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IM. BRONISŁAWA CZECHA W KRAKOWIE

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Address:
Akademia Wychowania Fizycznego
al. Jana Pawła II 78, 31-571 Kraków
tel. +48 12 6831139

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SPIS TREŚCI

FROM THE EDITORS

Dear Readers!

We are pleased present another issue of *Folia Turistica*, hoping that the articles herein will not only prove interesting, but also inspire further research on tourism. We should mention here that the journal has recently seen some fairly important changes. Because we have already described those changes in the Issue 30–2014 Editorial, in this English issue we only wish to reiterate that, together with staff changes within the Editorial Board, we have also modified some aspects of how the journal functions.

First and foremost, *Folia Turistica* is now a quarterly. Each year, we plan to publish two issues (volumes) dedicated to interdisciplinary studies (‘varia’), one thematic issue, and at least one issue published exclusively in English. We aim to make the journal either a bilingual or an English-only journal, which ties in with our plans to place it among the top scientific databases, including Thomson Reuters: Journal Citation Reports and Scopus. *Folia Turistica*, published consistently since 1990, already has an established position on the Polish market of scientific journals; our desire is not only to maintain this position, but also to expand the journal’s reach beyond Poland. Regardless, our primary goal remains unchanged: we shall continue to publish original and meritorious works within the field of tourism in its widest definition, i.e., interdisciplinary works that address the humanistic, economical, geographical, organizational, and legal aspects of the field, among others. You will find Issue 34 to possess this interdisciplinary character, with its nine scientific articles on different branches of tourism.

In the first article, **Leszek Butowski** presents an interesting model of sustainable tourism that not only systematizes current knowledge on the subject and inspires further studies, but also involves a practical dimension, verified by empirical research conducted in Poland, Turkey and Cyprus. The basis of the model was the graphic form of a mathematical function, with the balance and imbalance conditions described using formal (algebraic) notation. The second article, by **Katarzyna Klimek**, concerns Switzerland’s tourism policy. The author points out the growing role of the state and the great importance of strategic solutions in stimulating the holistic development of tourism in the country. The article analyzes Switzerland’s pro-tourism state policy, which has been implemented for nineteen years, and compares it to Polish conditions. The author aims to show certain good practices that could be applied in Poland. The differences in the role of the publicprivate partnership in tourism management and in the commercialization of tourism products between Swiss and Polish tourist organizations are of special interest here.

Magdalena Kachniewska addresses a different issue, i.e., the impact of global consumer trends on how the tourism sector operates, aiming to demonstrate the importance of these trends for the development of new paradigms in the management of tourism marketing. The author conducted a study during expert workshops attended by tourism market practitioners, scientists and new media specialists, in which she used three methods: mind mapping, STEEP analysis and a panel discussion. Through intuitive and logical processes, the discussion helped identify trends that shape the modern tourism market. This allowed the author to formulate two paradigms at work in today's marketing. The article by **Izabela Michalska-Dudek** addresses a similar subject: the loyalty of tourist services clientele. A thorough analysis of relevant literature led the author to conclude that, while scientific studies investigate consumers' loyalty to the destination and broadly defined accommodation services relatively frequently, studies on customer loyalty to the organizing and intermediary companies on the tourism market are fairly rare. Furthermore, the author proposes her own definition of the customer loyalty to tourism companies and, based on a review of international research, convincingly demonstrates the determinants of behavioral and affective loyalty among tourist services clientele.

The next article was written by **Zygmunt Kruczek** and **Adam Szromek**. This team presents the possibilities created by using the Mystery Shopping method when investigating tourist attractions, based on research conducted in twenty-five museums in Krakow between 2011 and 2012. The quality of products offered by the museums was assessed with a special questionnaire that measured forty characteristics, corresponding to seven components of the museum's operations (surroundings, entry, exposition, shop, catering, public toilets, and promotion). The results confirmed the research hypothesis that the method was highly effective in assessing the needs of visitors and improving museum management. **Edyta Gheribi** also investigates the quality of tourist services, which she analyzes in relation to another important sector of the tourism industry: catering. The author conducted empirical research between 2006 and 2008 on a total of 500 residents of the Warsaw agglomeration aged 25 45 years, a particularly important age group for the gastronomy market. The study showed that gastronomic services draw great advantage from tourist travel, and that an the growth of the population's real income, improvement of quality of life, changing lifestyles, and more leisure time will continue to increase the demand for tourist and gasstronomic services.

The two subsequent articles address natural issues. In the first, **Zbigniew Głąbiński** assesses the ecological awareness, knowledge and attitudes of the residents of seaside areas in Poland in terms of Natura 2000 zones and identifies the residents' preferred sources of information about this relatively new form of nature protection. The author conducted a questionnaire between 2012 and 2013 among 5,848 residents from all of Poland's coastal provinces. The results showed that the study participants had a relatively low ecological awareness, with a vast majority of the respondents (83%) unable to define the term *Natura 2000* correctly, and 74% seeing no benefit in using this form of nature protection. In the second article, **Joanna Fidelus** compares the number of tourists in the Polish and Slovakian parts of the Tatra National Park in the Western Tatra Mountains; she also tests the usefulness of motion sensors for measuring tourist traffic in the mountains, as this has its place in her research method. The study was conducted between 2009 and 2011 and showed that tourist traffic differs considerably between the two areas, with traffic in the Polish part of the Western Tatras being significantly higher.

The final article, by **Julia Murrmann**, concerns an issue rarely addressed by Polish researchers, namely, the effect of foreign language capacity on the level and structure of tourist activity, especially in terms of choice of destination. The author has analyzed data from various social studies, governmental statistics and reports prepared by governmental agencies on trips abroad and the command of foreign languages in Poland. She states that, despite the fact that the results of some studies (e.g., those conducted by the Public Opinion Research Center) demonstrate a correlation between foreign-language competences and tourist activity abroad, it is difficult (if not impossible) to unambiguously determine the path of the correlation between the two variables. This is because the available data does not allow us to make the direct conclusion that a oneway relationship exists in this respect, contrary to some researchers' unsupported claims. In the author's view, these two social facts most likely simply coexist, as they stem from the same socio-demographic traits, such as education, employment, material circumstances, place of residence and age.

We wish you a pleasant reading of this issue of *Folia Turistica*, and hope that the articles inside prove interesting to you and inspire you to propose new hypotheses and research questions in your own studies. At the same time, we strongly believe that our new (quarterly) publishing policy, initiated in 2014, and the availability of a large amount of practical information useful to authors on our website, especially information about the current publishing plan and instructions on how to prepare texts, will merit your approval and encourage you to submit your articles for publication in *Folia Turistica*.

Wiesław Alejziak, Bartosz Szczechowicz

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MODEL OF SUSTAINABLE TOURISM – THEORETICAL AND EMPIRICAL APPROACH

*Leszek Butowski**

Abstract

Purpose. This paper is devoted to the presentation of a model of sustainable tourism.
Method. The main objective of sustainable tourism assumed in the model is to strive toward a balance in reaping benefits by two main groups of stakeholders in tourism: tourists and local communities in destinations; at the same time it is assumed that an acceptable level of the degradation of natural and sociocultural tourist resources cannot be exceeded.
Findings. The model is presented in graph form from a mathematical function. Conditions of sustainability and unsustainability are described by means of algebraic notation.
Research and conclusion limitations. The model presented in the paper constitutes a kind of simplification of empirical reality. The author has striven to take into account those features (and interdependencies occurring between them) which have particular influence on sustainability or unsustainability. Empirical verification of the model has been conducted in three different destinations. This was a piloting study.
Practical implications. The model has been subject to a tentative verification project carried out in: Turkish Mediterranean coast and Polish Western Pomerania regions in 2013 as well as in the Republic of Cyprus in 2014. The results of this research point out that the model can be used as a good tool for the evaluation of tourism in different destinations.
Originality. Relatively weak theoretical grounds, combined with the ambiguity and diversity of views on sustainable tourism as well as the descriptive approach, which dominates in the literature, have prompted the author of this paper to make an attempt to render the essence of sustainable tourism in a model approach.
Type of paper. The article is of a review character and it presents a theoretical conception. The paper includes a number of case studies that were used for empirical verification of the model.

Key words: sustainable tourism, model approach, theoretical assumptions, empirical verification, Cyprus, Poland, Turkey.

* Ph.D., Associate Professor, Warsaw School of Tourism and Hospitality Management, Faculty of Tourism and Recreation [dr hab., prof nadzw., Szkoła Główna Turystyki i Rekreacji, Wydział Turystyki i Rekreacji]; e-mail: leszek.butowski@gmail.com.

Introduction

The notion of sustainable tourism refers to a wider conception of sustainable development [Coccossis, Parpairis 2000; Harris, Leiper 1995; Hunter 1997; Lanfant, Graburn 1992; Leśniak 2008; Liu 2003], which stresses the need for rational management of natural environment resources. The first sign of the need for change on a global scale within the general understanding of economic development was the report of the Secretary-General of the United Nations, S. U Thant, entitled "Man and His Environment", published in 1969. Another significant report was the 1st Report of the Club of Rome entitled "Limits to Growth", published in 1972. The problems of threats to the natural environment were the main subject of the discussion during the UN conference in Stockholm (the *Stockholm Conference*), which took place in the same year. Around that time, the term "sustainable development" was first introduced. The next important milestone in the discussion on sustainable development was the publication of the report entitled "Our Common Future" [1987], which contained a summary of the activity of the World Commission on Environment and Development (the *Bruntland Commission*). This document introduced a fundamental (and still valid) assumption according to which sustainable development sought to "meet the needs and aspirations of the present without compromising the ability to meet those of the future." In 1992, in Rio de Janeiro, the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (the *Earth Summit*) took place. Two important documents were adopted during that conference. The first document was the *Rio Declaration*, which contained 27 principles defining the rights and duties of nations in the field of sustainable development, and the second one was called *Agenda 21,* a global action plan which proposed actions necessary to ensure sustainable development and a high quality of life [Kowalczyk 2010; Niezgoda 2006].

Tourist conceptions related to the principles of sustainable development began to appear in international literature on a larger scale in the mid-1980s. It should, however, be noted that as early as 1965, W. Hetzer formulated the notion of *responsible tourism*, which in fact was very close to the principles of sustainable development in tourism [Blamey 2001; Leslie 2012]. It seems that the discussion about new ways of developing tourism began with the conception of *alternative tourism*. The first definition of the term was coined by J. Krippendorf, who published an article in 1986 entitled "Tourism in the system of industrial society" (in the *Annals of Tourism Research*). As the term "alternative" suggests, the idea was conceived in opposition to mass tourism, which the supporters of Krippendorfer's views considered the "bad option". Alternative tourism, often identified with small-scale tourism and treated as the "good option", was meant to oppose the "bad option" [Clarke 1997; Lanfant, Graburn 1992; Szwichtenberg 1993; Weaver 2001a; Weaver 2001b].

The same period saw also the appearance of various conceptions connected with *ecotourism*; the first definition of this term was proposed by H. Ceballos-Lescuráin in 1987 [Kowalczyk 2010]. At the same time, scholars began to introduce other terms similar to *ecotourism* or *alternative tourism,* for example *green tourism (tourisme vert, nature-based, naturnäher), soft tourism (saufer Tourismus), nature tourism, environmentally-friendly/environmentally-sensible tourism, responsible tourism (angepasst), discreet tourism, appropriate tourism, ecoethnotourism*, and *pro-poor development* [Boo 1990; Cater, Lowman, Hill et al. 2006; Hunter 1997; Krippendorf et al. 1998; Niezgoda 2006]. Interestingly, the authors of these definitions stressed primarily the desired way of cultivating tourism, the natural-environmental aspect and the small scale of the phenomenon. They often adopted an evaluating approach and juxtaposed the "new" forms of tourism with the "old" ones, by which they usually meant mass tourism [Wall 1993; Wheeller 1993].

A broad overview of definitions of sustainable tourism was included in R.W. Butler's paper entitled "Sustainable tourism: a state-of-the-art review" [1999]. This author was particularly skeptical towards the view that sustainable tourism constituted a panacea for all contemporary tourism's problems and consequently presented his own view on the meaning of sustainability in tourism. He claimed that sustainable tourism could be seen in two ways [Butler 2005]. First, it could be approached from a semantic-dictionary side, interpreting the feature of sustainability as a guarantee of a long-term survival on the market. According to M. Mika [2008], such an approach seems to be closer to the representatives of economic sciences, who stress the problem of the self-maintenance character of tourism development. The second way of understanding sustainable tourism that Butler mentioned was much closer to the conception of sustainable development; it suggested treating sustainable tourism as a tool for the development of destination areas without breaking the principles of sustainable development. Obviously, this attitude was closer to the representatives of environmental science and the humanities. Butler's view on the ambiguity in understanding the term "sustainable tourism" was later supported by A. Niezgoda [2006], who claimed that the conception of sustainable tourism had appeared as a result of research on interrelations between tourism, environment and development. According to Niezgoda, sustainable tourism was treated by scholars as a tool for the realization of sustainable development or a tool for the development of tourism itself. B. Lane [1994] used the term "sustainable tourism" to distinguish the rules, legal regulations and methods of management that determine development of tourism in areas of high natural or cultural merits in need of protection [Kowalczyk 2010]. T. Forsyth [1997] understood the term similarly as he claimed that sustainable tourism could not cause harm to the natural and cultural environment.

An entirely different scientific perspective was adopted by B.H. Farrell and L. Twinning-Ward [2003]. In the article entitled "Reconceptualizing Tourism", they postulated a total change in the methodological approach to the studies on tourism (including sustainable tourism). First, they criticized strongly the hitherto, according to them the most widespread, way of conducting research in the field of tourism; they disapproved of basing research on narrow specializations, assuming predictability of phenomena and the presence of cause and effect and linear reductionism. They claimed that such an approach, due to the complexity and unpredictability of the behavior of tourist systems and systems influencing tourism, could not guarantee satisfactory results. Instead, they proposed a new paradigm that was based on an interdisciplinary approach encompassing relatively new fields, such as: ecosystem ecology, ecological economics, global change science and complexity theory. They assumed that natural and social systems functioned in a relatively independent and non-linear way and consequently postulated an implementation of the complex adaptive systems theory into the studies of tourism. Simultaneously, they introduced the notions of comprehensive tourism system and complex adaptive tourism systems (CATS).

The essence of sustainable tourism was not only extensively discussed by the world of academia, but also presented and explained to the public in a variety of declarative, explanatory or quasi normative institutional documents. Among numerous publications of this type, one should note i.a. the "Charter for Sustainable Tourism" (adopted in 1995), whose signatories agreed that development under the influence of tourism should refer to the principles of sustainable tourism, i.e., it should take into consideration the long-term needs of the natural environment, positively affect a given economy and be acceptable in terms of ethics and culture for local communities. The same document stated that tourism should contribute to sustainable development through a strict integration with natural and anthropogenic environments in destination areas. Also in 1995, the World Travel and Tourism Council, the United Nations World Tourism Organization and the Earth Council accepted the document entitled "Agenda 21 for the Travel and Tourism Industry: Towards Environmentally Sustainable Development" [1995]. This document defined i.a. the priorities of sustainable tourism. In 1999, the United Nations World Tourism Organization published the "Global Code of Ethics for Tourism", which took into consideration the postulates of sustainable tourism. In 2004, the same organization stated that the principles of sustainable tourism should apply to all forms of tourism (including mass tourism). The authors of this document also stated that the principles of sustainable development in tourism should concern environmental, economic and socio-cultural issues to the same degree in order to ensure a long-term balance [*Sustainable development of tourism. Conceptual definitions* 2004]. Finally, in 2008 during the World Conservation Congress, which took place in Barcelona, a document containing the "Sustainable Tourism Criteria" was adopted. As a kind of summary, it may be useful to refer to the United Nations World Tourism Organization, which stated in 2004 that the principles of sustainable development should be applicable as much as possible to all forms of tourism, including mass tourism, and to all aspects of the phenomenon: natural, sociocultural, and economic.

Simultaneously, it should be noted that the extensive scientific literature concerning sustainable tourism focuses its attention primarily on descriptive presentations of various aspects of the phenomenon, with particular emphasis on the idea, the origins and the evolution, related terminological issues and case studies. The authors make much effort to reveal the relationships between sustainable tourism (as a form of tourism development) and particular types of tourism (as forms of tourist movement). Worth mentioning here are skeptical voices, which question the role that sustainable tourism is being ascribed – that of a remedy for all the problems of contemporary tourism. It also seems that, taking into consideration the hitherto scientific output related to sustainable tourism, the works devoted to the theoretical aspects of sustainability in tourism are in minority.

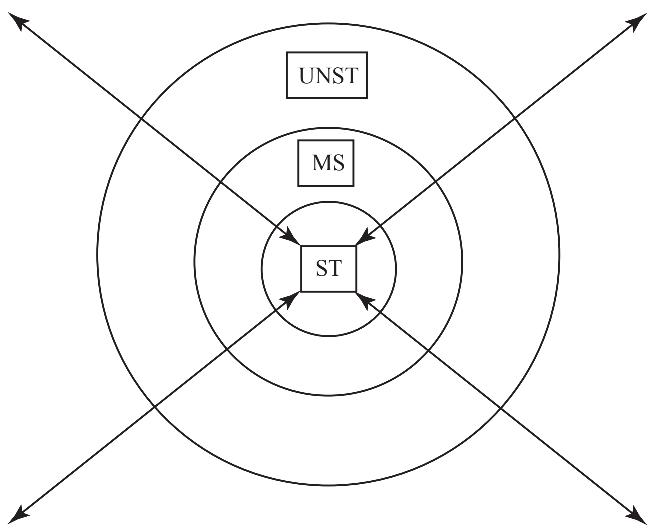
Relatively weak theoretical grounds, ambiguity and diversity of views on sustainable tourism and dominance of a descriptive approach in the literature have prompted the author of this article to make an attempt to render the essence of sustainable tourism in a model approach[1]. The construction of the model can be considered an instance of pure, conceptual research [as defined by Shuang, Tribe, Chambers 2013], but the verification of the model presented in the second part of the article is based on an empirical-qualitative analysis. While creating the theoretical model, the author sought to take into account all main features of sustainable tourism (and interrelations occurring among them) and to simultaneously follow certain basic guidelines, i.e., to ensure completeness, versatility, clarity and simplicity of the model.

Model Approach as a Tool Used to Present Selected Aspects of Sustainable Tourism

The author acknowledges the fact that some attempts to render the essence of sustainable tourism in a model approach have already been made, but it seems that they concerned, in majority, only particular aspects of sustainable tourism [Butowski 2012]. The issue of the evolution of the phenomenon, including the relations between alternative tourism, ecotourism and mass tourism, as well as the commonalities with sustainable tourism, was presented i.a. by A. Niezgoda [2006]. Model relationships between sustainable tourism and unsustainable tourism (often identified with mass tourism) have been an area of interest to other authors as well. Among them were D.A. Fennel [1999], R. Turner, D. Pearce and I. Bateman [1994] and D.B. Weaver [2001a], who claimed that it was impossible to set a clear boundary between sustainable and unsustainable forms of tourism. After analyzing various aspects of the supply side of tourism (attractions,

[1] First writings by L. Butowski concerning modeling of sustainable tourism (without empirical findings) were published in English (Butowski 2012) and in Polish (Butowski 2013).

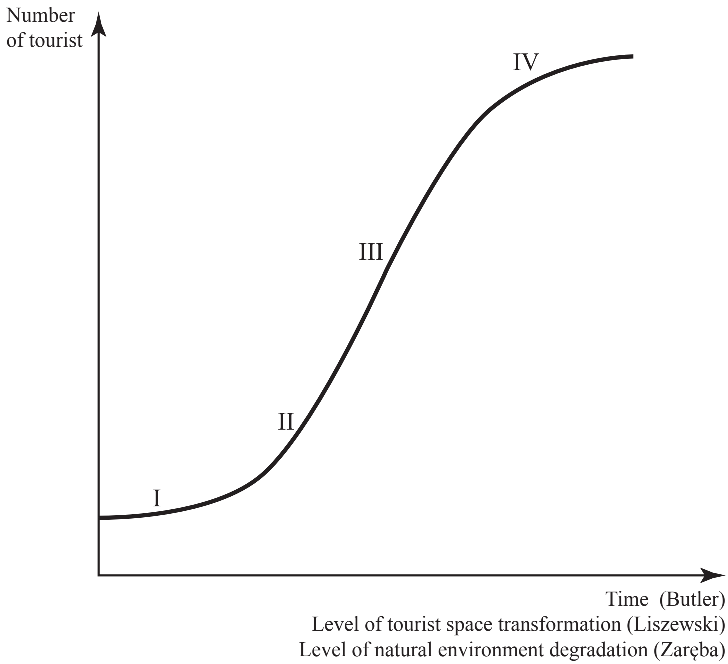
transport, accommodation, product), Fennel put forward a concept of several stages of sustainable tourism. Weaver claimed that mass tourism (closer to unsustainable tourism) constituted a kind of continuum of alternative tourism (closer to sustainable tourism), and therefore these two should not be treated as separate, opposing categories. Two kinds of inferences can be drawn from the opinions of these authors. On the one hand, they both argued that the principles of sustainable development should be taken into consideration as much as possible in all forms of tourism (Figure 1); this would seem to suggest a desired direction of change from unsustainable tourism to sustainable tourism. On the other hand, Weaver's argument about mass (closer to unsustainable) tourism being a continuum of alternative (closer to sustainable) tourism seems to lead to the conclusion that the direction of change is rather undesirable, from sustainable tourism to unsustainable tourism. Both situations are illustrated in Figure 1.



UNST – unsustainable tourism
MS – middle stage
ST – sustainable tourism

Figure 1. Sustainable and unsustainable tourism as a continuum of bidirectional changes
Source: Own elaboration based on: Fennel [1999], Turner, Pearce & Bateman [1994] and Weaver [2001a].

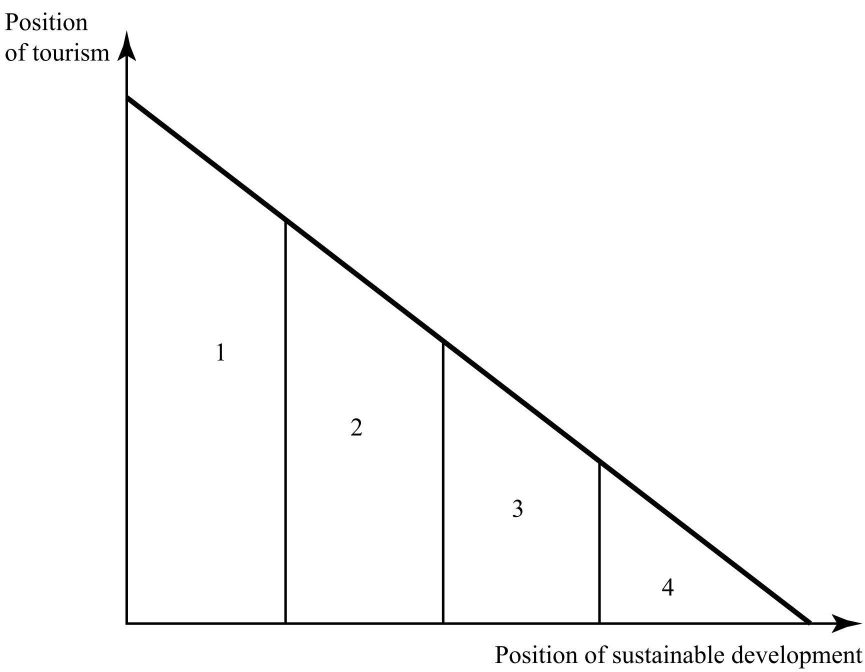
A similar conclusion concerning the occurrence of undesirable direction of change can be drawn from an analysis of three models of tourism: 1) of tourist area life cycle (TALC) by R.W. Butler [1980]; 2) of tourist space by S. Liszewski [1995]; and 3) of changes in the natural environment under the influence of tourism by D. Zaręba [2010]. The curves of dependencies between the number of tourists in a given destination area and the time (Butler), the level of tourist space transformation (Liszewski), and the level of environment devastation (Zaręba) are quite similar. A closer investigation of the curves in the three models (simplified for the sake of comparison) suggests that there are four stages of change in the direction from the state of an original balance to the state of a new balance in a transformed, i.e., devastated in terms of nature, environment (Figure 2).



Conception / Stage	Tourist area life cycle by Butler (1980)	Changes in the natural environment (based on Zaręba, 2010)	Types of tourist space by Liszewski (1995)
I	Exploration	Original balance	Exploration
II	Introduction	Threat	Penetration
III	Development	Degradation	Colonization
IV	Consolidation and stagnation	New balance	Urbanization

Figure 2. Tourism as a function of time, spatial changes and environmental changes
Source: Own elaboration based on: R.W. Butler [1980], S. Liszewski [1995] and D. Zaręba [2010].

A model conception of degrees of tourism development in relation to different (in terms of the natural environment and socio-economics) destination areas was also proposed by C. Hunter [1997]. This author conducted a contrastive analysis of the position of tourism and sustainable development on diverse areas and, based on that analysis, distinguished four variants of the functioning of tourism in the conditions of sustainable development. His conception can be illustrated with a graph of decreasing function showing relations between tourism and sustainable development (Figure 3). Hunter's model is controversial in that it excludes the possibility of wide scale tourism development that would take the principles of sustainable development into account.



Variant	Position of tourism	Position of sustainable development
1	Domination (imperative) of tourism	Very weak
2	Tourism determined by product	Weak
2	Tourism determined by environmental issues	Strong
4	Minimalised tourism	Very strong

Figure 3. Variants of the functioning of tourism in sustainable development conditions according to C. Hunter

Source: Own elaboration based on Hunter [2007].

Polish scholars also made an attempt to present the essence of sustainable tourism in a model form. M. Durydiwka, A. Kowalczyk and S. Kulczyk [2010] assumed that the conception of sustainable tourism (ST) referred mainly to three types of tourism [Kowalczyk 2010], i.e.:

1) tourism related to natural environment values (STnatural);
2) tourism related to cultural environment values (STcultural);
3) tourism that requires certain skills from tourists (STqualified).

Taking into account these three types of tourism, they attempted to render the idea of sustainable tourism in the following formula:

$$ST = STnatural + STcultural + STqualified + \\ + (STnatural/k \times ST\ cultural/k \times STqualified/k)$$

where k = correction factor.

This formula was intended to refer to the holistic conception of sustainable tourism according to which sustainable tourism should be understood as a combination of various forms of tourism, complemented by common objectives, such as: care for the natural environment, limiting the negative effects on local communities, bringing economic benefits to destination areas and meeting the needs of tourists.

Long-term Model of Sustainable Tourism

While constructing his model of sustainable tourism, the author tried to take into account the hitherto scientific output of the studies on sustainable tourism. Based on the previous works in the field, the author adopted main assumptions of the model. The model was then constructed based on these assumptions and by means of the conceptual research method [Shuang, Tribe, Chambers 2013]. The model is presented in graph form (Figure 4) with an extensive description which provides information about: 1) the purpose and the conditions of the construction of the model; 2) the main assumptions underlying the construction of the model; 3) the variables adopted; 4) model sustainability and unsustainability conditions; and 5) factors affecting the variables and capabilities and limitations of the practical application of the model.

Objectives and Conditions

The main purpose of the model is to render the essence of long-term sustainable tourism in a complete, universal, clear and simple form. First, these criteria should be fulfilled in order for the model to be applicable for teaching and explanatory purposes. Second, the model should also be suitable to serve as a theoretical basis for construction and application of further detailed models. Moreover, the model should be versatile, i.e., it should be applicable in all conditions (in any tourism destination area and for each type of tourism). The form of mathematical function and algebraic notation ensure the aforementioned clarity of the model and the minimal number of variables and graphical form ensure its simplicity. Another important feature of the model is that it allows to modify the values of the independent variables and to observe the impact that such modifications would have on the dependent variables (dynamic factor).

Assumptions

The model has been built basing on a main assumption that the goal of sustainable tourism in a given tourism destination area is:

1. to strive toward the state of balance in fulfilling the needs of all groups of tourism stakeholders, in particular: 1) tourists who visit a given tourism destination area; 2) the community that lives in a given tourism destination area; 3) internal and external entrepreneurs who provide services for tourists who travel to a given tourism destination area [Bramwell, Lane 1997; Gołembski 2009; Jones, Clarke-Hill, Comfort 2008];

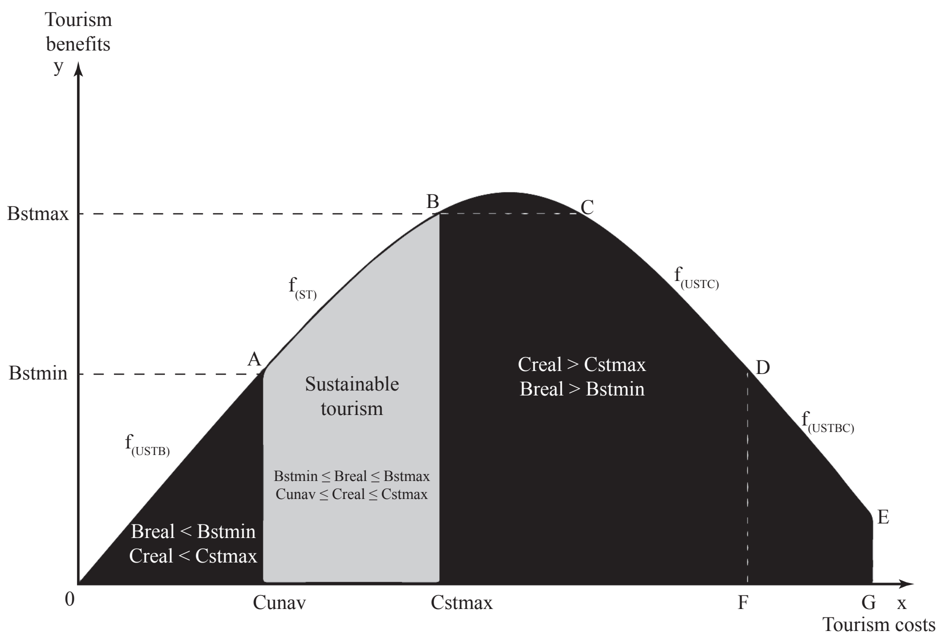


Figure 4. Long-term model of sustainable tourism
Source: Own findings.

2. while at the same time maintaining an acceptable in a long-term perspective level of costs (economic, social, environmental) connected with the development of tourism in a given area [Callicot, Mumford 1997].

The author also assumed that an increase (in the first period) in benefits reaped by all tourism stakeholders as a result of the development of tourism results in an increase in costs. In a longer perspective, however, after exceeding a certain level of costs measured by the level of natural, sociocultural and economic degradation, it will not be possible to reap further benefits – the benefits reaped by all tourism stakeholders will begin to decrease. This assumption is presented in Figure 4.

Explanation of the Symbols Used in the Model

1. Benefits from the development of tourism in a given destination area, i.e., benefits reaped by all groups of tourism stakeholders (tourists visiting a given destination area, local population, local and external entrepreneurs, authorities, other organizations, etc.) as a result of the development of tourism:
   – min acceptable benefits (Bstmin): denotes the minimal acceptable level of fulfilling the needs of all groups of stakeholders, beneath which the reaped benefits will be evaluated as insufficient; it is expressed by a value of the Bstmin point on the *y-axis* of the model graph;
   – max sustainable benefits (Bstmax): denotes the maximal desirable level of fulfilling the needs of all groups of stakeholders; it is expressed by a value of the Bstmax point on the y-axis of the model graph;
   – real benefits (Breal): the real level of benefits reaped by tourism stakeholders in a given destination area.
2. Costs of tourism development, i.e., all economic, sociocultural, and environmental costs, including incurred expenditures, environmental and anthropogenic (social, cultural, economic) degradation which occurs in a destination area as a result of the development of tourism:
   – max acceptable costs (Cstmax): denotes the maximal (in sustainable tourism conditions) level of all costs resulting from the development of tourism, which the stakeholders of tourism in a given destination area are ready to bear; it is expressed by a value of the Cstmax point on the x-axis of the model graph;
   – unavoidable costs (Cunav): denotes the level of unavoidable costs resulting from the development of tourism; it is expressed by a value of the Cunav point on the x-axis of the model graph;
   – real costs (Creal): the real level of costs incurred by all stakeholders as a result of the development of tourism in a given destination area.

Independent and Dependent Variables Used in the Model

The model employs two pairs of interconnected independent and dependent variables (Table 1).

Table 1. Independent and dependent variables used in the model of sustainable tourism

Independent variables	Dependent variables
min acceptable benefits (Bstmin)	unavoidable costs (Cunav)
max acceptable costs (Cstmax)	max benefits (Bstmax)

Source: Own findings.

1) Minimal acceptable benefits of tourism (Bstmin – independent variable) reaped by all groups of stakeholders result in certain unavoidable costs (Cunav), which are represented in the model as a dependent variable.
2) Maximal acceptable costs of tourism (Cstmax – independent variable) incurred as a result of the development of tourism; the value of Cstmax determines the maximal level of benefits (Bstmax) that can be reaped in the conditions of sustainable tourism (a dependent variable in the model).

Model Conditions of Sustainability and Unsustainability

Tables 2, 3, 4, and 5 show the model conditions of sustainability and unsustainability in particular components (benefits and costs). The conditions will be explained and described further in the article.

Table 2. Model conditions for sustainable tourism

Sustainable tourism	General conditions	
	Component of costs	**Component of benefits**
Sustainable tourism by components	$Cstmax - Cunav \geq 0$	$Bstmax - Bstmin \geq 0$
	$Cunav \leq Creal \leq Cstmax$	$Bstmin \leq Breal \leq Bstmax$
	Minimal conditions	
	Component of costs	**Component of benefits**
	$Cstmax - Cunav = 0$	$Bstmax - Bstmin = 0$
	$Cunav = Creal = Cstmax$	$Bstmin = Breal = Bstmax$
Function $f_{(ST)}$ – describes the existence of sustainable tourism for both components	**General conditions**	
	$f_{(ST)} = \{x: x \subset [Cunav, Cstmax]; Cstmax - Cunav \geq 0\}$	
	Minimal conditions	
	$f_{(ST)} = \{x: x = Cunav; Cstmax - Cunav = 0\}$	

Source: Own findings.

Table 3. Unsustainability in the component of benefits

Type of disruption	Conditions	Description
Lack of balance (unsustainability) in the component of benefits, balance (sustainability) in the component of costs	Breal < Bstmin, Creal < Cstmax	Occurs when real benefits (Breal) are lower than minimal benefits (Bstmin). At the same time, the level of real costs (Creal) is lower than the level of max acceptable costs (Cstmax).
Function $f_{(USTB)}$ – describes lack of balance (unsustainability) in the component of benefits while maintaining balance (sustainability) in the component of costs.	$f_{(USTB)} = \{x: x \subset [O, Cunav]\}$	

Source: Own findings.

Table 4. Unsustainability in the component of costs

Type of disruption	Conditions	Description
Lack of balance (unsustainability) in the component of costs, balance (sustainability) in the component of benefits.	Creal > Cstmax, Breal > Bstmin	Occurs when real costs (Creal) are higher than acceptable costs (Cstmax). At the same time, real benefits (Breal) are higher than minimal benefits (Bstmin).
Function $f_{(USTC)}$ – describes lack of balance (unsustainability) in the component of costs while maintaining balance (sustainability) in the component of benefits.	$f_{(USTC)} = \{x: x \subset [Cstmax, F]\}$	

Source: Own findings.

Table 5. Unsustainability in the both components (benefits and costs)

Type of disruption	Conditions	Description
Lack of balance (unsustainability) in the both components (benefits and costs)	Breal < Bstmin, Creal > Cstmax	Occurs when real benefits (Breal) are lower than minimal benefits (Bstmin) and at the same time real costs (Creal) are higher than max acceptable costs (Cstmax).
Function $f_{(USTBC)}$ – describes lack of balance (unsustainability) in the both components (benefits and costs).	$f_{(USTBC)} = \{x: x \subset [F, G]\}$	

Source: Own findings.

Table 6. Destination areas, stakeholders and types of tourism investigated in the tentative research project

Tourism destination area	Type of tourism	Type of tourism stakeholders interviewed
Poland – Western Pomerania	Sailing tourism	Local professionals and tourists
Turkey – Marmaris region	Various types of tourism	Local professionals
Republic of Cyprus	Various types of tourism	Local professionals and tourists

Source: Own findings.

Factors That Influence Independent Variables as Determinants of Sustainable Tourism

Maximal acceptable cost of the development of tourism (in the conditions of sustainable tourism, i.e., not causing irreversible changes to the natural, sociocultural and economic environment) depends on the type of ecosystem and features of the social (economic, cultural) environment of a given tourism destination area. As regards the natural environment, it stands to reason that a low maximal acceptable cost (level of acceptable degradation) is characteristic of ecosystems that are very susceptible to external impulses. A higher maximal acceptable environmental cost is characteristic of ecosystems which have been considerably transformed and which have no particular natural values. As regards anthropogenic (sociocultural and economic) environment, smaller, traditional communities that do not maintain close relationships with the outside world seem to be more prone to degradation. In the case of such communities, the principles of sustainability would require the acceptable maximal level of social costs to be as low as possible.

The level of minimal benefits that all groups of stakeholders of tourism in a given destination area expect to reap depends on the views on tourism that these people have. The minimal acceptable level of benefits reaped by permanent inhabitants depends on such traits of this community as: age structure, education, ecological and cultural awareness, value system, self-esteem, previous quality of life, professional occupation and initiative, aspirations connected with the development of local tourism, participation of local authorities and the elite. As for tourists, their minimal acceptable level of benefits depends on their sociocultural background; the subjective evaluation of local tourism products (including i.a. attractions, accommodation, prices) will be based upon its traits. A tourism product will have to meet the needs of tourists to such a degree that they come to the conclusion that for the price they paid for this product, they reaped benefits at an acceptable level.

Taking into consideration the abovementioned model assumptions, the area of sustainable tourism, which is shown in the graph as:

$$\int_{\mathrm{Cstmax}}^{\mathrm{Cunav}} f\,dx$$

will depend on: 1) the specific resistance of given natural and anthropogenic environments to the negative impact of tourism, denoted by the position of the Cstmax point on the *x-axis* of the model graph (independent variable); and 2) the minimal acceptable level of benefits that all stakeholders of tourism in a given area expect to reap, denoted by the position of the Bstmin point on the *y-axis* of the graph (independent variable).

The area of sustainable tourism will therefore be dependent on the one hand on the willingness to give up the maximization of (short-term) benefits on the part of stakeholders (the lowest possible value of the Bstmin point on the *y-axis*) and on the other hand on the features of the environment (natural, social, economic) which determine the ability of this environment to accept all kinds of costs, denoted by the highest possible value of the Cstmax point on the *x-axis*.

Application of the Model – Possibilities and Constraints

1. Application for research and educational (explanatory) purposes – the model can be employed to explain the essence and the principles of sustainable tourism, in particular the interrelations occurring between all stakeholders of tourism and the natural and anthropogenic environment in which tourism is being developed. The model allows to analyze these interrelations from a dynamic perspective; it can be used to predict the consequences that various modifications to the independent variables would have for the stakeholders of tourism. Another feature of the model is its versatility, which means that it can be applied to all types of tourism and destination areas. In each case, the same factors, which set the framework for sustainable tourism, are taken into consideration. They are included in the model as independent variables. Versatility and clarity of the model are ensured by means of a graphical presentation of the functional dependency and algebraic notation used to describe the main assumptions, interrelations, and conditions of the model.
2. Application for practical purposes – the model can be employed to evaluate the extent to which the development of various types of tourism in a given destination area would comply with the principles of sustainable development. Particular types of tourism should be analyzed from the perspective of demand, as forms of tourist movement, as well as from the perspective of supply, as the corresponding types of tourism products. A practical application of the model would require constructing individual models for specific types of tourism. This would be possible after selecting the appropriate indices to determine the values of particular variables. After constructing separate model graphs, it will be possible to compare obtained model areas of sustainable tourism characteristic of particular types of tourism. The results of such an analysis can be especially useful when determining the preferred types of tourism for

a given destination area, in the context of their compliance with the principles of sustainable development.

3. It seems that the main barrier for the application of the presented model of sustainable tourism can be difficulties with the quantification of the adopted variables. The easiest way to quantify them would be to express them in financial values, but this is not always possible or relevant. Another solution would be to take advantage of a variety of indices described, i.a. in the publications of UNWTO and other organizations (and programs), for instance *Making tourism more sustainable* [2005] or *The VISIT initiative* [2004, pp. 9–12]. When selecting the indices, one should try to look for those which meet the criteria of an ideal index of sustainable tourism as fully as possible. These criteria are: 1) simplicity of identification and measurement; 2) natural, social, cultural, economic, political significance; 3) stability; 4) simplicity and low cost of performing measurements; 5) sensitivity and quickness of reaction to changes; 6) understandability and clarity [Hughes 2002).

It should also be kept in mind that the variables assumed in the main model are diverse. One group includes net benefits reaped by both tourists and local communities (including entrepreneurs), another group pertains to total costs that manifest themselves in the degradation of the natural and anthropogenic (sociocultural and economic) environments. In order to establish the values of these variables one should consider separately each of their constituents and assume an appropriate minimum border value. In practice, it means that one would have to construct separate auxiliary models of sustainability for the components of benefits and costs [Butowski 2012].

Another solution worth considering may be an applicational simplification of the entire model. In this case, only one (border) component of a given variable would be quantified. For example, for the independent variable "minimal acceptable benefits (Bstmin)", the operation would involve determining only the minimal level of benefits that would be acceptable for the local community and treating it as the assumed border level (thus assuming that the appearance of tourists in a given area itself testifies to the fact that these tourists do reap benefits at an acceptable level). The same procedure could be applied also to the second variable, but in this case the choice of the component should depend on the type of destination area (for areas valuable because of their natural environment, the selected component should be the maximal for a given type of ecosystems acceptable level of degradation of the natural environment).

Another serious difficulty lies in finding proper functional interrelations between the assumed variables (costs vs. benefits) in the particular models. The presented (main) model assumes only a general interrelation between tourist costs and benefits. This interrelation is represented in graphical form as an increasing and decreasing function. Before the assumptions of the main model can be applied to particular destinations, the precise shape of the curve of this function must be determined and this can be done only by determining the values (border and intermediate) of the variables for various types of tourism in a given area.

Both problems (quantification of the variables and finding functional interrelations between them) need to be taken into account when considering a quantitative application of the presented model, as they directly influence the possibility of defining the model area of sustainable tourism.

