacts” (Douglas, Douglas and Derrett, 2001, p. 172). Tourist space is isolated according to the functionality criterion (Meyer, 2008) and it is part of the economic space where tourism has developed (Płocka, 2009). In the simplest words, tourist space is a space where tourist activity takes places (Sznajder et al., 2008). According to Liszewski (1995), tourist space is functionally distinguished from the geographical space by different elements. Tourist space has greater attractiveness and higher concentration of tourist values (natural and anthropogenic) and tourist and paratourist facilities, thus making spatial units with tourist functions (Golembski, 1999). From the economic point of view, tourism “is built upon a basis of free resources, with (in most economies) a mixture of publicly and privately used scarce resources superimposed” (Bull, 1995, ).

According to Meyer (2008) ‘the formation of tourist space is not an independent phenomenon, but there must be specific motivations (...) and conditions (...) for its development’. However, Meyer (2008) notes that nowadays tourist space often becomes an impulse for the further development of economic space. On the other hand, development of rural recreational space in rural areas comprises ‘a complex of factors and values which are present in a particular rural, commune area and which favour the development of tourism’ (Drzewiecki, 1992). Rural tourism and agritourism develop in a space, which can be described as the rural tourism / agritourism space. In the broad sense rural tourism space refers to rural areas providing tourism services, its natural landscape and the landscape of the expanse that is the result of human activity (scenic values and cultural assets (OECD, 1994)). It includes the architecture, the farm landscape and the scenery formed by production activity (Sznajder et al., 2009; Tourism Strategies and Rural Development, 1994). There are several factors influencing development of rural tourism /agritourism space and rural tourism /agritourism activities. Thus, the development of rural tourism or agritourism contributes to the development and formation of tourist space in rural areas, which adopts different forms (exploration space, penetration space, assimilation space or colonisation space) (Wojciechowska, 2009). One can say that in a narrow sense the developing agritourism space concerns the farm offering agritourism services, but in its broad sense it is an area of agritourism activity, which comprises the architecture and scenery of the farm and the landscape formed by production activity (Sznajder, Przezbórska, 2006). Thus, on the one hand, rural tourism /agritourism space is a subspace of tourist space, but on the other hand, both
spaces are part of the geographical space where all kinds of man’s business activity develop, including agricultural activity, which is indispensable for the development of agritourism activities. In fact rural tourism/agritourism space can develop in all those places where no natural or anthropogenic ‘excluding factors’ or ‘limiting factors’ exist and in the theory of economics it is subject to the free location principle (Drzewiecki, 2009). However, “not all areas are suitable for rural tourism/agritourism development and not all communities wish to be developed or are suitable for development” (OECD, 1994; Douglas, Douglas and Derrett, 2001) and the quality of rural tourism/agritourism space and its usefulness for the development of rural tourism/agritourism is crucial and it is not obviously identical in every part of Poland, as was described by Drzewiecki in the 1990s (Drzewiecki, 1992). The main attribute of rural tourism and agritourism is “rurality”, that means in general “located in rural areas, functionally rural, built upon the rural world’s special features: small scale enterprise, open space, contact with natures and the natural world, heritage, «traditional» societies and «traditional» practices”, rural in scale, traditional in character, sustainable and “representing the complex pattern of rural environment, economy and history” (Lane, 1994; OECD, 1994).

On the basis of appropriately selected criteria the attractiveness of agritourism space can be determined and this can only be limited by the availability of particular statistical data. For example, Lane (1994) distinguished six groups of factors which define the value of agritourism space, i.e. the beauty of landscape, wildlife and wilderness areas, cultural material heritage, particularly favourable hunting, fishing, skiing and hiking conditions, good availability to a broad market of consumers and effective marketing activity. Drzewiecki (1992, 2009) assumed seven criteria of delimitation of agritourism space in the method of evaluation of tourist attractiveness which he developed, i.e. the share of forests in the total area, the share of waters in the total area, the share of meadows and pastures in the farmland area, the density of population per square kilometre, the share of people earning income from non-agricultural sources, the share of concentrated settlements in the rural settlement structure and the share of medium-size farms in the farmland area, but he found the first five criteria to be the most significant. As results from Drzewiecki’s (1992) study of communes in Poland, about 66% of the total area of the country meets the conditions for the development of agritourism/rural tourism to a different extent (in individual regions the space ranged from several to over 90%) (Drzewiecki, 2009).

Agritourism and Rural Tourism Development in Poland
Rural tourism and agritourism are not totally new in the world (OECD, 1994) and are not new in Poland and it has a tradition going back to the 19th century (Roberts and Hall, 2001, p. 151). However, “new” tourism activities in rural areas has accelerated in the nineties and it was a result of introducing market economy and restructuring agricultural sector. Since the early 1990s there has been more and more intensive development of rural tourism entities and agritourism farms in
Polish rural areas, especially in those which are attractive due to their natural and scenic values and rural tourism became a part of the country’s national policy to support rural families adjusting to changing resulting from economic restructuring (Roberts and Hall, 2001). According to the Central Statistical Office in 2011, ‘...the base of agritourism lodgings and guest rooms included 22.8 thousand entities with a total of 309.1 thousand sleeping accommodations, including 7.8 thousand agritourism lodgings (with 82.7 thousand beds) and 15.0 thousand guestrooms (with 226.4 thousand beds)’ (Tourism in 2011, 2012) – see Figure 1. Thus, agritourism and other rural tourism accommodation facilities offered about one third of all sleeping places in Poland. The information given by the Institute of Tourism and by the CSO proves that agritourism is developing at a relatively rapid tempo in Poland. According to the estimates made by the Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development, as early as 1993 there were about 1000 agritourism farms. By 2011 this number increased almost eight times (to 7,852 entities).

Majority of agritourism operators are located in Mazury (the Lake District in the north-eastern part of Poland), in the mountains in the southern part of Poland (Bieszczady Mountains, Tatras, Beskids, Swietokrzyski Mountains and Sudeten Mountains). Density of agritourism farms per 1000 square km is shown in Figure 2.

In the early 1990s the competitiveness of Polish agritourism was found chiefly to result from its difference from other forms of tourism and agritourism, which are developing in other European countries, from its scenic values, but also from the cultural richness of rural areas, preserved traditional forms of management and from lesser pollution of the natural environment than in the Western European countries (the National Tourist Product development strategy made as a part the TOURIN programme implemented in Poland, compare Baum (2011). However, further development and effective marketing of agritourism creates the need to determine and valorise
rural tourism / agritourism space and to identify the regions and subregions of the development of rural tourism / agritourism in Poland. Both forms of tourism, agritourism especially, are very specific in comparison with other types of tourism. Their development is largely based on natural, historical and cultural resources of a particular environment, on the engagement of different entities among the local community and on the integration of tourism with other aspects of the development of community and local economy (Lane, 1994, Gaworecki, 2003; Kiper and Özdemir, 2012), whereas agritourism chiefly depends on the relationship with a functioning farm and agricultural areas.

Figure 2. Density of agritourism farms per 1000 square km by regions (voivodships) of Poland in 2011

Similarly to other forms of tourism, agritourism became the subject of research and considerations concerning the regional and local development and the potential success of agritourism is subject to the mechanisms of both levels of development.

The problem of regions in the development of rural tourism, including agritourism, and the need to determine their attractiveness and to valorise tourist areas in view of both forms of tourism began to appear in the Polish literature in the late 1980s and early 1990s (Drzewiecki, 1985, 1992; Sikora 1995, 1999, 2012), although for a long time there had been quantitative assessments of tourist values, including rural areas (Golembski, 1999; Przeborska, 2010). In the 1990s Drzewiecki (1992) used the scoring method to evaluate the attractiveness of rural environment to the development of tourism (assessments of the rural recreational space value). As resulted from the analysis, rural tourism “does not have high requirements concerning location (in the theory of economics – free location) and it can develop in all areas” with appropriate tourist values. This means that about 2/3 of the total area of Poland inhabited by almost 8.7 million people, makes a good basis for the development of rural tourism and agritourism (Drzewiecki, 2009). Upon Drzewiecki’s (2009) study the regions of rural tourism began to be
distinguished in Poland, e.g. Sikora (1999) identified 7 regions of rural tourism: Pomerania, Masuria, Greater Poland, Central Poland, Eastern Poland, the Sudeten Mountains and the Carpathians.

On the other hand, the theory of recreational/tourist space originated and developed fairly noticeably in the last 30 years on the border of the theory of location, the theory of recreation/tourism and the complex land management theory (Drzewiecki, 1992). Liszewski (2009) made detailed considerations concerning the tourist regionalisation of Poland, including the tourist space and tourist region. Włodarczyk (2009) defined the terms and concepts of tourist space. Tourist space is “part of geographical space with tourist traffic. Tourist traffic is a sine qua non and a sufficient condition to classify part of geographical space as tourist space, no matter how heavy the traffic is and what its character is. An additional condition which enables delimitation of the traffic is the presence of tourist-related development, the size and character of which enable us to define the type of tourist space” (Włodarczyk, 2009). Different types of tourist space are distinguished in literature, e.g. according to Liszewski (1995), there are five types of tourist space in its development cycle: tourist exploration space (discoveries, quests), tourist penetration space, tourist assimilation space (assimilation, absorption), tourist colonisation space and tourist urbanisation space. Golembski (2002) places agritourism in tourist assimilation space, which ‘is chiefly composed of rural areas, where people can relax in specially adapted farmers’ houses and tourists staying in those areas come into direct contact with local people, using their services and participating in the rhythm of rural life’. However, agritourist farms also function in the other types of tourist space. In his studies Drzewiecki (1985, 1992, 2009) made references to the concept of the space where agritourism farms function. According to Drzewiecki (1992), rural recreational space can be understood as ‘a complex of factors and values in a particular rural area (...) which favour the development of tourism’. Rural recreational space is also a part of the geographical space where all kinds of man’s business activity develop, including agricultural activity, which is indispensable for the development of agritourism. In this sense in recent years the significance of this space has been increasing as an important element of the rural economic space in Poland, especially in view of significant changes concerning the importance of agriculture to the national economy, the multifunctionality of rural areas and the policy concerning territorial consistency.

**METHODOLOGY**

The aim of this article is to present the diversification of rural recreational space in Poland and to evaluate its attractiveness for rural tourism and agritourism on the basis of studies of regional and local conditions for the development of rural tourism and agritourism and on the basis of studies of agritourism regionalisation and evaluation of the attractiveness of agritourism space, which were conducted as part of two research projects carried out from 2009 to 2013.
Methods and Materials

Two groups of methods of collecting data were essentially used in the research, in addition to a thorough analysis of the already existing studies along with the literature study. The first method there was a questionnaire investigation conducted among the owners of rural tourism / agritourism operators in Poland and the second group there was the descriptive statistics methods, including e.g. cluster analysis. Primary data used in the analyses derived from questionnaire surveys (standardised interview) conducted in agritourism farms and other rural tourist facilities in all of the 16 voivodeships between 2008 and 2010. In total results from more than 800 agritourism farms and rural tourist facilities were obtained (i.e. about 9.0% of the total number), where the data from 798 questionnaires were used for the analyses (due to the completeness of information obtained). Upon the questionnaire survey the factors conditioning the development of agritourism and rural tourism in Poland were determined and they were later used for further analyses. Apart from the unmeasurable factors or the factors which are very difficult to measure (qualitative traits), such as: the skills and knowledge of the owners of agritourism farms and rural tourist lodgings concerning the management of an agritourism farm or rural tourist lodging, appropriate traits of personality of members of the families occupied with agritourism and rural tourism and local people’s hospitality, the most significant determinants of the development of rural tourism proved to be the natural and scenic values (especially the access to forests, protected areas and water reservoirs), anthropogenic values (monuments, museums) and socioeconomic traits (the population density in rural areas, registered unemployment rate in counties and the average usable area in a rural lodging per head). On the basis of substantive premises eight measurable diagnostic traits were combined together and they were used for the regionalisation and valorisation of rural areas in land counties in Poland, including:

- \( X_1 \) share of forests in total area of a county (%),
- \( X_2 \) share of lakes, ponds and rivers in total area of a county (%),
- \( X_3 \) share of protected areas in total area of a country (%),
- \( X_4 \) population density in rural areas (number of persons per square1 km),
- \( X_5 \) registered unemployment rate (%),
- \( X_6 \) average usable floor space in rural areas per 1 person (square m per person),
- \( X_7 \) number of monuments per 100 square km of a county (number of monuments per 100 square km),
- \( X_8 \) number of museums per 1000 square km (number of museums per 1000 square km).

Procedure

Cluster analysis (k-means clustering) was used to prepare tourist regionalisation. The method was supposed to identify such multi-trait units in a particular group, where each of them can be
treated as a point in the multidimensional space of traits, homogenous G groups, where 1<G<N, so that the units contained in each of them were geometrically more similar to each other rather than to the units belonging to other groups (Wysocki, 1996). It is a characteristic feature of non-hierarchical grouping methods, including (k-means clustering) that at the beginning it is necessary to specify the number of classes into which a particular group will be divided, because there is an assumption that the number of clusters is known a priori (Stanisz, 2007). When the k-means clustering method is applied, the population is divided into k groups in order to minimise the degree of intragroup variance (Grabiński, Wydymus, Zeliaś 1989).

The second step consisted in classification of the counties described with the traits defining the factors of the development of agritourism farms by means of the k-means clustering method. The next step was to determine the appropriate division of the group of counties into classes. Initially the population of 314 land counties was divided into several classes (4, 5, 6 and 7), however finally the division into 5 clusters was adopted for analysis (Table 1). The clusters consisted of 5 classes of counties with similar conditions for the development of the forms of tourism under investigation, which indicate the emergence of the regions of development of agritourism and rural tourism in Poland (including a clearly developed eastern region, two or three regions in the north of Poland, three mountain regions and the central region – Figure 3).

Table 1. Interclass diversity of factors conditioning the development of agritourism and rural tourism in the land counties of Poland (harmonic mean values for 5 classes)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol of the variable</th>
<th>Factors of agritourism / rural tourism development</th>
<th>Classes of the land counties</th>
<th>Poland</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>I</td>
<td>II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X₁</td>
<td>forests</td>
<td>26,15</td>
<td>41,60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X₂</td>
<td>lakes, ponds and rivers</td>
<td>1,65</td>
<td>1,61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X₃</td>
<td>protected areas</td>
<td>28,93</td>
<td>57,66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X₄</td>
<td>population density</td>
<td>150,11</td>
<td>51,91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X₅</td>
<td>unemployment</td>
<td>8,62</td>
<td>15,80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X₆</td>
<td>usable floor space</td>
<td>29,31</td>
<td>24,13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X₇</td>
<td>monuments</td>
<td>18,00</td>
<td>9,43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X₈</td>
<td>museums</td>
<td>5,36</td>
<td>1,49</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Own calculation based on data from Local Data Bank of the CSO of Poland and Register of Monuments in Poland by the National Institute of Heritage (in:) http://www.nid.pl/idm,580,zabytki-nieruchome.html (12.05.2011) and unpublished data of inland water reservoirs.
Figure 3. Five clusters (types) of counties with similar conditions for the development of agritourism and rural tourism. Additional black graphs on the figure show the number of agritourism farms per 100 square km.

Source: own elaboration based on statistical data from different Statistical Yearbooks of Poland, CSO, Warsaw.

The fourth step involved distinguishing the characteristic traits enabling the identification of the types determining the conditions of the development of agritourism farms by analysis of the values of the difference of means test in the population and in the classes.

The last step consisted in describing each typological class on the basis of the system of rates, i.e. the traits whose values were expressed by means of intensity rates (monuments, museums, population, lodgings) or structure rates (forest area percentage, lake area percentage, protected areas, unemployment), calculated with class harmonic means.

The typological classes were described upon the analysis of the values of the test of differences in the mean continuous traits. The test has the following formula (Lebart, Morineau and Piron, 1995; Wysocki, 1999):

\[
t_{qj} = \frac{\overline{X}_{qj} - \overline{X}_j}{s_{qj}} \quad \text{for } q = 1, 2, \ldots, k, \ j = 1, 2, \ldots, p
\]

The value of the difference of means test enables measurement of the distance between the mean for the qth class and the grand mean of the jth trait in the class mean error units, where

\[
s_{qj}^2 = \frac{N - n_q}{N - 1} \cdot \frac{s_j^2}{n_q}
\]

is the variance of the mean for the dependent sampling \( n_q \) of the qth class.
units, $s_j^2$ is the empirical variance of the jth trait and $\frac{N - n_q}{N - 1}$ is a so-called correction related with a finite population with the number N.

The distribution of class means is approximated by means of normal distribution. It is assumed that the value of the mean of a particular trait in a class does not differ from the grand mean in the interval ranging from -1.96 to 1.96 (where the significance level is 5%). Thus, the trait is regarded as characteristic if the absolute value of the test is greater than 2.

The types of conditions of the development of agritourism farms were identified by means of the mean values of the test for the traits under analysis:

$$\bar{t}_q = \frac{1}{p} \sum_{j=1}^{p} t_{qj} \text{ (for } q = 1, 2, \ldots, k \text{)},$$

where $\bar{t}_q$ - shows the type of conditions of the development of agritourism farms in the qth class.

Each class (cluster) that was distinguished corresponds to a certain type of counties. The type was identified on the basis of main traits, i.e. the characteristics which can be distinguished by comparing the values of class means with appropriate means in the population or upon the analysis of the values of differences of the means in the classes and in the population (Wysocki, 1996).

**Results and discussion**

The identification of 5 types of counties (Figure 3) with similar conditions for the development for agritourism and rural tourism under analysis points to the emergence of regions of the development of rural tourism and agritourism in Poland (including a clearly developed eastern region, two or three regions in the north of Poland, three mountain regions and the central region). However it is visible that tourism in rural areas outside of the main tourist destinations is marginal and it can be called rather a niche market (Baum, 2011). The most of rural tourism enterprises and agritourism farms are concentrated in the Carpathian and Sudeten Mountains, along the Baltic coast and in Mazury (the Lake District of northern Poland. In order to determine the degree of development of the tourist function in land counties their tourist attractiveness was also evaluated by means of appropriate rates of the development of tourist traffic (including the number of beds per 1000 heads - Baretje and Defert’s index, the number of beds given per 1000 heads and the number of overnight guests per 1000 heads – Schneider’s index).

The urban type of 25 land counties (type 1 – Figure 4) is characterised by the location around large urban agglomerations (Silesian, Warsaw and Poznan), high population density resulting from the location and lower registered unemployment rates. This group is also characterised by higher intensity of anthropogenic values and lower share of scenic and natural values (forest area percentage, lake area percentage, protected areas percentage). This type of counties has high density of agritourism farms per area unit. On average, in this group there are 6.5 farms and as
many as 77.6 beds in agritourism lodgings per 100 km². Douglas, Douglas & Derrett (2001, p. 171) noticed that “rural areas that has been successful in developing tourism are most often those close to large urban centres (and hence potential domestic markets) and international arrival points (...) The potential of tourism development in less accessible areas (often lacking attractions that have strong drawing power) has yet to be fully determined”.

Figure 4. Land counties of Poland grouped in the class I (type 1). Additional black graphs on the figure show the number of agritourism farms per 100 square km
Source: own elaboration based on the results of calculations

Type 2 – the natural type of 75 land counties stretches in a strip in north-western Poland from Lubuskie Voivodeship, through the northern part of Greater Poland Voivodeship and further from Kuyavian-Pomeranian Voivodeship to Pomeranian Voivodeship (Figure 5).

Figure 5. Land counties of Poland grouped in the class II (type 2). Additional black graphs on the figure show the number of agritourism farms per 100 square km
Source: own elaboration based on the results of calculations
In the south this type stretches in the Carpathians and Carpathian Foothills up to the Swietokrzyskie Mountains. The counties in this group have a high percentage of forests and a high share of protected areas in the total area. By contrast, they have a very low percentage of lakes and low rates of the density of anthropogenic values (few monuments and museums per area unit). The area of type 2 can be considered as suitable for different kind of sustainable tourism development (Bramwell and Lane 1993; Sharpley, 2001; Kiper and Özdemir, 2012). However Kiper and Özdemir (2012) noticed that “in order to provide sustainability in the tourism development it is necessary to know environmental, social and economic effects of rural tourism activities and to consider these effects during the planning”.

Type 3 - the anthropogenic type includes 39 counties, chiefly from Lower Silesian, Greater Poland and Opole Voivodeships (and individual counties scattered all over Poland) – see Figure 6. The most characteristic feature of this cluster is high density of anthropogenic values per area unit (monuments and museums), but there are worse scenic and natural conditions (low percentage of forests, lakes and protected areas). Apart from that, there are relatively high registered unemployment rates in those counties. There is a relatively high number of agritourism farms in this group of counties. On average there were 3.2 farms and 33.7 beds per 100 km².

Type 4 - the lake type of land counties is characterised by location in lake districts and the highest percentage of lakes (the mean percentage of lake areas is 3.51%) – Figure 7. Similarly Lukić (2013) observed in Croatia that most of households with agricultural production, tourism accommodation and other leisure activities were located in the littoral counties. However, there are relatively few anthropogenic values per area unit in those counties. This type of 53 counties stretches in a strip in the northern part of Poland, from West Pomeranian Voivodeship, through Kuyavian-Pomeranian Voivodeship to Warmian-Masurian Voivodeship. The counties are sparsely populated in rural areas.
and there is high unemployment. The average density of agritourism farms in that area is 2.5 farms per 100 km$^2$, which corresponds to 24.7 beds in agritourism farms per 100 km$^2$. The cluster may be attractive for both the “traditional” tourists in rural areas, looking for walking, picnicking, fishing and landscape viewing, landscape photography and the “contemporary” tourists looking for survival games, rafting and hang gliding (Butler, 1998; Butler et al., 1998, Hall et al., 2003).

Figure 7. Land counties of Poland grouped in the class IV (type 4). Additional black graphs on the figure show the number of agritourism farms per 100 square km
Source: own elaboration based on the results of calculations

Type 5 – the land counties defined as poorly characteristic, include as many as 122 units, which are chiefly located in central and eastern Poland. The counties stretch from the eastern part of Lower Silesian Voivodeship, through the southern and eastern part of Greater Poland, Łódź Voivodeship, a considerable part of Masovian Voivodeship, up to Lublin and Podlaskie Voivodeships – see Figure 8.

Figure 8. Land counties of Poland grouped in the class V (type 5). Additional black graphs on the figure show the number of agritourism farms per 100 square km
Source: own elaboration based on the results of calculations

This group of counties is characterised by a relatively low share of areas with natural and scenic values (low percentage of forests, lakes and protected areas) and low density of anthropogenic
values. Of all the five types of counties identified these counties are distinguished by the highest average usable area of lodgings per head in rural areas. There is relatively the lowest number of agritourism farms functioning in this group of counties (on average, only 1.4 farms and 12.6 beds in agritourism farms per 100 km²). It seems that the counties from this cluster, depending on rural inhabitants’ activity and inventiveness as well as good promotion may develop into touristic areas in the future. However the conditions of rural tourism and agritourism development are worse than the other four clusters.

The tourist attractiveness of all the five types of land counties identified was also evaluated by means of three indexes of the development of tourist traffic (the number of beds per 1000 heads - Baretje and Defert’s index $W_{BD}$, the number of beds given per 1000 heads and the number of overnight guests per 1000 heads – Schneider’s index $W_S$). Table 2 shows the results of these calculations.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>The number of beds per 1000 heads ($W_{BD}$)</th>
<th>The number of beds given per 1000 heads</th>
<th>The number of overnight guests per 1000 heads ($W_S$)</th>
<th>Number of agritourism farms per 100 square km</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>33.8</td>
<td>2984.9</td>
<td>953.3</td>
<td>6.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II</td>
<td>21.5</td>
<td>1573.6</td>
<td>490.0</td>
<td>4.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III</td>
<td>36.2</td>
<td>2854.6</td>
<td>703.1</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV</td>
<td>29.9</td>
<td>1980.7</td>
<td>474.3</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>1074.6</td>
<td>322.6</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Own calculation based on the data from the Local Data Bank of the CSO of Poland

The highest rates of the development of tourist traffic can be observed in the land counties clustered in type 1 (the urban type) and type 3 (the anthropogenic type). The tourist function was definitely the most poorly developed in the counties clustered in type 5 (poorly characteristic). According to literature, (e.g. Lijewski, Mikulowski and Wyrzykowski, 2002), the tourist function begins to develop when the value of Baretje and Defert’s index exceeds 1000 beds per 1000 inhabitants. When the index value ranges between 1000 and 5000, the tourist functions in the area are usually well developed and these values of the index are characteristic of the places (areas) of long-stay tourism. According to the CSO of Poland, the rates of the number of beds per 1000 inhabitants are very diversified in individual counties, but only in three land counties in Poland they are greater than 300 beds per 1000 heads. For example, the highest rates can be found in Gryfice county (590.0), Kamień County (409.4) and Kolobrzeg County (318.2), which belong to type 5.

It is also important to underline that the development of tourism in rural areas is proved not only by an increase in the supply of tourist services, but above all, by the increasing tourist traffic.
Estimates show that about a quarter of the total number of tourists in Poland spend their holidays in rural areas, especially in the countryside of traditional tourist regions: at the seaside, in the mountains and in lake districts (Durydiwka, 2005). In Europe estimates suggest that tourism in rural areas may make up 10-25% of all forms of tourism activity (EuroBarometer, 1998). However Lane (1994) and Hall et al. (2003) underlined that there are not systematic statistical sources for rural tourism and the absence of them can be seen as an analytical constraint.

As results from reference publications, the distribution of tourist traffic in rural areas is also characterised by its concentration in traditional tourist regions: at the seaside, in the mountains and in lake districts (Durydiwka, 2005). Rural areas in Poland are characterised not only by diversified tourist development but above all, by diversified values, which may enable the development of diverse activities of rural tourism, including agritourism (Przezbór ska, 2011).

CONCLUSIONS

Rural tourism and agritourism are not totally new in Poland, however “the new” tourism activities in rural areas has accelerated in the nineties and it was one of the results of restructuring agricultural sector and rural economy. According to the data of the CSO of Poland there are about 8 thousand agritourism lodgings (with 82.7 thousand beds) and the number of agritourism farms increased almost eight times during the last two decades. Nevertheless they constitute only above 0.5% of farms above 1 hectare and 0.38% of all farms in Poland. On the other side both agritourism and other rural tourism accommodation facilities offered about one third of all sleeping places in Poland. Bednarek-Szczepańska (2011) notices that agritourism may be called “a phenomenon of marginal significance for the betterment of farmers’ economic situation and the diversification of farming activity in Poland.” The most of agritourism facilities developed in the Małopolska and the Subcarpathian voivodeships, in some parts of the Mazurian Lake District and in the Pomeranian Lake District. However one must remember that on one hand tourism and leisure activities in rural areas have changed during the last forty - fifty years (from relatively passive, nostalgia-related “traditional” recreational practices, closely related to the intrinsic environmental setting to “more active, competitive, prestige- or fashion-related, perhaps technological, modern, individual and fast”) (Hall et al. 2003) and on the other hand “the future tourist potential of rural areas is limited and often overestimated” (Baum, 2011).

Both agritourism and rural tourism develop in a space, which can be described as the rural tourism / agritourism space. In the broad sense rural tourism space refers to rural areas providing tourism services, its natural landscape and the landscape of the expanse that is the result of human activity. It includes the architecture, the farm landscape and the scenery formed by production activity (Sznajder et al., 2009). There are several factors influencing development of rural tourism / agritourism space and rural tourism / agritourism activities, including: the natural and scenic values (e.g. access to forests, protected areas and water reservoirs), anthropogenic values (monuments, museums) and socioeconomic traits (the population density
in rural areas, registered unemployment rate in counties and the average usable area in a rural lodging per head). However Hall et al. (2003) noticed that the specific location context of rural tourism and agritourism “may be far less important and in some cases almost irrelevant as the activities of rural tourism / agritourism are not focused on intrinsic rural qualities”.

Rural areas of Poland are characterised not only by diversified tourist development but above all, by diversified values, which enable the development of diverse rural tourism activities, including agritourism activities. One must remember that the quality of agritourism space and its usefulness for the development of rural tourism /agritourism is not identical in every part of Poland. The survey allowed to distinguish 5 types (clusters) of counties in Poland with similar conditions for the development of the forms of tourism, including: the urban type, the natural type, the anthropogenic type, the lake type and the land counties defined as “poorly characteristic”. One can easily notice a clearly developed eastern region, two or three regions in the north of Poland, three mountain regions and the central region. The tourist attractiveness of all the five types of land counties identified in the study was also evaluated by means of three indexes of the development of tourist traffic and two clusters, i.e. the urban type and the anthropogenic type, seem to be more attractive for tourists than the other three clusters, however their “rurality” is less obvious than the others. One can ask at the end: is “rurality” important for tourists visiting rural areas and spending holidays in rural areas?

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DOCUMENTS


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CHAPTER 1.5.

THE WEDDING IN HEIDELBERG, GERMANY, FROM A HISTORICAL REENACTMENT TO A CULTURAL TOURIST ATTRACTION?

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Abstract: The city of Heidelberg, in Germany, had celebrated on the 9th-11th August 2013 the Wedding of the Prince Elector Friedrich V of the Palatinate with the English princess Elisabeth Stuart. This was an event that intended to celebrate the 400th Anniversary of this marriage that took place on February 14th 1613, and was planned in order to involve the community, highlight the cultural heritage sites of the city, but also to be able to attract cultural tourists. The need for differentiation and the struggle for the affirmation of the territories, led them to bet on major events and temmatization as strategies to achieve visibility, but also to attract cultural tourists. The institutional authorities in Heidelberg have also followed this strategy in what concerns the mentioned event. With this article it is intended to understand what were the results of this event regarding the impact it had in the community, as well as the results concerning its capacity to attract visitors. Through literature review and semi-structured interviews, we expect to trace the design of the event, understand the pretended results, and to hear the opinion of different stakeholder, such as institutional authorities and neighborhood associations, among others, from the city and form the state of Baden-Wuerttemberg. The evaluation of the event’s scope should be done as a Press review of the impact in local and national newspapers. As a preliminary result, we concluded that the massification and indifferenciation of the tourist products available, as in this case and in this particular territory, announce the bankruptcy of this tourism model and that the opportunity to integrate and create identification through the different communities in Heidelberg was worthless, due to a lack of communication and cooperation between the different structures.

Keywords: Heidelberg; Historical Reenactment; Events; Cultural Tourism; Results

INTRODUCTION
The affirmation of the territories before their competitors is today a frequent strategy. Attracting more visitors, more media attention makes this strategy to use many different ways to achieve recognition.

The events design, as well as the thematization, has been a strategy used recurrently by territories and cities in this mission for affirmation. Although it is agreed that the organization of events contributes to the improvement of community pride and image of the place, these benefits are limited due to prevailing competition between places for hosting the events (Richards and Wilson, 2006). It should also be noted that this competition for events leads to the creation of the particular events in the areas that are not covered with the major world events and, as such, to a multiplication of existing events, losing the desired distinctiveness and increasing the competition.

Another affirmation effort of the places was through thematization, in other words, the development of a cultural theme. What happens here, in a critical point of view, is a tendency to reduce the cultural background of the theme to a weak parody of it, as stated by Hanningan and Muñoz (Richards and Wilson, 2006). Furthermore, thematization raises issues on social justice and the political dominant ideologies, issues that stem from choices made at every moment.

The organization of events, of great events or the thematization with cultural background, has been fiercely criticized, because it represents the passivity with which the promotion strategies in different locations are repeated, as far as this repetition is based on the apparent reliability of copying ideas. The reproduction and implementation of strategies for (re)creation of places have the opposite desired effect (Richards and Wilson, 2006) because the new places lead to a greater competition, in which the volume of offers exceeds the demand, transforming the tourist places in sterile and culturally inflexible places. But we have to take into consideration that cities need to find new ways of distinguishing themselves from their competitors, as stated by Richards and Wilson (2004), and cultural events are among one of these strategies.

With the organization of cultural events we will be before a path where the differentiation is not possible as far as the field of passive consumption does not match the current demand and that its continuation will lead us to a museumification of modern life, as entitled by Hewinson (Richards and Wilson, 2006), or above all for the homogenization of tourist spaces as mentioned by Edensor and Judd (as cited in Richards and Wilson 2006). The term festivalization (Getz, 2008) is also recurrently used to describe how cities or destinations exploit cultural events in this strategy of differentiation.

As mentioned by Getz (2008) destinations are developing, facilitating and promoting all kinds of events to meet multiple goals, on one hand to attract tourists, to serve as a catalyst, but also to foster a positive destination image and contribute to general place marketing, and finally to animate specific attractions or areas. The same opinion have Raj and Vignali (2010) when they consider that the hosting of events is often developed because of the tourism and economic opportunities in addition to social and cultural benefits.
The discussion around the creation of historical-patrimonial activities will always be the same, as far as they are closely related to the territorial constructions in which they are located (Landel, Mao, and Vidal, 2007), or whether the importation of activities will bring the success claimed by the responsible institutions for the promotion of tourism and heritage of the territories.

It is necessary to take into account that forms of diversification of the tourist supply and a fidelization policy should respect the cultural assets and are needed to attract to the historical center new market segments while keeping in touch with the repeat customers (Russo, 2002, p. 179). That only through the anchor given by the territorial context in question and by the local culture is possible to develop activities or thematizations that will allow an effective assertion of the territories. Apparently, the successful cities, according to Gonçalves (2008), get ahead in its affirmation by identifying and strengthening their differentiation factors in relation to other places.

**RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

This article is the result of part of the research conducted on the city of Heidelberg (Germany) within the project "Cultural Heritage Policies, Interventions and Representations in university cities: the case of Heidelberg and Coimbra."

For the theoretical framework, it was made a literature review and analysis of primary documental sources on the subject related to "the events" and its organization as a social, cultural phenomenon and recurrent tourist-recreation. Furthermore, it was made an analysis of the impact of the event through the studies of different media and how they reported the event.

Apart from this documental analysis, semi-structured interviews were carried out with different stakeholder groups of Heidelberg. The different stakeholders were defined into four major groups: the leaders of the fourteen city neighborhood associations; nine political leaders of party fractions represented in the Municipal Assembly of Heidelberg; a third group consisting of seven interviewees, related to cultural heritage public administration and related to local and state definition of cultural and cultural heritage public policies, and a fourth group constituted of five stakeholders, such as the University of Heidelberg, the local leaders of religious denominations, the leader of the City Guides Association, and also the representative of the German Foundation for Cultural Heritage Defense. To this universe it has been applied a semi-structured interview, which was focused on its position, the design of the German local and state cultural and heritage policies, as well as on tourism, cultural and heritage promotion strategies in the city. For reasons of economy of space and relevance of responses to the theme of this article, the respondents, who were considered centerpieces in organizing the event, were selected for analysis, such as Mike De Vries, managing director of Heidelberg Marketing GmbH, or individuals responsible for the the spaces in which the event took place, such as Andreas Faltz, director of the Saatliche Schlösser und Gärten Baden-Württemberg and governmental responsible for the Heidelberg Castle. These contributions are counterbalanced by the representative’s respondents.
of the Neighborhood Associations, as representatives of the resident population in the city, such as Thomas Morr and Stefan Hauck of the Stadtteilverein Bergheim and Stadtteilverein West Heidelberg, respectively. Through the answers given by them, we intend to understand their experiences, reactions, beliefs and ideas about their roles and responsibilities as organizers but also as participants in this event.

The objectives of this article are to trace the design of the event, through literature review and semi-structured interviews, but also to understand the pretended results, and to hear the opinion of different stakeholders, such as institutional authorities and neighborhood associations, among others, from the city and form the state of Baden-Wuerttemberg.

Figure 1. Localization of Heidelberg
Source: Created by Diogo Azevedo

TERRITORIAL, HISTORICAL AND INSTITUTIONAL CONTEXT

Heidelberg is a city in Germany (see Fig. 1) sited on the Neckar river valley, in northwest
Baden-Württemberg. It is the fifth largest city in the state of Baden-Württemberg which is administratively an urban district, or "Stadtkreis", in other words, it constitutes itself as an administrative district "Kreis". It depends on the "Regierungsbezirk" of Karlsruhe.

The historical importance of Heidelberg is due, essentially, to the fact that it was the city residence of the Electorate of the Palatinate, but also because it has the Ruperto Carola University, the oldest of the current German area, founded in 1386.

The development of the city is owed to the need for affirmation and consolidation of the Count Palatine of the Rhine, that need was felt by the half-brother of Frederick I Barbarossa, Konrad from 1156. The first source regarding the city appears only in 1196. This source indicates Konrad as a witness, citing him as plebanus von Heidelberch (Cser, 2007).

In the development of the city one can state that despite the wishes of political statement carried by dynastic territorial interests being central, the city gets from mid-13th century a growing economic importance. This happens due to its location and the growing importance of trade in general and wine trade in particular, which made the city prosper (Cser, 2007).

The sedentarization of power, with the disappearance of the itinerant courts, along with the increasing use of the city in the various festivities and royal ceremonies (Cser, 2007), caused the city to acquire the status of city residence of the Court of the Palatinate. The city's status continues to rise, because it has been the capital of the Holy Roman Empire, with Ruprecht I, between 1400 and 1410.

The 17th century, with the Thirty Years War and the Succession War, is marked by the destruction of the city, and the urban landscape, nowadays internationally recognized, with the exception of a dozen buildings in the Old Town such as the Haus zum Ritter, the St. Peter's Church, the Zeughaus, the Providence Church, among others, is the result of the Baroque reconstruction performed at the beginning of the 18th century (Cser, 2007).

After a small historical overview of the city, it is important to historically contextualize the event that was intended to recreate in the city of Heidelberg. Elizabeth Stuart was the second child and eldest daughter of James VI and I King of Scots, England and Ireland. The choice of her husband fell, not least for political reasons, on the Protestant Elector, Frederick V. This marriage was settled in May 1612, against the express wishes of her mother, who did reject this connection as not befitting (Heidelberg Marketing GmbH, 2013a). The wedding between the Prince Elector Frederick V and Elizabeth Stuart was celebrated on February 14th 1613, on Valentine’s Day, in the Royal Chapel at Whitehall Palace in London, having the Archbishop of Canterbury personally performed the ceremony (Cser, 2007; Heidelberg Marketing GmbH, 2013a; Jardine, 2013).

The famous poet John Donne, among others, present at the Wedding Ceremony wrote an epithalamium called Epithalamion On the Lady Elizabeth and Count Palatine, who, in addition of being itself a record of the event, gives us an idea of its importance at the time. Here is a brief
passage: “(...) Come forth, come forth, and as one glorious flame / Meeting another grows the same, / So meet thy Frederick, and so / To an inseparable union go, (…)” (Chambers, 1896).

The importance of this marriage is also stated by a masque written by Francis Beaumont to celebrate the marriage of Elizabeth Stuart and the Elector Palatine, named "The Masque of the Inner Temple and Gray's Inn" and presented to celebrate the marriage of the Thames and the Rhine in London.

On June 17th 1613, the couple arrives to Heidelberg under a salute of the 67 cannons of the city and the great joy of the local population. The festivities lasted two weeks, and in honor of Elizabeth Stuart there was also the first fireworks in the city, something that had never been seen (Heidelberg Marketing GmbH, 2013a). Also note that Frederick V, on the occasion of this marriage added a wing to the castle, called "Englisches Bau" (Cser, 2007), as well as a new private garden, in which he built the entrance portal dedicated to Elizabeth and that we can still visit today.

Six years later, in late 1619, Frederick and Elizabeth were crowned King and Queen of Bohemia (Cser, 2007; Heidelberg Marketing GmbH, 2013a) at the invitation of the Bohemian Confederacy, to prevent a Catholic incumbent ascending the throne. This was the beginning of the Thirty Years' War, where Frederick is going to be driven from his court in Prague, with his defeat at the Battle of White Mountain on November 8th 1620, and deprived of all his Palatinate lands a year after the coronation by the Habsburg Emperor Ferdinand. Frederick rest for the history as the so called "Winter King" because his reign has lasted a single winter.

After this small historical contextualization, it is important to know the context of the institutional organization of the event. Regarding the institutional context, the City Hall of Heidelberg delegates the tourist promotion of the city and its heritage attractions to the Heidelberg Marketing GmbH. The Heidelberg Marketing GmbH is an affiliated company of the city of Heidelberg that plans, coordinates and implements measures in the context of urban marketing in Heidelberg, which include the activities for the promotion of tourism, conferences, of the Congress Hall Stadthalle and the Tourist Information Service. This institution was responsible for the generic name given to the event - "The Wedding" which took place mainly in the Historical Center of Heidelberg, on the banks of the Neckar River, on the Congress Hall Stadthalle, at the Prinz Carl Palace and the Heidelberg Castle.

It is relevant that all spaces mention, except the Heidelberg Castle, are promoted by the Heidelberg Marketing GmbH, and that the management and promotion of this cultural heritage asset is the responsibility of the Saatliche Schlösser und Gärten Baden-Württemberg which is an incorporated public-law institution (ÄOR) under the Finance Ministry of Baden-Württemberg.

The Event “The Wedding”

Let us now turn to the analysis of what the event was. It took place between August 9th and 11th 2013, with official opening at 3 pm. Daily, there were several activities organized between
11 am and 23 pm, as shown in the event program.

Given the impossibility to analyze all the activities planned, we decided, for this occasion, to analyze the activities characterized as “Highlights” by the organization of the event. Using Getz (2008) typology this is an event that could be classified as a ‘community festival’ because it contains a large variety in its program and as we will see it aims to foster a civic pride and cohesion.

Table 1. The Wedding Daily Program Highlights

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Daily-Program Highlights 9th – 11th August 2013</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Friday, August 9th</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.00 – 20.00 Rowing Regatta</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.00 – 20.00 Musical „The Wedding“ Congress Hall Stadthalle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.00 – 23.00 Glowing boat parade on the River Neckar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.00 – 23.00 Light Show and Illumination</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>„Historische Highlights“/„Heidelberger Dreiklang“</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From 23.30 After-Wedding-Party (halle02)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Saturday, August 10th</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.00 – 18.00 Arrival of the newlyweds</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and triumphal procession through the city</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.00 – 20.00 Musical „The Wedding“ Congress Hall Stadthalle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.00 – 22.30 Heidelberg Hearts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.30 – 23.00 Historical Fireworks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From 23.30 After-Wedding-Party (halle02)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sunday, August 11th</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.00 – 16.00 Procession in Honor of the Newlyweds</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.00 – 20.00 Musical „The Wedding“ Congress Hall Stadthalle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.30 – 23.00 „From Frederick to Elizabeth with Love“ - Castle Fireworks</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Heidelberg Marketing GmbH

As we can see in the program (Tab. 1) the set of activities highlighted by the organization are heterogeneous, going from a Regatta on the River to a staging musical specially planned for the event. Note that the production of the musical ‘The Wedding’ was the responsibility of a company from the neighboring city of Mannheim called Capitol Betriebs GmbH with the co-composition of Martin Griffith. Featured in the program we can also find the spectacles of light and fire firework, involving the Neckar River, the Historical Center and the Heidelberg Castle. Such activities, although not unique since the city organizes annually an average of three events
per year, allow the integration of a large part of the whole cultural and patrimonial landscape of the city in a single activity.

Remember that the so called “Schlossbeleuchtungen” were already organized in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, when prominent visitors came to the city, and they intend to symbolize the destruction of the castle of Heidelberg caused by the French in the Nine Years’ War, which took place between 1688 and 1697, also known as the War of the Grand Alliance.

It is also important to add that in parallel with the program there were other activities such as a historical market, contemporary music and medieval music concerts, special programs for children with antique toys or theater presentations.

From the set of activities listed, the ones that actually took place, and that could be considered as novelties, were the musical "The Wedding" and the different parades that were intended to be a historical recreation of the original moment, and all the rest, though not offered as a whole as in this event, were organized regularly in the city.

So, on this event, in particular regarding the different parades organized, are we before a historical recreation, or a living history? A living history where the participants see themselves as actually living history, this is living through historical events which they are re-enacting (Coles and Armstrong, 2008).

This activity may well be an activity in which past events are presented as if they were contemporaries of the visitors and participants, thus making history to come to life.

As stated by Cook (2005), although the historical reenactment not precisely reproduce the psychological conditions of history, the challenge to practice it and participate in it, give a small idea of how things might have been different in the past, by the alienation of our socialization. On the effects of historical reconstruction, Coles and Armstrong (2008) say that living history can overcome the subjectivity gap that lies between us and the past because it allows people to experience and see what others have experienced in the past.

It is agreed that this kind of events and specially the activities which are intended to be an historical recreation, are characterized in some levels as theater, a dramatic staging in search of history (Cook, 2005). We can even say, as mentioned by Ana Carlos (Cavaco, 1996), that we are in the presence of a space transformed into a scenario for the show to an amorphous crowd, by creating a series of activities that lead to passivity.

The Parades held to celebrate the marriage between the County Palatine and the British Royal House, and presented to the people of Heidelberg and to the visitors of the city, are nothing more than the development of a scenario with tourist purposes, basically, in that they aimed to increase the awareness/recognition of the city. The intentions of the project are given by Mike De Vries (De Vries, 2013) when he states that this is a “marketing and communication project very clear, which aims to increase and strengthen again the recognition of the brand [of the city] based on a classic and authentic story”. He adds that the cultural heritage of the city was used in this initiative to celebrate the anniversary once more and give it a contemporary interpretation,
not closing the door to other historical events that will be used in this marketing strategy, which we might classify as cultural-touristic.

It is agreed that in the organization of this kind of activity the involvement of the population and the different stakeholders in the territory is required. It is important to be able to conduct an efficient promotion strategy of the products available, that in this strategy are involved the social and political actors, among others, and also that the preferences of tourists are not overlooked (Ribeiro, Remoaldo and Mota, 2011). Also important to take into account is, that normally the event organizing agencies are primarily marketing oriented (Getz, 2008), and that there is a strong support for events development, particularly from hoteliers wanting to fill rooms in off-peak tourist seasons, but there is also the need to drive the attention to the different event stakeholder by creating management, partnerships and collaboration strategies.

It is also unanimous the necessity that a territory has, when it bets on tourism potential to make a strong investment in the diversification of products offered, in preserving the originality of the territory's offering and renewing the profile of this same offer (Ribeiro, Remoaldo and Mota, 2011). Based on these two premises, it will be appropriate to examine what the different stakeholders and population of the city think, regarding the event. Concerning to the involvement of the different entities and population, and although Mike De Vries (De Vries, 2013) argue that this is an integrative project, he also stresses that many institutions are not used to be involved in projects of this nature.

Regarding the cooperation, as with retailers, Mike De Vries, in an interview (Riemer, 2013) states that many of them took a very reserved stance, calling for a boycott on the Internet and by keeping their terraces on the walkway during the parade, an attitude that damages the image of Heidelberg. A consequence of the event planning can cause, as mentioned by Getz (2008), in more extreme cases, the displacement of residents but also from other tourists, derived from the sensation of a crowded place, at the hotel industry level, but also because the general perception is the one of a crowded or high expensive place.

Thomas Morr (Bergheim and Morr, 2013) also points out that the only call made to the Neighborhood Association from the Bergheim district of the city, was in order to ask its members to use old costumes and flags in order to integrate the different parades that take place. It seems that the organization of this event shares the idea, as considered by Getz (2008), that events are too important, satisfying numerous strategic goals, and have often too many risks, to be left to amateurs. Thomas Morr adds that cooperation with the city, or with the Heidelberg Marketing, is occasional, but limited to some smaller events. All cooperation is narrowed to activities, anniversaries, special events. On the ability to attract visitors, the opinions are consensual. Stefan Hauck (2013) from the Association of Neighborhood Weststadt district, aiming the event states that he walked to the historical center “to take a look at this strange Wedding. For me, it was a flop”, adding, “a big flop not having more people coming”. It is important to be aware that dissatisfaction among local residents is likely to have an impact upon the event’s sustainability.
and long term future (Raj and Vignali, 2010). In this regard, Thomas Morr believes that this event will not produce long-term effects, but nevertheless he managed to attract some people to Heidelberg.

Regarding the organization of the event, Andreas Faltz (2013), manager of the Saatliche Schlösser und GärtenBaden-Württemberg, responsible for the Castle of Heidelberg, has a very critical opinion as far as he considers that the process of organization only helped the different institutional managers to meet and verify in loco the number of actors with responsibilities that exist in the city. This is in line with what Getz (2008) considers, namely that event tourism policy tends to be top-down, mainly because it is seen as legitimate economic development, but also because so much bidding on events is considered opportunistic, and that only an inner circle of mostly government agencies is typically consulted. Despite being a large circle, it is also clear that the stakeholders representing the community were not mobilized to this organizational process.

As pointed by Michael Rochlitz (Rochlitz, 2013) the entire population was only mobilized to come to the historical center, although he considers that the event is "historically a bit shallow." He highlights, however, the existence of activities for all types of groups, such as "children, theater lovers, concert fans, music lovers, those who love fireworks, etc." Rochlitz (2013) even adds a consideration on the need for the city to spend money on this celebration and on a historic 400 year old wedding, referring that the "modest budget" was helpful, and I quote, "for the benefit of people who obviously love celebrations", in addition to the benefits that it brought to the hotels and restaurants in the city, he admits that the "Heidelberg brand" can benefit with this event, necessary as even “internationally known cities such as Heidelberg have to maintain their reputation”.

At the end of the event, by way of consideration, Mike De Vries, in the interview already mentioned (Riemer, 2013), gives us an account that the event budget stood near 300 000 Euros, sum that came from the Heidelberg Marketing budget. He adds that more important than the effects on the Hotels and Restaurants in city, because of the flow of visitors, is the fact that such events increase the awareness and attractiveness of Heidelberg. He highlights the frenzy of the media about the event and believes that, with some adjustments, this celebration will have a lasting effect. This raises the question whether we are dealing in this case with a situation of an over-emphasis on bidding on one-time mega events, as a common issue identified by Getz (2008) in the management of events.

Mike De Vries (Riemer, 2013) adds that the positioning of Heidelberg Marketing will continue to be in order to be absolutely creative in producing new events, as far as it considers that tourists are spoiled, and that to the tourist attractions should be added a dynamic entertainment, framed within the city and within the existing population.

Confronting Mike De Vries statements, it is necessary to take into account that the city of Heidelberg had already about 3 million visitors, in 2011 (Wimmer 2011), and of these visitors around 1 million already visit the ruins of the castle (Staatliche Schlösser und Gärten Baden-
Württemberg, 2013), so the impact of the event in terms of attracting visitors, 150,000 estimated by the organization during the period of three days, seem to be manifestly unreasonable because it does not make the distinction between the local population and actual visitors, and this number would represent 5% of the total annual visitors to the city.

In terms of impact on the media, from the analysis based on publications in local and national newspapers, we found that the repercussions were essentially local and regional, with news mainly in the Rhein-Neckar-Zeitung, the Mannheimer Morgen and in Bergsträsser Anzeiger. In terms of national impact of the event, we have to highlight a news from the news agency Deutsche Presse-Agentur GmbH, which was replicated with snippets in Weekly Focus Magazine. Also note that this national media presence, as we can see by the content of news (Charisius, 2013 July 30, Cornelius, 2013, August 10) gives more prominence to the presence of Eva Habermann and Nicolai Tegeler, two known actors in the German cultural space, that personified the royal couple, than to the event itself.

Regarding the TV presence, the focus was just given by the SWR Fernsehen that is a regional television channel targeting the states of Baden-Württemberg and Rhineland-Palatinate, with the broadcast of the news, in the Landesschau in Baden-Württemberg, on the musical "The Wedding - in Heidelberg", staged at the event.

It was, therefore, very scarce the media attention that the event had, and it should be noted that even though he had the high patronage of Her Majesty Queen Elizabeth II of England, and the apparent media frenzy, the returns were surely not the expected.

Picture 1. Commercial Presence – The Wedding Copyright 2013 Vítor Ferreira
Source: Vítor Ferreira 2013
How can we then characterize this event? Take for example some pictures of the event and the way it took place. If, on one hand, the event was intended as a celebration of a historical episode, by an alleged historical reenactment of the arrival parade of the Prince Elector and English Princess to the city, on the other hand, we can verify (see Picture 1) that this event was clearly marked by a commercial component, in this case the promotion of a car brand that was associated with the event, being the promoters dressed with époque costumes.

Different researchers, as Raj and Vignali (2010), have already stated that this aspect is a revolution in festivals, and that we increasingly see the stimulation through commercial aspects to meet the changing demand of local community groups and increasing business opportunities for the event organizers, but also for the local businesses.

Regarding the visual aspect, the different markets and fairs organized in several public squares (See Picture 2 and 3), hardly brings us to the seventh century, and the visitors more quickly would think like being in a Christmas market held in the summer than in a supposed historical reenactment. The designed environment, despite the époque costumes used by hired actors (See Picture 4 and 5), and a small entourage of followers, would never be a faithful reconstruction of the real event.
Therefore, we understand the characterization of "historically shallow event" (Rochlitz, 2013) cited above, or the expressed need to review the event, and what the actual impact of it in the city (Faust-Exarchos, 2013) associated with the confirmation that there are, unfortunately, no clear goals on the marketing developed by the city.
It should be noted that Michael Rochlitz and Gabriele Faust-Exarchos integrate the Municipal Assembly of Heidelberg, the first by the SPD - Sozialdemokratische Partei Deutschlands and the second by the Grün-Alternative Liste Heidelberg e.V, and therefore both stakeholders interested in the development of the event.

More, we can see that the Parade to host the royal couple is clearly small, hardly comparable to the original parade, given that here one can understand the lack of participation of the several guilds, such as neighborhood associations, in contributing with figurants and props to participate in the event. It should be noted that although the event is a bet of the Heidelberg Marketing to promote the city and its recognition as a touristic product, the commitment to build a parade, slightly representative of the original and that could be considered as a historical reconstruction, was not the main concern. Richards and Wilson (2006) reported that the points in which cultural tourism bets, such as great events, thematization, iconic works and mining of heritage, among others, because of the cost implied, by the absence in the territory of cultural and patrimonial assets, because of the competition between places, have not achieved the desired results. In this case, and despite the organizer's side balance is clearly positive as we can see, conflicting opinions are also verified.

It’s important to take into account, as mentioned by Russo (2002) that the replacement of products, or in this case the replacement of quality events by standard events, may have adverse effects and transform the touristic space through a process of "Mc Donaldization". Insofar, not only is the capacity of the products to match the demand of a certain market segment compromised, but the whole aesthetic quality of the landscape and the system of cultural values embodied in the city is at stake (Russo, 2002).
In contrast with what was expressed, we can quote Collins (2004) who says in the Interaction Ritual Theory that stereotyped formulas can generate a socially successful rituals, if the participants also experience a shared emotion, and if they go on to heighten their sense of mutual participation by becoming strongly aware of each other’s consciousness. According to Collins (2004) the mutual consciousness is only complete, that is, the event is a success, only when the different elements, including the ritual ingredients (group assembly; barrier to outsiders; mutual focus of attention; shared mood) are successfully combined and enable a mutually focused and emotionally shared attention in which the individual ends up experiencing the four results of this ritual interaction, namely: feeling of membership; an emotional energy in taking action; symbols representing the group (visual icons; emblems); and the sense of rightness in adhering to the group, respecting its symbols and defending them.

This emotional energy that the individual seeks in the ritual, adds Collins (2004), also facilitates further interaction rituals, in part because persons with high emotional energy have the enthusiasm to set off a new emotional stimulus and pump up other people.

However, as we can verify, the organization of this event could not, on one hand, create the essential conditions for the development of this emotional energy, as far as there was an alienation of the local population, that is, a sense of belonging was missing, and the definition of the event itself was not characterized by the desire to strengthen the internal identity ties of the group, as far as a mutual focus of attention or shared mood was not wanted, at the level of the potential and divers entities involved in the wider social network. Only a high level of collective effervescence is reached when the different participants are called for the organizational group core, allowing the development of a great emotional energy, a moral solidarity, and the symbolic attachment to the event.

This event can be recognized as a clear example, of what Lipovestky Gilles (2010) remarks, when it considers that in contemporary society we are facing a new organization of leisure, where the constant overcoming of needs created by the sphere of the offer that individuals feel, causes the universe of contemporary leisure goes by the privatization of pleasures, by the individualization and commercialization of leisure time. We are, based on this event, before an activity organized in order to serve cultural tourism, a historical reenactment, or simply before an event entertaining oriented with an indefinite conception, which goes through the local population to excursionists.

In this regard, Andreas Faltz states that about Heidelberg and the event "The Wedding" he just heard that it was a great event, but it might just be considered a, “so called, kind of cultural event” (Schlösser, Württemberg and Faltz, 2013). He adds that it is important to present the story from another perspective to people who do not know or remember it, or did not heard about it since school. He adds that what he saw was a "«mini-The Wedding», with two famous actors". This statement gives us an idea of the perception that visitors and inhabitants of Heidelberg, in general, had regarding the event and its distinctly regional character.
CONCLUSION

The forms of occupation of time have changed and with them the leisure time and how cultural products are consumed. Although, as stated by Rui Gomes (2009), the forms of occupation of leisure time differ according to the cultural and educational capital available, but also according to the socialization logic dominant, we are, in the case of this event, before an organization that could easily be exported and adapted to other cultural contexts with proper historical contextualization.

Although this event is constituted by a variety of activities, without any programmatic coherence, and which cannot be characterized as cultural offerings, its nuclear issue, constituted by the arrival of the royal couple to the town, was the distinctive historical factor to explore. We do not consider that it has been clearly explored and it seems that neither has been a concern, on the one hand, to organize the event in the actual date of the anniversary in which the arrival in Heidelberg occurred, that is June 13th 1613. On the other hand, it didn’t have the dignity that the same reception had historically. We cannot find here the common concern with historical reenactments to ensure that the past deceptively looks like concrete and present time, as in Cook’s opinion (2005).

It is also necessary to take into account that the city of Heidelberg embroils itself in a myth created by the Romantics (Heidelberg 2003; Cser, 2007) and uses the export image of its cultural landscape, constituted by the Castle, Old Town and Old Bridge, and that all the communication and promotion lines are grounded in these three patrimonial assets. If we consider that the image of a place is usually very important in attracting visitors (Richards and Wilson, 2004), and Heidelberg, as we have seen, has achieved it, it also has to have in mind that cultural events in particular (Richards and Wilson, 2004) have emerged as a means of improving the image of cities, adding life to city streets and giving citizens renewed pride in their home city.

This event, as an attempt to attract more visitors, but also as stated as a mean to increase the visibility of the Heidelberg brand, does not seem to have achieved its purposes. Its design, without any formal coherence between activities, on one side, and the repetition of well-known activities by the visitors of Heidelberg, on the other, are basically responsible for the failure of the event.