4. It seems that the problems with the quantitative application of the model (resulting from the difficulties in the quantification of the variables) can be overcome by adopting a qualitative (interpretative) approach [Alejziak 2008; Bryman 2008]. It should be based on qualitative assessment given by representatives of particular groups of the stakeholders of tourism in a given destination area (purposive sampling). These people could evaluate the benefits reaped from tourism against the incurred costs by showing a point on the model graph corresponding to the state of tourism in their destination area. Such an approach has one significant advantage when compared with the quantitative one – it gives voice directly to those it concerns instead of imposing on them pre-defined values of independent variables, in particular those related to the acceptable level of costs in a given area.

Empirical Verification

A tentative fieldwork project of empirical verification of the model was carried out between May and August 2013 in different tourism areas in Poland and Turkey as well as in Cyprus (Nicosia) in May 2014.

Research Method and Results

In this research project, the qualitative method was adopted. The procedure involved conducting standardized interviews with representatives of selected groups of stakeholders (Table 6). After a detailed explanation of the model, the interlocutors were asked to choose a point on the model graph that would, according to their subjective views, correspond to the state of tourism in their destination area. Their answers could relate to any of the following variants:

1. Insufficient benefits from tourism (below the minimal acceptable level) and at the same time low (acceptable) costs of tourism development; the situation corresponding to part OA of the model graph (unsustainability in the component of benefits).
2. Acceptable benefits from tourism (above the minimal acceptable level) and at the same time acceptable costs of tourism (below the maximal

acceptable level); the situation corresponding to part AB of the model graph (sustainable tourism).
3. Extremely high benefits from tourism and at the same time high costs of tourism, exceeding the maximal acceptable level; the situation corresponding to part BC of the model graph (unsustainability in the component of cost).
4. Acceptable benefits from tourism and at the same time extremely high costs of tourism, significantly exceeding the maximal acceptable level; the situation corresponding to part CD of the model graph (unsustainability in the component of cost).
5. Insufficient benefits from tourism (below the minimal acceptable level) and at the same time extremely high costs of tourism, far exceeding the maximal acceptable level; the situation corresponding to part DE of the model graph (unsustainability in the both components: benefits and costs).

The results of the tentative fieldwork project carried out in tourism destination areas in Poland and Turkey are presented below in graph form (the letter "T" on the graphs marks the position of tourism according to the majority of the interviewees from a given area).

In Western Pomerania, the survey was conducted among stakeholders of tourism (local professionals and tourists). They seemed to agree since they pointed at the insufficient level of tourism benefits (probably connected with the relatively underdeveloped tourist infrastructure) and at the same time at a relatively low level of costs (insufficient number of tourism investments). Such an evaluation corresponds to the position of tourism below point A on the model graph (Fig. 5).

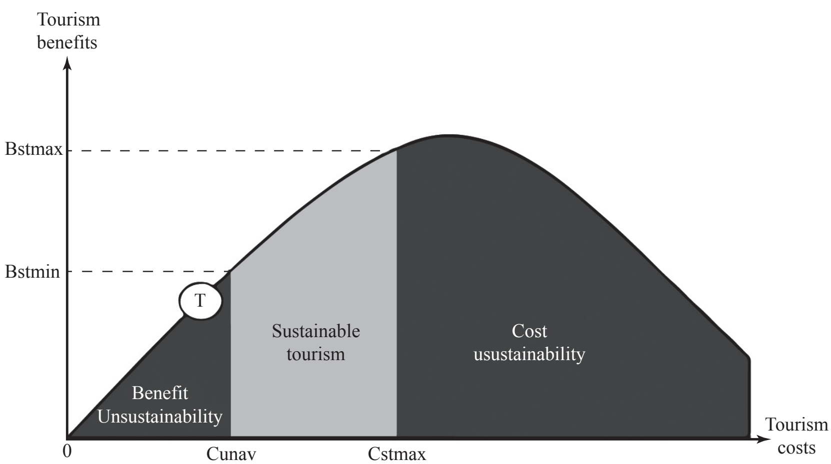


Figure 5. The position of tourism in Western Pomerania (Poland)

Source: Own findings.

In the region of Marmaris (Mediterranean Turkey), tourism is about to exceed the border of sustainability (Fig. 6). Local professionals point out a very high level of tourism benefits, but at the same time they notice that the level of costs connected with the development of tourism is also very high. The costs are beginning to exceed the border of the cost sustainability on the model graph (position of tourism around point B of the model graph).

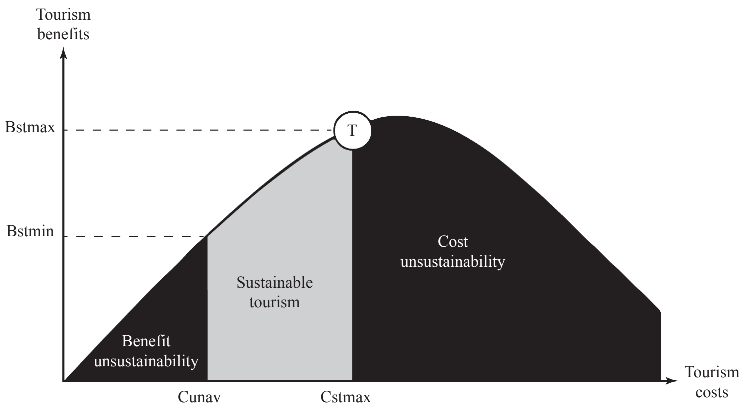


Figure 6. The position of tourism in the Marmaris Region (Turkey)
Source: Own findings.

In the Republic of Cyprus (not including the Turkish occupied part of the island), tourism is placed in the borders of sustainability (Fig. 7). Local professionals point out a relatively high level of tourism benefits, and at the same time they do not notice the risks concerning too high costs or degradation caused by tourism industry on the island.

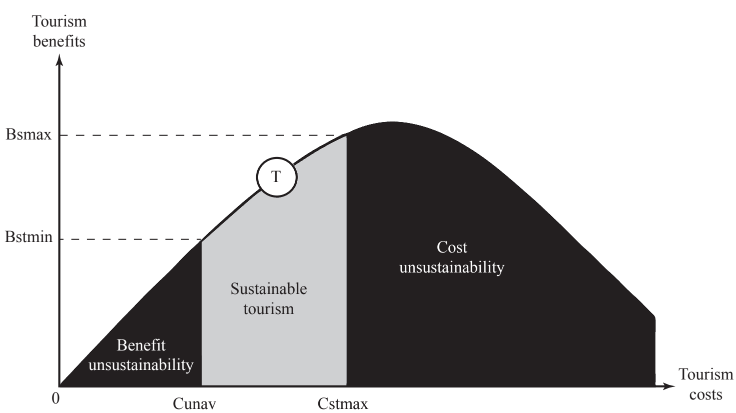


Figure 7. The position of tourism in the Republic of Cyprus
Source: Own findings.

Conclusion

The dominance of the descriptive style in the literature on sustainable tourism as well as the multidirectionality of the descriptions, which results in ambiguities in the understanding of the term, prompted the author of this paper to construct a model of sustainable tourism. One of the priorities was to ensure practical applicability, therefore the model has already been subject to a tentative empirical verification project.

This paper was devoted to the presentation of this model. In order to construct the model, the author accepted an assumption concerning the essence of sustainability in tourism; it lies in the striving for a balance between fulfilling the needs of all groups of tourism stakeholders (tourists, local community, entrepreneurs, etc.) and preserving natural, sociocultural and economic values of destination areas. In other words, the essential goal of sustainable tourism is to generate benefits that are satisfactory to all groups of present and future tourism stakeholders and that do not cause degradation to the environment above the maximal acceptable level of costs. This goal should be pursued with a long-term perspzzzective.

While constructing the model, the author made an effort to follow the basic guidelines of completeness, versatility, clarity, and simplicity. To this end, the graph form for the mathematical function and algebraic notation was employed. Thus, the model should be applicable for teaching and explanatory purposes. In order to verify the assumptions of the model in real-life conditions, the author carried out a preliminary empirical verification project in various destination areas. In the verification project, a qualitative method was adopted. Hopefully, the model of sustainable tourism presented in this article will complement the scientific output of the studies on sustainable development in tourism in both theoretical and practical aspects.

This, however, will be truly possible only after conducting further empirical research projects aimed at verifying the assumptions adopted in the model. Such projects should be carried out adopting both qualitative and quantitative approach. Most likely it will be necessary to construct auxiliary models to account for the differences in evaluations made by different groups of stakeholders of tourism in particular destination areas.

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MODEL TURYSTYKI ZRÓWNOWAŻONEJ – PODEJŚCIE TEORETYCZNE I EMPIRYCZNE

Abstrakt

Cel. Celem artykułu było przedstawienie długookresowego modelu turystyki zrównoważonej oraz zaprezentowanie wstępnych wyników jego empirycznej weryfikacji.
Metoda. Założono, że głównym celem turystyki zrównoważonej przyjętym do konstrukcji modelu jest dążenie do osiągnięcia stanu równowagi w zaspokajaniu potrzeb dwóch głównych grup interesariuszy turystyki, to jest turystów oraz społeczności ich przyjmujących. Jednocześnie uznano, że nie może być przekroczony pewien akceptowalny poziom kosztów, rozumianych jako degradacja środowiska społecznego, gospodarczego i naturalnego w związku z rozwojem turystyki na danym obszarze.
Wyniki. Do konstrukcji modelu posłużono się graficzną formą funkcji matematycznej. A do opisu warunków równowagi i nierównowagi wykorzystano notację formalną (algebraiczną).
Ograniczenia badań i wnioskowania. Zaprezentowany model stanowi uproszczenie rzeczywistości empirycznej. Starano się w nim uwzględnić te cechy (i współzależności między nimi występujące), które mają szczególny wpływ na uzyskanie stanu równowagi lub jej braku. Empiryczna weryfikacja modelu została przeprowadzono na trzech różnych obszarach recepcyjnych. Miała ona charakter pilotażowy.
Implikacja praktyczne. Model został poddany wstępnej weryfikacji empirycznej na trzech obszarach recepcyjnych: w Polsce, Turcji i na Cyprze. Wyniki tych badań wskazują, że może on stanowić dobre narzędzie do oceny sytuacji turystyki na zróżnicowanych obszarach turystycznych.
Oryginalność. Stosunkowo słabe podstawy teoretyczne, a także niejednoznaczność i różnorodność poglądów na temat turystyki zrównoważonej, jak również dominujący w literaturze przedmiotu styl opisowy, skłoniły autora do podjęcia próby przedstawienia istoty turystyki zrównoważonej w ujęciu modelowym.
Rodzaj pracy. Artykuł ma zarówno charakter przeglądowo-teoretyczny, jak i zawiera wyniki badań empirycznych.

Słowa kluczowe: turystka zrównoważona, ujęcie modelowe, założenia teoretyczne, weryfikacja empiryczna, Cypr, Polska, Turcja.

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STATE TOURISM POLICIES IN SWITZERLAND AND SELECTED GOOD PRACTICES FOR POLISH TOURISM

*Katarzyna Klimek**

Abstract

Purpose. The aim of this paper is to analyze growing importance of the state in the implementation of strategic solutions to stimulate holistic development in the tourism sector in Switzerland.
Method. The research method is a qualitative analysis of source documents and data coming from the State Secretariat for Economic Affairs (SECO) as well as from the Swiss Tourist Federation, the Ministry of Sport and Tourism in the Republic of Poland, and the Polish Tourism Organization. Moreover, the comparative analysis of the websites from 49 Swiss and 16 regional and 50 local Polish tourism organizations was conducted.
Findings. The paper presents the actual study of tourism policy implemented in Switzerland within the last 19 years. Moreover comparative analyses of strategic solutions implemented in Swiss and Polish tourism reveal important differences regarding the role of public-private partnership in tourism management and as well in the commercialization of tourism products.
Research and conclusions limitations. Qualitative analyses refer exclusively to the comparison between Swiss and Polish tourism policy and the role of Swiss and Polish tourism organizations in the destination management.
Practical implications. Swiss strategic solutions presented in the paper may constitute a solid benchmark for decision makers and governmental authorities dealing with support for the tourism development in Poland.
Originality. The innovative solutions implemented in Swiss tourism are usually neglected in various analyses and comparative reports published in Poland.
Type of paper. Descriptive article.

Key words: socio-economic development, tourism policy of Switzerland, tourism sector state support programs, public-private partnership and Destination Management Organizations (DMOs).

* Ph.D., University of Applied Science of Western Switzerland (HES-SO Valais), Institute of Tourism [dr, Uniwersytet Nauk Stosowanych Zachodniej Szwajcarii, Instytut Turystyki]; e-mail: katarzyna.klimek@hevs.ch.

Introduction

Tourism is one of the most dynamically developing service industries of the 21st century. Its strength of influence results from stimulating the economic development of countries, regions and areas of tourism reception due to revenues generated from the tourism consumption in a particular area. Global incomes earned from tourism are estimated at 5% of GDP, and the number of employees in this sector exceeds 270 million [UNWTO 2014, p. 2].

Switzerland is one of the oldest European tourist destinations. A 50-year-old tradition of receiving foreign tourists, the high quality of services, the country's prestige in the international arena and Switzerland's political neutrality are just some of the reasons for the country's rise to a leading position in the area of international incoming tourism.

According to the latest report of the World Economic Forum, Switzerland leads the world in terms of their travel and tourism industry competitiveness [WEF 2013, p. 16]. Nevertheless, a growing decrease in the number of foreign tourist arrivals traveling for leisure and business purposes has been observed since the beginning of the last decade of the 20th century.

This paper presents an analysis of strategic solutions implemented in Switzerland at the national level to stimulate tourism and include this sector in a holistic concept for the country's economic development. It consists of: a theoretical introduction, analysis concerning the development of tourism in Switzerland, national tourism policy within the last 19 years and a comparative approach regarding the possibility of applying Swiss good practices in the field of tourism policy in Poland.

Literature Review

Tourism policy is a relatively new phenomenon developed in various countries, mainly after the end of World War II and due to the growing importance of tourism for their economic development. The first actions taken at the governmental level as to planning tourism development took place in European countries and in the United States in the 1950s and the 1960s[19] [Hall 1994; Hall, Jenkins 2008; Kaspar 1996].

The United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO), whose objective is to determine directions for tourism development on a global scale, identified five major principles in which the public sector plays an important role in supporting tourism development. These are: coordinating and planning actions, the legislative process, regulations, stimulating entrepre-

[19] One of the first key documents related to tourist planning after World War II was the report drawn up in June 1950 by US and European government experts entitled: *"Tourism in the European Recovery Program"*. This was an initial plan for the development of tourism in Europe under reconstruction from damage [US Government 1950].

neurship and counteracting unemployment [UNWTO 2011]. M. Hall and S. Page [2006] also added the pro-social role to be played by tourism policy for the development of contemporary societies as well as a broadly understood protection of the issues of local interest groups.

Numerous studies indicate that within the last 50 years, there has been a change in the involvement of the public sector in shaping the tourism policy in highly developed countries from state interventionism after World War II, through the neoliberal policy of the 1980s and 1990s, where the state's role was mainly regulatory, to the strategic-relational approach and creating tourism policy on the basis of the broadest possible cooperation of the public sector with private entities and the non-governmental sector [Bevir 2009; Bramwell, Meyer 2007; Dredge, Jenkins 2007; Healey 2006; Jessop 2005, 2008; Krutwaysho, Bramwell 2010; Shone, Memon 2008].

Examples from several tourist destinations demonstrate that in order to create effective mechanisms for the implementation of tourism policy, the decentralized model, in which administrative and executive functions are separated, seems to be significantly more effective[20] [Anastasiadou 2008; Dredge 2006; Kimbu, Ngoasong 2013; Pastras, Bramwell 2013; Tosun, Dallen 2001; Tosun 2006; Wray 2009].

Due to the heterogeneous nature of tourism services, interaction between the public and the private sector becomes particularly significant in the context of creating global tourist market and increasing competition between tourist destinations, especially in Europe and Asia [Augustyn, Knowles 2000; Beritelli 2011; Cassidy, Guilding 2011; Gualini 2006; ETC 2013; Pechlaner, Tschurtschenthaler 2003; UNWTO 2011; Wang, Ap 2013].

According to D.L. Edgell [1990; Edgell *et al.,* 2008] the primary objective of the tourism policy currently carried out at the governmental level should be to integrate economic benefits with social and cultural development of countries and tourist reception areas in order to improve the quality of life for local inhabitants, increase welfare and balance the development of particular countries. Ch.R. Goeldner and J.R.B. Ritchie [2006] draw attention to the fact that tourism policy should be used to provide tourists with an appropriate service system, maximizing profits for local entrepreneurs while minimizing negative effects of tourism development within a given area. Therefore, the focus here is on promoting tourism development based on the terms of sustainable development.[21]

[20] This model is valid in the majority of European countries (also in Poland and Switzerland), At the national level, the most common regularity is the separation of administrative and executive functions between tourist administration authorities known as NTA (National Tourism Administration), situated in the central administration structure as well as NTO (National Tourism Organization) dealing with marketing and the country''s tourist promotion.

[21] The assumptions of sustainable tourism policy relate to aiming at achieving a balance between economic development, social development, and reasonable management of the natural environment qualities in order to preserve their resources for present and future generations [UNWTO, WTTC, Earth Council 1996; Ritchie 2003].

Sustainable development is a very broad notion and is currently often raised in relation to the tourism industry, particularly in the context of climate change and unfavorable consequences of tourism development in numerous areas of tourist reception [Connell, Page, Bentley 2009; Lee, Schaaf 2005; Priskin 2009; Tosun 2001; Yasarata *et al.*, 2010]. The devastation of the natural environment particularly affects regions whose attractiveness depends on the quality of natural resources (nature-based tourism). According to the report from the World Tourism Organization entitled: "*Climate Change and Tourism: Responding to Global Challenge*", 4–6% of greenhouse gas emissions come from the dynamic development of the tourism industry in the world [UNWTO 2008].

One of the most endangered European areas in terms of extensive use of natural resources is that of the Alps. Numerous studies devoted to this issue have been published in recent years [e.g., Abegg, Agrawala, Crick, de Montfalcon 2007; Agrawala 2007; Klimek, Scaglione, Schegg, Matos 2011]. Researchers indicate that there is a strong tie between irreversible damage to the natural environment and the development of mass tourism, whose climax in the Alps falls in the 1970s, 1980s and 1990s. Expansive tourism policy in numerous Alpine regions is related, among others, to the seizure of land to expand areas intended for tourist infrastructure.[22] This has a huge impact on the deterioration of the landscape as well as air and water pollution, and the degradation of fauna and flora. For this reason, according to a Swiss ecologist J. Krippendorf, tourism is the greatest "landscape eater", causing irreversible changes to it [Krippendorf 1987].

G. Greenwood [2005] emphasizes the fact that 80% of mountain regions in the world, the offer of which is based on winter tourism, are particularly exposed to climate change caused by the greenhouse effect.

Switzerland experienced this particularly painfully, especially in the 1990s. Global warming and the presence of winters without snow contributed to significant fluctuations in tourist demand causing a crisis in the tourism industry [Serquet, Rebetez 2011].

The Swiss government, wishing to remedy these unfavorable phenomena, assumed, as its primary objective for all actions regarding tourism policy carried out since the early '90s, a departure from the formula of mass tourism and support for the development of quality tourism, based on respect for natural resources [SECO 2013].

The next part of this article presents the current situation in Swiss tourism, as well as basic assumptions of policy implemented at the federal level, which constitutes the basis for a decentralized tourism policy conducted simultaneously on three levels, i.e., cantons, regions, and municipalities.

[22] Since the early 1950s, Switzerland has built approx. 50 new aerial tramways and ski lifts without taking into account seasonal fluctuations of demand as well as changing climate conditions (e.g., winters without snow) [Klimek 2010, p. 115].

The Significance of Tourism for the Swiss Economy and the Current Situation in This Sector

Tourism has multidirectionally stimulated the socio-economic development of Switzerland for many years. This is manifested by, among others,:

– increasing foreign exchange receipts and revenues from export obtained on account of handling tourist traffic;
– generating added value thus affecting the growth of the Gross Domestic Product;
– creating new jobs and slowing down the depopulation of mountain and peripheral areas;
– expanding and modernizing tourist and tourist-related infrastructure;
– improving the conditions of life for local inhabitants;
– increasing budgets for local government units due to receipts from taxes;[23]
– income from other industries in the economy. [Switzerland Tourism 2003; OFS 2008; OFS 2012a].

On the global scale, Switzerland is ranked among the top twenty countries receiving the highest revenues from incoming tourism [UNWTO 2014]. Switzerland's foreign exchange receipts earned from incoming foreign tourism in 2013 amounted to CHF 15.6 billion (USD 16.5 billion), which amounted to 4.9% of revenue for Swiss exports [FST 2014].

An intersectoral comparison for the years 2006–2013 indicates that tourism is the fourth-largest export industry in Switzerland, ranking just behind the metallurgic and machine sectors, the chemical industry and the watchmaking industry [FST 2014] (see Table 1).

Table 1. Revenues from Swiss exports with breakdown into more important industries in the period 2006–2013 (in CHF billion)

Branches	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
1. Chemical industry	63.0	68.8	71.9	71.8	75.9	74.6	79.0	80.9
2. Metallurgical and machine industry	65.0	72.5	74.0	58.1	63.6	64.0	59.4	60.9
3. Watchmaking industry	13.7	16.0	17.0	13.2	16.2	19.3	21.4	21.8
4. Tourism	**13.5**	**14.6**	**15.0**	**15.0**	**15.5**	**15.6**	**15.0**	**15.6**
5. Textile industry	4.4	4.6	3.7	4.2	4.2	3.2	3.1	–

Source: Fédération suisse du tourisme [2014, p. 8].

[23] Switzerland collects two types of tourist taxes, which are directly transferred to communes: the *taxe de séjour* (temporary fee) and the *taxe d''hébergement* (lodging fee collected from administrators of the accommodation base and owners of apartments and summer homes).

As far as the share of tourism in Switzerland's GDP is concerned, it is estimated at the level of 2.7% [OFS 2012b]. It should be emphasized that the share of tourism in GDP varies from region to region. This share is definitely below the national average in regions that are not developed in terms of tourism, and it is the highest in cantons offering numerous attractions, especially in Alpine areas, i.e., in the cantons Valais, Graubünden (Grisons) and in the Bernese Oberland region. Tourism generates more than 25% of local GDP there [FST 2014; Rütter, Partner 2000, 2001, 2008].

Swiss tourism also stimulates the shape of the job market both at the national and regional levels. It is estimated that every 10th inhabitant of Switzerland works in this sector or in directly-related industries [OFS 2012b]. The results of the last tourism satellite account indicate that 144,000 people are directly employed in tourism [full-time jobs], which amounts to 4.1% of all workers (see Table 2).

Table 2. Share of the Swiss tourism industry in creating jobs and in gross value added in the years 2009–2011

Years	2009	2010	2011
Employment in tourism, full time jobs (thousands of people),	144.4	144.3	144.7
Share of tourist sector in job market (in %)	4.1	4.1	4.1
Share of tourist sector in GDP (in %)	2.8	2.8	2.7

Source: Office Fédéral de la statistique, http://www.bfs.admin.ch/bfs/portal/fr/index/infothek/lexikon.html (15.11.2014).

The condition of tourism in Switzerland largely depends on tendencies in foreign incoming tourism. According to researchers analyzing the Swiss tourism market, the end of the 1980s marks the beginning of the period of "maturity" of the Swiss tourism product, especially "Alpine tourism". Between 1990 and 2012, the number of foreign tourist arrivals in Swiss accommodation facilities declined by as much as 35% (see Table 3).

Table 3. Arrivals of foreign tourists to Switzerland in the period 1990–2013 (spending at least one night in the country) in millions of arrivals

1990	1995	1999	2000	2001	2002	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Change 2013/1990 in %
13.2	6.9	7.1	11.0	10.7	10.0	8.0	8.6	8.2	8.6	8.5	8.5	8.9	–32.5

Source: Own elaboration on UNWTO [2014, 2010].

Despite the fact that, as has been mentioned earlier, the tourism sector in Switzerland is one of the most competitive in the world, certain global trends and endogenic factors determine its present condition [WEF 2013].

These are:

– **Globalization of tourism and pressure from new destinations.** In 1950, Switzerland was the fifth tourist destination in the world and its share in the global tourist market was 8%. Currently, this country has to compete with 190 countries, and its position in the UNWTO ranking of the most visited countries in the world is lower and lower each year. In 2011, Switzerland was ranked 30th (Poland took 19th position in this ranking [UNWTO 2014]).
– **Fluctuation of demand and evolution in tourist behaviors.** Changes in Swiss tourism within the last 50 years are also inseparably related to structural changes in tourist demand on a global scale. After World War II (particularly in the years 1965–1979) Switzerland recorded a tourism boom. This was related to the accumulation of socioeconomic factors fostering the development of mass tourism especially in highly-developed countries. Since the end of the 1980s, we observe the beginning of the period of "maturity" of the Swiss tourism product, especially "Alpine tourism". The decrease in foreign tourist arrivals in Switzerland is mainly due to changing patterns of tourist movement to Switzerland. Due to the abundance of information, contemporary tourists may be characterized as individualistic and more unpredictable [Müller 2005]. Otherwise, more and more visitors are becoming experienced and empowered consumers capable of comparing the value of the tourist offer via easy Internet access [Laesser, Bieger, Beritelli 2007]. An unfavorable exchange rate of the Swiss franc as compared to basic currencies in recent years led to the fact that the offer of other Alpine countries, e.g., Italy and Austria, was more competitive and on average 20–30% less expensive than the one offered by renowned Swiss resorts [BAKBASEL 2012].
– **Structural problems of supply in tourism services**. The loss of Switzerland's significance in foreign incoming tourism also results from the failure to adapt the supply to variable market requirements. The structure of Swiss tourist destinations only partially corresponds to the requirements of a global tourist market. Particularly in smaller mountain destinations, the hotel infrastructure is very fragmented (these are most often small family businesses) which makes it difficult to modernize and quickly adapt to changing market requirements. Frequent problems with the profitability of small hotel companies result in their being shutdown or their conversion into self-catering accommodations for rent or sale. This affects the local job market and the competitiveness of tourism products on a local scale.
– **Impact of climate changes and hazard to natural environment.** Switzerland, as an Alpine country, is particularly exposed to climate

change and global warming, as has been mentioned above. Winters without snow, melting glaciers, and natural disasters are only some of the phenomena that have directly affected the condition of incoming tourism in recent years. Another problem applies to spatial development and the protection of the natural landscape quality. In the second half of the 1950s, the tourist infrastructure was particularly related to a constant expansion of the ski infrastructure (mainly ski lifts and slopes) as well as a huge demand for the purchase of second homes. In numerous mountain towns, this contributed to the devastation of the landscape as well as to unfavorable phenomena related to the contamination of land and air, as well as to irreversible changes in the ecosystem [Switzerland Tourism 2008].

State Tourism Policy and Initiatives for Supporting the Tourism Industry in Switzerland

Tourism Policy at the State Level from 1996–2009

The crisis recorded in Swiss incoming tourism in the 1990s resulted in the need for a greater intervention of the state in the development of this sector [SECO 1996, 2000].

The activities of the Swiss National Tourism organization were modified in the first place with the use of legislative initiatives, transforming this institution into Switzerland Tourism by federal law dated December 21, 1995 [Conseil fédéral 1995]. This organization was given new competences. Apart from promoting Switzerland abroad, it also became a platform for cooperation between Swiss tourism regions[24] and stakeholders, strengthening interregional cooperation.

Then, in order to develop new legal instruments, the authorities prepared a strategic document in 1996 entitled:

"*Rapport sur la politique touristique de la Confédération*" offering innovative solutions that would counteract the stagnation in the tourism industry [Conseil fédéral 1996]. These actions resulted in:

– reducing the VAT rate for accommodation services (VAT reduction from 6.5% to 3.5%);[25]
– establishing a program supporting innovations in tourism in 1998 (Innotour) financed by the Confederation [Conseil fédéral 1998].

[24] Thanks to this cooperation, all important Swiss destinations are promoted on a common online platform: www.mySwitzerland.com. Switzerland Tourism also coordinates the sale of tourism products through an integrated web booking system: STC Switzerland Travel Center.

[25] *Arrêté fédéral du 22.03 1996 instituant un taux spécial de la taxe sur la valeur ajoutée pour les prestations du secteur de l'hébergement.* This act is currently in effect.

Since 2003, the federal government has also been financially supporting the accommodation sector, granting low-interest credit by means of a branch association *Swiss Society of Hotel Credit* (SGH) (Conseil fédéral 2003). In recent years it has allowed for renovation of accommodation facilities and improving the condition of hotels' infrastructure in peripheral areas and in spa and wellness destinations.

New Tourism Policy Based on a "Growth Strategy for Switzerland as a Tourism Destination."

Despite the fact that Swiss banks were involved in the global financial crisis which began in 2007 with the crash of the mortgage market, the Swiss economy hardly experienced its effects (the unemployment rate does not exceed 3%, inflation amounts to 0.6%) [OFS 2012b]. However, the high exchange rate of the Swiss franc compared to the euro that lasted for a long time (especially from 2009 to 2011) and the crisis in major incoming markets [namely countries from the Eurozone] and in the US did have an effect on the condition of Swiss tourism.[26]

Thus, after extensive social consultations with the representatives of all key groups involved in the tourism development, the Federal Council in 2010 accepted the assumptions of the latest tourism policy based on the increase in the importance of tourism for the Swiss economy [SECO 2010]. This new strategy is a continuation of the previous tourism policy to provide better use of resources and potential for tourism development in order to reinforce Switzerland's image as an attractive tourist destination on the international stage (particularly among competing Alpine countries).

The main assumptions of the new tourism policy involve an increase in the role of the Swiss Confederation in supporting tourism development. According to the new strategic principles, it is supposed to be the leader in implementing four strategies performed simultaneously and attributed to the following strategic objectives:

1. improvement in conditions for supporting entrepreneurship (through co-funding innovation and investment projects in tourist destinations as well as supporting cooperation between companies);
2. increase of attractiveness of the Swiss tourism offer;
3. strengthening the image of Switzerland as an attractive tourist destination on the international stage, particularly among competing Alpine countries,
4. pursuit of a tourism policy based on the assumptions of sustainable development.

[26] In 2009, an 8% decrease was recorded in the number of bednights in Swiss hotels as compared to the previous year. This unfavorable tendency particularly affected Alpine regions where the decrease in the number of beds amounted to –13.3%.

These four strategies, implemented simultaneously as part of two strategic axes, are assigned to these objectives:

I. Improvement in the framework conditions of tourism development;
II. Promotion of tourism destinations (see Figure 1).

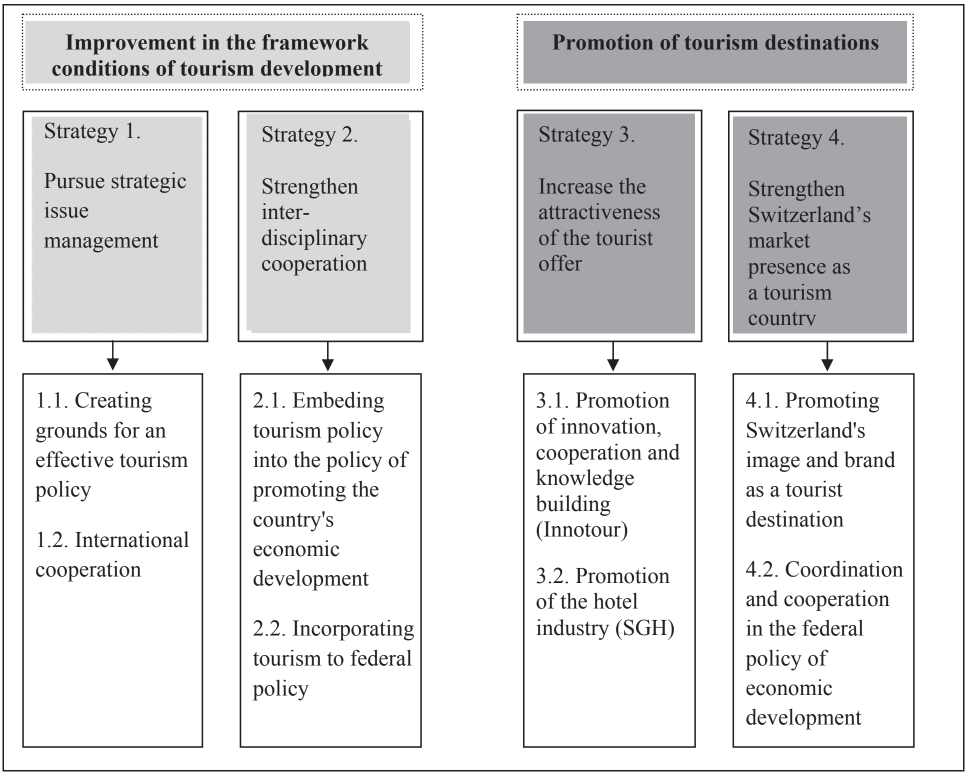

Figure 1. New Swiss tourism policy principles
Source: [SECO 2010, p. 6].

The assumptions of the four strategies mentioned above are discussed briefly below.

Strategy 1. Pursue strategic issue management

This strategy intends to tackle issues related to state intervention in solving key problems of tourism development, e.g., implementation of strategic and legal solutions to minimize: negative consequences of climate changes; conflicts between various interest groups; planning and monitoring the expansion of tourism based on the principles of sustainable development, etc. The beneficiaries of this strategy are tourism organizations and companies. This strategy is implemented by the Tourism Department (*Service du tourisme*) of the Office of Economic Development (SECO).

This strategy also assumes monitoring the place of tourism in the economy by fostering statistical research related to: the tourism satellite account, the tourist balance, monitoring of domestic and foreign tourist markets and the competitiveness of tourist destinations. These tasks were entrusted to the Swiss Federal Statistical Office and the research institute BAKBASEL (Basel Economics). Moreover, demand data is collected by Switzerland Tourism based on surveys conducted among tourists visiting Switzerland.

In addition, the Swiss Federal Council has been developing an exchange platform for strategic questions relating to the new tourism policy. Under the heading "Tourism Forum Switzerland" (FTS), regular meetings are being held between federal authorities and the representatives of cantons, regions and tourist destinations. The purpose of FTS is to monitor tendencies in Swiss tourism, solve problems and conflicts, and improve cooperation in the Swiss tourism industry. The first forum was held in Bern in November 2012.

Strategy 2. Strengthen inter-disciplinary cooperation

Since tourism is a heterogeneous industry, the new tourism policy requires cooperation with other sectors of the national economy. The following policy areas, amongst others, are important for tourism development:

– *regional development and planning* (tourism should be developed in those areas where the raw materials for tourism exist: e.g., Zermatt lies at the foot of the Matterhorn, etc.);
– *transport policy* (by providing tourists with public transport to tourist attractions and promoting environmentally-friendly transport, i.e., soft mobility both in mountain resorts and in urban agglomerations);
– *support for agriculture* (e.g., by using the existing synergy between agricultural producers and hotel and restaurant owners, and the development of agritourism);
– *policy of environmental protection and protected areas* (mainly related to following the principles of sustainable development);
– *policy related to climate changes* (which has a huge impact on the present and future Swiss tourist offer).

The new tourism policy is also a part of a greater whole, namely the promotion of Switzerland‘s economic development. It fits into several strategic solutions, among others:

– strategy to boost entrepreneurship and foreign investments in Switzerland,[27]
– integrated promotion of Swiss exports.

[27] Meaning the introduction of administrative facilitations for companies, among others, through the introduction of computerized administration, the promotion of innovations, and facilitating entry into new markets.

Strategy 3. Increase the attractiveness of the tourist offer

This strategy focuses on promoting innovations, collaboration between entities operating in the tourism industry and knowledge building (gathering information and exchanging good practices). First of all, the emphasis is put on support for tourism by means of revised federal legislation concerning, as previously mentioned, the Innotour program.

In addition, this strategy aims at strengthening the competitiveness of the hotel industry. This applies to supporting domestic administrators of accommodation facilities by providing them with the possibility to use low-interest loans.[28]

Strategy 4. Strengthening Switzerland's market presence as a tourism country

The aim of this strategy is to coordinate the marketing efforts of companies and tourism organizations on the local, regional, and cantonal level.

The increasing globalization tendencies have meant greater importance to promotion on the national level. The following tasks are performed by Switzerland Tourism (a national tourism organization) to increase the competitive advantage of the country:

– commercialization of innovative tourism products via various distribution channels, including various online platforms;
– promotion of Switzerland as an attractive tourist destination both in the domestic market and abroad;[29]
– implementation of integrated marketing of destinations combined with Switzerland‘s economic promotion through the cooperation of Switzerland Tourism with OSEC Business Network Switzerland,[30]
– combination of destination marketing with simultaneous promotion of Swiss agricultural products[31].

[28] As has already been mentioned, these credits are granted by the Swiss Confederation via the Swiss Society of Hotel Credits (SGH). For the years 2012–2015, SGH had a budget amounting to CHF 136 million [SECO 2010, p. 7].

[29] In the winter 2009–2010 Switzerland Tourism conducted an intensive promotional campaign for Switzerland in the domestic market and in 3 strategic markets (Germany, France, and Italy]. This required the launch of additional funds amounting to CHF 15 million by the Confederation. This campaign resulted in 1.4 million bednights and CHF 400 million in revenue from tourist arrivals [SECO 2012, p. 7]

[30] The institution OSEC Business Network Switzerland has been fulfilling operational tasks related to promoting the Swiss economy on the international stage since January 1, 2008.

[31] Since 2009, SECO has been cooperating with the Federal Office for Agriculture (OFAG) and agricultural and tourist townships to promote regional products.

The Implementation Program for New Tourism Policy to Increase the Importance of Tourism for Swiss Economy (2012–2015)

The application of the new tourism policy began in February 2012 within the framework of the "Implementation Program" approved by the Swiss Parliament for the years 2012–2015. This program includes 30 key tasks intended to stimulate tourism development in Switzerland, listed in Table 4.

Table 4. Main tasks of implementation program

Strategies and main objectives	Projects and tasks for central administration
Strategy 1. Pursue strategic issue management	
Objective 1.1 Creating grounds for an effective tourism policy	1. Developing methodology for tourism satellite account. 2. Intensifying statistical studies regarding registration of tourists in hotel database (HESTA). 3. Introducing statistics regarding registration of tourists in self-catering accommodation (i.e., in second homes and mountain apartments) in the so-called PASTA base. 4. Supporting statistical and benchmark studies regarding forecasts for Swiss tourism and the competitiveness of Switzerland on the international stage (BAKBASEL). 5. Preparing a database of tourism know-how (good practices) to share knowledge between all actors of the Swiss tourist market.[14] 6. Organizing the Tourism Forum Switzerland (FTS) for exchanging information, monitoring and solving problems of the tourism industry. 7. Publishing a newsletter concerning Swiss and international tourism policy.
Objective 1.2. International cooperation	8. Intensifying cooperation with the United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO). 9. Closer cooperation with the OECD Tourism Committee. 10. Intensifying cooperation with the European Union regarding work on tourism policy (exchange of experience and benchmarking). 11. Developing cooperation and exchange of experience regarding shaping tourism policy with other Alpine countries. 12. Using good practices related to the synergy between OECD countries' tourist policies and their economic development.

[14] This action applies to the following issues: improving the quality of tourism products, repositioning Switzerland's offer as a summer destination, the adaptation of the development of tourism to climate changes.

Table 4. cont.

Strategies and main objectives	Projects and tasks for central administration
Strategy 2. Strengthening inter-disciplinary cooperation	
Objective 2.1. Embedding tourism policy into the policy of promoting the country's economic development	13. Optimizing cooperation between the new regional policy (NRP)[15] and the tourism policy. 14. Entering priorities for tourism development into the policy of promoting Switzerland's economic development.
Objective 2.2. Incorporating tourism into federal policy	15. Closer cooperation between SECO and the Federal Office for Spatial Development (ARE)[16]. 16. Preparing a document on compliance with the principles of sustainable development in tourism policy. 17. Intensifying cooperation between SECO and the Federal Office for the Environment (OFEV). 18. Valorization of agritourism potential (incorporating agricultural tourism services into the creation of tourism products), 19. Using common points between Switzerland's tourism policy and power policy.
Strategy 3. Improving the quality of the tourism offer	
Objective 3.1 Promotion of innovation, cooperation and knowledge-building (Innotour)	20. Enabling SECO as an information point when it comes to the condition of tourism in Switzerland. 21. Establishing an online platform for exchanging knowledge and experience between beneficiaries of the Innotour program. 22. Funding and implementing Innotour's model projects (bottom-up approach, i.e., the implementation of projects without main themes) (see item 4.2) 23. Funding and implementing Innotour's model projects (top-down, i.e., on the basis of issues determined by SECO). 24. Developing the Milestone program as a platform for innovations in tourism

[15] The new regional policy (NPR) and territorial organization policy was implemented in 2008. Its purpose is a holistic and long-term economic development of cantons with emphasis on the development of entrepreneurship and cooperation between cantons to stimulate tourism at regional and local levels.

[16] The project of the new territorial division in Switzerland from the point of view of the attractiveness of tourist regions, entitled "Projet de territoire Suisse", is one of the tasks conducted as part of the development of interdepartmental cooperation.

Objective 3.2 Promotion of the hotel industry (SGH)	25. Introducing legal facilitations encouraging hotel owners to finance the modernization of accommodation facilities by means of low-interest credits granted by SGH. 26. Introducing additional funds for the modernization of the tourist infrastructure.[17]
Strategy 4. Strengthening Switzerland's market presence as a tourism country	
Objective 4.1 Promoting Switzerland's image and brand as a tourist destination	27. In the years 2012–2013, the implementation of a program aimed at mitigating negative effects of the unfavorably high exchange rate of the Swiss franc. 28. Coordination and supervision of a project entitled: "Re-Invent Summer" implemented by Switzerland Tourism.[18] 29. Following the assumptions of the sustainable development policy.
Objective 4.2 Coordination and cooperation in the federal policy of economic development	30. Using similarities/synergies between the strategy of tourist marketing implemented by Switzerland Tourism and the marketing of Swiss agricultural products on priority markets.

Source: [SECO 2012, pp. 6–7].

As we can see, Swiss authorities are actively participating in the support of long-term and sustainable development of tourism in this country and the tourism policy (documents from the years: 1996, 2010 and 2012) is characterized by a high degree of consistency. Switzerland's tourism policy is thus one of the basic factors stimulating past, present, and future tourism development in this country.

Two Examples of Best Practice to Boost the Competitiveness of Swiss Tourism

Destination Management Organization Concept

As mentioned before, currently most Swiss destinations are in a mature stage of their development so they are more vulnerable to demand fluctuations, and environmental and economic stresses.

[17] Due to the high exchange rate of the Swiss franc, SGH received additional financial support for the years 2012–2015 from the Confederation to grant credits on preferential conditions to hotel owners.

[18] This is related to the development of a competitive tourism offer and the promotion of Switzerland on the international stage as a summer destination.

Thus, strategic and integrated management of tourism is taking on ever-greater importance to find the right balance between socio-economic development of tourist resorts and their environmental protection to differentiate and strengthen their competitive position.

The model of Destination Management Organisation (DMO) based on public-private partnerships was developed in Switzerland by Th. Bieger and his team from the St. Gallen University in the mid-1990s [Bieger, Freyer 2005].

The term Destination Management Organization (DMO) refers to a coalition of many organizations and interests working together towards mutual goals [UNWTO 2007]. This organization does not control the activities of their partners but has the leading position in developing and managing partnerships through the destination to enhance its long-term competitiveness [Pike 2004]. The primary role of DMOs in the holistic management of tourist destinations focuses on planning, service coordination, marketing, branding, promotion and lobbying. These tasks are usually fulfilled at the local, regional or national level [Buhalis 2000; Gretzel *et al.* 2006].

Switzerland is one of the first countries where the destination management model was implemented. Figure 3 summarizes the evolution in destination management in Swiss destinations from the 1960s. From a product-based focus, destination management has evolved to a more cooperative system.

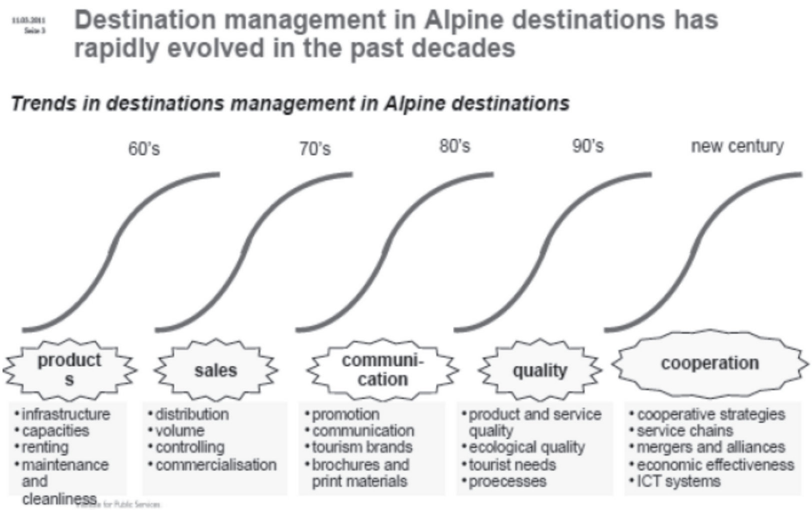

Figure 2. The development of integrated destination management in Switzerland
Source: [Bieger, Lasser, Beritelli 2010, p. 5].

Currently, scientists from St. Gallen University have been developing the 3rd generation DMO model. It is a structure that goes beyond the geographic boundaries of the destination and creates a network of relations necessary for holistic management of a tourist area by means of delegating certain tasks to external entities [Bieger, Lasser, Beritelli 2010]. The Confederation is financing the implementation of this concept in six Swiss tourist destinations.

Innotour Program

Development of integrated management and other innovative solutions are supported by the Confederation in the framework of the Innotour program. The purpose of this project, under way since 1998, is to implement innovations in tourism both at the national and regional levels.

Confederation financial support for the years 2012–2015 was budgeted at the level of CHF 20 million for the most innovative projects submitted by entrepreneurs, scientific-research units, and public institutions.[19]

There are five major domains supported by this program (top-down approach):

1. Implementation of new, innovative products and channels of distribution for tourism services, e.g., development of summer villages in selected tourist destinations.[20]
2. Improvement of existing tourism services, e.g., implementation of Swiss quality management system – *Label de qualité*
3. Development of new organizational structures both in tourist companies and in destination management, e.g., DMOs of 3rd generation.
4. Improvement of professional skills, e.g., elaboration of new training program for mountain guides.
5. Research and development, e.g., financial support for research drawn up by Basel Economics (BAK) on "International Benchmarking and the Development of Urban Tourism".

Novelties introduced for the third edition of the Innotour program until the year 2015 focus on:

– supporting the most innovative projects, surpassing the five thematic domains mentioned above, submitted by entities from the tourism industry based on a bottom-up approach.
– granting additional financial funds by the Confederation for sharing knowledge and experience as well as implementing and monitoring the implementation of the best projects.

[19] It should be added that only consortiums consisting of several entities, i.e., tourist destinations, scientific and research institutions, can apply for finanacial support.The amount of financing each time is 50% of the requested sum.

[20] Currently, Innotour's funds are used to finance a guide for townships as well as tourist investors entitled: "*Implementation de villages de vacances et d'hôtels. Guide pour les communes, les autorités et les promoteurs touristiques*". [Implementation of holiday villages and hotels. Guide for townships, authorities and tourist entities – translated by the author]. This project aims at increasing the tourist occupancy in the long-term perspective through an optimized commercialization strategy. The guide presents all procedures and stages for creating this type of infrastructure within tourist communes.

To receive financial support, three basic conditions have to be met:

– contributing to strengthening Switzerland‘s competitiveness as an attractive country in terms of tourism;
– complying with the principles of sustainable tourism development;
– creating employment opportunities for local communities.[21]

Every year the best and the most innovative projects are awarded the prestigious *Milestone Award*. It is the most prestigious award granted since 2000 to the best tourist companies and individuals operating in the Swiss tourism industry. Milestone is also a platform for exchanging information and experience between the most innovative tourist companies.

Tourism policy in Poland. Swiss good practices regarding public-private partnerships and commercialization of tourism products.

Tourism is becoming an important field of business activities also in Poland, especially after joining of the European Union in 2004 [ETC 2014]. In the years 2002–2012, the number of foreign tourist arrivals rose by 4.2%[22] (see Table 5).

Table 5. Arrivals of foreign tourists in Poland in the period 2002–2012 (spending at least one night in the country) in millions of arrivals

2002	**2003**	**2004**	**2005**	**2006**	**2007**	**2008**	**2009**	**2010**	**2011**	**2012**	**Change 2012/2002 in %**
14.2	13.7	14.3	15.2	15.7	15.0	13	11.8	12.4	13.3	14.8	4.2

Source: Institute of Tourism, http://www.intur.com.pl/itenglish/arrivals.php?r=99 (15.11.2014).

According to the last report of World Travel and Tourism Council, the direct contribution of tourism to Poland’s GDP in 2013 amounted to PLN 34.7 billion (USD 11.3 billion) (2.1% of GDP) and this is forecast to rise by 5.2% each year, from 2014 to 2024. Tourism plays a significant role in Poland‘s trade exchange and employment rate. At present, 4.9% of total exports and 2.2% of employment are generated by the tourism industry (WTTC 2014).

[21] Until this day, the Innotour program has financed more than 300 projects, on the one hand fostering development of local entrepreneurship, creation of new jobs and, on the other hand, strengthening Switzerland’’s image as a tourist destination that is still innovative and competitive.

[22] The method used in Poland to provide the number of tourist arrivals and the basic characteristics of tourists is based on international tourist arrivals at borders (including one-day visitors), (Ministry of Sport and Tourism of Poland 2012). Since Poland joined the Schengen area, precise counting of incoming traffic is not possible.

As regards Polish tourism policy, the leading strategic document for tourism development in Poland is "*Directions for Tourism development until 2015*" and "*Programme of tourism development until 2020*". Those documents not only define tasks for the Polish government aiming for a harmonious and sustainable development of the tourist sector but also indicate actions in which all tourism stakeholders should be involved, e.g., local government units, non-governmental organizations, entrepreneurs, trade organizations, and the scientific environment.

Both governmental strategies bear some resemblance to the tourism policy implemented in Switzerland, especially regarding the reference to the significance of tourism for economic development and its links with other industries (among others, the construction and transport industries, and agriculture, environmental protection and sustainable development).[23]

One of the main goals in regard to tourism development in Poland until 2015 is to shape a legal and institutional framework favorable to public-private partnerships (PPP) and the development of competitive tourism products.

The Law on public-private partnership (PPP) has been binding in Poland since 2009. However, as is shown by reports from the Polish Agency for Enterprise Development (PARP) and the PPP Foundation Centre, public-private partnerships relate to tourism and its management system only to a small extent [Herbst, Jadach-Sepioło 2012; Herbst, Jagusztyn-Krynicki, Szewczyk 2012]. The Law on PPP simply underlines the fact that the partners should jointly split tasks and risks between the public and private partners without giving them any specific regulations defining the category of risks, which affects the implementation of this law in practice. According to R. Stanek and D. Toft [2011] and the last PARP report [2013], legal barriers, lack of experience in local government offices, and psychological barriers (fear of the unknown) in public-private cooperation constitute the main obstacles to PPP development in Poland.

When it comes to the tourism sector, interviews carried out by the author in 2011 [Klimek 2013a] with the representatives of local and regional tourism organizations in Poland confirm PPP constraints and demonstrate that managers of these entities were afraid of cooperation with private partners. Comparative studies conducted by the author in Poland, Switzerland and other Alpine countries [Klimek 2013b] also reveal important differences in destination management.

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[23] The government side appointed an interdepartmental team of experts to pursue statutory tasks determined in the study. The *"Information on the Implementation of Statutory Tasks of Members of the Interdepartmental Team for the Coordination of Governmental Tasks in 2012"* specified in the *"Directions of Tourism Development until 2015"* published in 2012 demonstrates that particular ministries were involved in the implementation of numerous tasks. However, some of them do not refer directly to tourism but contain a description of implemented projects used, e.g., to stimulate entrepreneurship and increase the competitiveness of the Polish economy by supporting innovations in the industry and services.

In contrast to Swiss DMOs, the role of Polish tourism organizations is limited only to information and tourism promotion but these entities are not managing the places of tourist reception in an integrated manner. For this reason the DMO concept is still hardly known in this country.

Moreover, the author‘s current analysis of 56 Polish and 49 Swiss tourism organizations websites [Klimek 2014] demonstrates important differences with regard to the role of tourist organizations in commercializing tourist products.

Poland, like Switzerland, has a three-level system of promotion and tourism management. According to the Act on the Polish Tourism Organization [Journal of Laws 1999, No. 62, item 689], one of the most important tasks for regional and local tourism organizations in Poland should be the development of tourism products around tourist attractions.

Hence, currently, not one local or regional tourism organization in Poland is developing integrated tourism products (holiday offers, accommodations, transportation, tickets, etc.) [Klimek 2013 a, b, 2014]. Those products are not commercialized at the national level by the Polish Tourism Organization either.

In contrast to Poland, the majority (approx. 90%) of Swiss tourism organizations sell various forms of accommodations by means of online booking systems. Tourism offers in the form of packages of services are also commercialized using different Internet tools[24] [Klimek 2014]. This is only achievable thanks to active cooperation between different suppliers on the basis of public-private partnerships [Bornhorst, Ritchie, Sheehan 2010].

Hence, Swiss DMOs seem to be an ideal reference point for Polish destinations to increase their competitiveness, thanks to the implementation of integrated management. For this reason, the government‘s actions regarding tourism policy in Poland should head in this direction.

Conclusion

Switzerland can be considered the cradle of modern tourism, where innovative solutions in tourism policy and holistic management have been implemented for many years.

The consistent concept of tourism policy and tools implemented in this country indicates how important tourism development is for Swiss authorities. Initiatives embedding tourism development into a comprehensive state economic policy and searching for synergy between tourism and other branches seem to be particularly interesting.

Moreover, putting emphasis on monitoring the tourist market, financial support for the hotel industry and constant improvement of quali-

[24] A service package is any previous combination of at least two services offered to the customer as one product [Kaczmarek, Stasiak, Włodarczyk 2005].

ty through the development of innovations can be considered as a set of good practices regarding the direction in which the tourism development should be headed.

Swiss solutions related to the destination management concept based on public-private partnerships seem to be particularly valuable and transferable to Polish tourism.

However, the result of the studies cited above and previous observations of the tourism market in Poland suggest that currently there is not sufficient teamwork and constructive cooperation that would integrate all stakeholders, a basic concept of the DMO approach.

Therefore, successful implementation of integrated management in Poland will not be possible without a change in the attitude of public and private stakeholders concerning the advantages of common cooperation.

The present study was limited to Polish and Swiss tourism development. The critical analysis of integrated management strategies of other European DMOs would constitute an interesting option for an extension of this research. Thus, it would help to get more information in those key areas to reinforce the competitiveness of European tourism destinations.

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PROTURYSTYCZNA POLITYKA PAŃSTWA SZWAJCARSKIEGO. WYBRANE DOBRE PRZYKŁADY DLA TURYSTYKI POLSKIEJ

Abstrakt

Cel pracy. Ukazanie rosnącej roli państwa we wprowadzaniu rozwiązań strategicznych w celu stymulowania holistycznego rozwoju turystyki w Szwajcarii.
Metoda. Jako metodę badawczą zastosowano analizę jakościową danych źródłowych pochodzących ze Szwajcarskiego Departamentu ds. Ekonomii (SECO) oraz Szwajcarskiej Federacji Turystycznej, Ministerstwa Sportu i Turystyki Rzeczpospolitej Polskiej, Polskiej Organizacji Turystycznej. Dokonano także porównawczej analizy stron internetowych 49 szwajcarskich oraz 16 regionalnych i 50 lokalnych polskich organizacji turystycznych.
Wyniki. W artykule zaprezentowano przekrojowe studium dotyczące pro-turystycznej polityki państwa implementowanej w Szwajcarii w okresie ostatnich 19 lat. Ponadto analiza porównawcza stosowanych rozwiązań strategicznych w zakresie stymulowania rozwoju turystyki w Szwajcarii oraz w Polsce pozwoliła ukazać zdecydowane różnice jeśli chodzi o rolę partnerstwa publiczno-prywatnego w zarządzaniu turystyką oraz w zakresie komercjalizacji produktów turystycznych przez szwajcarskie oraz polskie organizacje turystyczne.
Ograniczania badań i wnioskowania. Analiza porównawcza dotyczyła jedynie porównań w zakresie polityki pro-turystycznej Szwajcarii i Polski oraz roli polskich oraz szwajcarskich organizacji turystycznych.
Implikacje praktyczne. Opisane w artykule przykłady mogą stanowić zestaw dobrych praktyk dla decydentów i organów rządowych zajmujących się wspieraniem rozwoju turystyki w Polsce, w celu stworzenia efektywnieszego systemu zarządzania turystyką.
Oryginalność. Innowacyjne rozwiązania pro-turystyczne stosowane w Szwajcarii są rzadko prezentowane w opracowaniach naukowych publikowanych w Polsce.
Rodzaj pracy. Artykuł o charakterze przeglądowym.

Słowa kluczowe: rozwój społeczno-gospodarczy, proturystyczna polityka państwa szwajcarskiego, programy wsparcia turystyki na poziomie krajowym, partnerstwo publiczno-prywante, Destination Management Organizations (DMOs).

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NEW MARKETING MANAGEMENT PARADIGMS: FACING LEADING CONSUMER TRENDS AND THEIR REPERCUSSIONS FOR THE TOURISM INDUSTRY

*Magdalena Kachniewska**

Abstract

Purpose. The paper seeks to formulate the leading contemporary market trends and their repercussions for a future marketing paradigm.
Method. A structured mind-mapping technique, STEEP analysis matrix and the roundtable discussion were used during the workshops with tourism industries representatives, academia teachers and new media specialists. Through an intuitive-logical process, leading trends in the future of tourism were explored.
Findings. The paper outlines key (consumer) trends in the global market and identifies their influence on tourism. As a result, two marketing model options were formulated.
Research and conclusion limitations. The results of the analysis should be discussed further, as the change in marketing paradigm is just one of many possible repercussions of contemporary trends. The diversity of challenges introduced by new trends and new media emergence need special attention, due to multivariate changes it may produce on the demand and supply sides of tourism market. The tourism industry faces a set of interdependent circumstances that need to be monitored and analyzed using different future scenarios.
Practical implications. This paper will be of immense value to researchers and industry leaders, and even more so since the team of the STEEP analysis contributors covered the representatives of five tourism associations, new technology industry leaders, academia teachers, and consulting firms' representatives.
Originality. The paper contributes to the knowledge of tourism policy planners and managers. It helps to recognize, consider, and reflect uncertainties they are likely to face. The work is also valuable for the international tourism foresight community by discussing the leading trends and influencing their marketing options.
Type of paper. Research paper

Keywords: consumer trends, hospitality management, marketing paradigm, post-modern marketing.

* Ph.D., Associate Professor, Warsaw School of Economics, Collegium of World Economy, Chair of Tourism [dr hab. Prof SGH, Szkoła Główna Handlowa, Kolegium Gospodarki Światowej, Katedra Turystyki]; e-mail: magdalena.kachniewska@sgh.waw.pl.

Introduction

"Interest in the future has grown rapidly in recent years, because the future is happening to us faster" [Cornish 1979, p. 3]. Nowadays, the statement seems more relevant than ever before. As a result, recognizing the changes affecting tourism and determining its direction in the coming years are paramount to a demand-driven travel industry. The emergence of the global economy and the "new economy" (or "new media-based" economy) is without a doubt the major development that will shape international and domestic tourism over the next 20 years. New technology and new media, combined with an ageing population and the emergence of Generation Y, will have massive and far reaching consequences on consumer habits and imply significant further restructuring within the travel and related leisure time industries. For decision makers, the trends that are transforming the world have several implications: today's managers and policy makers are faced with an increasingly complex task, namely to anticipate and adapt to a change. One of the most urgent issues reflects the transformation of marketing management paradigm.

The Choice of Future Exploration Method (FEM) – Literature Review

The identification of future trends and the anticipation of market changes have become determinant to the competitiveness of organizations and tourism destinations. The term "foresight" refers to an open and collective process of purposeful, future-oriented exploration, involving deliberation between heterogeneous actors in science and technology arenas, with a view to formulating shared visions and strategies that take better account of future opportunities and threats [Nazarko, Ejdys 2011, p. 15]. The use and importance of future studies for tourism-related activities is being acknowledged by academic and other stakeholders related to the industry [e.g., Coates 1985; Yong *et al*. 1989; Altinay *et al*. 2000; Olsen, Connolly 2000; Masini 2001; Voros 2003; List 2004; Yeoman *et al*. 2005; Liu *et al*. 2008; Pan *et al*. 2008]. Strategic choices within tourism destinations, global companies and tourism SMEs, have to be made with significant immediate financial repercussions and potentially huge long-term implications. M. Keenan and R. Popper [2007] state that although foresight is definitely not a panacea to address this difficult challenge, it can assist decision makers and "reduce technological, economic or social uncertainties by identifying alternative futures and various policy options; it can lead to better informed decisions by bringing together different communities of practice with their complementary knowledge and experiences" [Keenan, Popper 2007, p. 5].

As tourism is a demand-defined concept, tourists constitute one of the most important groups of stakeholders. Some industry leaders and academics try to predict the future trends of tourism solely on the basis of tourism consumer trends. The idea might strengthen the industry's ability to produce incremental innovations, but it does not contribute to discontinuous innovations (like the credit card payments or mobile tour-guides, which were the result of technology innovations). Proactive market orientation needs to be based on a "broad market scanning" [Olsen, Sallis 2006], as what happens in one branch is often driven by what happens in other branches [Naisbitt 1982].

Adopting this approach in exploring tourism trends helps to identify market trends in a broad sense, not limited to a field of tourism. It requires careful observation of trends in many other industries or human activities, including the emergence of new values and lifestyles. While choosing the right method for the exploration of tourism trends for the purpose of this paper and research, a mix of some elements of the most popular foresight methods was followed, namely: brainstorming, expert panels, futures workshops, and scenarios. The approach facilitated the broadening of perspectives by including techniques to liberate the creativity of the participants [van Notten *et al*. 2003, p. 432; Borjesson *et al.* 2006].

The foundation for this paper was laid during a well-attended 1st Tourism Forum of Carpathian Countries in Rzeszow (May 2014). The research was started during the Experts Group Meeting. A structured mind-mapping technique (The Futures Wheel) and STEEP analysis matrix were used. The roundtable discussion covered observations of specialists with a different interest on the matter (7 academia teachers from Poland, Slovakia, Great Britain, and Germany, 12 tourism industry leaders from Poland, Germany, Slovakia, Italy, US, and Great Britain, 8 new-tech experts from Poland, US, Denmark, and Germany). Through an intuitive-logical process, the exercise enabled the identification of leading market trends and the formulation of their repercussions for tourism in the field of marketing management (new marketing management paradigms).

Main Tourism Issues and Consumer Trends – the Contribution of the Experts' Discussion and Literature Review

The new dynamics of the 21st century led to a new competitive environment in the field of tourism and hospitality business. Change is brought about by external forces or trends having direct or indirect effects on tourism industry. At the end of the 20th century, in the most developed countries, economy and society experienced a profound transformation. The emerging post-industrial society can be characterized by the dominance of the service industry, higher disposable income and more conscious consumers (more and more quality-oriented, rejecting undifferentiated mass products) [Arva, Deli-Gray 2010]. Perhaps the most important developments set to change the face of tourism are of demographic and social character.

During the Experts' panel discussion, it was emphasized that the rapid ageing of the population in tourism-generating countries, the rise of the middle classes in emerging markets, and the transformation in the global composition of the travel and tourism economy, will increasingly influence demand and supply. According to the Experts, globalization is arguably the most important phenomenon of the last half of the 20th century. It is not only a mega-trend in social, economic, and political contexts, but it also manifests itself in changes in patterns of culture and consumption. The consumption-related nature and consequences of globalization result in an ongoing diffusion of new forms of retailing and customers' behavior (consumption styles). These changes can be observed in the trends of homogenization and heterogenization of consumer behavior, ecologization, ethnocentrism and internationalism of consumers, and pro-quality orientation. All of these trends can also be identified in the literature research [Keillor *et al*. 2001; Arva, Deli-Gray 2010; Kachniewska 2011].

During the panel discussion, the representatives of hotel chains mainly noticed homogenization, which is the unification of consumers' behavior by providing them with the same product at similar prices (sometimes identical), by means of the same channels of distribution. The advertising campaign of a given product is identical in all countries. Within tourism, the trend can be observed in the field of mass tourism and partly within business tourism (hotel chain offer). However, the opposing trends towards ethnocentrism and experience tourism make tourists look for authenticity and "local specialities" more and more often – this trend was stressed by the tour-operator representatives. Also the heterogenization of consumption stands in contrast to the process of homogenization. The former focuses on the diversity of consumers' attitudes.

The ethnocentrism – preferring state and regional products to foreign ones – is especially important within tourism (spending holidays in one's home country, looking for accommodations and restaurants cultivating traditional products and design). The academia members noticed that the concept of consumer ethnocentrism comes from the general concept of ethnocentrism that consists of only focusing one's attention to their own nation [see also Kwak *et al*. 2006].

All of the Panelists also emphasized another trend – the ecologization of consumption – which represents the consequence of consumers' ecological awareness being developed, their growing concern about the natural environment, and the pressure on international companies to prove their eco-friendliness. Ecologization can be observed in the growth of consumers' interest in ecological food consumption, environmentally-friendly goods and services, in the growth consumers' awareness and the sense of responsibility concerning their choices, as well as the growth of consumers' awareness regarding the value and use of their lives. Consumers are more health conscious than ever before. Exercise and physical activities are becoming more and more popular. The growing importance of health and beauty makes tourism suppliers provide appropriate services (health clubs, sporting facilities, alternative menus in restaurants, and "body assistance" in SPA centers). In parallel, a growing shortage of leisure time makes it a most precious commodity. More and more consumers are now carefully considering what to commit their leisure time to, including how to get uninterrupted rest [see also Belk 1995]. This means that decisions on time commitment are being made not in terms of the cost of leisure activities but based on the most desirable way to spend scarce hours.

Change is taking place in lifestyles and within demographics. The Panelists noticed that it covers the decline in birth rates, late parenting, dual career households, ageing population, increased life expectancy, new values and lifestyles of the so-called Generation Y, a changing workplace, and the growing need for lifelong learning. New customers and new tourists are not only more affluent – so less price conscious – and more quality oriented but they are also seeking activity, participation, fantasy, and experience. These new types of tourists are interested rather in the aesthetic aspects of life and are seeking highly differentiated, personalized experiences. Consumers have become involved and their response has been to start to take back control.

New technology leaders emphasized how telecommunication and mobile services change the way people work, learn, teach, shop, the way they are entertained, cared for, in terms of social, legal, and medical services and – of course – the way they travel. The new, well-educated, mobile consumer has greater than ever expectations towards quality, service and security. Digitalization leads to the question about managing virtual workforces (remote work and distance-learning). Thanks to mobile applications, contemporary tourists combine several purposes with traveling: business, leisure, entertainment, education. The result is what can be called "bleisure" (business plus leisure) and "edutainment" (education plus entertainment) tourism. The "postmodern tourists" look for the possibility to design tourism packages personally and to modify them during the trip according to their personal needs and interests [see also Kachniewska 2011] thus becoming "prosumers", as defined by Toffler [Toffler 1970]. New customers are better informed, have higher disposable income, reject "passive gaze" and are more active. Similar observations are made by G. Ritzer and A. Liska [1997]: the young generations spend a lot of time in front of computers, thus they are not only more informed but at the same time they live in a virtual world as well, so they need more fantasy – some Disneyland effects are always welcome by these customers.

All the Panelists agreed that the desire to accumulate experiences in addition to material possessions gained footing before the last recession. According to the Experts' opinion, some experiences — those that are relatively cheap and connect people to nature and wholesome thrift — will continue to flourish. However, exotic experiences that are expensive, frivolous, risky, or environmentally destructive — such as driving a racecar or even excessive recreational air travel — are suffering from the recession-driven mood of seriousness and responsibility that is characteristic of Generation Y. The opinions can be supported by the studies of P. Flatters and M. Willmott [2009]: global long-haul tourism arrivals, for example, fell by 9% during the last recession, while short-haul arrivals increased. Consequently, conspicuous consumption is now out of favor and, as the simplicity and discretionary thrift trends suggest, is unlikely to rebound soon. It is a good forecast for short-distance destinations, unless they lose the opportunity to develop new, attractive products.

According to P. Bourdieu [1984], in the 21st century, hundreds of millions of people will be living in a consumer economy for the first time. The sociologists taking part in the panel discussion noticed that the purchase of consumer goods becomes an increasingly important expression of one's values and identity. On the other hand, there are growing questions about consumerism, as studies in affluent, developed-world countries show that more money does not equal more happiness [Trivedi 2011]. The sociologists agreed that whereas material goods are likely to thrive in less-developed economies, having rich personal experiences is increasingly important for people in more-developed countries. The main focus in contemporary tourism development has shifted from the delivery of "tourism products" to the provision of "tourism experiences" (here the tour-operator representatives strongly agreed with the sociologists). According to the literature study, it represents a broader transformation of the overall economy into the experience economy [Pine, Gilmore 1999]. The essence of tourism in today's world is the development of travel experiences to a range of individuals who wish to see, understand and experience the nature of different destinations and the way people live, work, and enjoy life.

The STEEP analysis contributors agreed that the travel market is facing many challenges within tourism changing requirements: the growth of the independent traveler, a progressive shift away from organized holiday packages, and the growth of long-haul and short-break markets. Tour operators have to be more sensitive to the changes in customers' needs. Existing products have to be tailored and new products have to be developed to suit the "new" customer. The reasons to travel are also continuously changing: couples are delaying childbirth to pursue career goals and then generally having smaller families; single-person households are the fastest-growing type of household in many western countries; kids grow up faster and adults are "growing up" more slowly, seeking to recapture their lost childhoods. In the literature, these youth-seeking grown-ups have been called "rejuveniles" or "kidults" – see A. Hines [2008].

The discussion among tourism practitioners' revealed that the issues determine the need for new services or new types of products. Given all these changes, organizations will need to reconsider how they think about families and how they communicate with them. More grandparents travel with grandchildren, there is greater demand for all-inclusive, family-oriented resorts, but also more urban vacations with all-weather and 24-hour service. The observations can be supported by A. Hines' studies: age is not a reliable indicator of people's actions or interests. The choices open to people across life stages have expanded and aging populations are taking full advantage of them [Hines 2008].

One of the most active parts of the discussion concerned new technologies, as the aging society and time pressures create a growing demand for convenience, which is paramount to travelers: airport delays caused by security concerns, overcrowded skies and the hub-and-spoke system will make air travel less practical and more frustrating. Both business and leisure travelers will seek ways to avoid the inconvenience and will be ready to pay for services that enable better travel conditions. The problem also concerns an information overload: more and more technological start-ups create their competitive advantage on the basis of user-centric context-aware systems development [see also Kachniewska 2014a] and assist consumers with simple tools providing them with the option to view, compare, and book.

Another topic of the discussion was introduced by an academic specializing in urban studies. She noticed that our century is seeing a profound transformation of cities. This thesis is supported by R. Richards and C. Wilson [2006] who claim that urban centers are abandoning manufacturing activities and becoming economically dependent on the service sector, also moving from production growth to consumption-led development. The majority of the world's population (75%) is now living in cities [Hines 2008]. Urbanization remains one of the absolute mega-trends for the coming decade. Thus the Experts Group defined two important trends including the new consumption styles characteristic of citizens: "citysumers" trend (city+consumers) and "urbanomics" (urban+economics). Urban consumers tend to be more daring, more liberal, more tolerant, more experienced, and more prone to trying out new products and services. The urban environment seems extremely attractive for visitors, while cities increasingly compete to attract both tourists and investors in order to benefit from larger funds and financial resources. The measures used to assess the success of places have also altered, so that in today's world a thriving city is one that concentrates on the tertiary sectors of production, including finance, technology, tourism, and creative activities. The same opinions are shared by E. Currid [2006] and of course R. Florida [2002], the author of the creative class concept.

The Panelists claimed that the main drivers behind the citysumers trend cover: the huge increase in the number of urban dwellers all around the world (urban boom); the ever-increasing wealth and power of cities and those who live in them (urban might) and the spread of urban culture and values. The opinions are supported by the literature studies: rich in networks and opportunities, these vast hyper-productive, hyper-consumptive centers act as magnets: Hong Kong receives more tourists annually than all of India. Tokyo and New York have an estimated GDP similar to those of Canada or Spain, while London‘s GDP is higher than that of Sweden or Switzerland. Paris, Lisbon, Brussels, Budapest, and Seoul all account for more than 25% of their respective national economies [UN Habitat 2013].

The Experts on urban studies claimed that the deindustrialization of the city has brought forward the challenge of reconverting old manufacturing spaces, while revitalizing the urban economy. The trend towards gentrification is partly determined by tourism and partly creates new tourism spaces in the crowded cities, as city planners generally assign the abandoned industrial zones to cultural or tourism activities. The need to compete with other cities makes urban centers invest heavily in imaging and branding processes, which is performed partly through tourism.

The Experts' opinion can be well supported by extensive publicity given to successful urban regeneration examples, such as that of Bilbao in Spain or Glasgow in the United Kingdom, has also encouraged this phenomenon [Alvarez 2010]. Authors such as R. Florida [2002] determine that places can obtain a competitive advantage by drawing residents of what he terms "the creative class", which contributes to the development and innovation of the city. Consequently, creative tourism, "which offers visitors the opportunity to develop their creative potential through active participation" [Richards, Raymond, 2000, p. 18], may provide an alternative strategy to that of cultural regeneration. A. Markusen and D. King [2003, cited in Alvarez 2010] state that those inhabitants that engage in creative and artistic activities contribute to create a vibrant culture, which becomes attractive to tourists, playing an important role in the economic development of the place. In this context, cities need to rethink their approaches to tourist experiences [Maitland 2009].

At the crossroads of urban creativity and the need for experience once again the Panelists mentioned the problem of virtual travel technology, which stimulates the visual experience of various destinations and could be a major player in the travel industry, including the augmented reality tools for cities and tourism regions. The Panelists gave the examples of Polish experiences in the field (the "Discover Żory" concept, "Decode Łódź", etc.). The sociologists noticed that despite ever-increasing amounts of time spent online, audiences are not retreating into virtual worlds. Au contraire, "citysumers" will forever enjoy connecting with other, real-life human beings, and embrace the choice, the excitement, the frenetic pace, the spontaneity, the chaotic vibrancy offered by urban life. "Being online" increasingly drives and enables offline encounters. Two examples of mobile applications constitute a good case to illustrate this idea: Geomium informs the users of where their friends are, what events are on in their area, and helps them discover local bars, restaurants, and places of interest, while Gowalla decided to curate their content for select cities via City Pages, which provide a display of popular places, what‘s "hot now", highlights from a variety of venue categories, and even coordinated trips throughout these urban areas.

Here come the results of the literature studies: increased mobile penetration around the world, not least in emerging markets where fixed-line communications are much less widespread, has already proved a major stimulus for online “looking and booking”, and it is clear that mobile technology will be a major game changer in the next few years. By 2015, nearly 25 million US mobile users are expected to research travel information on their mobile devices before making a trip. And nearly 12 million US mobile users will use mobile devices to actually book their trips. Meanwhile, 18% of smartphone users and 16% of mobile internet users will use these channels to make bookings [Trendwatching.com]. Some 20% of Expedia’s sales in Indonesia, for example, are through mobile applications. And Air Asia is now allocating 50% of its advertising budget to Facebook since the social media site generates more than 13% of total online sales – largely through mobile apps [WTTC 2011].

In the Panelists’ opinion, in a wider context, independence and easy access to information constitutes one of the priorities of modern tourists. As advanced tourists often change their itinerary during the trip and quite often mix business or education with tourism, they are not likely to invest a great deal of time in pre-planning a travel schedule in detail. For that very reason, they need pragmatic and logistic information within an easy reach during their travel. Mobile value services create customer value with the support of mobile technology. In parallel, while using the applications, customers provide useful information on their interests and preferences, thus enabling more precise market segmentation and better targeting.

As the literature studies prove, another trend, strongly related to new media development, is the growing involvement of users in social media campaigns and so-called COBRA power (consumer online brand-related activities). It constitutes the “social revolution” of marketing, closely related to the evolution of the Internet [Ketter, Avraham 2012]. The first generation of the Internet was characterized by a hierarchical structure. Traditionally, a handful of sites controlled by big corporations produced the content for all users [O’Reilly 2005]. This structure was quite similar to radio and television broadcasting. New online technologies provided two-way communication formats (social networking sites, blogs, video sharing sites and Wikis). This process is referred to as Web 2.0 and it started around 2004. Web 2.0 marketing communication is based on the principle of User Generated Content (UGC) – the ability of users to produce their own content or consume content that other users have created [Cormode, Krishnamurthy 2008; Kachniewska 2014a]. As a result, passive content consumers were able to become active producers [Van Dijck 2009].

Another trend identified by the Experts Group is a growing awareness in the hospitality industry of its interdependence with other components of the tourism market, including industries such as transport, leisure activities, recreational facilities, the MICE industry, and new technology, as well as academic centers and consulting companies. The integration of these diverse groups of industries within network products and tourism clusters has been hindered thus far, as the industries do not have a common product and they are linked only by a shared customer. The development of new technologies has led to some innovations, including the development of year-round climate-controlled waterpark leisure complexes, timeshare and condo-hotels projects, mega-theme and fantasy-themed parks and events, convention facilities constructed near clusters of hotels and city centers, self-catering complexes and real estate development mixed with leisure as one of the core ingredients for attracting customers. The hitherto accommodation and catering industry more and more often seem old-school, unprofessional and uncompetitive (especially when thinking about event services). One of the tourists' expectations is what a popular marketing slogan expresses: participation, entertainment, fantasy, personalization, and fun.

Shifting from the 4P's to New Marketing Models

Old tourism products are reappearing in new forms and completely new products are developed in order to meet the changing needs of the new tourism customers. The life cycles of products are getting shorter, market segmentation is getting more difficult and the market segments are getting smaller. Tourism marketing has to be adapted to the new consumer behavior. Many activities, which had formerly no or insignificant tourist elements – like work or education – today have a lot of tourist aspects. Traditional, tourism-collateral services like highway-side service stations can be transformed into Disney-like fantasyland entertainment centers; single product music festivals are changing into multi-product, week-long festivities [Arva, Deli-Gray 2010].

Developments in ICTs have changed both business practices and strategies as well as industry structures [Porter 2001]. Globalization and the development of new media are creating new rules governing competition and designate the beginning of a Net Economy. While the Internet is an important new channel for commerce in a wide range of industries, it is especially relevant to tourism activity. Tourism products cannot be examined before traveling, the purchase and consumption of a tourism product is spread over time and distance [Kachniewska 2014b]. Thus it makes gathering and processing information about tourists extremely complicated for SMEs and destinations. Therefore, independence and easy access to information constitutes one of the priorities of both modern tourists and tourism vendors [Laesser, Jäger 2001; Buhalis 2003].

C. Carlsson and P. Walden [2010] proved that contextual information is important when adapting information to meet tourists' requirements however tourists' needs are to be studied from different perspectives. In the consumer behavior framework, tourists are seen as decision makers using various information search strategies to support their pre-visit and onsite decisions, such as choice of destination, accommodation, transportation or activities [e.g., Sirakaya, Woodside 2005]. In the pre-visit phase, information is sought for destination assessment, itinerary planning and logistics (transportation, accommodation). Onsite, ad-hoc information is sought on directions, recommendations and activities on location. At least, in the post-visit phase tourists want to recollect views from the trip and share them with others, and information is collected to support the storytelling. There are some marketing possibilities at every stage - provided marketers are equipped with context-aware applications. The future competitive advantages for a successful tourism industry will most probably be built around effective mobile value services, but few tourism enterprises and destinations have already started leveraging customer relationships and building loyalty ties through virtual communities and mobile applications. Moreover, tapping into the emotional midbrain to understand desires, motivations, and contexts for action lays the foundation for understanding how to drive a user's behavior.

One of the most challenging issues for contemporary tourism marketing is accessing valuable data and proper data processing. There is a competitive advantage to those who work well with it. Psychographic and behavioral survey data move tourism companies and destinations up in value as well as relevant communication, which is what tourists will respond to. The combination of data and relevance adds up to personalization [Biegel 2007]. If a marketer knows that somebody is about to make a decision and that their buying behavior starts 90 days before the event/travel, he/she can hit the buyers with a piece of direct mail to sustain that decision. Similarly, systematic observation enables proper marketing planning, new product development, and destination management (e.g., tourism flow spreading or channeling).

The analytics portion will become increasingly important. Service providers, who do not have analytics capabilities, will be at a competitive disadvantage. Surely managing large marketing data warehouses is not a competency of every marketer. Marketers need partners who can do that for them in working with, hosting, and mining the data. The power of Big Data Analysis has been addressed in literature for some time [Davenport 2013], but it is still underestimated in everyday tourism practice.

Given the main tourism market trends mentioned in the previous part, the premises of operational marketing management also tend to change. As an alternative to the traditional 4P's of the marketing mix (price, product, placement, promotion), tourism businesses tend to develop new operational management models reinvented now under the Marketing 3.0 paradigms. According to P. Kotler *et al.* [2010], marketing 3.0 complements emotional marketing with human spirit marketing and gains more relevance to the lives of the consumers as they are impacted more by rapid social, economic, and environmental change.

There are two main options of new marketing paradigms: 4C's (customer value, customer cost, convenience, communication) and 4E's mix (emotion, exclusivity, engagement, experience) where brand management and online (mobile) situations have a significant role [Kotler *et al.* 2010; Lusensky 2011].

4P	4C	4E
Product	Customer value	Experience
Price	Customer cost	Exclusivity
Placement	Convenience	Engagement
Promotion	Communication	Emotion

Figure 1. Changing paradigm of marketing management
Source: Own elaboration.

With market competition shifting from being product-oriented to being customer-oriented, some defects of the 4P's emerge. Under this condition, the 4C's marketing mix model is put forth by Lauterborn, who suggests the marketing strategies that involved product, price, place, and promotion are *passé*. Consumer wants and needs, the cost to satisfy, the convenience to buy, and communication are the new paradigm for our times [Lauterborn 1990].

Within the first case, the 4P's are being replaced by the 4C's model, consisting of consumer, cost, convenience, and communication. The new model is more consumer-oriented and fits better within the movement from mass marketing to niche marketing. The "product part" is replaced by consumer or consumer models, shifting the focus to satisfying the consumer. The company or tourism destination has to study consumer wants and needs and then attract consumers' interests with something they want. It is to create a custom solution rather than pigeonholing a customer into a product.

"Pricing" is replaced by cost, reflecting the reality of the total cost covered by customers, including but not limited to the customers' cost to change or implement the new product and the customers cost for not selecting a competitor's capability. The approach reflects the idea that price is only one part of the cost to satisfy customers. One of the most neglected groups of costs reflects the cost of time spent while looking for information, comparing offers, making reservations, etc.

"Place" is replaced by the convenience function. With the rise of the Internet and hybrid models of purchasing, place is no longer relevant. Convenience takes into account the ease of buying a product, finding a product, and finding information about a product, along with several other considerations. Thus, vendors have to know how each subset of the market prefers to buy - on the Internet, from a catalogue, on the phone, using credit cards, etc.

Last but not least, "promotion" is replaced by communication, which represents a broader focus and relates to customers' activity in the Internet and mobile ecosystems. In place of paid media, modern companies and aware destinations rely on so called "earned media": brand advocates are ready to share their opinions and to recommend brands, products and destinations. Being creative and "interactive" is one of the new marketing paradigms within the field of promotion as two dominant trends influencing marketing include a demand for simplicity and mercurial (smart) consumption. People's desire for simplicity is accelerated by the recession and new-tech development. An information overload makes people look for help within the field of information selection and processing. Consumers want to be offered limited collections of coordinated product choices. There is a growing demand for trusted brands and value; an increasing desire for advisers (ranging from social networks to product ranking web sites, that can simplify choice-making), and enthusiasm for less complicated, more user-friendly and personalized technologies and offers. Consumers have become agile and fickle shoppers [Arva, Deli-Gray 2010]. Within a profusion of brands and products, they would just quickly abandon any choices that somehow fell short. The instantaneous spread of word-of-mouth through online social media has accelerated the trend. Nowadays, consumers get bored quickly, being used to the flow of emotion in video and mobile games. They expect the same rate of change and level of emotion/experience while traveling. This scenario is driving the industry companies to adopt another strategic marketing option, namely the 4E's paradigm.

Where has the change come from? The 4P's thrived in a different world, where product differences lasted, big, obedient audiences could be reached with big, efficient media. Nowadays the consumer has seized control. Audiences have shattered into fragments and slices. Product differences can last only for minutes and the new ecosystem is made up of millions and billions of unstructured one-to-one and peer-to-peer conversations. Classical marketing instructed us to look at product features, find a single consumer benefit, and promote this over and over again to our target audience. Nowadays, in a world where most product advantages last less than six months, this strategy is losing relevance. Even a six-month, product-based advantage is a huge luxury and an advantage may last a few weeks. That is why modern marketers stop thinking just about the product and start thinking about the experience, which is unavoidable in tourism (shift from "product" to "experience").