As observed, this event was primarily driven by the goal of economic benefits, but as Getz (2008) argues we need also to examine outcomes and impacts at the personal and social levels, or in terms of cultural and environmental change. Therefore, we consider that the event was important at the economic level, but we believe that the social and cultural level were overlooked. Only by having this in mind we can understand the opinions expressed, and that, as said by (Getz, 2008), the perceived negative impacts had been more cited and that they generate a more refined examination and criticism by the interviewed. On the other hand the massification and
non-differentiation of the tourist products available, as in this case and in this particular territory, announce the bankruptcy of this cultural tourism model, as we have seen. The opportunity to integrate and create identification through the different communities in Heidelberg was lost, on one side, due to the lack of communication and cooperation between the different structures as we have seen through the Personal Communication’s presented, on the other, because the media coverage of the event on the press was essentially local, at most regional.

Without a clear strategy in the development of the event, and even being characterized as contrary to the one defended by Heidelberg Marketing manager when he claims that a successful communication of resources from the city to the outside, also means an integrated communication of the city to the inside, we can conclude that Heidelberg had missed an opportunity to uphold an event that could bring actual dividends in terms of tourism.

The recurring intersectional development and differentiation strategy that is visible in the efforts made by the several urban spaces, whether small, medium or large, through strategies such as the retrieval and dissemination of their heritage, events promotion, and also with the creation of facilities and cultural events, was not used by Heidelberg Marketing GmbH, or by the city government, as mentioned by Mateus (2010).

The positioning of the stakeholders and the touristic promotional policies of the city seem to be centered, as stated by Richards (1996) in the assumption that tourists are interested in a generalized cultural or heritage product. A supposedly cultural offer, or perhaps primarily recreational, which by its scope in terms of target-public, goes against everything advocated by the creation of cultural touristic products.

The opportunity to develop a status of “place of memory” (Rock and Monastirsky 2008) through the intangible heritage was lost by the city of Heidelberg, a place that is the result of the historical construction of a society, what could be an anchor capable of giving continuity to the past in the middle of the chaos of the present.

As a final conclusion, note that this initiative could be set on the promotion of the city’s strategy as a great place for young couples to celebrate their wedding (Heidelberg Marketing GmbH, 2013b; Heidelberg Marketing GmbH, 2012), a strategy that the city now, definitely, follows, but also as a way to promote a detailed understanding of the good but also the bad moments of history that this marriage alliance, brought to the city and to Europe. So if we consider “The Wedding” as an event that was seeking to transform fixed cultural capital into competitive advantage through the staging of cultural events or the construction of cultural landmarks, as Richards and Wilson (2004) advocate, we could characterize it as a failure.

REFERENCES


CHAPTER 16.

TOURISM AS AN ELEMENT OF REGIONAL ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT: MIDDLE EAST AS AN EXAMPLE

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Abstract: The work is an attempt to show the role of tourism in economic development in practical terms. It discusses the importance of tourism in regional development. It attends the relationship of tourism with various phenomena and areas of economy. Based on statistical data characterized in detail the role of tourism in economic development in the Middle East. The aim of the work is to demonstrate and evaluate the role of tourism in economic development and presentation by using descriptive statistics of major trends in the tourism sector at the macroeconomic range.

The basic method of the research was Polish and foreign literature, regarding the special role of tourism in regional development. The paper presents theoretical aspects concerning the role of tourism in economic development. Statistical method was used to describe the presentation of the acquired data. The analyzed data show that the Middle East region has significant tourism potential, which in turn has an impact on regional development. In comparison to other regions in the world, the Middle East has a smallest capital investment, but the percentage growth of these capitals increases in analyzed years.

Keywords: Tourism, economic development, regional development

INTRODUCTION

Tourism is a complex sector has a socio-economic dimension. The social nature of tourism manifests itself when we talk about the integration of interpersonal, cultural exchange, exploring new ideas, thoughts, personality, and new experiences. Tourism causes changes inter alia in the attitudes of tolerance towards other nationalities, religions, beliefs, changes in the demographic structure, or contributes to the learning of foreign languages. Other side, the economic dimension of tourism allows us to recognize it as one of the most important branches of the world economy which is currently characterized by high dynamics of development. It is an important employment sector and significantly affect regional development of different parts of the world.

The first years after II World War was a period of reconstruction of countries devastated during the war. But, since the fifties of the twentieth century is evident revival of tourist traffic, which
grew at a very fast pace (Kurek, Fraciak, Mika, Palusiński, Pitrus, Ptaszycka-Jackowska, 2008). An important reason for the increased meaning of tourism after the war was the development of the economies of many countries and regions of the world, particularly in the U.S., Western Europe and some Asian countries. Other factors of tourism development were even developing means of transport, an increase in wealth of the society, and thus more free time. Regional development caused by tourism is particularly evident when the region has advantages and tourist attractions as well developed tourist infrastructure. Tourism can bring many benefits to regions at the level of socio-cultural and politico-economic.

**METHODOLOGY**

The primary source material used in the chosen research work. Benefited from secondary sources such as reports, statistics - World Travel Organisation, the World Travel and Tourism Council. Valuable information was obtained from the work sites and websites. The main methods used in the study was descriptive and comparative method. The work is enriched by the presentation of statistical data in terms of tabular and using charts.

**Regional development and its determinants**

Regional development is a sustainable increase of the economic potential of regions, a systematic and sustained improvement of their competitiveness and standard of living, which contributes to the socio-economic development of the country (Chądzyński, Nowakowska, Przygodzki, 2012). This development is perceived primarily through the prism of potential changes in the economic structure of the economy, the natural environment, infrastructure, spatial order, standard of living of the inhabitants (Kudłacz, 1999).

Regional development is largely a process of economic character, which involves the transformation of factors and regional resources (internal and external) in goods and services. Its main feature is the development of the regions, which increase the production of goods and services as a result of a quantitative increase of the production factors and improve the effectiveness of their use. Quantitative changes in production should be accompanied by qualitative and structural changes (Szewczuk, Kogut-Jaworska, Zioło, 2011). Increase the quantity and improve the quality of produced goods and services determine the basis of changes in the way, level and quality of inhabitants life in the regions. Economic growth thus affects social development, which is the second aspect of the economic development regions. It includes changes in interpersonal relations and social structure. Indirectly, the processes of change in the communities, their intensity and dynamics characterize the changes in the level and structure of consumption and the availability of facilities or institutions providing services to meet social needs. (Kosiedowski, 2001). Possibilities for the development of the region are based on internal capabilities and potentials. Each region should base its development on the sum of potentials:
human, innovative, ecological, infrastructural, financial and institutional. High importance for the development of the residents are high qualifications and modern infrastructure. A special place in regional development deal today, such intangible assets as knowledge and research, new qualifications and skills, leadership skills and local initiatives (Klasik, 1996).

Regional development, as the process is not spontaneous, but been created and implemented also by many different factors. Some of these factors are universal, while others may occur sporadically and actively interact only in certain situations, places and time periods. Important factors may include (Szewczuk, Kogut-Jaworska, Zioło, 2011) needs of local communities, which are divided into different categories. In addition to the common needs that every human being has – no matter where is his permanent residence, and what cultural values of civilization and considers recognize as a reasonable. There are still some needs, which are highly individualized. This include the needs, which are derived from, among others, considered worldview, cultural level, wealth, geographical characteristics area of residence, personal interests and expectations.

Another factor of regional development are resources and values of the natural environment. They include items such as land resources, mineral resources, terrain, surface and underground water, climatic conditions, favorable soil conditions, the fauna and ecosystems. Next factor, which is the main causative force in the process of regional and local resources are labour resources. Commonly one of the most important factors of regional development are structural investments. Potential investors point out particular attention to this factor, seeking favorable position to take a specific economic activity. This approach stems from the desire to minimize the cost of planned investment. In the phase of generating assess of suitability of a specific area for investment, basic categories of equipment and technical infrastructure, spatial network infrastructure, network availability and technical reserves its performance and technical parameters, and the ability to connect to the network are be evaluated.

Another factor is the development of regional economic potential. The role of a given factor may be subordinated to such a potential, which creates a high level of development in many areas of economic and social life. Better opportunities for development have regions, cities and municipalities combined, rather than specialized centers of economic monoculture. Only advantageously developed and diversified economic structure creates a friendly atmosphere for local and regional development, where there are favorable conditions for making business, potential investors and cooperation with other entities. It should take into account the other components and features of the economic structure, which play a strategic role in regional development factor. These are:

- socio-economic structure, which consists of: economic development agencies, chambers of commerce and industry, the development of societies, organizations of the education system and further training;
• financial structure: represented by banks, savings and loan, investment companies, foundations development, insurance company, etc.;

• political structure: determined by various centers and institutions of government and political activity;

• educational structure: that is, different types of schools and educational institutions.

Another important factor in the regional development is local or external market. Only active market can be considered as a factor in development, because it creates the conditions for satisfying social needs, and in addition grows the needs.

The seventh factor of regional development is investment capital and financial resources. In practice, there are three categories of investment capital. Firstly, the capital of local investors (residents). The next is the share of local government units, and finally capital of external investors.

The next factor is the level of development of science, technology and culture. Science, technology and culture, regarded as a strategic factor of development, have a beneficial impact opportunities primarily in academic centers. On the new economic areas are created the zone (technological parks) modern technology and research. Other factors of regional development may also include: technologies and innovation, the benefits of space and international cooperation. New technology is a highly positive result of the cooperation between science and economy. All the innovation, both technical and technological are subjected to dissemination in the process of technology transfer and diffusion of innovation.

Tourism in economic development

The development of inbound tourism is considered to be the most beneficial form of improving the structure and balance of payments, an increase of foreign trade and activation of underdeveloped regions (Naumowicz, 1986, Galecki, Golembski, 1980). Inbound tourism allows to use the resources of the region reception, which does not consume neither industry nor agriculture, and therefore it allows for example the use of nature. It has a specific meaning in countries with have limited resources of minerals. Hence the development of inbound tourism infrastructure is involved and uses a significant part of the national wealth, including natural touristic attractions of the region. Comparative costs are important, which are particularly advantageous in the case of goods and tourist services in developing countries. Activation of inbound tourism provides a fast-paced net profit in a given currency. In the literature, there is the view contend that incoming tourism average time for obtaining foreign currency units is shorter than a traditional exports. Through inbound tourism market, there are present goods and services that can not be sold in the traditional export. The condition of the export is the tourist attractiveness of the country. Greater profitability of exports of tourism refers to tourism services, which are difficult to locate in foreign markets compared to traditional exports (Giezgała, 1977).
According to the UNWTO tourism plays a role in the creation of world GDP, global services exports, creating jobs, especially for young people and women. Tourism also plays an important role in supporting the development and fight against poverty. Recent trends show that travels in the direction of underdeveloped countries is growing faster than in developed countries. Tourism is one of the main economy sectors of developing countries and is the primary source of income in foreign currencies (WTO, 2014).

The World Tourism Organization reported that international tourist arrivals (overnight visitors) worldwide for the first time in 2012 reached 1.035 million tourists crossing borders. WTO reports that tourism accounts 9% of global GDP in the world, about 6% of world exports, and every eleventh place of work is precisely in this sector. While, according to recent studies international tourist traffic in 2012 increased by 4% compared with the previous year. The increase occurred in all regions except the Middle East, due to the ongoing conflict in the region.

In conclusion, tourism does not seem seriously threatened because of the instability of the global economy. Expected for the years 2010-2030 by the experts UNWTO average annual increase of 3.3% will be maintained, possibly even with a surplus (Edition 2013).

In 2012, Europe achieved the highest revenues from international tourism amounted to 457.8 billion USD. In the second position, the level of 323.9 billion came in Asia and the Pacific, and the Americas in the third of the amount of 212.6 billion USD. Middle East in the same year received 47 billion USD while the African continent 33.6 billion USD (Fig. 1.)

![Figure 1. International inbound tourism and tourism receipts in 2012](image)

Source: Own work based on World Tourism Organization, www.unwto.org (20-01-2014) According to the World Travel & Tourism Council in the years 2008 - 2013 the total consumption of tourism has increased rapidly. In the analyzed period only in 2011, there has been a decline in tourist activity, which was dictated by political changes. WTTC estimates of tourism consumption growth of 4.9% in 2013 and by 4.6% annually for the next ten other years (Fig. 2).
Tourism and invisible exports

Different types of travel needs are met by foreign tourists in the visited country. They acquire goods and services for which they pay in local currency, but obtained by hard currency. These expenses are treated in their country of residence, like an internal export. Unfortunately, they are difficult to estimate min. due to the huge dispersion in time and space (Naumowicz, 1986).

Factors influencing the volume of revenue from tourism invisible exports are inflows of foreign tourists and the duration of stay of foreigners in the country. The third factor influencing the rate revenue are expenditures of tourists that bind buying goods and services in the host country tourism (Naumowicz, 1986). Due to the heterogeneity of tourism, measuring the share of tourism is not easy, because in the creation and implementation of tourism products are involved entities belonging to several sectors of the national economy. It is therefore necessary to determine the contribution of each of the branches of the national economy in the use of tourism as components of direct tourism economy, and they include: transport, communication, trade in goods, culture, health and physical education. Indirectly, the use of tourists come from such branches as agriculture, forestry, and constructions (Naumowicz, 1986; Kornak, Montygierd-Łoyba, 1985; Denek, Golembski, Liszewski, Łopaciński, Nowakowska, Raciborski, Zdebiski, 2009).

The impact of tourism on gross domestic product in the Middle East

The main component of the Gross Domestic Product is the sum of gross value added of all institutional sectors or all sectors of the national economy. GDP measurement carried out on the basis of conventional national accounts, is possible only when we are dealing with a relatively homogeneous industries. Tourist activity is associated with different sectors of the national
economy, it is difficult to extract from the account national, elements closely related to touristic economy. Therefore, the system of national accounts do not meet all the needs related to statistical and economic analysis in relation to the tourism economy. Therefore, developing a complementary bill system which is called satellite account. The main purpose of tourism satellite account is to isolate the contribution of tourism in the economy of the country. Satellite Account will allow comparison of tourism as an economic activity with others of its kind (Łazarek, 2004).

WTTC data show a continuous increase in the share of tourism in the creation of Gross Domestic Product in the Middle East from 2008 to 2010 by 12.5%, with a slight decrease in 2011, then in 2012 reestablish increases by 1% compared to the previous year and amounts of 76.6 billion (3.0% of the GDP). According to estimates of the World Travel and Tourism Council for 2023, the direct contribution of tourism to GDP will grow by 4.8% per year and will reach 128.1 billion in 2023 (Fig. 3).

![Figure 3. Direct contribution of tourism to GDP in the Middle East in the years 2008 - 2023 (in billions)](source)

Expenditure on leisure travel in 2012 (foreign inbound and inside Middle East) generated 74% of tourism GDP (104.6 billion USD) and are expected to rise about 109.1 billion or about 4.3% in 2013. And spending on business travel accounted for 26% (35.7 billion USD) and are expected to rise to 37.8 billion about 5.8% in 2013 (Fig. 4).

![Figure 4. The share of spending in business and leisure tourism](source)
Expenditure of tourists in the Middle East accounted for 44% tourism GDP in 2012. According to WTTC estimates of these expenses to increase by 7.1% in 2013. In contrast, travel expenses foreigners generate 56% of tourism GDP and is expected to increase by 3.1% in 2013 (Fig. 5).

Tourism employment in the Middle East

Analysing the issue of tourism, and therefore in terms of global travel, it is worth mentioning that this is a significant labor market, not only, and perhaps most importantly for the local population. In 2012, this sector of the economy contributed to the direct employment total of over 1,670,000 employers in the Middle East (Fig. 6). This represented 2.6% of all jobs in the region. Employees can be primarily found in the hotel industry, travel agencies, airlines and other services associated, even food services (restaurants) or associated with recreation and relaxation. It is estimated that the number of jobs in 2013 will increase by 2.5%, which will amount to 1,712 thousand employees. WTTC forecasts that in the next decade the number of jobs related to tourism and travel will increase to 2,399 thousand people, or about 3.4% per year. In contrast, whereas the whole tourism industry co-founded the 7.7% of GDP with a total value of 194.9 billion and generate 4,411 thousand jobs (Fig. 7).

In subsequent years to 2023 is forecasted to average growth of around 4.8% per year, to nearly 8.5% of GDP and 324.5 billion USD. It is important that the new jobs will come, their number would be about 6.330 thousand employees, or 7.2% of total employment.
Figure 6. Direct employment in the tourism and travel in the Middle East in the years 2008 - 2023 (in millions)

2013* estimate, 2023** forecast

Figure 7. The total number of people working in the tourism and travel in the Middle East in the years 2008 - 2023 (million people)

Source: Own work based on World Travel and Tourism Council, www.wttc.org, (21-01-2014)
2013* estimate, 2023** forecast

Equity investments in tourism in the Middle East

According to the WTTC growth outlays of capital investment in tourism in the Middle East has been slow. Only in 2011 there was a decrease of 0.3% volume. From the 2012 those outlays grew back by 1.3% and amounted to 41.1 billion USD. Estimated to increase these expenditures by 8.5% in 2013 and by 4.8% per year to 71.5 billion USD in 2023.
Figure 8. Capital investment outlays in tourism in the years 2008 - 2023 in the Middle East (in billion USD).
Source: Own works based on World Travel and Tourism Council, www.wttc.org (21-01-2014)
2013* estimate, 2023** forecast

According to the WTTC level of capital investment outlays in tourism in the years 2008 - 2013 was varied regionally. Due to the variable economic conditions, as well as the financial crisis in the second half of the first decade of the twenty-first century, only in the Middle East, there was an increase in tourism outlays compared to 2010, while there was a slight decline in 2011 by about 0.3%. However, in 2011, we observe an increase in these expenditures only in the European Union by 1.7% and in Latin America by 5.3%. In 2012, the European Union apart from other regions may tend growth (tab. 1).

Table 1. Fixed capital investment in tourism in the years 2008 - 2013 (in %)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>2008</th>
<th>2009</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2011</th>
<th>2012</th>
<th>2013*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Northern America</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>-13.4</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>-2.4</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>European Union</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>-8.5</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>-3.0</td>
<td>0.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latin America</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>-10.7</td>
<td>-0.7</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>7.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle East</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>-0.3</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>8.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Africa</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>-7.7</td>
<td>-6.5</td>
<td>-1.7</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Own work based on World Travel and Tourism Council, www.wttc.org, day 21-01-2014, 2013* estimate

DISCUSSION AND RESULTS

At the beginning, the analysis of the basic theory on the relationship between tourism and selected macroeconomic variables been done. In the following part, statistical analysis with regarding trends in this sector been performed.

There is no doubt that tourism is now one of the most important and fastest growing areas in the economies of many countries of the world. For over 60 years tourism is growing, despite the many changes taking place in the political and economic, as well as crises, disasters, diseases and conflict. Huge revenue and thousands of jobs metered derived from this department economy
has convinced many regions to quickly make a decision favorable to the development of tourism in their own territory.

With the growing tourism, many countries have invested a tremendous amount of the development of transport (air, inland waterways and inland), catering business, hospitality, travel agencies, sports and recreation. Tourist traffic has caused the creation of thousands of additional jobs in restaurants, bars, hotels and collective accommodation, transport and other activities related to tourism. It activated the industry include food products and clothing, refined petroleum products and others. In addition to the economic benefits of tourism positively effect on environment. This prompts local authorities and residents of the area to care about environment and the promotion of ecotourism and sustainable tourism. It brings a positive cultural change, promotes cultural assimilation, exchange value, maintaining and enlivening culture community. In 2012, 52 million people traveled to the Middle East, spending over 47 billion USD. Tourism in 2012, played an important role in the formation of Gross Domestic Product in the Middle East, which has increased in this year by 3% and amounted to 76.6 billion USD). This sector of the economy contributed to the direct employment total of over 1,670,000 employees in the region.

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CHAPTER 1.7.

MUNICIPAL SOLID WASTE MANAGEMENT
IN MOUNTAIN TOURISM REGIONS IN SERBIA

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Abstract: Serbia has a low potential in environmental management. The problem in mountain tourism regions is even more pronounced since mountain settlements are often left out of environmental management system. This paper will present the results in the adaptation of the European methodology for calculating the amount of municipal solid waste to local conditions and also define a system of waste collection, transport and processing for mountain resorts in Serbia. Paper also formulates the guidelines for better implementation of the waste management program for tourist resorts and presents improved methodology for site selection using multi-criteria analysis and GIS instruments.

Keywords: waste management, tourist settlements in Serbia, new methodology, program implementation

INTRODUCTION

The problem of environmental disturbance on the territory of the Republic of Serbia is a result of an inadequate management of all of its parameters (quality of air, water, soil; waste flow control) which is evident at all levels of environmental management, from national to micro-location levels. Although laws on environmental protection, which are fully harmonized with the European legislation, have been passed in the Republic of Serbia over the past five years, the problem appears in their (non)observance and (non)implementation (Nenkovic-Riznic and Pucar, 2010).

In addition, there are no clearly defined strategic guidelines for environmental issues at local level of management, although these issues are regulated at the national level by a number of strategies, e.g. National Sustainable Development Strategy (Official Gazette of the Republic of Serbia, No. 57/08), National Strategy on the Inclusion of the Republic of Serbia into Clean Development Mechanism of the Kyoto Protocol for the Waste Management Sectors, Agriculture and Forestry (Official Gazette of the Republic of Serbia, No. 8/10), Strategy for Introducing Cleaner Production in the Republic of Serbia (Official Gazette of the Republic of Serbia, No. 17/09), Decision on Establishing National Program of Environmental Protection (Official Gazette of the Republic of Serbia, No. 12/10), National Waste Management Strategy for the period 2010-
Furthermore, an important obstacle lies also in the fact that monitoring of environmental parameters is carried out for an extremely small number of localities in Serbia (mostly in places designated as ecological „hot spots”), which is insufficient for environmental control and management.

There are numerous polluters in Serbia, from industrial facilities without an adequate environmental control of their operations, through regions with a mass raw materials exploitation, to unsecured and non-sanitary municipal solid and industrial waste landfills, as well as mine dumps. All mentioned polluters have not only simplified local effects, but can also have long-term cumulative and synergistic effects on areas at greater distances.

One of the most significant environmental problems in the Republic of Serbia lies in an inadequate and environmentally unacceptable disposal of all types of waste, not only in urban and rural environments, but also in tourist settlements. The problem is even greater if we take into consideration the fact that tourism is one of the Serbian prime industries.

Waste management is a process implying a complete waste control, from its generation, storage, collection, transfer and transport, processing and disposal as the final stage in the system (Tchobanoglous, Theisen and Vigil, 1993). The process must be supported by legislation and institutional organization, but also by spatial planning as an unavoidable instrument and initiator of the process. Waste management should be defined in the context of sustainable development which principles are precisely based on an efficient environmental protection. Inadequate waste management is one of the most complex issues related to the protection of basic environmental factors (Pucar, Nenković-Riznić and Josimović, 2009). However, Serbia is characterized by an unregulated treatment of all types of waste and its uncontrolled and unorganized disposal which, besides disturbing the characteristics of space, necessarily leads to the pollution of groundwater and surface water, soil and air, but also threatens human health. In this regard, waste management is an important process in the context of environmental protection and a special form of public interest (Tchobanoglous, Theisen and Vigil, 1993; Garret, 2005).

In strategic documents for environmental protection, waste management has been recognized as one of the most topical and most significant issues in the Republic of Serbia, given that secondary products of waste disposal have direct devastating effects on the quality of almost all environmental parameters.

In tourist settlements in Serbia which, due to their specific function, require a high level of environmental quality, this problem is even more pronounced, given that tourist settlements are not rarely completely left out of municipal solid waste cycle, as well as that the fluctuation of tourists, thereby also the amount of generated municipal solid waste, is extremely great (Nenkovic-Riznic and Pucar, 2010).
Therefore, it is necessary to define efficient mechanisms for removal of municipal solid waste from the territories of these settlements for the purpose of improving not only environmental quality, but also the quality of tourism offer (Medina, 1997).

In order to set adequate strategic guidelines for municipal solid waste management in tourist settlements in Serbia, it is necessary to determine the legislative basis, taking into account major conceptual commitments given in national strategies, but also analyze each landfill site location separately (or groups of locations with similar characteristics) in order to determine specific methods for municipal solid waste removal. Certain analyses necessarily take into consideration „characteristics of place‖, specific types of municipal solid waste, behavioral characteristics of population and tourists, as well as the existing infrastructure, distance from the landfill, but also the prevailing tourism offer. All the abovementioned methods of solving the problems in waste disposal should be aligned with foreign (European) experiences and follow good practice examples of the EU member countries in this field.

**Legislative Basis for Waste Management in Europe and Serbia Overview**

The EU member states have established a series of legislative frameworks providing a legal ground for municipal solid waste management. This paper gives an overview of basic legal frameworks, as well as a series of principles for waste disposal and processing which are binding upon EU member states. EU Directives set forth guidelines and principles for waste management without a clear elaboration of individual cases (in terms of interdependence between a type of settlement and the amount of solid waste generated in them).

The overall legal framework can be classified into the following two categories:

1. The European Union legal framework for the treatment of waste;
2. The European Union legislation on waste management operations;

Through strictly defined laws, rules, directives and ordinances in this field, the EU member states have managed to achieve a goal set by Agenda 21 dating back from 1992, which is to maximally reduce the amount of waste going to landfills in all settlements, independent of their size and function. According to current results of studies carried out in EU member states, many of them (e.g. Austria and Germany) have managed to reduce the amount of waste even by 70% (this percentage of waste is also reused or recycled).

On the other hand, the process of defining the mechanism for waste management in the Republic of Serbia is still in its infancy. The harmonization of the National Waste Management Strategy with a program of approaching the European Union (adopted in 2003 by the Ministry of Science and Environmental Protection – Environmental Protection Administration), the Law on Waste Management (Official Gazette of the Republic of Serbia, No. 36/09), Law on Packaging and Packaging Waste Management (Official Gazette of the Republic of Serbia, No. 36/09) and
revised Waste Management Strategy for the period 2010-2019 (Official Gazette of the Republic of Serbia, No. 29/10) are the first steps towards its institutionalization.

The main objective of the abovementioned documents is to redirect competences in the field of waste management to the regional level and significantly reduce the flow of waste to landfills through processing and recycling processes and reduction of a total amount of waste. In addition, strategic guidelines set forth in these documents suggest the strengthening of the existing and development of new measures for the establishment of an integrated solid waste management system in all settlements, integration of environmental policies with other sectoral policies, acceptance of greater individual responsibility for the environment, as well as more active participation of the public in the decision making process (Waste Management Strategy, 2009).

**Municipal Solid Waste Management in Serbia Overview**

According to the data of the Serbian Environmental Protection Agency under the supervision of the Ministry of Environment and Spatial Planning, as well as data of the National Database on Landfills in the Republic of Serbia and Waste Management Strategy for the period 2010-2019, 164 municipal solid waste landfills were registered. Although the number of landfills is extremely great, many landfills do not meet international standards for sanitary landfills. The number of municipal solid waste landfills exceeds real needs by all criteria considering the population size in the Republic of Serbia (about 7.5 million according to 2012 Census excluding the territory of Kosovo and Metohija). In addition to officially registered landfills, there are also a great number of illegal dump sites (non-sanitary landfills), which are outside municipal jurisdictions.

The current situation in municipal administrations in the Republic of Serbia regarding amounts and classification of municipal solid waste is expressed by data which can be considered incomplete and unreliable due to the lack of central statistical register for which such data would be collected. Precisely due to this fact, it is practically impossible to determine the amount of municipal solid waste for individual settlements in Serbia, except on the basis of individual measurements of solid waste in municipalities, because of which an approximate amount of municipal solid waste is taken at the level of urban settlements (1 kg per person per day) and at the level of rural settlements (0.7 kg per person per day). The approximate average in Serbia is about 0.87 kg of municipal solid waste generated per person per day (318 kg/year) (Waste Management Strategy, 2009).

According to investigations carried out in EU member countries (McDougall, White, Franke and Hindle 2001; Brunner, 1986), the amount of solid waste generated in tourist settlements is somewhat smaller that the average amount of solid waste generated in urban settlements, so the
amount taken into consideration in this paper is about 0.9kg (exceptionally up to 1.1 kg) per person per day.

Almost all municipal solid waste (about 60% of the total waste flow) is disposed of without any pre-treatment at municipal, urban or rural landfill sites, as well as at illegal dumps (in rural settlements, tourist settlements, settlements with poor infrastructure.) (Nenkovic-Riznic, 2011).

Investigations in municipal solid waste management show a certain degree of non-uniformity considering: economic status of certain municipalities; organization of public utility companies of municipalities; access of settlements to infrastructure belonging to municipalities; level of private capital participation in processes of municipal solid waste removal. Thus, strategic guidelines at the national level are most frequently directly related to the implementation of regional waste management systems, with clearly defined system of waste processing and collection in regional centers, for all users of space.

In case of tourist settlements, such system of organization could significantly contribute to the fulfillment of sanitary requirements in waste management, as well as to the improvement of service levels, thereby also to the improvement a specific tourism offer. Namely, in tourist settlements in Serbia, the quality of tourist offer is very often compromised by inadequate conditions of public utilities hygiene, which is a direct consequence of a lack of a determined waste management system (Milijić, Krunić and Nenković-Riznić, 2007).

Characteristics and amount of solid waste generated in an area is directly linked to the quality of life and living standard of its inhabitants, but also to functional typology of settlements. Thus, in relation to the structure of municipal solid waste, tourist settlements significantly differ from urban settlements, but also from the rural settlements. Although tourist settlements in Serbia are small by size of resident population, they can be considered urban settlements due to a great number of concurrent users during a season. Precisely because of this fact, models of municipal solid waste management in these settlements also differ relative to settlements of the same size and population, but without a specific function (Nenković-Riznić, 2007).

Experiences of developing countries indicate that the reduction of solid waste in tourist settlements should be primarily based on planning and construction of facilities (and/or equipment) for recycling municipal solid waste at micro level (Nenković-Riznić, 2011). In such case, it is, in principle, avoided to locate municipal solid waste plants in settlements located in regions with protected natural or cultural resources, but waste removal is carried out through a system of waste recycling centers/transfer stations.

Tourist settlements in Serbia are, to a smaller extent, encompassed by a solid waste collection system in charge of public utility companies of municipalities. However, in these settlements, due to low frequency of waste collection, illegal dump sites are very often created. They present not only a great ecological problem, but also, to a great extent, disturb main function of such settlements (Nenković-Riznić and Pucar, 2009).
Such problems are primarily caused due to small waste collection charges, poor tariff system, inefficient institutional support and inadequate organization of utility companies.

In addition, system for primary classification of waste (collection, sorting) is mainly not implemented in such settlements albeit prescribed by law, but waste is disposed of as unsorted waste.

Therefore, it is necessary to define a system of measures through which a project for improving municipal solid waste management in tourist settlements in Serbia would be implemented.

**METHODOLOGY**

In order to define specific system of disposal of municipal solid waste in tourist settlements, it is necessary to introduce two separate methods—GIS methodology with analytical hierarchy process (AHP) and the multiple criteria decision analysis (MCDA) using the geospatial databases (Analysis 1), and also mathematical method for calculation of waste growth rate, volume of waste and number of containers (Analysis 2).

**Analysis 1 – GIS methodology with AHP and MCDA**

The methodology used in this research represents a consolidation of the existing methodological frameworks used for the transfer station site selection, also supplemented with the analysis using the geospatial databases (GIS methodology). (Kontos, Komilis and Halvadakis, 2005; Zamorano, Molero, Hurtado, Grindlay and Ramos, 2008).

The GIS represents a practical visualization of multiple-criteria decision analysis (MCDA) and, as such, it has become an integral component of regional and urban planning, but also environmental planning in tourist settlements. Namely, the GIS consolidates spatial data (maps, plans, satellite and ortho images) with qualitative, quantitative and descriptive databases. As such, the GIS is becoming a major instrument for location studies. The GIS converts georeferential data into computerized maps, while the maps themselves enable more efficient visual interactive location analysis (Herrmann and Osinski, 1999).

For implementation of GIS methodology it is important to determine input parameters which include: data on spatial coverage of a settlement (topographic characteristics; development of transportation; water supply and electric power infrastructures; existing municipal solid waste management system; location of the nearest existing/planned landfill); population (demographic structure and local population projections; disposition of the settlement); data on concurrent users (given as an average for each month); possibility of extension of a settlement by building new attractive facilities or by enriching contents of tourism offer; data on the amount and structure of municipal solid waste in a tourist settlement; and data on the existing methods of solid waste treatment and treatment of wastewater from households and tourism facilities. Due
to an increased number of users (qualitative changes), it is necessary to plan an extension of capacities for solid waste collection and processing/disposal, while structural changes in tourism offer (qualitative changes in relation to the service-level improvement) can also cause changes in the structure of solid waste in a tourist settlement.

After creating a database on the abovementioned parameters, it is necessary to map the data by determining: exact locations of tourist settlements, existing and planned purpose of areas, existing and planned protection zones of natural and cultural resources, as well as possible geomorphologic/hydrogeologic barriers on the terrain and spatial distribution of users of space (based on a projected number of inhabitants/tourists).

All abovementioned parameters are necessary for defining municipal solid waste collection methods in a territory, but also for determining a framework outline of waste recycling center/transfer station, capacity of waste disposal space and/or municipal solid waste processing facility.

Choice of an adequate municipal solid waste treatment method depends local and regional strategies for waste management, provided that waste collection system (as the first stage in the waste management process) is not directly conditioned by waste disposal methods, but by prescribed standards.

Considering that selection of sites for waste transfer stations is also influenced by the type of settlement, as well as solid waste disposal method planned for a certain territory, it has been necessary to also define, through examples of foreign practice and successful scenarios (Achankeng, 2003; Christensen, Chia Nan Liu and Chen, 2006; Calvo, Moreno, Zamorano and Szanto, 2005; Aivaliotis, Dokas, Hatzigiannakou and Panagiotakopoulos, 2004; Rotich, Henry and Yongsheng 2006), the general criteria for the implementation of such projects in Serbia. In this connection, it has also been necessary to take into account local conditions, particularly in the domain of social aspect of this problem area.

Case study

For the purpose of defining municipal solid waste disposal methods and system in tourist settlements in Serbia three pilot villages - Gostuša, Dojkinci and Senokos have been chosen in the territory of the Stara Planina Nature Park (Institute of Architecture and Urban and Spatial Planning of Serbia, 2007). It was necessary to determine basic input parameters which consist of data on population (demographic structure and population projections, tourist capacity – number of tourists), data on the amount and structure of municipal solid waste in the area of tourist settlements, and data on waste management methods. All three settlements are located at an altitude of 1000 meters and within the area of the Nature Park. They do not have organized landfills, but illegal dump sites. They have poor levels of local transportation, water supply, sewerage, electric power and telecommunication infrastructures.
Settlements of Gostuša and Dojkinci (Municipality of Pirot) are classified by population size into the group of rural tourism settlements with a population over 100, while the settlement of Senokos (Municipality of Dimitrovgrad) is classified into the group of rural tourism settlements with a population up to 100. Over the past ten years (1991-2002), rate of population growth/decrease indicates decrease in population in 95% of settlements, including the mentioned settlements.

Considering that the Spatial Plan of special purpose for the Stara Planina Nature Park and Tourism Region (Institute of Architecture and Urban and Spatial Planning of Serbia, 2007) envisages quantitative and qualitative changes in demographic processes in the subject territory as a strategic objective precisely because of tourism function development, it is realistic to expect an increase in the amount of municipal solid waste generated in this region. Due to population increase (quantitative changes), it is necessary to plan an extension of capacities for municipal solid waste collection and processing, while structural changes in economic (tourism) capacities can cause changes in the structure of municipal solid waste in the subject area.

The mentioned settlements have a balanced gender ratio. However, regarding working activities, there is a certain deviation in relation to female population. Namely, a considerably smaller number of women than men can be considered economically active population, so they can be classified into the group of economically dependent population.

Based on the methodology for selecting the sites for waste transfer stations in tourist settlements, developed in the Institute of Architecture and Urban and Spatial Planning of Serbia (Marina Nenković-Riznić), studies of foreign authors (Al Khatib, et al. 2007; Achankeng, 2003; Christensen, Cosso and Stegmann, 1999; Chia Nan Liu and Chen, 2006; Calvo, Moreno, Zamorano & Szanto, 2005; Tchobanoglous, Theisen and Vigil, 1993; Tchobanoglous and Kreith, 2002; Mazzanti and Zoboli 2008; Alvaliotos, Dokas, Hatzigiannakou and Panagiotakopoulos, 2004; Rotich, Henry and Yongsheng 2006; Harvey 1998; Pereira 1993; Vidanaarachchi, Yuen and Pilapitiya, 2006; Zamorano, Molero, Hurtado, Grindlay and Ramos, 2008; Kontos and Halvadakis 2002), as well as on AHP methods and GIS-based multi-criteria analysis, potential sites for waste transfer stations in the abovementioned settlements were determined.

In order to define the method and system for solid waste treatment in the territory of tourist settlements in Serbia, as well as to use previously developed methodology, it has been necessary to determine main input parameters including: data on spatial coverage of settlements (topographic features, development of transportation, water resources and electric power infrastructure, existing waste management system, locations closest to the existing/planned landfills), population (demographic structure and projections for the resident population, tourist capacity, disposition of settlements), data on the amount and structure of municipal solid waste in tourist settlements and data on the existing methods of household solid waste.

After having created the database on the abovementioned parameters in those pilot tourist settlements, it has been necessary to carry out their mapping, through determining exact
locations of tourist settlements, existing waste disposal sites, existing and planned land use, possible existing and planned protection zones of natural and cultural resources, as well as possible geomorphologic/hydrogeological barriers in the terrain (protection water accumulation zones, infrastructure corridors, etc.) and spatial distribution of tourists (based on projected of population growth) (Nenkovic-Riznic 2007). All mentioned multi-criteria analyses have been conducted using the ArcGIS (Spatial Analyst) software package, and based on own elaborated methodology (author Marina Nenkovic-Riznic) in (Nenkovic-Riznic, 2011), as well as on studies by foreign authors (see Kontos, Komilis and Halvadakis, 2005; Parisakis, et al.,1997; Guiquin, Li, Guoxue and Lijun 2009; Herrmann and Osinski 1999 for discussion and examples). All mentioned parameters have primarily been necessary for defining the locations and outlines of waste recycling centers/transfer stations. From the aspect of determining the sites for potential waste transfer stations, it has been necessary to conduct additional analyses (Nenkovic-Riznic and Pucar 2009).

The research activities have encompassed the determination of techno-economic, deterministic criteria used in the selection of sites for waste transfer station. (such as geological, hydro-geological, geo-morphological, seismic, climatic criteria, existing and planning methods of land use, ecological criteria, criteria for the protection of natural and cultural historical values, existing infrastructure, distances from infrastructure, water courses, water accumulation).

**Results 1**

Altogether eighteen different criteria have been determined according to which the most suitable sites for newly planned waste transfer stations in tourist settlements have been determined using the AHP methodology. They have been additionally evaluated using geospatial database, and then graphically presented. Specifically, for the purposes of research, it was established a model based on a set of location criteria. Criteria set that chosen for this purpose is the result of detailed research of world and European research and practical experience in this area and their adaptation to the local conditions. Certain type of criteria (such as hypsometry, insolation and slopes) are discussed in more detail through a set of sub-criteria. Besides, based on the practical experiences and foreign practice, it was conducted that all of the criteria do not have the same rank in approach to the problem of landfill locations. Consequently, it was necessary to establish their ranking, based on their importance and three rang criterion were defined: rank 3 (ponder 0.15), rank 2 (ponder 0.35) and rank 1 (ponder 0.5)

Lowest rank have the hypsometry, seismic, climatic criteria, and existing infrastructure. Medium rank have the slopes, distance from cultural-historical values, distance form electric and telecommunication infrastructure, and the highest rank have most important criteria such as distance from public roads, criteria for the protection of natural values, and also all the geological and hydrogeological criteria.
After pondering of criteria, value of every single criterion was established, following by the evaluation and based on previous values.

The most suitable locations have been marked with the lightest shade of gray; medium grey are those that are conditionally suitable; and with the darkest gray the unsuitable locations have been marked from the aspect of these criteria. It is interesting to note that the research has been based only on three quantitative suitability ranks (suitable, conditionally suitable and unsuitable) considering that this is a common classification in the Serbian planning practice.

Figure 1 (a), (b), (c) shows the analyses for tourist villages that have been included in the analysis, but are in the experimental area in the Nature Park Stara Planina (which has three regimes of protecting natural and cultural values) - in three pilot villages - Gostuša, Dojkinci and Senokos. In Figure 1, zones suitable for waste transfer stations from have been defined relative to: (a) aspect of area hypsometry, (b) distance from watercourses, (c) distance from water accumulation. These are only some of the analyses (out of the total of 18 ones) as shown on Figure 1. Other analyses have comprised suitability analysis in relation to locations of existing settlements, climatic parameters, distance from state roads of the first and second category (Nenkovic-Riznic 2011).

Figure 1. Geospatial analysis of the area of 3 tourist settlements in the Stara Planina Mt. in relation to: (a) Hypsometry analysis of an area, (b) Distance from water flows analysis, (c) Distance from water accumulation.
Source: (Nenkovic-Riznic, 2007; Nenkovic-Riznic, 2011)

Locations obtained through the analysis are a direct reflection of predefined techno-economic criteria, which can also be determined with a higher level of accuracy through an additional, more detailed analysis (Figure 2.).

The mentioned locations can be considered adequate for locating waste transfer stations in rural tourism settlements of the Stara Planina Mt., based on the methodology developed for such
type of studies. The level of validity of multi-criteria decision analysis (MCDA) depends primarily on the number and type of criteria and criteria adapted to specific conditions of an area.

![Figure 2. Final result of evaluation according to techno-economic criteria in ARCGIS software package](image)

Source: (Nenkovic-Riznic, 2007; Nenkovic-Riznic, 2011)

**Analysis 2 – Mathematical method for calculation of waste growth rate, volume of waste and number of containers**

In order to develop an efficient waste collection system in a tourist settlement, it is necessary to previously determine: transportation system; number of waste containers, as well as diversification of waste containers, depending on the possibility of recycling the raw materials. If a prior analysis shows that it is not possible to implement waste recycling system in the territory of
a tourist settlement (due to social unacceptability, economic or ecological barriers), it is not necessary to place separate containers for different types of recyclable materials, but only one container for unsorted waste (Garret, 2005).

The data necessary for dimensioning the disposal capacities for solid waste in tourist settlements through mathematical method depend on information about the amount and composition of solid waste per person during a specified period of time (day, week, season). This type of data are collected through sampling the solid waste generated each day in one week by at least 1% of the total number of households (which are in the function of tourism offer, i.e. which are defined as tourist capacities) and/or hotels. Given that tourism offer in mainly linked to the season (summer, winter), it is necessary to carry out such type of sampling several times a year. According to the OECD and UNEP statistics, the total generated amount of waste obtained by such sampling ranges between 0.5 and 0.9 kg per person per day, while average waste density is 450 kg/m³ (OECD, 2009; UNEP, 2005).

However, for the purpose of planning capacities, it is necessary to also calculate waste growth rate, which is obtained on the basis of the size of resident population [N₀] and the amount of waste produced per person per year [P₀], as well as on the basis of population growth rate [Tₚ] and waste growth rate [Tₚ] according to the following formula:

\[ Nₙ = N₀ \cdot (1 + Tₙ)^n \]
\[ Pₙ = P₀ \cdot (1 + Tₚ)^n \]

After defining the waste growth rate, planned amount of waste [Gₙ] is determined according to the following formula:

\[ Gₙ = N₀ \cdot P₀ \]

The calculation of the number of waste containers necessary for primary sorting is based on each mass fraction - [W] (by sampling), specific weight of different fractions [ϕₛ], container fill level - [tf] and container emptying frequency - [fw].

Total volume of waste [V] is calculated on annual basis according to the following formula:

\[ V = \frac{W}{ϕₛ \cdot f_j} \]

On the weekly basis [Vₙₚₙ], the volume is calculated according to annual volume and weekly collection frequency [fₓ] according to the following formula:

\[ Vₙₚₙ = \frac{V}{fₓ \cdot 52} \]

So, the number of container [Nₖ] is:

\[ Nₖ = \frac{Vₙₚₙ}{Vₚₙ} \]
where \([V_b]\) is a chosen volume of container (in Serbia, it is mainly between 1.1 \(m^3\) and 3.3\(m^3\)).

It is not necessary to make calculations for tourist settlements on annual basis, but on monthly or weekly basis, given that the number of tourists varies seasonally. Based on the analysis, it is possible to calculate the exact number of containers and determine their locations in any tourist settlement.

If it is not possible to locate containers in tourist settlements due to aesthetic reasons, municipal solid waste collection could also take place within mobile centers (a typical form of primary sorting of solid waste in a small number of countries which implies buyback centers for primary sorting of municipal solid waste, including the possibility of operating a mobile collection unit which changes locations throughout the settlement).

On the other hand, besides local population which can be included in the system of primary sorting, the solid waste sorting should also be an obligation of owners of larger tourist facilities (restaurants, hotels, larger accommodation facilities). Namely, their owners should sort municipal solid waste at the source into packaging materials (paper, glass, plastics, metal), as well as into biodegradable municipal waste, which is mostly generated from tourist accommodation facilities (Tchobanoglous, Theisen & Vigil, 1993).

Results 2

The structure of solid waste in tourist settlements in Serbia does not differ from its structure in urban settlements: about 40% of organic waste, 21% plastic packaging (although plastics are classified as organic waste according to EEA - European Environmental Agency nomenclature), 19% of paper and cardboard packaging, 9% of glass, 4% of metals, and 7% of other types of waste (textile, rubber, etc.) (Nenkov-Riznic, Pucar, 2010).

The organization of waste removal, as well as waste removal methods in tourist settlements are directly dependent on: level of urbanity of a tourist settlement; degree of participation of population/users of tourism offer (social aspect); and possibility of realizing more cost-effective waste collection system (economic aspect) at municipal level (or at the level of managers of space, in case of national parks, nature parks).

Waste disposal is organized using waste containers (volume of 1.1 \(m^3\)), or containers of larger volume (8-10 \(m^3\)), located in immediate vicinity of hotels, accommodation facilities, boarding houses, green markets, area of heavy flow of human traffic. Volume of waste containers depends on the number of tourists, type of tourism facilities and daily amount of waste generated.

Due to a specific technology used in making them, the above-mentioned containers do not emit foul smell (hermetically closed), thus meeting the demands of tourism offer, so they can be located at any place in a tourist settlement.
The frequency of solid waste collection depends on collection methods, as well as types of waste containers. The use of large volume containers placed in storage space in the basement is recommended for greater accommodation facilities (hotels) in tourist settlements. Primary sorting of municipal solid waste is carried out inside facilities by sorting solid waste in separate bins.

However, due to aesthetic standards and spatial limitations, it is necessary to collect municipal solid waste on daily basis during tourist season, while solid waste collection during the low tourism season is organized if necessary.

In other accommodation facilities, primary solid waste collection is somewhat easier and organized by placing smaller capacity containers (50-240l) in the immediate vicinity of buildings, in the zone of infrastructure corridors.

Where tourist settlements are not covered by public utility services, it is necessary to build necessary infrastructure facilities and thus round off the entire waste management system. According to the Waste Management Strategy for the period 2010-2019, an access to waste management system should be provided in the plan period to all settlements in Serbia, thus also to certain tourist settlements with poor infrastructure.

This would primarily imply the inclusion of all tourist settlements into the waste collection system and waste transportation to waste processing facilities or sites of final waste disposal. In case of small settlements, waste recycling centers/transfer stations should be built. They have a considerable larger volume (40-50 m³) than containers for waste collection and present an intermediate stage in waste treatment and disposal (in between waste collection and processing, or disposal). In the EU member countries, such approach is mostly used in tourist settlements with winter tourism offer, where solid waste disposal is more difficult due to weather conditions. Solid waste is transported from transfer stations to sites of final disposal-regional landfills.

Such way of determining waste management cycle completely eliminates secondary effects of pollution on the environment and all its parameters as a result of an irrational waste disposal.

Case study

According to the National Waste Management Strategy 2010-2019, an average amount of solid waste in tourist settlements is 1.0-1.1 kg/person/day, due to their diverse tourism offer.

Given that no official statistical data on the amount of generated municipal solid waste are available for the area of tourist settlements of Senokos, Dojkinci and Gostuša (because public utility companies of towns of Pirot and Dimitrovgrad do not collect such data for these settlements), it is possible to determine the total amount of waste only approximately (Table 1).
Table 1 Total amount of waste generated in rural settlements in Stare Planina Mt.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cadastral municipality</th>
<th>Total amount of waste generated per day (in kg)</th>
<th>Amount of waste generated per year (in kg)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Senokos</td>
<td>26.4</td>
<td>9636</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dojkinci</td>
<td>163.8</td>
<td>59787</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gostuša</td>
<td>83.4</td>
<td>30441</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: (IAUS, 2007; Milijić, et al., 2007)

The amount of waste generated is, therefore, not neglectable and, in the forthcoming period, it is necessary to systematically collect and transport waste out of these areas because of a marked tourism function development.

The data on percentage of mass (or volume) of certain recyclables (components of waste) in the total amount of deposited waste in the area of these tourist settlements are not available. However, based on sampling carried out on site, it was determined that volumetric structure of certain recyclables did not significantly deviate from the Republic average.

Solid waste from the mentioned tourist settlements is neither recycled nor used for any other purposes (solid waste composting, primary sorting) and is mostly directly dumped into rivers or illegal dump sites. Presence of illegal dump sites in the territory of these touristic settlements is a serious issue, because they pose a threat to environmental quality (particularly to water sources and air) and a potential risk to health of both local population and tourists. Besides, they considerably disturb the aesthetic function of landscape and diminish tourism values of the region. These illegal (non-sanitary) dump sites have emerged due to the lack of adequate containers or bins for waste disposal in the territory of these settlements, as well as due to the lack of waste disposal system, which is the responsibility of their respective municipalities. A special problem lies in the fact that transportation infrastructure is in a very poor condition, due to which the access of waste transportation vehicles to these settlements is impossible.

The general conclusion is that there is a complete lack of equipment for emptying the containers/bins and transportation of municipal solid waste in the territories of all three tourist settlements, as well as that scattered waste enters rivers, thus posing a threat to all environmental parameters and disturbing the tourism function of space. Therefore, it is necessary to carry out a planned intervention which would result in defining a municipal solid waste management system for these territories, as well as in connecting them to a network of settlements covered by public utility services of their respective municipalities, i.e. Pirot and Dimitrovgrad.

In selecting sites for waste transfer stations, criteria used in different stages of system development include size of resident population, number of tourists and amount of waste generated, as well as urban and spatial planning criteria.
Waste transfer stations have a significantly larger volume (40-50 m³) than waste containers. They are an intermediate stage in waste treatment and disposal (between waste collection and processing, i.e. disposal).

Considering foreign experiences, as well as recommendations given in previous chapters of the present paper, it is more cost-effective and environmentally acceptable to place a large-volume PVC container (between 8 and 10 m³) in these settlements in the first stage of the project, for short-term pre-treatment storage of biodegradable waste, and another container of the same type and size for storage of unsorted waste which would later be subjected to manual sorting. Mentioned capacities could completely meet the needs of local population and tourists not only because of size of resident population and tourism capacities, but also because of impossibility to frequently provide solid waste services to remote tourist areas.

In the second stage of the project, after carrying out the primary education of local population and tourists, three containers of 1.1 m³ capacity for primary waste selection would be placed in the same location (between one or two depending on their linear dispersion) for different types of recyclables: paper, plastics and other inorganic solid waste, while the container for biodegradable waste would remain in the same location.

However, due to poor transport accessibility of these tourist settlements, as well as the possibility of the accumulation of larger amounts of solid waste due to insufficiently frequent transportation of waste, it is possible to engage a private company (or investor) for more regular waste collection by low-volume vehicles (so-called mobile center). Namely, mobile center is a type of a buyback center which, compared to the conventional type of stations, has the possibility of operating a mobile collection unit which changes locations throughout the territory. The center consists of a truck and trailer of a low volume. The trailer contains a foldable container system for: paper (newspapers and packaging paper), glass, metal (aluminum cans and things made of iron), and plastics.

**DISCUSSION**

Through the implementation of the above-mentioned measures and in accordance with local strategic plans and national strategies, it is possible to reduce, in an efficient way, not only aesthetic repercussions of solid waste disposal in tourist settlements, but also to improve economic and environmental performance of an area. In this regard, rational waste management can lead to the improvement of tourism offer in an area, as well as to an increase in the number of visitors in tourist settlements in low tourism season.

In developing the methodology for determining waste management capacity in tourist settlements based on the parameters adapted to local conditions, it has been found that there is a certain lack of relevant data, which is a result of incomplete statistical indicators in Serbia. For this reason, it is necessary to approximate certain parameters in certain cases, which can
produce somewhat altered results. Therefore, the above-mentioned results should be taken as provisional results, with the possibility to obtain more detailed results later.

Furthermore, one of the conclusions that imposes itself is based on the fact that different tourism offers in an area require an adapted methodology, particularly in locations of seasonal tourism activities (e.g., bathing and ski resorts), where climatic characteristics are also an essential factor for the selection of sites for solid waste selection and storage methods.

Thus, the harmonization between waste disposal methods will also be conditioned by local characteristics of an area/settlement. In this regard, solid waste treatment is also directly conditioned by activities of local population and users of space in primary sorting, so that, in case of absence of such type of activities, it is necessary to undertake educational measures through animating the users.

Regarding institutionalization of such waste management method, the decentralization of authority and transfer of competences from the national to the local level (level of municipality or tourist settlement) is needed. Namely, national documents, strategic plans and guidelines can only contribute to the formation of a rough framework for the implementation of such type of program.

Given the fact that each tourist settlement has different specificities, not only in terms of natural characteristics (geomorphology of terrain, hydrogeological and climatic characteristics, insulation), but also in terms of social and economic structure, it is necessary to define responsibilities for organizing waste management at the local level. In addition, the decentralization in waste management also implies government organs for the purpose of more adequate implementation of the program for introducing the waste management into certain areas. Therefore, the decentralization of authorities (which is also followed by the distribution of financial and administrative responsibilities) has made the municipal solid waste management more flexible in relation to local demands, which is actually the aim of a more efficient waste management.

Such phasing of projects for solid waste management in tourist settlements can provide a quality utility infrastructure in these areas, thus improve the quality of life of local population to a large extent, but also the quality of tourism offer. This would cause not only positive environmental effects, but also positive social and economic effects on the subject area, considering that this would create new jobs and raise standard of population living in these tourist settlements, thereby preventing the outflow of local population to urban centers and encouraging the tourism development, which is also an imperative of sustainable economic and social development and environmental protection in Serbia.

The present paper has also given improved methodological recommendations for the selection of sites for waste transfer stations in tourist settlements through an example of three settlements in the Stara Planina Nature Park. Based on the mentioned case study and using the presented methodology, it is also possible to select sites for waste transfer stations and other
waste management methods in other tourist settlements, which is not dependent upon their capacity and position, as well as the number of visitors.

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CHAPTER 1.8.

SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY IN TOURISM: A CASE STUDY OF THE RIVERSIDE COMMUNITIES OF THE AMAZON RIVER

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Abstract: The Tourism in a few decades of economic activity, became reclusive and elitist to a complex and global phenomenon of strong relevance in socioeconomic level. Thanks to this fast development, tourism has increasingly reflected the peculiarities of our capitalist society, such as poverty and environmental degradation. Thus, we sought in the contemporary world, ways to build social systems that ensure dignity and security for people, regardless of which class it belongs and look for natural preservation. As a result, the concept of sustainability has been working extensively in recent years by covering various aspects and problems of society, and applied to various economic areas, including tourism. This summary aims to analyze the importance of social responsibility in tourism practiced in Amazon through the communities along the Amazon River to raise their citizenship by Americans from Texas. The methodological aspects of this paper are a case study as a research strategy.

Keywords: Tourism, Social Responsibility, Sustainable Tourism Development, Leisure

INTRODUCTION

The Amazon rainforest holds great importance and significance for the world’s environmental balance. As an idea of its importance and monumental size, the various rivers that comprise the Amazon basin account for around 20% of the total volume of fresh water that flows into the various oceans of the world. In short, the rivers of the Amazon region form the biggest hydrographic network anywhere on the planet.

Specifically, the Amazon River is by far the world’s biggest river in terms of fresh water volume. In addition, the biodiversity in the Amazon region is one of the richest of the world, with a considerable amount of fauna and flora that have been sighted by very few indigenous tribes and scientists. Medical researchers have suggested that the flora in the Amazon region can provide a cure in the years ahead for several diseases that afflict humanity.

Rainforests are effectively dense jungles. They are the oldest living ecosystem on Earth, covering about 6% of its surface and accounting for two-thirds of the world’s species of animals...
and plants. The Amazon represents over one-half of the world’s remaining rainforests, and comprises the largest and most species-rich tract of tropical rainforest anywhere (G.C. Cauper, 2010). There are temperate rainforests, that are found further north or south from Ecuador, and tropical rainforests, that are found along the warm and rainy climate of the Ecuador line. Tropical rainforests are known by their dense vegetation that forms three different layers, containing giant trees with a height of 75 meters or more in the upper layer. The soil of a rainforest is generally very poor due to the lack of sunlight and the high humidity. This combination of lack of sunlight and high humidity makes the soil especially fragile when the forest is destroyed, even entering into a process of desertification in some areas (J.M.M. Costa, 2012).

According to Instituto Brasileiro de Geografia e Estatística, IBGE (2012) the total extension of the Amazon rainforest is about 7 million square kilometers, and is distributed across nine South American countries, namely Bolivia, Brazil, Colombia, Ecuador, Guyana, French Guiana, Peru, Suriname, and Venezuela.

Around 60% of the Amazon rainforest is located in the Brazilian territory, corresponding to virtually the entire North region of the country, and is called the Brazilian Amazon. The remaining 40% of the Amazon rainforest is distributed across the other eight countries that share the forest, with the largest part being in the eastern part of Peru. Large portions of the three Guineas, namely Guyana, Suriname and French Guiana, are covered by the Amazon rainforest.

The 60% of the Amazon that is located in the Brazilian territory defines the so called Legal Amazon, and includes the states of Acre, Amazonas, Amapá, North of Mato Grosso, Pará, Rondônia, Roraima, Tocantins, and West of Maranhão. Figure 1 presents a map of Brazil that emphasizes these states.

![Figure 1. Map of the study area](image)


Amazonas is the largest state of Brazil, with a total area of 1.6 million square kilometers (IBGE, 2013). This state is larger than any other country of the Amazon rainforest, and virtually all of its area is occupied by rainforest or rivers. In addition to its size, Amazonas state is surrounded
by land, such that access to the region is by air or along the various rivers that form the Amazon River and its tributaries. Large ships have access to Amazonas from the Pará city of Belem, which is at the mouth of the Amazon River where it flows into the Atlantic Ocean.

The capital of Amazonas state is Manaus, which is at the confluence of the two main tributaries of the Amazon River, where the black water of the Rio Negro and the yellowish brown water of the Rio Solimoes join to form the Amazon River. About 77% of the Amazonas state forest remains intact, primarily due to the creation of the Free Zone of Manaus (Zona Franca de Manaus) by the Brazilian Government in 1967 to implement light industries in the region, mainly electronics and motorcycles. This affirmative action has created job opportunities around Manaus and has contributed to preserve the rainforest from being exploited for (possibly unsustainable) economic activities. There have been significant efforts made by the Federal Government to promote sustainable development in the region in order to preserve the natural resources. The local economy is based on the light industrialization of the Free Zone of Manaus, explorations for petrol and natural gas, fishing, mining, and natural exploration. Several projects have recently been initiated in the region, including technological innovation, biodiversity exploration, sustainable tourism, eco-tourism, and education, all of which have been linked to widespread concerns about sustainable economic development and growth.

As it might be expected, economic progress has been achieved at the cost of destroying large areas of the Amazon rainforest. For example, there has been the creation of an industrial zone around the metropolitan region of Belem, the Pará state capital, and illegal extraction of wood from the Amazon forest. More recently, widespread commercial agriculture and the bovine industry have moved toward the southeast of the state, which has led to serious land conflicts and further destruction of the Amazon rainforest.

In this scenario of destruction and illegal exploration of the rainforest, the tourism industry would seem to have the potential to contribute to sustainable economic development in the North region of Brazil.

This work analyses the practical of social responsibility in tourism in a case study of the riversides communities along the Amazon River, where activities linked to volunteer work are developed by Americans whose leave every walk of life to participate in short term mission trips with various teams along the Amazon River. These teams include medical, dental and optical, drilling water wells, construction, children, men’s and women’s ministries. By meeting physical needs, they establish relationships with the villagers, opening the door to share citizenship as they develop sustainable tourism.

The reason for adopting a case study is because it is defined as “an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident” (Yin, 2003, p. 13), as here, where the study area was the communities.
Stake (2000), for example, referred to the vantage of this approach as “the study of the particular” (p. 438), which encompasses the nature, historical backgrounds, physical settings as well as socio-cultural contexts of a specific case.

Methodological texts have demonstrated the effective use of this strategy through the differentiation of various types of case studies. Eckstein (1975) categorized the variations of this approach into configurative-idiographic studies, disciplined-configurative studies, heuristic case studies, plausibility probes, and crucial-case studies. From a functionalist perspective, Yin (2003a) proposed a highly refined typology of exploratory, descriptive, and explanatory case studies, each of which is defined and outlined as an effective research tool in contexts or situations that are often too complex for survey or experimental strategies. In terms of topical focus, he noted that case study applications cover contexts as diverse as decision-making, individual behavior, organizational operations, processes, programs, neighborhood dynamics, institutional structures and actions, as well as current events.

In other words, the case study approach comprises an all-encompassing method, covering the logic of design, data collection techniques, and specific approaches to data analysis. In this sense, case study is not merely a data collection tactic or an analytic method. It is a comprehensive research strategy or framework of design (Dufour and Fortin, 1992; Platt, 1992).

This case study is a result of the author’s experience as a translator in Amazon in 2003 and 2005 and observation of the practice of tourism with social responsibility during this time.

Tourism and Sustainable Development

Tourism can be considered one of the most remarkable socio-economic phenomena of the twentieth century. According to World Tourism Organisation (WTO) (2013) it’s an activity enjoyed by only a small group of relatively well-off people during the first half of the last century, it gradually became a mass phenomenon during the post-World War II period, particularly from the 1970s onwards. It now reaches an increasingly larger number of people throughout the world and can be considered a vital dimension of global integration.

Countries and regions where the economy is driven by the tourism industry have become increasingly concerned with the environmental, as well as the socio-cultural problems associated with unsustainable tourism. As a result, there is now increasing agreement on the need to promote sustainable tourism development to minimize its environmental impact and to maximize socio-economic overall benefits at tourist destinations. The concept of sustainable tourism, incorporates sustainable development within the tourism context (M. Monwforth, 2010) has been affirmed as the new direction for tourism. This concept draws attention to the need for balance between commercial and environmental (and later social) interests in tourism. Among the first attempts to define sustainable tourism was made by R. Butler (2011), who defined it as the
longterm viability of a tourism entity (products, services) in an area. In other words, sustainability is tied solely to the survival of tourism players.

R. Butler’s definition tallies with that of F.L. Reinhardt (2008) who links sustainability to the fundamental preoccupation of tourism business managers—productivity, investment and profit. However, these definitions are misleading because tourism is viewed as being isolated from other uses of an area’s natural resources. In reality, tourism competes for resources with other forms of economic activities, including agriculture and fishery. Thus, resource competition and land use conflict are inevitable issues that need to be addressed. R. Butler (2011) seems to have recognized this when he proposed a later definition that takes into consideration the multiplicity of land use and the trade-offs that must exist between sectors before sustainability can be achieved.

His improved definition of sustainable tourism is: Tourism which is developed and maintained in an area (community, environment) in such a manner and at such a scale that it remains viable over an indefinite period and does not degrade or alter the environment (physical, human) in which it exists to such a degree that it prohibits the successful development and well-being (sic) of other activities and processes (R. Butler, 2011).

W. Moore (2006) defines sustainable tourism development in line with the World Tourism Organization’s characterization—that is, to be sustainable tourism development must meet the need of the present tourists and host regions while protecting and enhancing opportunities for the future.

Sustainability, according to W. Moore (2006), also involves total integration with the community in which the tourism organization is located. Total integration here is referred to as involving health and safety issues, conservation of natural resources, renewable energy supplies, and other environmentally friendly manifestations. G. Leposky (2012) also dwells on the issue of total integration, and emphasizes that it entails “maintenance and preservation of lifestyle and dignity of the local inhabitants” via the protection of the social fabric of the local community, assuring local economic opportunities, and guarding against exploitation by the outside world (p. 10).

Responsibility practiced by Amazon Outreach

Tourism is a recognized global industry—one of the largest industries in the world. Like any global industry, tourist business activities can have considerable impact on local development trends (B. Faulkner, 2011). The local impacts of the tourism industry are diverse and are often unique to the tourism sector. Tourist activities, as traditionally defined by the tourism industry, fundamentally involve the transportation and hosting of the tourism consumer in a local community, i.e., “tourist destination,” where the tourist product is consumed. No other global industry structures itself in such a way that the consumer is brought to the product, rather than
the product being delivered to the consumer in his or her own community. This structural difference produces unique social impacts upon the local tourist community, including the interruption of local customs and lifestyles, the spread of infectious diseases, changes in local demographics, and changes in local housing and labor markets.

The primary product of tourism is not something produced by the industry. The product is often the heritage, wealth, and expected legacy of the community that serves as the tourist destination. The business activity of the tourism industry is to promote the appealing aspects of the community, transport non-residents into the community, manage the hospitality for and guide the activities of these visitors, and provide them with goods and services to purchase during their stay. If these business activities degrade the community’s heritage and wealth, then the community suffers more directly than the consumer, who can return to his or her own community without responsibility for or awareness of the impacts of his tourist activities. Solutions to adverse tourism impacts are to be found in the shared interest of local communities, tourism businesses, and tourism consumers to maintain the natural wealth and social heritage of the tourist destination (K. Azilah, 2006)

There is an American non-profit organization named Amazon Outreach formed to support Brazilian churches and other organized ministries in spreading the gospel message of Jesus Christ throughout the Amazon River Basin and developing the sustainable tourism as they stay in touch with the communities. This contact with the communities provide better holiday experiences for guests and enabling local communities to enjoy a better quality of life through social responsibility activities.

Amazon Outreach began in 1999 when a group of people developed a passion for villagers along the Amazon River after being involved on a short trip. They formed Amazon Outreach and raised support for the first boat, the Linda Esperança (Beauty Hope). Then the newly established Amazon Outreach staff, board and team members.

Since 1999, Amazon Outreach got two more boats: the Love and Hope (Amor e Esperança), and the Waters of Love (Águas de Amor), the well drilling boat. They have had hundreds of men, women and children travel to the Amazon to practice social responsibility to the villagers. All of them need to pay your own trip and he current trip cost per person is US$ 2,000 plus airfare. Trip costs include boat accomodations including hammocks and bath towels, boat meals, laundry service, some supplies, insurance/person, salaries for translators and crew, boat supplies, bus transportation to/from Manaus airport/boat, boat gas, oil, and maintenance administration costs.

Both boats are about 100 feet long and three decks tall. On board are full kitchens, small surgical rooms and pharmacies. There is room for sleeping in hammocks on all 3 decks. It is possible to eat the meals on the top deck. There are plenty of clean private bathrooms and showers and even a “shower porch” on the back for those who want to shower in their bathing suits under the stars.
The boats are powered by large diesel marine engines and equipped with diesel powered generators. They have water filtering systems which include sand filters, media filters, ultra violet lights and self chlorinating injection systems. Although this cleans our water for bathing, dishwashing and cleaning the boat, we still use bottled water for drinking.

In 2014 alone, the organization was able to visit 41 different villages, 1228 families and over 3,200 children. In addition they were able to dig 20 wells that provide clean water for entire villages. By the end of 2013 Amazon Outreach had a partner with Smile Train and Surgical Volunteers International to repair 50 cleft lips and cleft palates. The people on the short term trips were able to identify the people in need of surgery. In November we transported them to the surgical site, tended to their medical needs, provided housing for them during the week and then return them to their village.

The teams

There are several teams working along the Amazon. One of those is the medical team. The medical needs of the villagers along the Amazon are great and most of the time left unattended. Typically, each short term team has Brazilian and American doctors and nurses who set up local clinics and treat various illnesses and medical conditions. This might be in a community building, school or sometimes under a shade tree. Mothers are given proper pre-natal and post-natal care. Babies, children, and families are given vitamins, toothbrushes, and basic hygiene products and
instruction. According to some reports from Americans, many villagers have not seen a doctor or dentist in 10 years or more.

Dental

The dental needs of the communities along the Amazon are great and most of the time left unattended. Typically, each short term team has Brazilian and American doctors and dentists who set up local clinics and treat various illnesses and medical conditions. This might be in a community building, school or sometimes under a shade tree. Dentists pulled badly diseased teeth and teach basic hygiene. Babies, children, and families are given toothbrushes, dental floss and toothpaste.

Hair Cutting

This team usually has the longest line of people waiting for their turn. Most of the villagers don’t own a pair of scissors so they save their money and paddle hours in a canoe to find a place to get their family's hair cut. Even impoverished people like to look their best with a new hair style. Many team members learn a few tips from their own beauticians before they leave so they can perform the basics of haircutting. Bring donated hair barrettes, headbands, combs, and brushes to give each person after they get their new haircut. Many teams bring nail polish, files and set up a women’s spa area to minister to the women and get to know them.
Eye care

The Eye Glasses Team serves by providing reading eyeglasses to anyone who needs them. The results are often dramatic and touching as individuals are able to read, thread a needle, draw line through a fish hook, or see their grandchildren for the first time in years. It is not any experience or special skills to work with the Eye Glasses Team. Training is provided during the trip and everyone is encouraged to spend some time working with this important team.

Children

Twice a day the children of the village are gathered together to teach Biblical principles, sing songs, act out Bible stories and work on crafts. This time with the children can be highly personalized or your team can refer to our children’s curriculum specially written for Amazon mission trips. The children love to listen to all of the missionaries from the States so you can always count on a captive audience.

Construction

Some of the trips that travel to the Amazon will do construction projects. Some of the villages need a church built, painted or repaired. Others will need our help to build a home for a pastor or teacher. When construction is needed the team that is responsible will help collect the extra money needed for materials such as wood, shingles, nails and paint.

Photos

Several teams bring a small photo printer and camera. They will take family photos during the day. Back on the boat during lunch and rest time, they will print the pictures and get them ready to give to the villagers that afternoon. For many of the villagers this might be their first family photo.

RESULTS

The economic importance of tourism, from a sustainable development perspective, brings with it a great responsibility in how to manage the resources, because the current model of growth does not show to be working because does not respond to the aspirations of well-being of humans. (Guimarães, 2007).

Tourism enables the direct intervention of local actors in the processes that the tourist activity can cause, seeking to minimize the negative impacts, which in turn makes tourism an inducer of local development. The social dimension of sustainable development is based on double ethical imperative of solidarity with current and future generations. It compels us to work with multiple scales of time / space. It also urges us to pick winning solutions to eliminate the wild growth achieved at the high negative cost.
So, responsible activities are a way to promote sustainable development, as it involves total integration with the community. Total integration here is referred to as involving health and safety issues, conservation of natural resources, renewable energy supplies, and other environmentally friendly manifestations.

The good relationships with communities, boat staff and Americans tourists show the importance of this kind of activities to develop a sustainable tourism. The tourists enjoy the trip because they help others. “The others”, (communities) feel good about having foreing tourists helping them and this is one attitude in accounting for the value of positive word.

CONCLUSIONS

While tourism provides considerable economic benefits for many countries, regions and communities, its rapid expansion can also be responsible for adverse environmental, as well as socio-cultural impact.

As stressed at the beginning of this paper, tourism is expected to resume its rapid growth in the near future. This growth can be harnessed not only for the enjoyment of tourists themselves but, more importantly, for maximizing economic benefits and thus increasing the living standards of host communities and countries. At the same time, unless corrective measures are taken, it is bound to have negative environmental and socio-cultural impact on those communities. Sustainable tourism strategies have gone a long way towards minimizing this negative impact and ensuring that the economic benefits of tourism can contribute to environmental protection and the sustainable use of natural. This case study aimed to show a social responsibility practice developed by Amazon Outreach, a non-profit organization which try to reduce the poverty of riversides communities among the Amazon river through dental, medical, eye care, hair cutting and other teams. In this scenario, the tourism industry would seem to have the potential to contribute to sustainable economic development in the Brazilian Amazon.

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CHAPTER 1.9.

CORRELATION OF TOURISM WITH THE NATURAL ENVIRONMENT

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Abstract: Tourism and recreation are forms of human activity that are linked the most tightly with the natural environment. Natural environment is transformed according to the needs of tourism; elements of infrastructure in the form of accommodation-gastronomy and transport infrastructure as well as other accompanying objects facilitating use of tourist values appear. Dynamic and not always controlled tourist infrastructure development may be the source of anthropopressure on the natural environment and indirectly it may induce modifications in the social and cultural environment. Nevertheless, current market reality requires multifunctionality of rural areas and tourism may play the key role in that process.

Keywords: tourism, natural environment

INTRODUCTION

The World Tourism Organization defines contemporary tourism as all the activities of the people that travel and stay for the purpose of recreation, business or other for the period no longer than one year away from their daily environment excluding trips for which income-generating activity paid for in the location visited is the main purpose. Such a wide definition encompasses both the element of travel and the set of social, economic and environmental conditions. According to such a concept, tourism is an interdisciplinary phenomenon. As a method of satisfying the needs for a change of the natural and cultural environment, tourism represents a mental experience. It takes place within specific geographic, cultural and technical conditions. It is a segment of business, a method for personality development, a way of gaining knowledge of the world, regeneration of physical and mental strength and one of the models of didactic influences. Tourism, as a complex and multileveled phenomenon is within the area of interest and research of numerous scientific disciplines in the following aspects:

- as a psychological and social phenomenon – satisfying the needs, imaginations, behaviours and experiences of the man and interpersonal influences;
- as an economic phenomenon, in the context of tourism market establishment;
- as a cultural phenomenon – it is a component and expression of the culture, mutual influence and transformations of cultures;
as a spatial phenomenon – migrations of tourists in space and appropriate preparation of the space; in the areas where tourism develops natural environment is transformed for its needs, infrastructure elements in the form of accommodation and gastronomy facilities, transport infrastructure and other accompanying objects permitting use of the tourist values appear. In that context, tourism is the subject of interest and research of scientific disciplines dealing with space development and description such as geography and landscape architecture as well as disciplines related to the natural environment protection such as, e.g. ecology (Golembski, 2002; Jędrysiak, 2010; Kurek, 2007).

The aim of the paper is to present the rank of mutual relations between the development of tourist services within a given space and their influence on the natural environment as well as the influence of the natural environment on tourists.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Source materials in the form of scientific publications and books presenting the issues of the influence of tourism function on the status of preservation of the natural environment values were used in the paper. Analysis of subject literature allowed evaluation of the degree of space transformation under the influence of tourist development according to the needs of the given product. In the studies, the monographic method was used (Łobocki, 2000). The comparative analysis conducted allowed showing the mutual correlations between tourism development and the natural environment within which it is taking place. The selected examples are also the result of own studies and site observations.

TOURISM FUNCTION DEVELOPMENT AND THE NATURAL ENVIRONMENT

According to Krzymowska-Kostrowicka (1997), tourism, including recreation is the form of human activity linked to the natural environment the most tightly. This results from many causes of both biological and cultural nature. The need of contact with the nature is inherent but the method of that contact and possible obtaining of benefits from that contact are conditioned culturally. The biological component, however, is always sound at the base of those needs, even the most sophisticated ones.

The following types of the tourism – nature interactions can be identified:

- influence of tourism on the nature (types and patterns of tourist behaviours in relation to the environment, technical-organisational parameters of tourism infrastructure);
- nature and the recipient of human influences (resistance of elements of the nature to the tourism pressure, efficiency of the adjustment mechanisms operation);
- influence of the environment on tourism and recreation (quality of natural values conditioning implementation of recreation and tourism programmes, importance of the natural environment as the factor “sorting” tourism and recreation behaviours).
In relation to the natural elements of the environment, recreational activity has both conservative (positive) character in the sense of protecting areas of attractive landscape from consequences of the other forms of use and destructive (negative) character in case of disturbing their environmental balance. Hence, the intensity of use of a given spatial unit for tourism depends on the recreational potential of its environment that may be expressed quantitatively using the measure of capacity for tourism (natural). That parameter defines the resistance of the natural environment to the tourism pressure, i.e. the “maximum number of tourism traffic participants that may stay within a given area without causing degradation of natural values and hence deteriorating the conditions for recreation” (figures 1 and 2).

Dependence of tourism on the environment is much larger than that of other sectors of the economy. Hence, degradation of landscape, i.e. such elements of it as the soil, air, water, flora and fauna as well as various types of human activities must lead to destruction of tourism sooner or later. That is why both the tourists and organisers of tourism must remember that well maintained natural environment and cultural heritage are priceless for tourism and the environmental awareness development function of modern tourism is increasing in importance. Environmental education gives shape to the relations between the man and the nature. It shows that the man is dependent on the environment and that he is responsible for all changes that he makes in it. Because of striving towards maximisation of profits from tourism and neglecting education of the local population on those issues, the natural environment and values of the region that used to attract tourism are degraded frequently. Excessive infrastructure development and loss of individualism – the climate of the location of the so-called spirit of the place, its

Figure 1. Looks of a fragment of the University Campus in Kortowo (May 2012)  
Source: Author (E. Marks)
*genius loci* results in limiting tourist traffic and loss of income of the local population. Uncontrolled tourism results in impoverishment of the ecosystems and change of their functional characteristics resulting from trampling the soil, arrival of means of transport, killing the animals (hunting, fishery), picking plants, development of land by construction, accumulation of waste and pollutions, intensification of fires or presence of people scaring the animals off (Gaworecki, 2000, Nowak, 2009, Ryszkowski, 1984).

![Figure 2. „Landscape after the battle” – after the Yearly Rejoicing of Students](image)

Source: Author (E. Marks)

Suitability of the area for tourism and recreation is determined to a high extent the development of specific forms of tourism while its attractiveness determines the intensity of tourism use. Correlation of tourist areas’ attractiveness and their natural values leading to concentration of tourism in naturally valuable areas usually characterised at the same time by high sensitivity to anthropopressure results in the permanent dilemma: should we protect what is precious or should we make available what is attractive. Tourism seen as the activity intervening strongly in the natural environment threatens, first of all, the protected areas. Hence, attempts at reconciling tourist traffic with the necessity of protecting valuable ecosystems represent a current issue all the time (Iwaniuk, 1998, Lijewski et al., 2002).

All elements of development for tourism leave permanent footprint in the landscape of naturally valuable areas, national parks in particular. The objects that make the most mark in the panorama of those areas are the permanent buildings and structures such as tourist hostels, cable cars as well as some extensively used hiking and cycling routes in mountain national parks (e.g. in the Tatra Mountains, the Karkonosze Mountains). While the architecture of mountain hostels in the Tatra Mountains or the Karkonosze Mountains is relatively well harmonised with
the natural environment, the cable cars or ski lifts are entirely strange to the mountain landscape. Generally, alpine skiing is an example of very aggressive consumption of space for tourism and recreation. The largest and irreversible changes in the environment take place during construction of ski pistes and routes (figures 3 and 4).

The negative influence occurring during the use of the routes can be limited by means of appropriate design and proper maintenance as well as education of the users. During the route operation, the influence of cycling tourism on the landscape values is comparable to that of hiking (Kowalski, Tarajko-Kowalska, 2008; Marks, 2011a; Partyka, 2010; Staffa, 2010).

Negative consequences of tourist development and use of the space of national parks are difficult to avoid as they result from the necessity of securing appropriate conditions of stay and safety of the visitors. They, however, have destructive influence on the natural environment of the parks. The forms of their negative influence on the natural and landscape resources are diversified. The following ones should be listed among the most important of them (Kurek 2007):

- urbanisation of the environment as a consequence of tourist and accompanying infrastructure development,
- air pollution with exhaust gases from vehicles,

Figure 3. New Panorama of the Land of Hutsuls as the outcome of tourist development (skiing station „Bukovel“ in the Carpathians – Ukraine)

Source: Author (E. Marks)
• water pollution,
• noise caused by excessive concentration of visitors in some parts of national parks,
• landscape damage by tourism related objects and devices, their inappropriate location, excessive use, frequent lack of aesthetic values, littering on tourist routes and in the surrounding of tourist accommodation and gastronomy facilities.

Photo 4. Artificial view opening as a result of the natural vegetation coverage destruction
Source: Author (E. Marks)

The influence of recreation and tourism on the natural environment is a serious environmental problem in the increasingly intensively penetrated protected areas. Control of tourism and recreation influences within their area should involve maintaining small scale of tourist traffic and introducing uneven opportunities for visiting specific sections of the area by concentration or scattering the traffic by means of diversifying the intensity of development (Collins, 1999; Ryszkowski, 1984; Ważyński, 1995).

Tourism, drawing directly from the natural values should bring in modern forms of development based on sustainable principles that allow taking care of its natural base. Combining the issues of functioning of the nature with the economic and social outcomes creates the base for sustainable development of tourist areas (Kamieniecka 1998). Sustainable tourism fulfils an important function in the protected areas. Hence, it should be planned and implemented carefully. Accomplishment of the balance between the tourist function and protection of natural
and landscape values should be possible by application of a specially prepared set of rules of general planning of tourism that may be defined to as the “code of good practice in tourism”. The code of good practice in tourism should contain the principles of planning tourism concerning the program of tourist traffic monitoring and control in relation to individual protected areas, groups of such areas and entire regions. Development of sustainable tourism in a protected area involving wide tourist availability of the area and maximisation of benefits obtained from tourism coupled with maintaining the quality, quantity and spatial system of the natural and landscape values could be considered. Such a status of tourism function development within a protected area might be termed the maximum ecological carrying tourism (Żarska 2009).

Kasprzak (1998) sees the causes of threats and transformations to the natural environment resulting from the development of tourism in both the direct influence of tourists on the environment and the tourist objects and devices used in servicing tourists, particularly in case of inappropriate development and excessively intensive use of them and faulty location of development by construction. The problem applies in particular to forest areas. On the other hand, Liszewski (1995) highlights the issue of the evolution of changes in the environment resulting from tourism and recreation function development. The author identifies the following types of tourism space:

1. Tourism exploration space. This is the space of discovering something, searching for something but also of studying the unknown areas.
2. Tourism penetration space. It is develops where individual and group tourists practice tourism for knowledge building purposes. It is characterised by diversified tourist traffic intensity and emergence of diversified infrastructure that allows “consumption” of that space.
3. Tourism assimilation area. It develops in locations where the tourist establishes closer contacts with the local population.
4. Tourism colonisation area. It develops everywhere where the process of permanent takeover and development of new land by objects that serve tourism which change the earlier use of the land takes place.
5. Tourism urbanisation space. This is created by permanent settlement in areas captured by tourism.

The above presented evolutorial landscape transformations apply mainly to rural areas. The decrease in importance of agricultural functions, the problem of laying the land waste and simultaneous development of recreational functions caused significant changes on the looks of traditional rural landscapes. The examples of transformation resulting from development by construction of individual recreational buildings quoted by many authors are the most negative phenomena. Such trends are the cause of many hazards for the natural environment. Excessive development, particularly of compact recreational settlements in forest areas introduces unfavourable barrier elements into the landscape structure. Long stretches of fencing created by
fences of neighbouring lots become significant environmental barriers with different level of permeability for individual animal species (figures 5 and 6).

Figure 5. Forest fragmentation resulting from individual recreational development (part 1)
Source: Author (E. Marks)

Figure 6. Forest fragmentation resulting from individual recreational development
Source: Author (E. Marks)
Unfavourable influence of barriers of that type is also significant when recreational lots create compact stripes stretching along river valleys. Large contrasts between the way of development and standard of facilities positioned on individual lots can be seen commonly. Those contrasts result not only from the financial potential of the owners but also from the level of interest in the recreational property held. Next to splendid, well cared for, new and old houses we can find camping houses and trailers of diversified style as well as undefined forms that could be named recreational slams. The unused and devastated company recreational facilities the ruins and destroyed elements of technical, recreational and sanitary infrastructure of which decrease the attractiveness of the area present a very gloomy picture. Littering of not only the summer housing areas but also of all rural areas, visible particularly well along roads, edges of forest complexes and at locations of local extraction of all kinds of resources is a frequent issue (Jędrysiak, 2010, Krukowska et al., 2010; Krysiak 2010).

At the same time, development of tourism within the frameworks of agrotourism and other forms of rural tourism may and should create entirely new opportunities for using the rural space based on the existing agricultural buildings and new tourist facilities established. Such activity activates rural areas and locations. New structures harmoniously matching the existing regional architecture will not disrupt the existing spatial order offering potential for development of non-agricultural functions (figures 7 and 8).

Figure 7. Agritourism farm „U Chłopa” in the panorama of the village of Chmielno (Kashubian Landscape Park – part 1)
Source: Author (E. Marks)
Concentration of accommodation services and the entire tourist infrastructure in the existing rural settlements is of particular importance for retaining the values of valuable rural areas. Comprehensively organised offer will then be available to everybody. Covered by legal control, it will fulfil the function of the factor protecting the areas against the invasion of summer housing construction satisfying individual needs of the selected group of people (Baranowska-Janota, Korzeniak 1991). The fact that agricultural areas are characterised by much higher resistance to the pressure of tourism compared to the permanent forest habitats is also an exceptionally important fact (Krzymowska-Kostrowicka 1997).

Decreasing importance of agriculture and the necessity of development of multifunctionality in the old traditional villages as well as the resulting transformations of the areas have become a fact in many European countries. Tourism and recreation functions may play the key role in that process as they generate a number of additional services (trade, crafts, gastronomy, agricultural processing). They also involve specific feedback – the increased demand for local raw materials and food products (particularly organic ones) stimulates the agriculture. If purposeful transformations are preceded by identification of the regional potential then introduction of new functions does not have to degrade the values of the agricultural cultural landscape. It may even influence its significant improvement by creating the new qualities (figures 9 and 10) (Buus et al., 2006; Knauer, 2009; Marks, 2011b).
Figure 9. „Safari” as a new function of agricultural space
(Eco-farm in Zatyki – Goldap County – part 1)
Source: Author (E. Marks)

Figure 10. „Safari” as a new function of agricultural space
(Eco-farm in Zatyki – Goldap County)
Source: Author (E. Marks)
CONCLUSION

Dynamic and not always controlled development of tourism infrastructure may be a significant source of anthropopressure on the natural environment. Indirectly, it may also cause modifications of the social and cultural environment. However, the current market reality forces multifunctionality of rural areas and tourism may play the key role in that process. That is why appropriate instruments of regional policy concerning sustainable development of tourism function with effective mechanisms of environment status protection and control mechanisms are very important. The resources of space in rural areas are limited and the physical and cultural environment plays an important role in every type of tourism. Hence, the issues of natural and cultural environment protection should become the binding standard in a natural way. The fact is also important that group tourism (but not mass tourism), taking into account the interests of the natural and cultural environment is more favourable for the rural areas that the change of the agricultural function into recreational function as a result of the development of individual summer housing.

REFERENCES


Part 2

Improving tourism competitiveness throughout cooperation, innovation and creative industries
INTRODUCTION

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Maturing of the particular tourism markets and impact of globalization, both on tourism and communities, force local governments and populations to look for new opportunities and drivers of economic development. There is a growing understanding that sustainable competitiveness may be achieved only by building of strong local networks that can provide added value to products offered to the outside world. New strategies of local development involve search for synergies between particular types of economic activities. Tourism may be a valuable partner for many of such activities and creative industries are often mentioned as an example. Therefore it is interesting to explore how the synergy has been utilized in Polish cities.

The processes described above gave impulse to theoretical reflection on the concept of tourism destinations. The stress has moved from analysis of elements of tourism supply located in particular geographical spaces to exploration of the multiple links between tourism and other elements constituting that space. That has led to implementation of the concept of adaptive systems to tourism destinations. The study of interrelations between stakeholders of tourism development, creation and development of local networks will be a key to formulation of effective polices and sustainable competitiveness of destinations.

The relationship between tourism and other types of economic activities have been explored in papers included into this part of the book. Innovation and networking as methods of improving effectiveness of tourism businesses are issues that have been addressed by surveys conducted in Cracow. The special opportunity for such co-operation and gains from it are offered by knowledge-intensive business services (KIBS). The output of the survey conducted among tourism enterprises catering for business tourism reveals the high incidence of the co-operation. The tourism firms tend to outsource the services in which they lack expertise and those that can give them the competitive edge.

The innovative models of tourism development are not restricted to its economic aspects. The social implications of participation in tourism are also important but there are segments of the society that cannot afford it. Foster families are in an especially difficult position in this respect. The non-governmental organizations may be a valuable provider of the
specialized tourism services tailored to the needs of such families, both children and parents. The case of action undertaken by one of such organizations in Poland is extensively discussed.

As it has been mentioned above innovation is a must in the modern competitive tourism market. It is usually associated with enterprises but innovative solutions may be implemented also at destination level. The analysis of the Strategy of Tourism Development in Zachodniopomorskie Voivodship till 2015 reveals that the level of institutional support for innovative activities of enterprises is too low. It embraces occasional actions and does not create the innovation system.

Festivals, cultural events are at the centre of policies supporting creativity and cultural industries. But the fact that they are popular does not mean that they are effective in achieving multiple goals set by their promoters. The case of the event restaging the historical wedding in Heidelberg, Germany demonstrates weaknesses of bureaucratic promotional initiative that failed to involve local citizens. Lack of real emotions and openly commercial motives behind the event made it a typical cultural production that only pretends being a local experience.
CHAPTER 2.1.

THE CREATIVE INDUSTRIES AS A FACTOR IN DEVELOPMENT

OF TOURISM IN THE POLISH CITIES

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INTRODUCTION

Rapid structural changes in the world economy prompted efforts focused on search for new pathways of development. The issue is relevant both for whole nations and small communities but especially cities and towns were hit by effects of these phenomena. The deepness and fast pace of the changes made obvious the fact that the high position in the world economy was not given for ever. The traditional production factors quickly lose their potential as drivers of the long term development and the key is the ability to innovate (Porter, Ketels & Delgado 2007).

It is quite obvious that innovation and creativity are closely linked but the real challenge is how to steer them for the benefit of the society. A source of inspiration has been found in culture that is deeply rooted in individual creativity but has also a power to affect activities of groups of people and shapes their sense of identity. The interest in economic impact of culture was reinforced by neo-liberal ideology with its call for “lean government” (Böhm, Land 2007). Since the 80-ties the concepts of creative industries and creative economy, creative cities, creative class and districts have started to appear in research and political discourse. Tourism is often mentioned as one of the main sectors that can capitalize on creativity and a way of economic development linked to creative sector (Thorsby 2010; UNESCO 2012). Therefore in many strategies support for culture and development of creative industries are presented as a tool for economic development through tourism. But the relationship between creative sector, tourism and development is not a straightforward one (Landry 2006). In fact the mechanisms of the value creation from creativity to tourism and measurement of it are still poorly learned and implemented (UNCTAD 2010).

The paper attempts to fill the gap as some aspects of the role of creative industries in development of tourism in Polish cities are concerned. Its main purpose is to answer two questions:

- how the relationship between the creative sectors and tourism is presented in city strategies,
• how to measure the effectiveness of such strategies or paths of development?

The first question is addressed by analysis of four cases and as solution in the second question a correlation measurement has been proposed. The cases selected for the study include documents on culture development strategies from Warsaw, Cracow, Torun and Lodz. They have been selected because they are among a few Polish cities that have robust explicit strategies for culture development and because they are interesting due to their individual characteristics.

Creative sector and tourism in urban development strategies

As it has been mentioned above the concepts of creativity and creative industries became widely used in discourse on urban regeneration, economic and social development (Klasik 2012). It does not mean that the concepts are clearly defined and their impact well researched. The first attempts of delineation of the concepts were undertaken in the UK and then by UNESCO (UNESCO 2009) and UNCTAD (DeNatale, Wassall 2006; UNCTAD 2008). For creative industries and creative sector some consensus has been achieved as its main components and structure are concerned. They are presented as the concentric layers spreading along the value creation chain from the core creative arts, industries enabling their consumption and industries that use the content they provide for the commercial offers (Thorsby 2010, UNCTAD 2010). UNESCO and the EU use for them the term “cultural and creative industries” while UNCTAD label all of them as “creative industries” or “creative sector”. The concept of a creative city assumes that the urban regeneration may be more viable if founded on creativity. In his last works the author of the term Ch. Landry argues that the concept should go beyond just creative sector and unleash creative potential of all people involved in city life (Landry 2006).

The discussions on the meaning of particular terms linked to creativity should not obscure the fact that they are about development of policies making cities better place to live, providing identity, economic stabilization and opportunities for self-actualization for their inhabitants and guests. In this context the connection between tourism and creativity can be analyzed along several lines. One of them shows the input the creativity, or in the narrower sense creative industries, can provide for tourism. G. Richards (2011) argues that the three types of relationship between tourism and creative sector can be distinguished. The first one, the most traditional, can be linked to the concept of cultural tourism understood as prepackaged cultural experience based on consumption of the cultural products and services. The second approach involves the more direct interaction between visitors-consumers and producers of the cultural content. It is facilitated by formation of creative districts or clusters within a city that provide the space for such encounters. The third type of relationship is based on the active participation of the visitor in production of the service and of experience it is to deliver. As examples of such tourist offers participation in production of local craft, dance festivals etc. can be mentioned. It is a part of the
broader trend observed in creative industries when the line between the producer and consumer of the service is blurred (Böhm, Land 2007).

According to G. Richards and J. Wilson (2006) some basic strategies can be traced as a way that cities employ in attempts to improve their position in the competitive tourism market. They include: the construction of iconic objects, hosting of hallmark cultural or sport events and building of the identity that may create the unique selling proposition for the city. All those strategies are rooted in creativity and creative industries play the key role in their execution. But there may be important differences as their contribution to local development and sustainability of the strategy are taken into consideration. Strategies founded on spectacular events or constructions may employ mainly outside specialists so if there is not a program of transfer of know-how the impact of such undertakings may be short-lived. They are also prone to imitation: after the success of Guggenheim Museum in Bilbao many cities invited construction of buildings branded by names of trendy architects. The successful events are arranged in similar fashion by many cities (like events surrounding the nomination as the European City of Culture). Regeneration concepts are also copied like transformation of old docks into entertainment districts, conversion of the postindustrial constructions into theme parks or so called creative centers associated mainly with experimental arts. Efforts directed towards building of the distinct identity that are based on local traditions may be more sustainable because they cannot be easily imitated. It is especially true if they involve the continuous efforts and initiatives filling the urban space with different examples of creative activities (Mitrache 2012). Strategies of this type limit the risk of imitation and moral obsolesce. They should attract visitors by renewing their interest in the city and they may allow creation of the unique value of local goods and services. But even such efforts may go the wrong if they follow the cosmopolitan standards of commodification of culture and tradition (Richards and Wilson 2006).

The described strategies pursue the well-established way of thinking about tourism, local development, creativity and creative industries. In this tradition tourism is perceived as a medium for economic use of the symbolic values inherent in culture and products of creative industries. The economic value of the latter is realized as expenditure of visitors who were attracted by creative offer of the city or bought there some cultural goods or services. D. Throsby (2010) explores the phenomenon showing that if such strategies are to be implemented they should make distinction between cultural tourists and mass tourists. The former are attracted by cultural offer, usually representing so called high-culture, and they are a niche market while the latter are drawn by popular attractions which may include creative content. So the whole consumption of the first group may be treated as culture contribution to the economy while in the second case only spending on cultural products and services. The similar way of thinking is presented in UNESCO Framework for Cultural Statistics (UNESCO 2009).

The review of possible links between tourism and creative sector development reveals that there are also less obvious ones. These synergies are still important for local development, at
least if tourism is perceived as one of important economic activities for a particular city. That extended set of common areas of interest includes (M. Cogo 2009, in: OECD):

a) development of new offers for cultural tourism that are based on tangible and intangible heritage and/or new ideas;
b) place promotion due to movies, novels etc;
c) enrichment to the traditional mass tourism offer like beach tourism;
d) promotion of particular places that increases awareness of their existence, values.

All of the above mentioned applications of the creative sector inputs may result in increase of the tourism spending and tourism economy but tracing the links and their quantification is not as easy as in the case of cultural tourism or spending on cultural goods and services. It is surprising that business tourism is rarely discussed in the context of the impact of creative sector on tourism development. It fact creative businesses are often involved in organization of fairs, exhibitions, congresses etc. as main sponsors or as supporters. The described possibilities for relations between tourism and creative sector show how difficult it is to measure its actual input to tourism economy.

The issue of measurement is an important impediment to development and appreciation of strategies based on that relationship. The task is even further complicated by the fact that many core attractions are provided as public goods and benefits from their development go to another businesses. The problem with such strategies is compounded by inherent feature of urban tourism: short duration of stays that limits the financial flows visitors can bring (OECD 2009).

Anyway strategies of local development or development of cultural activities often mention tourism in different contexts. The examination of four such strategies developed in Polish cities may shed light on the relationship between creative sector and tourism development in Polish cities.

Tourism in strategies of culture development – the case of selected Polish cities

The analysis covers strategies adopted by self-government of Cracow, Lodz, Warsaw and Torun. The documents are very different as the content and process of their formulation are concerned (Dziedzic 2013). All of them contain the audit, vision, development goals and actions that should be taken to realize them. Strategy for Warsaw was developed by the task force representing members of groups involved in animation of culture. Strategy for Torun was authored by the consulting firm which gathered input from the local stakeholders by focus groups, interviews and web survey. The same firm facilitated the preparation of the strategy for Cracow but its role there was supportive for the team of local activists and experts. The document for Lodz does not contain information on authors or process of its formulation.

The analyzed cities can be classified according to the role of tangible heritage and tradition in their structure. Warsaw and Lodz may be described as cities for which that components are not
the most important. Lodz was established in the 19th century, and due to the II world war demolition Warsaw underwent almost total change of built environment and social fabric. Cracow represents the material and cultural tradition and Torun has outstanding architectural monuments although its population was almost completely changed after the II world war.

As visions of culture development are concerned Warsaw has been characterized as open, modern, creative and highly diversified. Its goals are to ensure active participation of inhabitants in culture, creation of strong identity and effective management of cultural initiatives and funds spent. The model that is to be realized can be summarized as: people, creativity, places and spaces, image, identity and management. The main themes in the strategy for Lodz are very similar: identity, participants, talents, management. Strategy for Cracow contains 5 goals: Cracow community as patron of artists and culture. Cracow as location for modern institutions, Creative city Cracow, co-operation of the self-government with other entities involved in cultural activities, conservation of the cultural heritage. Priorities set up for Torun embrace: the offer clearly associated with city, high quality and support for start-ups, support for cultural diversity, cultural heritage. They been summed up as: Torun as location of creative institutions and venue for significant cultural events. Even such short description shows that the theme of creativity has been stressed in all strategies. The connection between the declared goals, planned actions and tourism are shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Creativity and tourism in the Polish cities’ strategies of culture development

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>City</th>
<th>Actions involving creativity</th>
<th>Links to tourism</th>
<th>Metrics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Warsaw</td>
<td>Support for creative sector</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Building of the identity</td>
<td>Interative maps</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>and information</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>system arranged</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>around themes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lodz</td>
<td>Support for film industry</td>
<td>Business tourism</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>and creative sector</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Promotion of the city</td>
<td>Tourism products</td>
<td>Implicitly – certificates for best tourist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>identity</td>
<td>events as a</td>
<td>products</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cracow</td>
<td>Promotion of the personalities</td>
<td>Tourist routes</td>
<td>Number of themed routes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Conservation of the</td>
<td>Religious tourism</td>
<td>Implicit – number of cultural tourists</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>heritage and its promotion</td>
<td></td>
<td>Position of the city in specialized</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Torun</td>
<td>Development of the cultural</td>
<td>Increase of the</td>
<td>Increase of the number and duration of the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>offer</td>
<td>number of cultural tourists</td>
<td>stay</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Number of businesses in tourism and creative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>industries, employment</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The data in table 1 show that only three cities explicitly linked creative sector with tourism development. In Lodz it was rather business tourism that was linked to those creative industries which used to be the most specific for the city: movie and fashion industries. In Torun and Cracow the standard perception of the connection between creativity and cultural tourism prevailed but only in Torun there was explicit indication that it should stimulate both the creative and tourism economy.

The analysis reveals that there is an understanding of the relationship between creative industries and tourism although the extent of that understanding and ideas how to utilize it are limited. Such approach to tourism is especially visible in Warsaw’s strategy where visitors as consumers of the city cultural offer are equaled with city residents. They are treated rather as passive consumers of the city cultural offer than partners in their creation. In passages on co-operation between stakeholders of culture development tourism enterprises have not been mentioned in any of the examined documents. The economic role of tourism also seems to be underestimated with the notable exception of Torun. Tourism is perceived more as a vehicle for promotion and building the identity through “the eyes of others”.

The relationship between development of tourism and creative industry in Polish cities

The reason for the relatively weak use of the potential of tourism as a stimulator of creative sector and local economy may lie in problems with the measurement of the economic output of such relationships. As it was mentioned above it is usually measured as expenditure of cultural tourists and spending on cultural products of other visitors. The problem is that such method is both expensive and inaccurate. Many cities are not prepared to spend money on such surveys and their results may be biased due to sampling or non-sampling errors. The survey may be also conducted among businesses serving visitors but they have similar limitations.

There is also the problem of too narrow understanding of relationship between tourism and creative economy. As is was shown many segments of business travel may be attributed to creative industries development, the same may be said about other types of tourism attracted by promotion facilitated by creative activities.

There is no easy solution of the problem but measurement of correlation between size of the creative sector and tourism may offer insight into relationship between them. Table 2 show the results of such calculation for Polish cities. It coveres the cities treated as third level administrative units (poviat). The reasons for such choice are both logical as practical. On one hand the creative industries tend to be localized in bigger cities and on the other hand the
necessary data are relatively available. They were extracted from the Bank of Local Data operated by The Central Statistical Office (GUS).

The analysis covers the creative industries as defined by UNCTAD except architecture. The exception was made due to problem of data availability. The size of the creative sector was measured by the number of registered businesses and size of tourism as number of nights spent in collective accommodation. The selected activities have two-digit codes according to NACE ver.2 (the code for every activity has been shown in parentheses). Again rationale for such choice was both practical and logical. They are the only data which are easily available but they also quite well illustrate both creative sector and tourism. The metrics used for creative sector allow measurement of the influence of micro businesses that may have more impact on local tourism than branches of multinational corporation active in creative sectors (UNCTAD 2010). As for tourism nights spent in accommodation are commonly used as indicator of tourism development in particular destinations. The data have been divided by the number of inhabitants of the city so that the size of the city could be accounted for. Calculations have been done for year 2012 with software STATISTICA10.PL.

Table 2. Pearson correlation between size of tourism and creative sector in Polish cities, year 2012

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Pearson correlation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>0.6617</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The operation of museums of all kinds, botanical and zoological gardens; the preservation of historical sites; and nature reserves activities (91)</td>
<td>0.5441</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creative, arts and entertainment activities (90)</td>
<td>0.6691</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other professional, scientific and technical activities (74)</td>
<td>0.5950</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advertising and market research (73)</td>
<td>0.6079</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motion picture, video and television programme production, sound recording and music publishing activities (59)</td>
<td>0.4331</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Publishing activities (58)</td>
<td>0.6370</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*P<0.05 a) after elimination of outlying points for Sopot and Swinoujscie (renown coastal resorts)*

Source: own elaboration

The data in table 2 show high correlation between the tourism and variables represented creative industries. Pearson correlation was statistically significant after elimination of two outlying points representing coastal resorts where attracting factors other than creative industries are important. The data seem to support claims about the strong relationship of the creative industries and tourism. It is especially true for arts and entertainment and cumulative size of the creative sector. The latter indicates that claims about synergies among different creative
industries really work as a stimulus. Cities whose strategies have been examined show different outcomes. Cracow has tourism developed better than the size of its creative sector, Lodz and Torun lie near the regression line. It is interesting to notice that in Lodz the correlation between the movie industry and tourism is relatively weak while for fashion industry it is strong. For Warsaw museums seem to be the performing especially well as compared to other creative industries while the opposite may be said about situation in Torun.

Conclusions

The synergy between creative sector and tourism presents one of the options as local development is considered. The analysis of culture development strategies show that approaches to the opportunity may differ. But even if it is not the conscious choice there is a potential for realization of common benefits for all stakeholders: host population, creative and tourism sector businesses, visitors. As measurement of the effects may be one of the impediments to such cooperation the correlation coefficients as simple monitoring tool has been proposed. The method of assessment of the relationship between tourism and creative industries has the deficiencies of correlation measurement but it may be used for at least rough assessment of the effects of particular policies supporting tourism and creativity.

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CHAPTER 2.2.

FROM A TRADITIONAL TO A CONTEMPORARY CONSIDERATION OF A TOURISM DESTINATION

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Abstract: The paper is the review of the key tourism destination concepts, whose emergence is the result of intensive development of tourism, maturation of theoretical thought, and theorists attempt to influence the practice of tourism development to a greater extent than in the past. The traditional view of the destination is largely based on its geographical characteristics. Mid-1990s marked the beginning of a systemic approach to a destination, which focuses the interaction between tourists, staff in industries that provide tourism services, and local population. Nowadays it is actual understanding of a destination as a complex adaptive system, which attracts attention with its comprehensiveness and in-depth approach. Complex adaptive systems are called adaptive because their elements adapt to events around them. The interactions among their elements are carried out according to certain rules, and are of a dynamic nature. They are influenced by and influence the external environment, and such systems have the capacity to learn from experience and change.

Keywords: tourism, destination, concept, system, stakeholder

INTRODUCTION

Tourism is an increasingly important factor in international political and economic relations, whose dynamic rise was particularly pronounced in the last decades of the 20th century. Although the rate of growth of world tourism in the first decade of the 21st century declined, primarily due to the deteriorating political and security situation in some parts of the world and a large outbreak of the global economic crisis, it is expected that in the 2020, approximately, 1.6 billion people will take part in international tourist flows. The economic importance of tourism phenomenon on a global scale is best illustrated by the fact that the tourist economy is in fifth place in the international trade of goods and services, beyond transport of fossil fuels, chemical products, telecommunications and computer equipment, and agricultural products. Globally, the direct involvement of tourism in global GDP in 2007 amounted to 3.6%, and it is estimated that in 2017 it will amount to 4.3%. Taking into account, apart from direct effects, indirect economic effects of tourism, the share of this
sector in the world’s GDP is significantly higher and amounts 10.4% (WTTC, 2007). These results and the strong rise of tourism as an economic and socio-cultural phenomenon is primarily caused by consumption of an increasing number of tourists, who, every year, temporarily leave their place of residence and go to different destinations, which are a target of tourist’s movements.

‘Destination’ is one of the most frequently used words in tourism, but it is used very differently by different actors. It seems that the related word spreads confusion rather than brings clearness because there seemingly is some systematically self-contradictions in the use of the word. ‘Is the destination an attraction, or a geographical unit, or an empirical relationship or a marketing object, or a place where tourism happens, or...and so on’ (Framke, 2002:98).

The fact is that scientific-theoretical thought lags behind developed tourism practice, where the differences in expert opinions are highly expressed. However, in recent decades theoretical thought in tourism has significantly intensified, with full attention paid to the analysis and accurate interpretation of important concepts, including the concept of destination, that are integral parts of practice of tourism development, but also the subject of scientific research. On this occasion, the focus will be put on the key concepts of a tourism destination, whose emergence is the result of intense development of tourism as a complex phenomenon of the modern age, maturation of theoretical thought, and theorists attempt to more influence on the practice of tourism development than in the past.

The conceptual framework of modern tourism

Among the many interpretations of the conceptual framework of tourism, it should be noted approach focuses the 3 key elements of tourism phenomena: the dynamic element, which includes making decisions on the tourist movement and the desired destination, which includes a range of social, economic and institutional factors affecting the adoption of such a decision; the destination element, which includes the tourists in the area that is the goal of their movement, and interaction with economic, social and natural subsystems of a given space; and the consequential element, which stems from the previous two and is manifested in the economic, socio-cultural and natural environmental effects that directly or indirectly touched on the quality of experience that tourists generate in destinations (Wall and Mathieson, 2006). Leiper (1990) outlines three key elements in the tourism system: 1) the traveler-generating region, 2) the tourist destination region, and 3) the transit route region.

Considering both approaches lead to the conclusion that the constituent elements of tourism are: the tourist need as a dynamic element that occurs in the place of residence and stimulates tourists to move to the destination, which is another important element, and the third is the consumption that is the result of the movement, which results in economic, social, environmental and other effects of tourism. According to mentioned, it seems clear why ‘the destination has been termed as the reason for travelling’ (Cooper et al., 2005), with a variety of
Tourism as an industry occurs at destination areas – areas with different natural and/or man-made features, which attract non-local visitors (or tourists) for a variety of activities’. Burkart and Medlik (1974), also, viewed the destination in the similar way, claiming that it is the geographical unit visited by tourists, regardless its boundaries. It means that, regarding geographical hierarchy, the destination can be a self-contained centre, as well as a country or a continent.

In addition to understanding a destination as a geographic area, without attempts to define its borders, the classical concept of a destination is characterized by the view that the terms...
which a place must meet to become a destination include: attractions, tourist accommodation, and transport to, from and within the destination (Howie, 2003). Consequently, the destination is seen as an agglomeration of attractions and services, which corresponds to the attitudes of other authors (Burkart and Medlik, 1974), who emphasize the importance of the contents/elements of destinations (attractions, facilities, infrastructure, transportation), but do not discuss cooperation within the destination nor the role of the tourists as actors in the destination. According to the classical concept, the tourists are seen as consumers in a destination only, that are satisfying their needs by using a destination’s supply of services, while neglecting the fact that changes in demand lead to changes in the structure of destination over time. It can be concluded that, according to the classical concept, the co-operation between the elements has not been seen as essential in constituting a destination.

Heath and Wall (1992), considering the geo-spatial aspects of tourism development, distinguish between the regions, on the one hand and the destinations on the other side, which are primarily treated as spatial units for tourism development at the local level. This approach is similar to attitudes that a destination is the smallest meaningful place with regard to the tourist’s demand, unlike the aforementioned authors, which talk about destinations on several geographic levels.

The contemporary/systemic approach to tourism destination

Mid-1990s, in academic circles, indicates the beginning of the "systemic approach" to tourism planning, so it is understandable that at that time a new, more comprehensive and complex understanding of a tourist destination occurs - it is beginning to be treated as a system. Advocating a systemic approach to tourism as a phenomenon and to a tourist destination, Butler (1999) points out that ‘tourism is too long been isolated from the world in which it exists’. A similar opinion is shared by the Wall (1996), noting that tourism should be considered in the context of the conditions in which its development takes place, and systems that interact with tourism. Interdependence of all the elements that make a tourist destination, and the effects of tourism’s impact (positive and negative) on various interest groups, can best be interpreted if the destination is treated as an open and flexible system (Leiper, 2000). The open system model focuses on the interaction between tourists, staff employed in industries involved in the production and provision of tourist services, and residents of tourist destinations. This model also takes into account the economic, legal, cultural, environmental and technological aspects of the tourism process, and identify relationships that exist between them.

In an attempt to overcome the pure geographical view of the destination, the UNWTO (2007) has proposed the broad definition: a local tourism destination is a physical space in which a visitor spends at least one overnight. It includes tourism products such as support services and attractions, and tourism resources within one day's return travel time. It has physical and
administrative boundaries defining its management, and images and perceptions defining its market competitiveness. Local destinations incorporate various stakeholders often including a host community, and can nest and network to form larger destinations. Although it is not clear why the destination is treated as a place where tourists spend at least one night (duration of stay in the destination should not be a criterion of its defining, unless if it is not a permanent relocation, but in this case a tourist destination becomes a place of residence), the said definition pointed to the importance of the basic elements of the tourism system (company/organisations, product, travel demand), and emphasized the role of many stakeholders, that are important for the existence and development of the destination (companies, local residents, management organisations).

Appart from attractions, tourist accommodation, and transport to, from and within the destination (key components of the traditional destination concept), Howie’s (2003) approach to the contemporary destination is embedded on the successful integration of the tourist-related developments into the changing activity patterns of the place on a long-term, sustainable basis. Thus he points out that the destination is in constant touch with its market, competitive, socio-economic and ecological environment. Similarly, Ritchie and Crouch (2003), thoroughly analyzing the marketing aspects of the destination system, set the hypothesis that one of the main determinants of a destination’s competitiveness is a balanced progress of all its components (economic, social, cultural, political, technological and environmental).

The systemic approach to the destination has been significantly evolved over the past 15-20 years. Laws (1995), points out that the general model of the open destination system consists of the primary elements that include both primary anthropogenic or natural attractions, and secondary elements that relate to built hospitality facilities and infrastructure, required for the development of tourism. As an open system, the destination is subject to influences from the environment (market, competitive, economic, ecological, socio-cultural, political, technological), trying to adequately respond to such impacts, and predict them, at the same time trying to influence the environment to the extent as possible. According to the same author, there are also closed systems of tourism destinations such as theme parks, where the maximum control is established over the input factors and subsystems/elements. Operation and coordination of their elements are focused primarily on visitor satisfaction, and economic benefits of individuals or legal entities who manage or own theme parks. However, from today's point of view, it is difficult to accept the concept of a "closed" destination system, because every destination is oriented to collaboration with other stakeholders in the immediate and distant environment, in order to achieve successful economic performance, satisfaction of tourists, and building a successful image in the market. E.g. Disney World Florida is the number one theme park in the world, separated in 4 theme parks and 2 water parks, all with their own great atmosphere and speciality. However, great wealth of attractions and amenities of this theme park can not be considered in isolation from services and facilities offered by the hundreds of hotels in the
immediate vicinity of the park. Management of the park and hotel companies share a common business interest, which is reflected in motivating tourists to visit this attractive area: more tourists to the park means higher occupancy of hotels; higher quality of services in the hotels means a higher level of satisfaction of visitors to the theme park.

Unlike grouping elements of destinations on the primary and secondary, as well as similar approaches by other authors who emphasize the importance of 'physical' elements (attractions, facilities, infrastructure), Cooper and Hall (2008) treat the tourism destination system in much more complex way. They stress the importance of three key components that contribute to a certain place to become a tourist destination: location, locale and sense of place. In locational terms a place is a specific point on the Earth’s surface. Locale includes tangible and intangible components of the certain place. The first component is a place as material or physical setting. Landscapes are the second component and refer to how portion of the Earth’s surface is seen. The third component, servicescapes refer to the physical facility in which a service is delivered and in which the service provider and customer interact. Finally, experiences are landscapes of produced experience (physical spaces of market production and consumption). Sense of place is related to the subjective, personal and emotional attitudes that people (tourists and local inhabitants) have towards a place. In this way, the mentioned authors have demonstrated a holistic approach to the destination as a system, taking into account its physical, geographical, marketing and socio-cultural characteristics and processes.

An important place in the literature on tourist destinations takes understanding that the destination is an industrial district created by combining the two sets of elements: abundance of various natural and anthropogenic resources, and a network of groups of actors (economic, non economic, institutional, etc). This understanding is rooted in Becattini’s (1990) definition of the industrial district as a ‘socio-territorial entity which is characterized by the active presence of both a community of people and a population of firms in one naturally and historically bounded area’.

A very important contribution to the study of the destination system gave Baggio & Cooper (2010), who, discussing the structure and the type of connections that bind the different elements within the destination system, found that these elements are subsystems composed of a number of stakeholders connected by a web of linkages. In that context, they conceptualize a destination as a network of connected organisations directly or indirectly related to tourism, but whose activity is very important for the good functioning of the destination system, each of which can be considered as a destination stakeholder.
Tourism destination as a complex adaptive system

Today is a very actual understanding of a destination as a complex adaptive system (Baggio and Sainaghi, 2011), which attracts attention with its comprehensiveness and in-depth approach. Consequently, the destination is a system of many parts which are coupled in a nonlinear fashion. That is why complex systems are more than the sum of their parts because a linear system is subject to the principle of superposition, while a nonlinear system is not. A nonlinear connection means that change on one side is not proportional to change on the other. When there are many nonlinearities in a system (many components as in the case of a tourist destination), behaviour can be as unpredictable, including destination stakeholders.

Complex adaptive systems are called adaptive because their elements adapt to events around them (Levin, 2003; Lewin, 1999). The interactions among their elements are carried out according to certain rules, and are of a dynamic nature. They are influenced by and influence the external environment, and such systems have the capacity to learn from experience and change. A key feature of these systems is reflected in the fact that they form structures that somehow maintain their integrity in the face of continuing change.