The proper analysis of this "customer journey" helps to discover the end-to-end customer experience, and to focus marketing efforts. New communication tools also contribute to the strategic marketing of tourism business since the information gathered is used as a vital source for innovation and development of tourism products. On the one hand, they ensure a fundamental means for the products/services' tangibility, offering consumers the opportunity to share their evaluation and opinion about the product with each other in an independent way. On the other hand, they provide an information channel to the company to improve and customize its service based on the consumer himself – a process of co-creation [Kotler et al. 2010]. G. Nuno [2013] states that, based in this co-creation ideal tourism companies, transform their online communication platforms into real "virtual meeting points" that achieve a high level of credibility and unique image due to the level of use, relationship and interaction with the consumer.

The next shift takes the marketing paradigm from "promotion" to "emotion". Facing a society that is increasingly sensitive to environmental issues and clients who are more emotional and concerned about values and global and personal well-being, the purpose of these companies is not only to occupy such a place in the mind of the consumer but also to establish an emotional and permanent relationship with him/her, thus sharing common ideals which are determining factors at the moment of purchasing a service, i.e., in the context of the business relationship [Nuno 2013]. The affective dimension of social well-being goes beyond environmental issues. The development of social responsibility programs tends to become a common practice among tourism companies. These values tend to become the values of these brands, creating a new emotional bond between the consumer and the company. The relationship between both is now founded on a new emotional primacy in contrast to the traditional promotion approach.

A shift from "placement" to "engagement" reflects the awareness of customers' marketing potential and belief that the effectiveness of earned media is much better than that of paid media. Alongside this spiritual and emotional bondage, brands also ground their commercial strategy in an active and close relationship with the consumer. The use and development of technological platforms B2C (Business-to-Consumer) and C2C (Consumer-to-Consumer) has been a commitment of tourism companies to attain this goal, changing the traditional paradigm of tourism distribution [Kotler 2010; Nuno 2013]. Virtual travel communities and other social media are more and more often included in marketing strategies [McCarthy *et al.* 2010]. It helps to base the relationship between consumers and companies on a many-to-many principle (since communication may occur in various senses: consumer-company, company-consumer, and consumer-consumer). The traditional form of "word of mouth" has been reinvented and becomes even more powerful in a form of e-WOM, using so-called viral effects [Sparks, Browning 2011]. The need for "communitization", according to P. Kotler *et al.* [2010], can be used by travel companies and tourism destinations. They can help consumers connect to one another in communities and move the distribution process into a more complex stage of engagement where there is a relationship and active participation of the consumer beyond the mere commercial transaction.

At the least, the shift from "price" to "exclusivity" reflects the sensitivity to contemporary trends and situation when "value" is more than money. Participating in tourism has been always the source of some exclusiveness. A trend towards experience has developed that feeling of uniqueness and contrast to mass tourism. It can be even stronger when a tourism customer has the ability to create his/her tourism experience according to his/her needs. This approach is consistent with modern revenue and yield management techniques, which focus rather on the management of demand than supply, in contrast to the management tools used previously. G. Nuno [2013, p. 22] states that "until now, the management of the tourism business was conditioned by the premise that supply was a perishable good, a fact that reached its height with the over use of the *last minute* sales". The author claims that this management philosophy turned out to be inadequate because "it entailed a set of limitations to the process and financial performance of tourism businesses, namely in the loss of benefits and inadequate *cash flow*, which were insufficient to the business financial needs."

The new philosophy allows a dynamic product/service relationship determined by tourism demand and stimulates early booking philosophy, enabling and improving the anticipation process [Abrate *et al.* 2012]. Moreover, the new 4E's paradigm may protect tourism companies and destination from merely competing for price, which becomes extremely risky not only for the business entities but also for the industry as a whole, given the potential price wars and succeeding dumping [Nuno 2013].

Conclusions and Guidelines for Future Research

The aim of this paper has been to demonstrate the range of topics generated by the Experts' Group discussion held during the 1st Tourism Forum of Carpathian Countries in Rzeszow (May 2014). Participants were interested in a range of factors that will broadly impact the destiny of the tourism industry. The current strategic options of tourism companies generally reflect the circumstances of a context that is increasingly global, interdependent, uncertain, technological, and focused on sustainability issues.

Tourism faces a scenario of change conditioned especially by the increase of demand, new values, and premises (sustainability and social responsibility, leisure value), maintaining results of the global economic slowdown that are clearly visible within the needs and lifestyles of Generation Y. The Future Wheel mind-mapping technique enabled to identify plenty of trends and issues that shape the contemporary tourism market and influence marketing tools and techniques. However, like in any other future exploration methods, the results of the abovementioned analysis should be discussed further, as the change in the marketing management paradigm is just one of numerous possible repercussions occurring in the field of tourism industry strategies.

First, a more thorough approach to demand is needed, namely on the consumer behavior level. Second, the diversity of challenges introduced by the new (mobile) media emergence and continuous development, also needs special attention due to multivariate changes it may produce both on the demand and supply side of tourism market (new potential markets, new consumer behavior, enhanced power of consumers, new product concepts and new forms of marketing and management tools). Third, the nature of changes described in the paper are not completed processes: due to its heterogeneity, the tourism and travel industry faces a set of interdependent circumstances that need to be monitored and analyzed as transformation vectors (using different case studies and future scenarios).

Last but not least, the Experts did not discuss the policy problems of tourism development (the final P in the STEEP analysis), as they found the social, technological, and environmental problems more important from the marketing point of view. However, the position seems quite unconvincing as all the trends discussed above derive from the political environment.

So far, the Experts agreed that the impact on the travel and tourism industry resulting from the global economic slowdown, new social and consumer trends, and emergence of Generation Y with its unique needs, requirements and lifestyles, has led to a shift from the traditional (classical) marketing paradigm of the 4P's to the new 4C's or even 4E's models. As it is a structural dimension, consecutive exploration should be held to deepen the issue, to look for operational directions and to indicate the concrete actions to be taken by tourism businesses and destinations.

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NOWE PARADYGMATY MARKETINGU JAKO ODPOWIEDŹ NA WIODĄCE TRENDY KONSUMENCKIE ORAZ ICH WPŁYW NA BRANŻĘ TURYSTYCZNĄ

Abstrakt

Cel. Artykuł poświęcono identyfikacji wiodących trendów konsumenckich i ich znaczeniu dla kształtujących się nowych paradygmatów zarządzania marketingiem.
Metoda. Zastosowano kombinacje 3 metod (mindmapping, analizaę STEEP oraz dyskusja panelowa), przeprowadzonych w trakcie warsztatów eksperckich z uczestnictwem praktyków rynku turystycznego, ekspertów naukowych i specjalistów z branży nowych mediów. Za pomocą procesów intuicyjno-logicznych zidentyfikowano trendy kształtujące współczesny rynek turystyczny.
Wyniki. Artykuł zawiera identyfikację i charakterystykę nowych, globalnych trendów konsumenckich oraz ich wpływ na rynek turystyczny. W wyniku dyskusji sformułowano dwa paradygmaty funkcjonujące obecnie w obszarze marketingu.
Ograniczenia badań i wnioskowania. Wyniki analizy powinny podlegać dalszej dyskusji, ze względu na fakt, że zmieniający się paradygmat marketing jest zaledwie jednym z wielu następstw zmieniających się współcześnie trendów rynkowych i konsumenckich. Zróżnicowanie wyzwań będących następstwem zmian trendów i pojawienia się nowych technologii wymaga szczególnej uwagi, ze względu na różnorodność zmian wywoływanych po stronie podaży i popytu turystycznego. Branża turystyczna ulega nieustannym przemianom, wymagającym monitorowania i okresowych analiz.
Implikacje praktyczne. Artykuł stanowi istotną wartość z punktu widzenia badaczy rynku turystycznego i praktyków tym bardziej, że grupa panelistów biorących udział w warsztatach eksperckich objęła przedstawicieli pięciu wiodących organizacji turystycznych, praktyków branży nowych technologii, pracowników naukowych i przedstawicieli biznesu turystycznego.
Oryginalność. Artykuł wnosi nowe spostrzeżenia do dorobku badań naukowych dotyczących rynku turystycznego, ważnych z perspektywy planowania rozwoju tej branży na poziomie krajowym i regionalnym oraz prowadzenia działalności gospodarczej na rynku turystycznym. Wyniki przeprowadzonych dyskusji i badań literaturowych pomagają zidentyfikować i ocenić znaczenie omawianych zmian oraz ich wpływ na przyszły kształt rynku turystycznego. Dodatkową wartością pracy jest jej znaczenie dla międzynarodowych grup ekspertów zajmujących się przyszłymi trendami rynkowymi.
Rodzaj pracy. Praca badawcza.

Słowa kluczowe: trendy konsumenckie, zarządzanie turystyką, paradygmat marketingu, marketing ponowoczesny.

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MULTIDIMENSIONALITY AND DETERMINANTS OF CONSUMER LOYALTY IN TOURIST SERVICES

*Izabela Michalska-Dudek**

Abstract

Purpose. The purpose of this article is to present the essence and polymorphism of the loyalty concept, as well as to identify the determinants of consumer loyalty in the tourism market.
Method. The method used was a review of literature for utilitarian purposes and cognitive purposes of a heuristic nature and based on the analysis and evaluation of previous research projects and existing publications covering the subject matter.
Findings. The subject literature review confirms that while consumer loyalty to a destination and the broadly understood accommodation services constitute the frequent objective of research, the consumer loyalty of travel agents is rarely analyzed. The above conclusions indicate the need for conducting research and undertaking attempts to explain consumer loyalty in the tourism market in this particular area.
Research and conclusions limitations. In accordance with the research methodology, the research methods used in the article represent preliminary research of an exploratory nature and constitute a starting point for other studies of the subject matter subject matter.
Practical implications. As a result of a detailed analysis and observations of loyalty determinants followed by customers of tourist services as indicated in the article, it is possible to get a better understanding of the decision-making processes of customers.
Originality. The paper presents definitions of research constructs in the tourism market, indicating both behavioral and affective determinants of client loyalty to tourist services and also proposes the conceptualization of consumer loyalty research in the tourism market, including antecedents and consequences of loyalty shown by consumers of tourist services.
Type of paper. A review presenting theoretical concepts.

Key words: tourist behaviors, consumer loyalty of tourist enterprises, determinants of consumer loyalty to tourist services.

* Ph.D., Wroclaw University of Economics, Faculty of Economics, Management and Tourism, Department of Marketing and Tourism Management [dr, Uniwersytet Ekonomiczny we Wrocławiu, Wydział Ekonomii, Zarządzania i Turystyki, Katedra Marketingu i Zarządzania Gospodarką Turystyczną]; e-mail: izabela.michalska@ue.wroc.pl.

Introduction – Behaviors of Consumers of Tourist Services

The main purpose of this article is to present the essence and polymorphism of the loyalty concept, as well as to identify the determinants of consumer loyalty in the tourism market. The review of literature for both utilitarian purposes and cognitive purposes of a heuristic, auxiliary nature allows for the present organization of knowledge and supports the conceptualization the underlying terms. The paper also aims to implement the existing theoretical concepts on the grounds of the economy of tourism. Following the subject research review, which was conducted in an international environment, the paper aims to conceptualize research regarding the loyalty of consumers of tourist services (pointing to antecedents and effects) by suggesting both directions and areas of future research.

The discussion focused on the loyalty of consumers of tourist services and its determinants should start by characterizing the specificity of consumer behavior in the tourism market. By means of presenting the loyalty phenomenon duality, its motives, objectives, and basic determinants, the paper intends to suggest definitions of the above-mentioned research constructs in the tourism market.

Consumer behavior can be defined as the "decision making process in terms of choosing an offer in accordance with an individual scale of preference and the realistically available purchasing power, as well as making the purchase based on the collected experiences resulting from the previously made consumption" [Panasiuk 2013, p. 61]. Consumer behaviors on the market of tourism, referred to as tourist behaviors, represent the distinguished class of consumer behaviors which are separated by the specific nature of tourists' needs [Żabińska 1994, p. 29]. In the opinion of A. Niemczyk, "tourist behaviors refer to all actions and activities performed by consumers who present particular psychophysical predispositions related to making choices within the process of meeting tourist needs in defined economic, social, demographic, political, geographic, etc. conditions" [Niemczyk 2010, p. 14].

"Two-stage nature of the decision making remains an important quality of the discussed process involving the consumers of tourist offers. The first stage usually consists in selecting the destination, whereas the second one in choosing a particular set of goods and services which make up a particular tourist product" [cf. Kachniewska, Nawrocka, Niezgoda, Pawlicz 2012, pp. 42–43].

The subject literature offers many classifications of determinants responsible for consumer behaviors. Therefore, it seems plausible to suggest a classification of determinants underlying the behaviors of consumers of tourist services. This classification is the synthesis of different classifications suggested by Polish authors and simultaneously follows the principle present in western literature regarding the domination of subjective factors related to individual mentality and non-economic factors coming from a consumer's environment. "It is a man—a human being characterized by a particular mentality—who represents the subject of travelling" [Przecławski 2005, p. 57].

The classification presented below (Fig. 1) refers to macroeconomic factors, understood as all possible determinants underlying the decision-making process of consumers of tourist services, residing in a given country, at the background of integration and globalization processes.

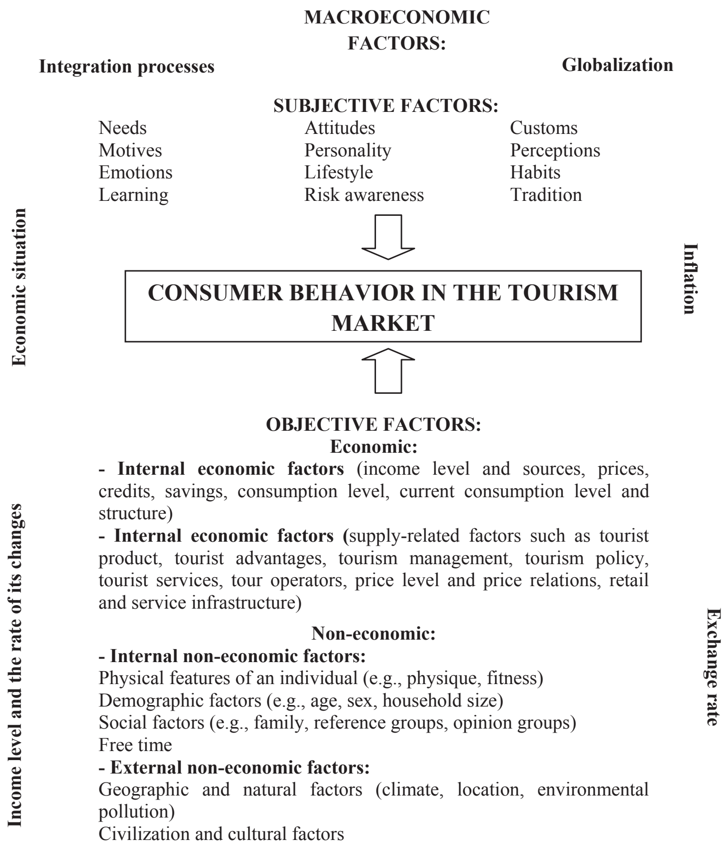

Figure 1. Determinants influencing behaviors of consumers of tourist services
Source: Author's compilation based on Niemczyk 2010, p. 17 and Kieżel (ed.) 1999, p. 107.

Along with market changes, increasing competition, globalization, and the advancing integration-oriented processes, the number of factors likely to have an impact on customers' behaviors is continuously increasing. All of the remaining determinants were divided into objective and subjective ones, depending on whether a given factor is independent of the occurring perceptions, or whether it is perceived and interpreted depending on the person making an assessment.

"Subjective factors explain the nature of tourist needs by emphasizing their anthropocentric interpretation, which combines the bio-centric (the need of recreation and leisure combined with spa treatment), psycho-centric (the need for intellectual emotions, meditations, sentimental tourism), and socio-centric (the need to meet new people and cultures) approaches with an eco-centric approach (needs resulting from market influence, offers availability and promotion) and also attributes such as limitlessness, renewability, complementarity, different intensity, and low substitutability" [Jedlińska 2006, p. 177].

Objective factors determining tourist behaviors were divided in the suggested classification into economic (internal–referring to an individual, and external–referring to environmental factors) and non-economic ones (internal and external).

Loyalty of Consumers of Tourist Services – the Essence and Duality of the Phenomenon

The authors of *Marketing Lexicon* indicate that loyalty means "the propensity of consumers to continue purchasing products representing a particular brand" [Alkorn, Kramer 1998, p. 135] or "customer's willingness to repeat the purchase with the same provider" [Kienzler 2008, p. 116].

The majority of approaches presented in the subject literature attempt to define the term "loyalty" within two categories, i.e., attitudes and customer behaviors.[1] Loyalty in terms of an attitude means subjective feelings experienced by clients and resulting in their individual attachment to particular categories of market offers. This is crystallized by means of emotional experiences and the state of awareness. However, loyalty understood as behavior is manifested by the repetitive purchase of particular goods and services, by increasing orders or making recommendations to potential clients.

Having noticed the basic problem of the behavioral approach, disregarding the reasons of a mainly psychological nature which make a client repeat a particular purchase, Jacoby and Chestnut [1978] suggested defining customer loyalty as covering both dimensions, i.e., attitude and behavior. In their opinion, loyalty represents customer's predisposition towards a particular brand which is made up of preferences and involvement based on an attitude [Jacoby, Chestnut 1978].

J. Griffin, quoting D. L. Stum and A. Thiry, also describes a loyal consumer as an "individual who makes regular, repetitive purchases, uses company offers, disseminates positive information about a company and, moreover, is resistant to the activities performed by competitive entities" [Griffin

[1] In accordance with the presented definitions, loyalty can have either an emotional dimension (affective, referring to an attitude) or be related to behavior (behavioral).

1997, p. 31; Stum, Thirty 1991, pp. 34–36]. Similarly, in their definition of loyalty, K. Storbacka and J. R. Lehtinen emphasize aspects related to both behavior and emotions which influence consumers in their purchasing process. In the opinion of these authors, loyalty means "the share of an enterprise in a consumer's wallet, mind, and heart" [Storbacka, Lehtinen 2001, pp. 34–53].

In spite of the publication of the important above-mentioned studies discussing the essence of loyalty, researchers are still seeking the universal definition of loyalty [Dick, Basu 1999, pp. 99–113; Jacoby, Chestnut 1978; Oliver 1993, pp. 418–30]. According to M. D. Uncles, G. D. Dowling, and K. Hammond [Uncles et al. 2003, pp. 294–317] there are three popular approaches to loyalty: loyalty as an attitude only, loyalty as a behavior only, and loyalty as an attitude and behavior simultaneously.

Similarly, the concept of consumer loyalty referring to tourist enterprises should be defined in a broader perspective. The combination of affective and behavioral presentations, and therefore loyalty, perceived both as an attitude and behavior, is understood as a consumer's attachment to the type of purchased tourist offers and places of their selling/booking, whereas a particular behavior, manifested in making repetitive purchases and propagating opinions about a particular company or tourist brand, results from a consumer's attitude and intention to purchase tourist services (Table 1).

Paraphrasing R. L. Oliver's definition [cf. Oliver 1999, pp. 34-35] referring to both an attitude and behavior, the loyalty of consumers of tourist enterprises can be characterized as the deeply rooted belief presented by a consumer to make the repetitive purchase of tourist offers or an ongoing condescending approach to the preferred categories of tourist offers, which results in repurchasing a particular brand or item offered by a tourist enterprise, executed despite the marketing efforts and situational impacts of the competition, which could theoretically result in changing the behavior of a consumer of tourist services [Michalska-Dudek 2013, p. 200].

"While attempting to create the universal definition of loyalty—regardless of various market contexts' specificity—the researchers came up with numerous different concepts, which made them unadjusted to the specific nature of services" [cf. Siemieniako 2012, pp. 8–14].

It must be observed that the characteristics of the service market[2] distinguish it from typical material goods, and that the specific characteristics of tourist services[3] imply particular activities, also in terms of approaching

[2] These components of services are namely intangibility, inconsistency, indivisibility, and impermanence [more in Pluta-Olearnik 1994, p. 23; Mudie, Cottam 1998, p. 21].

[3] The following are listed among the characteristics of tourist services: they are rendered for both individual and collective consumption; they meet different needs of tourists compared to the ones provided in their permanent places of residence; they can take the form of single provisions referring to objects or people (e.g., renting a hotel room or car) or cover a whole set of services (a package, e.g., accommodation and meals, or an entire tourist event); they are mutually dependent and remain in a complementary relationship with tourist advantages; the demand for them is diverse in terms of time, space, and type; they play important social func-

Table 1. Three presentations of loyalty in tourist services

Loyalty	As an attitude (affective presentation)	– Loyalty is the function of an attitude manifested by behavior; – it is loyalty expressed by the type of relations between a tourist enterprise and a consumer; – it is an attitude of a client towards a tourist enterprise presenting specific offers; – loyalty intensity is the crucial component of an attitude's characteristics; – loyalty is established through emotions and feelings which relate a consumer to a given brand, product, or tourist enterprise; – these emotions influence a consumer's way of thinking and his/her attitude, thus having an impact on his/her behaviors.
	As a behavior (behavioral presentation)	– Loyalty means making purchases of the same brand offers, in the same sales place/consumer service unit or the same tourist services provider, without considering any other brands; – loyalty is analyzed in the context of behaviors presented by the consumers of tourist services; – loyalty is translated into sales size and value (loyal consumers of tourist services buy more often and spend more money on their purchases) and, therefore, it is translated into the market share of a tourist enterprise; – loyalty is passing on positive opinions about an enterprise; – it involves low susceptibility to competitive activities in the tourism market; – it includes acceptance of small problems occurring on the part of a service provider and the tendency to forgive problems and service imperfections; – it leads to offering advice and hints to a tourist enterprise (clients as the progress factor).
	As the result of attitude and behavior (conative loyalty)	– Loyalty is understood as a consumer's attachment to the type of tourist offers purchased and their selling/booking places; – it is a particular behavior manifested by making repetitive purchases and propagating opinions about a given tourist company or brand resulting from an attitude and an intention to make a purchase; – it is represented by a consumer's predisposition to choose a brand, while predispositions are composed of preferences and involvement based on an attitude towards a tourist enterprise.

Source: Author's compilation based on Kwiatek 2007, pp. 26–27 and Urban, Siemieniako 2008, p. 12.

tions since they ensure leisure and represent a form of managing one's free time; their consumption is always a single act, even if an identical package is used in the same place and time; their form is always different, and for this reason it is not known whether it can be replicated in the future; a tourist product purchase is often based on an image or idea, not exactly on the product itself, but on a place of temporary residence and the seasonality of tourist services; the significant differentiation of their provision volume within a year results on the one hand from the periodical nature of free time spent on taking advantage of tourist services, and on the other from the specific "seasonality" of many basic tourist attractions; a tourist product is impermanent; its consumption has to be performed in a particular place and time; a client has to move to the place of a tourist product; it cannot be stored, even though its provision can be booked; tourist services are frequently characterized by high fixed costs and relatively low variable costs; a tourist product's characteristics (assessment) are established based on the direct contact between its provider and a client [Panasiuk 2005, p. 78].

the consumer loyalty phenomenon, and thus predispose tourism enterprises to introduce the concept of relationship marketing.[4] This concept emphasizes the role of existing ties and mutual achievement of objectives, as well as the role played by the realization of promises made. Therefore, in the case of service enterprises, the emphasis is placed on personal relations between a client and the service provider's staff, within the framework of which an in-depth loyalty-oriented bond is established. The role of service personnel does increase in such circumstances.

Having considered the above remarks, an approach towards defining loyalty in the case of service enterprises also requires relational understanding. One of the first approaches towards loyalty in the relational context is the proposal made by S. Fournier which defines loyalty as a long-term partnership based on involvement and emotions manifested in mutual relations between a client and a service provider, since these interactions primarily have an impact on mutual loyalty [Fournier 1998, p. 346].

For a strong relationship to exist, both parties must experience benefits. The research of K. P. Gwinner, D. D. Grembler, and M. J. Bitner focused both on the benefits of a long-term customer relationship from the perspective of the firm and a long-term service relationship for the customer.[5] "Only by examining the benefits from both sides of the relationship can firms build effective relational strategies" [Gwinner, Grembler, Bitner 1998, pp. 106–107].

The specific nature of mutual relations established between a client and a service provider also requires loyalty from a service enterprise towards its client, whereas in a relational understanding of loyalty, it is the client's perspective[6] which remains crucial as it expects reciprocal loyalty from a service enterprise [Fournier 1998, p. 346].

S. Rundle-Thiele also emphasizes the need for approaching loyalty in a two-way manner. In her opinion, loyalty is "a feeling or an approach of full involvement and affection." Such a feeling is associated with the tendency for a given person to feel obligated to persist in his or her personal relations in both good and bad times [Rundle-Thiele 2006, pp. 416–417].

D. Siemieniako has observed that combining the relations between a client and an enterprise with the loyalty concept results in a higher lev-

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[4] According to Grönroos, relations marketing represents establishing, maintaining, and enhancing relations with customers and other partners in a way which enables both parties to achieve their objectives, following a reciprocal exchange and keeping promises [Grönroos 1990].

[5] K.P. Gwinner, D.D. Gremler, and M.J. Bitner suggest customers derive different types of relational benefits from long-term relationships with service firms: social benefits (fraternization, friendship, personal recognition), psychical benefits (a reduction of anxiety, grater trust/confidence), and economic benefits (discounts/price breaks, additional services or considerations, history development) [Gwinner, Grembler, Bitner 1998, pp. 106–107].

[6] Having analyzed loyalty characteristics from the client's perspective, Siemieniako, Rundle-Thiele, and Urban, based on research conducted in five countries (Poland, Portugal, Byelorussia, Canada, and Australia), indicate that loyalty is complex, relational, dynamic, requires mutual confidence, remains permanent, and is based on the free will of both parties involved [Siemieniako, Rundle-Thiele, Urban 2010, pp. 288–294].

el of understanding of the analyzed phenomenon, since customer loyalty represents an ongoing phenomenon rather than an episodic one [more in Siemieniako 2010, pp. 15–21].

Loyalty Determinants of Consumers of Tourist Enterprises

W. Urban and D. Siemieniako distinguished six objects of customer loyalty which could be successfully applied in analyzing the loyalty of tourist services consumers: “loyalty to brand, loyalty to product category, loyalty to staff, loyalty to the place of purchase, loyalty to the community, and loyalty to an organization” (Fig. 2) [Urban, Siemieniako 2008, p. 9]. While discussing the loyalty of consumers of tourist enterprises, a similar diversification of loyalty objects occurs. This is mainly a result of the complexity of psychological processes the purchasing individuals undergo while making decisions about purchasing offers in the tourism market [more in Michalska-Dudek 2013, pp. 205–207].[7]

Figure 2. Loyalty objects of clients of a tourist enterprise
Source: Cf. Michalska-Dudek [2013, p. 199] based on Urban, Siemieniako [2008, p. 9].

The most favorable situation for tourist enterprises is definitely the one in which a consumer is loyal to all the above-mentioned loyalty objects, i.e., brand, product, staff, place of purchase, community, and organization, as this substantially minimizes the risk of his or her loss.

Loyalty to each of the above objects is related to different elements of a consumer’s attitude, which can be influenced by the purchase experience

[7] W. Urban and D. Siemieniako [2008] claim that it is definitely easiest to gain loyalty in terms of a place and staff. However, these loyalty types are not decisive about establishing durable, long-lasting loyalty; therefore, after winning these loyalty types, it is worth initiating quick efforts to establish loyalty towards its remaining objects.

and can have an impact on his or her emotions (affective dimension) and thus have an impact on his or her future behavior (behavioral dimension).

For many years, an attempt to identify the determinants of customer loyalty has been considered an important objective of the conducted research. The studies on loyalty multidimensionality concentrate on two major research trends: problems associated with the establishment of loyalty, and the results related to loyalty. The first group refers to the research focused on the identification of loyalty antecedents, whereas the second group concentrates on its consequences.

On the basis of consecutive research covering the problems of the establishment of loyalty and conditions, its subsequent determinants were indicated. In general, two groups of factors influencing loyalty can be distinguished [Kwiatek 2007, p. 38 cited in Smyczek 2001, p. 39]:

– endogenous factors (internal, consumer-related), which refer directly to consumers and are related to their subjective perception of reality (e.g., risk, expected benefits, and involvement level in a particular purchasing process),
– exogenous factors (external, environment-related), which function outside of consumers (e.g., brand characteristics, enterprise range extensiveness, offer quality, market or sector conditions, and market saturation level).

One can assume that the loyalty of clients is influenced by the mutual interaction of four main factor groups: consumer characteristics, brand, social environment qualities, and market conditions (Fig. 3) [cf. Kwiatek 2007, p. 39; Urban, Siemieniako 2008, p. 9].

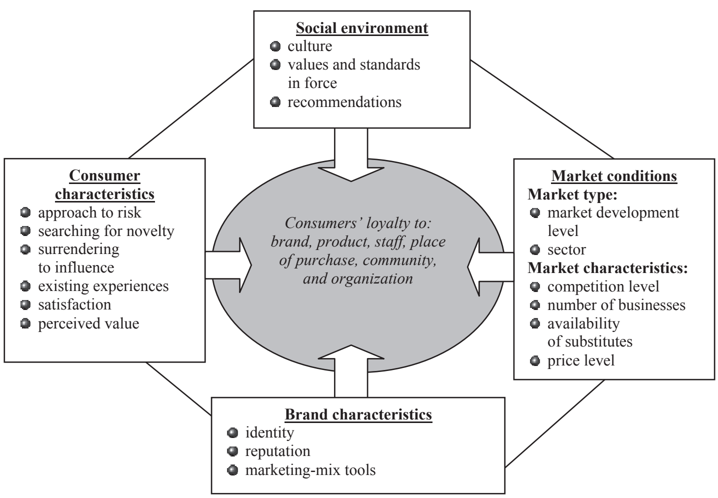

Figure 3. Factors influencing the loyalty of clients of enterprises

Source: Author's compilation based on Kwiatek 2007, p. 39 and Urban, Siemieniako 2008, p. 9.

Feedback of a complex nature occurs between the presented factors, since they not only determine loyalty but, in many cases, can also represent its effects.[8]

Consumer inertia factors should also be added to the above-mentioned loyalty antecedents, which are derived from one of the well-known methods attempting to explain loyalty sources: the *Loyalty Drivers* methodology, developed by researchers from the Marketing Science Centre [Siekierski 2003, p. 43]. The so-called inertia factors, overall factors which hinder either rebranding or changing a provider, are manifested in irrational behaviors, such as remaining a client despite belief in the existence of better offers or declining an offer for a change. These are as follows:[9]

– Psychological characteristics differentiating consumers, such as a habit and inclination towards making a routine purchase, consumer conservatism, passion for novelty, tendency to seek variety, importance attached to making a correct choice, laziness, or reluctance to verify an assessment;
– Attitudes towards the category influenced by knowledge and understanding of the available offers, perception of differences and their significance between brands, offers, or providers. Inertia is directly related to a consumer's understanding and knowledge of the studied category. If offers are complicated for a client, he or she finds it more difficult to make the decision to change, since it is difficult to compare products directly and decide whether one offers a higher value than the other one.
– Transition barriers (overall objective factors hindering rebranding, as well as their subjective perception by a consumer), e.g., limited access to competitive offers, existing agreements, benefits resulting from loyalty programs, formalities and problems associated with changing a provider, etc.

With the above discussion in mind, it is possible to conclude that customer loyalty to tourist enterprises depends on many factors which cover the determinants of tourist behaviors (macroeconomic factors, subjective factors, objective economic factors, and also objective non-economic factors), as well as endogenous and exogenous determinants of consumer loyalty (Fig. 4).

Before making a decision about purchasing an offer in the tourism market, we face both the factors which influence tourist behaviors and the ones which determine customer loyalty towards tourist service providers (Fig. 2).

[8] It is worth listing the models that attempt to explain the phenomenon of loyalty, e.g., the Katon model, the van Raaija model, the O'Shaughnessy model, the Fishbein model, the Andreasen model, the EKB model (Engel, Kollat, Blackwell), the Howard-Sheth model, and the FHL model (Farley, Howard, Lehmann).

[9] These are the kinds of factors which, to some extent, increase loyalty regardless of belief in the value of an offer. Inertia frequently means forced loyalty, not remaining in line with the real assessment of the value of an offer.

Figure 4. Consumer loyalty determinants in the tourism market.
Source: Author's compilation.

However, consumer loyalty in the tourism market is influenced by the characteristics of a consumer him/herself and also by the those that are typical for the tourism sector, as well as the specific market conditions in which the tourism

The Review of Selected Research on Loyalty and Its Antecedents in the Tourism Industry

The review of the subject literature for both cognitive purposes (of a heuristic, auxiliary nature) and utilitarian purposes confirms that while many authors present loyalty as the result of some models proposed for the determination of loyalty to a destination, accommodation, or other tourism product of interest, others put loyalty among behavioral intentions.

As Table 2 shows, the following studies refer to the loyalty construct as one-dimensional, two-dimensional (distinguishing between attitudinal and behavioral loyalty), and three-dimensional (distinguishing between cognitive, affective, and attitudinal, conative, and behavioral loyalty).

Analyses were also conducted by approaching loyalty as an indirect effect of the reviewed models. Most of the studies deal with the final result as a single construct. This construct may represent [cf. Campon, Alves, Hernandez 2013, p. 28]:

– the intention to return [Murphy et al. 2000; Choi, Chu 2001; Petrick et al. 2001; Petrick, Backman 2002; Alegre, Cladera 2006, 2009; Umet al. 2006; Cladera 2007],

Table 2. Studies of loyalty in the tourism industry

One-dimensional loyalty constructs		
Research area	**Authors**	**Research subject**
Accommodation	J. Gould-Wiliams 1999	Guest loyalty
	J. Kandampully, D. Suhartanto 2000, 2002	Customer loyalty
	K. Buracom 2002	Loyalty
	S.H. Tsaur et al. 2002	Guest loyalty
	I. Skogland, J. A. Siguaw 2004	Loyalty
	C. H. Lin 2005	Loyalty
	C. Voces 2005	Loyalty
	S. M. Loureiro, F. J. Miranda 2006, 2008	Loyalty
	B. Chitty et al. 2007	Loyalty
	A. B. Shammout 2007	Loyalty
Destination	J. T. Bowen, S. L. Chen 2001	Destination loyalty
	S. L. Chen, D. Gursoy 2001	Loyalty
	S. G. Q. Chi 2005	Destination loyalty
	H. San Martin 2005	Loyalty
	Y. Yoon, M. Uysal 2005	Destination loyalty
	M. G. Gallarza, I. Gil 2006	Destination loyalty
	H. H. Huang, C. K. Chiu 2006	Destination loyalty
	B. Kao 2007	Destination loyalty
	A. Yüksel, F. Yüksel 2007	Expressed loyalty intentions
	S. G. Q. Chi, H. Qu 2008	Destination loyalty
	K. Kim 2008	Destination loyalty
	G. Prayag 2008	Destination loyalty
	I. Rodriguez del Bosque, H. San Martin 2008	Destination loyalty
	F. Martinez et al. 2009	Loyalty
	P. Mechinda et al. 2010	Attitudinal loyalty
	V. Vale et al. 2010	Loyalty
Other	J. E. Bigne, L. Andreu 2004, 2005	Loyalty
	K. Alexandris et al. 2006	Loyalty
Other	K. Matzler et al. 2007	Loyalty
	R. Faullant et al. 2008	Loyalty
	J. Anuwichanont, P. Mechinda 2009	Loyalty
	T. C. Kan et al.2009	Loyalty
	T. F. Yen et al. 2009	Loyalty

Two-dimensional loyalty constructs		
Research area	Authors	Research subject
Destination	G. Lee 2001	Attitudinal loyalty Behavioral loyalty
	C. Martin 2005	Attitudinal loyalty Behavioral loyalty
	K. Hernandez et al. 2006	Attitudinal loyalty Behavioral loyalty
	X. Li et al. 2007	Attitudinal loyalty Behavioral loyalty
Other	X. Li, J. F. Petrick 2008	Attitudinal loyalty Behavioral loyalty
	P. Mechinda et al. 2009	Attitudinal loyalty Behavioral loyalty
Three-dimensional loyalty constructs		
Research area	Authors	Research subject
Destination	J. Lee et al. 2007	Attitudinal loyalty Conative loyalty Behavioral loyalty
	A. Yüksel et al. 2010	Attitudinal loyalty Conative loyalty Behavioral loyalty

Source: Author's compilation based on Campon, Alves, Hernandez 2013; Matias et al. (eds.) 2013, pp. 13–40.

– intentions regarding future behavior [Tian-Cole et al. 2002; Baloglu et al. 2003; Lee et al. 2004; Alen, Fraiz 2006; Alen et al. 2007; Chen, Tsai 2007; Sophonsiri 2008; Hu et al. 2009; Lee 2009],
– the probability of a recommendation or a repeat visit [Hui et al. 2007],
– future destination selection [Tian-Cole, Crompton 2003],
– word of mouth recommendation [Kim, Cha 2002].

Other authors decided to use two constructs [Bigne et al. 2001, 2005; Kozak 2001; Petrick 2004; Barroso et al. 2007; Sanz 2008], which usually took the form of:

– the intention to return,
– the intention to recommend [Campon, Alves, Hernandez 2013, p. 28].

There was one study whose result differentiated between the three constructs, namely the intention to pay a return visit in the short, medium, or long-term period [Jang, Feng 2007].

An attempt to identify the basic determinants of consumer loyalty in the tourism market has for years constituted an important objective of numerous studies. Table 3 presents the review of research results analyzing factors which determine consumer loyalty in the tourism market.

Table 3. The review of selected research on loyalty antecedents in the tourism industry

Author	Analyzed variables	Research subject	Research results
L.P. Pritchard, D. Howard 1997	Loyalty Satisfaction Consumer's involvement Perception of service quality	Tourist services	Emphatic service provider, consumer's involvement and satisfaction represent three key factors determining real loyalty in tourist services.
J. F. Petrick 1999	Satisfaction Perceived service value Loyalty Repurchase declaration	Golf course	Loyalty depends on satisfaction and satisfaction with a customer's perceived service value. Internal variables have limited influence on consumer satisfaction, perceived value, loyalty, and consumer repurchase declarations. Satisfaction, perceived value, and loyalty jointly explain particular behaviors related to repurchases of recreational services.
J. T. Bowen, S. Chen 2001	Satisfaction Loyalty	Hospitality industry	The relation between satisfaction and loyalty is not a linear one.
L. Lee, M. F. Cunningham 2001	Loyalty Service quality	Travel agencies	Perceived service quality, offer costs, and costs of leaving exert a significant impact on consumer loyalty in the market of travel agencies.
J. F. Petrick, S. J. Backman 2001	Repurchase declaration Satisfaction Perceived value of an offer Loyalty	Recreational services	Satisfaction, perceived value of an offer, and loyalty jointly influence consumer declarations regarding an offer repurchase. Among the analyzed factors, satisfaction constitutes the best repurchase prediction. Loyalty depends on satisfaction and the consumer's perception of the value of an offer.
Y. Yoon, M. Uysak 2005	Motivation Satisfaction Loyalty	Destination	Destination loyalty is correlated with tourists' satisfaction as a result of their experiences. Satisfaction represents the factor negatively correlated with a "pull" type motivation (referring to destination choice). However, it does not depend on a "push" type motivation (referring to tourist activity), which, in turn, is positively correlated with loyalty to a given destination.

L. Hernández-Lobato, M. M. Solis-Radilla, M. A. Moliner-Tena, Sánchez-García 2006	Destination Image (natural resources, service quality, entertainment, and affective images) Satisfaction Loyalty	Destination	The paper analyzes the causal relationships among three key variables in tourism marketing: image, satisfaction, and loyalty. Destination images influence tourist loyalty and behavioral intention in the tourist industry.
W. Kim, H. Han 2008	Perceived quality Perceived value Relationship quality (customer satisfaction, trust) Loyalty intentions	Restaurant	This study examines the relationships among perceived quality, perceived value, relationship quality (customer satisfaction and trust), and loyalty intentions in the full service restaurant industry. The results support the hypothesized relationships among the study's constructs. In addition, relationship quality was found to be a partial mediator in the relationship between perceived value and loyalty intentions.
P. Mechinda, S. Serirat, N. Gulid 2009	Destination loyalty (attitudinal and behavioral) Attachment Perceived value Satisfaction Motivation (pull, push) Familiarity	Destination	Multiple regression analysis indicated that attitudinal loyalty is mainly driven by attachment, familiarity, and perceived value, whereas behavioral loyalty is driven by familiarity. Only one dimension of a pull motivation (history, heritage, and knowledge) influenced attitudinal loyalty, whereas a pull motivation had no effect on behavioral loyalty. Regarding push motivation, tourists' desire for novelty negatively influenced behavioral loyalty. Finally, male tourists tended to be more attitudinally and behaviorally loyal, while tourists who had children living with them showed less attitudinal loyalty.
S. Lee, S. Jeon, D. Kim 2011	Perceived quality of tourist offers Consumer expectations Satisfaction Motivation	Travel agencies	Tourists' expectations have a negative impact on their perceptions of the quality of an offer, whereas consumers' motivations have a positive influence on them. However, the perceived quality of an offer has a positive impact on consumer satisfaction. An inverse relationship occurs between satisfaction and tourists' complaints as well as the direct relation between customer satisfaction and loyalty (the more complaints, the lower the loyalty level).

Table 3 cont.

Author	Analyzed variables	Research subject	Research results
S. M. Correia Loureiro, E. Kastenholz 2011	Delight Satisfaction Image Perceived quality	Lodging services	The image of a lodging facility is a more important factor in determining consumer loyalty than their satisfaction or even their experienced delight.
R. Seweryn 2012	Satisfaction of tourist services (transport, accommodation, gastronomic, guide, and information services) Destination loyalty (attitudinal and behavioral) Origin of tourists (domestic, foreign)	Destination	A small but statistically significant dependence of the loyalty of domestic tourists to a destination and the level of satisfaction from the value of tourist services in its area is apparent. The strongest noticeable correlation refers to the loyalty of domestic tourists and their satisfaction from the consumption of accommodation services. Tour guides and accommodation services have the strongest impact on the frequency of visits, while the influence of gastronomic services is the smallest. Recommendations, on the other hand, determine mainly accommodation services and the most insignificant role is played by tour guide services, whereas the influence of transportation and information services on the intention to recommend a destination is minor. In case of foreign tourists, the correlations are stronger. The coefficient reaches the highest value regarding the loyalty (both emotional and behavioral) of foreigners in terms of a destination and satisfaction from accommodation services. The influence of opinions of information and transportation services on behavioral loyalty is also relatively strong, as is the impact of gastronomic services on emotional loyalty. However, the evaluation of gastronomic and entertainment services presents the weakest correlation with the frequency of visits by foreign tourists to a destination.
G. Prayag, C. Ryan 2012	Destination image Habits Involvement Satisfaction Loyalty	Destination	Destination image, a consumer's involvement, and his or her habits constitute indirect loyalty determinants manifested by the level of consumer satisfaction.

W. H. Lai, N. Q. Vinh 2013	Online promotion Awareness Satisfaction Loyalty	Destination	The results show that the relationship among online promotions, destination awareness, destination satisfaction, and destination loyalty appear to be significant. The result indicates that online promotion can improve the destination loyalty. Online promotion has a direct influence on destination awareness and also on satisfaction and destination loyalty. Satisfaction as the direct factor has an effect on destination loyalty.
W. Suwunniponth 2013	Loyalty (word of mouth, repetition) Service Quality (website quality, service ability, trust ability, customer empathy, responsiveness to customers) Expectations Satisfaction	Online tourism enterprises	The results indicate that the level of satisfaction from responsiveness to customers had the highest influence on the loyalty of tourists who used online travel enterprises. The level of satisfaction from customer empathy had the highest influence on the tourists to recommend online travel services to others. Also, the level of satisfaction from service ability had the highest influence on tourists to take an actual trip.
A. Haque, A. H. Khan 2013	Destination Image Perceived Value Service quality Loyalty	Destination	The image of a tourist destination, its perceived value, and its service quality are all closely associated with destination loyalty and have a positive relationship with tourist loyalty to a destination.
R. Eid 2013	Customer's Perceived Value Satisfaction Loyalty Retention	Tourist industry	The strength of the relationship between the constructs (perceived value, satisfaction, loyalty, retention) indicates that features of the suggested model are crucial to achieving Muslim customer retention in the tourism industry.
A. Movafegh, A. Movafegh 2013	Service quality (reliability, tangibles, empathy, assurance, responsiveness) Loyalty Demographic characteristics	Tourism industry	All 5 dimensions of service quality have a positive correlation with loyalty. There is: – a very strong relationship between tangibles and loyalty, – a strong positive relationship between assurance and loyalty, – a weak positive relationship between empathy and loyalty, reliability and loyalty, and responsiveness and loyalty.
			There is no significant relationship between genders in terms of their loyalty; there is a significant relationship among age and educational levels in terms of their tourist loyalty.

Table 3 cont.

Author	**Analyzed variables**	**Research subject**	**Research results**
D. Jani, H. Han 2013 [a]	Personality Satisfaction Image Ambience Loyalty	Hotel industry	This research presents a theoretical model that relates personality, satisfaction, loyalty, ambience, and image in a hotel setting. The results of the structural equation modeling indicated that extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism are among the personality factors that significantly affect satisfaction. Satisfaction has a significant impact on hotel image and guests' loyalty. Compared to satisfaction, hotel image has a lesser impact on loyalty and is a mediator for the impact of satisfaction on loyalty.
Zong, X. Fu, L. A. Cai, L. H. Lu 2014	Destination image (affective, cognitive) Tourist loyalty (composite, attitudinal, and behavioral loyalty)	Destination	The findings reveal that the impact of destination image on tourist loyalty is significant to varying degrees. Specifically, the overall image has the greatest impact on tourist loyalty, followed by affective image and cognitive image. The cognitive-affective joint image fails to demonstrate a stable impact on tourist loyalty. Of the three levels of tourist loyalty, destination image has the greatest impact on composite loyalty, and then on attitudinal loyalty and behavioral loyalty.

Source: Author's compilation.

The analysis and critical approach to literature[10] allows for an organization and aggregation of knowledge and also supports the conceptualization of the underlying terms.

Summary

In conclusion, based on the literature review covering studies which address causal factors that determine loyalty in tourism, and after implementing the existing theoretical concepts on the grounds of tourism economy, the most frequently indicated loyalty determinants of consumers of tourist services from the results of previous research projects are presented in the figure below.

Each of the above factors has an impact on the loyalty of consumers of tourist services and can be assigned, in accordance with the previously

[10] With regard to the limitations of this study, it should be mentioned that there is significant difficulty involved in an in-depth revision of the literature on a global scale, even though every effort has been made to identify the largest possible number of studies and to carry out the work required for this study in the most methodical manner possible.

discussed polymorphic approach to loyalty, to the antecedents of behavioral or affective loyalty. This can result in determining their area of overlap and therefore the determinants of loyalty, constituting the result of consumers' attitudes and behaviors (Fig. 5).

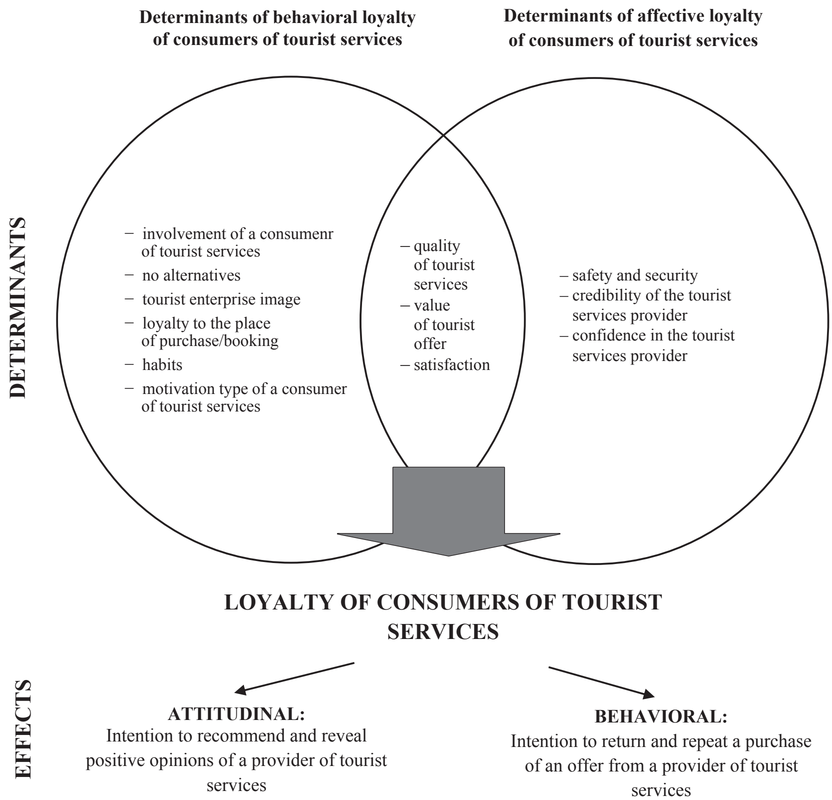

Figure 5. The conceptualization of consumer loyalty research in the tourism market—antecedents and consequences of the loyalty of consumers of tourist services

Source: Author's compilation.

When concluding the discussion on the determinants of consumer loyalty related to tourist services, one can state that the loyalty of the consumers of tourist enterprises depends on many factors which are responsible for the determinants of tourist behaviors (macroeconomic factors, subjective factors, objective economic factors [both internal and external], non-economic internal and external factors, and endogenous and exogenous determinants of consumer loyalty). Tourist behavior is also influenced by the characteristics of a consumer him/herself, in addition to the qualities of the tourism sector and the specific market conditions in which tourism entities function.

From the perspective of expanding opportunities for an effective implementation of activities aimed to establish relations between tourism companies and their consumers, as well as strengthening the loyalty of tourist enterprises' clients, it is crucial to identify the concept of loyalty itself and also to conduct in-depth studies on the nature and determinants of loyalty manifested by the consumers of tourist products.

Following the subject literature review and the worldwide research output, the article indicates the determinants of loyalty characteristics typical for consumers of tourist services, owing to which it is possible to have a better understanding of the complex relations between the client and the tourism industry, as well as to explain the decision-making processes of consumers.

The literature review confirms that while consumer loyalty to a destination and accommodation services constitutes a frequent objective of research, consumer loyalty to travel agents (entities dealing with the organization and intermediary services in the tourism industry) is rarely analyzed. The above conclusions indicate the need for conducting further research and undertaking attempts to explain consumer loyalty in the tourism industry in Poland in this particular area.

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WIELOWYMIAROWOŚĆ I DETERMINANTY LOJALNOŚCI NABYWCÓW USŁUG TURYSTYCZNYCH

Abstrakt

Cel. Celem artykułu jest przedstawienie polimorfizmu pojęcia lojalności, a także wskazanie uwarunkowań lojalności klientów na rynku turystycznym.
Metoda. Przegląd piśmiennictwa służący zarówno celom poznawczym (charakter heurystyczny, pomocniczy) jak i utylitarnym (poprzez analizę i ocenę wcześniejszych przedsięwzięć naukowych oraz istniejącego zasobu publikacji na badany temat umożliwia przedstawienie aktualnego stanu wiedzy, zintegrowanie wyników dotychczas prowadzonych prac badawczych oraz zaproponowanie syntezy wiedzy).
Wyniki. Analiza i krytyka piśmiennictwa umożliwiła uporządkowanie zagregowanej wiedzy, a także pomogła w konceptualizacji pojęć. Na podstawie przeglądu literatury przedmiotu z zakresu zachowań konsumenckich oraz szeroko rozumianej problematyki lojalności sformułowane w artykule zostały porównania do zachowań nabywców na rynku turystycznym oraz specyfiki rynku turystycznego. Autorka podjęła próbę implementacji istniejących koncepcji teoretycznych na grunt gospodarki turystycznej.
Ograniczenie badań i wnioskowania. Zgodnie z metodyką badań naukowych wykorzystane w artykule metody badawcze mają charakter badań wstępnych - poszukiwawczych i eksploracyjnych – stanowiących punkt wyjścia dla właściwych badań własnych nad niniejszą tematyką.
Implikacje praktyczne. Dzięki szczegółowej analizie i obserwacji wskazanych w artykule uwarunkowań lojalności nabywców usług turystycznych możliwe staje się lepsze zrozumienie złożonych relacji: klient – rynek oraz wyjaśnienie procesów decyzyjnych będących udziałem klienta.
Oryginalność. W oparciu o istniejącą literaturę Autorka formułuje definicje konstruktów badawczych na rynku turystycznym: proponuje definicję lojalności klientów przedsiębiorstw turystycznych, identyfikuje podstawowe jej obiekty, a także – na podstawie przeglądu prowadzonych przez międzynarodowe środowisko naukowe badań – wskazuje uwarunkowania występowania behawioralnej oraz afektywnej lojalności nabywców usług turystycznych.
Rodzaj pracy. Artykuł o charakterze przeglądowym, prezentujący koncepcje teoretyczne.

Słowa kluczowe: zachowania turystyczne, lojalność nabywców przedsiębiorstw turystycznych, obiekty oraz determinanty lojalności nabywców usług turystycznych.

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A SURVEY OF THE ATTRACTIVNESS OF MUSEUM SERVICES IN KRAKOW: A PROPOSAL FOR METHODOLOGY

Zygmunt Kruczek, Adam R. Szromek***

Abstract

Purpose. A fundamental aim of this research was to assess the usefulness of the Mystery Shopping (MS) method in examining the quality of museums.
Method. The MS method has been applied to assess the quality of the tourism product offered by museums in Krakow, as museums are the most important tourist attractions of the city, which itself is a well-known center of cultural tourism in Europe. The MS assessment was carried out by a team of auditors using a special-purpose questionnaire gauging 40 features concerning seven components of a museum (its surroundings, entrance, exhibits, shop, gastronomic facilities, lavatories, and promotion).
Findings. The results of the survey were used in preparing a ranking for the museums of Krakow. It has been proven based on a statistical interpretation that the MS method is useful in assessing the quality of services at tourist attractions.
Research and conclusion limitations. The formulated conclusions are limited by the specificity of the investigated object and the conditions of the environment in which it operates.
Practical implications. The survey results will enable the management of museums to modify their management styles, increase attendance, and improve their services by adjusting them to match the needs of modern audiences.
Originality. This paper is the first of its kind in Poland to discuss MS implementation in tourist attractions.
Type of paper. Research article.

Keywords: tourist attractions, museums, mystery shopping research.

* Ph.D., Associate Professor, University of Physical Education, Faculty of Tourism and Recreation, Department of Tourism and Recreation, Poland [dr hab. prof. nadzw., Akademia Wychowania Fizycznego w Krakowie, Wydział Turystyki i Rekreacji, Katedra Nauk o Środowisku Przyrodniczym]; e-mail: zygmunt.kruczek@awf.krakow.pl.

** Ph.D., Associate Professor, Silesian University of Technology, Management and Organization Department, Computers and Economics Institute, Poland [dr hab. prof. nadzw., Politechnika Śląska, Wydział Organizacji i Zarzadzania, Instytut Ekonomii i Informatyki]; e-mail: szromek@polsl.pl.

Introduction

Tourist attractions are often described as a key component of the tourist market and an important element of the tourism system, as they stimulate interest in traveling to a given destination and ensure visitors' satisfaction. They are a magnet drawing tourists to the region and simultaneously stimulate demand for other tourist services. Despite their enormous significance to tourism, they remain poorly understood [G. Richards 2002, p. 1048].

Tourist attractions have become a wonder of our time; they are one of the most complex and regular universal codes in modern societies. The role of tourist attractions in the post-modern world is changing. Consumer expectations and innovations of tourism organizers have led to changes to and an evolution of the tourist attraction market, which has resulted in the diversification of this sector. Tourist attractions are changing dynamically in terms of their form, location, scope, and style.

The last 20 years of the twentieth century brought about an unprecedented growth in tourist attractions. In many countries, their number doubled during this period. This can be justly described as the wonder of tourist attractions; the market of tourist attractions is developing dynamically, satisfying the needs of tourists and tourism organizers. Attractions continue to be created, discovered, developed, and managed in order to keep up with the needs and tastes of audiences. In addition, the development of attractions is a subject of interest of the government administration in the countries and regions that receive tourist traffic as well as in the entire tourism industry.

Within the system of tourist attractions, a special role is played by museums. They carry all of the defining characteristics of a tourist attraction, as they are cultural monuments that attract tourists. Famous museums can act as primary attractions that determine the destination of a voyage, while other, lesser known museums only complement the program of a trip. Visiting museums is, at present, a social phenomenon involving the participation of millions of people. Museums have become the most-visited tourist attractions alongside amusement parks. The popularity of a museum is currently determined not only by its artistic or instructional value, but also by salesmanship and promotional skills.

Overview of Research into Tourist Attractions

Many researchers have attempted to define tourist attractions. The term was first introduced by E. Cohen [1972]. Initially, tourist attractions were construed as "anything that interests tourists" or a "characteristic place, often unique, e.g. the natural environment, a historical monument, festivals and sports events" [Goodall 1990, pp. 63–68]. A new approach was engendered by McCannell's systemic definition [2002, p. 64], formulated in the language of semiotics. In his opinion, a tourist attraction is a structurally complex sign, an empirical relation between a tourist, a place, and a meaning – a piece of information concerning a place.

In contrast to these broad interpretations, one encounters in literature a more pragmatic approach to defining tourist attractions. The dictionary definition describes tourist attractions as components of a tourism product which attract visitors and cause them to choose a particular region over other possibilities [Medlik 1994, p. 151].

The definitions put forth by C. A. Gunn [1979, p. 371] clearly describe attractions as individual places, monuments, or objects, whereas the definitions given by P. Lavery and T. Stevens [1990, p. 52], J. Walsh-Heron and T. Stevens [1990], and P.L. Pearce [1991, p. 46] reduce the concept of an attraction to structures and areas of "fixed dimensions." G. Wall [1997, pp. 240, 243] noted that tourist attractions can take the form of a line, a point, or an area.

The body of research on classifying tourist attractions is broad. The classification scheme put forth by J. Swarbrooke [2002, p. 5] is the most common one; it distinguishes natural attractions, man-made cultural attractions, and events. Attractions are classified as transit attractions or destination attractions based on the amount of time that tourists spend at them [Gunn 1985, p. 371]. Additionally, attractions may be classified as flagship attractions [Leask, Fyall 2006, pp. 24–26]. These are the best and most important attractions or icons taken to be representative or symbolic of a given culture.

Research into tourist attractions employs varied classification criteria. By bringing these criteria together, we obtain a multidimensional matrix. Examples are provided by the two-dimensional matrix of P.J. Benckendorff [2004, p.11], which includes criteria of the location of an attraction and its character (a place, an event), and the four-dimensional matrix of B. Garrod and A. Fyall [2000, p. 686], which takes into account the location of an attraction, its accessibility, the way in which it is managed, and its reach.

In a new line of research known as cultural economics [Benhamou 2004], a new domain, called the economics of museums, is being investigated. Researchers are also interested in tourist functions performed by museums.

Quality has been humanity's constant companion since the dawn of recorded history. The splendid monuments of ancient Egypt, Greece, or Rome prove the existence of advanced canons of quality [Panasiuk 2011, p. 270]. The notion of quality (ancient Greek: *poiotes*) was first formulated by Plato and Aristotle, and the term which Cicero introduced, *qualitas*, has survived to this day after being introduced into the Romance and Germanic languages (French: *la qualité*; German: *die Qualität*; English: *quality*). Today in many countries, the sign "Q" denotes a product of the highest quality [Panasiuk 2011, p. 270].

The notion of quality is difficult to define in explicit terms, but the creator of Total Quality Management (TQM), J. Juran, defines quality as:

– a characteristic feature that makes a product stand out (appearance, production method, durability, reliability, resistance to wear and tear),

– the extent to which a particular product satisfies the needs of a particular purchaser,
– the extent to which one particular product is favored by consumers over another following comparison studies [Juran 1962, pp. 1–2].

Defining service quality is more complex than describing product quality characteristics. This is because, in the case of services, the customer on the whole takes an active part in the process of a service's creation, which means that a service is not only experienced as a final outcome, but also as form of customer support with separate stages. The following are often categorized as service quality dimensions: responsiveness, competency, courtesy, communicativeness, credibility, security, and understanding.

A. Parasuraman et al. [1985, p. 44] identified a number of gaps (or discrepancies) existing between customer perception of services and their actual delivery by service providers. They proposed a model in which a client's service evaluation is influenced by the following quality gaps (Fig. 1):

I. The disparity between a customer's expectations and a management's perception of these expectations;
II. The disparity between a management team's perception of a customer's expectations and service quality specifications;
III. The disparity between service quality specifications and the information a customer has obtained about them;
IV. The disparity between quality of service and the information a customer has obtained about it;
V. The disparity between the extent to which expectations are fulfilled and a customer's perception of service. In the case of this fifth gap, five service quality dimensions have been isolated:
   1. **The material dimension** (comfort and aesthetics of the material infrastructure of services);
   2. **Service reliability**, which denotes service providers' ability to deliver services in compliance with a concluded agreement;
   3. **Responsiveness to customer expectations**, i.e., willingness to provide assistance and an immediate response, thus meeting the demands imposed by a customer;
   4. **Professionalism and trust**, relating to the product knowledge of personnel, their tact, and the creation of a sense of security;
   5. **Empathy**, i.e., the ability to understand customer expectations, a caring attitude, and individualized customer attention [A. Parasuraman et al. 1985, p. 44].

In tourism-focused literature [Gołembski 2002, p. 368], tourism service quality is treated as an interdisciplinary category, both subjective and relative, denoting compliance between the characteristics of a tourism product or service and the requirements and expectations of tourists who pay a fixed price for it. Purchasers of tourism services increasingly require and demand that these services be of a high standard. Quality thus determines the durability and competitiveness of tourism entities in the conditions of rising competition. Quality-oriented solutions are therefore an essential instrument for the achievement of competitiveness [Panasiak 2008, p. 54]. Based on the recommendations of the World Tourism Organization (UNWTO), quality is treated in tourism as a component of tourists' quality of life during a temporary stay away from their place of residence. In tourism in general, *quality is an integral component of the tourism product creation process*, which ensures that tourists' needs and expectations are satisfied [Panasiuk, ed. 2011, p. 274].

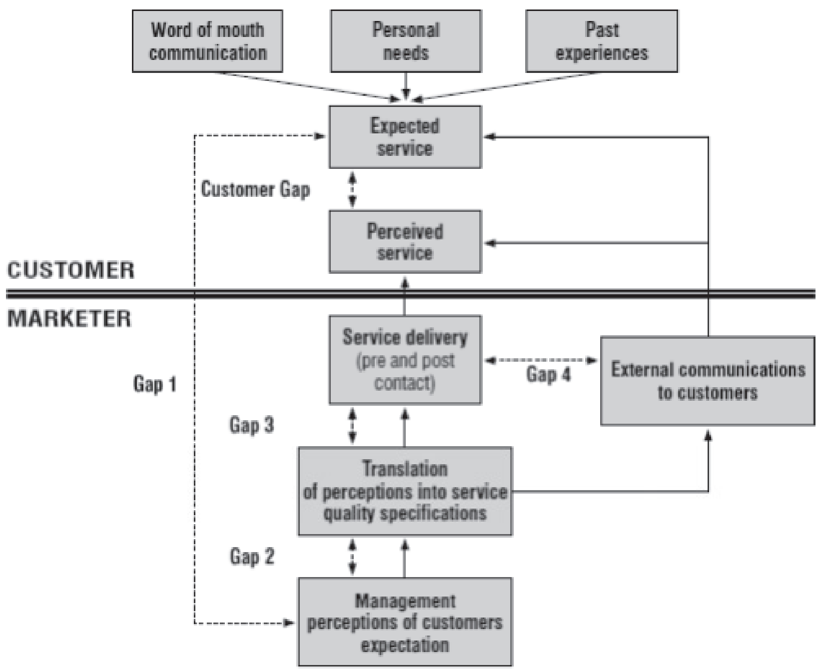

Figure 1. The integrated Gaps Model of Service Quality
Source: A. Parasuramanet et al. 1985, p. 44

Researchers who study service quality define it as a measure of the degree to which services are satisfactory to customers. Responsibility, competence, courtesy, communication skills, trustworthiness, safety, and understanding are all listed among the dimensions of service quality. In other words, providing a high quality of service means shaping services to match customers' expectations. Research into service quality in the tourism industry has so far been concerned with measuring the quality of services provided by travel agencies and hotels [Ekinci, Riley 2001]. The quality of regional tourist products has also been analyzed without focusing on particular tourist attractions [Danaher, Arweiler 1996].

Z. Kruczek [2010, p. 147] brought the cultural value of attractions into focus, reserving the term "tourist attractions" for artifacts of genuine high culture and contrasting them with those kitschy and tacky artificial dummies devoid of value that are created for purely commercial reasons ("tourist traps").

The utilization of museums as tourist attractions has been studied by Z. Kruczek [2011], M. Nowacki [2007], and A. Stasiak [2007]. The state of museology in Poland and the number of museums and their attendance were described in an extensive study by D. Folga-Januszewska [2008]. Museologists themselves have described the necessity of applying marketing techniques and PR activities to museums [Białek 2005; Kiciński 2001]. The "Market Repositioning Toward Entertainment" strategy related to the 3-es rule, which demands that museums introduce additional entertainment devices [Rottermund 2001], is recommended.

Research has been conducted on the topic of tourist services offered by museums. Tourism literature [Gołembski, ed. 2002, p. 368; Panasiuk 2010, p. 274] treats tourist service quality as a subjective and relative interdisciplinary category; its meaning consists of the conformity of tourist goods or services with the demands and expectations of tourists who buy them at a particular price. The Mystery Shopping method is one of the various means of assessing service quality. It has so far been applied to tourism research concerning service quality at information centers, hotels, and gastronomic establishments [Czuba, Skurzyński 2003; Maison 2007, p. 221; Panasiuk 2011, p. 286].

Quality Assessment of Tourist Products

Quality in tourism is an integral part of the process of creating a tourist product that satisfies the expectations and needs of tourists. In the case of tourist attractions, the product is of a mixed nature, with both service and material aspects. It largely consists of the intangible part of the product, namely service at the reception desk located at the entrance of an attraction, in the display area (tour guide services, security guards, live interpretations, etc.), in the restaurant area (sales counter, waiters), in the souvenir shop, etc. There is no doubt that these elements have a tremendous influence on the quality of the experiences and the satisfaction of visitors to tourist attractions. Additionally, something of great importance is the tangible part of the product, namely promotional materials, accessibility of attractions and parking space, outward appearance, interior design, and, above all, the exhibits, their value and prominence, and their mode of presentation and interpretation.

The Mystery Shopping (MS) method is employed in marketing research to assist in the measurement of customer service levels and may contain both quantitative and qualitative components. Demand for reliable new research methods in the United States during the mid-twentieth century led to the appearance of a research trend known as Mystery Research. This trend was based on the quality control of services through the measurement of various quality parameters.

This method allowed an anonymous party to research elements such as service quality and staff competencies in the area of customer service. However, it quickly became a key method for analyzing the service market. It is employed most often to measure sales networks. There are many definitions of the MS method, but one of them characterizes it as a type of research in which the auditor plays the role of an ordinary customer who conducts observations while shopping, which he later records on a special form. The auditor does not reveal his identity, so the observed party does not know that his work is being monitored. The actions of mystery shoppers are intentional and systematic [Maison 2007, p. 221].

Mystery shopping seems to be a useful instrument also in service environments like hotels and in the travel and tourism industry [Anderson et al. 2001; Erstad 1998; Wilson, Gutmann 1998]. A number of publications can be found on the prerequisites and conditions for mystery shopping [McNerney 1996; Boyd 1995].

In Poland, the MS method has been developing dynamically since its appearance around ten years ago. It is employed in the hotel and transport sectors, retail trade, telecommunications, tourism, and other branches of the service sector. Real situations are simulated on the basis of standard processes and content-based data. These situations serve to generate objective results related to interactions between the staff and the customer. Mystery Research studies have proven to be effective, as this method is clearly removed from traditional methods that subjectively measure customer satisfaction levels.

The Mystery Shopping (MS) method of marketing research, which is used to assess the quality of customer service, can be employed to measure both quantitative and qualitative parameters. It can be applied to assess the quality of the tourist product of an attraction. This is proven by the results of surveying the quality of the tourist product of the museums of Krakow. The high degree of objectivity of the MS method is achieved by the judicious choice of auditors, by setting down an objective, substantive test content, and script, and also by using repeated measurements. The MS method has proven to be a good research tool because it is helpful in improving the quality of service in the industry of tourist attractions. In applying it, one examines the services offered by the attraction, its adherence to institutional aims, and its quality and conformity with current internal standards. MS is a discreet and professional form of assessing the quality of service during interactions between the customer and the staff. The mysterious customers are obligated to conduct their inspection without drawing attention to themselves or demanding special treatment.

Crucial to MS-based research is the creation of a questionnaire. The questionnaire should aid the auditor in the precise, detailed, and non-subjective recording of facts and provide the auditor with an opportunity to add additional remarks. This stage is the most difficult in making MS effective. An incorrectly prepared questionnaire can defeat the efforts of even the best auditor. The actual mysterious customer is another important element of the research set-up. This person should resemble an average customer visiting the given institution at the given location. MS is a method of evaluating the service quality at business enterprises. It makes it possible to assess, diagnose, and optimize service quality in hotels, shops, restaurants, tourist attractions, etc. It is capable of providing very precise data on service quality. The results of an MS survey are recorded immediately upon the survey's completion and can be relayed to the management without delay. Among the advantages of this method is its repeatability: a given institution can be surveyed once every six months, which makes it possible not only to assess service quality, but also to monitor its evolution. Auditors conduct a comprehensive assessment of interactions with the staff and take note of all situations which could cause customers to be unsatisfied.

The disadvantages of MS include the large amount of preparation that is required, as well as the diligence necessary to select the appropriate auditors. It is also impossible to completely eliminate auditors' influence on survey outcomes. Despite significant efforts to select and train auditors, they may subjectively evaluate the surveyed parameters instead of matching the opinions of actual customers.

Research Aims, Methods, and Results

A fundamental aim of this research was to assess the usefulness of the Mystery Shopping method in examining the quality of tourist attractions. The authors treat attractions as a basic element of a tourist product. The MS method was used to examine the quality of Krakow museums as tourist products. They are the most important tourist attractions in this city, which is a well-known center of cultural tourism in Europe. The aim of this study is to determine what kind of dependencies exist between features of museums taken as tourist products that are subject to evaluation by tourists, and to determine the importance of the analyzed elements in the overall quality assessment of the studied institution. It is not an insignificant task to evaluate the individual features of a museum (the tourist attraction) and the elements that indirectly contribute to the tourist product and influence the overall assessment of the exhibition as a real tourist product.

The empirical basis for this analysis consisted of data which was gathered by surveys of twenty-five museums in Krakow, which is one half of the city's museums. The research was carried out at the end of 2011 and the beginning of 2012.

Treating museums as unique tourism products, the most well-known and well-frequented museums were chosen for the purposes of this research. Half of them are assembled in three large institutions, with individual exhibitions functioning within them as autonomous branches. Research was conducted in:

1. The Wawel Royal Castle National Collection—the Royal Chambers, the Treasury, and the Cathedral;
2. The National Museum in Krakow—the Main Branch, the Gallery of 19th-Century Polish Art in the Sukiennice, the Bishop Erazm Ciołek Palace, and the Matejko House;
3. The Historical Museum of the City of Krakow in Krzysztofory Palace, the Old Synagogue, the Oscar Schindler Factory, and the underground exhibits at the Main Square.

Given the high number of visitors, the Tourist Route in the Wieliczka Salt Mine Museum was also studied. Among the studied museum complexes, there were two institutions run by Jagiellonian University (the Collegium Maius Museum and the Museum of Pharmacy). The remaining museums chosen for the study were from different categories. Some were archaeological or technical (the Municipal Museum of Engineering, the Polish Aviation Museum, the Museum of Photography); some belonged to the church (the Archdiocesan Museum); some were foundations (the Galicia Jewish Museum); one was the Manggha Museum of Japanese Art and Technology; some concerned the military (the Home Army Museum); and one was Krakow's newest cultural institution, the Museum of Contemporary Art (MOCAK).

For the purposes of the study, appraisal groups were formed with well-trained auditors. The results of their observations were recorded in the form of encoded evaluations on specially prepared forms. In addition to this, remarks concerning the quality of individual elements of the museums were recorded on additional sheets of paper. These were used in qualitative analysis. The form consisted of seven main parts: surroundings (access), entrance, exhibition, gastronomy, shop, lavatories, and promotion. The main parts of the form were composed of several elements (up to a dozen or son). In total, 40 features were evaluated. The importance of individual elements was captured with a system of weights. The most complex were the evaluations of *exhibitions*, since these are the most important element of a museum as a tourist attraction. The quality of the exhibitions was evaluated according to 14 characteristics, or, in other words, one-third of all marks. The role of museum entrances was also emphasized by being judged according to 9 characteristics (almost one-fourth of the characteristics). Four features were assigned to each of the remaining components of the museum (such as gastronomy, the souvenir shop, and promotion), three features were reserved for arrival and access, and two for the lavatories. Each of the components was evaluated by means of the classic Likert scale ranging from 0 to 5, in which 0 represents the absolute lowest value (unacceptable quality) and 5 represents quality at the highest level.

In order to increase the thoroughness of the evaluations, each of the museums was assessed by three independent groups of auditors and the final score was an average of the grades that were given. The average scores were calculated for each of the components, as well as for the main parts. These served as a basis for evaluation in further stages of the analysis. Individual elements of tourist attractions were evaluated on a scale of 0 to 5 (treating this score as a stimulant).

The study of the collected data was based on a statistical analysis of both a one-dimensional character (in the form of a classical or positional descriptive analysis) and a two-dimensional character (in the form of an analysis of dependencies between pairs of components). An analysis of a multi-dimensional character was also conducted using methods of multi-dimensional comparative analysis (taxonomical methods), factor analysis, and multi-dimensional calibration.

A descriptive statistical analysis concerning a few quantitative features consisted primarily in obtaining such benchmarks as an arithmetic average, standard deviation, quartiles, the mode and its number of occurrences, and a coefficient of variation [Ostasiewicz, Rusnak, Siedlecka 1997; Zeliaś 2000].

The normality of the studied variables' distributions was tested using the Shapiro-Wilk test [Ostasiewicz, Rusnak, Siedlecka 1997; Sobczyk 1997; Stanisz 2005]. In the verification of statistical hypotheses, statistical tests were used while taking into account significance on the level $\alpha \leq 0.05$. It is thus determined that the probability p of making a type I error is no higher than 0.05, and in many cases no higher than 0.01 or even 0.001.

In the correlation analysis, Pearson's linear correlation coefficient and Spearman's rank were used [Freedmann 2005], selecting a suitable measure according to the forms of the correlated variables and the distribution of these variables. In carrying out multi-dimensional statistical analysis [Aczel 2005], many advanced computational techniques were used in the form of factor analysis and multi-dimensional scaling [Stanisz 2006]. The taxonomical methods that were used concern Multi-dimensional Comparative Analysis [Kendall 1975], and the zero unitarization method was applied to them [Kukuła 2000].

The museums that were analyzed showed only slight differences in the quality assessment of specific groups of evaluated features. The most highly evaluated group of features of museums in Krakow was the commercial aspect (Shop) connected with the sale of souvenirs, etc., as well as the state of the lavatories (Lavatory) and the overall image (Entrance).

The first aspect, i.e., the one connected to commercial activity, received an average grade of 4.07 ± 0.86 points; this indicates that the auditors felt that:

- The spot where sales are being made is suitable and conforms to this function.
- The range of items for sale is rich and diverse and conforms to the character of the tourist attraction.
- The employees working in the shop are polite, efficient, and dressed appropriately.
- The shop is clean and tidy, and the goods are displayed thematically with the prices visible.

The state of the lavatories was given an equally high evaluation (4.07 ± 0.54), showing that they appear clean and tidy and conform well to the characteristics of the tourist attraction.

The overall image of the tourist attraction received a slightly lower evaluation (4.04 ± 0.42), emphasizing, in particular, that:

- The building is maintained in good condition and is safe and inviting for visitors.
- The appearance of the staff is pleasing (elegant and tidy, though not necessarily in uniform).
- There is a high standard of upkeep, attention to detail (rubbish bins, state of cleanliness), and adequate decor for the type of tourist attraction.

It is interesting that it is precisely in the case of commercial activity that both the highest and the lowest scores from partial evaluations were noted.

The exhibitions were the feature that was given the lowest scores by the auditors. This is the element that is most crucial to a museum as a real tourist product (3.63 ± 0.63). The lowest score was given as a result of a lack of information provided to visitors to increase their awareness of how they could benefit the most from the visit. The auditors also pointed out a lack of information to make visitors aware of the uniqueness of the place and its character.

Weak scores were also given for accessibility to the tourist attraction (3.85 ± 0.53), as well as the way in which the museums were promoted through brochures, websites, and in the media (3.86 ± 0.64).

It is worth noticing (Table 1) that the difference in scores for features evaluated as the lowest and the highest is barely 0.43 points, which means that these scores were similar and vary from each other only slightly. Thus, the overall level of the studied museums was rated at 4 points on a 5-point scale, which is a rather satisfying result.

One can also notice several statistically significant dependencies between the assessed elements. It is important to take note of the high linear dependence between the score received by the exhibition and the score of the overall impression made by the museum upon entrance ($r = 0.6736$ $p < 0.0001$). It is possible to state that, along with an increase in the score for the overall impression of the museum upon entering, the score for the exhibition also rose. It is possible that the auditors' first impression had a large influence on their later evaluation of the exhibition.

Table 1. Results of a descriptive analysis for rating specific elements of museums

Descriptive Analysis	Access	Entrance	Exhibition	Gastronomy	Shop	Lavatories	Promotion
Sample Size	25	25	25	16	23	24	24
Arithmetic Mean	3.85	4.04	3.63	4.09	4.07	4.07	3.86
Standard Deviation	0.53	0.42	0.63	0.94	0.86	0.54	0.64
Lower Quartile	3.40	3.80	3.30	3.90	3.90	3.60	3.45
Median	3.90	4.10	3.60	4.30	4.30	4.20	3.90
Upper Quartile	4.20	4.40	4.20	4.65	4.50	4.50	4.30
Mode	4.2 (6)	–	3.6 (4)	4.3 (4)	4.3 (4)	4.0 (4)	4.3 (4)
Minimum Value	2.80	3.30	2.40	1.00	0.90	3.00	2.40
Maximum Value	4.80	4.80	4.70	5.00	5.00	5.00	4.90
Coefficient of Variation	0.14	0.10	0.17	0.23	0.21	0.13	0.17
Distribution	N	N	N	other	other	N	N

Source: Authors' own research.

A somewhat weaker dependence can be observed in the case of the overall score for the image of the museum upon entering and the score for gastronomical services ($r = 0.5438$ $p < 0.05$) and promotion of the museum ($r = 0.5011$ $p = 0.0064$).

It is important to note that there are several significant linear dependencies between features that can mutually influence each other, which is why it is difficult to evaluate the direction of this influence. The connection between the score for the promotion of the museum and the exhibition can serve as an example. There is also a connection between these elements and the general score for the appearance of the museum at the entrance. Nonetheless, these dependencies indicate a significant influence of particular elements of the museum on each other, and perhaps also on how they are assessed by tourists.

The museums were classified according to their overall score on the basis of the assessments. This score was obtained by processing the data using Multi-dimensional Comparative Analysis. The values were transformed using the zero unitarization method to standardize them and express them on a scale of 0 to 1. After averaging the scores, it became possible to evaluate the individual museums. The ranking that was obtained is presented in Table 3.

Table 2. Values of correlation coefficients for individual elements of the museum

Correlation Coefficient	Access	En-trance	Exhibi-tion	Gastro-nomy	Shop	Lava-tories	Promo-tion
Access	1.0000	0.2294	0.1056	–0.1715	0.2234	0.0972	0.2339
Entrance	0.2294	1.0000	**0.6736**	**0.5438**	0.3565	0.3533	**0.5011**
Exhibition	0.1056	**0.6736**	1.0000	0.1396	0.4004	0.2571	**0.4553**
Gastronomy	–0.1715	**0.5438**	0.1396	1.0000	0.1983	0.0579	0.1642
Shop	0.2234	0.3565	0.4004	0.1983	1.0000	0.2678	**0.5040**
Lavatories	0.0972	0.3533	0.2571	0.0579	0.2678	1.0000	0.3973
Promotion	0.2339	**0.5011**	**0.4553**	0.1642	**0.5040**	0.3973	1.0000

Source: Authors' own research.

Table 3. Synthetic scores for the assessed museums

Name of the Tourist Attraction (Museum)	Ranking	Position
Wieliczka Salt Mine – Tourist Route	0.9548	Leader
Historical Museum of Krakow – Oscar Schindler's Factory	0.8235	Leader
Ethnographic Museum	0.8109	Leader
Historical Museum of Krakow – Main Square Underground	0.7604	Leader
National Museum – Main Building	0.7302	Mediocre
Jagiellonian University – Collegium Maius	0.7255	Mediocre
National Museum – Sukiennice	0.7161	Mediocre
Wieliczka Salt Mine Museum	0.7033	Mediocre
Galicia Foundation	0.6952	Mediocre
Museum of Contemporary Art (MOCAK)	0.6166	Mediocre
Historical Museum of Krakow – The Old Synagogue	0.6151	Mediocre
Manggha Museum of Japanese Art and Technology	0.5918	Mediocre
Wawel Royal Castle National Art Collection – Cathedral	0.5692	Mediocre
National Museum – The Bishop Erazm Ciołek Palace	0.5612	Mediocre
Archaeological Museum	0.5468	Mediocre
Jagiellonian University – Museum of Pharmacy	0.5295	Mediocre
Wawel Royal Castle National Art Collection – The Royal Chambers	0.5122	Mediocre
National Museum – Matejko House	0.4887	Straggler
Museum of Aviation	0.4697	Straggler
Museum of Photography	0.3684	Straggler
Museum of Municipal Engineering	0.3610	Straggler
Archdiocesan Museum	0.3547	Straggler
Historical Museum of Krakow – Krzysztofory Palace	0.3503	Straggler
Home Army Museum	0.2896	Straggler
Wawel Royal Castle National Art Collection – Treasury		Unclassified

Source: Authors' own research.

Assuming that certain scores are an indication of a specific role in Krakow's museum market, four of them can be counted as leaders: the Wieliczka Salt Mine (with its Tourist Route), Oscar Schindler's Factory, the Museum of Ethnography, and the underground exhibits of the Main Square. Seven museums were classified as receiving the worst scores, and one of them was not classified at all due to missing data. The remaining museums were given average scores as tourist attractions. Of course, the categories given to the museums, based on the research that was carried out, are not the sole indication of their potential or even popularity. Apart from the quality of services which were evaluated in the above-mentioned research, a wide range of other, more or less measurable factors should determine their categorization. The categorization presented above relates solely to the quality experienced through museum services (tangible and intangible) and is a way to spur decision-makers in the museums' management to improve their quality. The categorization of tourist attractions based on full criteria (taking into account such aspects as attendance at the museum, ticket prices, etc.) can serve as a promotional tool.

The resulting (synthetic) score was at the same time the explained variable in the linear regression model. The estimated parameters of the model (with free term $a_0 = -1.082$) could serve as weights attached to the individual components of the overall score because the model almost perfectly reflects the observed phenomenon ($R^2 \approx 1.0$), and parameter error is less than $p < 0.0001$.

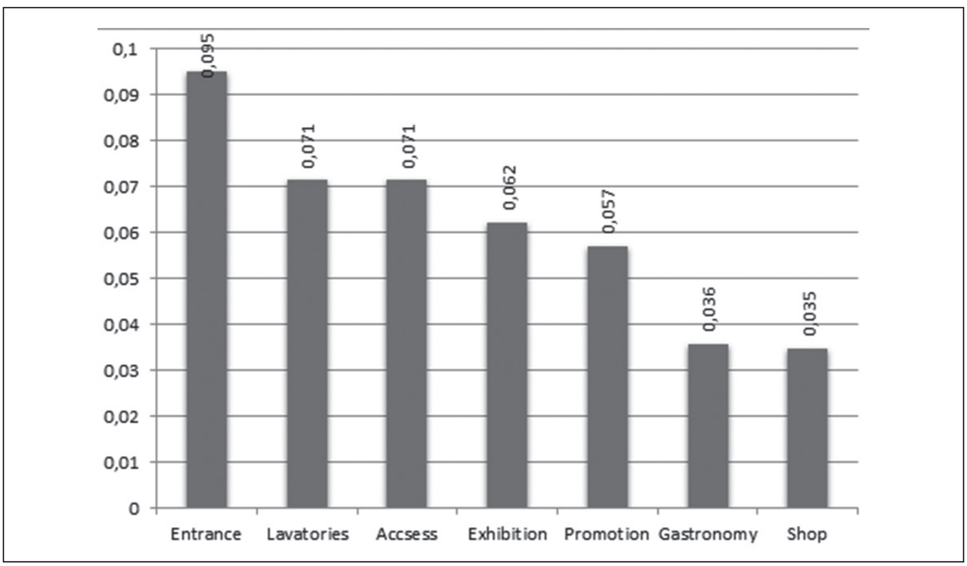

Figure 2. Weights of individual features of studied elements

Source: Authors' own research.