Starting from the premise that destinations are complex adaptive systems whose elements ‘interact with each other according to sets of rules that require them to examine and respond to each other’s behaviour in order to improve their behaviour and thus the behaviour of the system they comprise’ (Stacey, 1996), the future of tourism should not look too pessimistic, although the threat of climate change looming over the sector.

The main features of complex adaptive systems are (Scot et al., 2008; Levin, 2003): non-determinism, non-linear relationships between the components, presence of feedback cycles (positive or negative), emergence and self-organisation (self-reorganisation), limited decomposability, self-similarity, etc. A tourism activity as a system and tourism destination systems share many of these characteristics. Accordingly, tourism researchers should consider the complex systems approach as an effective tool for understanding tourism phenomenon.

Understanding of the destination as a complex adaptive system is partly inconsistent with the idea of a tourism area life cycle (TALC), which was set up by Butler (1980). Butler's concept is based on the fact that the destination goes through a cycle of evolution, similar to the life cycle of any other product, and it includes the following phases:

- **exploration**: tourists arrive at the destination due to its natural and cultural attractions, but their number is small due to the scarce capacity and infrastructure.
- **involvement**: locals take actions to ensure adequate supply for visitors, such as promotional activities and improvement of accommodation facilities.
- **development**: the local community becomes involved in promotion, attracting more visitors, and the area turns into an established tourism destination, with a defined
market; extensive tourist traffic approaches the upper threshold of carrying capacity of the destination.

- **consolidation**: tourism is an important economic and social activity affecting the traditional economies and lifestyles; tourist traffic grows at a smaller rate than before, although the number of visitors still increases. Resentment by the local population may occur.

- **stagnation**: increased local opposition to tourism and a growing awareness of environmental, socio-cultural and economic problems results in opposition to further growth. The maximum level of development is achieved, and the degree of the destination competitiveness in the market is reduced, due to the emergence of new and more attractive destinations on the market.

- **decline**: number of visitors and the amount of revenues in the destination decline drastically, due to the exhaustion of key attractions and resources; some tourist facilities have new owners, or change the purpose of use; an alternative to this situation is the orientation towards rejuvenation.

- **rejuvenation**: a secondary growth burst is initiated by some kind of renewal which includes following activities: adjustment of tourist traffic to the capacity of the local community, more balanced spatial and temporal distribution of demand, supply enrichment through the introduction of new contents, attracting new markets, etc

The model has been commented on, improved, developed and criticized numerous times (Butler, 2005). However, Butler’s model is considered to have an important role in providing useful frameworks for the description of a tourism destination, and in emphasizing the need for proactive strategic planning processes.

Baggio (2013) questions the validity of the mentioned model which is based on extremely simplified approach to the evolution of the destination system. A destination includes many different stakeholders connected by diverse relationships that are often non-linear. The response of the various stakeholders to external and internal inputs may be unpredictable as the outcomes of their behaviour (Haugland et al., 2011). Using such a model does not allow for accurate assessment of real behaviours and outcomes in the destination system, unless in cases where the evolution of the system is relatively linear over the observational time frame (Baggio and Cooper, 2010; Baggio 2013).

In contrast to the traditional idea of cause and effect which implies predictability, the concept of a complex adaptive system is based on the notion that its elements are connected by diverse non-linear relationships, and the outcomes of their behaviour, caused by external and external inputs, it is not predictable. That is why the best option is to use statistical methods for creating possible evolutionary scenarios and assign them a probability to happen. It is impossible to predict which among many possible stochastic paths originating from a certain point in time
and space the system will move on to. The only possibility is that of building different future scenarios and exploring how certain actions or conditions may affect their likelihoods (Baggio, 2013).

Complex adaptive systems theory facilitates us to understand the tourism ability to recover from the natural and man-made events that have occurred in recent period (the threat of bird flu, Indian Ocean tsunami and seaquake in 2004, emergence of the global economic crisis in 2008, swine flu outbreak in 2009, etc.), as well as ability of certain destinations to maintain great popularity among the tourist demand in the long term, e.g. Côte d’Azur (Jovicic, 2013). Non-linear relationships between their components, self-organizing dynamics, and other characteristics of complex adaptive systems, enable many tourism destinations to achieve the sustained growth in the second part of 20th century. It should be noted that tourism shown resistance to a series of energy crises between 1967 and 1979 caused by problems in the Middle East. The most significant one started in 1973, when the price of crude oil grew exponentially, adversely affecting economic growth in the U.S., Western Europe and Japan. Evidently, tourism both as an activity and an economic sector has expressed resistance to many negative inputs from internal and external environments since 1950 (Cooper, 2012).

**CONCLUSION**

Evolution of the concepts of a tourism destination in last several decades has been caused by intensive development of tourism, increase of complexity of tourism destinations structure, maturation of theoretical thought, and theorists attempt to influence the practice of tourism development to a greater extent than in the past. The traditional view of the destination is largely based on its geographical characteristics, which meant that the destination is the geographical unit visited by tourists, regardless its boundaries. Mid-1990s marked the beginning of a systemic approach to a destination, according to which it is perceived in a more comprehensive and complex way. The systemic concept of a destination is focused on the interaction between tourists, staff in industries that provide tourism services, and local population.

Nowadays it is actual understanding of a destination as a complex adaptive system, which attracts attention with its comprehensiveness and in-depth approach. In that context, a destination can be conceptualized as a network of connected stakeholders directly or indirectly related to tourism, whose activity is very important for the good functioning of the destination system. Information and knowledge flows in a destination network are relevant mechanisms for the general behaviour of the system, and the structure of the network will be influential in determining the efficiency of the destination’s attempts to share knowledge and innovate, and so remain competitive. Comprehensive study of the structure of such network can significantly contribute to the creation of high quality theoretical basis for the adoption of appropriate management decisions, which will make the network more efficient. Consideration of tourism
destinations as complex adaptive systems implies that the focus of observation (analysis) must be diverted from the solid structures to flexible processes, networked opinion, and opinion directed towards processes, as a prerequisite for mastering the principles of directing such systems.

There is no doubt that significant number of destinations in the future will face with serious global challenges which may adversely affect their business, such as climate changes, or the increase of production costs and use of energy. Deepening knowledge of the structure of a destination network, with emphasis on the study of non-linear relationships between their components and self-organizing dynamics, can greatly affect the reduction of possible negative effects caused by the mentioned factors.

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**DOCUMENTS**


CHAPTER 2.3.

THE IMPORTANCE OF PUBLIC-PRIVATE PARTNERSHIP IN ENHANCING TOURISM DESTINATION COMPETITIVENESS

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Abstract: In such a complex and competitive sector as tourism, enterprises as well as territorial units should develop synergies in order to achieve competitive advantage. However, the public-private partnership in tourism area is still not widely recognized in Poland. The aim of the paper is to present the theoretical background of public-private cooperation, its role in enhancing tourism destination competitiveness and to illustrate the scale of application of this form of partnership in tourism sector in Poland. Cooperation and dialogue between public and private stakeholders can lead to an improved complex tourism product, better quality of service, promotion and consequently to increased competitiveness.

Key words: public-private partnership, tourism destination competitiveness

INTRODUCTION

Public-private partnership (PPP) concept was first used in the UK in the early 1990s. Since that time, the infrastructure investments have been increasingly delivered by the PPP approach. First, PPP was developed in sectors requiring large investments, such as transport infrastructure, communal and other large infrastructure undertakings. The private sector’s participation in these activities is traditionally limited to planning, design and construction based on a fee-for-service agreement with a public entity. However, the modern concept of a PPP starts from the premise that the private sector has an active role not only in the process of implementation of joint activities, but also in the process of decision-making related to these activities (Durđević-Lukić, 2012). With time PPP has been developed in other sectors including tourism, as the financial benefits have been proven and public sector has gained experience (Wojewnik-Filipkowska, 2012).

In case of Poland PPP is a relatively new concept and there is very little literature on this subject, especially concerning the application of PPP to the tourist sector. Before 1990’s there was slight relationship between public and private sector and only state entities or state owned
companies carried out infrastructure development projects. In the 90's, as a result of political transformation and adapting to EU accession, development of modern legal system with first public procurement law occurred. However, this legislation was too demanding and too complex to serve regional and local procurement and it faced rather negative political climate. Finally the new act on PPP, which was adopted in 2008, enabled the further development of this form of cooperation.

The purpose of this paper is to establish a baseline of knowledge about the essence of PPP concept, its role in enhancing tourism destination competitiveness and to present the scale of application of this form of partnership in tourism sector in Poland. The paper presents the theoretical background based on the literature and law acts review as well as the results of two reports namely: „PPP Market Report. Assessment of the current state and prospects of financial commitment of the private and public sector in the development of PPPs in Poland 2013” and „PPP in sport, recreation and tourism in Poland 2013”.

THE CONCEPT OF PUBLIC-PRIVATE PARTNERSHIP

Citating after K. Kernagham (1993) partnership can be generally defined as a relationship that involves the sharing of power, work, support and/or information with others, to achieve common goals or mutual benefits. Public – private partnership in a broad economic sense is the relation between the public authorities and business entities. It is a very broad concept and takes a variety of forms and expressions across different countries and depends largely on the nature of scheme (PriceWaterhouseCoopers, 2004; Xie & Stough, 2002). In practice collaboration between public and private sector adopt many different forms like policy-making processes, informal meetings, debates, table discussions, alliance agreements, advisory committees and coordination bodies or public–private partnerships. What concerns the concept of public-private partnerships it can be generally defined as a form of cooperation between the public and the private sectors in order to implement a project or provide a service that has traditionally been rendered by the public sector. Such cooperation is formed in order to answer to public needs in the most effective possible way, by sharing resources, risks and benefits (Caisse des Dépôts, 2003).

In 2004 European Commission adopted the Green Paper on Public-Private Partnership and Community Law on Public Contracts and Concessions. According to the definition included in Green Paper PPPs describe legal forms of cooperation between public authorities and economic operators which aim to ensure the funding, construction, renovation or management of an infrastructure or the provision of a service.

The Green Paper distinguishes two types of PPPs:

- PPP of a purely contractual nature, which refers to a partnership based exclusively on contractual links between the different actors. It covers a variety of set-ups where one
or more tasks of a greater or lesser importance are assigned to the private partner, and which can include the design, funding, execution, renovation or exploitation of a work or service.

- PPP of an institutional nature, which involve the establishment of an entity held jointly by the public and the private partner. The joint entity has the task of ensuring the delivery of a work or service for the benefit of the public. An institutionalized PPP can be established, either by creating an entity held jointly by the public sector and the private sector or by the private sector taking control of an existing public undertaking.

In Poland the legal framework for PPP is established by three acts that regulate the cooperation between public entities and private sector. These are:

- The Act of 29 January 2004 Public Procurement Law,
- The Act of 19 December 2008 on public-private partnership (“The PPP Act”),
- The Act of 9 January 2009 on concession for construction works and services.

The aforementioned acts are fully compliant with the EU Directives. The PPP Act determines the principles of collaboration between the public entity and the private partner within the framework of the public-private partnership. The act defines the subject of public-private partnership as joint implementation of project based on division of tasks and risks between the public entity and the private partner.

Public-private partnerships may have a broad scope of action, depending on the type of activity, service, ownership, invested assets of individual partners and a range of other factors. The scope of projects executed within the framework of a PPP may vary from large infrastructure projects to small local projects. However, regardless of type of the project each PPP is characterized by four attributes, namely: public need, public entity, private partner and service (the provision of public services or public infrastructure).

PPP contract means commitment for both parties. Namely, private partner commits to implement the project and to cover in whole or in part the expenditure for project implementation. Whereas public entity commits to collaborate with private partner with aim of achieving the project objective. Additionally, it has to be underlined that the public sector’s main role is setting strict conditions in order to defend public interest. PPP can be identified by three major principles (van Ham, Koppenjam, 1999):

- durability: PPPs are long term commitments, contracts specify in detail the conditions of the cooperation during the whole term of agreement, agreements are often concluded for 30 years or longer,
- synergy: sharing of responsibilities, optimal division of tasks, division of risks between the parties of agreement,

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13 Art. 1, The PPP Act.
• complexity: PPPs usually concern projects with a number of aspects and of which the outcomes will affect a variety of interests.

The Public-Private Partnership brings benefits for both parties – public and private. The advantages of PPP have been presented in the table 1.

**Table 1: Advantages of Public-Private Partnership**

<table>
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<th>for public sector</th>
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<tr>
<td>• limited total costs of a project</td>
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<td>• better allocation of risk</td>
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<tr>
<td>• generating additional incomes</td>
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<tr>
<td>• increased effectiveness of project implementation and management</td>
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<td>• improved functioning of public administration</td>
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<tr>
<td>• introducing competition mechanisms in the process of rendering public services, and opening the market for investors</td>
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<td>• faster implementation</td>
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<td>• acceleration of the development of the infrastructure</td>
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<td>• a higher level of services</td>
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<td>• an increase in innovation in the provision of services</td>
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<td>• greater operative flexibility</td>
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<tr>
<td>• universal format that can be utilized in many sectors of economy</td>
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<table>
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<th>for private entities</th>
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<tr>
<td>• the possibility to generate a relatively reliable and fixed in the long perspective source of income</td>
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<tr>
<td>• the chance to realize projects that are prestigious and strategic from the point of view of common good</td>
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<tr>
<td>• long term contracts</td>
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<tr>
<td>• the opportunity to commercially use innovations</td>
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<td>• enriching itself by the additional skills and knowledge</td>
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Source: Own elaboration based on Walczak (2008) and PPP Market Report (2013)

In case of public sector it is worth to underline such profits as cost reduction, risk share, faster implementation of a project and higher quality of service. Authorities are able to perform cost economy, not only for the construction of projects, but more importantly, in operating and maintaining services (Kim, Kim, Lee, 2005). The risks which are shared by both parties may include excess costs, failure to meet the time limit for delivering a service, difficulties in complying with environmental regulations or the risk that earnings may not be sufficient to pay for the operational and capital costs. For the private sector it is worth pointing out the possibility to generate a reliable and long-term source of income.

However, the PPP is involved also with some disadvantages, like the risk of insecure services, which may appear in case of financial problems of private partners or other circumstances preventing them from honouring their commitments. Another risk is connected with loss of government control. PPPs that involve significant investment and risks by the
private partner often mean greater partner involvement in decisions on how services are delivered, as well as on prices (Kim, Kim, Lee, 2005).

PUBLIC-PRIVATE PARTNERSHIP IN TOURISM DESTINATION COMPETITIVENESS

According to the definition of OECD (2013) tourism competitiveness for a destination is an “ability of the place to optimise its attractiveness for residents and non-residents, to deliver quality, innovative, and attractive tourism services to consumers and to gain market shares on the domestic and global market places, while ensuring that the available resources supporting tourism are used efficiently and in a sustainable way”.

Dwyer and Kim (2003) claim that in tourism, competitiveness means the ability of a destination to present qualified goods and services, in relation to other tourist destinations, satisfying the touristic value. The aforementioned definitions stress the importance on the high quality of offered tourism products and services. In this context PPP concept can be considered as a tool for introducing innovations and higher level of service in tourism sector. As Buhalis (2000) claims, PPP and close cooperation between local suppliers constitute essential factors to allow destinations to offer quality products. Exceeding tourists expectations is a way to ensure destination maintenance successfully and in the long-term.

WTO (2003) states that cooperation in many tourism areas is evolving towards the establishment of formal partnerships, between the various parties involved in the public and private sectors and underlines fundamental role of such cooperation for the increase of the competitiveness of this activity. Additionally PPP can be expected to become an effective tool for stimulating investments in tourism, which are necessary for the growth of their tourist attractiveness, competitiveness and the attraction of tourist flow (Mika, Pawlusinski, 2003).

Crucial for destination competitiveness are competitive tourism enterprises. As Erkus-Ozturk (2009) states global networks are particularly crucial for tourism companies, because they provide strong relationships between suppliers and companies, such as tour operators, which are necessary to attract global customers and maintain competitiveness in the worldwide tourism market. Witt and Moutinho (1995) claim that partnership through strategic alliances may constitute the key to the survival of small companies in the hotel and catering industry, in travel and other sectors of tourism. Silva and Rodrigues (2005) have recognized the value of PPPs in empowering local cooperation, not only between the public and the private sectors, but also between private organizations themselves. Cooperation among tourism companies, organizations and authorities may offer positive outcomes such as diffusion of new technologies, development of innovation and specialization of human resources.

PPP is also considered as one of the most suitable concept for the development of the tourism potential of rural areas (Durdevic-Lukic, 2012). Rural tourism is operated by households and mid-sized companies hence it cannot be developed purely on the basis of the actions of
private entrepreneurs. These providers of tourism products and services do not have sufficient financial and human resources to succeed on their own, maintain market positions or secure an integrated quality management.

It should be also underlined the importance of PPP in the promotion of tourism destination which is crucial for increasing its competitiveness. Regardless of a tourism enterprise’s possible innovations, unique aspects and professionalism, the range of their products is a part of destination image which cannot be created and developed without a partnership that includes other stakeholders.

Weiermair et al. (2008) take notice that PPP exists in two periods of the life cycle of a destination. First time, at its beginning, the local authorities must ensure sustainable development for the steady growth of the community, while the private sector is interested in increasing revenues. The second time when it is appropriate to form this type of collaboration is the stagnation of the life cycle. In this case PPP can be a useful tool to create a new period of growth and increase the competitiveness.

In view of what is stated in the foregoing, it appears that PPP in tourism occurs mainly in such areas as: infrastructure improvement, provision of tourism services and products, information dissemination and marketing. It should be noticed, though, that PPP approach can be observed as well in human resources management and organizational development.

**PPP IN TOURISM AREA IN POLAND**

Despite the relatively friendly legal regulations from 2009 Poland is still at a very early stage of using PPP. There can be differentiated 3 levels of interest in PPP in Poland. The first one is the official statement of public entity about the need of PPP in a specific area. The second level involves settlement of fundamental conditions of an individual project within PPP and public call for private partner. In the third step there is a choice of private actor and preparation of detailed contract or concession granting and its execution. The 3 levels of interest in PPP in Poland with the number of projects have been presented at the picture below.

In the period from 01.2009 to 09.2013 there were 216 projects initiated by polish public authorities within the framework of PPP. The number of this projects was respectively: 30 in 2009, 46 in 2010, 35 in 2011, 63 in 2012 and 43 in 2013. However, the amount of declared projects does not reflect the amount of conluded contracts. As it can be seen in the picture 2, only 58 contracts were concluded, what constitutes 27% of all initiated projects within PPP.
Analyzing the percentage share of initiated projects according to sectors it can be observed that the biggest share constituted the projects in scope of infrastructure (30%) and sport and recreation (23%). What concerns tourism area only 4% of all declared projects were tourist projects. In contrast, taking into account already concluded contracts 40% of them were in the range of infrastructure and 12% sport and recreation. Whereas 3,45% of contracts concerned tourism projects. The percentage share of initiated projects and concluded contracts by sectors shows picture 3.
Relating to sport, recreation and tourism, there were 49 projects which were initiated by public sector within the framework of PPP. Taking into account the type of project it can be stated that the most common investments were swimming pools/aquaparks which constituted 42% of all projects. Subsequently there were investments in sports and leisure complexes (22% of all projects). Whereas 14% of initiated projects were connected with tourist infrastructure. Further there were investments connected with building sports halls, stadiums and holiday centers.
CONCLUSIONS

Public-private partnership can lead to an improved tourism product, higher quality of service, more comprehensive promotion, thus to increased destination competitiveness. Despite the fact that the number of concluded contracts is still small, a clear increase in the interest of the public sector in PPP in Poland can be noticed. However, the numbers of initiated projects and signed contracts indicate that still some barriers have remained and change of legal act at the end of 2008 was not sufficient to introduce a flow of PPP in Poland.

The low intensity of use of this concept in Poland can be still in some extent a result of distrust toward the cooperation between public and private entities, which is characteristic for post-socialist countries. The primary task nowadays is therefore to promote the knowledge on PPP among local authorities and other stakeholders that would enable more frequent implementation of this concept in tourism development.

REFERENCES:


CHAPTER 2.4.

COOPERATION AS A SOURCE OF INNOVATION
IN THE TOURISM SECTOR OF KRAKOW

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Abstract: Description: The review of the literature profiles the concept of innovation in tourism as well as the theoretical background of knowledge intensive business services (KIBS). This is followed by an analysis of business tourism in Krakow, both the demand and supply sides (in the years 2009-2012). The empirical section of the paper sets out the overall opinion of the Krakow business tourism sector on the usefulness of KIBS for it, based on the authors’ own research. Identification of the most important types of KIBS for the meeting industry in general and for business tourism enterprises in Krakow. Evaluation of the extent of cooperation between the business tourism sector in Krakow and KIBS suppliers. The empirical analysis is based on the results of an online questionnaire survey of business tourism firms in Krakow. Descriptive statistics of the results are presented and an estimate of the correlation between the number of KIBS suppliers and the business tourism sector in Krakow given. The results of a cross-tabulation analysis of the features of tourism enterprises and their attitudes towards KIBS are discussed. The most important services ordered externally, both for the meeting industry as a sector and for the specific firms surveyed, were those connected with organization, promotion and management of events, and advertising services. There was higher significance of event services and research and experimental development services for the whole meeting industry than for a unique surveyed firm.

Keywords: services, cooperation, innovation, KIBS, business tourism,

INTRODUCTION

Tourism companies are closely connected with a range of stakeholders in a given destination. Their condition is very often dependent on the market situation and available resources. In many cases tangible resources are offered at the local and regional level and cannot be treated as a source of competitive advantage for such firms. For this reason many firms on meeting industry market use external sources of knowledge and expertise to achieve better financial results (costs versus benefits) and to deliver a more competitive offer.
On the business tourism market companies can be usually divided into venue entities and organizing/support firms. Both of these segments are populated by micro, small and medium tourism enterprises (MSMTE) which rely on cooperation with other firms (suppliers of goods and services). In order to stay afloat in the knowledge-based economy, tourism firms have to compete using new ideas, solutions and innovative products – some of which are or should be generated in collaboration with external specialists delivering knowledge-intensive business services (KIBS). The core objective of this study is to learn which kinds of these services are important for business tourism companies. The research was conducted in the city of Krakow, the leading city venue in the Polish meetings industry and a key location of offshoring services.

This paper has six sections, including the introduction. The second section reviews the related literature with a focus on the theoretical aspects of cooperation and KIBS, while the third section profiles the business tourism market in Krakow (both its supply and demand sides) based on a review of the literature (reports). The fourth part delivers some methodological aspects of the research. The fifth section of the paper gives the results of the study. It concludes with a general discussion and conclusions.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF THE STUDY

Entities in many sectors collaborate in order to achieve the goals they establish for their organizations (Erkuş-Öztürk, 2009a; Fuchs, Abadzhiev and Svensson, 2013; Halme, 2001; Hodari, Waldthausen and Sturman, 2014; Lohrke, Kreiser and Weaver, 2006; Zehrer and Raich, 2010). Selin (1993, p. 218) argued that the power of collaborative actions in tourism was discovered many years ago by tourism planners and operators.

Cooperation could be treated as a dynamic process-oriented activity which supports tourism managers in turbulent business activities (Lemmetyinen and Go, 2009). In the context of community-based tourism planning it is construed as a process of “joint decision making among autonomous, key stakeholders of an inter-organizational, community tourism domain” (Jamal and Getz, 1995). Wood and Grey (1991, p. 146) understood collaboration in light of the network approach and argued that it occurs when a group of autonomous stakeholders in the tourism sector engage in an interactive process using shared rules and structures to participate in action or decision-making related to issues connected with that domain. At the regional and local levels, collaboration could also be seen as a type of trend on the tourism market in the last two decades. This process is regarded as the central requirement for sustainable planning and development by destinations (Bramwell and Lane, 2000) and for the advancement and realization of projects (Vernon, Essex, Pinder and Curry, 2005).

The dynamic rate of change on this market, increasing competition, and the pressure to implement innovation motivates tourism companies to cooperate (Fyall and Garrod, 2005). Tourism companies’ performance is described as critically dependent on establishing and
maintaining effective collaboration with a range of different partners. The need for collaboration is also partly rooted in the fragmentary nature of the industry and the activity of multi-sectoral and interdependent providers on this market. For this reason tourism is seen as a difficult industry to manage, for both private players (companies) and administrative entities (municipalities). Some authors (Haywood, 1988; Stewart and Draper, 2007; Vernon et al., 2005) claim that successful collaborative relationships with partners are a fundamental factor in organizational longevity in this industry.

A review of the literature regarding collaboration reveals certain dominant theories referring to different levels of interactions in the tourism industry (among institutions, organizations, companies, communities and managers). These are game theory, rational choice theory, institutional analysis, resource dependent theory, transaction cost economics, and social exchange theory (Beritelli, 2011). All these concepts are used in studies of tourism cooperation, but two in particular seem to play a key role in shaping the theoretical framework of this paper: resource dependent theory and transaction cost economics. Resource dependent theory refers to organizations that out seek resources critical to an organization for it to survive or function. This theory suggests that an organization will respond to and become dependent on other organizations at the destination level that control resources which are critical to it (Pfeffer and Salancik, 1978). The existing literature refers to this theory at the institutional level (Christiansen, 2001; Remmer, 1998), but also at the tourism destination level (Jamal and Getz, 1995; Timothy, 1998). The second concept is transaction cost economics, which assumes that organizations minimize all the costs incurred in economic exchanges (including also cooperation processes). Transaction costs may be determined by their frequency, specificity, uncertainty, and the limited rationality of the organizations involved (Williamson, 1979). In cooperation studies transaction cost economics is often applied at the organizational level (Fritsch and Lukas, 1999; Luo, 2002; Ring and Van de Ven, 1992).

The literature review shows that there is a substantial body of literature dealing with community planning and the role of local institutions and residents in tourism destination marketing processes (Getz and Jamal, 1994; Gill & Williams, 1994; Ritchie, 1999; Vernon et al., 2005; Wang and Fesenmaier 2007). The subject of firms’ cooperation with other partners in a tourism destination to achieve competitive advantage and a higher level of innovation is less widely recognized.

As mentioned above, tourism is a fragmented industry made up of micro and small businesses. This means that they are dependent at the level of the destination on cooperation. By working together they have the chance of overcoming the drawbacks of inadequate size. Sometimes, purchasing resources from the market by cooperation is the only way to be competitive on the market – either if it is most profitable to do so, or if it is the only viable option. Other reasons might be the learning curve, or a reduction in cost (Kronenberg et al., 2008). Firms’ capabilities and competition are seen as the main factors forcing collaboration (Madhok, 1996).
Some organizations endowed with advanced collaborative capabilities are interested in cooperation in order to acquire trust and reputation (Gulati, 1995). In the opinion of Normann and Ramirez (1993), successful firms often abandon strategic positions in the value chain in order to play a new role in the value creating system. They add value by collaborating with their suppliers, business partners and customers (tourists).

Cooperation in the tourism industry takes place through various forms of network. Some of them are beyond the scope of this work, but two valuable types should be mentioned here (Ahmad, 2005, p.40): the “place network” and the “buyer-supplier network”. The former is known as the “industrial district” and is based on cooperation and competitive business relations within a given geographical locality (mostly it would be the tourism destination). The second one is better known in the service industry as outsourcing, through relational contracting or ongoing relations of exchange. Collaboration benefits all tourist product providers through joint marketing campaigns (Hwang, et al., 2002; Morrison, 1998), creation of new products (Tinsley and Lynch, 2001) and knowledge sharing (Telfer 2001). Borodako (2011) argued that managers of tourism firms mostly cooperate in order to maintain friendly relations. Further down the list of reasons mentioned were the need to procure resources needed by the company, and participation in joint marketing strategies/campaigns. Acquisition of knowledge used in the strategic decision-making process through collaboration with other stakeholders in the tourism industry at the local or regional level was assessed as a very significant aspect of collaboration.

When it collaborates with external companies the tourism company can focus its efforts on improving productivity, profits and competitiveness, all of which can be supported by increased inflow of new ideas and concepts for action (Erkus, Erkuş-Öztürk, and Eraydın, 2010). The core common goals that encourage tourism organisations in a given destination to work together are to make the destination competitive (Jamal & Getz, 1995; Tinsley & Lynch, 2001; Wood and Gray, 1991) and to benefit from the various advantages of networking and collaboration (Bramwell and Sharman, 1999). Such benefits can be understood also as knowledge of the financial support available to the business, or new product ideas (Borodako, 2013). Of immense valuable for tourism companies’ development is cooperation with other companies that can help to expand their skills base and support their progress. In some cases one benefit of such cooperation is access to more extensive resources and knowledge. This can enable the partners to implement new activities and contribute to developing new tourism products that can generate a competitive advantage and innovation (Bocquet, Cattellin, Thevenard-puthod, Scaraffiotti, and Gentet, 2006).

From the company’s point of view, innovation can be created by the influence of the following sources of change: (a) technology transfer, (b) R&D, (c) market research, (d) implementation of the outcomes of creative methods such as brainstorming, (e) the support of consulting companies and (f) stimulating the attitudes of employees and management (Matusiak et al., 2005, p. 190). Some of these sources are directly connected with outsourcing services delivered to tourism companies.
Knowledge-intensive business services providers (KIBS) play a key role in generating innovation through cooperation. These are defined as companies that provide knowledge-intensive inputs into the business processes of tourism companies (Muller and Doloreux, 2009). Delivered by cooperation among tourism firms and other suppliers, knowledge-intensive services combine various types of highly specialized knowledge in order to develop problem-specific solutions (Miles and Kastrinos, 1995; Muller and Zenker, 2001). These and other definitions presented in the literature stress the key aspects of KIBS: they are offered by private companies for other companies; their services are based on knowledge or expertise - the mostly highly advanced are related to a specific field - and the consumption of the service usually causes an improvement in the intellectual capital of the client company. KIBS are defined by four “high” degrees (Yang and Yan, 2010):

- a high degree of knowledge (these services contribute to the process of generating knowledge for the client),
- a high degree of technology (these actively exploit technological advances in order to serve other businesses, and also create and disseminate new technologies themselves),
- a high degree of interaction (close, mutually beneficial cooperation with clients),
- a high degree of innovation (they themselves are constantly implementing innovations, acquiring new knowledge, learning new technologies and generating new knowledge relevant to the technological and production requirements of the client, which they then implement, thus contributing to their innovative development).

Closer analysis of the above features reveals the high degree of knowledge assumed of knowledge-intensive business services is related not only to codified knowledge, but also to tacit knowledge, which is controlled by employees and agents, and the generation, reproduction and application of which is much more complex for enterprises to organize (Vence and Trigo, 2009).

The literature review gives strong proof that KIBS are the driving force in innovation in the services sector (Amara, et. al, 2009). They play three key roles in implementing innovation in the tourism sector through cooperation, as the promoters, disseminators and sources of innovation (Hertog den, 2000; Miles and Kastrinos, 1995). This area of knowledge in the tourism industry is underresearched. The questions of the scope of this cooperation at the local (metropolitan) level and the significance of KIBS providers to tourism companies were the areas we researched to fulfil this deficiency in the present state of knowledge.

THE MEETING INDUSTRY IN KARKOW – SECONDARY DATA REVIEW

The demand side of the meeting industry market in Krakow in the years 2008-2012

There are held many events every year in Krakow what implies a large scale of cooperation between firms involved in their organization. The most important statistic describing the meeting industry in Krakow is the number of meetings. Every year between 2008 and 2011 some 8,000
events were organized in the venues participating in the survey conducted by academic staff from the Cracow University of Economics, commissioned by Krakow CB. It is important to note that the survey respondents were the managers or owners of the most important facilities in the city, so the numbers obtained are not much underestimated. The significantly lower numbers for 2012 (1855) are an effect of lower participation in the on-line survey by venues (different method of data gathering).

In cognitive terms an analysis of the structure of meeting industry events in Krakow in the years 2008-2012 is interesting – see Table 1.

The prevailing type of business events in the period as a whole was corporate events, but the share of this category in the overall structure of events decreased in 2012 from the year 2008, by 3.5 pp. The second important category was congresses/conferences; their share in the total number of meetings ranged from 27% to 45% in the period 2008-2012. The year 2011 was not typical – the share of incentive travel was 13 pp higher and the number of congresses/conferences was the same number of percentage points lower than in other years. This may have been the result of the global economic crisis and its implications for tourism.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of meetings</th>
<th>2008</th>
<th>2009</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2011</th>
<th>2012</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Conferences/congresses</td>
<td>41%</td>
<td>37%</td>
<td>42%</td>
<td>27%</td>
<td>46%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fairs/exhibitions</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incentive travel</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corporate events</td>
<td>51%</td>
<td>54%</td>
<td>48%</td>
<td>52%</td>
<td>47%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


The question of whether events are international or national in character is important for the destination. For the purposes of the research it was assumed that “international” meant attendance by participants from at least three different countries. International events had a higher share in the first two years – nearly 20% – and lower in the two succeeding years, when it was less than 10%.

A comparison of the proportions of the various types of international events organized by the meeting industry in Krakow in the years 2008-2012 – see Table 2 – demonstrates that the percentage of international corporate events increased significantly, by approx. 20 pp, in 2012 compared to 2008. The trend in the remaining types of business meetings was different. In these types declines were observed, the deepest being in the incentive event segment, which saw a decrease of 15.8 pp The proportion of international conferences and congresses in the total number of international events also dropped significantly in the surveyed period (by ca. 6 pp).
The structure of events held in Krakow in 2012 by the origins of their participants suggests that the highest share was that of national meetings (39%). Nearly one in four was a local event, and one in every five meetings were of regional (voivodship) in scope; a further fifth were international in reach.

![Bar chart showing the share of each month in numbers of events held in Krakow over the year (2010-2012)](chart)

**Fig. 1. Share of each month in numbers of events held in Krakow over the year (2010-2012)**


The time of year (particularly the month) when the events are held in the city is an important factor for the city's economy, especially in the case of big meetings. In comparison of data, the share of meetings in the various months of the year is also taken into consideration - see Figure 1.

There were two peaks in Krakow in the analyzed period: in the autumn, a slightly higher number of events in the months September and October; and in Spring, a somewhat lower peak, but longer (March to June). This is proof that the meeting industry is reducing the seasonality of tourism in Krakow.

From the economic point of view the duration of events is important to the city. A comparison of the duration of meetings over the period 2008-2011 shows that national meetings...
lasted a shorter time than international ones. The longest national events were fairs and exhibitions: 2.5 days on average. The most typical meeting duration was 2 days, which was the typical duration of incentive events, congresses, conferences and courses. Seminars and workshops, which lasted 1.5 days, were the shortest events. International events usually lasted 2 days; this was the average duration of conferences and seminars. The longest meetings were fairs and exhibitions – 7 days, followed by incentives at 4 days and congresses at 3 days.

Another important economic factor is participant numbers. In years 2008-2009 numbers of participants reached 860,000, while in 2010 and 2011 the smaller numbers (480,000 and 350,000 subsequently) were the result of a lower rate of return of questionnaires and – presumably – the global crisis.

Given the smaller number of events reported for the years 2010-2011, a decrease in participant numbers seems a natural consequence. The largest group of visitors to Krakow’s business meetings in the period 2008-2010 were participants in trade fairs and exhibitions – see Table 3. They accounted for around 60% of all business visitors, except for the years 2010-2011. The share of conference/congress attendees, which grew until 2011, decreased significantly in 2012 (by more than fifty percent compared to the preceding year, so that this group no longer prevailed), as did the shares of corporate events in 2012 (by almost 1/3) and incentive events (by almost 3/4).

Table 3. Structure of participants of various types of events held in Krakow in 2008-2012 by type of meeting

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of meeting</th>
<th>2008</th>
<th>2009</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2011</th>
<th>2012</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Conferences/Congresses</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>39%</td>
<td>49%</td>
<td>22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fairs/Exhibitions</td>
<td>62%</td>
<td>65%</td>
<td>39%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>59%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incentive travel</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corporate events</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


It should be stressed that the most important meetings for the city were fairs/exhibitions and congresses/conferences, because they attract the largest numbers of participants.

Supply side: the infrastructure necessary for meetings in Krakow

Krakow CB has compiled a database of venues in the city and it was used as the basis on which the calculations for this paper were made – see Table 4. The database lists 139 venues. This represents the state as at the beginning of 2014, so The Congress Center ICE is not included yet. The total number of conference seats in these facilities in Krakow is 82,499 (auditorium
seating). There are 566 conference rooms (some of which may be joined together in various configurations). The total area available for expositions is 28,663 m².

The distribution of conference seats is presented in Table 4. The main conclusion that this invites is that the majority of venues do not have large conference rooms. The average number of seats per facility is 594, but the median number of seats is only 218, which means that in nearly 70 venues there are no more than 218 seats in all the conference rooms.

Table 4. Statistics of infrastructure for the meeting industry in Krakow in 2014

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of seats per facility (auditorium seating)</th>
<th>Number of seats</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&gt; 1,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of facilities with given number of seats</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facilities with given number of seats as a percentage of total number of facilities</td>
<td>9.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seats in these facilities as a percentage of total number of seats</td>
<td>58.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total number of conference rooms in facilities with given number of seats</td>
<td>133</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conference rooms in these facilities as a percentage of total number of conference rooms</td>
<td>23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exhibition space (m²) in facilities with given number of seats</td>
<td>26,763</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exhibition space in these facilities as a percentage of total exhibition space</td>
<td>93%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average distance of facilities with given number of seats from the centre (km)</td>
<td>4.38</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: own calculation on the basis of KCB data

Generally speaking, the distribution of conference rooms across Krakow’s facilities is rather uneven. The mean average number of conference rooms per venue is 4.1, but the median is 3. This is due to the fact that 23% of facilities have 45% of all the conference rooms, while 48% of venues have only 23% of the conference rooms. The disproportion in spread of conference rooms also implies a disproportion in numbers of seats. Nearly 59% of all seats in conference rooms in Krakow are located in just 13 facilities (only around 9% of all venues). In these facilities there are 133 conference rooms in total (23% of all rooms in Krakow), as well as 26,763 m² of exhibition space.

An interesting conclusion regarding the location of venues may also be drawn from these data. The largest facilities are located farther from the centre, the smallest in the proximity of the centre. The mean average distance of a venue from the city centre is 3.3 km.

The analysis of the meeting industry market in Krakow reveals that the demand side is not optimal for the city’s economy: small events, mostly national, so possibilities of its’ change should
be searched. Moreover, the demand doesn’t fit well the supply side. The offer of the supply side is pretty abundant what makes the city competitive as a meeting industry destination, but at the same time a competition between firms is very fierce. This is a reason why they are looking for new, innovative solutions. The research were conducted to find out what kind of external support business tourism enterprises use.

**SURVEY METHODOLOGY**

The questionnaire surveys were conducted by email in May-June 2013. A directed selection of firms was applied: a request to participate was sent to selected tourism firms located in the city of Krakow. The selection criteria were as follows: the first group consists of entities recommended by the Cracow Convention Bureau Municipality of Krakow, namely professional congress organizers (PCO), destination management companies (DMC) and restaurants specializing in business clients. The second group of respondents were business hotels (three-, four- or five-star standard) and event companies registered in the dedicated database. The last group comprised convention centres and other private venues that host meetings in Krakow and had participated in previous studies on the meeting industry in Krakow in the years 2009-2011. A total of 241 firms received an invitation to participate. Ninety firms returned the completed questionnaire, which amounted to a return rate of 37.34%. Most of the Krakow enterprises which participated in the research know the research team; for almost four years they have been cooperating by supplying data for analysis of Krakow’s meeting industry prepared for the Cracow Convention Bureau of the Municipality of Krakow. A special survey programme was used to gather the data. Various indices were calculated in order to calculate the percentage of enterprises using specified types of KIBS and the significance of the particular services.

**RESULTS**

One of the research questions was which services were perceived as the most important for the meeting industry in general. 40% of the Krakow enterprises that took part in the survey stated that services connected with organization, promotion and/or management of events are the most important – see Fig. 2. One in five of the firms, i.e. half as many, expressed the opinion that advertising was most important for the business tourism sector. So essentially these two types of services are most appreciated by the sector and may be treated as innovative. The other types of services were chosen by a small percentage of enterprises. Just over 8% mentioned event services, and about 7% both IT, and research and development services as key services for meeting industry. The share of firms who consider accounting and tax advisory services important for the business tourism sector was one percentage point smaller. Nearly 5% of the survey respondents thought that management advisory and PR services play a significant role for the
meeting industry. Others types of services were mentioned by only 1 or 2% of enterprises, or were not chosen at all.

The next research question investigated what services were important specifically to respondents’ firms. Again, the two most important categories are services connected with event organization, promotion and management, and advertising - see Fig. 3. The lead of the former over the latter is not as great as in the case of the sector as a whole (only 2.3 pp).

There is a change in third position: accounting and advisory services were found important by nearly 12% of firms. One in ten enterprises pointed to IT and programming services as most important to their business.

![Figure 2](image-url) **Figure. 2. Percentage of survey respondents who identified one type of service as the most important for the meeting industry**

Source: own calculations on the basis of survey results.

The structures of the answers to the question of the importance of particular services to the meeting industry as a whole and to a particular firm were pretty similar. The index of structures similarity equals $w_p=74.1\%$. However, differences should be stressed.
Event services were given on the third position for the sector and much lower (8\textsuperscript{th} place) for a particular firm. It could be explained that firms opt for a necessity for higher professionalization and innovation in events organization in a sector as a whole but on the other hand they find themselves professional enough to not order such services externally. The second difference characterizes accounting and tax advisory services which were treated as much more important for a unique firm than for the whole sector. It means surveyed enterprises need such an operational support but they don’t assume it is necessary for the whole meeting industry. The next discrepancy can be observed in an estimation of research and experimental development services - they are assessed as significant for the meeting industry and they are not rank so high by a unique enterprise. It could be understood as the sector’s expectation of external support in research results provision while a unique firm doesn’t order such services maybe because it can’t afford.

The aim of the next research question was to estimate the scope of cooperation between the Krakow business tourism sector and service suppliers. This was achieved by establishing the share of tourism enterprises in the city that outsource specialised services. For the results, see Fig. 4.
The most commonly used services are advertising and IT, with 80% of business tourism firms in Krakow outsourcing such services. About two-thirds of enterprises cooperate with suppliers of accounting and tax advisory, legal and management advisory, and PR services. About half of the firms surveyed use external services connected with organization and technical support at events, event services, and market research. One-third of these enterprises use architecture services, employment agencies, and specialized design services. More than one in four cooperate with suppliers of technical diagnostic services. The least popular services are research and experimental development; only one-fifth of Krakow’s business tourism enterprises outsource them.

An attempt to find correlations between the features of particular business tourism enterprises and the external services important for the business tourism sector and for the company itself produced no statistically significant results.

**DISCUSSION**

As a rule, business tourism firms from Krakow do cooperate with external suppliers of services. The opinions concerning the most significant services for the whole meeting industry and for individual firms were relatively homogeneous. This may be because respondents perceive the functioning of the sector as a whole through the perspective of their own firms, or because the strategies of individual firms do not differ very widely. Significantly, the external services
considered by Krakow enterprises the most important both for the wider business tourism sector and their own firm are examples of creative and innovative services.

There was a higher significance of event services and research and experimental development services for the whole meeting industry than for a unique business tourism firm.

It is important to note that there is a dissonance between assessments of the importance of particular services to a firm, and real demand for these services. The category identified as the most important for firms was actually outsourced only by half of them. Conversely, advertising services, which were treated as important by one-third of enterprises, are in fact contracted out by 80% of them. These results confirm the theoretical framework of this study, that the tourism industry is closely connected with other suppliers and cooperates intensively. The application of the resource dependent theory and transaction-cost economics is fully reflected in the results, because business tourism firms lack certain competencies (as a resource), and for that reason they seek these out on the market. This need to take care of a particular area of the business forces companies to cooperate with service suppliers – in this case knowledge intensive service companies. The other aspect of the issue is that firms are always looking to optimize their profits and costs, and for this reason outsource some of their non-core activities. The increasing demand on the meeting industry market and the competition among destinations and companies (PCOs and venues) also prompt firms to seek more advanced professional services. In some areas of the business they can do this by employing external experts and specialists. These are KIBS companies, which support the supply side of the Krakow tourism market.

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CHAPTER 2.5.

INNOVATIVE SOLUTIONS IN THE STRATEGY FOR TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN THE ZACHODNIOPOMORSKIE VOIVODESHIP UNTIL 2015

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Abstract: Modern world has entered into a phase of changes and new trends which lead to a new division of labour worldwide, the emergence of innovative products, services and industry sectors, but also to disappearance of the old ones. Modern technologies and an innovation skill are basic factors determining competitiveness and economic development of regions. Innovative companies, which transfer technologies from the field of science and employ highly-qualified experts, and implementation of strategies designed by local governments influence, widely understood, development. The purpose of this article is to analyze innovative solutions in the Strategy for Tourism Development in the Zachodniopomorskie Voivodeship until 2015 and the evaluation of their implementation.

Keywords: innovation, tourism, Tourism Development

INTRODUCTION

Modern world has entered into a phase of changes and new trends which lead to a new division of labour worldwide, the emergence of innovative products, services and industry sectors, but also to disappearance of the old ones. Modern technologies and an innovation skill are basic factors determining competitiveness and economic development of regions. Innovative companies, which transfer technologies from the field of science and employ highly-qualified experts, and implementation of strategies designed by local governments influence, widely understood, development.

There are many factors and determinants that affect the functioning and development of tourism economy in a region. The key factor for regional development is innovations and innovation in their broad sense. At the same time, regional policy is being more often directed at reinforcing development potential in regions and triggering endogenic development factors which is manifested in a drive to strengthen local and regional innovation. The aim of the article is an
analysis of innovative solutions in the *Strategy for Tourism Development in the Zachodniopomorskie Voivodeship until 2015* and the evaluation of its level of implementation.

**The significance of innovation in tourism development of the region**

Innovations and innovation are considered to be one of the most progressive factors of regional development. There are many definitions of innovation in contemporary literature on the subject. The etymology of this term points to two Latin words: *novus* (new) and *innovation* (renewal). According to OECD (Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development), innovation is: the implementation of new or greatly improved products (goods or services), processes, marketing methods or organization structure. Joseph A. Schumpeter's classical approach to innovation can be still considered valid: Innovation is a new combination of various factors of production that results in a real economic growth (Schumpeter 1960). The definition above can be translated to the following understanding of the term innovation in tourism (Dryglas 2010):

- launching modern and competitive goods and services that customers have never seen or experienced before on the tourism market,
- using advanced information and communication technologies in tourism-related enterprises,
- introducing relationship marketing, new organizational solutions and new management methods to the tourism market.

From a broader perspective, positive changes that are efficient from the point of view of economic financial calculations can also be considered to be an innovation. Innovation is a term that is very closely connected with innovations. W. Janasz understands innovation of business entities as ‘their ability and motivation for a continuous search for and practical application of research findings, R&D projects, new concepts, ideas and inventions’ (Janasz 2002). Additionally, we can observe that, in general, innovation is connected with the ability to generate innovations. We can consider the following as innovation (Marciniak 2004):

- an aptitude to inventiveness
- an ability to create new and improve already-existing products and technological processes, new organizational and management systems and implement other creative and imitative changes in the subsystems of the global society system,
- an ability to adapt new scientific and technological achievements,
- entrepreneurs’ motivation for continuous search for new concepts, ideas and inventions.

We can look at innovation on a regional scale in two ways: innovation of entities and enterprises located in a given regional system or the innovation of the regional systems themselves. Innovation in a tourism economy of a region can be understood as the ability and willingness of entities within that economy to a continuous search for and practical application of
Absorption and diffusion of innovation are important and integral elements of innovative processes. Innovation absorption is, in general speaking, the absorption or adoption of innovation, whereas proliferation and popularization of innovation is known as innovation diffusion. As a result, three types of regions can be defined (Kudłacz 1999): those able to generate innovation; those which are unable to generate innovation, but able to absorb or diffuse it; unable to do any of the above.

The creation of innovation in regions occurs largely due to combining information with knowledge and transforming them into new products, services, new organizational and market solutions. Entities of all kinds in regions should manage knowledge effectively and efficiently. At this point the significance of knowledge as a resource for and factor of regional development should be noted. However, knowledge is rare and desirable resource, so to acquire and utilize it in an optimal way we should adopt methods and techniques that will allow to manage it effectively and efficiently, and also to control its non-physical nature (Neumann and Flügge 1998).

Tourism sector is considered to be a highly competitive one. The variety of tourist goods and services makes tourists' expectations grow. Tourism industries are very sensitive to changes in demand as a result they have to constantly monitor trends and customer behaviours. As a consequence of the above, businesses within tourism economy have to systematically adapt to current demand. The development of new products and processes in tourism is determined by the level of innovation, not only in enterprises, but also in regional structures, which possess attractive tourist values and are tourist destinations.

**Determinants for tourism development in the Zachodniopomorskie voivodeship**

The development potential of a region is significantly shaped by socio-economic structure and geographic determinants. One of the key elements, that has a huge development potential, of the economic structure in the Zachodniopomorskie voivodeship is tourism. Its development is based on unique culture and nature values that come from its geographical position by the seaside, region's lakeland, as well as the fact that the voivodeship is a borderland and that stimulates cross-border development of tourism products. The voivodeship distinguish oneself with its landscape variety, nature values, rich folklore and regional traditions. That enables the development of diverse forms of tourism. The medicinal and therapeutic qualities of the region that underpin the functioning of health-resorts in Zachodniopomorskie are a huge asset.
The Zachodniopomorskie voivodeship is located in the north-western part of Poland and has 1,722,100 people (GUS 26.03.2013). The coastline of the Baltic Sea that spans from Świnoujście on the west to Wicko Małe on the east is a natural border of the region. The voivodeship borders with Germany on the west, where the border runs along the main channel of the Oder river from Kostrzyn to the town of Widuchowa. On the south, it borders with the Lubuskie and Wielkopolskie voivodeships, whereas on the east with the Pomorskie voivodeship. Its border with Germany is 184.9 km long and the sea border is 186.6 km. The capital of the voivodeship is the city of Szczecin. The area of the voivodeship is 22,897 km² (GUS 26.03.2013) and it consists of 114 municipalities (including 11 urban, 51 urban-rural and 52 rural ones) in 18 country districts and 3 townships (Koszalin, Szczecin, Świnoujście), and 62 towns. At the end of 2012, the population of the voivodeship was 1,722,100 people out of whom 882,900 were women (in 2004 – 1,694,900 people, 2011 – 1,722,700 people (GUS 2013).

One of the assets of the Zachodniopomorskie voivodeship is the multitude and diversification of attractive water basins and their surrounding areas. The lakes in the western part of Pomeranian Lakeland, the Oder delta, the Szczecin Lagoon and the waters of the Baltic Sea, including the Pomeranian Bay provide unique conditions for tourism, especially for practicing water sports. Other assets of the voivodeship are vast forest areas and natural parks, architectural landmarks and huge potential for such health and leisure facilities like spa. Active leisure, such as water tourism, bicycle touring, horse-riding tourism, nordic-walking or golf, is playing a constantly more important role in the varied range of tourist products that the voivodeship has to offer. There are many tourist routes that cross through the lands of the voivodeship, such as hiking, cycling, water, horse-riding or cultural routes. Even though the landmarks of the voivodeship in many cases have a high value and are located attractively, they are not an autonomic factor that generates tourism movement.

Accommodation facilities also impact the tourism development in the region. There were 870 collective tourist accommodations in 2012, out of which 222 were hotels. The amount of tourism facilities (in comparison to July 2011) has increased by 25, out of which hotel facilities constituted 14 complexes and the others - 11. Collective tourist accommodations had in total 111,500 sleeping places, i.e. 4,900 more than in July 2011 (an increase of 4.6%), whereas the increase in terms of other facilities amounted to 1,200 (an increase of 1.3%). Hotel accommodation places registered the biggest growth (3,300). In the span of a year, the amount of accommodation places has dropped by 805 at summer camps, 783 in health resorts, 146 in motels and 79 at camping sites (GUS 2013).

The biggest group of tourist accommodation facilities constituted holiday centres (321 in comparison to 319 a year before), which accounted for 41.9% of accommodation places (43.9% a year before). Hotels (104 compared with 93 a year before) and other hotel facilities, which number hasn’t changed during a year (83), constituted a large part of tourist accommodation in the voivodeship. Apart from holiday centres, hotels and health resort had the biggest amount of
places (13.1% in comparison to 10.5% in a previous year and 8.3% compared to 9.4% respectively). Figure 1 shows a full structure of tourist accommodation facilities according to types of facilities in 2012.

Figure 1. Structure of tourist accommodation facilities according to types of facilities in 2012
Source: own study based on data from GUS

The amount of people using collective tourist accommodations has risen by 79,300 in 2012, i.e. by 4.3% in comparison to the previous year and amounted to 1,942,900. A rise in the use of hotel facilities (by 145,400, i.e. by 17.3%) has increased the amount of tourists to 986,700, out of which 20.3% used a hotel, 14.4% a pension and 12% other types of hotel facilities. Motels registered a decrease of almost 50% in terms of tourist using their accommodation. There were 1,681,300 rooms rented in hotel facilities in 2012, out of which 76.6% were hotels, largely 3-star ones (30.7%) (GUS 2013). Figure 2 shows the amount of tourists that slept in collective tourist accommodations between 2005 and 2012.

The attractiveness of accommodation base in the Zachodniopomorskie voivodeship is increased by 774 food establishments located on the premises of collective tourist accommodations. There were 310 cafeterias, 24 pubs and cafes, 183 restaurants and 34 other food establishments (e.g. fish and chip shops, bars, ice cream parlours or buffets). The majority of
restaurants (134, i.e. 73.2%) was located in hotel facilities, out of which 94 (51.4%) in hotels. One out of three pubs or cafes was in a holiday centre, while one out of four in a hotel. Cafeterias and eating places were most often located on the premises of other collective tourist accommodations (88.3% and 61.8% respectively), and almost half of them were in holiday centres (GUS 2013).

![Figure 2. Tourists using collective tourist accommodation between 2005 and 2012. Source: own study based on data from GUS.](image)

Tourism is one of the leading sectors of industry in the Zachodniopomorskie voivodship. It generates new work places and is an important factor that supports the development of trade, services, transport, maritime economy and an inflow of new investments. The region is perceived as an attractive, safe and inspiring place for holidays and short-term trips by both its inhabitants and European and Polish citizens.

The development of business tourism might be a strong stimulus for tourism development in the Zachodniopomorskie voivodship. One of the challenges tourism in Zachodniopomorskie has to face is construction of permanent large congress centres. A prerequisite that is indispensable for tourism development is an increase of availability of transport in the region, and above all improvement of road, water and air infrastructure. Innovative solutions also create opportunities for the development of tourism in the Zachodniopomorskie voivodship.

An analysis of innovative solutions in the Strategy for Tourism Development in the Zachodniopomorskie Voivodeship until 2015

It is necessary to be able to have a strategic view on the development and a dynamic approach to forming regional policies, if one wants to build competitiveness of a region. The responsibility for creating and implementing this policy mainly rests on the shoulders of local and
regional government representatives. Thanks to wide range of strategic instruments they can stimulate the behaviours of regions, utilize the potential and define the desired development directions. These opportunities are bolstered not only by a regional policy of a country, but mainly by the form and rules of a new European Union’s regional policy. An appropriately developed regional policy, understanding its mechanisms and acquiring an ability to utilize the help offered through EU's structural funds are challenges that need to be overcome, but also are opportunities for the development of Polish regions.

In terms of the economy’s level of innovation, the Zachodniopomorskie region is below the average in the country. The reason behind it could be low level of investment, small amount of funding allocated to R&D, small number of patent applications and relatively small number of businesses from modern industry sectors. Out of the latter, it is the IT sector in Szczecin that functions the best, however it does not stand out when compared to other large cities in Poland. Large enterprises that function in the region (including entities with foreign capital) have minimal influence on strengthening the economic potential of the region and they are not significant sources of new technologies transfers. The main determinants that cause low innovation potential in the Zachodniopomorskie region are (Nowakowska 2009):

- minimal participation of SME sector in region's investment in innovation,
- minimal percentage of companies that introduce innovation in their business activities,
- low level of investment in R&D activities in the region in relation to GDP
- irregular character of innovative work in enterprises from the region,
- small number of patent applications,
- small number of companies from modern industry sectors in the region,
- lack of well-functioning entities and organizations which task is to create and transfer technology.

*The Strategy for Tourism Development in the Zachodniopomorskie Voivodeship until 2015* is a modern document that implements the concept of comprehensive tourism industry development in the Zachodniopomorskie region. This document is to be a guideline for good management of the Region in tourism sector. By defining a strategic vision for the region, it sets a goal which achievement should enable the implementation of individual operational goals grouped in five priority areas. The strategy strongly emphasizes issues related to the need of educating competitive personnel in the tourism industry of West Pomerania (priority entitled "Development of Human Resources") and those related to a demand to build a comprehensive support system for tourism development in the Region (including the tourism development) (Strategia 2010). According to the strategy, the issue of building strong and integrated tourist products in the region is of key importance. It also includes their creation and effective implementation. The strategy also elaborates on and organizes very important postulates and
regulations related to the need of creating competitive tourism and para-tourism infrastructure in the Zachodniopomorskie voivodeship, but also the need to build an attractive image of the region.

*The Strategy for Tourism Development in the Zachodniopomorskie Voivodeship until 2015* is a study which constitutes a continuation of the Program for tourism development in the Zachodniopomorskie Voivodeship between 2003 and 2006. This document is also an extension of the Zachodniopomorskie Voivodeship Development Strategy until 2020, especially the strategic goal I - a governmental Project of Tourism Development Strategy between 2007 and 2013 and then for years 2008-2015 (Strategia 2010).

The activity of the *Strategy for Tourism Development in the Zachodniopomorskie Voivodeship until 2015* that directly supports innovation is the activity IV.2.1 - Innovations for eco-development in tourism. To make tourism development sustainable, programmes will be launched that encourage and support local communities in terms of implementing environmentally-friendly solutions in the field of organizational structures and building processes as well as modernization of the tourism base. We should implement investments that draw on construction technics from regional tradition (building using the wattle-and-daub method) and use modern heating systems (heat pumps, solar thermal collectors and panels). The activities should contribute to stimulating the development of rural areas through propagating ecological tourism that takes advantage of ecological agriculture products and traditional forms of cultivating land and living in the countryside.

Organizing “Tourism Innovation Forum” is the activity V.4.2 of the strategy from “Support of professional counselling development” programme. The aim behind organizing such a regular event as "Innovation Forum" is to increase the information flow in the tourism sector in terms of implementing new technologies and solutions. Such an event could be organized together with annual celebrations of the World Tourism Day. Each edition of this event could have a different central topic. Such a forum could be a place to showcase model solutions from the region, country or Europe for problems proposed by the community. It should be noted that in the last period of the strategy being in effect, the “Innovation Forum” has not been implemented. Other programmes that do not directly support innovation are (Strategia 2010):

- **“Zachodniopomorskie Tourism Cluster”** is a programme that supports the development of companies from tourism sector and the construction of professional tourism management and promotion system in the region. The programme stipulates:
  - building a strong competitive position of the region, as an area of tourism reception through setting up an integrated network for all partners interested in tourism development in the region: tourism industry, local governments, institutions, universities and non-governmental organization sector.
  - supporting the development of modern tourism management and promotion structures in the region, a strong support of the development of companies within
the tourism services sector and building a brand of a tourist region that is based, among others, on high-quality of services.

- Promoting innovative activities, among others, in the area of creating and promoting a tourist product.

An example of a tourism cluster in Zachodniopomorskie is the "Berlin-Szczecin-Baltic Waterway Cross-border Cluster" (BSzB-CC). This cluster creates new opportunities for cooperation in the cross-border region. It establishes new contacts by communicating with local communities. The BSzB-CC Cluster decided to focus on innovative activities that support entrepreneurship and development of partnership initiatives with such sectors as:

- public, non-governmental and private, including trans-regional cooperation along the Oder river both on the Polish and the German side.

- Sub-programme: “The Szczecin Lagoon – Our Second Sea” – that focuses on widening the range of products and forming infrastructure for tourist sailing in ports and marinas of the lagoon (pilot work is done in the framework of "West Pomeranian Sailing Route"). Initially (2007-2008), the activities of the sub-programme were focused on preparing a quality and structure models for creating and servicing marinas and harbours. The next stage is to implement models in projects around the Lagoon in ports and marinas included in “West Pomeranian Sailing Route” and others. The sub-programme will mainly contribute to extending the product range for interested people from the region, country or vicinity of Berlin. This will include everything starting from weekend stays finishing at chartering offers – everything from skippers to slipping and taking into consideration Berlin-Szczecin-the Baltic Sea route. Within the scope of the strategy such investment were completed as:

  - Modernization of the quay and construction of yacht port in Gryfino;
  - Modernization of Gocław Marina in Szczecin;
  - Modernization of SEJK Pogoń yacht port in Szczecin;
  - Modernization of JK AZS yacht marina in Szczecin;
  - Modernization of Pałac Młodzieży yacht marina in Szczecin;
  - Modernization of Academic Tourist Port in Szczecin;
  - Modernization of COŻ Trzebież yacht port in Trzebież;
  - Modernization of GMDS Goleniów yacht marina in Lubczyn;
  - Modernization of a marina in the Młyński Channel in Stepnica;
  - Modernization and expansion of Public Moorings by the urban beach in Stepnica;
  - Modernization and expansion of Public Moorings in Gąsiężyna;
  - Modernization and expansion of Public Moorings in Kopice;
  - Construction of yacht marina in Wolin;
  - Construction of Public Moorings by the urban beach in Wolin;
The assumption behind the strategy is that it shall be a support for entrepreneurs, local governments, institutions and organizations that function within tourism industry and deal with creating and implementing innovations, while utilizing domestic and European assistance instruments. Many projects, however, does not reflect that assumption in practice. The strategy presents methods for carrying out activities that are aimed at animating entrepreneurs’ awareness, including innovation awareness, creating infrastructure for technology transfer, counselling, financial support, and stimulating the cooperation of SME sector with research units. However, when the strategy was designed its main assumption was not to create competitive advantage in modern economy through implementation of new technology solutions, even though innovation is a basic condition for succeeding on the market in current economy.

CONCLUSIONS

In the era of globalization and market changes one of the most emphasized factors defining region's competitiveness is the level of innovation system. Innovation has a key role in creating the competitive advantages of regions. The example of Zachodniopomorskie region shows that other voivodeships should strive for standing out by introducing innovative solutions and activities. The implementation of the Strategy for Tourism Development in the Zachodniopomorskie Voivodeship until 2015 influences the development of tourism industry in a region. The strategy, however, does not include too many issues directly related to innovation and those included are more often indirectly connected to innovations. As a matter of fact, a similar marginal significance of innovative solution can be found in a general "Zachodniopomorskie Voivodeship Development Strategy until 2020" and ROP ZP. After analysing main characteristics of economy in Zachodniopomorskie voivodeship, it can be said that in the region's strategy the level of implemented innovative solutions is still too low in relation to capabilities resulting from natural conditions and geographical position of the region. Additionally many projects are not reflected in practice.
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CHAPTER 2.6.

A NON-GOVERNMENTAL ORGANISATION AS AN INSTITUTION OF FOSTER FAMILY MEMBERS IN TOURISM AND RECREATION – ILLUSTRATED WITH AN EXAMPLE OF THE QUEEN JADWIGA FOUNDATION IN PUSZCZYKOWO – CASE STUDY

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Abstract: The article is devoted to non-governmental organisation’s activities and actions taken in order to coordinate and provide forms of holidays and physical recreation to foster family members. In the studies the example of the Queen Jadwiga Foundation was used. The primary goal of the studies was to present activities of the non-governmental organisation as a unit which contributes to participation of foster family members in tourism and recreation. The detailed goals were as follows: presentation of the task performed by the discussed organisation and its previous and future undertakings. What is equally important is confronting the Foundation’s actions with the aid given to foster families by state institutions. The article provides also a description of psychosocial aspect of foster families participation in tourism and recreation organised by the Foundation.

The results of the research show that thanks to the non-governmental organisation’s effort, foster families have an opportunity to take part in tourism and recreation organised mainly in the form of training-type and holiday-type trips to attractive tourist destinations in Poland. Having analysed the legal acts which determine granting benefits to foster family members, it was claimed that many participants of such trip would never be able to afford it, mainly for financial reasons.

Keywords: foster family, public assistance, recreation, leisure time, nonprofit organization

INTRODUCTION

Over the years both in Poland and abroad, a number of children were brought up out of a biological family. Causes of sending children to relatives, wealthy families, or country women varied. However, a notion of social orphanage currently cannot be related as frequently as with regard to contemporary children of a foster family.

Nowadays, children who are devoid of proper parental care are less and less frequently sent to socialisation or care establishments. What is a priority is provision of upbringing which resembles
a suitably functioning family home. It may seem that foster family functioning in Poland is a marginal phenomenon, yet each county or district has at least several families of this kind.

In scientific studies, issues related to participation of members of the aforementioned families in tourism or recreation are rarely scrutinised. However, a general analysis of spare time spent in foster families, without specification of forms, obstacles, sources of support or financial aid, is conducted more frequently. One has to remember, however, that attempts to satisfy children’s needs in terms of living standards, health, education, as well as culture and recreation are the statutory duties of those who have children under care.

A significant potential for development of the care order system in Poland, as well as the above-mentioned needs are dependant upon European Union’s funds, non-governmental organisations’ activities and their cooperation with local government units, and a new system of legal regulations which came into force in 2012. The organisation’s activities encompass taking advantage of the said possibilities in order to provide equal opportunities to foster family children and to allow them to rest, integrate and get familiar with forms of physical recreation, which would not be feasible in both a natural family and a foster family.

A FOSTER FAMILY AND THE NOTION OF SOCIAL ORPHANGE

In the eyes of legal regulations and aside from institutional forms, a foster family is one of foster family care forms provided when a child cannot be given a proper care and cannot be brought up by biological parents.

One can distinguish a related foster family (in such case a caregiver is related to a foster child), a non-professional foster family (carers are not related to a child, they look after one or two children), and professional foster family (responsibility for at least three children; including a professional specialist family which takes care of children who are socially maladjusted or with dysfunctions, as well as a family that performs a function of a family emergency house. Also, a family-type children’s home is a form of a family-based foster care.

Children raised in a foster family shall be provided with healthcare, education, compensation of development gaps, and shaping talents and interests. Plus, their living standards, social and religious and recreational needs shall be met, as well as they ought to be brought up as children of dignity and value ( Act on family support and foster care system, of 9 June 2011)

From the perspective of pedagogy, a foster family is defined as a form of aid given to children and their parents who have to be temporarily separated due to negligence or other special circumstances which require external care. The purpose of such aid is to provide protection, care and conditions favouring meeting children’s needs in order to solve problems which resulted in separation of family members (Polkowski, 1999, pp. 10-13).

In other words, a child is placed in a foster family with a view to improve its life situation, which can occur in the process of returning to a natural family after stabilisation of relation within this
family, adoption, or thanks to the moment when a child becomes an adult and simultaneously an independent person.

It is worth emphasising that taking a foster care cannot be considered an equivalent to adoption since these are utterly different situations, both in legal and social terms. The consequence of sending children to foster families is a temporary duty of being a parent. Adoption, in turn, pertains to a regular care which entails a set of laws, e.g. alimony or inheritance. Providing a foster care therefore complements children’s upbringing in a natural family and it is not a final solution applied when a family is dysfunctional (Andrzejewski, 2012, pp. 106-108).

The aforementioned special circumstances under which a child is sent to a foster family in Poland were collected by the Ministry of Labour and Social Policy in the report from 2006, on the basis of the sample amounting to 27,797 children:

Table 1. Causes of taking children to foster families

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Causes of taking children to foster families</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Helplessness with respect to care and education</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Penury</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Domestic violence</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disease (including mental disease/disability)</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improper living conditions</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At least one parent is abroad</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Supreme Control Chamber data, inspection report, 2012, pp. 11-12)

It is a common knowledge that foster care is given to children on account of not only domestic violence in their natural families and exploitation, but also because their parents are minors or persons incapable of playing a role of parents, e.g. due to serving a prison sentence. The above-mentioned situations can be accompanied with unemployment and addictions; adopted children come from families which caused their children to lack education, social or health needs (Osborne, Alfano, 2011, p. 395).

In respect of the situation of children devoid of parents’ care, the said factors lead to a more and more frequently applied notion of a social orphanage, rather than loss of support in a natural family e.g. because of parents’ death. The phenomenon of social orphanage is defined by A. Szymborska in the following way: objective situation whose common elements are lack of care and educational influence on living parent’s part, as well as a state, situation which a child, devoid of biological parents and taken by other persons or institutions, had to face (Czarkowski, 2013, p. 6).

One undertakes numerous compensation activities aimed at counteracting the effects of social orphanage. Nevertheless, researchers-pedagogues’ attainments prove that the institutional
forms are by no means able to replace family upbringing; thus, what seems to be the most reasonable solution is replacing a natural family with family-based foster care (Czarkowski, 2013, p. 7).

**FAMILY-BASED FOSTER CARE – NUMBER, STRUCTURE, ORGANISATION**

The latest data demonstrate that at the end of 2012 there were 39,841 foster families in Poland. The biggest percentage, that is 25,836 – 65% refers to families which are related to a child, 12,162 – 30.5% pertains to non-professional foster families, whereas the least percentage is linked to professional foster families who account for as little as 1,834 – 4.5%. Simultaneously, 56,606 children remain under foster families’ care, 60% of which are brought up in related foster families, 29% in non-professional families, while 11% - in professional foster families (Ministry of Labour and Social policy, 2013).

In the structure of family-based foster care forms, one can identify families related to a child as a prevailing type. Although this phenomenon is allegedly positive, it evokes much controversy. It is said that there is a tendency to inherit certain family pathologies, as well as various dysfunctions.

Additionally, a relatively alluring pecuniary benefit provided to a child by a government may be disturbing as it is frequently the major motivation for people to take care of children who are related to them. A cause of such inconsiderable number of professional foster families is a permanent shortage of candidates who are willing to have foster children under their care (Bielecka, Kazdrowicz, 2011, p. 136).

Foster care is organised by counties, and the main units of the local government are County Family Support Centres (CFSC). The Centres are responsible for inter alia the following: assisting families when taking children, organising trainings for foster parents-to-be, support when solving problems reported by foster families, considering applications of candidates who are eager to become foster parents, collecting information about a child – its health condition, behaviour difficulties or specialist care requirement, as well as retaining emotional bonds with a natural family (unless the court decides otherwise).

County Family Support Centres are independent state administrative units and submit directly to county’s resolutions (Antas, Trębicka- Postrzygacz, 2011, pp. 66-67).
FOSTER CARE IN OTHER EUROPEAN COUNTRIES

What may serve as an example of a large-scale care for a family is Norway which has a long-term tradition of providing care to families and which is considered a social democratic country. This results from rendering various types of services that support family functioning, which is feasible thanks to taxation system means. The aforesaid services include among others state school system, healthcare, as well as social care directed at children and their careers. Additionally, out-of-school classes and organisation of spare time for children are partly funded (Kojan B.H., pp 443-44).

Local institutions are responsible for organising foster care in Norway and it is their call to select suitable foster parents who are capable of providing a professional care and proper financial conditions. The main problem of the Norwegian foster care is the fact that roughly 25% of children repeatedly change their foster family (Sigstad Begg I, 2011, pp. 131-42).

As opposed to Scandinavia, Italy and Spain are not renowned for such a long-term tradition of providing a foster family to a child. In the last five decades too institutionalised system of foster care to children and their parents was becoming increasingly unwanted with respect to providing them with care in a family. A Spanish system of social welfare for children is mainly funded by state means and functions at two levels, namely Community Social Services and Specialised Social Services, which are responsible for foster care system functioning. Institutions operating in regions play a complementary role.

Data collected in 2011 show that in Spain 35 505 children are brought up in foster families, vast majority of which (80%) in relative foster families. Goals which are supposed to be fulfilled by Italian foster parents resemble those listed in Polish law – inter alia satisfying financial needs, emotional needs, education and social needs of children. Similar to other countries, programmes related to foster parenthood is conducted regionally, wherein in the case of Italy considerable differences in terms of financial means allocation in various regions apply, which affects the quality of foster care. Italian foster care system has to deal with several difficulties. Firstly, Italians devote a lower amount of money into foster care than other countries. Another issue is the fact that Italy perceives foster family institutions as a temporary form of care, whereas foster parents are unwilling to cooperate. Also, a short-term tradition related to child upbringing in foster families plays a crucial role (del Vale J.F., pp. 228-35).

NON-GOVERNMENTAL ORGANISATIONS AND THEIR COOPERATION WITH A LOCAL GOVERNMENT

In accordance with the Act on public benefit and voluntary service, one shall perceive the notion of non-governmental organisations as units which are not departments of public finances and which do not operate to make a profit, as legal entities or entities which do not have legal entity created on the basis of legal regulations, including foundations and associations. The
following terms are used interchangeably: non-profit organisations, social organisations, charitable organisations, voluntary organisations and NGOs (non-governmental organisations). Considering all non-governmental organisations, one uses the name of III sector which functions along with other two, i.e. state institutions and for-profit subjects that aim to reap profits (www.osektorze.pl).

In 2010 in Poland there were 12 thousand foundations and 71 thousand associations. The organisations concentrated on the following disciplines: sport, tourism and hobby - 53%, culture and art - 31%, and social services and social assistance – 17%. Other fields encompassed education and upbringing, health protection, as well as social and financial development (Herbst, Przewłocka, 2011, p. 10). Public benefit activity aims to be socially useful and led in the area of public actions with respect to inter alia: social assistance (including helping persons and families in their difficult situations and giving equal opportunities), supporting the system of foster care, charity activities, integration and professional reintegration, health protection and promotion, as well as employment promotion and support, and aiding the disabled.

In addition, public administration bodies are obliged to support and entrust non-governmental organisations with the aforementioned activities, and to cooperate with III sector institutions. Entrusting non-profit organisations with public services is conducted on the basis of a open contest or in a different form, e.g. via a partnership agreement. Entrusting social organisations with public services can entail a partial or full grant (Act on Public Benefit and Volunteer Work, of 24 April 2003). What is an important effect of cooperation between local governments and III sector (NGO) is contract conclusion, on the basis of which social organisations accomplish or support and complement particular tasks which come within a purview of local government bodies (Plawgo, Żynel- Etel, 2013, p. 5). Under system projects conducted thanks to the European Social Fund, local government units receive financial aid for the purpose of accomplishing public tasks which are entrusted to non-governmental organisations. Therefore, the activity of the Queen Jadwiga Foundation is referred to performing public services under system projects primarily in Wielkopolskie Province counties, and encompasses jointly with County Family Support Centres supporting foster care system and families who struggle with difficult situations.

MATERIAL AND METHOD

When studying a role of the non-governmental organisation with regard to foster family members participation in tourism and recreation, the Queen Jadwiga Foundation, operating in Puszczykowo located nearby Poznań since 2000, served as an example. The goal of the studies is to present a non-governmental organisation as an institution which provides foster family members with the access to tourism and recreation. The primary goals
were as follows: familiarisation with the Foundation’s plans, as well as its previous and future activities related to the field of foster families.

Presentation of diverse forms of recreation and tourism in which, thanks to the Foundation’s activity, representatives of the said social group can participate turns out to be of paramount importance. Also, presentation of psychosocial aspects of foster family members participation in terms of touristic travels and recreational classes organised by the Foundation as a factual partner of County Family Support Centres was crucial. The aim of the studies is also to verify the aid given by state institutions to foster families in the field of spare time activity.

Conducting the studies, one applied a diagnostic poll method and consequently conducted open, individual, direct and categorised interviews with the president of the Queen Jadwiga Foundation, the coordinator of projects accomplished on the basis of the European Social Fund’s financial aid, and with caregivers conducting classes to foster family members who took part in project trips organised by the Foundation.

In addition to the aforementioned method, a document analysis technique was also used. The Act on family support and the system of foster care dated 9 June 2011, as well as the Act on social care dated 12 March 2004 were reviewed, i.e. the legal acts which regulate principles of foster care practice in Poland and providing carers with funds for this purpose.

**RESULTS**

**Foundation’s activity – attainments and plans, forms of organised tourism and recreation**

The Queen Jadwiga Foundation is an active institution which implements throughout Poland enterprises regarding social economy which serve to counteract social exclusion, including primarily social and professional rehabilitation, as well as integration of disabled persons. In recent years, Foundation’s activities included also the field of foster families.

Previous undertakings of the Queen Jadwiga Foundation in Puszczykowo concerned with the field of foster families are illustrated in the table 2. The Foundation’s activity associated with the said social group commenced in 2012 and allowed 182 foster families to participate in various touristic and recreational forms. 304 children from several counties of Wielkopolskie Province were engaged into these projects.

It is advisable to pay attention to the fact that training camps organised by the Foundation are held in very attractive venues, located in popular touristic destination in Poland. Virtually all venues offer a wide range of facilities, such as: swimming pools, tennis courts, pitches and sport equipment, and are situated close to the beach and the sea.

<p>| Table 2. Foundation’s activities concerned with the field of foster families |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CFSC commissioning a task</th>
<th>N. of families</th>
<th>N. of children</th>
<th>Foundation’s activities</th>
<th>Date and venue of implementation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CFSC Trzcianka</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>Organisation of accommodation and meals, psychology and law training, care for children</td>
<td>11-18.06.2012 Jaskółka Hotel, Ustronie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CFSC Wolsztyn</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>Psychology training for parents – 40h, classes with children’s caregivers, common integration</td>
<td>6-12.08 2012 Szablewski Hotel, Dymaczewo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CFSC Trzcianka</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>Training provided to foster parents, provision of care and attractions to children by carers, accommodation and meals</td>
<td>3-10.08. 2012 Panorama Morska Centre, Jarosławiec</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CFSC Trzcianka</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>Academy of Foster Parenthood, trainings for parents, care for children and preparation of classes and attractions for them by the qualified staff, common integration</td>
<td>30.06-6.07.2013 Laguna Holiday Centre, Mrzeżyno</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CFSC Wolsztyn</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>Academy of Foster Parenthood, psychology training for parents – 40h, classes and sport games for children, integration classes for parents and children organised by the qualified staff</td>
<td>1-7.07. 2013 Joanna Holiday Centre, Dźwirzyno</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CFSC Słupca</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>Academy of Foster Parenthood, trainings for parents – 40h of classes with a psychologist, classes and sport games for children, integration classes for parents and children organised by the qualified staff</td>
<td>10-17.08 2013 Alga Activ Holiday Centre, Mrzeżyno</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CFSC Kalisz</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>Academy of Foster Parenthood, trainings for parents – 40h of classes with a psychologist, classes, games and sport tournaments for children, integration classes for parents and children organised by the qualified staff</td>
<td>5-11.08.2013 Joanna Holiday Centre, Dźwirzyno</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CFSC Koło</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>Academy of Foster Parenthood, trainings for parents – 40h of classes with a psychologist, care for children and organisation of games for them, integration classes for children and parents</td>
<td>24-31.08.2013 Alga Activ Holiday Centre, Mrzeżyno</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CFSC Oborniki</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>Academy of Foster Parenthood, trainings for children – 40h of classes with a psychologist, care for children, organisation of games and attractions for them by the qualified staff, integration classes for children and parents</td>
<td>24-30.08.2013 Laguna Holiday Centre, Mrzeżyno</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Data disclosed by the Queen Jadwiga Foundation in Puszczykowo
During every trip foster parents have an opportunity to have specialist pedagogy and psychology trainings, as well as to take legal advice. Children, in turn, participate in sport-recreational classes conducted under a guidance of qualified caregivers.

Sport games (volleyball – beach volleyball, badminton, traditional games), art, dance and walks are the most popular classes organised by caregivers. Depending on the venue’s amenities, one can also list bowling and billiards, playgrounds and fitness trails, as well as water games. The venues permanently allow children and parents to integrate, which may take various forms, e.g. dancing games, bonfire, film evenings, karaoke, badminton tournaments, table tennis games, walks, beach rest, or using the complex recreational infrastructure.

Speaking of the qualified staff, the author attempts to emphasise the fact that caregivers possess entitlements and predispositions to organise professional and interesting classes for children. Out of six interviewed caregivers, five persons are entitled to work as counsellor at holiday camps and as teachers. Among the interviewed staff there also was a choreotherapist, a fitness instructor, a football coach, swimming trainer and one playworker for children during various types of trips and at school.

In 2013 the Foundation organised recreation fests entitled „The Day of Foster Parenthood‖. They were held in May and June in the following counties: Kalisz, Koło, Wolsztyn, Trzcianka and Oborniki Wielkopolskie. These were all-day open air events, in which roughly 100 foster family members took part. Promotion of foster parenthood was accompanied by a number of attractions, such as games and quizzes, illusion performances, candy floss, and merry-go-round fun.

In years to come, the Foundation intends to continue its activities regarding system project accomplishments jointly with local government units. It will be viable thanks to the European Social Fund’s financial aid provided for the years 2014-2020.

**Psychosocial aspects of participating in tourism and recreation organised by the Foundation**

All the interviewees perceive integration as the major benefit deriving from participation in the trips. It is concerned with integration and tightening bonds between children and their foster carers, as well as learning and sharing problems related to foster parents from the given region. Quoting one of the caregivers: *Trips provide an opportunity to confront one’s own knowledge and experience with other people who share their life situation.*

Considering parents who partake in psychological and legal trainings, not only is it a perfect source of knowledge with regard to solving behavioural issues, but also a chance to take professional legal advice and psychologist’s assistance, which for certain reasons would not be possible in the people’s place of residence.
Thanks to such travels, many participants had an opportunity to spend time in an attractive tourist venue for the first time in their lives: vast majority (both children and adults), apart from the travel sponsored by the foundation, do not spend their holidays out of their place of residence; 90% of participants have never been on holidays. Rarely do foster family members have a daily access to a comprehensive recreational infrastructure which is an integral part of the venues listed in the Table 2: It’s the fist time many boys from my group have gone bowling.

The camps serve as a perfect opportunity for the youth to get to know various forms of recreation. Caregivers provide numerous examples. What deserves a particular attention is the statement which describes fascination of a group of boys with an unknown to them – volleyball: It’s the first time I’ve had difficulties in stopping boys from playing. They asked me to have additional matches, irrespective of the time of the day, fatigue, or other attractions. Most of them had never played volleyball before. Another carer invokes the example of a group of girls who played badminton late in the evening. Parents frequently got involved in the competitions, which created an opportunity for integration and quality time.

Holidays organised by the Foundation are an ideal opportunity to establish new acquaintances, both among youngsters and foster parents. Given the fact that families come from the same region, these acquaintances are bound to be maintained.

One of the Foundation’s assumptions with respect to trip organisation is to send groups as far from their place of residence as possible. The purpose is to change their surrounding and separate them from what they encounter on a daily basis, and simultaneously to regenerate their mental strengths.

The analysis of legislation concerning benefits granted to foster family members.

Social aid as an institution of social policy aims to allow persons and families to overcome difficult life situations – it supports persons and families who struggle to satisfy necessary needs and allows them to have decent life standards. It is provided especially in the light of poverty, orphanage, homelessness, unemployment, disability or helplessness regarding care and education.

Taking into consideration the fact that in 2012 the Act on family support and foster care system was implemented, detailed regulations regarding granting benefits to these families were included there (Act on Social Welfare of 12 March 2004).

By virtue of the Act, caregivers of a child brought up in a related foster family receive a monthly benefit in the amount of at least 660 PLN which is supposed to cover costs of living. Professional families, non-professional families and family-type children’s homes are entitled to receive a benefit in the amount of at least 1000 PLN. Granted amounts of money can be reduced by the amount not higher than 50% of the child’s income (i.e. alimony, family allowance and family remuneration), but not higher than 80% of the amount of allowances received by a foster family.
What’s more, families who raise a disabled child receive additional 200 PLN per month. The aforementioned financial support shall satisfy children’s needs regarding everyday functioning. Funding holidays is explained in the following statement: *A foster family’s and family-type children’s home’s holidays can be co-funded out of the place of residence of children aged 6-18 once a year* (Act on family support and foster care system, of 9 June 2011).

Analysing the above-mentioned statement, a holiday benefit can be granted but it is not obligatory. Besides, a benefit is provided to a child, not to a family, which may cause a child to take advantage of the holidays without caregivers or siblings. It significantly limits the integration aspect, which is crucial in the context of strengthening bonds between foster family members.

Trips organised by the Foundation involve whole families and allow them to rest in luxurious conditions. Taking into account the amount of benefits which are granted to foster family children, they surely are not sufficient in terms of covering costs of accommodation in venues the Foundation chose. The truth is that the expense in the tourist season equals roughly 1200 PLN per person.

**CONCLUSIONS**

To conclude the collected empirical data, actions of the non-governmental organisation serve as a solid tool to support participation of foster family members in tourism and recreation. This role is particularly important with regard to the rate of social orphanage in Poland and the number of children who are brought up in foster families. The structure of family-based foster care demonstrates that most families are related to their child whilst their incomes, which can be used to provide holidays, are reduced. Simultaneously, considering the phenomenon of inheriting family pathologies, one cannot be convinced that all caregivers, who are related to a child, use benefits reasonably and devote funds to holidays.

The Queen Jadwiga Foundation is a contractor for public tasks assigned by local government units under which travels for foster family members from particular counties are organised. The trips are expected to provide a set of trainings designed for parents, but also serve as a source of rest and a conveyor of numerous psychosocial aspects. These aspects include the following: psychological and legal advice, holidays in an attractive touristic venue, high-standard venues, learning new forms of recreation and getting interested in them, change of surrounding and integration.

Given the causes of sending children to foster families, participation in these trips helps them get to know utterly different ways of spending free time, which is abstract in the reality they live, that is the reality full of violence, poverty or negligence.

Analysing legislation which determines granting social benefits for child upbringing, one can conclude that funds are insufficient in terms of providing attractive holidays to children or the whole family. It substantially limits the integration aspect which is primary during holidays.
organised by the Foundation. The foundation’s actions within system projects allow to organise holidays in high-standard venues, providing the qualified staff and attractive recreational infrastructure.

The studied non-governmental organisation fully benefits from the cooperation with public administration bodies and engages into projects hundreds of foster family members, which allows it to be reliable and professional in terms of performing its tasks. Every organisation that applies for public tasks performance can propose a different way of accomplishment. The scope of enterprises accomplished by the Foundation serves as the evidence that its propositions are highly attractive and allow for activities within the partnership with County Family Support Centres. The Foundation’s activities concerned with foster parenthood are the effect of actions undertaken by this organisation.

The presented range of studies refers to an exceptionally narrow field. Previous researches concerning issues related to the non-profit organisation activities take a form of reports rather than scientific works which present a broader perspective of given organisations, or problems pertaining to organisation of holidays in given social groups. The number of researchers who endeavour to combine notions of physical culture and social organisation activities is still inconsiderable, even though more than half of Polish foundations declare initiatives in the field of sport, tourism and hobby.

In the presented scope, EU funds are undoubtedly a great opportunity for studies, and in effect – organisation of studies in the field of EU projects at numerous state universities. Simultaneously, in many European countries the idea of social tourism is popularised, which broadens the scope of undertaken studies with respect to organisation of holidays and recreation for socially excluded persons, on the basis of cooperation between state institutions and non-governmental organisations.

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Part 3:

Current Issues of Tourism, Hospitality and Recreation
This chapter is an attempt of presenting scientific views concerning currently observed issues in the area of tourism, hotel industry and recreation. Such a multi-scope approach allows to spot the changes taking place in the tourist business in relation to the changes observed globally.

This introductory article puts emphasis on the search for the scientific identity of tourism research. On the basis of the review of appropriate literature and some empirical research, the author (Leszek Butowski) is trying to find the answer to the question about the cognitive and formal status of the studies on tourism in the context of the essence of the phenomenon of contemporary tourism, and the possibility of its separate existence as the scientific domain.

The two articles are focused on the local attractions and potential changes that might take place in the local community and environment as the effect of their development. The case study presented by Vítor Ferreira and Norberto Santos, which concerns the Wedding of the Prince Elector Friedrich V of the Palatinate with the English princess Elisabeth Stuart, was focused on the impact of this event on the local community, as well as the results concerning its capacity to attract visitors. Iwona Połucha, Emilia Marks and Katarzyna Sulżycka in their article based on the example of the Quartz Quarry “Stanislaw” and the concept of tourist complex called ‘Quarry in the clouds’ showed that the post-extraction landscape had suffered significant loss of natural value, but at the same time, it gained on cultural importance and can now offer opportunities for development that had not existed before the commencement of nature devastation.

The fast developing market of services causes that the changes can also be observed in the hotel business. Particular significance of the use of modern information technologies and the role they play in the process of communication with the environment has been described by Anna Staszewska and Karolina Ratajczyk in their article based on the example of 50 hotels from the Silesian Province. The phenomenon of the so called „timesharing“, which in Poland is known relatively poorly, especially in the context of the existing Polish and German legislation systems, has been presented and described by Agata Kosińska and Ewa Stroik. On the other hand, Kamila Anna Ciażyńska and Beata Pluta point out Vegan as the segment of the market for which there is not enough offer in Poland. Having surveyed 223 people, the authors...
managed to prove that for 67.3% interviewees vegan board is one of the factors determining the choice of holiday accommodation. Such findings can be a significant tip for the people managing hotels and hotel-like objects.

Keeping in mind that food is able to represent the identity and uniqueness of a destination Anna Pawlikowska-Piechotka saw into the offer of 12 selected open air museums in Poland and focused on newly introduced commercial activities (such as catering). As the author showed in her research, the introduction of an interesting and ambitious cuisine in the restaurants located in the rural open air museum is helpful to economic support to the museum and the local community, and important to popularization the food culture and rural tradition of the region.

The constantly accelerating pace of life increases stress level and therefore it enforces greater care of the quality of ways people spend their leisure time. In connection with the above, any manifestations of taking care of physical and mental health shown by people, have become a subject of scientific interest. This interest particularly concerns the profits gained by the tourist services providers and local administration, e.g. resulting from Medicinal or Thermal baths location (András Bozóti and Márta Bakucz), as well as benefits for the people taking up sports and recreational activities, e.g. doing fitness (Aleksandra Karpińska, Beata Pluta and Monika Kulawiak). As Halina Kotíková, Eva Schwartzhoffová and Luděk Jiřouš show in their research, people who are involved in running and jogging might be also considered to be potential clients and the products they are offered – in this case - urban running trails should definitely match their expectations.

Deliberations presented in the chapter develop the readers’ knowledge about the changes taking place in tourism, hotel industry and recreation, and therefore emphasize interdisciplinary character of tourism.
Chapter 3.1.

PHENOMENOLOGY OF TOURISM - IN SEARCH OF A SCIENTIFIC IDENTITY:
TOWARDS NEW PARADIGMS IN THE STUDIES ON TOURISM

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Abstract: The aim of this article is to present author’s views on the fundamental theoretical issues connected with studying tourism. Thus, the article can be treated as a kind of come-back to the theoretical origins of the studies on tourism. The methodological reality 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. On the other hand, tourism undoubtedly develops very quickly (in quantitative as well as qualitative aspects). New associated phenomena and problems arise constantly. It is evident that our theoretical foundations and methodological tools are insufficient to cope with these challenges. All these premises were the cause for proposing a new look at the old fundamental issues. The article consists of: 1) a theoretical introduction and an overview of selected literary sources, 2) a presentation of the results of empirical studies on contemporary understanding of the phenomenon of tourism and the ways in which it can be researched, 3) conclusions related to the future of the tourism research methodology – proposals for new paradigms of tourism research.

Keywords: methodology of tourism research, basic tourism notions, concepts and paradigms

INTRODUCTION

The aim of this article is to present author’s views on the fundamental theoretical issues connected with studying tourism. Thus, the article could be treated as a kind of come-back to the scientific origins of the studies on tourism. The discussion on the definitions of tourism and its main theoretical concepts 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
autonomous 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 (retrieved 15.01.2014).

On the other hand, most scholars are 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 dispose of are insufficient to cope with these challenges (Brent Ritchie, Sheenan and Timur, 2008; Farrel, Twinning-Ward, 2004; Shuang, Tribe and Chambers, 2013).

All these premises were the cause for proposing a new look at the old fundamental issues. This new perspective will be presented in this paper. The article consists of: 1) a theoretical introduction and an overview of selected literary sources, 2) a presentation of the results of empirical studies carried out within an academic environment on the contemporary understanding of the concepts, paradigms and the very phenomenon of tourism itself, 3) conclusions related to the future of the methodology of tourism research – proposals for new paradigms for tourism research.

**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). 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; 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.
Treat 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?

An example of searching for answers to the above-mentioned ontological questions could be a tentative survey carried out among first year students of tourism (sample size = 300), who come from various European and Asian countries (Azerbaijan, Belarus, France, Georgia, India, Kazakhstan, Poland, Russia, Turkey, Turkmenistan, Ukraine, Uzbekistan). They were asked to name the most important attributes of tourism. Having aggregated the answers, the author proposed six main groups of attributes (Table 1), which were most often associated or identified with tourism (Fig. 1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attributes named by the respondents</th>
<th>Aggregated attributes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cultures, sightseeing, curiosity, knowledge, languages, excursions</td>
<td>Discovery</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotions, leisure, holidays, new experiences, fun, joy, entertainment, satisfaction, rest</td>
<td>Adventure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Departure, movement, changing places</td>
<td>Voyage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hotel industry, tourist industry, restaurants, transportation means, tour operators, money, companies, benefits</td>
<td>Business</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attractions, tourist regions, geography, tourist product, landscape, monuments, development of tourist areas</td>
<td>Destination areas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourists, contacts with local people</td>
<td>People</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Personal findings

Obviously, these results are not fully representative, as the choice of informants did not fulfil the relevant sociological criteria of doing such research projects. The survey project signals, however, a certain direction in which the methodological discussion could go. By means of a such a survey one could try to search for answers to such questions as: what is the essence of contemporary tourism? What are its constitutive and consecutive features? Also, it seems that answers to these questions could facilitate the defining of the object of the studies on tourism, which is often not clear enough, especially nowadays, when discussions on the so called ‘post tourism’ forms of human activity (e.g. virtual tourism) begin to emerge.
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 methodological 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 (Kowalczyk, 2001). 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.

**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 in the Polish academic environment. The group of the interviewers 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).

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 (group of disciplines), the bigger its attachment to its paradigms (Fig. 2);
c) the group of full professors was relatively the most eager to recognise a new paradigm of the studies on tourism; the representatives of the lower academic degrees claimed in majority that their research projects on tourism were conducted within paradigms of the traditional disciplines (Fig. 3.)

Table 2. Structure of respondents by academic specialisations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Respondents’ characteristics</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Academic specialisations</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economics</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geographic sciences</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical Culture &amp; Sport</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other disciplines</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Academic degree</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MA</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ph.D.</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Associate Professor</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full Professor</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;35 years of age</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ages 36–50</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ages 50+</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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;
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) are relatively more eager to name themselves representatives of Tourism Sciences than scholars from other disciplines (Fig. 4);

![Figure 4. Researchers of tourism as representatives of traditional disciplines or Tourism Sciences by represented discipline](source: personal findings)

c) It also seems that there is a correlation between the academic the degree and the eagerness to call oneself a representative of Tourism Sciences; the higher the academic degree of a person, the more eager the person to call himself or herself a representative of Tourism Sciences (Fig. 5);
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;

b) the opponents of the autonomy of Tourism Sciences were usually the respondents who held a Full Professor’s degree, the proponents were holders of the remaining degrees (Fig. 6);
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 (Fig. 7);

d) The higher the age, the higher the percentage of those who oppose the autonomization of Tourism Sciences.
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, half of the respondents were ready to formally recognise Tourism Sciences as an autonomous 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 (Fig. 8).

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**Figure 8. Controversies on scientific identity and formal status of Tourism Sciences**

*Source: Personal findings*
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 historical 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-Zarzeczny, 2001). It is the case in particular with such subdisciplines as the geography of tourism, 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, 2012b; 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.

Despite the still weak theoretical foundations of what is called sustainable tourism (Butowski, 2012a, 2013), it seems that this approach may constitute a starting point for an integration of the research outputs of the multidisciplinary studies on the issues connected with tourism (carried out within particular scientific disciplines). It may be plausible as scholars, regardless of their mother disciplines and points of view, in general seem to agree that sustainability in one way or another should be taken into consideration in all deliberations concerning the phenomena of contemporary tourism. For almost two decades, the issues connected with tourism and with sustainability in tourism have been subject to research and debate within separate disciplines (sustainable tourism was studied i.a. from social, economic, environmental, spatial and other perspectives). Taking into consideration the significance of sustainable development in virtually all aspects of contemporary human activity, it seems that sustainability could constitute an integrative platform for all types of tourism research (Hunter, 1997; Farrel, Twinning-Ward, 2004). In this way, this approach can serve as a contemporary scientific paradigm for tourism research, as defined by Kuhn (because it includes a set of theories which describe and explain the phenomenon of contemporary tourism and because it is capable of generating significant research problems in the field). Of course, this is only a tentative postulate which should be subject to further, deeper deliberation.

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 and students. 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.

REFERENCES


Chapter 3.2.

Small Settlements with Medicinal and Thermal Baths in Hungary in the Light of Regional Disparities

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Abstract: Our study deals with two selected Regions of Hungary – West and South Transdanubia – where a number of local authorities can boast Spa facilities – that is, Medicinal or Thermal baths. Although a number of old establishments exist, others have appeared since the turn of the millennium. This perhaps unique picture is due to the fragmented nature of local government in Hungary and to the fact that ownership of water resources has long been vested in local authorities. Our premise is that there are significant differences between the two regions reflected in the related performance of these smaller settlements, and we examine these differences from several perspectives, but mainly regarding the new or more recent establishments.

Spas have provided the most important indicators of the development of tourism in Hungary over the last 10-15 years and it is confidently expected that this trend will at least maintain its relative significance in the future. The point has now been reached where settlements need to show their dynamic and innovative character if the generally adverse trends in the tourism sector are to be countered. Statistical databases, supplemented by the results of our own empirical research, enable us to draw certain conclusions on the functioning of the more recently established baths. We believe that small settlements, even underdeveloped. Peripheral communities with new medicinal and thermal baths are capable of real economic and social progress. They need, of course, to have reasonably attractive locations and a potentially adequate tourism infrastructure. They also need to work to become more widely known as rapidly as possible. Older spas also need serious, innovative solutions, but all face barriers caused by tight budgets and current economic difficulties.

Keywords: baths, competiveness, regional location, settlement development
INTRODUCTION

Medicinal tourism plays an important role in the economic life of a number of Hungarian settlements and may contribute even more to their prosperity (and to that of others) in the future. Hungary enjoys a considerable advantage due to its natural water resources, something close to 80% of the land area lying above accessible thermal water. There are also numerous locations where local geological conditions allow these ‘thermal’ waters to be significantly recategorised as ‘medicinal’, giving serious support to individual settlements in their efforts to emerge from, perhaps, a backward rural environment or to recover from the economic crisis.

To determine how serious an opportunity medicinal and thermal tourism offers, we need to examine what efficiency-enhancing facilities are currently used in the operation of baths and to look for examples of best practice among those baths operating successfully. The sector as a whole, fragmented as it is, needs to adopt these.

The present study is related to an OTKA research project which examines the competitiveness of Hungarian settlements which are home to medicinal or thermal baths, and it also aims to devise a competitiveness index. For this purpose, we consider three groups of factors based on King and Fei Lee (2005): the resources of a destination, its macro-environment, and the tourism-related features of the two domestic Regions selected by us – and projected to the 43 (25+18) settlements involved. On the basis of our previous results (Bakucz and Bozóti 2013), we analyse the touristic potential of settlements with baths from new perspectives, since the field demands a fairly complex analytical approach. Researchers have constructed several models, but, for the most part, they have only laid down the very first steps on the path to a comprehensive study of the field. In his study (1993), Poon highlights the fact that tourism has to be the key sector in a region for economic life to flourish. According to another approach, exchange rates also play a major role in the development of a region - through the arrival of foreign tourists (Dwyer et al. 2000). However, in order for both foreign and domestic tourists to find a given bath or spa attractive, a number of factors are crucial: infrastructure, accessibility, the scope and flexibility of the services provided (Hassan 2000), the micro-climate and environmental specifics, the attractiveness and image of the settlement in general and the operational rentability of the bath (Go and Govers 2000). Crouch and Ritchie (1999) elaborated the most detailed model to date (which can be regarded as one of the best examples in multidisciplinary research) and they have successfully explored quantifiable correlations also.

In our present study we analyse from the above-mentioned competitiveness theories the tourism-related features, which means the touristic performance data, of the settlements selected and some features of their medicinal or thermal baths. Our paper has two aims: one is to provide an overall situation report on small settlements operating medicinal and thermal baths (and which were included in the detailed study in the two regions); the second is to measure the competitiveness of relatively new baths by a regional comparison. For this purpose, and as a first
step, we shall present the touristic indicators of the settlements with baths involved in our study in a time series approach, and after this we shall compare the trends observed with the results of a questionnaire-based survey directed at a 1,000-person sample before seeking a relationship between the ‘familiarity’ (the public’s awareness) of a bath and the settlement’s indicators. Finally, we will show any correlation between visitor numbers and the services offered by a given bath. We are, in fact, aiming to examine the following research questions:

- The connection between familiarity and the touristic indicators of settlements in West and South Transdanubia,
- the relationship between familiarity of bath and visitor numbers in general, based on our survey,
- the relation of familiarity and visitor numbers in terms of our sample chosen for the current study,
- the connection of the services offered by the new baths and visitor numbers.

Analysis of the touristic indicators of the selected settlements

In the following we shall offer a detailed presentation of 4-4 settlements in the two regions which operate a relatively new medicinal and thermal bath. The selection was based on population size and the existence of a totally new bath or of a seriously modernised bath replacing an older one. We have endeavoured `to create pairings on the basis of population size (Lipót-Magyarhertelend, Lenti-Tamási, Szentgotthárd-Barcs shown in Table 1), although, in order to comply with our research objectives, we also included a ‘success story’ from the early 2000s, Kehidakustány, where one of the most popular baths in the country was built. We paired this with Szigetvár in the South Transdanubian Region for our analysis. The settlements which we included are shown in black, and those which are not part of our analysis but still had a medicinal or thermal bath were shown in grey on the map comprising Figure 1.
Figure 1. Settlements with baths involved in the research
Source: Authors’ own construction

Table 1. Number of inhabitants, 2012

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Settlement</th>
<th>Inhabitants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lipót</td>
<td>736</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Szentgotthárd</td>
<td>8707</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kehidakastány</td>
<td>1101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lenti</td>
<td>8337</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Magyarhertelend</td>
<td>676</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barcs</td>
<td>11485</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Szigetvár</td>
<td>10892</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tamási</td>
<td>8501</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Authors’ own construction based on data from the Hungarian Central Statistical Office

Table 2. The most significant bath developments in small settlements with new baths in the two regions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year/region</th>
<th>West Transdanubia</th>
<th>South Transdanubia</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>Zalaszentgrót</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>Kehidakastány (9/5), Bázakerettye</td>
<td>Marcali, Dunaföldvár</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>Letenye</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>Celldömölk</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>Gelse</td>
<td>Barcs (4/7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td></td>
<td>Szigetvár (3/6), Mohács</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>Szentgotthárd (1/8)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>Lenti (6/3)</td>
<td>Siklós</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td></td>
<td>Magyarhertelend (6/5), Tamási (6/12)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>Lipót (7/0)</td>
<td>Igal, Bonyhád</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Authors’ own construction
The first figure following the names of the baths signifies the number of open-air pools and the second that of covered pools. Tamási clearly has the largest number of pools, two-thirds of which are covered. Italics in the table refer to medicinal baths and normal characters to thermal baths.

Firstly, in order to measure the touristic potential of settlements different touristic indicators will be presented from the perspective of the last 6 years. The most significant touristic indicator at settlement level is the number of visitor nights - shown in Table 3 in relation to the settlements of the two regions. The bold values in the table were created during the year when that bath was opened:

**Table 3. The number of visitor nights in commercial accommodation in the settlements with new baths in the two regions (2007-2012)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>West Transdanubia</th>
<th>South Transdanubia</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lipót</td>
<td>Szentgotthárd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Szentgotthárd</td>
<td>Kehidakustány</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lenti</td>
<td>Magyarhertelend</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Barcs</td>
<td>Szigetvár</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tamási</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>21,684</td>
<td>15,964</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>44,042</td>
<td>38,604</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2,344</td>
<td>899</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>17,068</td>
<td>10,636</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>20,807</td>
<td>17,921</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>43,261</td>
<td>33,206</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1,708</td>
<td>1,095</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>17,220</td>
<td>17,220</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10,279</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>18,317</td>
<td>19,380</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>42,385</td>
<td>31,058</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1,442</td>
<td>766</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>15,968</td>
<td>15,968</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9,341</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>15,240</td>
<td>58,686</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>37,087</td>
<td>29,080</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1,616</td>
<td>338</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>27,416</td>
<td>9,341</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>14,765</td>
<td>66,470</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>36,566</td>
<td>27,719</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>893</td>
<td>312</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>13,894</td>
<td>8,170</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>16,167</td>
<td>57,863</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>38,670</td>
<td>23,216</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1,341</td>
<td>406</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>14,800</td>
<td>8,130</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Authors’ own construction based on data from the Hungarian Central Statistical Office

There is an enormous difference between the two regions, even at first glance. The number of visitor nights exceeded 27,000 in South Transdanubia only in Szigetvár, whilst in West Transdanubia this figure would be regarded as low. It might also seem surprising at first that the number of visitor nights in Szentgotthárd showed a significant rise between 2009 and 2010 – in fact, a fourfold increase. This was due to the opening of a new hotel which produced a much better situation in terms of visitor accommodation in the town than in the other four settlements. A gradual decline can be seen in the remaining West Transdanubian settlements, which is probably explained by a simple decline in demand and the fact that local demand became more important, since, according to our hypotheses, a growing proportion of the population prefer a one-day visit for financial reasons. These trends cannot be regarded as too negative if we compare the figures with the numeric values on the right-hand side of the table. The number of visitor nights in South Transdanubia in 2010 is satisfactory only in Szigetvár, but this is followed by a drastic decline in 2011, the number of visitors declining by half, so indicating clearly the decreasing attraction of the bath. One factor behind the higher value might well be the supplementary touristic role of the town during the ‘Pécs2010’ (ECoC) project, with the
consequent decline being inevitable. Despite the bath developments in Tamási during recent years, the number of visitor nights has not increased. The rate of decline is not drastic in itself, but it is continuous. If this trend remains unchanged, it is quite clear that the settlement will be unable to fulfil a role as a tourist destination. The number of visitor nights is remarkably low in Barcs and Magyarhertelend, the two other South Transdanubian settlements: the number of day visitors is much higher in the latter than overnight visitors, due probably to the peripheral location of the town, whilst in the latter settlement, the visitors to the bath mostly prefer accommodation in tourist cottages or second homes.

The investigation of indicators weighted by population number is needed to carry out a deeper analysis, enabling a more accurate measurement of performance to be taken and the effects of varying settlement sizes to be neutralised. The following table (Table 4) shows the number of visitor nights per 100 inhabitants in the two regions:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Settlement</th>
<th>West Transdanubia</th>
<th>South Transdanubia</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lipót</td>
<td>Szentgotthárd</td>
<td>Kehidakustány</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>3156.33</td>
<td>179.41</td>
<td>3713.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>3033.09</td>
<td>201.56</td>
<td>3669.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>2646.97</td>
<td>219.33</td>
<td>3946.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>2170.94</td>
<td>669.09</td>
<td>3492.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>2047.85</td>
<td>761.48</td>
<td>3345.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>2196.60</td>
<td>664.56</td>
<td>3512.26</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Authors’ own construction based on data from the Hungarian Central Statistical Office

Regional disparities increased following their weighting with population numbers. Where the population number serves as a reference point in terms of visitor nights, then the performance of Szentgotthárd can no longer be considered satisfactory - neither that of Lenti. The leading role of Kehidakustány in the sample is evident, even in terms of its population number. There are no clearly discernible trends in South Transdanubia. In Magyarhertelend, due to fluctuating demand, the operators of a bath with no established visitor circle have to face serious financial and operative planning difficulties. The increase in visitor nights in 2012 was evidently a consequence of a massive investment in baths with covered pools. The performance of Szigetvár and Tamási, compared with other parts of the Region, can be described as mediocre. Although the latter showed a high value in the regional sample in 2009, these baths are competitors, and so current discounts, the state of the local economy in the settlement and its catchment area during the given year had a significant impact on demand, mostly accelerating its decline.
In addition to the number of visitor nights, it is also important to examine the average length of stay. The following table (Table 5) contains the data for eight settlements:

### Table 5. Average stay in settlements with new baths (2007-2012)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>West Transdanubia</th>
<th>South Transdanubia</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lipót</td>
<td>Szentgotthárd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>2.05</td>
<td>1.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>2.02</td>
<td>1.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>2.08</td>
<td>2.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>2.23</td>
<td>2.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>2.15</td>
<td>2.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>2.23</td>
<td>2.78</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Authors’ own construction based on data from the Hungarian Central Statistical Office

It is worth noting that, whilst Szentgotthárd was by far the most successful in terms of the number of visitor nights among the settlements examined, its performance was rather poor in terms of the average length of stay. The duration did improve due to the opening of the hotel in 2010, and so the settlement no longer lags behind the average. Lenti was prominent among the four South Transdanubian settlements, but the initial average length of stay of 4.3 nights showed a declining trend and reached its nadir in 2011; this was followed by a period of slow growth in 2012. The durability of this trend is fundamental, but our analysis clearly shows that Lenti was unable to maintain its initially favourable position, since there has been a decline in each of the indicators observed. At the same time, Lenti should serve as the most appropriate venue for innovative solutions, since the length of stay is relatively long, although the number of visitors needs to be increased. We can discern a near-parallel case in respect of Lipót and Kehidakustány, which indicates the presence of development paths similar in terms of both direction and pace evidenced by stagnation until 2009 and slow growth thereafter.

An analysis of the average length of stay in South Transdanubia indicates the existence of trends similar to those in West Transdanubian settlements. The peak of 2008 of Magyarhertelend (4 nights) is worth highlighting, together with the drastic decline which followed. Demand for the bath fluctuated heavily, as already seen, and the thermal bath in Hertelend has increasingly become a venue for day-visits. The number of visitor nights is relatively low in Tamási, although the length of stay is longer with an average duration of 3.5 - 4 days. Szigetvár lags significantly behind Tamási in this respect, and, if we disregard the special year of 2010, the bath had no long-term impact beyond its current touristic package. Barcs shows a significant fluctuation in this respect, indicating no obvious shift towards day-visitors or overnight visitors.
In addition to analysing the demand side, it is also necessary to focus on the supply side when analysing the touristic potential of small settlements. Bed occupancy rate is the most significant index relating to accommodation in the given settlements in Table 6:

Table 6. Bed occupancy in settlements with new baths 2007-2012 (%)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>West Transdanubia</th>
<th>South Transdanubia</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lipót</td>
<td>Szent-gotthárd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>28.29</td>
<td>12.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>25.34</td>
<td>14.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>23.23</td>
<td>15.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>35.99</td>
<td>22.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>34.87</td>
<td>25.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>31.19</td>
<td>22.65</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Authors’ own construction based on data from the Hungarian Central Statistical Office

The above table shows that the unfavourable effects experienced in Lenti also have an impact on occupancy rates, and this index shows that a more focused marketing strategy in Lenti would help to attract more visitors. The reverse was observed in Lipót which had a higher occupancy rate (approximately 35%) of the limited amount of accommodation in 2011 than the other settlements. This still lagged behind the value expected, but it is much better than in the other settlements. Thanks to the increased availability of accommodation in Szent-gotthárd, there is a positive trend, although occupancy might reach its optimal level for several more years. Surprisingly, the performance of Kehidakustány is rather poor in this comparison. The analysis of South Transdanubia reveals that the relatively limited quantity of accommodation available in Barcs is used more efficiently than in the other settlements, and yet the deterioration caused by the crisis is also visible there. We cannot, of course, ignore the fact that it is easy to achieve high occupancy rates given a limited supply of accommodation. In the other three settlements, by contrast, we found very low rates, which also had a negative influence on short-term operations, especially in Magyarhertelend and in spite of a recently built covered bath complex. The following table gives the most up-to-date data available from 2012, supplemented by further indicators omitted from previous analyses (Table 7):

Without engaging in lengthy analyses, the existence of significant disparities between the settlements examined is obvious - even at first glance. Kehidakustány has achieved a better position in terms of the rate of visitor nights per 100 residents, Lipót in terms of bed occupancy, whilst Lenti ranks first in terms of length of stay. Nevertheless, the largest number of foreign visitors arrive in Szentgotthárd, this index being the weak point of Kehidakustány. The prominence of Kehidakustány is evident considering the number of restaurants per 100 residents and the quantity of accommodation. To summarise, we can state that Kehidakustány is the most
tourism-oriented settlement in our West Transdanubian sample. A large number of foreign visitors come to Szentgotthárd, especially from neighbouring Austria, and it has the highest number of accommodation units, which is consistent with its characteristic features stemming from its larger size as a settlement.

Table 7. Major indicators in settlements with new baths (2012)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>West Transdanubia</th>
<th>South Transdanubia</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lipót</td>
<td>Szentgotthárd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visitor nights/100 residents</td>
<td>2,196.60</td>
<td>664.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kehidakustány</td>
<td>3,512.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lenti</td>
<td>278.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Magyarhertelend</td>
<td>198.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Barcs</td>
<td>3.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Szigetvár</td>
<td>154.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tamási</td>
<td>95.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourist tax night (Ft)</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>399</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>300</td>
<td>300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>250</td>
<td>347</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>350</td>
<td>300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bed occupancy (%)</td>
<td>31.19</td>
<td>22.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>13.71</td>
<td>8.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.66</td>
<td>18.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8.55</td>
<td>6.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average stay in accomm. (days)</td>
<td>2.23</td>
<td>2.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2.82</td>
<td>3.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.67</td>
<td>2.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2.79</td>
<td>3.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreign visitors (%)</td>
<td>14.20</td>
<td>55.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11.84</td>
<td>53.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11.32</td>
<td>47.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9.36</td>
<td>20.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Catering units</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>22</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>87</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. (%) enterprises</td>
<td>6.67</td>
<td>2.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.97</td>
<td>1.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9.23</td>
<td>1.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.85</td>
<td>2.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Catering units/100 residents</td>
<td>4.89</td>
<td>0.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6.81</td>
<td>4.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>0.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. accomm. units/100 residents</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td>0.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>0.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.44</td>
<td>0.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>0.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. restaurants/100 residents</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>0.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.54</td>
<td>0.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.38</td>
<td>0.26</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Authors’ own construction based on data of the Hungarian Central Statistical Office

An analysis of South Transdanubia reveals immediately that the number of visitor nights is much below that for West Transdanubia. The size of settlement in the case of these four has had a significant impact on our analysis, since we found that these settlements are capable of achieving a superior performance compared with the rest only on the basis of one or two indicators. The number of visitor nights per 100 residents and the number of enterprises involved in the tourism sector is the highest in Magyarhertelend, and so its local economy is much more tourism oriented than the other settlements in our sample. Barcs ranks first in terms of foreign visitors and the occupancy rate of rooms, Szigetvár in terms of the tourist tax per visitor night and the number of places of accommodation, whilst Tamási is the leader regarding length of stay. According to the conclusions which can be drawn on the basis of the above analysis, to achieve
outstanding results in terms of touristic potential in a settlement with a medicinal or thermal bath, all of these indicators, or, at least, the majority, must exceed those of the competitors. Our current analysis shows that there is great variation in these indicators, which implies that even settlements with baths in the (already lagging) South Transdanubian region find it extremely difficult to obtain positive results in the touristic sector.

RESULTS

To deepen our analysis and to provide a further approach to measuring touristic potential, we can discuss the results of our questionnaire-based survey undertaken between February 18th and 28th, 2013. The survey was conducted by telephone (CATI), on a national sample comprising 1,000 people representative in terms of age and gender of the 18+ population. The distribution of the respondents on the basis of age groups shows that the majority of respondents belonged to the 40-49 age group, 54% female and 46% male. 20.8% of the respondents belonged to the 60+ age group, and 20.2% to the 30-39 group. Over 30% of the respondents live in Central Hungary, whilst the second largest group were from the Northern Great Plain. 9.9% of respondents live in West Transdanubia and another 9.8% in South Transdanubia.