Consequently, the most important evaluated feature is the score given to the appearance of the museum at the entrance. The synthetic score was influenced by the conditions of the lavatories, as well as the ease of access to the museum. The score given to gastronomical and commercial facilities had the weakest impact on the overall score.

Multi-dimensional scaling based on the correlation matrix for the scores made it possible to visualize their mutual relations measured by taxonomic distances. The concurrence between the scores assigned to individual component parts of the museums is apparent here. Particularly conspicuous are the positions of the four features in the center of the graph (Fig. 3). They are the scores assigned to exhibits, promotion, commercial activity, and overall image projected at the entrance. At the same time, these four features represent different areas of the study and belong to different quadrants of the graph. The mutual relations between these components of the score can therefore be confirmed, as can their influence on one another. It would seem that the evaluations made at the entrances of museums and the evaluations of the intensity of museums' promotional efforts strongly affected the auditors and influenced their evaluation of the exhibits. This is merely a conjecture, since determining the direction of influence is impossible here.

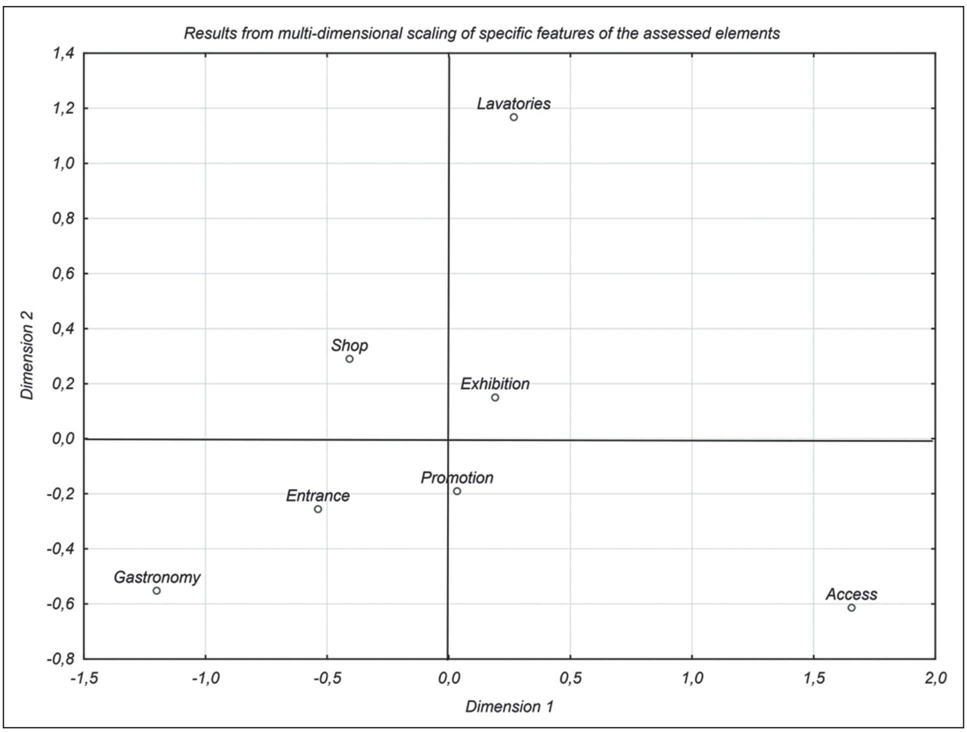

Figure 3. Results from multi-dimensional scaling of specific features of the assessed elements

Source: Authors' own research.

Factor analysis exposed four key features in the first factor in the overall evaluation of museums and two in the second factor. Once again, a significant concurrence has been observed between the scores assigned to the exhibits, promotion, and commercial activity, as well as to access and gastronomic facilities. Both factors put together account for 61% of the total variance.

Table 4. Factor loadings for the individual features under assessment

Factor Analysis	Factor 1	Factor 2
Access	–0.0884	–0.7448
Entrance	–0.8881	0.2348
Exhibition	–0.8096	–0.1477
Gastronomy	–0.4347	0.7155
Shop	–0.7526	–0.1095
Lavatories	–0.4401	–0.1666
Promotion	–0.7989	–0.2233
Explanatory Value	3.0394	1.2331
Share	0.4342	0.1762

Source: Authors' own research.

A graphic representation of the results of factor analysis is presented in Figure 3. The convergence between the score for the exhibition, promotion, and commercial activities is thus confirmed. The general impression made by the museum at the entrance is also closely connected to these features. Access to the museum and gastronomical services are of a somewhat different character and make up a different group of features.

It is necessary to compare the research results from Krakow to results obtained by M. Nowacki [2007] in museums in Western Poland. He has established that the quality of tourist attractions is poor. This lack of quality results from the poor organization of services, lack of interpretation of cultural heritage, and the lack of awareness of visitors' needs among the people managing the attractions. The comparison shows that the study of museums in Krakow ten years later confirms an improvement in the state of services in museums, especially with respect to their accompanying services (gastronomy, souvenir shops), appearance and surroundings, and promotion. The level of quality of the exhibitions, however, still receives a poor evaluation, since there is a lack of interpretation for visitors in many museums. It is important to attract residents from the city and its vicinity to visit museums repeatedly, and even to become engaged in the museum's functioning; it is necessary for museums to strive for closer contact with the life of each resident so that local society is able to identify with them to a greater extent [see Garrod, A. Fyall 2000].

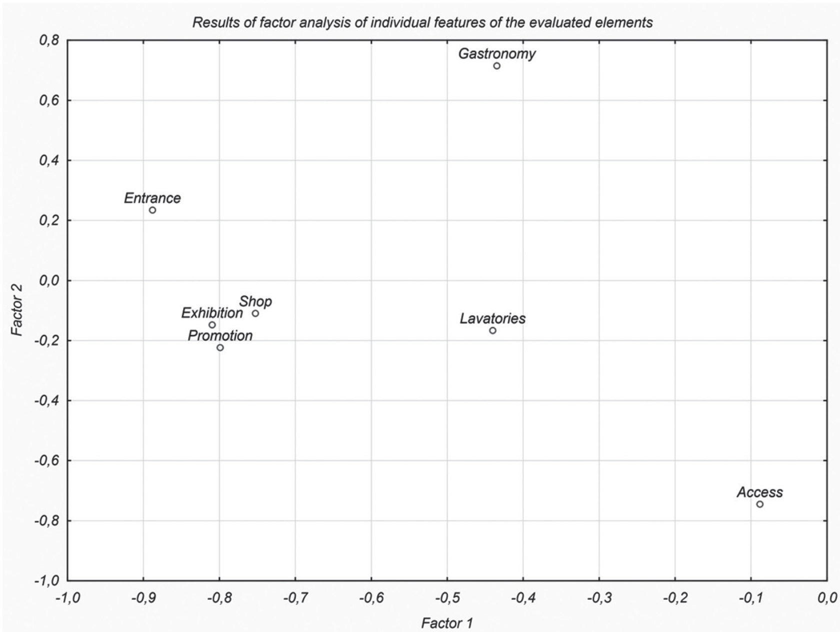

Figure 4. Results of factor analysis of individual features of the evaluated elements
Source: Authors' own research.

The weakness of many of the museums that were studied lies in the fact that the exhibitions are set up in order to be visited by guided groups. A solitary, unprepared tourist does not achieve full satisfaction as he or she is unable to understand the exhibition. This is particularly significant in light of prognoses concerning the development of cultural tourism (the 3 Es rule); it is also significant in the growing involvement of older people and car-owners, as this represents a growth in individual tourism [Garrod, A. Fyall 2000]. A prevailing phenomenon in Polish museums is a lack of competence by people overseeing the exhibitions [Nowacki 2007].

The categorization of tourist attractions could serve as a promotional tool for regional and national tourism promotion agencies [Kruczek, Walas 2010, p. 86]. This could be achieved by placing categorization symbols in promotional materials, on maps and signposts, and at museum entrances.

Further Research

The surveys conducted at the museums confirm the presence of gaps described by A. Parasuraman's service quality model at most, if not all, of the institutions. The managers of tourist attractions do not conduct tourist market research, and thus are not aware of tourists' expectations (gap 1). This lack of familiarity with visitors' expectations makes it impossible to adjust the services offered by the attractions on this basis (gap 2). The unavailability of objective and current evaluations (e.g., categorization) of the institutions is not conducive to maintaining a high level of services (gap 3). The absence of wide-reaching advertising and up-to-date service information results in a lack of understanding and diminished visitor satisfaction (gap 4). Low attendance at museums, reluctance among young people to visit them, and the frequently emphasized boredom accompanying visits to museums all result from discrepancies between customers' expectations and services offered by the attractions (gap 5). These gaps are a consequence of museum managers' lack of awareness of the needs of museum visitors and the absence of a habitually market-oriented approach to managing museums.

Conclusion

Modern museums are structurally complex tourist enterprises with many components relating to the quality of the product (the museum service). For museums to function well as tourist products, Polish museum managers must change their mindsets. The directors should aim not only for high standards of presented content and the preservation of cultural heritage, but also for securing an appropriate level of income for their institutions. The creation of high-quality tourist products at museums demands systematic research into the needs and interests related to participating in cultural activities and analyses of trends and tendencies in this area. In other words, they demand analysis. The analysis of the study's results has also made it possible to discover leaders who can simultaneously fulfill the role of reference points with regard to managing the institutions. Several museums in Krakow, including the Tourist Route at the Wieliczka Salt Mine, the Ethnographic Museum, and two branches of the Historical Museum of Krakow (Oscar Schindler's Factory and the underground exhibits at the Main Square) are particularly deserving of praise.

It is also worth pointing out that statistically significant dependencies were observed between the assessments of the exhibits and the assessments of the overall image projected museums' entrances. The auditors' first impressions proved to match their subsequent evaluations of the exhibits. Similar conclusions can be drawn with respect to other dependencies, since the initial impression was found to be important in evaluating gastronomic services and promotional activities. This suggests that museum managers should undertake efforts to make a favorable impression on visiting tourists.

Research into the supply of tourist services rendered by museums is also important. Here, the Mystery Shopping method, adjusted to the requirements of tourist attraction research, can successfully be applied. This thesis is confirmed by the results of the survey of Krakow museums. The method provides precise data on service quality. Survey results are recorded immediately upon the survey's completion and can be relayed to the management without delay. An advantage of this method is its repeatability, which makes it possible not only to assess service quality, but also to monitor its evolution. The MS method also makes it possible to compare the individual features under evaluation at multiple museums and to determine the best and worst institutions.

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BADANIE ATRAKCYJNOŚCI USŁUG KRAKOWSKICH MUZEÓW. PROPOZYCJA METODOLOGII

Abstrakt

Cel. Głównym celem artykułu jest ocena możliwości wykorzystania metody Mystery Shopping (MS) w badaniu usług oferowanych przez muzea.
Metoda. Metoda MS została wykorzystana do zbadania jakości produktu turystycznego tworzonego przez muzea w Krakowie. Są one bowiem najważniejszymi atrakcjami turystycznymi tego miasta, będącego znanym centrum turystyki kulturowej w Europie. Ocenie przeprowadzona przez zespół audytorów w oparciu o specjalny kwestionariusz mierzący 40 analizowanych cech dotyczyła siedmiu elementów składowych muzeum (otoczenie, wejście, ekspozycja, sklep, gastronomia, toalety, promocja).
Wyniki. Wyniki badań zostały wykorzystane do sporządzenia listy rankingowej dla krakowskich muzeów Udowodniono w oparciu o interpretację statystyczną, że metoda MS jest przydatna do badania jakości usług w atrakcjach turystyczne.
Ograniczenia badań i wnioskowania. Sformułowane wnioski końcowe ograniczone są do specyficznej grupy atrakcji jakimi są muzea oraz lokalizacją badań.
Implikacje praktyczne. Wyniki badań pozwoli managerom placówek muzealnych na modyfikację sposobu zarzadzania i doskonalenie oferty muzealnej, dostosowanie jej do potrzeb współczesnych odbiorców oraz zwiększenie frekwencji.
Oryginalność. Wyniki badań z wykorzystaniem metody MS w badaniu atrakcji turystycznych są pierwszymi w polskiej literaturze opisanymi badaniami.
Rodzaj pracy. Badania empiryczne.

Słowa kluczowe: atrakcje turystyczne, muzeum, badania mystery shopping.

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THE STRUCTURE OF FOODSERVICE COMPANIES DEMANDED DURING TOURIST TRIPS

*Edyta Gheribi**

Abstract

Purpose. The purpose of the study is to present the basis and structure of demand for catering services during tourist trips.
Method. A quantitative survey was made using a questionnaire interview.
Findings. The study shows that Poles are most likely to travel as tourists and frequently use catering services. The development of catering services and tourism are closely linked. Between gastronomy and tourism, there is a feedback loop. The development of tourism and the catering industry is closely linked with the evolution of transportation and economic development, which led to the emergence of the tourism industry. According to data from the Institute of Tourism, an increasing number of tourists every year declare that they spend their time in cafes and restaurants during both long-term and short-term tourist trips. Nearly half of the consumers of catering services in the Warsaw agglomeration declared that tourist trips and travel are conducive to the use of catering services. An increase in the real income of the population, the increasing standard of living, a change in lifestyles, and more time off will continue to affect the growing demand for tourist services and catering.
Research and conclusions limitations. Five hundred residents of the Warsaw agglomeration were surveyed, presenting a narrow geographic inference.
Practical implications. The study analyzed the demand for catering services during tourist trips.
Originality. This is an original work on a topic rarely undertaken by researchers.
Type of paper. This is an article presenting the results of empirical research.

Key words: tourist market, food market, free time.

* Ph.D., University of Lodz, Faculty of Management, Department of Finance and Strategic Management [dr inż, Uniwersytet Łódzki, Wydział Zarządzania, Katedra Finansów i Strategii Przedsiębiorstwa]; e-mail: edyta.gheribi@uni.lodz.pl.

Introduction

Context in which it operates: The modern consumer in the past decades (influenced by the development of civilization, globalization, acceleration in the pace of life, the invasion of new products and patterns of behavior, change in the economic and socio-demographic in the country, etc.) has made changes in the general model of consumption, including that of service consumption. This phenomenon is manifested in the rapid growth of the consumption of services, which are becoming a larger share of total consumption [Babicz-Zielińska, Zabrocki 2006; Boguszewicz-Kreft 2003; Dąbrowska 2008].

The refreshments market is an important part of the tourism economy. The development of catering services and tourism are closely linked. There is a feedback loop between gastronomy and tourism [Kwiatkowska 2009, p. 67]. The development of tourism and the catering industry is closely linked with the evolution of transportation and economic development, which led to the emergence of the tourist industry [Knowles 2003, p. 21]. Thanks to the development of tourism and the increased number of visitors to Poland, as well as an increased amount of domestic tourists, new options were created. This in turn encourages tourists to visits places with a developed infrastructure, including the gastronomic infrastructure. This applies mainly to large cities, but can apply to smaller cities as well. It should be emphasized that the definition of tourism adopted by the UNWTO (United Nations World Tourism Organization), which says that "tourism comprises the activities of persons traveling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes not related to the exercise of an activity remunerated from within the place visited" [UNWTO 2011], draws attention to the relationship between the hotel, catering, and tourism, namely the need to create a database providing guests with the relevant conditions of stay and entertainment available. However, it should also be noted that gastronomy is often a goal in itself for tourists, as is evidenced by the development of culinary tourism.

Literature Review

According to data from the Institute of Tourism, there is an increasing number of tourists every year who declare that they spend their time in cafes and restaurants during both short-term and long-term tourist trips. In 2008, 15% of respondents, 2% more than in 2007, declared that they spent time in cafes and restaurants while on domestic long-term tourist trips. However, such declarations were made by 11% of respondents for short-term domestic tourist trips in 2008, which was also about 2% more than in 2007 [Intur 2011]. Recent results of the Institute of Tourism for the year 2012 indicate that more than 26% of tourists on domestic trips and long-term trips, and over 22.6% of the national expenditure on short-term trips, was spent on food and drinks in cafes and restaurants [Intur 2011].

Other data from 2010 and 2011 shows that 41.2% of tourists spent time in bars and pubs, 44.4% in fast-food outlets, 61% in restaurants, and 31.6% in patisseries or gelaterias [Kowalczuk 2013, p. 71].

In today's world, market services related to leisure and recreation play an important role, as they cater to the changing needs of consumers. This phenomenon refers to both the rich and the poor, because offers on the tourism and catering markets vary. Currently, tourism and catering services are generally available and widespread. But keep in mind that even in the most developed countries, a certain percent of the population does not use these services, or uses them extremely rarely.

The factors that influence the development of these services include the following, among others: the growth of the real income of the population, an increase in the standard of living, the lengthening of the average life expectancy, the development of urbanization, motorization, urban expansion, changing lifestyles, and the lengthening of leisure time [Kwiatkowska, Levytska 2009, p. 91].

More and more attention is being paid to the growing portion of income that consumers spend on services related to recreation, entertainment, tourism, and catering. In the years 2000–2013 the trend in the share of expenditures on services in the total expenditure of Polish households increased. Analyzing the structure of the expenditures of Polish households in recent years, it can be concluded that the demand for services related to leisure time, that is, among other things, travel services and catering, is growing. Data from the Central Statistical Office (CSO; in Polish: Główny Urząd Statystyczny – GUS) shows that Poles are spending more on leisure, including entertainment, culture, holidays, and catering services. Spending on recreation and culture in 2012 was 151.61% higher than in 1999. In contrast, spending on restaurants and hotels in 2012 increased by 72.97% compared to 1999. A dynamic growth in spending on transportation – 16.66% – was also observed for expenditures from the Polish household budget in 2012 compared to 1999 (Table 1).

While analyzing the determinants of the supply-side market, changes in the structure of the development of tourism and catering were observed. Changes occurred in the entity-type structure. There have also been shifts in the ratio between potential open and closed catering, and changes in the ratio between public and private sectors.

The tourism industry, and particularly the hotel and restaurant subsector, is highly diversified in the types of businesses that operate under its auspices. According to data from the Central Statistical Office (GUS), the highest dynamics of changes were observed in the restaurant industry (2012/2000: an increase of 93.42%). In 2012, compared to 2000, a decrease of 38.61% was recorded in canteens, a decrease of 10.3% in food and beverage outlets, and a decrease of 28.96% in bars. In 2012, the growth rate of the to-

Table 1. Expenditures per capita in Polish households in the years 1999–2012 in PLN

Specification	1999	2007	2012	Dynamics of increase / decrease in 2012/1999 (in %)
Food	31.6	25.7	24.2	–23.42
Housing, water, and energy	18.4	19.0	21.3	+15.76
Transport	7.8	8.9	9.1	+16.66
Recreation and culture	3.1	7.3	7.8	+151.61
Alcoholic beverages and tobacco	6.4	5.7	6.1	–4.69
Clothing and footwear	7.0	5.6	4.9	–30.00
Restaurants and hotels	3.7	5.5	6.4	+72.97
Equipment for running the household	5.1	5.3	4.6	–9.81
Communication	2.4	5.2	4.3	+79.16
Health	4.5	5.1	5.0	+11.11
Education	1.1	1.3	1.2	+9.09
Other	8.9	5.4	5.1	–42.70

Source: Author's calculations based on CSO (GUS) data.

tal number of catering establishments slowed. It should be noted that there has been a clear inhibition of the growth of "primitive" types of catering establishments (eateries, bars), while restaurants are gaining importance.

Most catering establishments in 2012, according to data contained in the Statistical Yearbooks CSO (GUS) for individual provinces, were in Mazowieckie. It was here that most of the restaurant and catering business revenues were the highest. In 2012, there were 1,120 restaurants in the Mazowieckie voivodship, 40% more than in 2008. Catering plays a role in tourist attractions at a regional, national, and even international level. The diversity of catering facilities should thus be taken into account in tourist areas.

Gastronomy services are most intensively developing in major cities such as Warsaw, Krakow, Wroclaw, and Lodz, but a similar trend is also occurring in smaller cities.

Changes also occurred in the structure of generic collective tourist accommodation. There was a dynamic growth in the number of hotels (from 2000 to 2012, the number increased by 117.96%) and the number of beds in hotels (in 2012/2000 an increase of 108.30%). However, in shelter (in 2012/2000, a decline of 26.51%), camping (in 2012/2000, a decline of 23.40%), camping sites (in 2012/2000, a decline of 43.37%), and resorts (in 2012/2000 a decline of 48.11%), there was an overall decline.

Thus, there was a decrease in low quality accommodation facilities, while the importance of providing services at a higher level increased.

Table 2. Number of establishments and market share in % in Poland in the years 2000–2012

Specification	2000	(in %)	2004	(in %)	2008	(in %)	2012	(in %)	Change (increase or decrease) 2012/2000 (in %)
Total	84,342	100	90,537	100	81,789	100	68,787	100	–18.45
Including public sector the private sector	3,320 81,022	3.93 96.07	2,500 88,037	2.76 97.24	1,863 79,926	2.27 97.7	1,430 67,357	2.1 97.9	–56.93 –16.87
Restaurants	8,519	10.10	9,195	10.15	13,947	17.2	16,478	23.9	+93.42
Bars	36,436	43.20	39,348	43.46	33,486	40.9	25,885	37.6	–28.96
Eateries	32,377	38.38	35,064	38.72	29,051	35.5	21,120	32.2	–10.3
Canteens	7,010	8.32	6,930	7.67	5,305	6.4	4,304	6.3	–38.61

Source: Author's calculations based on CSO (GUS) data.

Table 3. Selected tourist accommodation establishments in Poland in the years 2000–2012

Specification	Number of objects in collective accommodation					Number of beds in collective accommodation facilities in thousands				
	2000	2004	2008	2012	The dynamics of growth / decline in 2012/2000 (in %)	2000	2004	2008	2012	The dynamics of growth / decline in 2012/2000 (in %)
Total	7,818	6,972	6,857	9,483	+21.29	651.7	584.7	597.0	675.4	+3.63
Hotels	924	1,202	1,488	2,014	+117.96	95.1	122.9	155.8	198.1	+108.30
Motels	116	116	106	116	0	4.5	4.4	4.1	4.3	0
Pensions	409	241	250	311	–23.97	20.7	11.2	11.1	13.7	–25.07
Excursion houses	179	84	60	53	–70.40	12.2	5.8	4.5	3.9	–71.40
Hostels	83	59	59	61	–26.51	4.0	2.9	3.0	3.2	–26.51
Youth hostels	457	403	361	326	–28.57	21.7	22.3	20.5	20.1	–
Camping	171	138	125	131	–23.40	25.4	24.1	24.0	21.9	–
Camping sites	339	259	232	192	–43.37	46.5	30.8	25.7	21.4	–
Resorts	2,079	1,510	1,291	1,079	–48.11	195.2	143.5	133.0	116.4	–

Source: Author's calculations based on CSO (GUS) data.

Material and Methods

Our study's target consisted of consumers in the market for catering from the age of 25–45 living in the Warsaw agglomeration. The CSO (GUS) data shows that Warsaw has the largest number of catering establishments, and Mazowieckie voivodship has the largest share of revenue from the catering business from all provinces, which also indicates that consumers spend the most here. Besides, new trends are created first in Warsaw, and are then transmitted through imitation to the capitals of other provinces and smaller cities.

The empirical material was obtained by a quantitative method. The method consisted of a survey using a questionnaire filled out by the respondents alone, participant observation, and in-depth group interviews. The quantitative study was carried out at the turn of 2006/2007 and in January 2008 among 500 residents of the Warsaw agglomeration. The questionnaire included closed questions with scaled answers, enabling statistical analysis.

The study population consisted of men and women 25 to 45 years old living in the Warsaw agglomeration. Women accounted for 62% of the respondents, and men accounted for 38%.

The largest group of respondents were under the age of 30 (57%), followed by the age groups of 30–34 (15%), 35–39 (12%), and above 39 (16%). The average age of respondents was 31, and the median was 30. This shows that the willingness to use catering services decreases with age in the sample. This confirms the observations of other studies and surveys.

Results and Discussion

Our findings show that tourist trips and journeys are important opportunities conducive to the use of catering services, as indicated by nearly half of the respondents. This is due to the fact that during the holidays or travel time, consumers have more free time and often do not have the ability to prepare meals themselves, so they enjoy the catering services located nearby.

It was noted that women are slightly more likely than men to indicate their use of catering services during tourist trips and while traveling. The test results may indicate that women who deal with preparing meals every day can willingly relax from this obligation and enjoy the services of catering companies during tourist trips and travel.

Taking into account the ages of the respondents, interesting observations were recorded as a result of the analysis. It was noted that younger respondents were more likely than older ones to admit to using catering services during tourist trips and while traveling. Less than half (41.5%) of respondents aged 30–34 stated that they use catering services during tourist trips. In contrast, 38,7% of the oldest group, at 40–45 years old, stated that they use catering services during trips (Table 4). The result of this study is reflected in the general trend of the use of catering services, which shows that younger consumers are the largest group benefiting from these services.

It was noted that respondents with higher graduate education declared the use of catering services during tourist trips more often than the others. Respondents with vocational education did not make such a declaration. Among respondents with vocational education, only 27.6% said that tourist trips promote the use of catering services.

Also, it was noted that respondents with lower education levels declared that they use catering services less often while traveling than respondents with higher levels of education.

On this basis, it can be assumed that a higher level of education is associated with higher levels of income distribution, and this contributes to the possibility of more frequent tourist trips and travel, resulting in the use of catering services (Table 5).

The Institute of Tourism indicates that subjects with higher levels of education are the group most frequently involved in long-term domestic travels (five days or longer, in 2008, 49.6%) and short-term domestic travels (up to 4 days, at least one night, in 2008, 29.8%) [Intur 2011].

It was noted that respondents living in cities in the Warsaw agglomeration visited catering establishments during trips more often than other respondents (50.9%). In contrast, catering services often benefited residents of the capital during tourist trips (49.3%) (Table 6). The Institute of Tourism noted that respondents living in the city (around 500,000) are the group most frequently involved in domestic long-term trips (5 days or longer, in 2008, 49.1%) [Intur 2011]. Also, other studies indicate that residents of the capital and other major cities use catering services more often than residents of smaller cities and allocate a larger share of their income for this purpose.

It has been observed that tourist trips are an important opportunity conducive to the use of catering services, regardless of the number of persons in the household. It was noted, however, that while traveling, respondents with double households (48.0%) and single households (47.9%) more frequently use catering services than households containing several people (Table 7).

It was recognized that the use of catering services during tourist trips was determined by the number of children in their household. Respondents without children more often declared that they use catering services during tourist trips than those with children, while households with three or more children were the least likely to do so.

The use of catering services while traveling was frequently declared by respondents with children (48.9%), and least often by households with three or more children (22.2%) (Table 8).

Table 4. Occasions that respondents declared they most often use catering services, by gender and age (%, 2006–2008), (multiple answers were allowed)

Specification	Total	Sex		Age			
		Women	Men	25–29	30–34	35–39	40–45
Meeting with friends	68.6	68.6	68.6	81.7	66.1	49.2	47.5
Spontaneous, without any occasion	48.2	47.7	48.9	57.2	46.6	36.1	32.5
During tourist trips	47.6	48.7	45.7	51.9	41.5	47.5	43.7
During journey	46.2	47.1	44.7	51.0	44.9	39.3	38.7
Business deals	22.4	18.3	29.2	21.1	25.4	22.9	21.2
Returning home from work, fast snack	16.4	14.4	19.7	19.1	16.1	14.7	10.0

Source: Author's work.

Table 5. Occasions that respondents declared they most often use catering services, depending on the education of respondents (%, 2006–2008; multiple answers were allowed)

Specification	Total	Education			
		Basic vocational	Secondary vocational	Tertiary engineering	Tertiary masters
Meeting with friends	68.6	55.2	67.6	72.5	69.6
Spontaneous, without any occasion	48.2	44.8	42.0	50.0	53.4
During tourist trips	47.6	27.6	44.3	46.1	53.9
During journey	46.2	37.9	45.4	45.1	48.7
Business deals	22.4	6.9	12.5	18.6	35.6
Returning home from work, fast snack	16.4	13.8	25.0	12.7	10.5

Source: Author's work.

Table 6. Occasions that respondents declared they most often use catering services, depending on respondents' place of residence (%, 2006–2008; multiple answers were allowed)

Specification	Total	Class of Locality		
		Warsaw	City of agglomeration	Countryside agglomeration
Meeting with friends	68.6	70.6	64.1	60.6
Spontaneous, without any occasion	48.2	49.3	47.2	39.4
During tourist trips	47.6	49.3	42.4	45.4
During journey	46.2	44.9	50.9	45.4
Business deals	22.4	22.1	20.7	30.3
Returning home from work, fast snack	16.4	14.7	16.9	33.3

Source: Author's work.

Table 7. Occasions that respondents declared they most often use catering services, depending on the number of persons in the household (%, 2006–2008; multiple answers were allowed)

Specification	Total	Households by size				
		1	2	3	4	5
Meeting with friends	68.6	82.6	66.4	72.4	57.1	62.0
Spontaneous, without any occasion	48.2	51.0	51.9	44.0	43.7	51.7
During tourist trips	47.6	47.9	45.4	48.6	49.1	48.2
During journey	46.2	47.9	48.0	45.8	43.7	41.3
Business deals	22.4	28.5	26.3	22.9	11.6	20.6
Returning home from work, fast snack	16.4	14.3	17.7	20.1	12.5	17.2

Source: Author's work.

Table 8. Occasions that respondents declared they most often use catering services, depending on the number of children (%, 2006–2008; multiple answers were allowed)

Specification	Total	Number of children			
		no children	one	two	Three and more
Meeting with friends	68.6	78.6	55.9	44.6	11.1
Spontaneous, without any occasion	48.2	53.7	33.3	41.9	33.3
During tourist trips	47.6	48.6	46.4	44.6	44.4
During journey	46.2	48.9	41.6	41.8	22.2
Business deals	22.4	23.7	22.6	14.8	33.3
Returning home from work, fast snack	16.4	18.3	14.2	10.8	11.1

Source: Author's work.

Table 9. Occasions that respondents declared they most often use catering services, depending on the level of net income in PLN / person (%, 2006–2008; multiple answers were allowed)

Specification	Total	Salary				
		Below 1,000 zł	1,000–1,999	2,000–2,999	3,000–3,999	Above 4,000
Meeting with friends	68.6	65.8	64.5	70.0	77.0	76.7
Spontaneous, without any occasion	48.2	52.6	43.9	49.2	66.7	46.7
During tourist trips	47.6	28.9	46.8	45.0	57.8	60.0
During journey	46.2	36.8	43.4	43.3	51.1	65.0
Business deals	22.4	2.6	15.2	16.7	55.5	50.0
Returning home from work, fast snack	16.4	10.5	18.9	15.0	15.5	13.3

Source: Author's work.

It was noted that the level of income has a significant impact on the declared use of catering services during tourist trips. It was noted that most respondents with incomes above 4,000 PLN per person in the household declared that tourist trips are an opportunity conducive to the use of catering services. Those least likely to use catering services on tourist trips were respondents with the lowest incomes, below 1,000 PLN.

A similar relationship was observed when using catering services during the trip. It was noted that as the amount of income increases, so does the percentage of respondents saying that they use catering services during the trip (Table 9). The level of income, or the economic factor, is a strong determinant of the use of services for both tourism and catering, and a higher level of income increases subjects' willingness to use these services.

Conclusions

Based on the analysis of data from national statistics and the author's own studies, this paper reports there is a feedback loop between catering and tourism. It also suggests that twenty-first century Polish consumers often travel for touristic purposes and frequently use catering services. This is due to changes in macro- and microeconomics. Polish consumers are becoming better educated, have higher incomes, and are more likely to spend a greater percentage of their incomes on services related to leisure time, such as tourism and catering. It can be seen that, despite differences in demographics and socioeconomic circumstances in Polish households, consumers are becoming more demanding and are seeking a higher standard of service. This applies both to catering establishments and accommodation facilities. It should be emphasized that tourism and catering are less often considered to be in the category of luxury goods. This progressive change in consumption habits and diversification suggests that lower income does not mean disqualification from participation in the market of tourist services and catering. It should also be noted that travel services and catering services are now characterized by significant substitutability.

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STRUKTURA POPYTU NA USŁUGI GASTRONOMICZNE W CZASIE WYJAZDÓW TURYSTYCZNYCH

Abstrakt

Cel. Przedstawienie struktury popytu na usługi gastronomiczne w trakcie wyjazdów turystycznych.
Metoda. Metoda badania ilościowego za pomocą kwestionariusza wywiadu.
Wyniki. Badania pokazują, że Polacy coraz częściej podróżują i korzystają z usług gastronomicznych. Rozwój usług gastronomicznych i turystycznych są ściśle ze sobą powiązane. Między gastronomią a turystyką istnieje sprzężenie zwrotne. Rozwój turystyki i gastronomii jest ściśle związany z rozwojem transportu i rozwojem gospodarczym, który doprowadził do powstania nowej branży – turystyki. Według danych Instytutu Turystyki, z roku na rok coraz więcej turystów deklaruje, że w czasie krajowych długi i krótkoterminowych wyjazdów turystycznych spędzają czas w kawiarniach i restauracjach. Prawie połowa badanych w aglomeracji warszawskiej oświadczyła, że wyjazdy turystyczne i podróże sprzyjają korzystaniu z usług gastronomicznych. Wzrost realnych dochodów ludności, rosnący standard życia, zmieniający się styl życia i wydłużanie czasu wolnego nadal będzie wpływać na wzrost popytu na usługi turystyczne i gastronomiczne.
Ograniczenia badań i wnioskowania. Badania empiryczne dotyczące mieszkańców aglomeracji warszawskiej, uwzględniają wąski zakres geograficzny.
Implikacje praktyczne. Badania diagnozujące korzystanie z usług gastronomicznych podczas wyjazdów turystycznych.
Oryginalność. Oryginalne dzieło, rzadko podejmowany temat przez badaczy.
Rodzaj pracy. Artykuł prezentuje wyniki badań empirycznych.

Słowa kluczowe: rynek turystyczny, rynek żywności, czas wolny.

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THE PERCEPTION OF NATURA 2000 SITES BY THE INHABITANTS OF COASTAL AREAS IN POLAND IN THE CONTEXT OF TOURISM DEVELOPMENT OPPORTUNITIES

*Zbigniew Głąbiński**

Abstract

Purpose. The survey aimed to determine the level of environmental awareness of residents and their knowledge and attitude towards coastal Natura 2000 sites, as well to identify the need for information on this form of conservation.
Method. The survey was conducted from 2012 to 2013 among 5,848 respondents. The survey was accomplished by applying the PAPI method and was carried out among residents of coastal towns. The selection of the respondents was purposeful.
Findings. The majority of the surveyed population does not display a high level of environmental awareness, and any environmental action they undertake results from economic reasons. The vast majority (83%) of the respondents were not able to correctly interpret the concept of Natura 2000, and as many as 74% report little interest in this issue.
Research and conclusions limitations. The research was carried out on a deliberately selected sample unrepresentative of residents, but the results relate to others presented in the literature. Therefore, it should be treated as highly probable.
Practical implications. The results can be used by the authorities responsible for Natura 2000 sites to conduct activities related to raising the environmental awareness of residents.
Originality. This is the first article which presents survey findings in connection with Natura 2000 areas the survey was conducted in three Polish coastal voivodships.
Type of paper. The article presents the results of a survey of 5,848 inhabitants of coastal towns in Poland.

Keywords: Natura 2000, ecological awareness, sustainable tourism, environmental conflicts.

* Ph.D., University of Szczecin, Faculty of Geosciences, Department of Tourism and Recreation [dr, Uniwersytet Szczeciński, Wydział Nauk o Ziemi, Katedra Turystyki i Rekreacji]; e-mail: zbyszek@globtour.pl.

Introduction

Poland's accession to the European Union in 2004 necessitated the introduction of a number of new regulations into the Polish legal system, including those concerning natural protection. Initiating the process of implementing the European Ecological Network Natura 2000 turned out to be the most important element of the foregoing changes. The sites that are currently incorporated in the network comprise approximately 20% of Poland's territory. Natura 2000 sites include two types: Special Protection Areas [*Dyrektywa Rady 79/409/EWG*] and Special Areas of Conservation [*Dyrektywa Rady 92/43/EWG*]. The Special Protection Areas occupy 15.59% of Poland, whereas the Special Areas of Conservation comprise 11.0% of the country [Ziarnek, Piątkowska 2010, p. 10].

What constitutes a significant difference between Poland's pre-existing forms of natural protection (national parks, landscape parks, nature reserves, etc.) and Natura 2000 sites is the fact that Natura 2000 sites allow for the possibility of conducting economic activities within their territory, provided that they do not adversely affect the things under protection (defined habitats or species). Since Natura 2000 sites comprise the areas that have indicated the presence of economic activities, the issue of determining the rules and size of human activity in these areas has arisen.

The authorities responsible for the implementation of the Natura 2000 network have recently initiated the process of preparing documents in the form of so-called "Plans for Protection" and "Plans protection tasks" that specify the terms of use in these areas. This has resulted in some serious social conflicts stemming from differences of opinion among residents, the administration, and environmental organizations about the opportunities arising from and ways of using the existing resources and environmental assets located within Natura 2000 sites.

Literature Review

As M. Dutkowski [1995] states, the environmental issues result not only from the incompatibility of economic interests, but also from the differing values and personal beliefs on both sides of the conflict. The problem applies to all protected areas. The aspect is emphasized by Macias and Miedzińska [2013, pp. 31–40], who state that, in most cases, the above-mentioned types of conflicts relate to areas that are intensively used for tourism and areas where the protective function is subordinated to recreation.

Among European countries, the Polish coast of the Baltic Sea constitutes a specific example of such an area. This is due to a very high concentration of tourist infrastructure and significant tourist traffic within a relatively small area. This phenomenon has its own historical conditions and, therefore, maintaining the leading role of tourism is, in social awareness, the basis of socioeconomic development in the area. The data collected by the Central Statistical Office in 2012 indicate that Poland's coastal voivodships (West Pomerania and Pomerania) were visited by 6 million tourists and have the largest number of local accommodation places in Poland (around 212,000 beds, constituting 31.4% of the accommodation facilities in the country) [*Turystyka w 2012r.* 2013]. In addition, both voivodships are characterized by the highest Baretje index of tourist function (7.0 – West Pomerania, and 4.0 – Pomerania, compared to the average for Poland, which is 1.8) [*Turystyka w 2012r.* 2013], which expresses the ratio between the number of beds to the number of inhabitants in the region. What should be emphasized is the fact that the actual number of beds in the coastal towns of Poland is even greater, as only facilities with more than nine beds are subject to statistical mandatory registration. The data suggest that tourism is the primary source of income for a great number of people inhabiting the coastal areas.

These facts, in addition to information from the European Environment Agency stating that the percentage of European areas in the European Ecological Network Natura 2000 is the highest on the West Pomeranian coast and only slightly lower on the Pomeranian coast (Fig. 1, Fig. 2), raises the question of how to achieve a consensus between socioeconomic and environmental protection functions.

The situation may result in some serious problems in reconciling the various, frequently conflicting, opinions of inhabitants, tourists, entrepreneurs, administrators, and ecological organizations. Moreover, we can conclude that the task of meeting the requirements of both environmental protection and the tourist industry will result in serious social conflicts. As M. Kistowski [2008, pp. 170–180] states, although some conflicts may contribute to the preservation of valuable natural areas, they must be resolved within the existing formal and legal procedures.

Numerous researchers [Arnstein 2007; Beunen, Vries 2011; Bőrzel, Buzogany 2010; Cent et al. 2014] emphasize the issue of society's contribution to the process of managing the protected areas.

Conflict resolution must first start by gaining the trust of residents. This can be achieved by ensuring that both the administration and experts do not treat society's participation as an obstacle for the implementation of the Natura 2000 network [De Pierola et al. 2009].

Unfortunately, in the opinion of some specialists, the approach and expertise of state authorities that are responsible for the procedures related to environmental impact assessment may cause a problem. Decisions may be issued too hastily or be protracted over time. This phenomenon may concern Natura 2000 sites in Poland in particular [Kowalczyk 2010, p.72]. It is, therefore, necessary to aim for reaching a social consensus between the administration and inhabitants. In Europe, there are examples of both positive and negative measurements taken by administrative authorities responsible for the implementation of the Natura 2000 coastal network

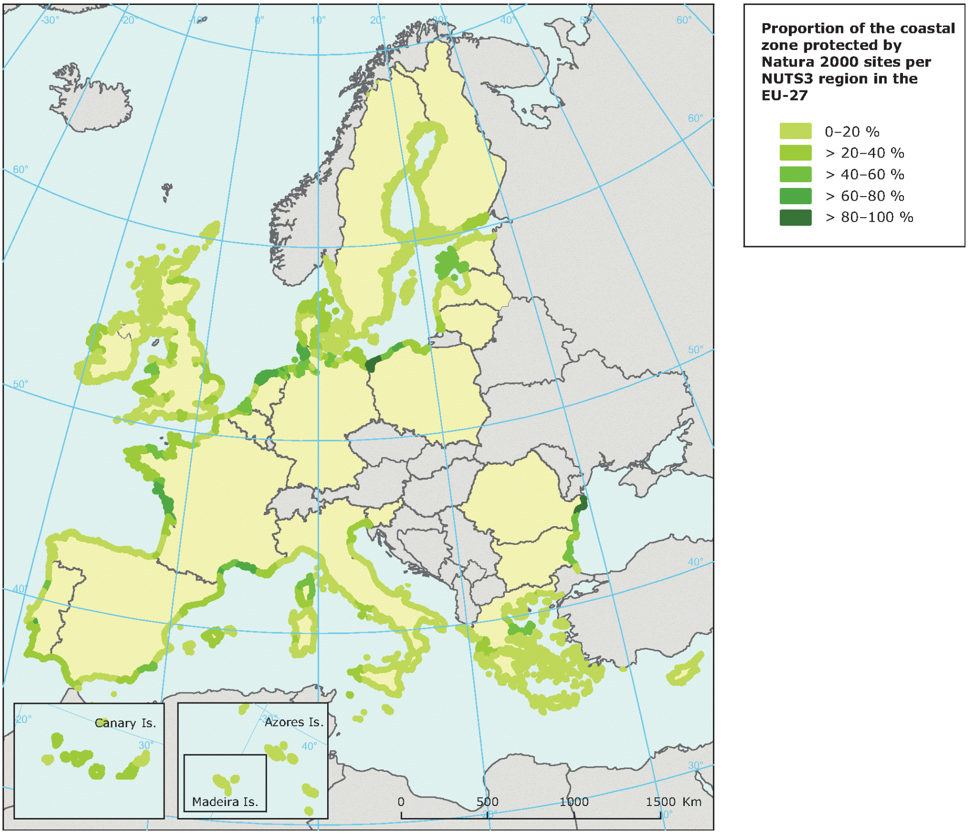

Figure 1. The percentage of European coastal areas in the Natura 2000 network
Source: http://www.eea.europa.eu/data-and-maps/figures/coastal-zone-protected-by-natura-2000 (12.06.2014).

[Beunen, de Vries 2011]. Given the foregoing facts on both the coastal areas of the Natura 2000 network as well as the significance of tourism for the region, it is essential to take extensive measures in order to solve existing and potential environmental conflicts.

What influences people's attitude towards the natural environment is their level of social awareness and, above all, ecological awareness [Budeanu 2007, pp. 501–503; Domka 1998, pp. 87-88; Bohdanowicz 2006, p. 67; Kowalczyk 2010, pp. 37-38]. The process of building ecological awareness is not easy, as is noted by M. Orams [1997, p. 304], who states that a "structured educational program, based upon educational psychology, can prompt behaviour changes in people." Hence, one of the measurements aiming to reach an agreement on Natura 2000 sites should be raising ecological awareness among inhabitants and tourists. Sadly, the research indicates that

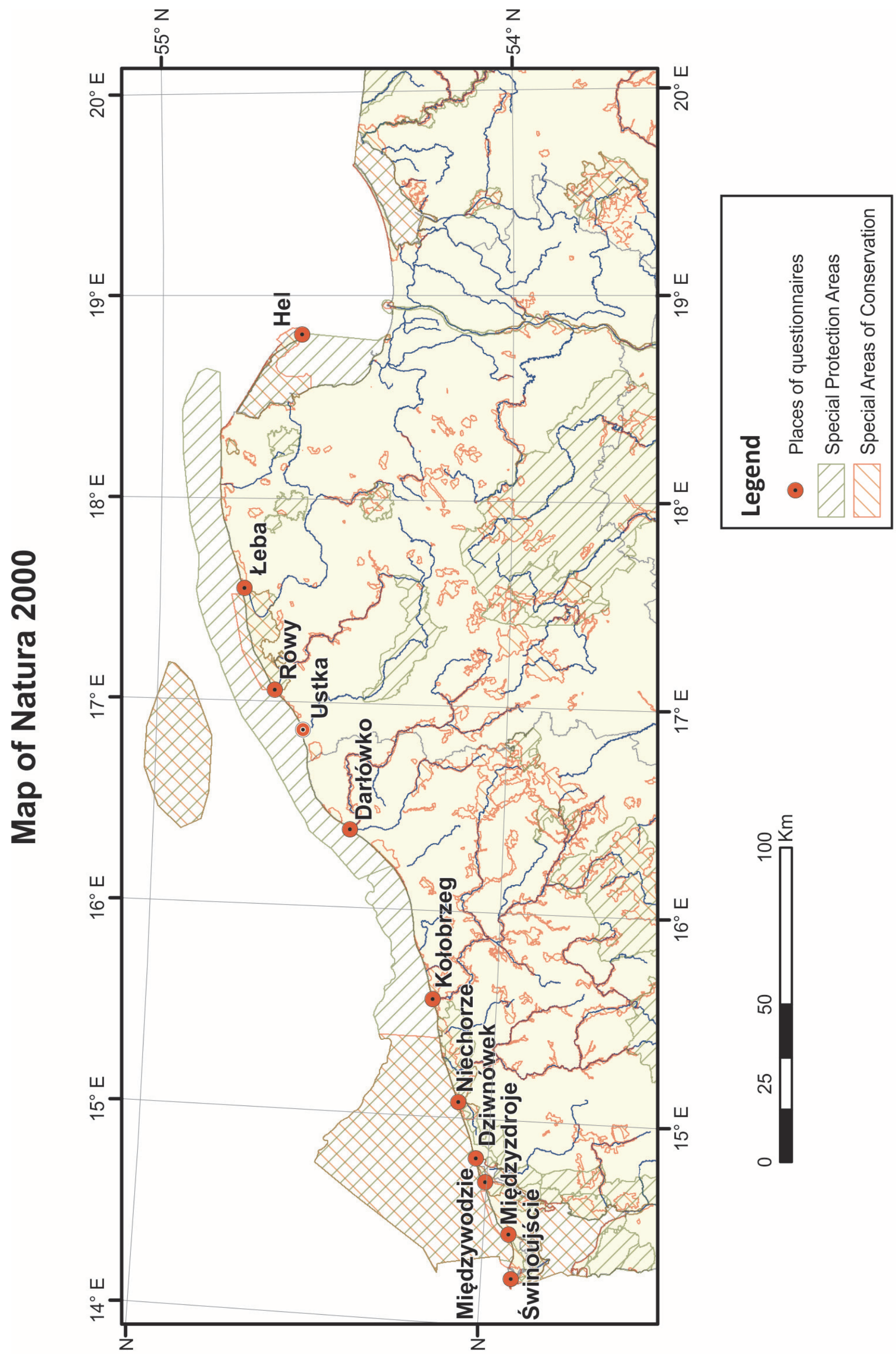

Figure 2. Map of Natura 2000
Source: Author's work.

awareness of this type still remains at quite a low level in Poland [*Badanie świadomości...* 2012; Bohdanowicz 2006, pp. 240-262; Domka 1998, pp. 87-88; Głąbiński 2008; Pietrzyk et al. 2009, pp. 407-414; Nycz-Wróbel 2012, pp. 63-75; Stanaszek, Tędziagolska 2011]. An increase in environmental awareness should lead to an acceptance of essential projects that aim to protect the natural environment. Any activities related to the implementation of the Natura 2000 network should be carried out in such a way that they make the inhabitants realize that they contribute to maintaining the tourist value of coastal areas. It is, therefore, obvious that the administrative bodies supervising Natura 2000 sites are responsible for conducting awareness-raising actions among the residents of the areas affected by the foregoing problems. This results from the basic legal regulations still in force in Poland. As article 7 of the Administrative Procedure states, "The public administration bodies shall uphold the rule of law during proceedings and shall take all necessary steps to clarify the facts of a case and to resolve it, having regard to the public interest and the legitimate interests of members of the public" [*Kodeks postępowania administracyjnego 2013*].

Unfortunately, the existing administrative action has been far from sufficient in this regard and, therefore, the Association of Human, Science, Environment, in collaboration with the Faculty of Geoscience of the University of Szczecin, implemented the project entitled "4 Seasons with NATURA 2000: An information and training campaign." The project, which was conducted 2012–2014, was financed by the National Fund for Environmental Protection and Water Management within the frame of a program of "Environmental Education." It mainly aimed to raise people's awareness about the marine and coastal areas of Natura 2000 and their knowledge about the potential use of local resources in line with the principles of sustainable development. The project activities included among other things, analyzing the ecological awareness of tourists and the residents of coastal towns located in the vicinity of Natura 2000 sites in the voivodships of West Pomerania, Pomerania, and Warmia-Mazury.

Objectives

As was previously mentioned, the project took the form of an information-education campaign in the coastal areas of Natura 2000. In order to identify the social needs in that field, the project was accompanied by a survey on ecological awareness. Considering there is a rather widespread overuse of concepts related to ecology, it is necessary to define the term of ecology.

What L. Domka [1998, pp. 87–88] suggests is that "Ecological awareness is a peculiar, emerging form of social awareness that is manifested in both thoughts and experiences of particular people as well as in socially functioning standards of comprehending, experiencing and evaluating the biosphere."

B. Poskrobko submits a far more elaborate notion of ecological awareness: "The notion of ecological awareness is used in two senses. In the broader sense, it concerns all recognised ideas, values and opinions about the environment as a place of human (social) life and development that is common for the particular social groups living in a given historical period. In the specific and more axiological sense, ecological awareness constitutes the combination of people's knowledge, views and ideas on the role of the environment in human life with its anthropogenic load, degree of overexploitation, threats and protection, as well as people's knowledge on the ways and tools that are of use in managing the environmental exploitation, protection and planning." B. Poskrobko [2007, p. 61].

Taking these views into consideration, the specific objectives of the study have been specified as the following:

– defining the attitudes and behaviors related to environmental protection in the daily lives of the inhabitants of the coastal areas in Poland,
– analyzing the sources of information on environmental protection among the respondents,
– evaluating the local inhabitants' knowledge about the areas of Natura 2000,
– defining the inhabitants' preferences and attitudes towards the natural tourist attractions that are located in the coastal areas of Natura 2000,
– identifying the respondents' opinions on whether Natura 2000 areas contribute to an increase in the number of tourists and the improvement of technical infrastructure in the region,
– recognizing the inhabitants' needs in terms of promotion and information on tourist attractions that are located in the coastal areas of Natura 2000.

These specific research objectives should help in responding to three basic questions:

1. What is the level of ecological awareness among the residents of coastal areas?
2. What are the views on the European Ecological Network Natura 2000 among the residents of coastal areas?
3. Are the attractions of the natural environment of Natura 2000 territories of any interest to the residents?

It was assumed that obtaining the answers to these questions would make it possible to draw conclusions facilitating the selection of both means and methods of social communication between administration bodies and the residents of the coastal areas when implementing the Natura 2000 network.

Methods

Conducting research on ecological awareness involves certain obstacles because, as Z. Chojnicki [1999, p. 217] states, the subjects of the research comprise both the attributes that are available to direct observation and those that are not subject to observation at all. Social groups' attitudes, personal traits, or characteristics belong to such unobservable attributes. Ecological awareness and social behaviors are yet another example.

The empirical indicators used for assessing levels of ecological awareness comprise, in most cases, consumer behaviors, communication, waste management, and problems of protected areas [*Badanie świadomości…* 2012; Ballantyne et al. 2009; Bohdanowicz 2006, p. 7; Bołtromiuk 2009; Kamieniecka 2012] .

Taking the above-mentioned indicators into consideration, and bearing in mind the possibility of comparing the obtained results with data presented in previous studies, the researchers decided on the method of conducting a survey in the respondents' places of residence. The survey was not of a representative character and, therefore, the results cannot be generalized to all residents of the coastal areas.

The survey was conducted in two ways. The first of these was applied in reference to incidental collectivity and involved a pollster who provided random people (from the street, shopping mall, ferry crossing in the center of Świnoujście, etc.) with a standardized questionnaire, which respondents were expected to fill in themselves (PAPI method). After verifying whether the respondent was a tourist or a resident of a particular town, the pollster handed in the questionnaire. In order to encourage people to participate in the survey, the pollsters informed them that, having filled in the questionnaire, each respondent would be given a small gift with the Natura 2000 logo on it (a shopping bag, reflective armband, or fridge magnet). If the candidates had any doubts, the pollsters were obliged to provide any necessary information. They also instantly verified the completeness of the responses.

The second survey method involved conducting the Self-Administrated Questionnaire with Captive Audience survey in junior high schools and high schools in the coastal towns located in the voivodships of West Pomerania and Pomerania [Żmijewska, Pokorska 2000]. After discussing terms with the schools' principals, the pollsters provided teachers with questionnaires and posters about the project. Pollsters also provided the classes with gifts displaying the Natura 2000 logo on them, which were designed for all of the students. The questionnaires, filled in by the students, were picked up by the pollsters after the lessons.

The questionnaire was anonymous and contained 11 structured questions as well as respondents' details. The field survey was executed by a team of trained students from the Institute of Tourism of the Faculty of Geoscience at the University of Szczecin. The field stage of the research was preceded by a mock study performed among the students of the University of Szczecin and Szczecin's travel agents in June 2012. The study allowed for verification of the survey questionnaire.

The research was conducted from June 20, 2012 to September 30, 2013. The pollsters gathered data from the questionnaires and entered it into the project website In total, the pollsters collected 5,848 questionnaires from among the residents of the coastal towns of Poland.

Results

A Demographic Analysis of the Population of the Respondents Under Study

Of the respondents, males (52%) slightly outnumbered females (48%). The difference, however, was small and should have no effect on the outcome of the study.

An analysis of respondents' ages indicates that young people constituted a large part of the population under study (Fig. 3). This is because, according to pollsters, the elderly were reluctant to take part in the survey, using a variety of reasons (lack of time or glasses, obligation to look after children, etc.) as excuses. The project was, on the other hand, of great interest to the teachers and principals of the schools mainly because of a campaign that was simultaneously conducted among all of the schools of the West Pomeranian, Pomeranian, and Warmian-Masurian voivodeships to promote the project. A photo contest on the attractions of the coastal areas of Natura 2000 was held at the same time as the survey. Information about the survey

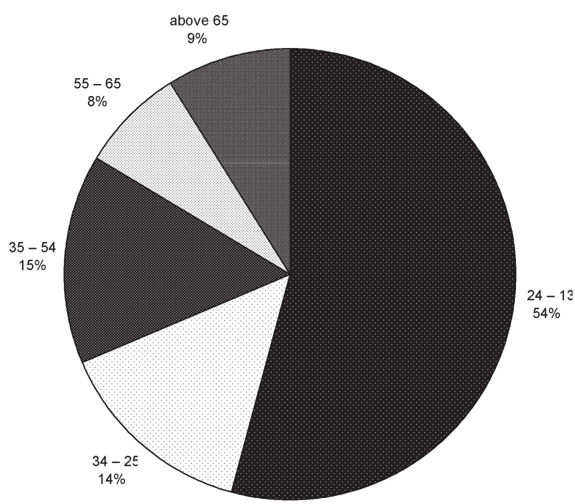

Figure 3. The age distribution of respondents
Source: Author's work based on the survey.

was posted on both the project website and on posters on advertising pillars and in schools. The survey was also accompanied by field training that was organized for approximately 100 teachers of the three voivodeships. These actions contributed to considerable interest in participating in the survey by a large number of schools in the region and, for that reason, the youngest age group (aged 13–24 years old), mainly consisting of students, is overrepresented in the overall population under study. It can, however, be assumed that this is a group of current learners, and thus these students have contact with formal environmental education.

The fact that such a large proportion of young people (including junior high school and high school students) participated in the survey resulted in a large number of respondents with primary education (Fig. 4). Forty-seven percent of the respondents possessed secondary education or a university degree, which should demonstrate a relatively good knowledge of environmental problems.

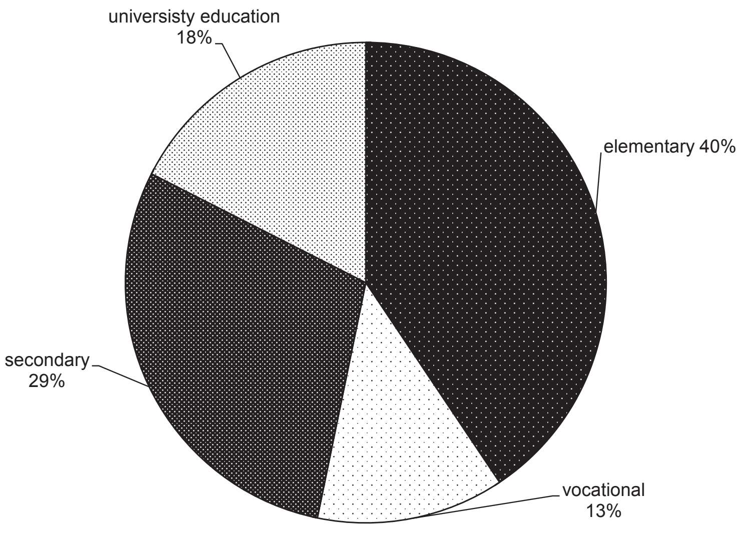

Figure 4. The education distribution of respondents
Source: Author's work based on the survey.

The Issue of Environmental Protection in Respondents' Daily Lives

The literature reviews state that the issue of the relevance of the selected indicators is a substantial problem. Relevance should be understood as an observable state of affairs which may be an indicator of a phenomenon that cannot be observed directly [Mayntz et al. 1985, p. 29]. It was assumed that the approach to basic issues concerning environmental protection might be one of the indicators pointing to the level of ecological awareness. Hence, one of the survey questions referred to the significance of environmental protection in everyday life (Fig. 5).

The vast majority of the respondents (75%) stated that environmental protection is an important or very important issue. These results may be compared to those of the research conducted in 2010 among the inhabitants of Podkarpackie Voivodeship, which indicated a merely average interest in environmental protection problems [Nycz-Wróbel 2012, pp. 64–65]. The survey conducted by TNS The Centre for Public Opinion Research Ltd. in 2012 on a nationwide representative sample indicated that as many as 76% of the respondents considered environmental protection to be an important factor for the development of the country [*Badanie świadomości…* 2012].

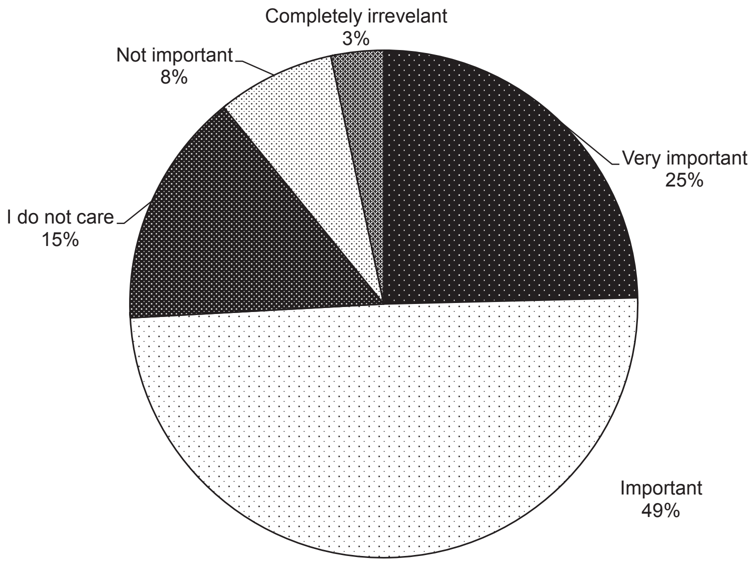

Figure 5. Is environmental protection a significant issue for you?
Source: Author's work based on the survey.

It may, therefore, be noted that the residents of the coastal areas have a level of interest in environmental protection that is similar to the one of the general population of Poland. It constitutes, on the other hand, a higher proportion compared to the number of residents of southeastern Poland. Though it is difficult to explain this result, perhaps the inhabitants of coastal towns perceive a greater relationship between environmental protection and the value of natural tourism. This may even result from the fact that every year before the tourist season, official statistics of the cleanliness of beaches and seaside baths are published. This information is commented on by the media and may affect tourists' selection of a holiday destination. In this situation, the residents, for whom tourism constitutes the main source of livelihood, are inclined to associate the environment with the possibility of earning a living and, for this reason, they may exhibit a greater interest in ecological behavior than people in other Polish regions.

Another important issue was to examine the respondents' source of information on environmental protection (Fig. 6). The results indicate the dominance of two sources of information: television (65.9%) and the Internet (63.8%).

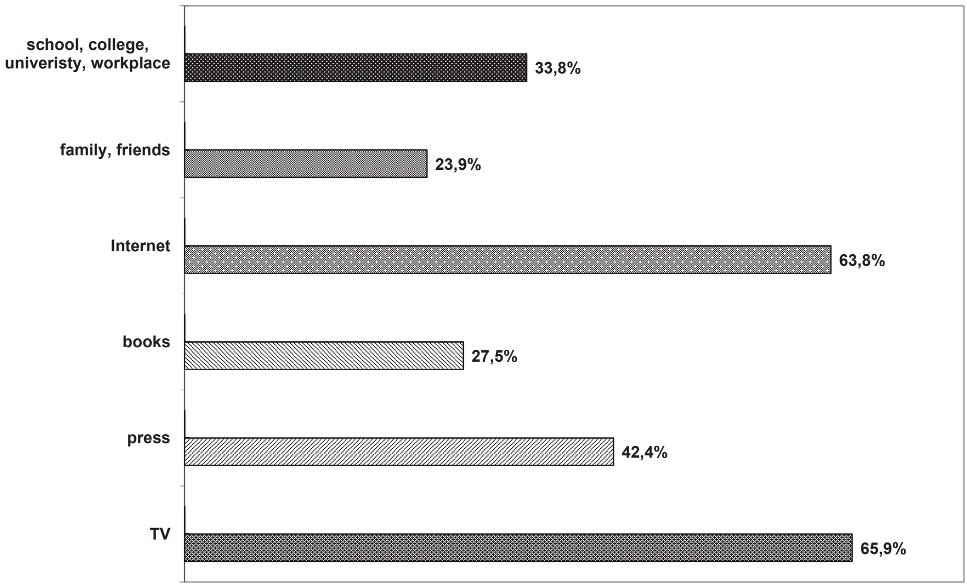

Figure 6. The sources of information about environmental protection
Source: Author's work based on the survey.

Very few respondents acquire their knowledge through the press (42.3%) or from school or the workplace (33.8%). Relatively few people indicated the use of books (27.5%), which may denote the relatively small role of this source of information. The widespread use of the Internet as an information source should be associated with the high proportion of youth that participated in the study (Fig. 3).

The survey conducted by TNS The Centre for Public Opinion Research Ltd. in 2012 on a nationwide representative sample indicated that TV constituted the most popular source of information (77%); the Internet (27%) and the press (22%) were less significant, and school (7%) was the least popular source [*Badanie świadomości*… 2012, p. 47].

However, the research on Natura 2000 areas that was conducted by the Institute for Sustainable Development pointed to the media (television, radio, and press – 53% altogether) and the Internet (28%) as the most popular sources of information about the environment; information boards were the least significant source (7%) [Stanaszek, Tędziagolska 2011].

With reference to the discussion of how to communicate with the public, one should note that TV and the Internet constitute the best news channels for the environment and Natura 2000 areas.

One of the indicators of the ecological consciousness of respondents includes pro-environmental behaviors in everyday life (Fig. 7). The most popular pro-ecological activities include segregating waste (62%), saving electricity (57.5%), using reusable shopping bags (49.8%), and disposing of problematic waste in designated places (36.9%). What is of the least interest to the respondents is participating in ecological events like "The Earth Day" or "Clean Up The World Day" (34.7%) and saving water (35.6%).

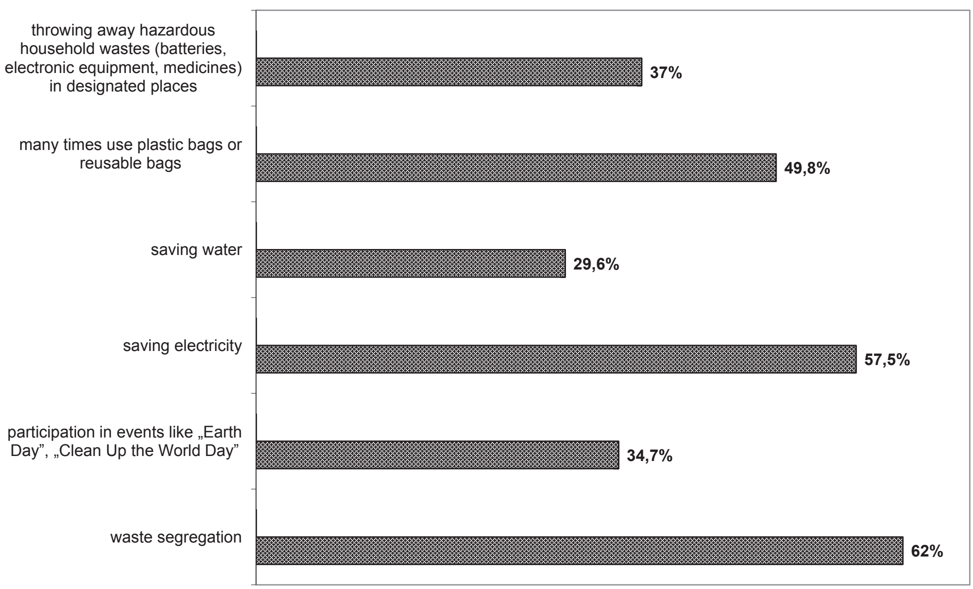

Figure 7. Daily pro-ecological behaviors
Source: Author's work based on the survey.

The research conducted by the Institute for Sustainable Development during the national sample survey of tourists in the summer of 2011 (n = 500 people) resulted in similar data, except for saving water (71%) [Stanaszek, Tędziagolska 2011a].

The study by TNS Center for Public Opinion Research Ltd. from 2012, in contrast, indicates that up to 94% of the respondents save electricity, 79% reduce water consumption, and 76% use reusable bags for shopping. Interestingly, only 44% of them declare segregation of waste, and very few, at only 10%, participate in environmental actions [*Badanie* świadomości *2012…*].

The comparison of the foregoing results might indicate some similarities in the respondents' behaviors. The majority of the respondents reduce water consumption, save electricity, and segregate waste, while far fewer are involved in direct ecological activities ("The Earth Day" or "Clean Up The World Day").

The declared behaviors may be, however, only indirectly connected with the issue of environmental protection; in fact, it is the economic factor that has the most direct and important impact. A certain premise in this regard may be the results of the TNS Center for Public Opinion Research Ltd. survey, which indicates that 59% of the respondents are not ready to bear additional costs connected with selecting pro-ecological solutions [*Badanie świadomości 2012* … p. 95].

What should also be noted is the fact that the data refer to the entire sample that is under study. The next stage of data analysis will include an attempt to determine spatial variability and demographics.

The Residents' Knowledge and Interest in the Tourist Attractions of Natura 2000 Areas

Tourists' perceptions of the Natura 2000 network have a very short history in Poland, as this form of protection officially began only after Poland's accession to the European Union. The changes in the Nature Conservation Act were published in 2004 [*Ustawa o ochronie przyrody Dz. U. Nr 92 poz. 880*], which initiated the ongoing process of implementing crucial changes within the field of environmental protection in Poland.

The views presented in the literature state that the level of people's knowledge of the European Ecological Network Natura 2000 is still insufficient [Głąbiński 2012; Kamieniecka 2012; Pietrzyk et al. 2009, pp. 407–414; Stanaszek, Tędziagolska 2011; Stanaszek, Tędziagolska 2011a]. It constitutes a very significant problem in the process of social communication between the authorities and the residents of coastal towns. The residents' level of knowledge about Natura 2000 areas is crucial for the further development of tourist functions when taking the principles of sustainable development into consideration. With neither social support nor joint effort, the process of implementing the Natura 2000 network will be inefficient and will abound in numerous conflicts [De Pierola et al. 2009]. This was the reason that a question on the questionnaire concerned knowledge of the notion of Natura 2000 (Fig. 8). The results confirm that only 17% of the residents of Poland's coastal areas correctly interpret the concept. The nationwide survey conducted by TNS Center for Public Opinion Research Ltd. in 2012 indicated that as many as 27% of the respondents declared their knowledge of the notion [*Badanie świadomości*... 2012]. The 2011 questionnaire survey conducted by the Institute for Sustainable Development in Jastarnia and Łeba signified, in contrast, a bit higher (30%) level of knowledge of the notion [Stanaszek, Tędziagolska 2011].

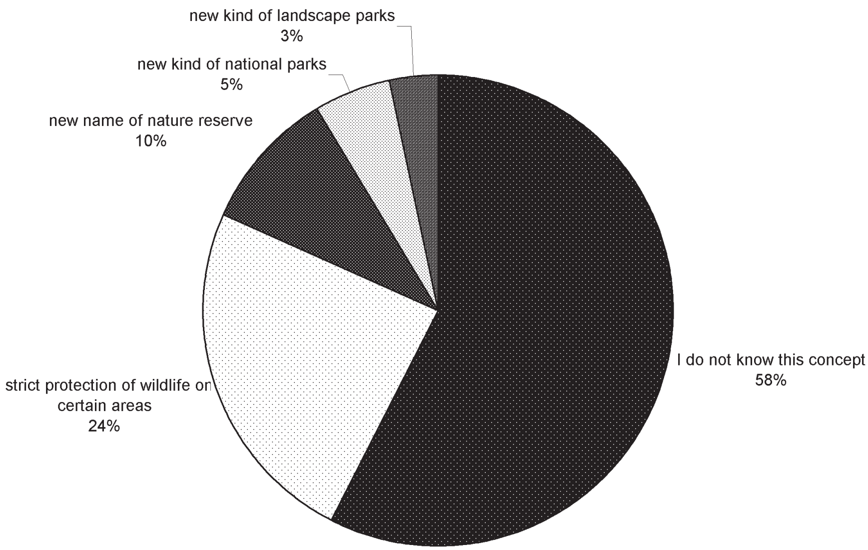

Figure 8. The knowledge level of the concept of Natura 2000 areas
Source: Author's work based on the survey.

The low level of knowledge results from, among other things, the fact that such forms of environmental protection as national parks, nature reserves, and landscape parks have existed for many years, and information about them is widely known and readily available, while the Natura 2000 areas constitute an exception in this regard [De Pierola et al. 2009; Ziarnek, Piątkowska 2000]. In Poland, it is also related to the fact that it was not until 2008 that basic information about Natura 2000 was introduced in an elementary range to curriculum for children and youth. [*Rozporządzenie Ministra Edukacji Narodowej z dnia 23 grudnia 2008 r*.].

Such a high rate of ignorance among residents combined with Europe's largest spatial range of Natura 2000 sites located in the coastal areas leads to the conclusion that the existence of this form of environmental protection is still hardly reflected in the social awareness. This fact is quite surprising in light of the range of sites covered by this form of nature conservation in the concerned area. This, therefore, indicates the need for urgent and wide-ranging awareness-raising activities that should be undertaken on the part of the administration responsible for implementing the Natura 2000 network.

Another issue was the attempt to clarify the perception of Natura 2000 sites as attractive holiday destinations. As assumed, the areas of Natura 2000 can be considered to be the healthiest ones across Europe. Furthermore, integration into the network is a kind of distinction for rural areas that are often marginalized in terms of economic development. This is, in the case of towns located in the hinterland of the Polish coastal zone, a chance for mobilization towards the preservation of traditional methods of cultivation and promotion of healthy food. Unfortunately, only less than half of the respondents (47%) stated that their choice of holiday destination may be affected by the existence of protected areas (Fig. 9). The low level of their awareness of the Natura 2000 network is probably a factor in this (see Fig. 8). In general, the residents still fail to see an opportunity for taking advantage of the brand of Natura 2000 to promote more environmentally friendly forms of tourism or to address tourists with motivations outside of simple recreation.

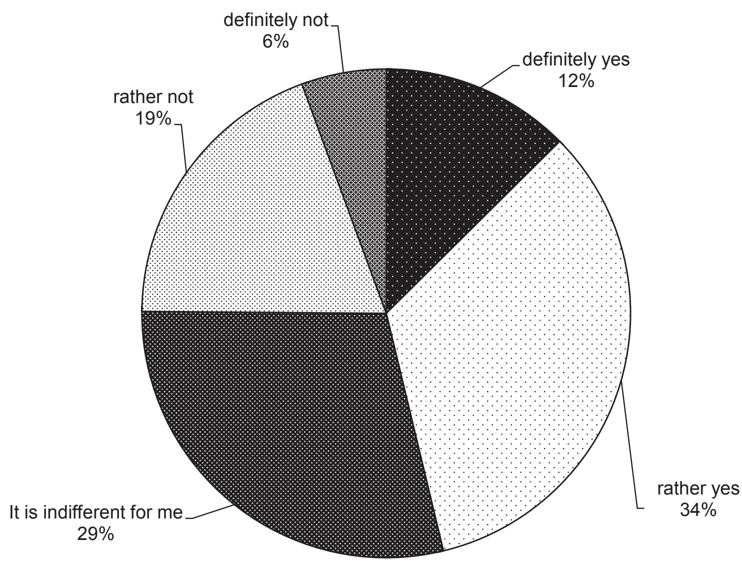

Figure 9. The influence of the existence of protected areas on the choice of holiday destinations

Source: Author's work based on the survey.

The results are confirmed in the residents' opinions of tourists' interest in Natura 2000. The majority of them (62%) do not see an increase in tourists' interest in the region because of the existence of Natura 2000 sites. This can be explained by the fact that most of the area's tourists have a strong recreational motivation (Sun, Sea, Sand).

The data collected by the Institute for Sustainable Development indicate that 64% of tourists declare their interest in recreation in the areas of particular natural values [Stanaszek, Tędziagolska 2011]. On the other hand, a sea beach is not often identified with protected natural value.

These views were confirmed by responses to the question concerning the increase in money-making opportunities provided by the Natura 2000 network in the respondents' places of residence. The vast majority of the respondents (74%) do not see any economic benefits of Natura 2000. Undoubtedly, there are several reasons for this; the most significant one, however, is related to the absence of a relationship between tourists in the region and the establishment of the Natura 2000 network. Tourists were in the region even before it was protected. Similarly, they are currently visiting the region without an awareness of or interest in the existence of a new form of environmental protection.

This is yet another argument implying that Natura 2000 is still not regarded as a tourism product. The residents still have not formed positive associations with this form of environmental protection and, therefore, are not conscious of the possibility of promoting their places of residence through their connection with Natura 2000 sites.

Furthermore, the tourists coming to the area do not have any particular expectations in this regard, as the tourism products that they might associate with Natura 2000 have not been created yet [Głąbiński 2014].

What constitutes a separate issue is the question of whether the residents perceive any positive effects of the process of implementing the Natura 2000 network in their places of residence. That is why residents were asked if they felt they were benefitting from investment activity related to Natura 2000. The vast majority of the population (69%) did not, unfortunately, see any positive changes in the conditions of public infrastructure. Though this was one of the objectives of the Natura 2000 sites, positive change is still barely perceptible for the residents. It probably results from huge delays in the process of implementing the Natura 2000 network in all of Europe [De Pierola et al. 2009]. For this reason, during awareness-raising activities, the administration needs to put an emphasis on how citizens could potentially benefit from Natura 2000, rather than only discussing management limitations connected with the introduction of protective regimes.

The results of this study should prompt the authorities to increase the participation of residents in the development and management of Natura 2000 sites. They should consider the examples of Thanet Coast, England, where a broad dialogue with the public resulted in full acceptance for the idea of Natura 2000, and the Overijseel province in the Netherlands, where the local community was not sufficiently informed about the concept [Beuen, de Vries 2011]. These methods of introduction resulted in completely different attitudes, from complete acceptance in England to a large distrust in the Netherlands.

As was previously mentioned, the participation of conscious residents is essential in the process of implementing the European Ecological Network Natura 2000. That is why residents were asked whether they were aware of their ignorance of the subject and if they expected information on Natura 2000 areas. This is significant, as more conscious residents would be able to advocate for the conservation of natural resources located in Natura 2000 areas, even if they did so for economic reasons. This could be accomplished by promoting environmentally valuable areas that would be visited by more conscious tourists who would be willing to pay more. Thirty-five percent of respondents in Poland in 2012 declared participating in such actions related to pro-ecological projects [*Badanie świadomości*… 2012, p. 95].

Most residents (56%) are not, unfortunately, interested in any information on the subject. They probably consider Natura 2000 to be a subject that is not of their concern. This issue has a wider meaning in the field of communication and the resolution of potential conflicts concerning Natura 2000 sites that have emerged between the administration and citizens.

The vast majority of residents (74%), many of whom are involved in service activities related to tourism, are not able to determine whether the availability of information on the possibility of exploring Natura 2000 areas is sufficient (Fig. 13). This is yet another indicator showing that the inhabitants of coastal areas in Poland are still quite unfamiliar with the issue.

Despite such low interest in information on Natura 2000, the respondents were asked about the sources of information that they believe would be attractive to potential candidates (Fig. 10).

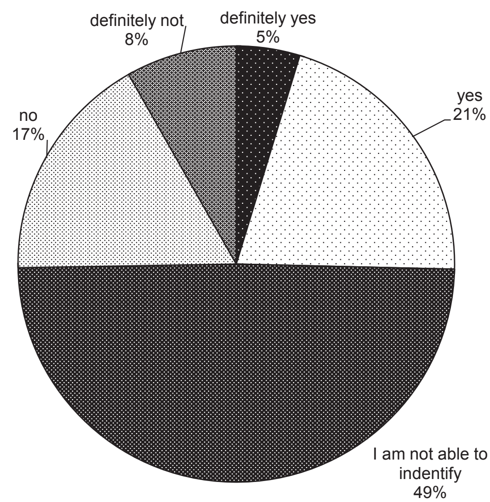

Figure 10. Is the information on the tourist attractions of Natura 2000 sites accessible enough?

Source: Author's work based on the survey.

The respondents most frequently indicated that they prefer to be informed through the following types of media: websites, leaflets, maps, and the marking of Natura 2000 sites (Fig. 11). Respondents were least interested in becoming familiar with natural exhibitions in the field, visiting educational centers, or innovative forms of providing tourist assets.

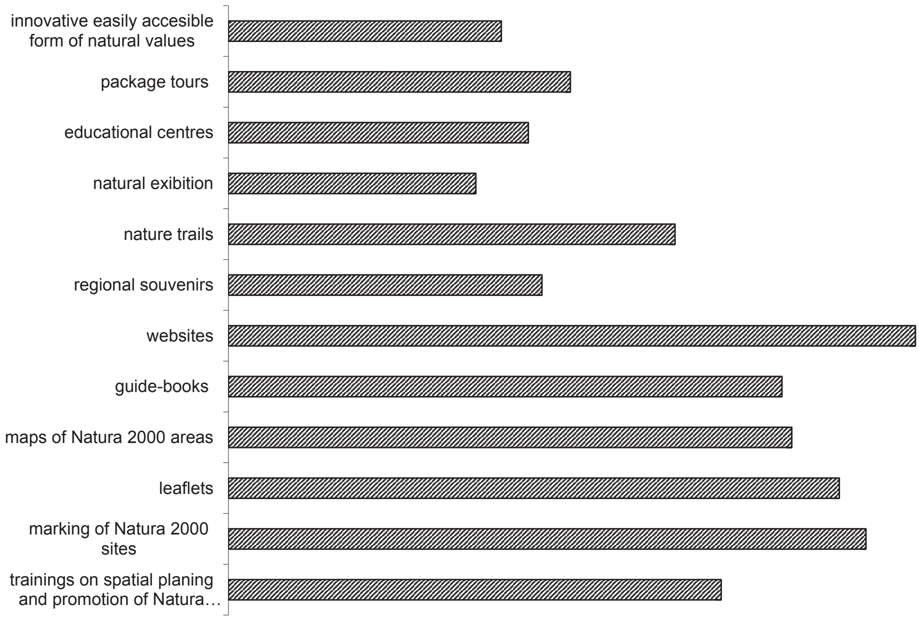

Figure 11. Proposals for the promotion strategy and sources of information on Natura 2000 sites

Source: Author's work based on the survey.

The conclusions drawn from the study indicate that only a certain portion of residents are interested in information concerning tourist attractions in the area. These may be people who are more aware of their lack of knowledge of Natura 2000. This confirms the previous statement that Natura 2000 is a concept that is correctly defined only by a small portion of those residing in coastal towns in Poland. The others are not familiar with the issue, nor are they interested in it. This will likely remain unchanged until government action affects their vital interests.

Conclusion

In conclusion, what should be emphasized is the fact that the results of the study presented in this paper are not representative and, therefore, any generalizations should be made with caution. The analysis of the survey results both complements and confirms earlier opinions quoted in the literature and, moreover, it allows the following conclusions to be made.

The vast majority of the residents of Polish coastal towns (75%) state that environmental protection is a significant issue for them.

1. More than half of the respondents claim to participate in pro-ecological behaviors in their daily lives. These involve saving electricity, segregating waste, or using reusable shopping bags. Economic issues (a reduction in the cost of living) may determine such behaviors. This is suggested by the fact that only 10% of the respondents selflessly participate in pro-ecological actions (such as "The Earth Day" or "Clean Up The World Day").
2. The vast majority (83%) of people residing in Poland's coastal areas are not able to correctly interpret the concept of Natura 2000. This, combined with Europe's largest range of this form of nature conservation, should prompt urgent awareness activities.
3. Less than half of the residents under study (47%) are aware that the protected areas are attractive to tourists.
4. More than half of the population does not see an increase in tourists' interest in their region (62%) resulting from the establishment of Natura 2000 sites, and 74% do not see any benefits at all.
5. The residents do not notice any benefits in the development of public infrastructure (64%), the rise of which was associated with the protection of Natura 2000 sites.
6. The majority of residents (56%) are interested in information on Natura 2000 sites.
7. The vast majority of respondents (74%) have no discernment on the availability of information on Natura 2000, which indicates a lack of interest in this issue.
8. Area signage, websites, and leaflets are the most preferred sources of information on the Natura 2000 network.

The analysis presented above gives a very worrying picture of the level of awareness of the Natura 2000 network among the residents of Poland's coastal areas. Such knowledge is fragmentary and incomplete, and the level of interest is rather low. This fact, combined with data indicating that the spatial extent of the Natura 2000 network is the largest in West Pomerania and one of the largest in Pomerania, indicates that it is necessary to take comprehensive measures to prevent the emergence of large-scale social conflicts of an environmental nature.

Obviously, these results should be approached with caution. Imperfections in the surveying methods should be taken into account. However, what should be emphasized is the fact that the results correspond with data derived from other studies of a national character. Therefore, it can be concluded that a social dialogue must be opened between the administration that is responsible for the implementation of the Natura 2000 network, residents, and businesses operating in the tourism industry. The first step in this process should be to raise the environmental awareness of residents. Without any such action, the European Ecological Network Natura 2000 will face serious obstacles in the Polish region of the Baltic Sea coast.

Some authors [Bőrzel, Buzogany 2010; Cent et al. 2014] emphasize the negative effects of the lack of participation of local communities in the creation of Natura 2000 sites in new EU countries. They conclude that when it comes to Poland, Romania, and Hungary, the administration is often reluctant to begin a dialogue with local communities concerning the Natura 2000 network. Such an attitude does not contribute to the effective implementation of protective measures and, consequently, negatively effects the whole society.

In conclusion, it should be noted that the postulates presented above are consistent with the objectives of sustainable development. The objectives of the Natura 2000 network cannot be obtained without the consent of the local communities that host the sites. The authorities should conduct the consultation process with due diligence and without neglecting their social partners. It should, furthermore, be emphasized that, so far, many mistakes have been made in this field, and it is not the fault of local residents.