Data on visitor numbers

On the basis of the questionnaire, we were able to examine the extent to which respondents are familiar with the medicinal and thermal touristic supply of the two regions, i.e. which baths they had previously been acquainted with. The analysis was performed by two methods: in the first phase, respondents had to name known or familiar baths themselves, and, as a result, the following order was established on the basis of the frequency of the mention of the names: Hévíz, Zalakaros, Harkány and Bükfürdő, which are the most competitive baths in the two examined regions. Of the 8 settlements examined in the current study, Lenti alone was among the 10 most frequently mentioned baths, 2.2% of respondents mentioning this bath without assistance. In the second phase, respondents were required to indicate whether they had already heard about the given settlement with a bath. This indicated a weaker, yet still significant level of their familiarity. The difference between the two types of question was to be found in the presence or absence of direct association. The following figure (Figure 2) demonstrates the general consequence to be drawn regarding the 43 settlements examined, i.e. the existence of a strong interrelation between the familiarity of a bath and visitor numbers.
On the basis of the above showed regression analysis, we can state that a very strong relationship exists between familiarity and visits. Consequently, the circle of visitors to Hungarian baths do not explore the entire supply, but, rather, if they were satisfied with the services offered by a bath, they would return, so mainly visiting a bath with which they are already familiar. Transmitting acquired positive experiences and word of mouth are the most likely sources of information.

The following figure (Figure 3) illustrates the visiting pattern based on the 8-element sample highlighted from the preference analysis:
The double columns in the above figure show the rate of visitors to baths. The first column shows visits in relation to a whole 1000-element sample, whilst the second shows the number of visitors only as the proportion of those who know of the given bath. The average columns refer to the 8-settlement sample, and their role is significant from the aspect of their relation to the total average. The two pairs of columns which follow depict average values related to 25 settlements with baths in West Transdanubia and 18 in South Transdanubia. The total average relates to familiarity and visitor numbers for the 43 settlements based on the survey.

In respect of visits to baths, Kehidakustány ranks first in the total sample, followed by Lenti and Tamási. Kehidakustány had many visitors among those who had already known about the bath, 640 of those questioned had already heard about it and 244 had already visited it - which implies a 38% visit/familiarity rate. In the case of Magyarhertelend, 50% of those who knew the bath had already visited it, although this creates a somewhat contradictory situation, since the bath is known only by a narrow circle of people, and those who do know about it are counted among its visitors. An average 8.24% of those questioned had already visited a bath included in our analysis, and our sample was only 1.4% below the total average.

According to our basic research objective (formulated before the analysis), in most cases those familiar with small settlements with a new bath have already visited them. No values were found above 50% in the last columns, and so there is no strong, significant correlation, contrary to our previous ideas. In fact, if we compare the visit to familiarity average value of 33.99% which applies to the 8-piece sample with the same average value of 43 settlements (29.09%), it is evident that visits to settlements with a new bath is much more linked to their familiarity, and, further, the relationship is even stronger if we omit Szentgotthárd - which strongly distorts the average value of the 8-element sample. These trends are probably also explained by word of mouth, which strongly influences demand. Individual, focused marketing activities by baths and collaboration are seldom totally absent.

We also looked for a connection between familiarity (simply with the existence of the bath), the preference ranking of actual visitors and of potential visitors and the settlement-level touristic indicators, the results of which appear in Table 8.

The 8 settlements included in our analysis are ranked in order in the above table on the basis of indicators heading the columns. The ‘Actual visitor’ ranking shows the preferred choice of actual visitors to a specific bath whilst ‘Potential visitor’ ranking shows the preferences on the basis of respondents who simply know of the bath. This sample is not large enough for statistical tests, and so we were forced to examine the relation on the basis of descriptive, more simplified methods. In this case we compared the rankings of the touristic indicators with the rankings of our survey in terms of familiarity and number of visitors to the particular bath.
Table 8. The connection between touristic performance and visitor preference based on rankings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Bath</th>
<th>Visitor nights/100 residents</th>
<th>Average length of stay</th>
<th>Bed-occupancy</th>
<th>Familiarity</th>
<th>Actual visitor preference</th>
<th>Potential visitor ranking</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lipót</td>
<td>2.</td>
<td>7.</td>
<td>1.</td>
<td>5.</td>
<td>7.</td>
<td>3.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Szentgotthárd</td>
<td>3.</td>
<td>5.</td>
<td>2.</td>
<td>7.</td>
<td>8.</td>
<td>4.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kehidakustány</td>
<td>1.</td>
<td>3.</td>
<td>4.</td>
<td>1.</td>
<td>1.</td>
<td>1.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lenti</td>
<td>4.</td>
<td>1.</td>
<td>6.</td>
<td>2.</td>
<td>2.</td>
<td>7.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Magyarhertelend</td>
<td>5.</td>
<td>8.</td>
<td>8.</td>
<td>8.</td>
<td>5.</td>
<td>2.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barcs</td>
<td>8.</td>
<td>6.</td>
<td>3.</td>
<td>6.</td>
<td>6.</td>
<td>6.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Szigetvár</td>
<td>6.</td>
<td>4.</td>
<td>5.</td>
<td>3.</td>
<td>4.</td>
<td>5.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tamási</td>
<td>7.</td>
<td>2.</td>
<td>7.</td>
<td>4.</td>
<td>3.</td>
<td>8.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Authors’ own construction

The most popular, frequently visited bath and for which demand will likely remain high in the future is Kehidakustány. This settlement has achieved a good position in terms of all three performance indicators, and the strongest correlation is visible in the number of visitor nights in relation to the population.

Lenti and Tamási rank second and third in terms of visits, which implies a wider visitor circle than in the other baths examined. The variance is more significant in terms of settlement-level performance indicators: Lenti ranks first in terms of average length of stay and Tamási has second position, but they have only been able to achieve modest positions regarding other indicators. The main aim is simply to increase visitor numbers.

Szigetvár is the fourth most frequently visited and the third best known bath in our sample. However, the settlement has not achieved such a prominent position in terms of performance indicators and lies in the middle-rank: its aim may be to maintain its current position, and to improve in future years.

Magyarhertelend ranks fifth in our sample in relation to visitor numbers, but is probably the weakest settlement from the point of view of marketing activity: the bath does attract visitors (holding second place in terms of attractivity), but it occupies the worst position in respect of familiarity. The fact that this bath is only known among those who belong to its visitor circle would be excellent if the existence of the bath were known to a wider circle. The basic number of arrivals in all baths needs to be seriously increased together with the length of stay and bed occupancy rates. Barcs is below midway in the 8-element sample in terms of visitor numbers and familiarity and shows little success in respect of tourism performance.
The least visited baths in our sample were those of Lipót and Szentgotthárd, although, interestingly, their touristic indicators are not the worst. The picture is somewhat deceptive in the case of Lipót, since it is easier to improve touristic indicators linked to population numbers in a settlement with a small population. In Szentgotthárd the indicators are more favourable than expected in terms of visitor preference and familiarity, but it is important to increase the length of stay.

To summarise, we can state that familiarity and visitor preference do not necessarily match the settlement-level touristic indicators. A relationship clearly exists, but this is most visible between the average length of stay and the familiarity of a bath in the cases examined.

The structure of services offered by baths

This chapter focuses on the relationship between actual visitors and the service packages offered by the baths in question. During our survey of the 1000-person sample, we asked for an evaluation of 19 factors influencing the choice of bath on a Likert scale ranging from 1 to 5. The range of services offered was given high priority (an average value of 4.1 if we consider the total number of those who are familiar with the bath), and so we compared the data of our 8-element sample with the services offered. The range demanded was also investigated in the questionnaire-based survey where the investigation targeting the 8 baths only measured the supply of those services which are used by over 50% of visitors in the national sample. These services are shown in Table 9.

The above table lists the services in descending order in respect of frequency of use. The ‘familiarity’ line shows the 8 baths in ranking order on the basis of familiarity/total familiarity percentage values contained in the questionnaire from the previous analyses. Based on the same logic, if we look at the ‘actual visitors’ preference column, we can see the ranking order of the rates of visitors/total number of respondents in relation to the actual bath. Our conclusions have been drawn on the basis of a comparison of rankings and the number of services available in a particular bath. It is clear that there are certain services available in all baths included in our analysis, and their investigation does not reveal any disparities from the standpoint of our current research, since the standard of services, their quality as perceived by visitors, was not included in our analysis. Nor did we examine the variety and quantity of the various types of service available (e.g. the number of leisure pools, types of massage). However, it is clear that all the baths in our 8-element sample have catering facilities, leisure pools and a variety of types of massage, showing that the new baths do try to adjust to consumers’ preferences.
### Table 9. Relationship between variety of services, familiarity and visitor preference

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Services</th>
<th>West Transdanubia</th>
<th>South Transdanubia</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lipót</td>
<td>Szentgotthárd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Open-air pool</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medicinal bath/pools</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Catering restaurant, buffet etc.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leisure bath</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swimming pool</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medicinal/other massage</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sauna, IR/steam cabins, thermal-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>therapy</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Familiarity ranking             | 5.                | 7.                 | 1.             | 2.           | 8.    | 6.        | 3.     | 4.     |
| Preference ranking              | 7.                | 8.                 | 1.             | 2.           | 5.    | 6.        | 4.     | 3.     |

Source: Authors’ own construction

The frequency of use of various services reveals significant features; open air pools are used by 89% of the respondents, medicinal baths by 85.1%, and restaurants and catering facilities by 84.9%. 63.8% of visitors use medicinal and other types of massage, and 61.1% use the sauna. This demonstrates the effective use of capacities and not their significance. In terms of familiarity and preferences, the two most prominent baths in our sample are those of Kehidakustány and Lenti, where only one or two services were unavailable of those classed as being of key importance according to our results.

In our sample Szigetvár and Tamási shared 3rd and 4th place in terms of familiarity and visitor preference, and their service package is, by and large, identical to that of the two West Transdanubian baths mentioned. Consequently there are no real disparities visible in this area. The two baths with the fewest visitors are Lipót and Szentgotthárd, and two types of service are missing from those deemed most important for visitors. The second most frequently demanded, the medicinal bath, is missing in both, and, moreover, there is no open air pool in Szentgotthárd - the facility most widely demanded by all visitors. Both settlements are situated near to national borders, and over 50% of visitor nights are foreign, This suggests that the absence of a medicinal bath in these cases is the result of a conscious survey of demand.
To summarise, our analyses clearly demonstrate that, in order to enhance the number of visitors, a bath has to offer more and more of the services deemed most significant by the respondents. This clearly produces a beneficial effect on the prestige of a given bath, although the correlation is not so obvious in the case of familiarity, since this factor is not only influenced by the assets of a given bath (number of pools and variety of services), but also by its marketing activities. Magyarhertelend provides a good example, in that it has the which has the lowest level of familiarity in our sample, but still ranks fifth in visitor preference, since it has an adequate range of services and ‘word of mouth’ (WoM) contributes greatly to its success. It is also clear that a bath must offer at least 6 of the 7 key services in order to be competitive in the new bath sector, although further rankings show that the differentiating factor in the case of baths with the same number of services is the type of service(s) missing. Exceptions to this rule is found in the cases of Tamási and Barcs. The former has achieved a higher position than expected on the basis of the structure of services, thanks to its ‗disability-bath‘ (where handicapped people have easier access to its services) and the enhanced volume of services (variety of treatments, number of pools). The weaker levels of familiarity and visitor preference of Barcs are due to its peripheral location and inadequate hotel services, despite the availability of a wide range of services.

CONCLUSIONS

The primary objective of our study was to examine the small settlements of two selected regions with newly constructed baths, and the evolution of their performance indicators -, and to provide a new approach to their analysis through the exploitation of the results of a demand preference survey. We selected an 8-element sample to perform our analysis primarily on the basis of population numbers and the existence of a new bath.

The significant regional disparities between the settlement-level touristic indicators did not produce surprising results, even if it is not so evident in the average length of stay. From the perspective of visitor nights, the settlements of West Transdanubia included in our sample represent a different category compared with those selected from South Transdanubia. A relationship clearly exists between visitor preferences, familiarity and touristic performance indicators, but regional disparities are not evident. West Transdanubian settlements performed, in general, better in terms of touristic indicators than their South Transdanubian counterparts, but visitor preference and familiarity data show a mixed picture in regional terms. On the basis of the current sample we could not find any relationship between familiarity of a bath and its touristic indicators from the perspective of regional disparities.
We examined the general relationship between familiarity with a bath and preference on the basis of the analysis performed on all the baths of the two regions (43 in total). The relation sheds light on the fact that those who are aware of the existence of the bath are likely to become visitors, since we obtained a strong relationship on the basis of the regression analysis (with a 93% explanatory force) which clearly indicated that Word of Mouth, i.e. an informal exchange of information between family members and friends is significant and real, since personal experiences have the greatest persuasive force Further, on the basis of a consumer preference questionnaire we tried to shed light on the circle of those persons who knew about the new bath. Our research question was whether new baths were less well-known and supposedly those people who have not frequented them are less likely to have heard of their existence or not. This assumption was justified, although not to a statistically significant degree, since, in general, the difference between expressed visitor rankings and familiarity with new baths is less than for the total sample of 43 settlements, i.e. a higher proportion of those who already knew of the existence of these baths became visitors to these complexes than in the case of the 43 baths of the sample.

As the final phase of our analysis, we noted the relationship between the service package of baths and visitor ranking. The relationship was evident in the case of a small sample already, since the ranking order established from the perspective of the availability of the most frequently used services in the respective baths on the basis of the preference questionnaire clearly demonstrates that those baths are more competitive which offer a greater variety of key services, and it must be highlighted that those baths which were more able to adapt to demand have received a higher number of visitors in recent years.

By way of summary, we can conclude that those small settlements enjoy a higher familiarity and have a larger number of visitors which have been able to apply more innovative solutions. The success story of Kehidakustány during the early 2000s, the development of the disability bath in Tamási and the energy park in Lenti provide a unique selling proposition for these baths, and this should, therefore, encourage other new baths to follow their example. Nevertheless, new solutions do not automatically produce long-term profit - but only if innovative change is a continuous process and meets the changing needs of visitors. Lenti provides a good example of this, where the decreasing number of visitor nights led to the introduction of innovation. Magyarhertelend has embarked on the road towards progress with the construction of a covered bath, but
the name of the bath should nonetheless be more widely known through a more conscious marketing strategy. A collaboration between baths – possibly in the shape of clusters – might improve the situation of small settlements with new baths, but this requires a radically new approach by management.

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http://www.terport.hu/telepulesek/telepulestipusok

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CHAPTER 3.3.

CITY RUNNING TOURS AS A NEW PRODUCT IN SPORT TOURISM

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Abstract: A number of authors have highlighted the importance of sports tourism (Gibson, 2006, Weed, 2008, Higham, 2009,). With the growing interest in healthy lifestyles and a focus on creating new products in the field of sport tourism, running is now becoming a phenomenon that reverberates not only in terms of leisure-time activities, but also in tourism. The aim of this paper is to describe a new product in the field of sports tourism - urban running trails - in the context of other products and examine the expectations and needs target groups of tourists have in relation to this product. Customer needs were identified through a survey. This survey was conducted through a website dedicated to the theme of running and jogging. Responses were obtained from a total of 211 respondents from 20 countries. The results show that there is interest in this product. The requirements of the target groups have been identified with regard to length of tour routes, the time of the tour, the characteristics of the route and guide services. The survey results show that urban trails have the potential to become new (though in terms of target groups rather narrowly focused) product of sports tourism.

Keywords: Sports tourism, product, running, urban running trails

INTRODUCTION

The development of the tourism industry has triggered the development of new tourism products. Sports tourism is a fast growing and lucrative segment of the travel industry. In order to realize its full potential for sport tourism, each destination must constantly offer new tourist products.

Sports tourism is a type of tourism which combines sport with travel. In recent years, this branch has undergone significant development, and this has led to innovation and an expansion in the offer of new products. Standeven and De Knop define sport tourist as “all forms of active and passive involvement in sporting activity, participated in casually or in an organized way for non-commercial or business/commercial reasons, that necessitates travel away from home and work locality” (Standeven and DeKnop, 1999).
By contrast, M. Weed characterizes sports tourism as "a social, economic, cultural and social phenomenon of the present time created by a unique interaction of activity, people and places." His approach includes arguments that "sport tourism has the same ratio of activities and experiences, and the people and places interact, so that these experiences can create" (Weed, 2008). Most authors dealing with the definition of sport tourism according to Kotíková (2013) then continue by identifying the following basic points: active participation in sporting activities, watching sporting activities or visiting attractions associated with the operation of sporting activities. Schwarzhoffová (2010) mentions the economic and social benefits of taking advantage of sport tourism as a key part of the offering of tourism products. Sports tourism encompasses a wide range of different areas; these are based on the motivation clients have to travel. Kurzman (2005) divided sports tourism into the following categories: Sporting events, Sports attractions, Sports tours, Sports resorts and Sports cruises.

In addition to this, H. Gibson (1998) recognizes only three divisions of sports tourism which he names: Active Sport Tourism, Event Sport Tourism and Nostalgia Sport Tourism. Higham and Hinch mention the Sport tourism dimensions of serious leisure and the dependence between certain sports and specific types of environments and locations requires travel for the serious pursuit of a recreational sport endeavor" (Higham and Hinch, 2009).

The product of sport tourism

The term tourism product is not clearly defined, and its meaning depends on the sense in which the product is being written about. Existing definitions of tourism products consider their economic or marketing perspectives; others deal with their psychological or sociological context. Generally a product can be defined as "anything that can be offered to a market for attention, acquisition, use or consumption that might satisfy some need" (Kotler, 2006). In tourism products are principally thought of as services. The product depends on what the destination has to offer. Therefore, the term destination product is often used to describe the totality of goods and services which the destination places on the tourism market to meet the needs of visitors. For tourists, the product is a complete experience that fulfills multiple tourism needs and provides corresponding benefits. Tourists are confronted with a wide range of tourism products in the destinations that they visit. Xu adds that “for providers of tourism and hospitality services, the key question
is: what makes a memorable and successful experience for tourists?” (Xu, 2010). According to her study, the “physical plant” is the most important component for the majority of products (Xu, 2010). Generally each product includes its tangible and intangible elements. A study carried out by Mehmetoglu and Normann (2013) indicated that the effect of the overall product components (personnel, information, and product variety) was indeed much greater than that of the destination product on the tourists’ overall holiday experience.

Some branches of sport are becoming part of the tourist offering, i.e. have become tourism products. They thus act as multipliers, which reinforce the impact of tourism. An example of this type of offering would include sports activities such as jogging. The more sport resources – whether man-made or natural – a location has, the more likely it is to attract tourists. Recognizing this, the tourism industry has developed sporting attractions and facilities in an effort to sell more tourism services by diversifying its products and expanding its market. In addition to offering natural experiences, the culture of a country or region also plays an important role in attracting tourists (Standeven and DeKnop, 1999). Heritage expressed in the preservation of culture from the past can attract tourists to visit historical towns like Prague or other European cities.

A sport activity can be recognized in the both sectors of tourism (leisure and business travel). The sport aspect (element) can be active or passive. According the involvement Standeven and DeKnop distinguish between the sport activity holidays, where sport is the main intention of the trip, and holiday sport activities, where sport is incidental (Standeven and DeKnop, 1999). Holiday sport activities sport participation also includes participation in private or independent sport activity on holiday such as running tours. A running tour as a tourist product which can be categorized as supplementary sports tourism, which according Weed and Bull includes broad sports tourism product types that are not the main product offered by providers, but a supplement to or one small part of their main product. This is the broadest of the sports tourism product types, including not only the widest range of activities, but also the widest range of providers. Products or services are often provided as a supplement to provider’s main product (Weed and Bull, 2009).

They also mention the World Tourism Organisation comment that “sports tourism products can enrich the tourism experience by allowing greater interaction with destinations and fuller appreciation of the social and cultural life of local communities”
Particularly in relation to providers that provide multiple types of sports tourism products the updated sport tourism types according them are:

- Supplementary Sports Tourism
- Sport Participation Tourism
- Sport Training Tourism
- Event Sports Tourism
- Luxury Sports Tourism (Weed and Bull, 2009).

The aim of this article is to introduce city running tours [CRT] as a new and promising tourism product. The section below, “Concept of city running tours,” is based on the information available on various websites; the evaluation of the project was prepared on the basis of user reviews found on the website Trip Advisor. The motivation and requirements of existing and potential customers of running tours related to product parameters (length, profile, route, time and tour guide services) were ascertained using a questionnaire.

**Concept of city running tours**

Recently, new forms of guided city tours for groups and individuals have been emerging which provide an alternative to traditional city tours. There are guided tours have been emerging which make use of on roller skates, Segways and bicycles to allow tourists to explore places distant from the center of the city. One novelty in tour services is guided tours on electric bikes, which make it easier for tourists to brave hilly terrain and long distances as well as making it possible for those interested to participate even if they are not in the best physical condition. Yet another kind of alternative city tour is the guided running, jogging or Nordic walking tour. This is an example of a sports tour that requires the service of a guide. A running tour of a city is another dimension of running which links it with tour guide services.

City running tours (which also appear under other names such as: running sightseeing, sightrunning, sightjogging, city jogging tours or urban running tours) are a new sports tourism product on offer which includes physical activity – running – combined with a tour of the city. They are organized tours, which follow a predetermined route and takes place individually or in small groups (usually 5-8 people) with a guide.

A search of the available databases indicates that city running tours have not yet been addressed by the scholarly literature focused on leisure and tourism. Thus, in describing the concept of city running tours we have to rely on other available resources – websites.
and newspaper articles. City running tours are a relatively new product in the sports tourism, however, it is not possible to identify a precise history of the origins of city running tours. In New York in 2005 Michael Gazaleh began organizing running tours, and founded a company under the name "City Running Tours," which soon expanded its operations to other cities in the United States. These running tours are offered on a franchise basis under the single brand name City Running Tours and under the same logo (Cohen, 2008). At the same time city running tours began to emerge as new products of sport tourism in other countries and continents.

Table 1. Cities, in which city running tours are offered (According to members and associates of Go! Running Tours)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>City</th>
<th>Tour provider</th>
<th>Since year</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>Melbourne</td>
<td>Melbourne running tours</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>Sydney</td>
<td>UDU - Understand Down Under</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>Brussels</td>
<td>Brussels running tours</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>Brugge</td>
<td>Tourist Run Brugge</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>Toronto</td>
<td>Toronto guided runs</td>
<td>2009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Czech Republic</td>
<td>Prague</td>
<td>Running tours Prague</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Czech Republic</td>
<td>Prague</td>
<td>Running Prague</td>
<td>2012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>Copenhagen</td>
<td>Running Copenhagen</td>
<td>2011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finland</td>
<td>Helsinki</td>
<td>Helsinki running tours</td>
<td>2012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>Paris</td>
<td>Paris running tours</td>
<td>2007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hungary</td>
<td>Budapest</td>
<td>Running Tours Budapest</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kenya</td>
<td>Nairobi</td>
<td>Run with Kenyans</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mexico</td>
<td>Oaxaca</td>
<td>Grumpy runner</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Netherlands</td>
<td>Maastricht</td>
<td>Maastricht running tours</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norway</td>
<td>Bergen</td>
<td>Joggetur Bergen</td>
<td>2011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portugal</td>
<td>Lisbon</td>
<td>Lisbon city runners</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>Cape Town</td>
<td>Run Cape Town</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>Girona (Costa E)</td>
<td>Running and Outdoor Costa Brava</td>
<td>2011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>Barcelona</td>
<td>Running tours Barcelona</td>
<td>2009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>Madrid</td>
<td>Madrid sightrunning</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>Istanbul</td>
<td>Maraton Turk</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.S.A.</td>
<td>Virgin Islands</td>
<td>Active Island Tours and Events</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.S.A.</td>
<td>Austin</td>
<td>City running tours</td>
<td>N/A</td>
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<tr>
<td>U.S.A.</td>
<td>Boston</td>
<td>City running tours</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.S.A.</td>
<td>Denver</td>
<td>City running tours</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.S.A.</td>
<td>Chicago</td>
<td>City running tours</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.S.A.</td>
<td>Minneapolis</td>
<td>City running tours</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.S.A.</td>
<td>New York City</td>
<td>City running tours</td>
<td>2005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.S.A.</td>
<td>Philadelphia</td>
<td>City running tours</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
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<td>Portland</td>
<td>City running tours</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
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<td>U.S.A.</td>
<td>San Francisco</td>
<td>City running tours</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.S.A.</td>
<td>Seattle</td>
<td>City running tours</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.S.A.</td>
<td>Washington DC</td>
<td>City running tours</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK</td>
<td>London</td>
<td>City jogging tours</td>
<td>2009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ukraine</td>
<td>Kiev</td>
<td>Kiev running tours</td>
<td>2012</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Assembled by authors’ according to information at: http://www.gorunningtours.com/Accessed 19.1.2014.
City running tours are organized under the umbrella organization Go! Running Tours. Membership in this organization is free and offers directory listing and the usage of Go! Running Tours logo. Premium Membership (partnership) requires a fee and offers the perks including: recognition of quality level through premium membership, a company profile page, online booking, top position in the directory for the relevant city, promotion via newsletter or promotion via Go! Running Tours social media.

Today Go! Running Tours is a global organization that connects companies offering tours of cities for runners around the world. The Go! Running Tours website provides information on all the places where one can explore a city in this way (Table 1). You can usually choose from two options – a group tour or individual tour according to your preferences. Group tours begin at a common meeting point somewhere in the city, and the pace is adapted to suit the runners who signed up for the run that day. Individual routes usually start at the client’s hotel where they can also choose their own route around the sights they are interested in and the pace is adjusted according to the tourists’ fitness and experience.

In New York City, as Cohen (2008) states, Running Tours offers a complete package of services. In return, each runner gets an experienced and knowledgeable running partner for training or touring (and at the desired pace), a set route or a customized itinerary, a City Running Tours T-shirt, a souvenir photo, discounts to local running stores, and product samples and information. The range of tours of tourist attractions (not only cultural and historical, but also natural) connected by running into one common tourist product is continuously expanding. Some cities also offer night runs. Some providers offer their customers the opportunity to borrow equipment (e.g. sport-tester), or provide refreshments during or after the tour.

Around the world, other companies or private individuals who are not members or partners of Go! Running Tours offer running tours of cities. City running tours are also offered, for example, in Buenos Aires (Urban Running Tours) in Lima (Lima Running Tours) and Vienna (Vienna Sightrunning).

**Evaluating city running tours**

City Running Tours as a new product in sport tourism are generally judged positively. Some of the views of participants were presented in *The New York Times* (Tsui, 2007):

“Running on my own is sort of monotonous and requires too much thought and planning,” said Ms. Strelsky Woodson, who ended up on the Golden Gate Bridge. “On the tour, I got
to let the guide lead and just take in the experience — the route was beautiful, tough and had lots of San Francisco landmarks. Plus, you get a great picture to take home."

“Both my trips to New York City and San Francisco were only for a couple of days, and it seemed like a great way to combine my running with a guided tour of each city,” Mr. Hoschek said. “Safety would be another reason. I could have easily found myself in some not-so-safe neighborhoods since I don’t know either city very well.”

Joining a guided travel run also makes it harder to quit early when you run into roadblocks like construction sites or wrong turns, says Jami Strelsky Woodson, 30, a marketing director from Dallas. She likes the freedom of being able to follow someone without worrying about getting lost in a new place.

Table 2. Evaluation city running tours on TripAdvisor

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>City</th>
<th>Excellent *****/5</th>
<th>Very good ****/4</th>
<th>Average ***/3</th>
<th>Poor **/2</th>
<th>Terrible */1</th>
<th>Summa</th>
<th>Average level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Austin</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>4.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barcelona</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>167</td>
<td>4.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bergen</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boston</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>7</td>
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<td>19</td>
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<tr>
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<td>0</td>
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<td>4.97</td>
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<td>114</td>
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<tr>
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<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5.00</td>
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<tr>
<td>Washington</td>
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<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>58</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1279</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1360</td>
<td>4.93</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Overall evaluation of both companies, which organize CRK in Prague

Source: Assembled by the authors’ according to information at www.TripAdvisor.com. Accessed 22.1.2014

Despite their short history, City Running Tours represents an attractive and successful concept in city tours. This is confirmed by the reviews on Trip Advisor, in which mostly reviewers awarded the service five stars, the maximum possible rating, in terms of quality. The overview of assessments presented in Table 2, is organized according to the data on the portal Trip Advisor
and includes only those members and partners of GO! Running Tours that had posted reviews on TripAdvisor as of January 22nd, 2014. Verbal evaluations were converted to a point system where the number of points corresponds to the number of stars. The results show that the average evaluation of 1360 assessors gave it a score of 4.93, the best reviews is 5.00 and the worst 4.84. These results demonstrate exceptionally high client satisfaction with the products of City Running Tours.

Several companies offer this product in Prague. Two of them are official members of the Association Go! Running tours. On the basis of available resources, we analyzed and compared their offer. Their offering in terms of the number of routes, length of routes, coverage of local attractions, and the duration of their tours are comparable. However, after a thorough analysis and side-by-side comparison a few differences can be found. The company “Running Prague” has offer more routes, namely: Park Run, Riverside Run, Special Request Tours, The Old Railroad Tour, Center of Prague Tour, Three Viewpoints Tour, Running just for running Tour, and The Business Running. They offer two categories of routes: route between 6-12 km and route of more than 15 km. The standard group size is 3-5 runners and prices vary according to the number of participants. These vary between 15 to 20 Euros per person according to the number of people. Tours can be booked in the morning between 6:00 and 10:00 or by appointment including in the evening. The company “Running Tours Prague” offers three basic routes Instant Prague, Company Prague and Into the Green Prague. The routes range in length from 7 to 14 km with different numbers of stops on the tour and can last from 50 to 120 minutes. Unlike the first company, the difficulty of the routes is rated in the offering. The price is the same for all three tours and is 59, - Euros per person for two runners. The company has the fixed times for their tours between 6:00 and 8:00 and 16:00 and 20:00 or throughout the day on weekends.

For illustration, we present the following evaluations from of TripAdvisor:

*Running Prague* (last 2 reviews from 25.1.2014)

- This has been my first time in Prague. And as a runner, I contact to Martin and Running Prague to have the experience to run and discover Prague in a different way. Absolutely amazing! It has been a great experience! Martin pick me up early in the morning at my hotel and run along de old city, the riverside, and the Vysehrad, Riegrovy and Vítkov hill. What a wonderful views! Martin gave me all I need to know about history and city life in Prague, and gave some tips about where to eat and drink. Also I appreciate the pictures he took me while running!

  *Visited January 2014, Reviewed January 23, 2014, member from Barcelona, Spain*

- Martin gave my husband and me a 90 minute early morning running tour of Prague. He arrived early and took us through the streets of Prague, along the river then up above the city through parks, a monastery and the castle. He made the tour interesting and fun. We stopped several times to take in beautiful views of frost covered Prague in the
early morning sun. Martin did a nice job of providing commentary about the history of Prague and his personal experiences living in the city. He also took several photos of us running which we appreciated. I would highly recommend Martin to anyone wanting a unique experience visiting Prague.

*Visited December 2013, reviewed January 4, 2014, member from Connecticut, USA*

Running tours Prague (last 2 reviews from 25.1.2014)

- It was such an invaluable experience to run in this wonderful city with my buddies guided by someone who knows well about Prague!!! Runner who guided the run was really friendly and knowledgable about the history about each single bit of Prague strong recommended to friends and everyone who is visiting Prague!!

  *Reviewed December 22, 2013 member from Melbourn Australia*

- It was a perfect run and early morning tout via the city of Prague! I enjoyed it a lot and gave me a great insight to the heart of the city. Being first time there and unfortunately having a very limited time in the morning, Radim understood it very well to show me the best sights of the city in this very early morning time, combined with a good fitness run. Just can recommend it to everybody and will definitley repeat it whenever I'm in the city 😊 And the price for this tour is more than right and justified! Great occasion!

  *Reviewed December 10, 2013, member from Frankfurt, Germany*

**METODOLOGY**

In 2013, a poll was conducted about the views of those who have already tried city running tours and among potential candidates for this product. The survey took place on-line. For this purpose, a questionnaire in an electronic form using Google docs and was placed on the Facebook pages of the magazine *Behej.com* (8,524 likes) and *Runner's World* (431,450 likes). Furthermore, the poll was promoted through the social network Twitter where it was tweeted on the pages of *Runners World* (538,713 subscribers), *I Run this City* (616 subscribers), *City Running Tours* (3,209 subscribers) and *Capital City Running* (57 subscribers). Due to the international dimension of the research, the questionnaire was developed in English and Czech. Since there was a specific target group – visiting – runners, it was not possible to conduct a random selection of respondents. The goal was to address a group of runners and a group of people who have had previous experience with city running sightseeing tours. Another channel of communication was the TripAdvisor travel server, where the comments were searched for people who had already participated in city running tour in the world and they were sent a message asking them to complete the survey. A total of 353 messages were sent to people who participated in the city running tours in New York, Barcelona, Copenhagen, Berlin, Memphis,
Seattle, Washington DC, Buenos Aires, San Francisco, Boston, Chicago, Chile, Dallas, Maastricht and Lima.

Characteristics of the study sample

The survey was had a total of 211 respondents from 20 countries (173 respondents were from Europe, 21 from the USA, five from Australia, five from Canada, three from Israel and 5 from other countries). At the beginning of the survey there was a selective question, whose task was to target research on only those respondents who have experience with CRT and respondents who expressed an interest in trying CRT. The question "Would you like to try (have you tried) city running tours?" this excluded 29 respondents who answered that they were not interested the product. The response rate thus fell to 182 (73 men and 109 women). Of which 69 % expressed interest in trying CRT and 31 % of respondents had already experienced CRT. The structure of the respondents corresponded to an purposive sample – 37 % were people who run regularly, and 49% were people who regularly play sports. 13 % of respondents ran or played sports only irregularly.

RESULTS

The aim of the survey was to find out what the motivation is for participation in city running tours and what requirements those interested in this product have. The results presented in Table 3 show that the most important reason for participating in city running tours is to seeing the sights and getting to know the city while doing a sport. Another reason is the fact that these are people who live healthy lives; they are used to doing sports, so they want to try a product that fits their healthy and active lifestyle. For them, another important reason is that they want to run in the city they are visiting but do not know the city and want to find a suitable route for their running. For most respondents, “saving time” was not considered to be a significant factor.

Table 3. Reasons for participation in the City Running Tours

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reasons</th>
<th>Yes (%)</th>
<th>No (%)</th>
<th>Doesn’t matter (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>They want to run but do not know where to go.</td>
<td>71,40</td>
<td>19,20</td>
<td>9,31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They want to see the sights while getting some exercise.</td>
<td>79,10</td>
<td>14,90</td>
<td>6,00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They want to see the sights but do not have enough time to take a tour.</td>
<td>44,50</td>
<td>47,30</td>
<td>8,20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They want to try something new which fits their healthy lifestyle.</td>
<td>74,70</td>
<td>19,30</td>
<td>6,00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: own

The research focused on what the most important factor is in convincing respondents to participate in the CRT. 84 % declared that the mist significant motive was to jog and while to seeing the sights, only 10 % said that the most important thing for them was running for its own
sake and 6 % chose a different treason, such as "experience something new" or "have fun". The main requirements clients had of city running tours focused on the length of the route, the route surface, the terrain of the route and its surroundings and the appropriateness of the time of the tour (morning, evening, etc.).

As for the length of the route, the largest proportion of respondents (32 %) preferred tours of 8-10 km, while 30 % of the respondents thought the optimum route to be 3-5 km and 28 % of respondents preferred a tour of 6-7 km. Interestingly, the preferred length of the route was not dependent on the age of the potential runners. Older individuals expressed more preference of longer routes of 8-10 km as well as routes of more than 11 km than did younger respondents. Routes of 6 -7 km were more popular with respondents aged 15-25 and 26-40 than among other categories. The optimal length of the course varied according to personal experience with CRT - respondents who have experience with CRT, prefer routes with a length of 8-10 km (44.6 %), and also express the most interested in routes of more than 11 km (14.3 %). As for the surface of routes, runners show no clear preference - 55 % responded that they would prefer routes which take advantage of sidewalks and pedestrian zones, others do not care or it is not important for them, most runners place an emphasis on safety. The results show that 84.1 % of respondents prefer routes on flat terrain, with the provision that "Running up a hill does not bother me if the view is worth it." 7.7 % of respondents prefer routes on exclusively flat terrain while 4,5 % of respondents would prefer more rugged challenging terrain and 3.7 % had no preference as to terrain.

As for the tour routes, in terms of places and sights included, respondents clearly prefer cultural-historical monuments (91 %) and natural attractions (78 %) far less showed interest in modern architecture (25 %) and technical monuments (5 %). The distinct majority (86 %) would prefer tours routes outside the city center and 5 % of respondents would prefer to avoid the city center. Routes to peripheries of the city would be interesting for 49 % of respondents and 29 % of the respondents would not choose such a route. Respondents identified the most appropriate times to explore to be in the morning: between 8:00 - 10:00 (34 %), between 6:00-8:00 (19 %) and 10:00 - 12:00 (19 %), while, surprisingly, afternoon and evening hours were considered less suitable by runners.

The concept of city running tours as a tourism product presupposes they will take place the presence of a guide. When asked if they would like to take a running tour with a guide, two-thirds of the respondents answered in the affirmative, only a third would prefer to run without a guide and would selected another form (a mobile application or map). In this context, it is noteworthy that among respondents who have tried City Running Tours, nearly 95 % expressed an interest in participating in a running tour with a guide. Clearly, this also reflects their positive experience from previous tours.
CONCLUSIONS

The results show that the city running tours are a new and viable product of sport tourism. As shown in Table 1, offer running tours are rapidly expanding to other cities, and contribute to the diversification of guide services in major cities. In developed countries a growing number of people maintaining a healthy lifestyle, which, of course, includes sport and movement. Running is a physical activity that is enjoying increasing popularity. According to Titze, Stronegger, & Owen (2005) regular jogging contributes to perpetuation of or changes in five factors, namely perceived health, motive enjoyment, motive performance, quantity of motives, and use of behavioral processes of change. Recreational running has become a phenomenon that appeals to a growing portion of the population. This is evidenced by the increasing number of amateur runners who participate in races, including half marathons and marathons.

The writer Haruki Murakami writes: “For me, running is both exercise and a metaphor. Running day after day, piling up the races, bit by bit I raise the bar, and by clearing each level I elevate myself. At least that’s why I’ve put in the effort day after day: to raise my own level”.

It is understandable that people who are addicted to running, do not want to give up their favorite activities while traveling, and I welcome the opportunity to combine running with a tour of the city in which they are located. City running tours offer them precisely this combination.

The target group for this product of sport tourism is mainly people who are regularly running in their spare time and people who regularly play sports and want to try something new. These groups are very heterogeneous: we cannot identify them either age or social status. They include (as shown by the results of this investigation) different age groups and different social groups - students, managers and workers. What customers seek from city running tours are summarized in Table 4.

The results show that the majority of tour routes should lead through the city center, especially around the cultural and historic sites and natural attractions. Routes should follow roads which are safe in terms of traffic, primarily taking advantage of sidewalks, pedestrian zones and roads with little traffic. Tours should be organized primarily in the morning, the optimal distance is about 8-10 km. City running tours should be conducted by a guide who provides commentary. According to participants in city running tours, what is most attractive for them is the combination of running with sightseeing, and they appreciate the opportunity to see the most important sights in the city and take photographs in well-known places along the tour route.
This article tries to point to the fact that city running tours are a promising product in sport tourism. The positive responses of participants is expressed in their high level of satisfaction; thus, it can be assumed that the organization of running tours will continue to expand to new cities. As has been mentioned, new products in sport tourism do not seem to appear in the professional literature, and, thus, here we hope to open space for research in this area.

REFERENCES


**WEBSITES**


CHAPTER 3.4.

TIMESHARE – ACCESSIBILITY AND LEGAL REGULATIONS ON POLISH AND GERMAN MARKET. RECOGNITION OF TIMESHARE SERVICES ON POLISH TOURISM MARKET

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Department of Tourism and Recreation, Faculty of Geographical and Geological Sciences, Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznan

Abstract: Each year, dynamically growing tourism market places new challenges for consumers. Nowadays, holidays often take place in distant tourist destinations which are still recognized as a symbol of luxury. Participants of tourism market desire to travel to destinations they are familiar with, annually selecting the same tourist areas. Since buying property abroad is often unattainable for the average tourist, introducing category of timeshare referred as the common summer property is more than needed. Tourism is an interdisciplinary subject. Therefore, it is not surprising that tourism law is such important issue. The main purpose of these considerations is a detailed analysis of legal regulations and accessibility of timeshare on Polish and German tourism market. Through an essential review of the literature and available offers, as well as through the analysis of the law relating to the problem, the main objective of the article will be completed. Timeshare can result in damage to the interests of customers, hence it should be critically assessed. Entrepreneurs often use the weaker position of consumers, creating attractive offers which, in fact, violate consumers’ rights. As far as timeshare matter is concerned, comparison will outline differences between two neighboring tourism markets, showing that this category is similarly regulated, however, through historical and political background does not enjoy the same popularity. Moreover, deliberations will be supplemented with the results of pilot studies relating only to the recognition of timeshare services in Poland which appeared after 1989.

Keywords: timesharing, timeshare services, tourism market issues, tourism law, consumer rights

INTRODUCTION

Timeshare is one of the most intriguing legal institutions related to the tourism market. Although, timeshare is interesting and constitutes attractive alternative, it is still a novelty for participants of tourist flows. Therefore, it can be hypothesized that this category is simply unpopular. Theorists and researchers of the phenomenon of tourism should have a great interest in mentioned unpopularity reasons. Regarding Poland, it should surely be noted that since the
introduction of the market economy, as well as the introduction of so-called open borders, timesharing could hypothetically enter the market and gain followers. First of all, this topic covers most of the pages of this paper. However, for complete consideration of timeshare problem analyzing consumer behavior regarding the matter need to be done. Hence, presentation the results of pilot studies concerning this issue will be submitted in the summary of the paper. To be able to discuss about general knowledge and interest in alternative way of spending holidays, view of genesis of the development of the timeshare market, as well as examining its availability and legal regulations should be made. Not without significance is the possibility to compare two neighboring tourist services markets - Polish and German. Markets which differ in the level of service and customer trust. Note similarities and differences can be the beginning of interesting and significant discussion between tourism market experts.

OBJECTIVES AND METHODS OF THE RESEARCH

Main objectives of the research

Two main objectives of the studies were established. Firstly, comparison in terms of legislation and accessibility of services of two neighboring tourism markets - German and Polish was made. This aim as the main object of study has been achieved through analysis of the literature occurring in both countries. Furthermore, a comparison of accessibility of timeshare services has been done, where the reference to indigenous tourism offers providing holiday home-ownership was made. What is more, a detailed review of legal provisions regarding timeshare in order to capture the differences and similarities in the Legislature was more than needed. Attention was also devoted to the analysis of historical and political considerations, which undoubtedly is an important part of basic research on the timeshare market - Polish and German. Illustration of the differences in the legal regulations of both countries, in particular, focusing on consumer protection is more than necessary and represents an important part of the paper.

Secondly, another main objective of the article was to examine the recognition of timeshare on the Polish market. This was achieved by exploring the basic elements of consumer awareness concerning the knowledge of timeshare services. Furthermore, reference was made to accessibility of services, which was achieved during the comparison of German and Polish tourism market. Moreover, evaluation of the potential timeshare development in Poland has been provided. Focus was made on international travel demonstrate by Poles and their preferences, which may be the future of the tourism market in Poland.
In conclusion, it should be emphasized that the publication achieved two objectives of the research, which may be followed by further, more detailed analysis of the theoretical and practical issues.

Attention should also be paid to the initial hypothesis. First of all, it can be assumed that unpopularity of timeshare in Poland is determined by political and historical issues. It may occur that, in the context of timeshare services, German market is growing more rapidly. Furthermore, it seems justified to conclude that the Polish and German legislation contains comprehensive regulations relating the protection of consumers, primarily through joint European regulations. Moreover, timeshare does not seem to be a recognizable way of spending holidays in Poland, but could potentially have a more dynamic re-enter to the market.

**METHODOLOGY**

In order to realize the objectives of the work, research methods should be carefully chosen. First of all, the analysis of the literature through a critical assessment must be made. This is the basis for further theoretical and practical considerations. What is more, its presents a view of the tourism and law experts. But this is not the only and the most important research method. Examine legal regulations involves considerable practical problems. Speaking about the legislation of two different countries it must be noted that it is extremely difficult to compare the text which may give rise to problems of interpretation. In this paper, the method of legal analysis based on doctrinal interpretation was made. Four types of statutory interpretation has been used. Firstly, textual canons are used. Of course, it should be noted that this method has the least importance mainly because of the differences which may exist in terms of concepts and legal institutions. Not always, the legislature uses terms derived from Latin, which will be along with unsorted meaning. It is very important for the rather new term timeshare. Secondly, and most importantly, at the same time with the precedent interpretation, substantive canon was used. It orders interpretation based on implementation of state policy, and in this case the values promoted by the European Union. Referring to the tradition of positive law, it can also be said that using teleological and systematic interpretation was done. Therefore, the most significant is the aim and context which have individual provisions. Taking into account that the regulations of German and Polish market were created on the basis of the European Directive it can be assumed that
thoroughly examination of one of the text of the laws will be sufficient for understanding the context of timeshare.

Research methods were complemented through pilot studies carried out on a group of Polish tourists. The pilot studies are performed in areas and fields previously not interpreted and it shows how to direct further study. Therefore, it was decided to conduct this form of research, which in the future may be extended to the study focus groups. It should however be emphasized that a pilot study oscillated around verification of the popularity and recognition of timeshare concept. Also in the basic way has explored Poles tourism preferences. It must therefore be noted that results will be analyzed only regarding this context. The pilot studies were carried out on a group of 86 randomly selected people living in urban agglomeration of Poznan. Urban area was chosen because the complementary results obtained by the Institute of Tourism (see Chapter 6) showed that the travel agencies and tourist offers more often benefit from people living in cities of over 500,000 inhabitants.

TIMESHARE SERVICES – MARKET ENTRY

Genesis of timeshare

Looking at today’s world-wide tourism market, it is obvious that numerous timeshare businesses have gained a certain market share. The vacation offers of these businesses, as an alternative to traditional package tours, offered by renowned tour operators, cover a large number of countries on many continents. Timeshare undoubtedly is not a new trend; it has developed successfully over the last fifty years. Even though the idea has its roots in Western Europe of the early 60's, many authors mention Great Britain in particular. In a short time later, timeshare businesses were founded in Switzerland – such as the Hapimag in September 1963. Also France has its market share - The Société des Grands Travaux de Marseille (History of Timeshare [in:] Buy a Timeshare) with offers in the French Alps. Simultaneously, timeshare established itself in the United States of America, the country which is said to be home of one third of all timeshare businesses.

Several countries, however, have been named as the origin of timeshare services. Mirosław Nestorowicz, for instance, who has specialized in the legal aspects of tourism, talks about the beginning of timeshare in the United States (Nestorowicz, 1999). The famous Polish lawyer - Leopold Stecki, though, names numerous examples for the parallel development of this trend in many Western European countries, among them the Federal Republic of Germany. From other destinations, United States and Japan are listed (Stecki, 2002). Nevertheless, it should be mentioned that the second half of the 70's is considered to be the birth of the “timeshare industry” (Stecki, 2002).
Development and importance of timeshare

Since the 90’s, renowned hotel chains - like Marriott, Four Seasons, Hyatt, Disney, and Hilton (History of Timeshare [in:] Buy a Timeshare) have aimed at securing a share of the growing profits by implementing and marketing the idea of timeshare. Today, about four million people are said to participate in the timeshare business. This number is surprisingly high and shows the potential of the institution. However, it should be emphasized that it is extremely difficult to find polish literature on the subject. For validating the research the numerous internet sources were used. First of all, websites of entrepreneurs specializing in timeshare services.

Even though timeshare has proven a successful trend on the European market, with the passing of time, it has fallen into disrepute. There may be a variety of reasons, mainly previous insufficient legal protection regarding timeshare consumers what will be discuss closely.

ACCESSIBILITY OF TIMESHIRING SERVICES

Polish tourism market

Considering about the availability of timeshare in Poland, analysis of the basic literature should be done. The term “timeshare” is one of the legal concepts therefore literature concerning law in tourism should be mentioned. Category timeshare generally is classified to agreements on tourism. Two of the most famous tourism law theorists in Poland, Miroslaw Nesterowicz and Jerzy Gospodarek devote attention to this issue when discussing the most important issues relating to tourism and law (Nesterowicz 1999; Gospodarek 2003). Nevertheless, despite notice of this particular category, the description is very concise. It is limited to definition, description of the main threats, as well as the recognition of brief historical outline.

This article should also pay attention to the book written by Leopold Stanek in the comprehensive monograph – “Timesharing” (Stecki, 2002) that concluded all major aspects of timeshare services on the market, not only Polish but also European. The author not only shows the historical background of the services, but primarily focuses on all elements of the law that create it. Furthermore, considerations do not ignore all legal institutions which determine the formation of timeshare contracts (Stecki, 2002). As far as this matter is concern discussion of the literature shows how little has been written about issues mentioned above. This shows how unexplored timeshare area is which can be rewarding and surprising subject of research for experts in tourism and law.

However, the main question to be considered concerns the availability of these services for the average customer. To verify availability of services a simple but significant experiment have to be done. The behavior estimated to a customer with average knowledge of the tourism market is therefore more than justified. Namely, for the purposes of this analysis commonly available tool – the Internet can be used. By typing in the browser Google password “timeshare
services”, the results may surprise. The idea was to notice the occurrence of a large number of Polish websites offering the ability to purchase and use of the timeshare property. This assumption, however, proved to be far from the reality. Among retrieved by the search engine websites in the first place information on the Act related to timeshares are indicated. Then, perhaps surprisingly, articles presenting unfavorable opinion regarding timeshare services are found. Therefore, the consumer can analyze, often difficult to interpret, tourism law or can shape its opinion on the basis of uncomplimentary articles. Polish entrepreneurs are not included in the statement formulated by the browser on the first emerging sites. Of course, on this basis, two hypothetical conclusions are possible to frame. First of all, the fact that timeshare services in Poland are unpopular, and thus it is difficult to find companies that specialize in dealing with formalities related to this. And what is more, that these services are negatively associated, or at least are presented in a negative light, as threatening the interests of consumers. Keywords which compare this alternative way of spending holidays to “years of hassle” (Timesharing – rajskie wakacje lub kłopot na lata [in:] Bankier.pl – Polski Portal Finansowy) are alarming. It is intriguing, therefore, how this availability presents on neighboring although larger and more developed - German tourism market.

**German tourism market**

With reference to the history of Germany and the division of the country into four occupational zones after the World War II, resulting in the foundation of the German Democratic Republic and the Federal Republic of Germany, it must be concluded that two entirely different periods of time should be discussed. Before the reunification in 1990, appearance of timeshare can be discussed only regarding Western Germany - the Federal Republic of Germany. Due to censorship and constant surveillance, timeshare never took roots in German Democratic Republic. As far as Poland is concerned the same issues have appeared. Until the Polish turnaround in 1989 and the establishment of free trade there were no possibility for timeshare business to develop. Thus, the heyday of timeshare services was never experienced in the former socialist countries, like Poland and German Democratic Republic. From the 1990's the influence of timeshare impact strength weakened. Hence, timeshare services were unable to attract interest.

Referring back to the Federal Republic of Germany, timeshare had its heyday in the 70's and 80's. Timeshare has “continuously adapted to the general economic conditions“ (Scheffel, 2004, p.5). The idea of shared ownership of a recreational property per se gained many followers. It answers all ecological requirements and particularly complies with the principle of sustainability. At the same time, it has contributed to many users refraining from own secondary homes in vacation areas, so-called “cold beds”. However, unfair practices of timeshare businesses and the concealment of important timeshare contract clauses initiated a negative
approach to services. Particularly in Germany, citizens are being warned to be very careful when participating in timeshare deals. Many law firms have even specialized on protecting the interests of their clients in timeshare services.

There are several terms describing timeshare in German, e.g. Ferienwohnrecht, Teilzeitwohnrecht, Teilzeiteigentum, Teilnutzungsrecht or Wohnnutzungsrecht. First of all, it should be noted that in Germany, the issue of timeshare is being researched by numerous authors. In respect of defining the term, it is regarded to typical tourist industry (tourist industry proper). So, this services are not supplementation of tourist industry or marginal tourist industry (Merkel, 2005). According to Thomas Merkel, timeshare have a position “equal to package tours, residence in a hotel, a cruise, or the own vacation home, and it represents an alternative to the touristic products mentioned” (Merkel, 2005, p. 15).

Secondly, on the German market it is much easier to look for information on timeshare. An average customer using the Internet can easily find information about the institution and above all can contact with a huge number of companies offering the service. In the process of selling timeshare services so-called hard selling methods are common. In various internet forums, numerous tourists report on such practices. The following quote illustrates the action of entrepreneurs.

Namely:

“First, vacationers are baited, in broad daylight, with some kind of raffle, just in order to take them, in a cab that is already waiting, to the alleged presentation of the prize at an unknown, at times even remote location. There, well-trained and vastly superior sales staff give the eager clientele the two-fisted sales pitch. The cornered vacationers never get the chance to consider in peace and quiet if they really want to enter into a contract that is going to cost them several thousand Euros, let alone allowing them to take the written document, usually consisting of many pages, with them for a thorough review without having signed it first. Instead, the psychological pressure is artificially ramped up even more by alleged discounts and additional free weeks, which are «available by way of exception, and only here and now».”

It proves that timeshare is well-known and common touristic solution. However, it is not fashionable today, provoking negative connotations, and having become the subject of plenty of research and legal regulations.

CONCLUSION REGARDING ACCESSIBILITY OF TIMESHARING SERVICES

Without a doubt, Polish and German tourism services market have different features, mainly caused by political and historical elements. The difference in the availability of different forms of tourism services is not surprising. It can be assumed that the polish tourist wanting to own a home during the holidays can take advantage of the offers of the German businesses offering timeshare deals. The problem, of course, is the language barrier and lack of knowledge of
German legal regulations (even based on the European Directive concerning all European Union Members), which may result in using stronger market position by entrepreneurs. Moreover, the literature in Germany has developed a broad conceptual grid for the timeshare, which makes the term more recognizable among consumers. A wide range of information about the service can be found in scientific publications, which is not common on the Polish tourist market.

Legal regulations

The law sets the limits of social behavior. It can be considered as standards laid down by the authority, which should regulate the most important elements of the existence of society (Wronkowska, 2005). Therefore, its strong position on the market of tourist services it is not surprising. It should be noted that in general this service market is the most regulated by law. Weak position of consumers as well as fraudulent activities of entrepreneurs (as entities having expertise in the field of tourism) may be the cause of the situation. In terms of the timeshare, the current German and Polish law was based on a common European Directive hence it is possible to describe the elements of timeshare analyzing one of these acts. The differences will be presented at the end of this chapter.

It is extremely difficult to specify an legal nature of timeshare agreements (Nesterowicz, 1999). Nevertheless, the fact that the joint declaration of seller and buyer intent is needed which is a constitutive element of every contract, indisputably proves that timeshare belongs to the category of contracts (Wolter, 1998). Furthermore, as well as basic tourism services agreement, it is adhesive contract. That is, in general terms, a contract entered into by the accession where the consumer does not negotiate its terms, that is not negotiating the rights and obligations. The creation of agreements when the vast majority of them take the form of standard contracts is undoubtedly an expression of the dynamic development of freedom of contract. This principle is now a symbol of the times, however, can be a threat to consumers. Without any doubt, leads to the exploitation by the entrepreneur his stronger position on the market through the use of specialized knowledge to create agreements which may contain abusive clauses. Returning to the issue of legal regulations, in Poland it has been decided to use statutory regulations concerning timeshare services. This shows that not only the Act on Tourism Services has an important place in the polish tourism law acts system (Journal of Laws 2004 [Dz. U] No 223, item 2268). Attention should also be paid to the date of creation of the Act on Timeshare. The Act was introduced in 2011. This shows that before such rules were not needed. Of course, timeshare regulations have their place in a different statutes (previous act was introduced in 2000). However, the creation of a separate Act emphasized their importance. European law had a strong impact on the situation. However, changes which have occurred among Polish tourists are worth noted. First of all, the increasing use of foreign tour operators and other tourism companies
offers. As already noted the analysis of Polish Act allows to assimilate the information implemented from a European Directive.

**Act on Timeshare**

In the Act on Timeshare the definition of timeshare services can be found which has ended discussion on the importance of this concept. Namely, referring to the Act mentioned above “timeshare contract is an agreement under which a consumer acquires the right to use at least one accommodation in the periods specified in the agreement, with the proviso that the agreement must last longer than a year” [Act on Timeshare (Journal of Laws 2011 [Dz.U.] No 230, item 1370)]. The customer is not entitled to the property (simple ownership), clients have only right to use them (Timesharing [in:] Encyklopedia – gazetaprawna.pl). The Act distinguishes timeshare contracts from the long-term holiday product agreements, although frequently, in everyday language, these concepts are understood as identical.

Because it is impossible to discuss all aspects of the Act, this reflections will focus on consumer protection, because it generates the most controversy. Most of all, it should be noted that the form of the Act is just simple implementation of the Directive 2008/122/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council of 14 January 2009. Directive directly applies to the situation of consumers in respect of certain aspects of timeshare agreements. As far as timeshare is concerned analysis of the Act shows that it is a consumer contract, hence can be concluded only at the level of the consumer-entrepreneur. First of all, the Act introduced changes to the main object of the contract. Namely, accommodation place as part of the definition of timeshare should be understood in the broad sense. This means areas that are not considered as simple real estate (Umowa timesharingu według przepisu nowej ustawy [in:] Onet-Biznes).

**Consumer protection based on the Act on Timeshare**

The most important element of consumer protection is the introduction in the Act the information obligation imposed on the business travel industry. Chapter Second of the Act specifically deals with the mentioned duties. It is important to note that these obligations derive from the Directive and therefore are implemented in all Members of the European Union. Therefore, the provisions will be valid also on the German market. First of all, the trader before concluding the contract is required to provide the consumer with detailed information on such agreement, specified in the standard form - their patterns are attached to the Act (Article 9 of the Act on Timeshare). The consumer should first pay attention to the features that such information should meet. Most of all, it is supposed to be clear and understandable information, communicated in writing form or by using permanent storage media. The customers must have time to familiarize themselves with the materials. What is more, the information is available free of charge and communicated only in the official languages of the European Union. Interestingly,
language of all prospectuses is the client’s choice which is determined by the willingness of the consumer (of course, according to his place of residence or nationality, Article 10 Act on Timeshare). The consumer must give consent to any changes in the information, unless there is a category of vis major. Vis major is a general clause that causes the lack of responsibility of the trader for certain events – these are the events coming from the outside which cannot be predicted and which could not be prevented (Pokrzywiak, 2005). Hence, it is the institution broad in meaning. Also, institution of abusive clauses is an important element of consumer protection. This is not a legal term invented for the purpose of timeshare but of all consumer contracts. Thus, if the provisions of the agreement are less favorable than those contained in the Act - they do not apply to the consumer. Properly speaking, they are null and void (Skory, 2005).

To sum up the issue of legal regulations it should be noted that after the introduction of the European Directive there is no major problems with the legal definition of a timeshare contract. Customer protection has been assured but unfortunately due to unpopularity of this service in Poland it cannot be confronted with reality. Popularization of new services as well as shield the customer can be achieved by the positivism doctrine - organic work. Assuming that customer education is the best way to achieve success and market equilibrium, a balance between the consumer and the entrepreneur.

**Legal regulations in Germany**

As far as German tourism market is concerned following conclusions can be done. The Act concerning the part-time right of residence, which went into effect on 1-1-1997 and entered the German Civil Law Code on 1-1-2002 (Bürgerliches Gesetzbuch Title 2 § 481-487), is considered the first legal foundation. The legislators focused on the duty of pre-contractual information, including the detailed description of the property, the legal right of use, and the right of revocation, which the client is entitled to within two weeks after fulfillment of the principles of the duty of information, as well as the ban on deposits (Bürgerliches Gesetzbuch). On 1-14-2009, the guideline of the European Parliament (RL 2008/122/EG) concerning the consumer protection in respect of partial use contracts, agreements concerning long-term vacation products, as well as resale and swap contracts, has gone into effect (Die deutsche Teilzeitwohnrechte-Gesetzgebung (TzWrG) [in:] Deutscher Bunderverband für Teilzeit-Wohnrechte e.V.). As of 2-23-2011, this guideline has become part of the law concerning partial use.

In spite of the extensive means of protection, potential customers are warned of the risks of timeshare deals. On the Internet the following disadvantages of timeshare potential customers are called attention to and that are ascribed to negative consequences for former timeshare users are listed:

“Payment takes place in advance, and you have no warranty that the service as promised will, in fact, be yielded according to the rules throughout the whole term of the agreement. You
must also take into account substantial running expenses, administrative fees, and fees for the swap meet. In case of bankruptcy, the full liability risk may hit you*.

Even though the legal means of protection have been changed and improved several times, legal protection for timeshare users is considerably less intense compared to customers of travel businesses. The reason for this is that regulations of the law concerning the sale of package tours do not apply (Timesharing, Clubmitgliedschaften und andere langfristige Urlaubsprodukte: Erst das Geld ... Und dann? [in:] Europäisches Verbraucherzentrum Deutschland). Most of all, this concerns the right of cancelation in case of travel defects, the right of price reduction, or compensation. In addition, in case of bankruptcy, customers of tour operators are safeguarded by the secured payment certificate (Die deutsche Teilzeitwohnrechte-Gesetzgebung (TzWrG) [in:] Deutscher Bunderverband für Teilzeit-Wohnrechte e.V.)

The German legal system endows its own citizens with rights against inappropriate practices of entrepreneurs. However, legislature has not achieved the desired effect. Mainly because many timeshare users had signed their contracts abroad and had thus become subject to the local jurisdiction. For this reason, timeshare trade has fallen into disrepute not only in Germany, but in many European countries.

**POLAND AND GERMAN – CONCLUSION REGARDING LEGAL REGULATIONS**

Without a doubt, it can be assumed that the regulations, even though the two countries are located in a different place in the legal system, include similar regulations. But this is not a surprising situation. To all members of the European Union - European legislation is applying, hence after the introduction of the Directive provisions have been adjusted. Systems of both countries put great emphasis on consumer protection and education, resulting in detailed regulations. The practice is not surprising in Germany - since there the service is really popular. In Poland it is probably the result of a desire to adapt to European legislation.

The noticeable difference is the location of regulation in both systems. German authority has introduced a contract to the Civil Code, giving the agreement a prestigious rank. In Poland, legislation has been proposed in a separate statute, to which the customer with an average knowledge of the market often cannot become familiar with. Specified examples show that the German market amounted institutions to protect consumers against fraud. Both in the private and public sector. In Poland, due to lack of demand for the services such situation does not take place, which means that in the event of abuse by foreign companies, Polish consumers should benefit from legal aid abroad.

As far as similarities are concerned it should be noted that basis for regulation is the same. What, except for the differences in the procedure, is favorable situation. Moreover, in the case of both countries, regarding the phenomenon of timeshare contracts regulations concerning the ordinary services of a tourist trip do not refer. In the case of the collapse of offices offering holiday
ownership, the customer is not secured by a bank guarantee. The result is therefore the impression of a loophole.

PILOT STUDIES RELATED TO TIMESHARE SERVICES

Basic information regarding pilot study

The most important element of research is performing pilot studies on consumer basic knowledge about controversial topic regarding timesharing. Without a doubt, this is the most important part of these considerations, since it will allow to verify whether the term timeshare is associated by the average consumer. The main objective of the study was to examine whether further analysis is relevant while assuming that this unpopular topic may become a viable alternative to traditional way of spending holidays. For this purpose a random sample of residents of the urban agglomeration of Poznan was examined. During the study it was assumed that the Poznan agglomeration is an area of 30 km around the city of Poznan (Zajchowska [in:] Bul, 2013). Selecting the area where the preliminary research was conducted was not accidental. Large cities, although it may seem to be traditional and old fashion statement, from years are considered as centers of innovation where changes on goods and services markets are systematically introduced. Of course, in later years, the study should be extended and, moreover, supplemented by a German community. However, this presents an analysis of the pilot sample which is justified because the issue was not previously penetrated. 86, randomly selected people, were interviewed during the study. The results can be interpreted only in the context of the surveyed group which is not a representation of the full cross-section of society, however, allows to formulate some conclusions. Furthermore, analysis have been supplemented with results obtained by the Institute of Tourism (see Chapter 6).

Characteristics of respondents and results obtained during the research

Among the 86 respondents 60 were women (23 unmarried), 23 were men (10 unmarried). As far as problems with generation gap is concerned selection a sample varied in age was needed. The age structure presented as follows. The age composition, as it was mentioned above, was extremely broad. Among the respondents 22 were between 18-24, 10 between 25-34, 23 between 35-44, 16 between 45-54, 13 between 55-65 and 2 over 65 years of age. Speaking about education, more than half of the respondents had higher education (68,6%), strongly represented was also a group of people with secondary education (22,1%). What is more, the least representative was a group of people with post-secondary education - 7% and vocational secondary education - 2.3%. Describe the characteristics of the people responding to the questions were aimed primarily by noticing the differences in the perception of this concept by the representatives of various social groups.
Firstly, the tourism potential of the respondents needs to be examined (supplemented by the results of the Institute of Tourism - see Chapter 6). In the past three calendar years (2011-2013), only 6% did not take a holiday trip lasting more than 7 days. Respondents who did not travel came from the three youngest age groups. 81 people held at least once a holiday trip (long-term). By making the calculations for the average amount of abroad trips per person in different calendar years (including those who were not traveling) the following regularities can be seen (see Table 1). In 2013 - 48 trips were held (0.55 per person), 2012 - 64 trips (0.74 per person), 2011 - 55 trips (0.63 per person). Thus, the number of trips slightly decreases. By making the same calculation, but regarding holidays in Poland, the following results were obtained. In 2013 - 79 trips (0.95 per person), 2012 - 79 trips (0.91 per person), 2011 - 89 trips (1.03 per person).

**Table 1. Number of holiday trips of respondents living in the urban area of Poznan, over the period 2011-2013**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The number of trips held</th>
<th>Number of people who participated over 7-day trips in Poland</th>
<th>Number of people who participated over 7-day abroad trips</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Developed on the basis of the results of the survey

To summarize the issues concerning travel among Poles, respondents willingly committed themselves to trips over 7-day. 59 out of 86 respondents have taken trips abroad. In total respondents undertook an average of 2.9 trip in Poland and an average of 1.9 travel abroad within three years. Surveyed took an average of 4.8 trip in the past three years, which confirms a huge potential of Polish tourists. Foreign mobility represented 40% of all trips and the most popular directions are France, Italy and Spain, Croatia and Turkey. Long distance travel also have their supporters, tourists are visiting Georgia, Canada, Senegal, China, Malaysia, Brazil and Cuba. A common phenomenon was the indication by the individual respondents for the same destination, which confirms that they willingly return to the familiar and popular places.

Research on the recognition of timeshares on the Polish market has shown that this phenomenon is not widely known, and its meaning is sometimes mistakenly recognizable. Among five definitions given, respondents had to choose two that they think describe term timeshare. Among the 11 surveyed (12.8%) who correctly identified two correct definitions of timeshare only
4 people have met with this concept on the market of tourist services (Table 2). In the group of 42 respondents (48.8%), which showed just one correct answer only 8 people met earlier with the concept of timeshare (Table 3). In contrast, 33 (38.4%) gave incorrect answers (Table 4). In this group, one of the persons declared knowledge of the service, but it must be assumed that since the given answer was wrong - there was a mistake. In summary, with the concept of timeshare on the Polish tourism market only 13.95% of respondents (12 people) have met - or 15.11% (13 people including the person who mistakenly identified the meaning of timeshare).

**Table 2. Number of respondents who identified two appropriate term characterizing the timeshare services**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question asked</th>
<th>Are you familiar with the term <em>timeshare</em> on the market of tourist services?</th>
<th>Do you associate the term <em>timeshare</em> in positive way?</th>
<th>The age structure of respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Answer</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of respondents</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Developed on the basis of the results of the survey*

**Table 3. Number of respondents who identified one appropriate term characterizing the timeshare services**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question asked</th>
<th>Are you familiar with the term <em>timeshare</em> on the market of tourist services?</th>
<th>Do you associate the term <em>timeshare</em> in positive way?</th>
<th>The age structure of respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Answer</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of respondents</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Developed on the basis of the results of the survey*

Only 4 people (4.65%) declared using the services of timeshare. 3 of them (3.48%) showed a single correct answer, one of them pointed to any proper definition of timeshare. Hence, there is no certainty that the service was used.

Furthermore, only one person answered the question whether she/he was satisfied with the services of timeshare - indicating that 'not always', which implies a claim that has benefited from more than one organizer of timeshare services. Associations, which causes the term, point
that timeshare is very interesting. In Poland, timeshare as a concept is not, in contrast to Germany, negatively associated. 39 respondents (45.35%) claim that timeshare has positive feedback, the same number of people have no opinion - 39 people (45.35), while 8 (9.30%) associate the term negatively. These results confirm the thesis of poor visibility service in Poland, poor knowledge and experience of the respondents in this topic. The results also show that attitudes towards service is neutral or positive.

Table 4. Number of respondents who did not identified any appropriate term characterizing the timeshare services

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question asked</th>
<th>Are you familiar with the term timeshare on the market of tourist services?</th>
<th>Do you associate the term timeshare in positive way?</th>
<th>The age structure of respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Answer Number of respondents</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Developed on the basis of the results of the survey

In summary, conclusion is that timeshare is not a term recognized on the tourism market in Poland. Even if consumers correctly indicate its definition, not all of them are able to determine whether this phenomenon is negative or positive. Poles are more likely to travel, the topic was, however, explicitly addressed in the next section. Nevertheless, it is surprising that despite the very negative media advertising timeshare has no negative connotation. This means that consumers in this group did not have the opportunity to notice such information or do not want to adversely evaluate the services that they do not know. Of course, no opinion in the evaluation of the timeshare may be caused by the fact that they do not associate the term. Such requests may be drawn from the discussions held after completing the survey, when respondents were told what timeshare is. Then, surveyed were able to give some more detail information about the concept. Of course, it must be assumed that the study should be confronted with a certain criticism. The survey involved one of the issues regarding timeshare - recognition. It shows, however, the value in the context of proposing further research in the future. In addition, it can lead to mutual cooperation between business and science in the field of implementing services on the Polish market. Services that can be deprived of its main drawbacks, mainly through the introduction of appropriate consumer protection and expansion of client awareness.
Research of Institute of Tourism as a complement to the pilot study

Because the results obtained in the survey do not present a complete picture of the society, to draw conclusions about the potential development of timeshare study conducted by the Institute of Tourism on behalf of the Department of Tourism of the Ministry of Sport and Tourism, could be used for further discussion. Results are related to tourist activity of Polish citizens in 2012. Research, even though they relate 2012 were made in February 2013.

As a preliminary point, it should be noted that the study involved a representative group of Polish citizens aged 15 years and older. Respondents were subjected to the face-to-face survey in their homes, using CAPI technology. Study, therefore, was the nature of random-quota.

In 2012, the foreign tourist trips were attended by 16 percent of the country's population - three percentage points less than in 2011. A single journey lasted an average of 9.8 nights (2011 - 10.2). It is not surprising that pupils and students traveled six times more than the pensioners, which is also confirmed by the results of the pilot studies. Moreover, people with higher education presented four times higher travel potential (they have traveled an average of four times more likely than those without such education).

The study also showed what form of organization of the holidays is the most popular. 78 percent of respondents prefer trips that organized themselves. Only 25 percent of people confirmed the use of travel agencies. It should be noted that the improved financial situation of the tourists often indulged in using the services of travel agents. However, the survey did not show an option to use the co-ownership resort. When it comes to accommodation 47 percent of respondents chose hotels, motels, bed and breakfast (a decrease of 51 percent compared to 2011), 28 percent lived with relatives and friends (down from 33 percent), and only 4 percent rented a holiday home (an increase of 2 percentage points). Tourist destinations does not stir up much surprise, still popular are trips to Germany, Italy, Czech Republic and Great Britain. The largest increase compared to 2011 recorded Belgium, Hungary, the Netherlands and France, and the biggest drop is noticeable in Greece and Turkey.

In summary, the results obtained during the research of the Institute of Tourism showed that Poles are increasingly willing to travel (most of the travels are long-term), even though the directions of their journeys are rather predictable. More often, students are traveling which can be the basis for the development of tourism in the future. They will want to continue habits that could potentially affect the development of timeshare - they will want to return to well-known places. Of course, timeshare is aimed at people with a stable financial situation - groups of 40+.

Neverthelesss, it can be an interesting alternative for young families with children. Studies have confirmed, however, that a very small group of society is renting holiday homes, which may indicate a small interest in this type of accommodation or too high costs that must be incurred to rent a house. If costs are the main reason for unattractiveness timeshare offer an alternative, because it implies a reduction by proposing ownership.
Worrying is the fact that the majority of Poles using either a travel agents or tour operators. Potentially timeshare companies will not find a large part of interest. Again, should therefore be emphasized that the timeshare is directed to the rich part of society. Since the organized trips are mostly used by people aged 40-49 with higher education, with a good financial situation, living in cities of over 500,000 inhabitants, they are potential customers of timeshare. This social group should be further investigated in the context of timeshare services. The occurrence of the countries of the Mediterranean area also shows the potential of timeshare. Foreign businesses mainly there sending timeshare customers.

CONCLUSION

Without any doubt, timeshare services market is not a matter requiring further legal regulations. In Poland and Germany tourism market is extensively regulated by law. However, the Acts do not provide complementary consumer protection. An example would be, in particular, the lack of consumer protection in the event of bankruptcy of a trader offering services. Therefore, there is no mandatory bank guarantee (required when concluding contracts for tourist services in a simple way). Nevertheless, this market undoubtedly requires greater consumer education. Consumers who do not have any knowledge in this area cannot benefit from these services. First of all, they cannot protect themselves from dishonest entrepreneurs, as it does on the German market. As far as German market is concerned it should be mentioned that consumer education is more developed there than in Poland. This is mainly caused by negative experiences of local customers. Therefore, creation of law offices specializing in timeshare services that not only provide comprehensive legal assistance but also educate consumers is more than justified. The problem also lies in connecting timeshare with long-term bank loans, this matter, however, requires broader discussion.

In summary, over the years in Western Europe, the appearance of three trends can be seen. First of all, there is a change in legislation, designed to protect customers and to create a common, complementary legal system. Secondly, the pursuit of corporate transparency through the creation and membership in numerous organizations dealing with a broad range of issues related to timeshare. This affiliation is synonymous with quality and reliability of the services. As an example the Resort Development Organization (RDO) can be used. The last but not least, as a trend could be considered activities aimed at improving knowledge and awareness of potential customers of timeshare services. Activities that not only emphasize its negative side and indicate the uncertain legal protection for consumers, but also teach how to use the proposal of timeshare services in satisfactory way.

On the other hand, there are trends on the Polish market. It should be emphasized that the lack of development of timeshare on the Polish market was undoubtedly caused by historical and political issues. For this reason, Poland missed the golden period of the timeshare. The 90's were
characterized by poor development of tourism services in general, there was no charters, and the language barrier was enormous. Nowadays, the institution of a timeshare is definitely unrecognizable and unknown, which is confirmed by the results obtained during the research. The Poles, however, have great potential for traveling what was confirmed by pilot study made on the base of these considerations. This causes the chance of developing timeshare services as an alternative option for young couples with children and people with a stable financial situation. Lack of companies (domestic or foreign) offering mentioned services is the problem requiring discussion. The use of foreign offer raises greater opportunities for abuse. Undoubtedly, development of the timeshare market can influence the evolution of sustainable tourism. The common use of the property minimize the negative effects that tourism brings and this is what should be the basis for the promotion of timeshare services.

Finally, it should be noted that the working hypothesis regarding timeshare have been fully confirmed by the analysis carried out on the basis of these considerations. Timeshare does not enjoy the popularity in Poland. However, it is not advertised and it cannot be predicted how the situation would be if the timeshare services were re-advertised. Moreover, Poland and Germany do not differ in the legislation. Of course, normative acts concerning timeshare takes different forms, however are based on the European Union Directive which is implied in all Member States. Nevertheless, differences in consumer protection need to be noticed. The German market has developed procedures involving continuing education programs for customers of tourism services, involving the expanding their knowledge and awareness of the market. It is therefore necessary to increase the consciousness of consumers in Poland so that they may use the timeshare services outside the country. The Polish market at the moment cannot offer a competitive offer, however, has the potential, which if used properly, can become the beginning of the renewal of the golden time of timeshare.

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**ACTS**


CATERING OFFER IN THE RURAL OPEN AIR MUSEUMS

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Abstract: Contemporary museums perform not only the traditional tasks but are places where both the tourists and the local community members have chances for entertainment, attractive leisure time. Consequently one can find in museums a catering offer as cafes, bistros, snack bars, restaurants, pubs and wine bars. The material presented is the result of theoretical and field studies carried out in selected open air museums in Poland and focused on newly introduced commercial activities (as catering). Our research results show that the development of sustainable cultural tourism as a generator of income in the open air rural museums is important in the challenging economic time. Museums having catering services of different character could easier overcome financial struggle. Moreover there is no doubt that the introduction of an interesting and ambitious cuisine in the restaurants located in the rural open air museum is of great importance also in other terms: popularization the food culture, rural tradition of region, healthy diet and life style, chance to increase the museum attractiveness, important economic support to museum and local community and improvement of living quality.

Keywords: tourism, open air museum, catering services

INTRODUCTION

Museums and heritage sites are believed to play a key factor in cultural tourism development, however they have to meet a challenge to perform some new roles to fulfill expectations of changing society (Boniface, 1995), (Dallen, 2003), (Munsters and Freund de Klumbis, 2006), (Newhouse, 1998), (Silberberg, 1996). A museum (comes from Greek word ‘mouseion’ – temple dedicated to the Muses, the patrons of the arts) is an institution that cares and conserves a collection of artifacts and other objects of scientific, artistic, cultural or historical importance. As it makes them available for public viewing through exhibits (permanent or temporary), museums are important for cultural tourism development. 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 Beijng, which annually draw almost 12 million tourists). Among the most visited museums in the world 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) (Table 2). 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). 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, 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’.

In Poland tourism is an important part of economy and the role of cultural tourism as a generator of income is clearly visible. Museums and art galleries, 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) (GUS, 2013), (Table 1). Under the terms of the Act of 29 June 2007 amending the Act on Museums (Journal of Laws of 2007, 2007), the museum is a non - profit institution, which main purpose 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. A museum is an institution, which makes a collection of artifacts available for public (Article 1 of the Act). 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 permanent or temporary exhibitions. In Poland, as in other countries, museums are also places giving tourists and the local community chances 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 (Kowalczyk, 2010), (Pawlikowska-Piechotka, 2013). 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. These changes
significantly influence on the new directions and ideas of contemporary museum management. 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. This phenomenon was described by Ted Silberberg in “Cultural tourism and business opportunities for museums and heritage sites” (Silberberg, 1996), by Victoria Newhouse in “Towards a New Museum” (Newhouse, 1998) and recently by “Special Report. Museums” published by “The Economist” in the 21st December 2013 issue. Consequently, contemporary museums are also places to dine (one can find there cafes, snack 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. Together with the increase of average income and changes in leisure activities preferences, more and more Poles dine occasionally outside home. One can observe the growing interest in catering offers, even in the places previously not associated with this type of service. As a result, in museums as in other places frequently visited by tourists and local community members, there are a variety of dining options: seasonal gardens restaurants and indoor snack-bars, bistros, tea shops, pubs and wine bars. This applies both to museums located in the large cities and to museums located in rural areas (as open air museums).

Figure 1. Population ratio of museum visitors (in 2011) in the selected EU countries

Source: The Special Report. Museums 2013
Table 2 The most popular world museums (by number of visitors in 2011)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Museum</th>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Number of visitors per annum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Palace Museum in Beijing</td>
<td>China</td>
<td>12,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Louvre Museum in Paris</td>
<td>France</td>
<td>9,720,260</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Metropolitan Museum of Art New York</td>
<td>US</td>
<td>6,115,881</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>British Museum in London</td>
<td>UK</td>
<td>5,575,946</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Tate Modern in London</td>
<td>UK</td>
<td>5,304,710</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>National Gallery in London</td>
<td>UK</td>
<td>5,163,902</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Vatican Museum</td>
<td>UK</td>
<td>5,064,546</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>National Palace Hotel in Taipei</td>
<td>Taiwan</td>
<td>4,360,815</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>National Gallery of Art in Washington DC</td>
<td>US</td>
<td>4,200,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Centre Pompidou in Paris</td>
<td>France</td>
<td>3,800,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: The Special Report. Museums 2013

Open – air museums in Poland

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. About 15% of total amount (50 out of 800) are open air museums. The first open air museum established in Poland were: The Kurpie Region Farmstead in Kadzidłó (1901), the next The Ethnographic Park in Olsztyn (1909), The Open Air Museum of Kurpie Region in Nowogrod (1919), The Orava Ethnographic park in Zubrzyca Gorna (1937) and The Biskupin Archeological Museum in Biskupin (1938). The recently established open air museums were: The Museum of Homeland in Studziwody (2007), The Albrecht’s Croft Museum in Swolowo (2008), The Centre of Folk Architecture in Szymbark (2008) and The Open Air Museum of Łódź (2009).

Contemporary open – air museums in Poland (often known under the name ‘skansen’ after famous museum established in Stockholm), are located rather in non urban areas (however there are some exceptions as the Museum of Blacksmithing in Warsaw), and exhibit mainly collections of historical rural buildings. The most popular are: the Father Krzysztof Kluk Museum of Agriculture in Ciechanowiec (1962), the Open Air Museum in Janowiec (1998), the Museum of the Slovinian Village in Kluki (1958), the Ethnographic Park in Kłobka (1993), the Open Air Museum of Łowicz Region in Maurzyce (1980), the Peasant and Fisherman Museum in Puck (1980), the Ethnographic Park in Olsztyn (1909), the Museum of Folk Architecture in Sanok (1971), the Ethnographic Park in Sieradz (1960), the Museum of Mazovia Countryside in Sierp (1971), the Radom Village Museum in Szydlowiec (1976), the Ethnographic Park in Tokarnia (1976), and the Orava Ethnographic park in Zubrzyca Gorna (1937). The open air museums are either state or privately founded (as for example the Museum of Wooden Architecture in Sucha), but mostly live
on a mix of public, corporate and individual support (NIMIOZ, 2012). Due to harsher economy climate all open air museums have had to raise some share of their annual operating budget in ticket sales, sponsorship and other sources of income as catering and sale of regional food and folk art. All open - air museums in Poland have up - to date websites, providing information about their profile and opening hours, admission policy, temporary and permanent exhibitions, museum lessons, cultural events, job opportunities, also about renting halls and photo shoots price lists and other services - as eating and drinking offers in the museum.

**METHODOLOGY**

The research findings presented here are the result of theoretical and field studies conducted in the years 2012-2013 in the rural open air museums located in Mazovia Province, Podlaskie Province, Kujawsko – Pomorskie Province and Warmińsko – Mazurskie Province. Theoretical studies were focused primarily on understanding the legal conditions (including maintenance, sanitation, construction) associated with the catering services offered in museum. The analyzed material of our field researches was collected on the base of survey in the 12 rural open air museums having catering services and located in the surveyed provinces within the distance of maximum 200 km (120 miles) from Warsaw. It should be noted that not all open to the public open air museums have been already registered to the database of the National Institute of Musicology and Conservation in Poland (NIMIOZ, 2012). Nevertheless as the material of our study, we considered all open air museums that were located in the provinces around Warsaw, were opened to the public, had catering services and were included in the official statistics database of the Central Statistic Office (GUS, 2012). Our field works encompassed site visit, participant observation and structured interviews with guests undertaken face to face, in situ. Our intention was to focus primarily on the nature of catering services, popularity and size, interior design and menu – to be able to compare catering offers in the selected open air museums. We conducted our researches in the following museums (2011-2012):

- The Father Krzysztof Kluk Museum of Agriculture in Ciechanowiec (1962)
- The Radom Village Museum in Szydlowiec (1976)
- The Open Air Museum in Granica – Kamponos (1986)
- The Open Air Museum in Janowiec (1998)
- The Kurpie Region Farmstead in Kadzidlo (1901)
- The Ethnographic Park in Klobka (1993)
- The Open Air Museum of Łowicz Region in Maurzyce (1980)
- The Open Air Museum of Kurpie Region in Nowogrod 1919
- The Ethnographic Park in Olszynek (1909)
- The Museum of Mazovia Countryside in Sierpc (1971)
- The Ethnographic Park in Tokarnia (1976)
Catering offer in the rural open air museums

As the cultural attractions for tourists need to be embedded in a whole range of services the open air museums usually offer to visitors not only the exhibition space, information, but also catering services, sale of traditional food and folk artifacts, sometimes even accommodation possibilities (museums in Sierpc and Janowiec). The idea of contemporary skansen (open air ‘live’ museum) is to create for visitors a very special atmosphere to enable them ‘feel the real world of past’, to present history and tradition in such a way that visitor gets an impression as if cottage tenants has just left a house. The Holy Masses are being celebrated in the wooden museum churches (museum in Olsztyn) and bread is being baked in the traditional stoves accordingly to the old recipes (museum in Sierpc). As it seems an integral part of tourist experience in the open air museum should be also of traditional food and dishes being served in wooden cottages or inns. With the increase of wealth, more and more Poles enjoy the dining outside home, and the increased demand resulted in development of these services also in the rural open air museums. These trends introduced to open air museums management are consistent with the process of changes in the traditional function and form of the museum which we could witness now, with the principles concerning a new role of museums (described in ICOMOS document ‘A Sustainable Cultural Tourism Charter’) and with the proposals of law changes in Poland, expecting all museums to initiate commercial activities (NIMIOZ, 2012). Consequently open air museums must answer today to many expectations, meet the extremely complex and varied tasks: they are places of scientific researches, conservation works, educational activities, but also at the same time they have to provide a recreation and family entertainment to their visitors. Without a doubt, given the complicated role and challenging financial position of the contemporary museum, commercial activity as catering has many advantages: increases the attractiveness of the museum, contributes to income generation, and allows rejuvenating its visitors after several hours of walking around the extensive grounds. In many open air museums restaurant building has other functions, such as for example shop (The Museum of Mazovia Countryside in Sierpiec, The Ethnographic Park in Olsztyn) or display of folk craft (museums in Sierpc and Maurzyce). Naturally not all open-air museums provide catering services on the more sophisticated level. For example there are no restaurants in The Ethnographic Park in Klobka or in The Open Air Museum of Kurpie Region in Nowogrod (only cafes with very limited menu offer). Unfortunately some open air museums have catering provision limited to small kiosk or vending machine with drinks (for example The Open Air Museum in Granica - Kampinos). Today catering services are offered by rural open air museums on very different level as some museums not only provide meal to weary tourists but sometimes offer a quite refine cuisine level. Some of these restaurants are already recognized as very special places by food connoisseurs, have famous chefs and are managed by
experienced restaurateurs (Olsztynek). Possibility of running a restaurant located in museum - is rather tempting and attract attention of many potential investors. It is because a café, bistro or restaurant operating in the popular museum is a guarantee of high sought after - level depending on the prestige and attractiveness of museum, the good location and good access by public transport. Moreover an important asset is a solid protection due to the nature of the museum collections - the restaurant staff and guests could feel more secure there. As for restaurant guests not only the quality of food, but also the dining room design is very important - restaurant or café located in the museum have this additional asset. First and foremost it is the unique atmosphere of interiors of historic inns or taverns and their very special design. It should be noted that the special character have restaurants located in the open air museums which are located in the post-industrial architecture (The Museum of Petroleum Industry in Bobrka). Most of the restaurants located in the open air museums (as in Sierpc, Olsztynek) offer the traditional Polish rural food, believing that guests expect this kind of menu. Usually one has a choice of popular soups (barszcz, żur, chłodnik, kapusniak), main courses (bigos, kaszanka, kopytka, pierogi, placki, pyzy, zrazy), desserts (makowiec, piernik, sernik) and beverages (beer, kompot, miód, vodka). In some open air museums also less popular, only regionally recognized dishes are offered: kutia, kugel, sękacz (dresses of Mazovia Province and Podlaskie Province), bryndza, bundz, golka, oscypek, żentyca (dairy dishes of mountain provinces), main dishes bliny, kartacz (Mazuria Province and Podlaskie Province).

In the Polish rural tradition, the “inn culture” (associated with the presence of: karczma, zajazd or gospoda) has played an important role as not only a place to host the travelers but also as a center of social life of a village, informal meetings place of local community. They were built by the busy roads (karczma, zajazd) or in the centre of villages (gospoda). Preserved to the present days in open air museums historic inns or taverns are valuable examples of the 19th century wooden folk architecture: a tavern located in the Museum of Wooden Architecture of Siedlce Region, a tavern in the Ethnographic Park in Olsztynek, a tavern in the Ethnographic Park in Klobka (Czerwinski, 2006). It is a pity that only few of these historic buildings, due to the multiple determinants, are used accordingly to their primary function and could serve tourists visiting the museum as a place to eat and rest (Table 3). These determinants are mainly law regulations, sanitary issues, technical state of historical (mainly wooden) architecture, conservation program and decisions about land use conditions. Unfortunately in many cases, even if one deals with the historic buildings of the original functions of an inn or tavern, it might be not possible today to reintroduce its primary function there. However it is very fortunate, that many investors were successful and visitors in some open air museums can enjoy food and drinks in the historic architecture relics (Olsztynek, Sierpc, Łowicz, in the near future - Klobka). Probably in future the investors will operate in much more business friendly environment, mainly due to the high cost of maintenance of historic buildings located in the open air museums, and the hope that various commercial services introduced there might help. Without a doubt, all new services (as catering,
accommodation, food fairs) will be enthusiastically welcomed by tourists. Especially that the growing interest of society in rural tradition, folk culture, is getting visibly wider. Tourists are interested not only in tangible heritage, but also in related to the rural culture fascinating customs, exotic traditions and fascinating especially for today's youth - folklore.

Table 3 The catering offer and promotion of traditional food in the selected rural open air museums

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Open Air Museum (year of establishment)</th>
<th>Catering Facilities</th>
<th>Cultural events intended to promote the traditional food</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Radom Village Museum in Szydlowiec (1976)</td>
<td>Vending machine with sweets at drinks by the main entrance to the museum</td>
<td>Feast of Bread (the first Sunday of September), Annual Potato Festival (autumn)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Museum of Wooden Architecture in Sucha (1993)</td>
<td>No catering offer unless order in advance</td>
<td>Cultural events, also focused on culinary tradition, organized together with Ministry of Culture and Ministry of Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Open Air Museum of Kurpiowski Region in Novgorod (1919)</td>
<td>Restaurant in the historic wooden inn (closed in 2011 – 2012)</td>
<td>No information about events focused on traditional food</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Ethnographical Park in Olsztynek (1909)</td>
<td>Restaurants located by the main entrance in the wooden house and in the traditional wooden inn</td>
<td>Regional Herbs holiday, The Flavors of Potato, Regional and Eco fair of Local Farmers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Open Air Museum of Rural Mazovia Countryside in Sierpiec (1971)</td>
<td>Restaurant located in the new building by the main entrance (part of the hotel and conference centre), pub located in the historic wooden inn and restaurant in the wooden tavern (located by the side entrance to the museum)</td>
<td>Cooking in the Past, Honey Harvest, Annual Potato Harvest in the Sierpc Open Air Museum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kujawsko - Dobrzyński Etnographic Park in Klóbka (1993)</td>
<td>Café in the multifunctional building located by the main entrance to the museum (café, shop, tourist information)</td>
<td>Sale of regional products (as honey food products, pastry, bread)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Open Air Museum in Maurzyce near Łowicz (1980)</td>
<td>Restaurant in the historic building (seasonally opened: spring - summer)</td>
<td>No information about cultural events focused on traditional food</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Open Air Museum in Granica – Kampinos (1986 )</td>
<td>Restaurant in new buildings located by the parking site (main entrance to the museum)</td>
<td>No information about cultural events focused on traditional food</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Ethnographic Park in Tokarnia (1971)</td>
<td>Restaurant in the historical wooden inn inside the museum</td>
<td>Saint Adalbert Fair, Annual Potato Harvest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Open Air Museum in Janowiec (1998)</td>
<td>Restaurant located in the historical manor house (together with accommodation offer possibilities)</td>
<td>No information about cultural events focused on traditional food</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Museum of Agriculture in Ciechanowice (1962)</td>
<td>Vending machine with sweets and drinks located next to ticket office</td>
<td>Herbs in Rural Culture and Traditional Polish Rural Cuisine</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: author’s field research ds-144 AWF University Warsaw (2011-2012)
Example of cultural tourists interests in the folk culture is the growing number of visitors to open-air museums and crowds taking part in the cultural events dedicated to the regional culinary arts ("Feast of Bread" in the Radom Village Museum, "The Culinary Tradition of Past" in the Open Air Museum in Kuligow, the numerous cultural activities of the Museum of Bakery and Confectionery in Ślężany). It should be emphasized that these cultural events often are a result of the initiatives of the private folk art enthusiasts, developed without a state or institutional support (museums in Kuligow, Sucha and Ślężany).

Museum visitors can explore the facilities and arrangement of traditional rural kitchen in the Ethnographic Park in Olsztynek, The Museum of Mazovia Countryside in Sierpiec, the Open Air Museum of the Kurpie Region in Nowogrod, the Open Air Museum in Maurzyce near Łowicz and in the Ethnographic Park in Tokarnia. These are undoubtedly examples of initiatives that build and help to stimulate tourist interest in traditional culture. Hopefully in future also in other open-air museums either on the basis of historic rural buildings (taverns or cottages) or on the basis of newly built facilities - one could enjoy traditional rural food in future. It has to be underlined that often at the early stage of planning an open air museum the provision of catering services in the historic inn or tavern have already been taken into account (Granica, Klobka), but due to different reasons (shortages of financing resources, legal or technical constrains) sometimes these assumptions have never been developed. Accordingly to the development visions, several open air museums plan to provide catering services in future, possibly located in historic taverns (as museum in Klobka or Granica - Kampinos), in aim to make a good investment and also to promote the culinary traditions of the Polish countryside as a part a holistic rural tradition (in addition to folk sculpture, painting, pottery, music, dance and singing).

Technical conditions and legal issues concerning catering offer in the museums

The legal regulation, location, infrastructure and media as well as technical state of the building – all these factors have serious impact on the real estate potential development. Taking into account the number of potential visitors, their expectations and financial resources - investor could decide what direction of property development is optimal under the circumstances. In a situation where catering facilities in the open air museum were not foreseen at the early project design stage – the investor must take into account a series of several legal restrictions and technical constrains, when considering such a new function. For example confusing might be inappropriate dimension of the rooms, poor technical condition of the building or inadequate type and state of the infrastructure and media (heating, electricity, water - sewage and ventilation). As result very often, attempt to implement catering services in the old, historic building is not possible. For example, the smooth work organization of restaurant staff (cafe, bar, wine cellar) depends largely on the work coordination, harmonious cooperation between the kitchen staff and
waiters. The best solution is to deploy dining hall, the kitchen and its facilities (storage, washing up) on one level. This is not always possible, especially when having a limited floor area (especially in museums located in old residential buildings). Although the legal rules allow, in the case when catering service takes more than one floor - installing a lift, smooth work organization is still difficult. Another limitation that is difficult to overcome in locations where catering services are newly implemented there are the requirements for the minimum space size (Table). For example according to the legal regulations, which must be observed in Poland with regard to public dining establishments, the kitchen ceiling height should be at least 3m 30cm, the other at least 2 m 50 cm (Journal of Building Law of 2002, 2002, No. 91, item. 811). Moreover the commercial kitchens in catering establishments require specialized equipment. It is worth noting that a small commercial kitchen (serving up to 150 meals a day) can occupy one room with a small amount of equipment and mostly devices we know from the domestic kitchens (Open Air Museum in Maurzyce), the medium and large commercial kitchens requirements are different. For example the division of labor is expected and the use of machinery and equipment specific for the food service industry is recommended (all devices must be certified by the National Institute of Hygiene). Another requirement concerns the functional – spatial links. For example in the commercial kitchens serving more than 150 meals a day washing must be separated from the kitchen. It should be noted that in the dining hall and in the kitchen some standards for lighting, heating and ventilation are required. As in commercial kitchens there are many waste (food scraps, packaging, cans, bottles) the waste management program (sorting, storage and removing) should be made at the design stage, taking into account local municipal regulations in this regard. Always in the immediate vicinity of a catering facilities (consumer space) should be public toilets (Journal of Laws of 2001, 2001, No. 63, item. 634 Act on the health conditions of food and nutrition), (Journal of Laws of 1994, 1994, No. 156, item. 1118 Construction Law). Moreover in museums that are located in historic buildings, nature and size of the future catering services are also determined by the program and the recommendations of the conservator of architectural relics. The legal basis for the protection of cultural property in Poland is the Act on the protection and conservation of monuments of September 17, 2003 (Journal of Laws of 2003, 2003, No. 162).

All construction works undertaken in historic buildings (including interior renovations and adaptations to new functions - such as catering services) in accordance with the Polish law, can be carried out only with the permission of the competent, regional conservation office. Policies and procedures for granting permits for any works, the conditions for their conduct and qualifications of the persons who are authorized to carry out this activity are determined by the appropriate regulation of the Minister of Culture, stating in detail the mode of authorization to carry out conservation work on monuments and conditions of their conduct (the need for specific implementing technology, construction materials and finishing materials), also qualifications and responsibility of the persons who are authorized to carry out this activity. Unfortunately these
procedures are, in accordance with the applicable rules and practices, tedious and complicated. Very often the successful start and end of the historic site development depends on acceptable compromise between "hard" rules of the conservation office and the expectations of the investor and the investment objective possibilities (Malachowski, 2007), (Pawlikowska-Piechotka, 2013), (Rymaszewski, 2005), (Table 4). It should be emphasized that the search for compromise solutions is important not only from the point of view of the future restaurateur, but the well being of a museum, both in terms of increasing its potential economic strength and from non-commercial point of view (as a chance to increase the attractiveness of the museum).

There is another aspect related to the catering services in the museums which, although is not considered as letter of the law - seems to be obvious. It is clear that the prestige and uniqueness of the place which is an open air museum require that a potential catering should correspond to the character of site. Since the main task of the museum is to promote culture and education – it is hard to imagine opening in the museum the vulgar catering foul, without any class and ambition, set deliberately for the unsophisticated customers. Nevertheless the type - bistro, café or restaurant, their décor and offer, guests and their behavior - they must correspond with an elegant site of museum, being not a dissonance to the respected scientific institutions. From the point of view of planning solutions, there are two ways to accomplish this:

- To supplement the open air museum with a new multi-purpose building (or group of buildings), enabling to accommodate not only a restaurant, but also a shop, some seminar rooms, a tourist information center and administration section;
- To adapt some historical rural buildings already located in the open air museum for catering services; the best solution is to re-install primary function to the historical inn or tavern;

When considering how to provide catering services in the already existing museum it is necessary to take into account many different factors (which should be estimated individually for a specific museum) and it is not always easy or even possible to determine which of these two forms is better. These conditions include a museum character, its size and popularity, the scientific program, educational role, location in the context of the other tourist attractions, nature of neighborhood, recommendations of conservatory office, technical and sanitary requirements - finally land reserves and the feasibility of the investment. Always important question is whether it is better to look for a space to provide catering services in the existing museum building or to consider construction of extension. Without a doubt, the design of the new building in aim to provide a space for cafe or restaurant (if only legally possible) can result in better function and program, easily meet the technical and sanitary requirements. However, as it should be noted, such a project requires a creative approach to the design, careful selection of materials, attention paid to aesthetics, care towards nature and architectural character of the existing museum building and the appropriate plot of land. As it was previously mentioned - the project of extension
need to comply with the law rules, in particular the requirements of the Sanitary Inspection, the provisions of the Construction Law of 1994 with amendments and Conservation of Historic Monuments Office recommendations.

What must be underlined the planning of catering services in the open air museum process should take into account many different factors and it is not always easy or even possible to determine which of the above mentioned two solutions is better. For example necessary is to consider:

- The size and popularity of the open air museum, its education and scientific program
- Location in relation to the nearby city and other tourist attractions, the nature of the immediate neighborhood
- Recommendations of conservation office, technical and sanitary requirements, building law, land reserves and the feasibility of the investment.

Naturally investment cost should not be the only issue. Constructing a new restaurant in the open air museum may be cheaper and better meeting the needs of the intended function, but restaurant location in the historic tavern might offer different quality of atmosphere (known in Łowicz, Olsztynek). Therefore the design of new building will require a truly creative approach, the best possible architectural form, careful selection of materials, close attention to aesthetics matters and conscious reference to traditional forms of regional tradition (known in Sierpc). The development of the catering services in the open air museum requires the right decision about restaurant locations within the museum: either inside the museum (Sierpc, Łowicz) or by the main entrance to the museum area (Olsztynek). It might depend on the conservatory recommendations, technical issues (as water infrastructure, waste collection or delivery organization).

**Table 4. Space requirement as a factor influencing layout arrangements and restaurant planning**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Space requirements (m2)</th>
<th>8-seats table</th>
<th>6-seats table</th>
<th>4-seats table</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>One seat (netto)</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>0.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Main circulation area</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>0.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service area</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>0.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One seat (brutto)</td>
<td>1.75</td>
<td>1.80</td>
<td>1.90</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Research study ds.-144 AWF University Warsaw (2011-2013)

**CONCLUSIONS**

At present about 40% of rural open air museums in Poland have catering services (12 out of 24 located within 200 km distance from Warsaw). There are different reasons for this situation: firstly, it is not always technically or legally possible and secondly, it is not always economically
justified. Nevertheless many open air museums, despite the potential possibilities for much more
developed catering services, have merely small stands with drinks and snacks or a slot machines
offering a limited range of products (as fuzzy soft drinks, chocolate bars, salty sticks and chips).
For example The Open Air Museum in Novgorod has no catering services, while having both land
reserves and the technical and legal possibilities, including very well preserved traditional wooden
inn. This historic building is picturesquely located by the river bank and seems ready to be opened
for public. Managers of some open air museums often would defend themselves arguing a distant
location from the nearby city or only seasonally operating of museum. However, as it seems, the
open air museum location in the distance from the town, without dining options nearby, may be
seen rather as a future business asset - as catering services provided in the museum may be
important for weary travelers and add some more attraction, helping to boost turnout in an even
less popular museum.

Cultural heritage is widely recognized as one of the most important factor creating the
attractiveness of tourist space. For the purposes of cultural tourism development in rural areas
especially important are well preserved: historical village layouts and rural traditional architecture,
historic military fortifications, places of pilgrimage, cultural events. Among these, particular values
to sustainable cultural tourists have all resources intentionally prepared for visitors (as rural open-
air museums). If the open air museum offers not only interesting exhibition space, but also a
hotel, restaurant or cafe (as for example in Sierpiec or Janowiec) - then multiplication of the
attractiveness results in number of visitors and museum popularity. Since the growth of wealth
and the rise of enthusiastic interest in culinary arts (a popular TV programs, numerous
publications) despite economy struggle more Poles seek for outdoor dine possibilities. It seems
that many open air museums are the right sites to develop ambitious gastronomic offer of slow
food - based on the culinary traditions of the region, combined with the educational workshops
(bread baking, workshops about spices and herbs). There is no doubt that the introduction of
catering services having interesting, ambitious and educational values in open-air museums,
might have great significance not only for the popularization of intangible culture, as a reminder
of forgotten food and products - enhancing the attractiveness of the museum, but also for the
protection of historical buildings. Indeed, it would be in the true spirit of the Polish school of
cultural heritage protection developed by prof. Jan Zachwatowicz: ‘the monument should be
involved in the society life and serve the public’ (Zachwatowicz, 1984).

Moreover, what should be emphasized, such initiatives would help to improve the economy
not only the museum itself, but also the members of local community. The well functioning
restaurant can enhance the attractiveness of the museum and generate job places not only in
museum but also will improve the economic condition of the nearby farms. Important non-
economic values will be connected with promotion of the culinary knowledge and traditions of
different regions. In addition, the project can be considered as a way to promote environment
friendly food, promotion of healthy life style through proper nutrition and eating habits (based on
traditional cuisine, with dishes rich of vegetables).

As it was mentioned, contemporary museums have serious social tasks related to collecting and research studies of artifacts, to education and popularizing national and global culture. The development of a new formula of open air museum is necessary as modern visitors expect to be entertained and are likely to avoid museums, where they cannot be stimulated both intellectually and emotionally. There is no doubt that the introduction of an interesting and ambitious cuisine offer in the rural open air museums is of great importance. Could be seen not only as the popularization of food culture, chance to increase the museum attractiveness, but in many cases as important economic support for museum and local community. This would be consistent with the message to preserve the historic sites as vivid environment serving the local community, what express the spirit of the recent UNESCO, ICOM, EU documents and the Polish school of cultural heritage protection. What must be emphasized, it would help to improve the economic condition of not only the museum itself, but also the local community. Places to dine might not only foster the museum economy but also contribute to the whole neighborhoods generating new job places. There are some other important benefits of non-commercial nature which could be appreciated by local community members. In some remote villages, deprived of entertainment and cultural facilities, a multifunctional open air museum, with an interesting program, can help to break the stereotype of the boring atmosphere, place in which - according to the locals - nothing interesting happens. Certainly, such initiatives can have a positive contribution and help to change attitudes of local community members towards their living environment, help to shape local identity, help to strengthen the spatial identification, to raise site prestige and improve quality of living. All these benefits are foreseen in the vision of modern museum role in the documents: The ICOM Code of Ethics for Museums (ICOM, 2004) and A Sustainable Cultural Tourism Charter (ICOMOS, 1999). Possibly even the small and niche open air museums, located in the remote rural areas but having imaginative and energetic leadership are likely to success. But to keep public coming and to ensure their own survival the management of these museums need to try much harder to understand better tourists and local community expectations and to give their visitors what they want: touch of art and culture, knowledge and information about history and tradition through leisure and pleasure.

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CHAPTER 3.6.

TOURIST AND LANDSCAPE ASPECTS OF POST-EXTRACTION AREAS BASED ON THE EXAMPLE OF THE QUARTZ QUARRY IN THE IZERSKIE MOUNTAINS IN POLAND

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Abstract: The unique conditions of the area of reclamation determine the choice of the main function of using. This paper applies researches carried out in the Quartz Quarry “Stanislaw” in the Izerskie Mountains in south-western Poland, as a potential place of concentration of tourist attractions in the mountain area. It presents the concept of tourist complex called ‘Quarry in the clouds’, which will allow practicing various forms of tourism adapted to tourists needs on mountain areas. The research identified the unique qualities of the landscape and the value of the quarry as a strip mining facility. It also decided about choosing a path of reclamation and had a large impact on the type of the planned tourist attractions. Among them was proposed: via ferrata and rental insurance, viewing platform, educational path, viewpoint and tourist hostel. The concept contains also modification of flora, to improve mine’s scenery and minimize quarry’s negative impact on view. Presented forms of land use should be crucial importance in shaping of the local landscape of the quarry, as well as a general panorama of the Izerskie Mountains.

Keywords: mountains, quarry, reclamation, tourist attractions, via ferrata

INTRODUCTION

Development of open pit mining during the post-war period became the cause of devastation of natural environment fragments situated within the borders of Poland, in central-eastern Europe. Changes in land morphology, stripping of the surface soil layer and vegetable coverage contributed to irreversible transformation of land surface (Kasztelewicz, 2010). In this way the post-extraction landscape, which is a type of cultural landscape, was created (Nita and Myga-Piątek, 2006). Exposure of industrial heritage attractions should be compatible with sustainable development objectives (Cole, 2004).

The closed “Stanislaw” Quarry can be presented as one of the examples of numerous Polish open pit mines. It is situated in the Izerskie Mountains that form the western part of the Sudety Mountains in the southwestern part of the country. This is the range of rolling and relatively low mountains not exceeding 1126 m above sea level (Wysoka Kopa). The Polish
section of those mountains consists of two ridges – Kamieniec in the north and High in the south separated by the Kwisa river valley. In the past, the area used to be populated and exploited extensively. Today, it is a wild area visited by relatively small groups of tourists. Those areas represent the integral part of the surroundings of Szklarska Poręba, one of the mountain centres in the Sudety and they compete with the higher part of the Karkonosze Mountains (Wielki Szyszak, 1509 m.a.s.l.), situated to the south of that town. The Quartz Quarry “Stanisław” is situated in the eastern part of the High Ridge between the Wysoka Kopa and the Zwalisko, at the top of the Izerskie Garby that formerly reached 1088 m.a.s.l. After unofficial termination of extraction activities in 2005, it started building interest in the tourist and hiking communities as a part of the mountain range with numerous tourist routes running across.

Despite the concession valid until 2026, (Zmiana Studium..., 2007) no raw materials extraction is conducted. On the other hand, no reclamation works required by the law have been initiated. The former quarry is not protected or used in any way and therefore its major, exceptional in the national scale values are wasted. The unusual situation in which the studied area found itself caused that an attempt was undertaken to elaborate the concept for rational reclamation of the quarry area using the landscape conditions unique in the national scale and the values that developed as a result of long-term human activity. It was necessary to identify them and to propose the best possible use for them considering the specificity of location of the quarry. The development of the object of studies should be adjusted to the needs of tourists in mountain areas and the proposed use of the area potential should allow changing the currently forgotten and deserted place into one of the major tourist attractions in the vicinity of Szklarska Poręba. The land development concept should also include the plan for mitigation of the unfavourable influence of disharmonious elements on the landscape of the quarry and the Izerskie Mountains.

The designed tourist attractions have been distributed taking into account the current shape and looks of the area. Given the possibility of restarting extraction activities and enlarging the works, those elements were chosen in the way allowing changes in their positioning and adjustment to the future form of the object.

**METHODOLOGY**

Approaches of land use for tourism were based on a case study method (Buckley, 2012). The presented case can be an example and inspiration for similar actions in the direction of rational use of natural and cultural resources. The diagnosis of local conditions and predisposition to development of tourism were carried.

The study focused on selected quarry in Poland. The entire area allocated to mining activities representing the area of 31.13 ha was considered in the concept proposed. Within the framework of the studies, an attempt was undertaken to indicate the preferred reclamation
direction that would consider the demands and needs of mountain tourists first of all. The choice of the development direction for the area covered by the study required considering special conditions encompassing natural as well as cultural-didactic factors and the suitability of the individual quarry elements for use for tourism. It was also important to propose activities aiming at neutralisation of the unfavourable influence of disharmonious elements of the quarry and the Izerskie Mountains landscape.

The quarry and its surrounding area landscape valorisation was carried out to evaluate the potential of the area for reclamation. It was based on the Söhngen methodology that considers such environment elements as terrain morphology, coverage with vegetation and surface waters (Cieślak, Senetra, 2004). The views were valorised based on the method by Rogowski (2009), applied to mountain tourist routes. Given the specificity of the studied quarry area the anthropogenous transformations that have significant influence on the quarry landscape value were studied. As cultural factors, they are of particular importance in development of area attractive for tourism. Based on the analysis of the study area conditions it was decided that valorisation should take into account the area transformation type, perceptibility of phenomena understood as the intensity of anthropogenous transformations’ perception, types of rocks and minerals visible as well as the existing technical infrastructure.

Landscape analysis involving marking the components influencing the aesthetic and spatial perception of the observer such as dominants, accents, foreground and background of views, composition-functional courses and nodal points at junctions or forking points of those axes as well as viewpoints, sequences and axes represented an important stage in the works conducted. The studies identified disharmonious landscape components that require masking or removing as well as the places that offer the most attractive views. They were used for positioning of the reclamation concept elements.

NATURAL VALUES

The exceptional nature of Quartz Quarry “Stanislaw” compared to similar facilities in Poland is determined by its location in the top portions of the mountain range and land morphology diversification resulting from the extraction activities. The highest point of the quarry is positioned 1085.45 m.a.s.l. while the lowest point is situated at the level of 983.6 m.a.s.l. Anthropogenous transformations include the works created during rock material extraction and the dumping site, i.e. the rock waste storage area (fig. 1).
The rock material extraction site is a concave form of land combining the characteristics of slope-quarry and top-quarry workings (Karczewska 2008). The quarry cuts into both the former top and the north-eastern slope of Izerskie Garby. The workings almost 500 m in length and almost 170 m in width go down to the depth of 86 m. It occupies around 6.5 ha. Currently, it consists of 6 extraction levels that have been numbered in top-down order i.e. from the natural land level (fig. 2). In many places, the rock shelves are very narrow but occasionally they reach 40 m in width. Steep slopes or even rock walls up to 45 m in height connect the individual levels.
The convex dump (hips) in the form of slopes where the extracted and redundant rock material is stored on the slopes of the mountain is the second characteristic element of the Quartz Quarry “Stanisław”. The individual dump hips are of table shape; they are characterised by steep and high slopes and flat top surface (Karczewska 2008). The dump is visible as an accumulation of rocks, stones and gravel on the area exceeding 17 ha.

The little damaged area fragment in almost natural form is the third zone. This is the preserved fragment of the eastern slope of the Garby Izerskie Mountains stretching between 1045.60 and 1072.20 m.a.s.l. It occupies almost 5.5 ha. The overgrown roads and low banks are the only traces of human activity there. The zone with buildings and former processing plant is situated in the area where the fragment that is near to the natural changes into the dumpsite. The GSM areal mast is situated nearby.

The dislocation zone a few kilometres in length consisting of the Izerskie Mountains’ gneiss and hornfels shales cuts through the centre of the former peak from the north-east to the south-west. Those rocks originate from the Ordovician period and are almost 500 million years old (Kozłowski and Metz 2004). The vein of quartz that starts 73 m under the land surface stretches between them. Its thickness ranges from 2.3 to 29.1 m. It is covered by overburden with the average thickness of 2 m (Studium Uwarunkowań... Stara Kamienica, 2012).

Long-term extraction activities caused irreversible environmental transformations. The area has been stripped of vegetable coverage, surface soil layer and rocks. As a result of those transformations the upper border of the upper subalpine forest was lowered as compared to the generally accepted maximum height of 1250 m.a.s.l. As of the time of limiting and then stopping the extraction works restoration of the natural coverage has taken place (Fruba, Raszkowski and Zbadyński, 2008). Vegetation started entering the devastated areas (Kasztelewicz, 2010). The central part of the Quartz Quarry “Stanisław” and northern edges of the dump are overgrown with upper subalpine forest consisting of Calamagrostio villosae – Piceetum typicum, which is the most valuable community of plants within the studied area. Within the standing timber, dead elements are present. That resulted from air pollution, particularly air acidification (Kurpiewski (ed.), 2006). The primary type of that community, differing significantly from the mature form can be identified. Above the upper border of the forest community where in the old days shrubs of Pinetum mugio were present, the communities of Crepido-Calamagrostietum villosae developed (Holeksa, 2004). In the almost natural part of the
quarry, above the edge of the precipice, fragments of the *Vaccinium myrtillus* community can be found with a high share of bilberry (*Vaccinium myrtillus* L.) can be found (Matuszkiewicz, 2012). Moreover, the majority of the quarry area is covered with the primary communities of grasses and groups of leafy shrubs. The presence of the phenomenon of the succession of vegetation represents another interesting characteristic of the quarry area.

The conducted landscape valorisation indicates that very good views are characteristic for almost the entire quarry area. The majority of the area is characterised by rich and far reaching panorama that is limited vertically or close panorama that is developed in the vertical plane. From valorisation zones situated in the south and east of the quarry and from the highest points in the vicinity the majority of Polish and Czech Karkonosze Mountains can be visible, including the highest peak – Śnieżka (1602 m.a.s.l.). The view from the northern parts of the quarry extends to the Izerskie Mountains, Jelenia Góra as well as the Kaczawskie Mountains more than 30 km away.

The landscape of the quarry itself is also valuable; particularly the interiors of the workings and the bare rocks there that make tourists feel as if they were among high mountain peaks. There are places within the quarry area that offer 360-degree panorama in the horizontal plane (fig. 3, 4).

![Figure 3. Panorama of the Karkonosze Mountains and Czech part of the Izerskie Mountains seen from the quarry centre](source)

Source: photo by K. Sulżycka, 2013

![Figure 4. Workings of the Quartz Quarry “Stanisław” as seen from the central part of the quarry](source)

Source: photo by K. Sulżycka, 2013
CULTURAL VALUES

Transformations resulting from human activity are seen and experienced within the workings the most intensely. The steep rock walls producing the immense interior influence the impression the most. The uncovered rock profile is an important element of the workings (fig. 5). In the north-western wall, in its upper part, the grey gneiss of the Izerskie Mountains can be seen. In the central part, white quartz surrounded by quartzite formations from pink through yellow, red to dark brown can be seen. The south-eastern wall presents mainly hornfels formations (hornfels shale) with veins of skarn and intrusions of granites, aplite and pegmatites.

Figure 5. Fragment of the north-western and south eastern walls of the workings
Source: photos by K. Sulżycka, 2013

Moreover, traces of extraction activities are well visible in the dumps and slopes of the dumps. The entire area of the quarry possesses characteristics of open pit mining and leaves no doubts as concerns the operations that used to be performed there. During quarry development, that component should be exposed showing at the same time the history of the location and highlighting its identity. The workings, as the most clearly visible transformation of the nature should be the location for area development elements concentration.

The access system of the Quartz Quarry “Stanisław” is strongly interconnected with the network of nearby tourist routes. The dr Mieczysław Orłowicz Memorial Main Sudety Route marked in red runs to the west of the quarry. The route bypasses the quarry turning to south east at the distance of 0.5 km from the area covered by the study. That route leads through the most interesting sections of the individual ranges of the Sudety, among others Śnieżne Kotły and Plain under Śnieżka in the Karkonosze, connecting Świeradów
Zdrój in the Izerskie Mountains with Prudnik in the Opawskie Mountains. In the vicinity of the object it overlaps with the Will Erich Peuckert Memorial educational path. The route marked in black is extensively used by cyclists. From the south-west, along, Szklarska Droga (Glassmaker’s Road) also called the Old Customs Road, the blue and green routes as well as the cycling route lead in the direction of the quarry. The system of tourist routes in the vicinity of the quarry and entrance to its area is presented in figure 6.

![Figure 6. Fragment of the tourist map](source: Wydawnictwo Turystyczne Plan, 2012)

The area situated to the south of the object covered by the study positioned between Szklarska Poręba and Jakuszyce are a centre of cross-country skiing. Numerous routes, however, do not reach the quarry directly. The nearest of them crosses the Main Sudety Route junction with the path marked in blue and green signs.

There is an extensive network of roads within the area of the studied quarry. The roads within the Quartz Quarry “Stanislaw” are built of broken stone produced from redundant winnings. Their technical condition is good or very good. Occasionally some rough spots resulting from water erosion during intensive rains can be found.

The area of researched quarry is partly equipped with technical infrastructure. In addition to the extensive system of roads that infrastructure includes buildings, live power system, inoperative sewers and the GSM areal. The majority of those components are found in the zone with buildings in the south-eastern part of the transformed area.

Five out of eleven buildings have been preserved:
- Administrative-social building (fig. 7), in the old days called the foremen’s building (office of the department manager with the responsibility for process supervision and some administrative duties – masonry structure (Sobol, 2002);
- small building with foremen’s office – front of steel sheets;
- former workshop with foundry – masonry structure (fig. 8);
- transformer building – front of metal sheets (fig. 8);
- the building on the fourth level of the north-western face of the workings – masonry structure.

Figure 7. Administration-social building
Source: photo by K. Sulżycka, 2013
The mountain that was subject to anthropogenous transformation used to be called Weisse Flins – Biały Lwiniec (Wikorejczyk, 1992), Weisse Steinrūke – Biały Kamień (Topographic map Flinsberg, 1885). It was linked to the 12th c. legends on the god named Lwinc (Flins).

Raw material extraction in the quarry area was started already during the medieval times. Materials exist concerning the people called Walons that specialised in search for valuable materials that discovered the immense vein of quartz in the location of the present workings in 13th c. (Wiater, 2010). During 1950’s, probably in 1954, the Quartz Quarry “Stanislaw” was established. It used to be owned by the enterprise named Jeleniogórskie Kopalnie Surowców Mineralnych (JKSM). As of that time, the extraction of the mineral increased and at the same time, the consequences of the operation became noticeable. It can be assumed that during the period of the quarry operation by the JKSM the largest area transformations took place. During the extraction works, the workings and the dump were formed. Also the buildings necessary for managing the plant as well as structures and machines necessary for raw material production were erected (fig. 9).
In 2005, the next owner of the quarry - PeBeKa Lubin – unofficially finished quartz extraction in the Izerskie Garby. The area emptied and became the object of interest among geologists and tourists. Its transformations could also be noticed and pioneer vegetation with participation of individual trees developed on the majority of rock shelves and dump. The wave of changes started in 2011. Two KRAZ dumpers that used to be an attraction for tourists were sold and removed from the site. A year later the heaps of aggregate were removed from the eastern part of the transformed area. The material was sold for rehabilitation of roads. Removing the majority of structures and all the machines of the processing plant was the next step (fig. 10, 11).
The landscape in the surrounding of the Quartz Quarry “Stanisław” represents the degraded type. The location is visible from the viewing points in the nearby Karkonosze and Izerskie Mountains as a disharmonious element disturbing the continuity of spruce forests growing on mountain slopes. The unfavourable impression is caused by the cultural dominant in the form of the GSM areal positioned in the eastern part of the quarry that can be noticed even from Mount Szrenica 8.5 km away (Marcinkowaska, 2012). Given the special characteristics that cumulate within the Quartz Quarry “Stanisław”, its landscape should be preserved and covered by legal protection. In parallel, efforts should be undertaken to minimise its unfavourable influence on the delicate panorama of the Izerskie Mountains.

CHOICE OF RECLAMATION DIRECTIONS

During the recent years, the scale of potential for development of post-mining areas has been noticed. Increasingly often alternative development directions making use of the land morphology as well as natural, didactic, historical and cultural values of the given quarry are applied (Anioł, Kaźmierczak, 2011). Currently, next to the agricultural and forestry development the natural, recreational, water, economic, residential, cultural and didactic directions are identified (Ostreżka, Uberman, 2010).

In case of the Quartz Quarry “Stanisław” the unique values resulting from the quarry location, character of the place and transformations resulting from long-term extraction activities are the major criteria for selecting the dominating reclamation direction. The following factors encouraging wider use of the area can be identified:

- location of the quarry in the heart of the Izerskie Mountains;
- rich panorama visible from the majority of the quarry area, particularly well-visible from the highest parts of the former peak;
- morphology of land in the form of natural slopes and deep workings as well as extensive dump at the top of the mountain consisting of rock walls, steep banks, rock shelves and extensive plane areas at the top of the dumps;
- uncovered rock profile with visible quartz vein, quartzite and other rocks forming the mosaic of colours and structures;
- high mountain, severe climate;
- history of quartz and accompanying minerals’ mining;
- fragments of area covered with vegetation representing high value;
- presence of the communication system interlaced into the system of tourist routes, including the closeness of the Main Sudety Route;
- presence of technical infrastructure including buildings, power lines and sewers;
- specific area users group consisting of mountain hikers including participants in activity tourism (hikers and cyclists as well as cross-country skiers), people with special interests (particularly related to identification of rocks as well as people keen on the nature or history).

The Quartz Quarry “Stanisław”, as a component of the mountain range proves to be the ideal location for development of tourism that currently has minimal presence there. Natural and cultural values of the quarry concentrated in one location create immense opportunities for land development for tourism. The quarry near Szklarska Poręba may compete in attractiveness with the neighbouring Karkonosze Mountains. That is why reclamation in tourism direction with the focus on mountain tourism including also the cultural and didactic directions is justified. At the same time, quarry fragments with well-preserved vegetation have positive influence on the perception of the quarry within the panorama of the Izerskie Mountains. Enclaves of greenery allow harmonious linking the area with its surroundings. Hence, the natural direction was also included in the directions of reclamation.

**THE QUARTZ QUARRY “STANISŁAW” DEVELOPMENT CONCEPT**

Within the framework of the “Stanisław” reclamation the area development concept was elaborated that projects establishment of a tourist complex „Kopalnia wśród chmur“ [Quarry in the clouds]. The projected attractions will allow practicing various forms of tourism such as adventure tourism, cultural tourism and geo-tourism. The developed area will be available to hikers, cyclists and cross-country skiers depending on the year season. The development was elaborated with observation of natural and landscape values thanks to rational positioning of individual attractions and setting limited tourist traffic zones. The concept of the Quartz Quarry “Stanisław” development is presented in figure 12.
Figure 12. The Quartz Quarry “Stanisław” development concept
Source: elaboration by K. Sulżycka, 2014

Via ferrata

The first in Poland via ferrata positioned along the rock walls of the workings is the major projected tourist attraction. The designed system of iron paths consists of 8 sections that fork
creating 4 options with diversified level of difficulty. The total length of the routes is 1.52 km. All routes are one-way and lead from the bottom of the workings upwards along the most interesting rock walls and shelves. The specific characteristics of the individual via ferrata fragments is presented in tab. 1.

Table 1. Specific characteristics of the via ferrata sections

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section number</th>
<th>Section length [m]</th>
<th>Approximate height difference [m]</th>
<th>Type of existing rocks and minerals</th>
<th>Type of artificial protection</th>
<th>Level of difficulty</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>83.94</td>
<td>10.00</td>
<td>quartzite, hornfels</td>
<td>steel cables</td>
<td>easy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>280.04</td>
<td>32.00</td>
<td>quartzite, hornfels, skarn, granite</td>
<td>hornfels, skarn, granite</td>
<td>average</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>188.02</td>
<td>32.00</td>
<td>hornfels, skarn, granite</td>
<td>steel cables, ladder</td>
<td>average</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>227.86</td>
<td>10.00</td>
<td>quartzite, gneiss,</td>
<td>steel cables, steel brackets</td>
<td>average</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>240.32</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>quartz, hornfels, skarn, granite</td>
<td>steel cables</td>
<td>average</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>246.86</td>
<td>28.00</td>
<td>quartz, quartzite</td>
<td>steel cables, cable bridge</td>
<td>difficult</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>58.48</td>
<td>23.00</td>
<td>quartz, quartzite</td>
<td>steel cables, ladder, steel brackets</td>
<td>very difficult</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>191.88</td>
<td>25.00</td>
<td>quartzite, gneiss</td>
<td>steel cables, steel brackets</td>
<td>difficult</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: elaboration by K. Sulżycka, 2014

Use of via ferrata is possible with specialist equipment consisting of hip harness, energy absorber, ropes and helmet only. The equipment rental facility would be positioned in the rebuilt workshop with forge.
**Viewing platform**

The important role of quartz in the area transformation and interesting profile of the rocks were the inspiration for designing the viewing platform located in the depths of the workings on its eastern wall. Thanks to that positioning, the tourist may experience fully the specific nature of the place and have a look at the rocks and quartz vein present that present the structure of Izerskie Garby Mountain.

The sequence of concrete stairs divided into 3 sections leads to the viewing platform. The stairway was designed to run just by the wall of the workings. At the same time, it has been secured from the side of the precipice with barriers of Cor-Ten steel and glazing. The structure influences safety without limiting the possibilities of observing the surroundings.

The platform is positioned on the third from the bottom rock shelve and partly extends forward from it. It is positioned opposite the place where the quartz vein is visible the best. The platform has irregular shape with diversified angles and lengths of edges by which it refers to the rough and sharp shapes of the walls of the workings. It consists of two levels joined by stairs that offer different fields of vision. It is projected to use materials referring to the industrial character of the place and the looks of the machines of the former processing plant that match well the local landscape for construction of the platform. Cor-Ten steel, powder painted galvanised steel, glass and light-grey reinforced concrete was used. The barriers used, made of glass or openwork type made of stainless steel allow contact of the man with the surrounding and excellent perception of the quarry atmosphere. Viewing platform visualisation is presented in figure 13.
Didactic path

The projected didactic path covers the subject of the Quartz Quarry “Stanisław” history and transformation of the areas throughout centuries. The path will be marked in yellow and its length is 1.34 km. The expected time for walking it at a normal walking speed is about one hour.

Along its course, six stations have been planned positioned in characteristic points of the quarry to present the issues of landscape transformation and quarry operation to the tourists. Vertical educational boards consist of Cor-Ten steel frames filled with transparent Plexiglas on which sketches of former quarry fragments are positioned. The drawings are accompanied by short texts presenting the key information about the post-works area. Positioning of the information boards was projected so that the current status of the quarry could be seen through the transparent sketch showing the former looks of the location (fig. 14).

![Image of information board number 3 by the didactic path](image)

**Figure 14. Visualisation of information board number 3 by the didactic path**  
Source: elaboration by K. Sulżycka, 2014

Specification of the projected information boards with numbering.
1) “What mountains are these?” – board presenting the panorama of the Karkonosze and Izerskie Mountains with names of the individual peaks;
2) “Once the top was here” – board with the drawing of the not existing summit of the Izerskie Garby Mountain destroyed as a result of extraction works in the quarry;

3) “Where the quartz vein is?” – board presenting positioning of the quartz and accompanying rocks, geological structure of the Izerskie Mountains and information on the beginnings of raw material extraction in the 12th c.;

4) “How the area changed?” – board presenting the old looks of the zone with buildings and the wooded part, explaining the function of individual buildings and presenting the issue of natural succession of the communities of plants;

5) “What do people need quartz for?” – board sowing the no longer existing processing plant and the applications of quartz;

6) “If not for the man...” – board making the tourist aware of the consequences of open pit mining of raw materials to the landscape and showing the Izerskie Garby Mountain before the transformations.

Mountain shelter

The development concept of the Quartz Quarry “Stanisław” also includes the mountain shelter situated in the former foremen office building. The building must be renovated thoroughly. Rehabilitation of the power and sewers systems and installation of water supply system is necessary. Construction of a small rainwater treatment plant positioned behind the administration-social building would be the best solution in the location distant from the nearest town. The planned rehabilitation works include also the fronts of the building that will be painted highlighting the original division of its structure. Elements of Cor-Ten steel will be introduced to highlight the former industrial nature of the quarry.

Recreational facility, consisting of 10 nests with tables and benches where a meal could be consumed and rest taken while enjoying the panorama of the Karkonosze Mountains, has been planned on the dump in front of the building. The form of field furniture refers to the sharp, irregular shapes of the rocks in the workings. They were designed to look as if a sculpted fragment of the quarry area surface (fig. 15). The seats and tables are made of grey decorative concrete and impregnated timber. Recreational places are also equipped with Guardia bicycle stands by Metalco made of powder painted galvanised steel and stainless steel. Additional vegetation in that part was also designed as it fulfils the wind protecting and aesthetic role.
Viewpoint

The viewpoint marked by stone-hardened surface was planned in the highest point of the quarry area above the north-western wall of the workings. It has been equipped with sunbeds that similarly to the recreational places, look like a fragment of the quarry area surface (fig. 16). Their shape has been profiled to meet the needs of the tourists using them. Handy table was positioned on the right side of the sunbed. It is joined to the main body of the sunbed. Those elements were designed of grey decorative concrete and impregnated timber. The viewpoint has also been equipped with Guardia bicycle by Metalco.

Projected high greenery

The proposed development concept for the post-extraction area also projects free development of greenery in the centre of the quarry and on its perimeter. Planting of greenery has
also been projected to cover disharmonious elements and to provide protection against the wind. The composition of species is similar to that of upper subalpine fir forest of the Sudety Mountains. Greenery spreading in the allocated places should have positive influence on the landscape of the quarry and the Izerskie Mountains in the future.

**Equipment with elements of tourist infrastructure**

Aiming at assuring security and hygiene during use of the area, elements of small architecture that complement the major tourist attractions have been designed. In the southern part of the workings, next to its edge neighbouring the road the Route balustrade by Metalco consisting of Cor-Ten steel modules was applied. It will increase safety in the location with intensive tourist traffic.

The development concept assumes positioning 3 Targa information boards by Metalco made of powder painted galvanised steel. Two of them positioned next to the mountain shelter and by the western entrance to the quarry present the plan of the tourist complex “Quarry in the clouds” indicating the individual attractions and the rules and regulations for using the quarry. The third board is linked to the *via ferrata* and its content has been presented earlier.

It is necessary to position vertical directional signs presenting the names of locations to which the paths lead and the time for walking the given route at the crossing of the tourist routes. The concept provides for placement of 2 such elements. The first one will be positioned in the place of connection of the red, blue, green and black routes with the didactic path. The second sign will be positioned near the western entrance to the quarry. The Egero Os information post by Mmcité with steel structure and aluminium boards has been applied.

Positioning three waste bins within the quarry area has been planned: by the shelter, at the recreational spot and at the viewing point. The concept uses the Spencer T bins by Metalco made of Cor-Ten steel with small hole limiting the possibilities of wild animals taking the waste out.

**CONCLUSION**

The area of the closed Quartz Quarry “Stanislaw”, shaped as a result of long-term extraction activities has suffered significant loss of natural value gaining at the same time on cultural importance. The exceptional post-extraction landscape has been formed that is characteristic for areas of open pit mining, offering opportunities for development that had not existed before commencement of nature devastation. The area qualifies for reclamation that fulfils an important role in development of the landscape as well as the space for use by men.

With the tourist use in mind, the landscape values and the values of the open pit mining facility allowing development of unique attractions in the scale of the country and development of a place that will be a destination during visits in the mountain area were identified. From the landscape perspective, the conditions for composition of the quarry area were formulated and its
influence on the landscape was evaluated. Actions aiming at minimising unfavourable influence of that area on the panorama of the Iizerskie Mountains were proposed coupled with maintaining the identity of the location and landscape characteristics within the object.

Establishing the tourist complex “Quarry in the clouds” has been planned. Its functional-spatial structure has been adjusted to the needs of tourists in mountain areas. Conclusions stemming from the studies were the guidelines for rational positioning of the individual attractions. All the area conditions formed as a consequence of anthropogenous activity were used in the process. The via ferrata has been designed together with the security equipment rental facility, viewing platform, didactic path, tourist shelter and viewpoint have been designed. Those attractions are to serve as diversification of the forms of tourism practiced in the Iizerskie Mountains, including adventure tourism, sightseeing and cultural tourism. They also fulfil the educational function allowing presentation of the knowledge concerning the object in the interesting way.

The concept for Quartz Quarry “Stanisław” reclamation represents a proposal for making rational use of the transformed area the natural values of which had been decreased. It may form the base for the actual corrective actions related to the devastated area of the quarry.

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CHAPTER 3.7.

WEBSITE AS A COMMUNICATION TOOL IN HOSPITALITY –
THE EXAMPLE OF HOTELS IN THE SILESIAN PROVINCE

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Górnośląska Wyższa Szkoła Handlowa, Katowice, Poland

Abstract: The dynamic IT industry development contributed to the widespread use of information technology in the tourism and hospitality business management processes as well as its communication with the environment. In the era of such intense IT development, the Internet for companies is a very important channel which allows reaching the customer.

In communication process with the customer via the Internet an important role plays hotel’s website. Often, this website is a source of client’s first contact with the hotel company, so it should be treated as a hotel’s virtual business card. Website is also involved in the formation of a specific image of the hotel in the customer minds.

The aim of this paper is to present the possibility of using hotel websites as an effective tool of communication with the market. Authors add to this paper surveys results on the assessment of the level and extent of use of websites in the process of communication with the customer. Prepared questionnaires were done by the authors of the paper over one month and was focused on the hotels in the Silesian Province. During first part of our survey we analyzed 50 Silesian hotels.

Keywords: hotel web sites, communications, ICT

INTRODUCTION

Hospitality industry in Silesian Province

In Poland at the end of 2012 there were 2,213 hotels with a total capacity of 104,234 rooms. The great majority of these constituted 3* facilities (48% market share considering the number of hotels, 42% market share considering the number of hotel rooms). In second place considering the number of hotels are 2* facilities (29% market share), however if one considers the number of hotel rooms, 4* hotels prevail (25%
Interesting relations can be observed in the 1* and 5* hotel segment. In Poland, 5* hotels constitute the least numerous group (50 hotels, market share at a level of 2%), however the number of rooms they do offer is comparable to the number supplied by 1* hotels, of which there are almost four times as many (195 hotels).

The distribution of hotel facilities on the map of Poland is not regular. Considering the number of existing hotels, Malopolskie province is the unquestioned leader (307 hotels) with the strong supply being a regional characteristic. The smallest number of hotels can be found in regions with the smallest business and tourist potential, such as Opolskie (44 hotels) or Podlaskie (30 hotels) Province.

In 2011 in the Silesia Province, there were 508 collective tourist accommodations (7.2% of all facilities in the country).

Among collective accommodation in 2011, the hotel facilities were 53.7% and other facilities - 46.3%. Compared 2010 to 2011 we can see that the number of hotel facilities increased by 1.9%, while other facilities decreased by 3.3% (GUS 2012). General data concerning hotel facilities in Silesia province is presented in Table 1.

### Table 1 Hotel facilities in Silesia Province 2005 - 2013

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hotel facilities</th>
<th>2005</th>
<th>2007</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>First part of 2013</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hotels *</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hotels **</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hotels ***</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hotels ****</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hotels *****</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Hotels total</strong></td>
<td><strong>87</strong></td>
<td><strong>89</strong></td>
<td><strong>139</strong></td>
<td><strong>202</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motels</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boarding houses</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>90</strong></td>
<td><strong>94</strong></td>
<td><strong>148</strong></td>
<td><strong>214</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Poradnik inwestora hotelowego 2013, Instytut Rynku hotelarskiego, Warszawa 2013

On the attractiveness of accommodation significantly affects catering facilities. In 2011 in tourist collective accommodation remained 610 catering establishments for tourists’ disposal.

**Internet communication technology in tourism**

The technological revolution observed because of the Internet development has dramatically changed the market conditions of tourism and hospitality industry. ICTs support interactivity among tourism enterprises and consumers and, as a result, they re-engineer the entire process of developing, managing and marketing tourism products.
Since 1990, when the World Wide Web brought electronic business into the spotlight and increased its commercial popularity, the web has become ubiquitous in most modern information and communication systems. The progress has been made in the IT industry was one of the main factors that enabled wide use of information technology in the tourist business management processes as well as its communication with the environment. Among the information technology applied in the tourism industry the most important place in recent years is the Internet. Many researchers have noted the potential of the World Wide Web in business, and advocated incorporating the Internet into the tourism industry (Burger, 1995).

The rapid development of information technology in general and the Internet in particular has dramatically changed the tourism industry (Ho & Lee, 2007). It is widely accepted that the Internet can serve as an effective marketing tool in tourism (Buhalis, 2003 and Buhalis and Law, 2008). It is a valuable tool for both suppliers and consumers that can be used for the information circulation, communication and online purchasing.

In XXI century the web page, by creating the wide variety of opportunities, has become one of the basic marketing tools. The Internet and its virtual environment allow the direct customers integration in the creation and exchange of information and therefore creates relationships which can turn out to be stronger than the real ones.

Using the Internet in the virtual environment allows direct integration of customers in the exchange and creation of information and emerging thanks to it relationship often turn out stronger than real. The internet definitely plays an important role mediating between customer and hotel companies by being a place for information acquisition and business transactions (Liang & Law, 2003). Tourist enterprise communicates via the Internet because it allows optimizing steps that are taken as part of the promotion strategy. Most of the previously used advertising media was unidirectional. Internet not only facilitates bidirectional company communication with the client, but also allows the customer to actively participate in the creation of value so that the final product had been individualized (Gordon, 2001).

For hotel business Internet is a very important channel which allows to reach to the customer. On the an electronic platform hotel company may transfer the entire process offer presentation, their selection, submission and acceptance of orders, as well as the conclusion of contracts with their service associated with the processing of documents. Information is widely recognized as a key value of the company and which helps making the right decisions and avoiding risks. The observed dynamic development of information and communication technology, in which the information carrier are becoming information tools, contributes to the growth of its importance as a component used in the decision making process. Nowadays, information transfer becomes much easier and more accessible, which affects the intense emergence of new services and products.
Communication can be defined as the process of transmitting information and common understanding from one person to another (Keyton, 2011). The word communication is derived from the Latin word, communis, which means common. The definition underscores the fact that unless a common understanding results from the exchange of information, there is no communication (Lunenburg, 2010).

One of the most important tasks for communication is the process of exchanging information. Information is transferred as words, tone of voice, and body language.

A good understanding of communication, a dynamic process in which organisms strive to convey meaning to one another (and to oneself, one can argue), is fundamental in gaining understanding of events, objects, and other people (Slater).

We should mention that hotel facilities must continuously communicate with their present and potential customers. Communication involves nine elements presented in Figure 1.

![Figure 1: Elements in the communication process](image)

Communication starts from a sender, who gives different kind of message, which first is encoding and decoding, than it goes to a receiver and then he can responses and give the feedback. Interestingly, during the process of communication can occur disturbances, which cause distortion of the message. The sender and the receiver create major party in a communication; another two major communication tools are the message and the media. The four major communication functions are encoding, decoding, response and feedback. The last element is noise in the system. This model points out the key factors in good communication. Senders must identify the audiences that they want to reach and the responses that they seek. They must be good at encoding messages that take into account how the target audience decodes them. In addition, they must develop feedback channels so that they can assess the audience’s response to the message.
Thus, the marketing communication must make the following decisions:

- identify the target audience,
- determine the response sought,
- choose the message,
- choose the media through which to send the message,
- select the message source,
- collect feedback (Kotler, et al., 1996).

Promotion is that part of communication that consists of company messages designed to stimulate awareness of, interest in, and purchase of its various products and services. Companies use advertising, sales promotion, salespeople, and public relations to disseminate messages designed to attract attention and interest (Kotler, 2003).

There can be found a variety of promotion definitions across the literature overview. Promotions on the other hand (reference is made only to consumer sales promotions) are a short-term incentive given to consumers to transact ‘now’. According to Philip Kotler: ‘Sales promotion consists of a diverse collection of incentive tools, mostly short term, designed to stimulate quicker and/or greater purchase of particular products/services by consumers or the trade’ (Kanagal).

A modern company manages a complex marketing communications system. A hotel’s total marketing communications program called its promotion mix, consists of specific blend of advertising, sales promotion, public relation and personal selling to achieve advertising and marketing objectives (Kotler et al.1996).

According to W. J. Stanton: “Sales promotion includes all those activities other than advertising, personal selling, public relations, publicity that are intended to stimulate customer demand and improve the marketing performance of sellers” (Kanagal).

Sales promotion is an initiative undertaken by organizations to promote increase in sales, usage or trial of a product or services (i.e initiations that are not covered by other elements of the marketing communication/promotional mix). Sales promotion is an important component of an overall organizations’ marketing strategy, along with advertising, public relations, and personal selling. Sale promotion acts as a competitive weapon by providing an extra incentive for the target audience to purchase or support one brand over another. It is particularly effective in spurring product trial and unplanned purchases (Odunlami el at. 2011).
Promotion is also a communication process by which the producer of the product or services draws attention of the consumers or prospective consumers towards their products and services.

METHODOLOGY

Research hotels were in the Silesian Province and were carried out in the period from 20th November to 15th December 2013. This study is a first part of whole research and concern on analysis of hotel web pages. At the beginning, information services offered on the hotel websites were recorded through an extensive web search. Internet search for the identification and study of online practices is heavily found in the literature. In this part of a survey 50 hotel’s web pages analyses were conducted. All of these 50 hotels were individuals. Any domestic and international hotel chains were excluded from the analyses due to the fact that their promotion and communication strategy are specifically dedicated to their hotel chain web pages.

The questionnaire that we prepared for our research contained questions asking the respondents – hotel representative (general manager or marketing and sales manager) - to rate the information about the websites. The second part of questionnaire was asking about social networking details. The third part concerned the use of promotion tools in hotel business. Finally, the last part of questionnaire concerned the efforts of local communities. In the present study, we show the data, which was collected during direct interviews and deep analysis of the individual hotels websites. At the beginning of this survey, the authors used simple methods of data analysis. For the purpose of the future investigation, more advanced statistical software for statistical analyses will be used. In the table below we present the structure of investigated hotels.

On the basis of the data presented in Table 1, we can notice that the majority of the hotels belong to the two and three star category. We would like to highlight that the category structure of Silesian hotels is specific and in addition, and also typical for Polish hotel market. In first part of our survey there was none 1 star hotel. As a next stage of our research, we would like to reach and investigate all Silesian hotels.

In general, hotels can be divided into three categories: small, medium and large hotels. Small hotels count less than 100 room, medium from 100 to 350, while the large have more than 350 (Nawrocka, Oparka 2007).
Table 2 The structure of investigated hotel facilities in Silesia Province

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hotel facilities by category</th>
<th>Total number of hotel in Silesia Province regarding to hotel the category</th>
<th>Number of surveyed hotels in this part of research</th>
<th>Surveyed Silesian hotels in this part of research in %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hotels *</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hotels **</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hotels ***</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hotels ****</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hotels *****</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>202</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Own survey and numbers of hotel based on “Poradnik inwestora hotelowego” 2013

Most of the investigated hotels were very small hotels (64%) with less than 50 rooms. Sixteen percent of all surveyed hotels had more than 50 rooms, but less than 100. Hotels with more than 150 rooms were represented by only by few hotels. Figure 3 presents structure of surveyed hotels according to room number.

Figure 3 Structure of surveyed hotels according to room number
Source: Author’s own analysis

FINDINGS

Website quality could be assessed using various criteria, such as ease of access, search mechanisms, layout, positioning, website content, and information relevance. In the present study two researchers independently performed a web search following a similar methodology, and then compared their findings to form a joint report. The survey resulted in the creation of set of 66 information services. The procedure aimed to find as many information features offered by
the web sites worldwide as possible. Although the number of features outnumbered those used by Murphy et al. (1996) and Chung and Law (2003) many of them are similar to those used by the previous studies. Murphy et al (1996) used 32 information features to measure information services. However hotel sites nowadays should include more features, since they are rapidly expanding and developing nowadays more than several years ago. Chung and Law (2003) considered five dimensions, which describe the content of hotel web sites according to their thematic similarity. These papers were a good starting point for further development in Vrana, Zafiropoulos and Paschaloudis articles (Vrana et al. 2004).

The purpose of this study is to find out the answer for the problem: is it sites’ information richness effective. Our important research thesis is: all Silesian hotels use their hotel website as an effective communication tools.

As our research shows hoteliers treat website as an important way of communication with the market. All surveyed hotels had a website, and 92 % of them had it on their own domain.

Currently even 12% of the overall hotel bookings are made from mobile devices. Mobile. Mobile marketing becomes one of the major channels through which consumers navigate and search the Internet. Such situation is a result of a rush that is nowadays usually associated with the planning of holidays or business trips.

For this situation is responsible a large extend rush that accompanies daily taking care of planning holidays or business trip. Guests book their accommodations during a coffee break or even being on the way to their destination (Profitroom 2013). A new generation of mobile applications enables easier booking and quick access to property-specific information and deals. Hotels have to move quickly to optimize their websites to offer mobile booking (Aggarwall et al., 2010).

Unfortunately, most of the surveyed hotels do not have mobile version of their hotel websites. However, in the nearest future hoteliers should try to implement them, because we are living in the hyper-interactive consumer era. Moreover, most of the investigated hotel websites were not equipped to handle the hyper-interactive consumer and read like a static online brochure.

Many hotel websites, as our survey shows, offer dead, stale textual and visual content. There was no interactive Web-3.0 or even 2.0 features engaging the travel consumer and soliciting guests participation and input. Nowadays many hoteliers even do not realize how significant changes occurred over the past several years in the behavior of traveling consumers. This is contrary to the mere nature of today’s hyper-interactive Internet user, who is tweeting, texting, emailing, communicating with friends via Facebook, and commenting, often in real-time, on hotels and restaurants via review sites like: Trip Advisor, Holidaycheck etc. (Starkov 2010). Thus, nowadays customers become the potential sellers and ambassadors of the brand actively using the virtual environment.
The standard communication channel with hotel guests is also a channel on Facebook - smaller than Twitter, but it is very well thought out and encouraging fans to constant activity. As our survey shows, there was minimal interaction with the user, only 12% of evaluated hotel websites had a guestbook. We were able to find an information regarding hotel’s own social media website only among 30% of the evaluated websites. Direct link or icon to the social media page was available very rarely. We found that 60% of all surveyed hotels had their own profile in social media among which Facebook was the most popular one, less popular was Twitter and Youtube. It is indicated more and more often that the presence of a hotel in social media is not so much a privilege, but rather an obligation. Analysis of data concerning the information content of hotel websites is presented in Table 4.

Most of the evaluated websites included hotel’s contact and location information (96%). Sixty four percent of the hotel websites introduced guests to basic and additional hotel services, and promotional packages such as special offers and only half of the surveyed websites included the photo gallery. Nonetheless, the quality of the photo galleries was very diverse.

There were photo galleries with professional, good quality images and some of them presented a poor quality with small images which could not be enlarged. Information quality is often the most vital feature of a successful website. The availability of information on destination features such as local tourist’s attractions, shopping and cuisine, are important in helping potential customers to make decisions about their destination. Silesian Province is a quite popular tourist destination with a wealth of cultural as well as natural attractions, but hotel websites pay insufficient attention to them. Our survey shows that such information is available on 72% evaluated hotel websites.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category of hotel webpage information</th>
<th>Number of the hotel</th>
<th>Surveyed Silesian hotels in this part of research in %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Contact and location</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Photo gallery</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Description of basic and additional services</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information about the local area</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Description of the special offers (rebate, discounts)</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Description of promotional packages</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Special events and announcements</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current events</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Virtual tour</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Link to a page on social media</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Description of loyalty programs</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visits counter</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guestbook</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weather forecast</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Author’s own analysis
The quick development of the online travel market has led to the Internet becoming an “essential tool” for hotels to communicate directly with their customers. Hoteliers should note, that “the ‘first image’ of a hotel has now been transferred from its front desk to its website”.

![Figure 5. The structure of hotel contact center](image)

The site evolves from both sites - the company is involved with updating and changing it, and visitors, customers are involved with interacting on the site itself. Few types of interaction include ordering, signing up for events or information (newsletter), listening or viewing hotel audio and video (Youtube), live chat (Skype). As we know, communication needs to involve two parties, in this case, the hotel and the guest. Among the investigated hotel websites the most popular contact center were Infoline or Telephone (90%). The next popular way of contact were hotel inquiry (56%) and only few of hotel websites also offered contact via Skype or GG communicator. Below the Figure 5 presents the structure of hotel contact center in the surveyed hotel web pages.

**CONCLUSIONS**

In conclusion, the Internet fundamentally changes the way of companies’ communication with the market. The nature of hospitality is required to establish effective and common communication channels between hotels and their target audiences, to transmit messages accurately, fast, confidentially and cost effectively by adequate communication channels. In other words, it requires managing communication activities effectively. Commenting on the findings, we could easily agree with Hashim, Murphy, and Law (2007) on the most researched online features of tourism and hospitality websites: information and process, value added, relationships, trust,
and design and usability. They also found that the most popular attributes of hotel websites were reservations, contact information, promotions, and products and services.

The Internet has transformed Customer Relationship Management (CRM) in hospitality. A large majority of customers are planning and booking their hotel stay online.

The Internet distribution channels simulate the development of marketing communications based on CRM systems. These channels can be used to send with lower costs the promotional offers to the end users. Hoteliers should notice that poor, not updated web design could thus result in the loss of sales. Through online distribution channels, producer services can integrate the reservation and payment. In most systems, the ultimate online confirmation is possible after the full payment or prepayment, which guarantees to cover the cancellation fee in the case of cancellation of services. Our research shows that only half of evaluated hotels websites could give customers possibility for on-line booking with full payment, the rest of them only have reservation inquiry, which is not the same, because there is no direct communication with hotel reservation system. In addition, the reservation is not guarantee in case of lack of bed places. This means that investigated hotels do not use the website as an efficient on-line distribution channel. The authors highlighted that an effective website is vital for a hotel to strengthen its customer relationships and harvest online sales.

Hotels located in Silesian Province could improve the quality of their websites by providing more specific information about: loyalty program (only 28% of evaluated websites had some information about it), special events in hotel and nearby, news and current affairs and additional information like weather report or guestbook.

Research suggests that website content can augment advertising and marketing activities. For example, customers satisfied with a website will do return to that same website. Given the Internet’s growing importance as a hospitality distribution and marketing channel, hoteliers must routinely evaluate their websites to ensure that the site is efficient, appropriate and useful to costumers (Hashim N.H.; Murphy J., Law. R, 2007).

Advantages of internet as a communication tool makes it very important and effective channel for service industries, especially for tourism and hospitality.

Function of the network tools facilitate the process of communication between companies and their customers, leading to the exchange of information. In real time it is an open discussion that allows for honesty in the interaction process and therefore convince customers to share their experience with the product or service.

Furthermore, the web is the very important communication channel, which allows us to track almost everything that customers, guests do during their time on hotel website. Although it is difficult and expensive task to attract customers to the hotel’s website it is also very easy to lose them. The retention of customer should therefore be a priority for a hotel team, and website should be systematically tracked and analyzed. Websites must not only look appealing but they
also need to be easy to use so that the potential customers can find information quickly and easily.

If hoteliers build a website, they must have a solid reason for doing so. Once the website is operational, it is important to understand how well it is working and how it contributes to overall hotel business strategy. Failure to do so is a rather waste of time and money. The construction, operation and maintenance of well-designed website require capital, which usually is organizations’ own investment. In addition, organizations should apply appropriate cost/benefit analyses of customers’ interactions on the hotel webpage and concerning the results, actively act on them.

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CHAPTER 3.8.

UNDISCOVERED SPACE IN TOURISM – HOLIDAY PREFERENCES OF POLISH VEGANS

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Abstract: The paper presents results of research on Polish vegan tourists. Tourism preferences, needs and opinion about provided tourist services have not been researched so far. The aim of the research is to recognize tourism profile of Polish vegans and their assessment of the offer in Poland. The research was carried out in November 2013 with the use of diagnostic survey method and questionnaire technique. The research group (n=223) consists of 187 women and 36 men. 82.5% respondents have never stayed at a specialized vegan resort. 99.1% indicate insufficient number of resorts providing vegan board in Poland and 99.6% assess the knowledge about vegans’ needs among Polish tourism staff as deficient. For 67.3% interviewees vegan board is one of the factors determining the choice of holiday accommodation (the other most important are: vegan hotel cosmetics and furnishing), while 79.8% would choose an offer without board if it had no vegan option.

Keywords: vegan, tourism, holiday, needs, Poland

INTRODUCTION

Vegans are individuals who follow a way of nutrition that excludes all animal products such as meat, fish, eggs, animal milks, honey. This lifestyle avoids wool, silk and other animal products for clothing or other purposes (Hood, 2005:1). In Poland around 1.6% citizens are vegan (Wyniki Badania Instytutu Badania Opinii HomoHomini dla Lightbox wrzesień 2013, 2013). The Vegan Research Panel (2003) found the primary reasons for going vegan are spiritual/religious (2%), dietary/health (14%), ethical/moral (82%).

Polish vegan tourism is a topic not present in scientific papers, although the public interest in veganism is rising (Google Trends, 2014). The vegan issue is however presented in mass media but in the ethical and dietary aspect, not touristic.
This paper is to describe the profile of a Polish vegan tourist, holiday choice motivations and assessment of the existing offer which have not been researched so far. Results might serve the organisations and companies within the holiday sector and help the process of specialized holiday offer preparation.

**Literature Review**

No scientific papers about vegan tourism in Poland have been found (EBSCO and Google Scholar databases have been researched).

One article concerning vegan tourism in Finland, in which results of interviews with 10 vegans were presented, has been retrieved. According to Kansanen (2013) 40% of respondents mentioned the food being one of the primary factors of chosen holiday destination. 80% of interviewees agreed that vegan diet has some effect when it comes to select a destination. 70% of the respondents stated that vegan diet causes some extra work prior departure. In some situations interviewees had difficulties in finding the food in the destination but it was not treated as a problem because it was expected. Majority of the respondents stated they have never visited a country in which vegan or vegetarian food plays an important cultural role. According to the results of Kansanen’s research vegan tourists can be divided into two categories: culinary vegan tourists (travelling to learn more about vegan food) and those who state different motivations being primary (e.g. nature).

Beyond the Finnish research described above, no more papers handling with the topic of vegan tourists have been retrieved.

**METHODOLOGY**

**Participants**

The research group was selected by purposive sampling (declared veganism). They were recruited from international online vegan fora. From 303 individuals who filled in the questionnaire, 223 answered all required questions. These were the study material: 187 women and 36 men (n=223).

67.5% of 233 participants were aged between 18 and 30, 28% are over 30 years old and 4.5% under 18. 38% of the study group obtained postgraduate education, 33% secondary, 23% undergraduate and 6% primary. The half of participants live in cities having over 500 thousand citizens while 34.5 % in cities and villages that have less than 100 thousand citizens. The period of applying vegan diet was declared as follows: 33% less than a year, 25.5% 1-2 years, 45 % 1-5 years, 21.5% over 5 years.

A questionnaire containing fifteen questions was deigned. It contained five demographical questions and ten (closed, multiple choice and hypothetical) on holiday preferences, assessment of the existing offer in Poland and vegan lifestyle elements.
The present study was carried out between November 2013 and January 2014. Accordingly to the applied Computer Aided Web Interview method, the questionnaire was uploaded to a password-secured website. Participants received the password and filled in the survey.

RESULTS

Respondents were asked about previous holiday experiences and could choose one of three answers describing them. 81.4% subjects have never stayed in a hotel facility offering vegan board. From those who have 9.7% spent their vegan holiday in Poland and 8.8% abroad.

Interviewees were given a possibility to write the name of a locality or the hotel facility. Among Polish resorts the most often indicated ones were: “Leszczynowa Dolina” in Kwiatonowice and “Drzewo życia” in Sianowo. The others were: “Młynek” and “Gościniec pod Zamkiem” in Kraków, “Sopotowiec” in Sopotowiec, “Zappio” in Gdańsk, “Emma” in Warszawa, “La Granda” in Łódź, “Barczyzna” in Barczyzna, “Willa Basieńka” in Zakopane, “Stodoła Wszystkich świętych” in Regów, and “Gospodarstwo agroturystyczne na Piotrowickiej Przełęczy” in Piotrowice. Four interviewees didn’t provide the name of the hotel facility but only the locality. These were: Wisła and Kąty Rybackie.

Only three respondents who spent their holiday with vegan board outside the home country indicated names of accommodation. These were: “Bewley’s Hotel” in Dublin, “Hotel America” in Mallorca and “Rock’n’Roll hostel” in Berlin. Other answers contained only the name of the locality: Berlin, Goteborg, Paris, Dubrovnik, Tunisia, India, Prague, Budapest, Rhodes, Spain, Lima, Egypt, Greece, Italy, London and Sweden (some subjects put more than one place on the list).

![Figure 1. Previous holiday experience in a resort with vegan board](Source: Own research)

Those vegan tourists who have not stayed at a hotel facility with vegan board but have heard of one, were asked to write down the name or locality. The subjects who answered

The other hotel facilities, not mentioned before were: “Pokrzywnik” in Lubomierz, “Bemma hostel” in Wrocław, “Elf” in Czapielski Młyn, “Czarny Kos” in Borkowo, “Moniówka” in Nowe Kawkowo. Two localities were indicated without the name of the hotel facility: Cieszonko and Cisna.

One of the hypothetical questions answered by the research group concerned the choice, the subjects would have to make if the hotel facility in Poland had vegan board in offer. 66,8% respondents would choose the destination only if they didn’t have to pay more than for a standard board in this hotel facility. 27,8% expressed willingness to use the offer even if the price would be higher than for non-vegan food. 12 out of 223 respondents would not like to spend holiday in such hotel facility.

Interviewees expressed their opinion about the number of hotel facilities running in Poland. Vast majority of answers (99,1%) indicated a deficit in this field.
Respondents were also asked a question “How do you evaluate the awareness of veganism among hotel, catering and tourism industry?” 99.6% interviewees marked the “not enough” answer.

The survey tested subject’s opinion about the influence of hypothetical growth of number of hotels offering vegan board in Poland on the rise of veganism’s popularity (and increase in number of vegans). Over ¾ respondents believed in such a correlation.
Interviewees expressed also their opinion about a hypothetical choice they might have to make before holidays. Having two options of accommodation in a hotel facility the majority (149 out of 223) of respondents would choose holiday with vegan board, even if it meant that they have to pay more.

The research group was asked the following question “Have you ever rejected a holiday offer because it did not contain vegan board?”. Only 13.5% research group pulled back from holidays in a desired resort, the others either chose accommodation without board or bought standard board in order to pick some dishes from the wide range of food.
Subjects were also asked to put seven features of a hypothetical vegan hotel facility into an order from the most important to the least important ones. The majority of respondents claimed, the most essential feature would be a vegan board. Hotel cosmetics such as: soap, shampoo, toothpaste is the second most often indicated answer and equipment which means here furnishing such as tapestry (non-leather) or pillow filling (feathers) was mostly on the third place. The least important feature is the presence of other vegan guests in the hotel facility (e.g. presented in the leaflets).

**Figure 7. Previous resignation from a holiday offer containing no vegan board**

Source: Own research

**Figure 8. Order of the importance of features in a hypothetical vegan hotel facility.**

Source: Own research
DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Results of the research presented in this paper were an attempt to determine the profile of a Polish vegan tourist. Answers and opinions given by the subjects enabled to define their needs, expectations and assessment of a foregoing experience.

The image of a vegan tourist emerging from the survey results is specific. First of all, members of the research group are strongly dissatisfied with the tourist service provided in their home country—Poland. It regards not only the unawareness of veganism among professionals but also the lack of proper offer in general.

Regardless the willingness to spend more on holidays with vegan board provided, given a possibility to stay in a “vegan-friendly” hotel facility in Poland, respondents declare they would not like to pay more than for the standard (non-vegan) food. The difference in the attitude to holidays in Poland might be caused by the overall negative assessment of the Polish tourism industry staff. It is assumed that being uncertain about the service quality in Poland, respondents might have high hopes of the service abroad and that is why they are willing to pay more for better quality.

The results of the survey show that the vast majority of interviewees have never stayed in a hotel facility that offers specialized board. This could mean that Polish vegans prefer caring about board themselves (e.g., buying it in shops on site) than confiding it to the others (e.g., hotel staff). It might be reflected by the answer on a question about previous reactions to a holiday offer including no vegan board. 80% of subjects stated, they would stay at the desired hotel facility but buy no board.

Taking into consideration that only one paper concerning the topic has been retrieved, research results can be compared only partially.

Similar to Kansanen’s (2013) majority of respondents indicated food to be one of most important factors of chosen holiday destination. It was put on first position in comparison to other vegan lifestyle.

70% Finnish respondents in Kansanen’s study stated they only travel independently and have not taken part on the package holidays. The author, however, doesn’t specify if the ones who have, stayed at a resort providing vegan board. Because of this, the results of both studies in this issue cannot be compared.

Both studies reveal that vegans in Poland and Finland consider Berlin to be a city with an offer suitable for vegans. The name of the city appears in answers of both research groups. As Kansanen reports, Europe was seen as rather easy to travel in the aspect of vegan food accessibility.

The aspects compared above were the only common ones—the present study and the study of Kansanen have different dimensions. However, both prove that for vegan tourists diet plays an important role in a holiday decision-making process.
The research presented in this paper had several limitations. First of all, the participation could have been bigger if the study had begun earlier (e.g., two or three months). A larger number of vegans that would have benefited the research results could have been reached by posting the information about the research on webpages or fan pages of Polish non-governmental organisations engaged with animal rights. Their members are most often vegans, some of them have even the vegan record in their charter. The study would have also benefited from a question regarding respondents’ ideas on raising awareness of vegans’ needs among representatives in the tourism industry in Poland.

Because of the lack of similar studies in other countries, the authors recommend to carry them out outside Poland. Such international survey carried out on a numerous population might be a mean to compare the holiday offer assessment and needs of vegan tourists. It might be used for design of a specialized vegan holiday offer which would meet the requirements of this social group.

The methodology of an international study could also include face-to-face in-depth interviews with a sample chosen from all vegans who would fill in the survey. This method could have provided enriching qualitative data and a deeper insight into their opinions.

According to the result of the study, there is a need for raising awareness of vegans’ needs among tourism industry workers. The basic knowledge about veganism (and other diet types) could be included in the curriculum of the vocational training. The knowledge about healthy nutrition and non-traditional diets is available to an increasing number of people (Internet, books, press articles, scientific papers) and gain ground. Because of this, tourism, catering and hotel industry decision-makers and senior staff should take vegans into consideration when planning new investments (e.g., furnishings of hotel rooms in a new-built hotel) or include a vegan option when creating a holiday offer.

This study contributes to the research literature by being the first attempt to determine a tourist profile of Polish vegans, their needs, preferences and verdicts.

In summary, the current findings highlight the role of a wide offer and a good preparation of tourism professionals in the overall assessment of holiday service by vegans. This social group not only cares about the proper plant-based diet but also cosmetics, furnishings and other features of a hotel facility. As a demanding group of tourists, their presence on the tourism market should be noticed and a specialized offer meeting their needs should be created in order to attract them.

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DOCUMENTS


CHAPTER 3.9.

THE USE OF EQUIPMENT AND ACCESSORIES IN MODERN FORMS OF FITNESS CLASSES AND THEIR IMPACT ON THE ATTRACTIVENESS AND THE EFFECTS OF EXERCISE

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Abstract: The main objectives of the paper are to investigate fitness clubs’ customers’ interest in various forms of group activities; to determine which equipment and accessories are the most popular with the exercisers; to show the benefits of participating in the activities, in particular to present the impact of the equipment and accessories they use on the human body; to examine the opinion of fitness instructors about the equipment and accessories they use. The survey was conducted on clients of fitness clubs and instructors. The majority of respondents prefer activities where the equipment and accessories are used. The most favourite ones include foam pads, large ball sand dumb-bells. According to the respondents, the activities using accessories are more attractive than those without them, and require more physical effort, and the effects of this work are more visible. The most frequently mentioned benefits were reduction in body fat and silhouette shaping.

Keywords: fitness, equipment, accessories

INTRODUCTION

Benefits of taking a systematic physical activity are more and more frequently noticed by adults. What is a priority is an everyday locomotive activity which leads to improvement of organism functions and the quality of life. According to W. Starosta “not only does a move stimulate physical and motor development, but also functional and mental aspects” (Starosta 2003). Studies show that the most popular among adult Poles are jogging, Nordic walking, cycling and swimming (GUS 2013). Considering the fact that a number of people spend their leisure time actively also in fitness clubs, the clubs’ offer is comprehensive and still being extended to include new forms of activity.

The given thesis is concerned with physical recreation on the basis of a modern form of activeness – fitness. In the literature one can find numerous attempts to define this term. Initially,
it was considered an equivalent to aerobic but then a broader meaning was applied “general ability, efficiency, psychophysical shape, ability to adapt, permanent readiness to make physical efforts (Opoka 2004). Another yet broader definition is provided by D. Olex-Zarychta who claims that fitness is a “dynamically developing global movement which aims to help us consciously and intentionally influence our physical, mental and emotional health, as well as our mind’s ability.” (Olex-Zarychta 2005). The author acknowledges that general movement has an impact on all spheres of our functioning. In this sense fitness is a strategy or a lifestyle. It is one of the most significant values to people – care for proper body functioning in every aspect – physical and mental. A starting point of such understanding of fitness is a regular physical activity. Movement reduces the risk of occurrence of various diseases, such as heart diseases, arterial hypertension, osteoporosis, tumours or obesity, and has a positive influence on our mind and emotions.

In recent years, the popularity of fitness clubs has been on the increase. Modern fitness clubs offer a wide range of diverse physical activities adapted to people of all ages, of various physical abilities and different preferences. They also provide accessories and equipment which facilitate muscle development.

In terms of space, fitness clubs include two sectors: a gym sector and a group activities sector. The former involves oxygen exercises equipment – cardio (e.g. a running track, steppers, stationary bikes, elliptic devices, cycloergometers), weight training tools (e.g. multigyms, bench press), as well as loose loads (barbells and dumb-bells). It is worth emphasising that the equipment does not require special skills and their selection depends completely on our individual needs and preferences. The cardio equipment has been recently enriched with a number of functions which facilitate handling and encourage to exercise, for example the function of burnt calories reader, number of covered kilometres or pulse measurement. There are also interactive screens which display a natural road we are on, or the ones which allow us to compete with our partners. All of these facilities persuade us to take physical activity and enable us to control our physiological parameters.

Group activities sector is a separate room or a set of rooms where lessons with an instructor are held. The most popular modern forms of group activities with the use of equipment and accessories are the following: indoor cycling, indoor walking, step, ABT, TBC, shape, Pilates, fit ball, healthy spine, functional training etc. What has been markedly popular recently is elliptic marches or marches on running tracks, that is the so-called indoor walking. Enric Bonilla created the programme in 2004. It is concerned with walk simulation in various circumstances and with various surface inclination profiles. They are suitable for both youngster and adults of various physical fitness and cardio-respiratory fitness. What is an equally important form of modern group exercises is a functional training which consists in programming appropriate movement patterns and simultaneous whole body strengthening, rather than particular muscles.

In most group classes one can use equipment and accessories which allow for additional load for working muscles. The most common are dumb-bells (from 0,5 to 3kg), but the clubs more
and more frequently introduce new load sets, e.g. a barbell (bars and discuses from 1-3kg), heavy balls (small balls 0.5-1kg), kettle bells (weights 4-20kg with a handle). Implementation of accessories to such activities triggers a considerable increase in physical effort (apart from its own body resistance, one has to overcome a load weight). Rubbers (the so-called expanders) and elastics are applied for exercises with a resistance. Another group of equipment is soft balls – body ball (large balls with a diameter from 55 to 85cm), as well as ovoball (the so-called beans) which supports a spine and also strengthens all muscles, in particular those which stabilise a backbone. Balls, foams of various width, soft discuses and Bosu balls are also used during balance activities.

Fitness forms with the use of equipment and accessories are increasingly popular both among women and men. The latter opt for a gym more frequently, which may result on the one hand from the fact that they are unwilling to work out to music which they associate with dancing, and on the other from their misconception that proper muscle build-up and increase in muscle strength can be achieved only thanks to weights. Regardless of preferences in terms of selection of activities, it is vital to take physical activities which, in conjunction with healthy nutrition, can bring benefits to persons of all ages. Exercises with equipment and accessories entail a number of positive effects, diversify a training, shorten time devoted to achieve goals, and above all are safe (Table 1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of activity</th>
<th>Injuries per 1000 hours of activities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Roller skating</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basketball</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competitive sports disciplines</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Running</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cricket</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ordinary aerobic exercises</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tennis</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cycling</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very dynamic aerobic (dancing)</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step aerobic</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Aerobic with equipment</strong></td>
<td><strong>3</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Little dynamic aerobic (dancing)</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Walk</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: WgCenter for Sports Medicine at St. Francis Hospital, San Francisco, CA

**METHODOLOGY**

In the thesis the following goals were set:

1. Investigation of fitness clubs’ customers’ interest in terms of various forms of group activities.
2. Specification which equipment and accessories are the most commonly used among persons who take physical activities.

3. Attempt to indicate benefits resulting from participation in exercises, in particular presentation of impact of used equipment and accessories.

4. Checking fitness instructors’ opinions on available equipment and accessories.

Clients and instructors of 7 Poznan fitness clubs participated in the study. 100 women aged 18-50 who regularly visited clubs, as well as 10 fitness instructors took part in the research. The studies were conducted with the use of a survey questionnaire.

RESULTS

Among female customers, women aged 20-25 (32%) and 26-30 (20%) accounted for the vast majority (Figure 1). However, on the basis of the results one can claim that women in their forties (16%) frequently participate in classes while authors’ own experience indicate that the age of customers cannot be specified since people in their fifties and sixties enter these clubs as well [cf. Karpińska, Podciechowska, Hubert 2011]. Currently, one does not associate fitness with activeness only for very young persons as the clubs prepare their offers in order to satisfy needs of people of all ages.

Women who participated in the research visit fitness clubs as frequently as 3-4 times a week (41%) and twice a week (34%). Such frequency is the consequence of passes offered by fitness clubs. As a rule, the passes are limitless in terms of hours and days. It is another reason why people use offered classes and additional services, such as physical efficiency tests, personal trainings, saunas, fit bars. Contemporary clubs often propose customers taking care of their children, Internet spots, discounts for cosmetics services and a free car park.

The interviewed women were asked about the most important goal they intended to achieve in the context of previously listed classes. It turned out that most women (74%) planned to be in a good shape, that is reduce a fat tissue and shape their bodies. 10% of women wished to improve their mental health and de-stress. Similarly, another 10% indicated a need to have a contact with other people as the primary goal of doing exercises.
The majority of studied fitness clubs' female customers prefer classes with the use of equipment and accessories (57%). 30% of subjects are indifferent towards selection of classes. Only 13% of women opt for classes devoid of additional equipment and accessories (Figure 2).

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**Figure 1. Respondents' age n=100**  
Source: Authors

**Figure 2. Type of preferred classes by fitness clubs’ customers**  
Source: Authors
Observing the forms of classes women are in favour of, strengthening exercises – ABT, shape and TBC dominate (Figure 3). These are the most common forms and one can do them regardless of one’s age and advancement level. Classes which fall into the category of body&mind – stretching, fitball and healthy spine are also relatively popular.

When the interviewed subjects were asked about which equipment and accessories they use to work out, they indicated large balls, dumb-bells and foam pads as the most suitable (Figure 4).
Exercising persons recognised that classes with equipment are more attractive than classes devoid of them, and the effects of such activities are more conspicuous (Figure 5). These exercises require more considerable effort, and the effect of this effort is reduction of fat tissues and body shaping.

![Figure 5. Evaluation of classes with equipment and accessories by women](image)

All of the exercising women claimed to be satisfied with the effects. Such claims are not surprising since most of them participate in classes several times a week.

Another question was concerned with changes they experienced when using equipment and accessories (Figure 6). Respondents could mark a few answers. 80% of women noticed a body shaping, whereas 71% - loss of weight. Among 45% of the subjects an improvement of organism efficiency occurred, while 35% of them increased their muscle strength.

The results of the research demonstrate that a fitness instructor is a profession dominated by young persons. It may result from the fact that it requires a significant physical efficiency and substantial motivation. It is not an easy occupation as it forces us to develop our skills and improve professional qualifications. Instructors work for several to as many as dozen hours a week, which is a considerable workload even for a young organism.
The interviewed fitness instructors answered a question regarding a preferred type of classes. 80% of them were in favour of classes during which equipment and accessories were used. To 20% of the instructors, the type of classes did not matter.

All of the subjects appreciated changes triggered by exercises with the use of equipment and accessories (Figure 7). They recognised that the conspicuous effects are the following: body weight loss, body shaping and improvement of organism efficiency. A number of subjects also noticed an increase in muscle strength. None of the interviewed instructors observed negative changes, which is an evidence that this activeness significantly contributes to improvement of physical health and can be recommended to persons of all ages and various efficiencies.
CONCLUSIONS

1. In group fitness classes women accounted for the vast majority of participants. The most popular classes are ABT, shape and TBC, flat stomach in which diverse accessories are applied. Also, body & mind classes are widely popular.

2. Large balls, dumb-bells, as well as foam pads are the most popular accessories.

3. The most frequently listed benefits deriving from doing exercises is body shaping and body weight loss.

4. Similar to fitness club customers, instructors opt for classes with equipment. They also identify body shaping, increase of muscle strength and improvement of organism efficiency as the most essential effects of such trainings.

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