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POSTRZEGANIE OBSZARÓW NATURA 2000 PRZEZ MIESZKAŃCÓW NADMORSKICH TERENÓW W POLSCE W KONTEKŚCIE MOŻLIWOŚCI ROZWOJU TURYSTYKI

Abstrakt

Cel. Celem badań było określenie poziomu świadomości ekologicznej mieszkańców, ich wiedzy oraz postaw wobec nadmorskich obszarów Natura 2000. Ponadto w badaniu podjęto próbę określenia potrzeb mieszkańców dotyczących preferowanych źródeł informacji o tej nowej formie ochrony przyrody.
Metoda. Badanie ankietowe zostało przeprowadzone na grupie 5848 mieszkańców w okresie od lata 2012 do lata 2013r. Kwestionariusze ankiety były rozdawane i zbierane przez ankieterów wśród mieszkańców miejscowości nadmorskich (metoda PAPI), a dobór respondentów miał charakter celowy.
Wyniki. Zdecydowana większość ankietowanych reprezentowała niezbyt wysoki poziom świadomości ekologicznej, który przejawiał się podejmowaniem działań proekologicznych przede wszystkim z powodów ekonomicznych (65%). Przeważająca większość respondentów (83%) nie potrafiła prawidłowo zdefiniować pojęcia Natura 2000, a 74% z nich nie dostrzegało żadnych korzyści z istnienia tej formy ochrony przyrody.
Ograniczenia badań i wnioskowania. Badanie ankietowe zostało przeprowadzone na celowo dobranej (nie reprezentatywnej) próbie mieszkańców, ale uzyskane wyniki są porównywalne z innymi danymi dotyczącymi tego problemu publikowanymi w literaturze. Z tego powodu można uznać, że uzyskane wyniki za wiarygodne.
Implikacje praktyczne. Wyniki badań mogą zostać wykorzystane przez organy administracji odpowiedzialne za prowadzenie działań związanych z podnoszeniem świadomości ekologicznej mieszkańców ze szczególnym uwzględnieniem obszarów Natura 2000.
Oryginalność. Jest to pierwszy artykuł, który prezentuje wyniki badań ankietowych dotyczących obszarów Natura 2000 prowadzonych na terenie wszystkich 3 województw nadmorskich w Polsce.
Rodzaj pracy. Artykuł prezentuje wyniki badań empirycznych przeprowadzonych metodą ankietową na próbie 5848 mieszkańców miejscowości nadmorskich w Polsce.

Słowa kluczowe: Natura 2000, świadomość ekologiczna, turystyka zrównoważona, konflikty ekologiczne.

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THE DIFFERENTIATION OF TOURIST TRAFFIC IN THE WESTERN PART OF THE TATRA MOUNTAINS

*Joanna Fidelus**

Abstract

Purpose. The aim of this research is to compare the number of tourists in selected tourist trails between the Polish (TNP) and Slovakian (TANAP) parts of the protected area in the Tatra Mountains. The research also aimed to determine if sensors are suitable for use in the study of tourist traffic in mountain areas.

Method. This article presents the results of a study that was focused on determining the number of tourists in an area based on data from tourist counters. The tourist counters were installed in the summer seasons from 2009 to 2011 in the subalpine and alpine belts of the western part of the Tatra Mountains. Detailed measurements of tourist traffic were taken within easily accessible high-mountain tourist trails. Additional detailed studies of relief transformations and related landform changes were also conducted within parts of these trails.

Findings. The research has shown that there is a significant differentiation in the intensity of tourist traffic between the Polish and Slovakian high parts of the Tatra Mountains. The volume of tourist traffic in the Polish part of the TNP is significantly higher.

Research and conclusions limitations. The research focused on tourist traffic in the highest parts of the western part of the Tatra Mountains.

Practical implications. The tourist counters are very useful in the management of hiking in protected areas. Tourist counters allow the measurement of tourist traffic in remote, high mountain locations where there are no other means of counting tourists in order to determine the distribution of tourist traffic.

Originality. This study is among the first to conduct research using tourist counters in Poland. The research measured the number of tourists in the alpine part of two national parks, Polish and Slovakian. An important aspect of this research is the fact that the data about tourist traffic numbers is linked to specific tourist trails in a high mountain area. This will allow for a comparison of the number of tourists at a later time.

Type of paper. Empirical research

Key words: tourism, automatic counters, high mountains, protected areas, TANAP, TNP.

* Ph.D., Pedagogical University of Cracow, Institute of Geography, Department of Tourism and Regional Studies [dr; Uniwersytet Pedagogiczny w Krakowie, Instytut Geografii, Zakład Turystyki i Badań Regionalnych]; e-mail: jfidelus@up.krakow.pl.

Introduction

One of the most important problems the Tatra National Park is facing currently is excessive tourist traffic on slopes within tourist footpaths [Skawiński 2006, pp. 25–28; Skawiński 2010, pp. 25–32]. When Poland and Slovakia signed the Schengen treaty on December 21, 2007, new opportunities for hiking arose, especially where the Polish and Slovakian tourist trails intersect, further increasing the amount of tourist traffic. An important issue in relation to the intensity of tourist traffic is the tourism capacity of a mountain area [Bogucka, Marchlewski 1982, pp. 17–66; Clivaz et al. 2004, pp. 230–235]. According to the World Tourism Organization, one of the factors affecting the tourism capacity of a given area is the resistance of the physical environment to destruction. This is especially important when comparing two mountain areas with different natural conditions, for example the les Monts Dore Massif (France) and the Tatra Mountains [Krzemień 1997, pp. 277–286; Clivaz et al. 2004, pp. 230–235].

Slopes within tourist trails, especially in protected areas, are places where most landform changes take place [Krzemień 1997, pp. 277–286; Rojan, Wałdykowski 2007, pp. 247–253; Buchwał, Fidelus 2008, pp. 14–24; Gorczyca, Krzemień 2010, pp. 228–242; Wałdykowski, Krzemień 2013, pp. 429–470]. The landform changes within tourist trails are associated with a combination of the effects of natural processes and of anthropogenic impact.

Management of protected areas requires an accurate analysis of the spatial distribution of tourist traffic, which can help prevent excessive degradation of the areas heavily used by tourists [Whinam, Chilcott 2003, pp. 339–351]. However, the determination of the number of tourists in high mountain areas is difficult. Therefore it is necessary to use methods which allow remote and continuous monitoring of tourist traffic. This is especially important in the most valuable natural areas exposed to significant transformations.

The aim of this paper is to compare the number of tourists on various tourist trails in the Polish (Tatra National Park – TNP; in Polish: TPN) and Slovakian (Tatranský Národný Park – TANAP) parts of the Tatra National Park. The study also aims to determine the suitability of the use of sensors in the study of tourist traffic in mountain areas.

Literature Review

The increasing number of tourists in the Tatras since the beginning of the twentieth century necessitated the development of a tourist infrastructure to make selected areas accessible to tourists [Baranowska-Janota et al. 2000, pp. 241–257; Baścik, Pociask-Karteczka 2006, pp. 87-107; Baranowska-Janota 2007, pp. 47–57]. A detailed description of the development of tourism in the Kościeliska Valley since the eighteenth century is, for example, presented by M. Baścik and J. Pociask-Karteczka [2006, pp. 87–106]. An important moment in the development of tourism in the Tatra Mountains was the establishment of the Tatra Society in 1873 [Balon et al. 2006, pp. 65–92].

Since 1993, information about tourist traffic has been based on ticket sales [Pociask-Karteczka et al. 2007, pp. 271–279] (Fig. 1). Several studies, such as those of A. Płoszaj [1997, pp. 24–61]; J. T. Czochański and W. Szydarowski [2000, pp. 218–221], and J. T. Czochański [2002, pp. 284–403] have taken measurements of the spatial-temporal distribution of tourists based on direct measurements.

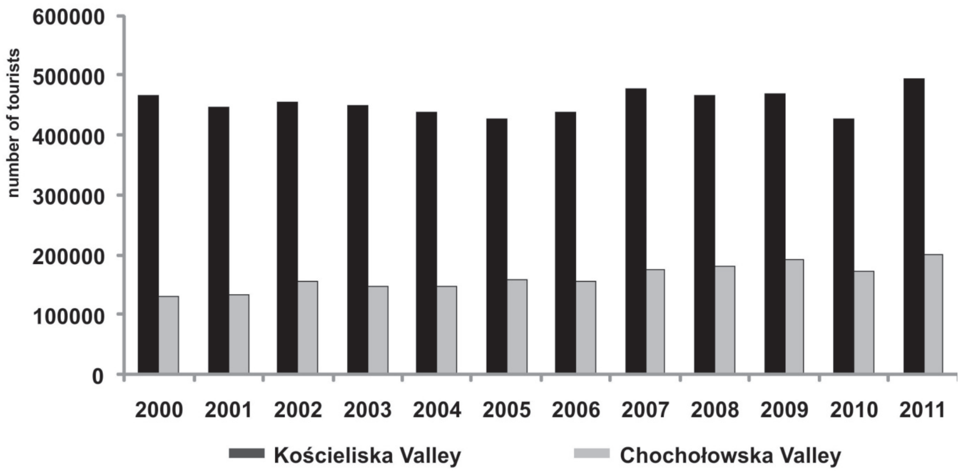

Figure 1. Tourist traffic in the Chochołowska and Kościeliska Valleys 2000–2011 (data based on ticket sales; data from the Chochołowska Valley also includes the number of tourists in the Lejowa Valley from June to October 2000–2011)

Source: Data from the Tatra National Park.

The early research, carried out August 5–7, 2004, focused on tourist traffic in the TANAP and the TNP simultaneously [Ładygin, Chovancova 2005, pp. 43–50; Šturcel 2006, pp. 109–114]. The measurements were repeated August 6–8, 2009. Determining the effects of anthropogenic degradation requires accurate estimates of tourist traffic [Bogucka, Marchlewski 1982, pp. 17–57; Leung, Lee 2003, pp. 53–56; Vistad 2003, pp. 363–368; Pociask-Karteczka et al. 2007, pp. 271–279]. The susceptibility of the slope surface to relief transformation within the tourist trails is dependent on a number of natural conditions in the area, such as types of cover and their saturation with melt and rainfall water. It is therefore important to determine the distribution of tourism in both the temporal and spatial contexts. For this purpose, both in Poland and worldwide, different methods are used for estimating tourist numbers [Cole 2004, pp. 10–16; Melville, Ruohonen 2004, pp. 38–44; Ładygin, Chovancova 2005, pp. 15–87; Rupf-Haller et al. 2006, pp. 72–77; Shoji et al. 2008, pp. 286–295; Buchwał, Fidelus 2010, pp. 45–53]. Infrared sensors, cameras registering tourists, and sensors measuring the mechanical impact of tourists on the slope surface are all used for tourist traffic measurements [Cessford, Muhar 2003, pp. 242–245; Arnberger et al. 2005, pp. 317–327; Shoji et al. 2008, pp. 286–295]. G. Cessford and A. Muhar [2003, pp. 242–245] presented various methods of measuring tourist traffic in protected areas, including direct counts and measurements using various devices. For each of the methods, the authors presented positive and negative aspects of the measurement technique. Their research aids in selecting the proper methods of measuring tourist numbers based on the natural conditions of an area.

This data can also be used to show the relationship between the intensity of tourist traffic and certain meteorological conditions [Ploner, Brandenburg 2003, pp. 297–208].

Area of Study

The area of study is located in the western part of the Tatra Mountains. This area is protected by two national parks: the Tatra National Park (TNP – the Polish part) and the Tatranský Národný Park (TANAP – the Slovakian part). The measurements of tourist traffic were conducted in the following tourist trails in the Polish region: from the Chochołowska Valley to the Grześ summit (1653 m a.s.l.); from the Siwa Pass (1812 m a.s.l.) to the Gaborowa Pass (1938 m a.s.l.); and from the pass below Wołowiec to the Wołowiec summit (2064 m a.s.l.; Fig. 2). In the Slovakian region, measurements were conducted in the following areas: from the Łatana Valley to the Grześ summit (1653 m a.s.l.); from the Jarząbczy Wierch summit (2137 m a.s.l.) to the Raczkowa Czuba summit (2194 m a.s.l.); and from the Jamnicka Pass (1908 m a.s.l.) to the Wołowiec summit (2064 m a.s.l.).

The area of study is divided into two parts based on differing geological structures: the south is crystalline and the north is sedimentary. The crystalline part is composed mainly of granite and metamorphic rocks, such as gneisses, amphibolites, and crystalline schists. The sedimentary part is dominated by limestone, dolomites, and marls [Bac-Moszaszwili, Jurewicz 2010, pp. 62–63].

The areas are characterized by high natural values and a significant diversity in the number of tourists in different sections of the tourist trails. There are two large shelters located in the northern part of the area of study on the Ornak Glade (1100 m a.s.l.) and on the Chochołowska Glade (1146 m a.s.l.). The number of beds is 50 and 121, respectively. In the southern part of the study area, there are only two small chalets. The chalet in the Jam-

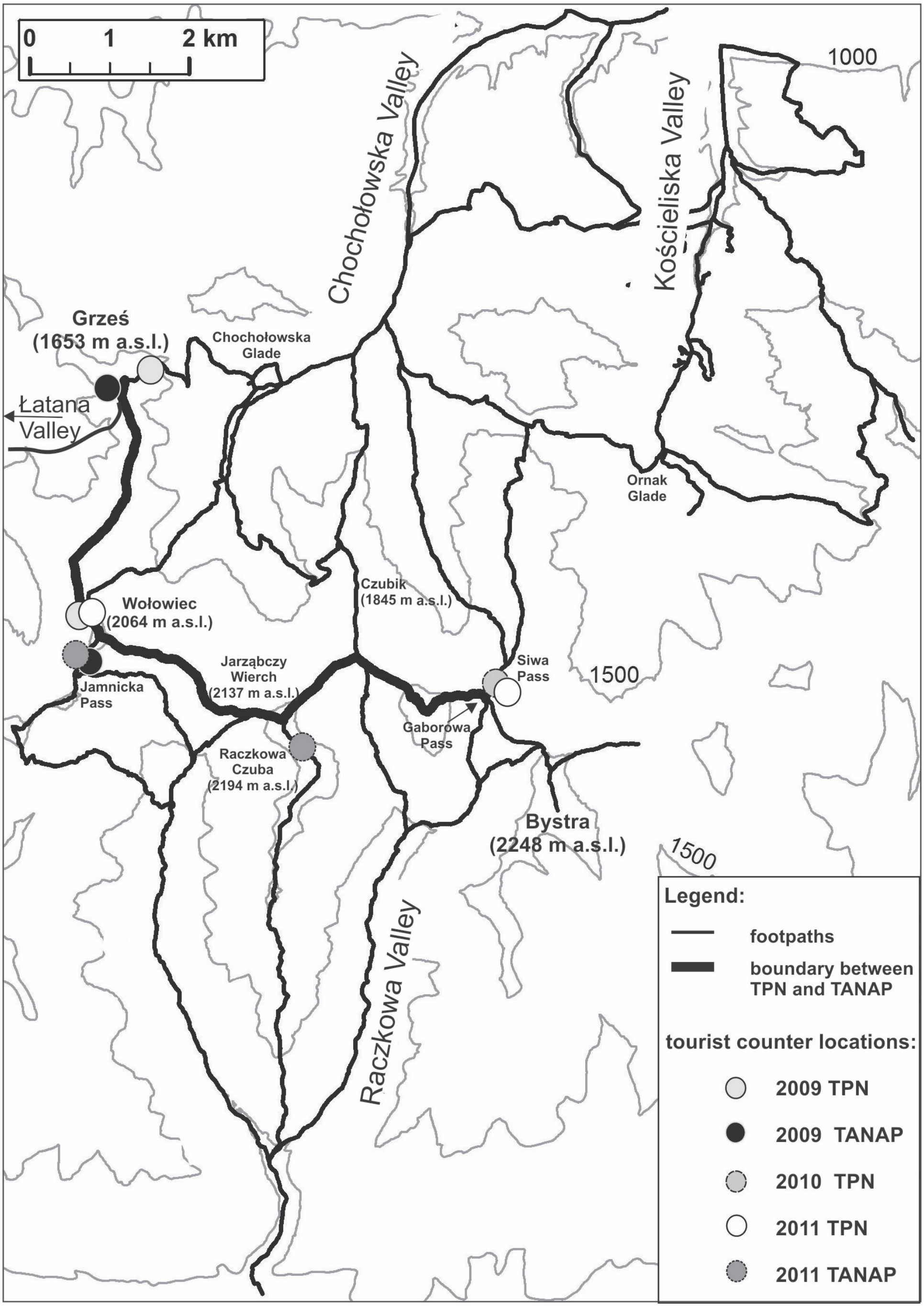

Figure 2. Location of automatic counters in the area of study (2009–2011)
Source: Author's work.

nicka Valley holds 20 people, and the chalet in the Raczkowa Valley holds five. However, in the Slovakian part of the area, there is a large campsite and several mountain hotels located near the entrance to the Wąska Valley.

Methods

Automatic infrared tourist counters from the Eco-counter company were used to measure tourist traffic (Photo 1). The passive infrared unit consists of a pyroelectric sensor and a logger (control unit). The system is weatherproof, and the integrated batteries should last for up to ten years. The average sensor range is four meters. The cables were buried and the logger was concealed using soil and rocks. One of the tourist counters was purchased by the author as part of her own research project, funded by the Ministry of Science and Higher Education (Nr NN 306 290 235), and the other counters were made available by the Tatra National Park. The sensors had to be installed so that they were concealed and secure in order to obtain accurate data, as well as to protect the devices from damage and theft.

Photo 1. A tourist counter used to measure tourist traffic
Source: Author's photo.

Automatic counters provide a continuous measurement of tourist traffic. The counters measured the traffic going in each direction separately. The tourist counters were installed in the summer seasons from 2009 to 2011 in the subalpine and alpine belts (see Fig. 2). The devices were installed depending on natural conditions in their respective locations (Photo 2 a, b). In the study area, the counters were hidden in rock fragments near the trails. Data was recorded hourly.

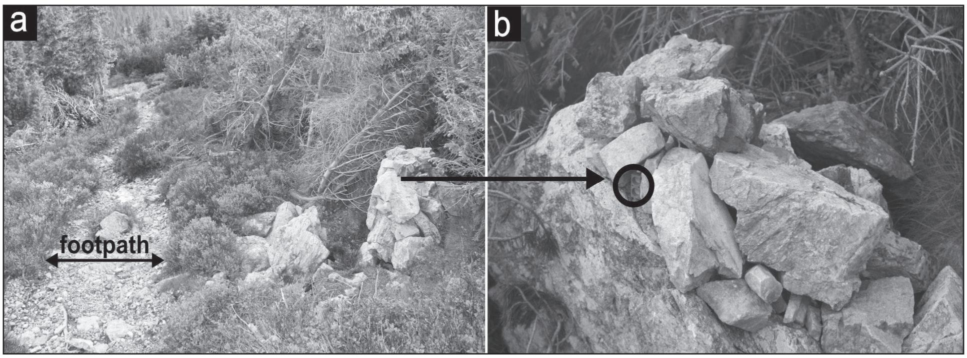

Photo 2 a, b. The locations of two counters in the study area: a) a tourist counter installed at the bedrocks near a trail from the Łatana Valley to the Grześ summit in the subalpine belt; b) a tourist counter installed within rock debris near the trail to the Grześ summit

Source: Author's photos.

This study compared the number of tourists in the Polish and Slovakian regions of the Western Tatra Mountains as well as the number of tourists in the forest and alpine belts. The comparison of the number of tourists in the forest and alpine belts was conducted on the basis of data obtained from tourist counters and from entrance tickets to the TNP. Data on tourist traffic in the Kościeliska Valley was provided by the TNP.

In order to explain the reasons for the temporal variability of tourist traffic according to meteorological conditions, rainfall data for the Chochołowska Glade, Ornak Glade, and Czubik slope was taken into consideration for 2009–2011. Data for the Chochołowska and Ornak Glades was obtained from the Institute of Meteorology and Water Management, PIB (PIB – the National Research Institute) and data for the Czubik slope (1746 m a.s.l.) was obtained from the author's own rain gauge, purchased as part of the research project. Usually, days with precipitation above two millimeters were counted as rainy days.

In the last stage of the research, a statistical analysis of the data was conducted through a t-Student's test and a correlation test.

Meteorological Conditions during Research

The average annual precipitation in the area of study from 2009 to 2011 was 1723 mm in the Chochołowska Glade and 1703 mm in the Ornak Glade (see Fig. 3). The most humid year was 2010. The annual sum of precipitation was 2163 mm in the Chochołowska Glade and 2165 mm in the Ornak Glade. The smallest annual precipitation occurred in 2011 (the sum of precipitation was 1300 mm and 1389 mm, respectively).

During the summer season (June–August), the annual sum of precipitation in the area of study reached approximately 450 mm and 600 mm [Łajczak 2006, pp. 19–35].

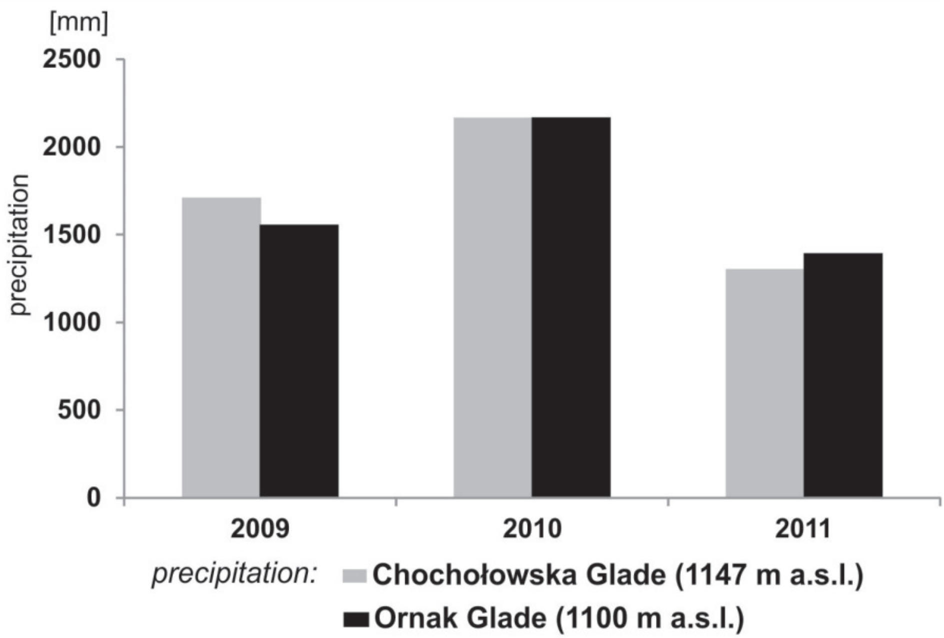

Figure 3. Average annual precipitation at the Chochołowska Glade (2009–2011)
Source: Data – Institute of Meteorology and Water Management, PIB.

Results

The number of tourists on the trails of the area varied drastically. There was a significant asymmetry in tourist traffic volume in the Polish and Slovakian regions. Studies based on these detailed measurements have shown that the largest number of tourists occurs on the trails from the Chochołowska Valley to the Grześ summit, and that the average daily number of tourists is significantly higher on the Polish side. The average daily number of tourists on the footpath to the Grześ summit (1653 m a.s.l.) was 254 people on the Polish side, and only 53 people on the Slovakian side (Fig. 4).

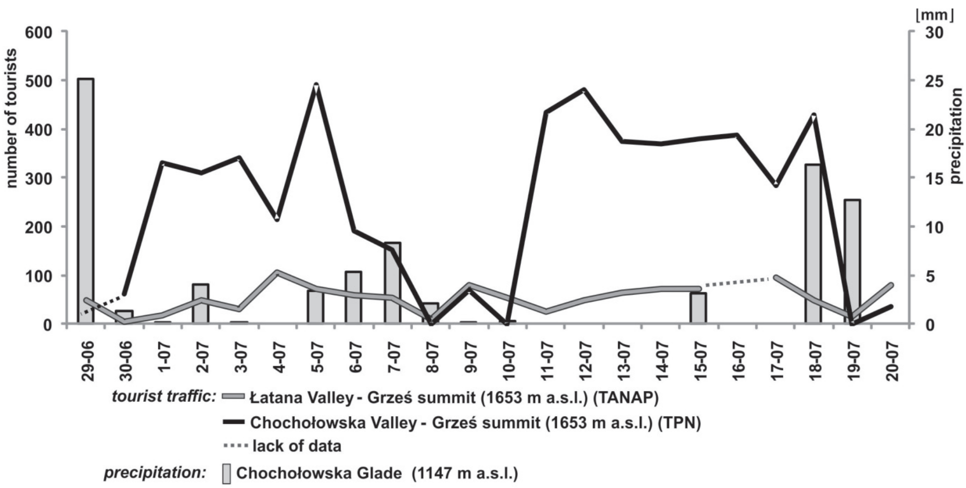

Figure 4. The number of tourists on trails from the Chochołowska Valley (TNP) and Łatana Valley (TANAP) to the Grześ summit, and the amount of precipitation in the area (June 29–July 20, 2009); the dashed line indicates a lack of data resulting from wrong sensor settings)

Source: Author's work.

The average daily number of tourists on the footpath from the Jamnicka Pass to the Wołowiec summit on the Slovakian side amounted to 16 persons. At the same time, the average daily number of tourists on the trail from the pass below Wołowiec to the Wołowiec summit was 133 persons, eight times more than on the Slovakian side (Fig. 5).

The number of tourists in the area varies as the weather conditions change, especially on days with precipitation. It is also dependent on the day of the week, with significantly higher numbers of tourists on the weekends, especially during so called "long weekends."

Between June 29 and July 20, 2009, the average daily number of tourists on the trail from the Chochołowska Valley to the Grześ summit on days with rain amounted to 244 people. On days without precipitation, the average number was 323 tourists. The average tourist traffic towards the Grześ summit from the Łatana Valley on the Slovakian side was only 48 people on days with rain and 70 people on days without rain. A similar differentiation can also be seen on the footpaths to the Wołowiec summit (Fig. 5).

There is a large disproportion in tourist traffic between the forest and high mountain belts. The majority of tourists in the Polish region are people

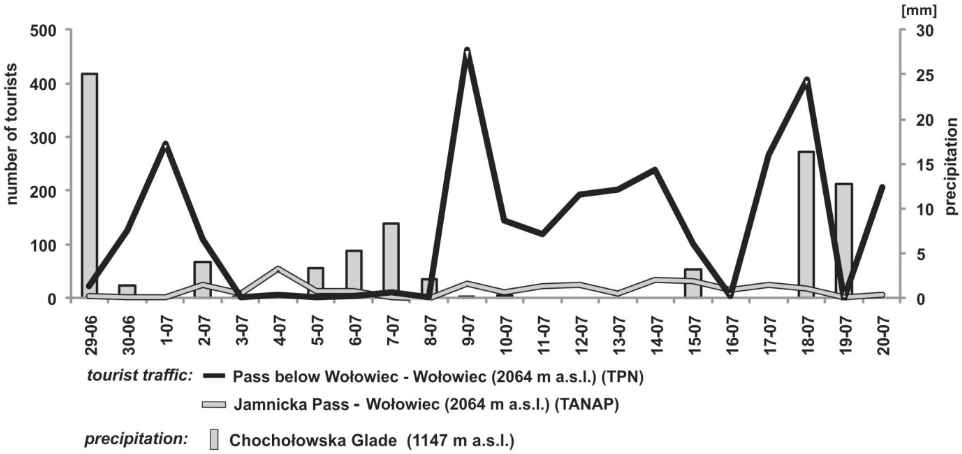

Figure 5. The number of tourists on the trail from the pass below Wołowiec and from the Jamnicka Pass to the Wołowiec summit (June 29–July 20, 2009)

Source: Author's work.

whose goal is to reach one of the mountain shelters. The average daily number of tourists from June 28 to October 21, 2010 was 2,308 tourists in the forest belt in the Kościeliska Valley. During the same period, the average daily number of tourists in the high mountain belt on the trail towards the

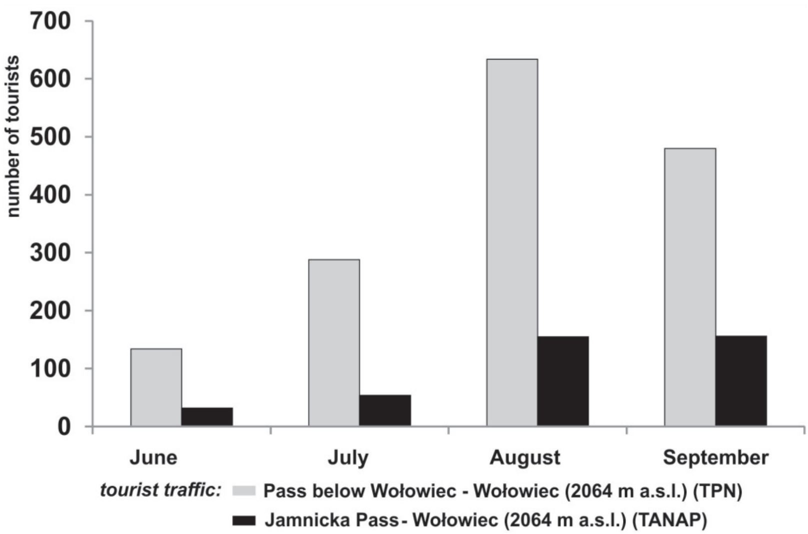

Figure 6. The average daily amount of tourist traffic on the trail from the pass below Wołowiec and Jamnicka Pass from June to September 2011

Source: Author's work.

Siwa Pass was 94. It is worth mentioning that despite this large disproportion in the number of tourists between the forest and alpine belts, the footpaths in the high parts of the study area are more sensitive to human impact. The natural environment above the timberline is also more vulnerable to relief transformations.

From June 15 to August 31, 2011, the average daily number of tourists was 406 people on the tourist trails from the pass below Wołowiec to the Wołowiec summit, and 93 people on the trail from the Jamnicka Pass to the Wołowiec summit (Fig. 2, 6). During rainy days (any amount of rainfall was taken into consideration), the counts were 244 and 53 people, respectively. On the Polish side, the tourist counter from the pass below Wołowiec to the Wołowiec summit was installed on May 22, 2011. The average daily number of tourists when the Slovakian part of the national park was closed was 79 (May 22–June 15, 2011; trails from the pass below Wołowiec to the Wołowiec summit). In the TANAP region, the tourist trails are closed to tourist traffic from November 1 to June 15 for the protection and regeneration of the natural environment.

A correlation test and t-Student's test were performed in order to show the dependencies of tourist traffic patterns within the Wołowiec summit from the TNP and TANAP sides, taking into account all research periods (Fig. 7, 8).

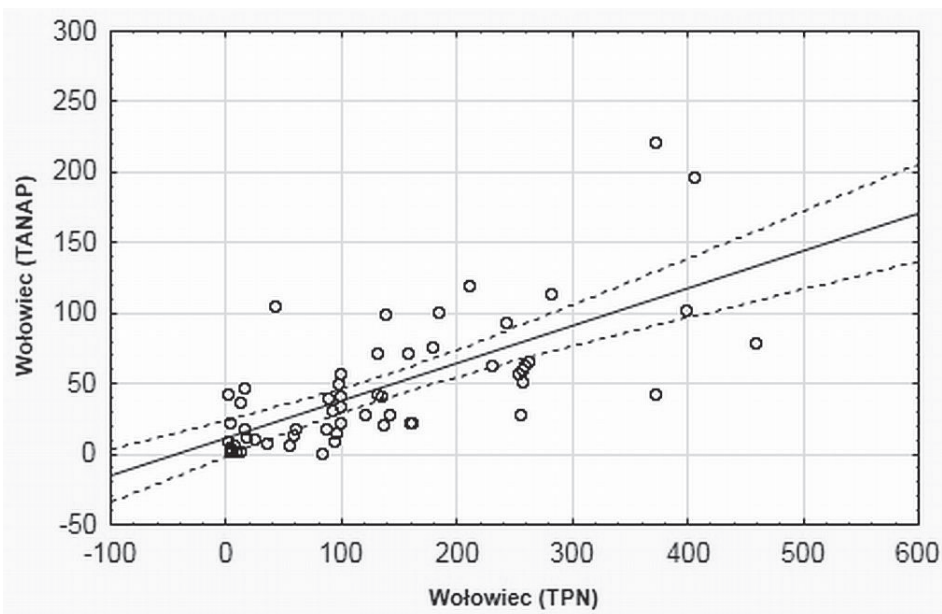

Figure 7. The correlation between tourist traffic on the footpaths leading from the Jamnicka Pass (TANAP) and the pass below Wołowiec (TNP) to the Wołowiec summit

Source: Author's work.

At a significance level of 5%, the correlation between the number of tourists in the TNP and TANAP within Wołowiec is positive (r = 0.7). The t-Student's test was performed for two independent samples (TNP, TANAP). At a 5% significance level, the test confirmed a difference between the average number of people in the analyzed tourist trails (p <0.00001). The average number of tourists for the tourist trails was 132 for TNP and 46 for TANAP (Fig. 8).

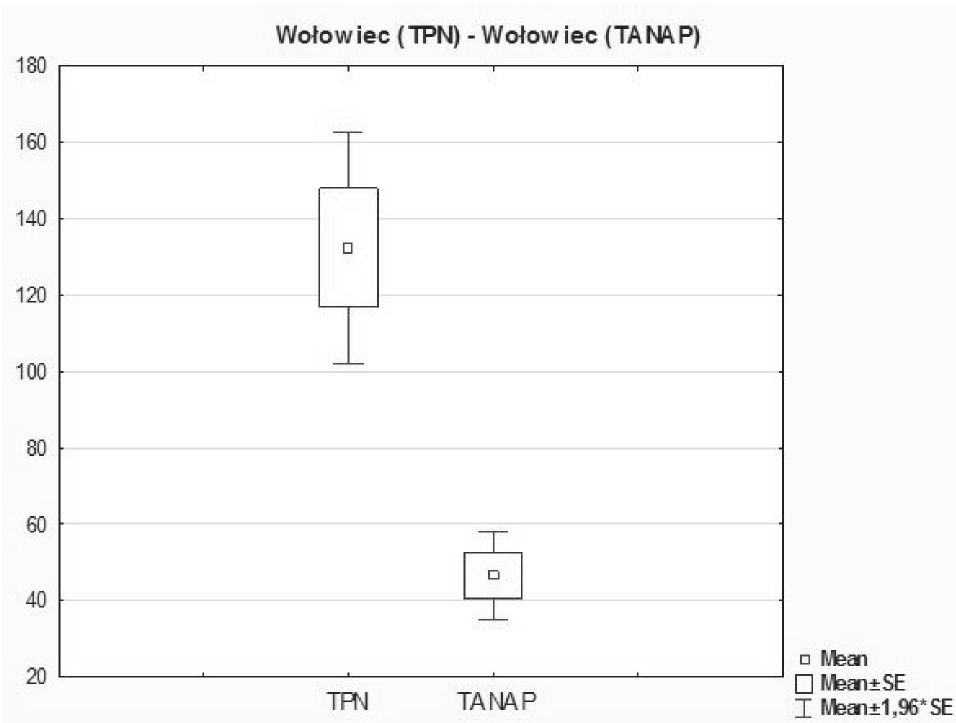

Figure 8. The diversity of tourist traffic on the tourist trails leading from the TNP and TANAP to the Wołowiec summit

Source: Author's work.

A disproportion in tourist traffic can also be observed on the trails from the Siwa Pass to the Gaborowa Pass and from the Jarząbczy summit to the Raczkowa Czuba summit (Fig. 9). The average daily number of tourists from July 18 to September 14 on the tourist trails from the Siwa Pass to the Gaborowa Pass was 133 persons. During the same period, the average daily number of tourists from the Jarząbczy Wierch summit to the Raczkowa Czuba summit was only 46 persons. This disproportion is also present on rainfall days (Fig. 9).

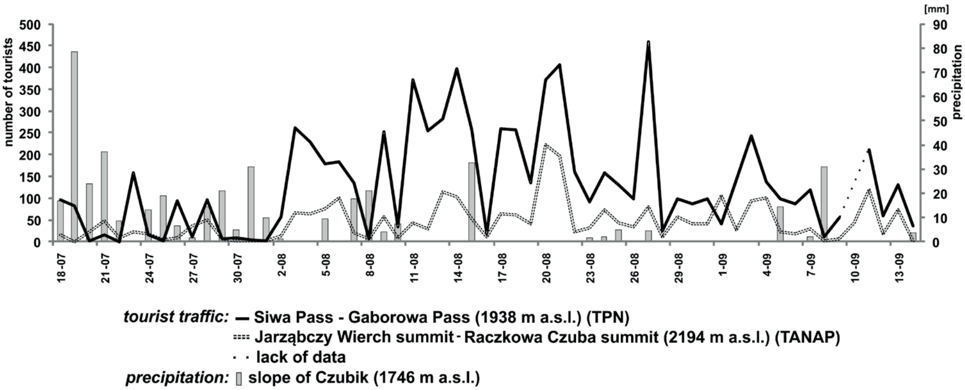

Figure 9. The number of tourists on trails from the Siwa Pass to Siwy Zwornik (TNP) and from Jarząbczy Wierch to Raczkowa Czuba (TANAP) from July 18 to September 14, 2011 and the precipitation at the Czubik summit

Source: Author's work.

Discussion

The automatic counters are very useful devices as they help to determine the distribution of tourist traffic in high mountain areas. The sensors on the tourist counters installed in high mountain areas require frequent and thorough checking. The sensors must be checked regularly because they are sensitive to disturbance.

It is possible to protect sensors in the forest belt in tree roots and trees or wooden stakes, as in the Babiogórski National Park [Buchwał, Fidelus 2010, pp. 48–49]. However, above the timberline it is harder to provide proper protection of the counters and therefore the sensors are more likely to become dislocated.

In the subalpine and alpine belts, the most proper protection of sensors is within rocks. However, the sensors should be located at least one meter above the footpath surface and at a distance of not more than one meter from the footpath. These specifications are determined by the four-meter measurement range of the devices. It is also not recommended to place the sensors within tall grasslands and shrubs because they may cause additional measurement errors during windy days. Exposing the sensors to intense direct sunlight can also cause errors.

Tourist counters are used in different protected areas in the world. For example, they are used in the Daisetsuzan National Park in Japan [Shoji et al. 2008, pp. 286–295] and in the Swiss National Park [Rupf-Haller et al. 2006, pp. 72–77]. However, research in these areas is conducted in specific tourist trails characterized by specific natural conditions over specific periods of time. Therefore, it is difficult to directly compare this data with data from other high mountain areas. When comparing data from distinct areas, it is more accurate to compare annual, or even longer-term, data. Detailed comparisons require more specific and aligned studies.

Significant differences in tourist traffic between the TNP and TANAP may be due to the much larger area of the Tatra Mountains on the Slovakian side and also the smaller total population of Slovakia. The larger area of the Slovakian Tatras causes a smaller concentration of tourist traffic, which in turn may be the cause of the large asymmetry between the studied tourist trails.

There is also a significant disproportion in tourist traffic between the forest belt (especially in the valleys) and the alpine belt. Despite the significantly smaller tourist traffic intensity, the high mountain part of the area is more susceptible to human impact due to natural factors.

The annual intensity of tourist traffic in the entire Tatra Mountains is very large compared to other mountain areas. The average annual number of tourists in the TNP is about 2.5 million. In the alpine national parks, the average number of tourists is 700,000 people per year [Pociask-Karteczka et al. 2007, pp. 271–279].

The mountain areas in Switzerland cover an area of 29,000 km^2, and the average annual number of tourists is 222 persons per km^2. The mountain areas in France cover 60,000 km^2 and the average annual number of tourists is 916 persons per km^2. In Poland, the mountain areas are 9,380 km^2 and the number of tourists is much larger at 3,955 persons per km^2. In turn, the area of the Polish Tatra Mountains is 211 km^2, and the average annual number of tourists is 12,038 persons per km^2 [Czochański, Szydarowski 2000, pp. 207–228]. These comparisons show that there is a significant number of tourists in the Tatra National Park.

Conclusions

There is a considerable spatial differentiation in tourist traffic in the Western Tatra Mountains and a disproportion between the Polish and Slovakian parts of the national parks. The Polish part of the mountains receives a larger amount of tourist traffic. The largest concentration of tourist traffic above the timberline in the area of study is within the tourist trails from the pass below Wołowiec to the Wołowiec summit and within the footpaths to the Grześ summit.

There is also a significant disproportion in tourist traffic between the forest belt and the alpine belt, with the majority of tourists staying in the valleys. Despite this fact, the high mountain part of the area is more exposed to human impact.

Overall, tourist counters are very useful tools for monitoring tourist traffic in remote, protected areas. However, their installation in high mountain areas, especially above the timberline, requires detailed planning and precise control over sensor location, as well as ongoing verification of sensor placement.

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ZRÓŻNICOWANIE RUCHU TURYSTYCZNEGO W TATRACH ZACHODNICH

Abstrakt

Cel. Celem badań jest porównanie liczby turystów w wybranych odcinkach ścieżek w polskiej (TPN) i słowackiej (TANAP) części Tatr Zachodnich. Celem badań jest również określenie przydatności czujników w badaniach ruchu turystycznego w obszarach górskich.
Metoda. Artykuł prezentuje wyniki pomiarów ruchu turystycznego uzyskanych na podstawie czujników ruchu. Czujniki ruchu instalowane były w sezonach letnich w piętrach subalpejskim i alpejskim w Tatrach Zachodnich, w latach 2009-2011. Badania prowadzono w łatwo dostępnych odcinkach ścieżek zlokalizowanych w części wysokogórskiej Tatr Zachodnich. Ponadto przeprowadzono również badania przekształceń rzeźby w analizowanych odcinkach ścieżek.
Wyniki. Badania wykazały, iż istnieje znaczne zróżnicowanie intensywności ruchu turystycznego pomiędzy polską i słowacką częścią Tatr Zachodnich. W części polskiej badanego obszaru ruch turystyczny jest znacząco większy.
Ograniczenia badań i wnioskowania. Badania dotyczyły pomiaru ruchu turystycznego w najwyższej części Tatr Zachodnich.
Implikacje praktyczne. Czujniki ruchu odgrywają istotne znaczenie w zarządzaniu turystyką pieszą w obszarach chronionych. Czujniki ruchu pozwalają pomierzyć liczbę turystów w trudno dostępnych, wysokogórskich obszarach gdzie trudne są bezpośrednie pomiary rozmieszczenia ruchu turystycznego.
Orginalność. Pomiary ruchu turystycznego z zastosowaniem czujników ruchu to jedne z pierwszych badań w Polsce. Badania pozwoliły na określenie liczby turystów w polskiej i słowackiej części Tatrzańskiego Parku Narodowego. Ważnym aspektem badań jest fakt, iż pomiary odnoszą się do konkretnych odcinków ścieżek w części wysokogórskiej. Wyniki badań będą mogły zostać porównane z pomiarami ruchu turystycznego prowadzonymi w późniejszych okresach czasu.
Rodzaj pracy. Badania empiryczne.

Słowa kluczowe: turystyka, automatyczne czujniki ruchu, góry wysokie, obszary chronione, TANAP, TPN.

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FOREIGN LANGUAGE COMPETENCES AND OUTBOUND TOURIST ACTIVITY OF POLES: CONSIDERATIONS ON RECIPROCAL CONDITIONING AND MUTUAL DEPENDENCY

*Julia Murrmann**

Abstract

Purpose. Analysis of the relationship, reciprocal conditioning, or mutual dependency existing between two variables: outbound tourist activity and competences in foreign languages.
Method. Secondary data analysis of social surveys, government statistics, and reports of government agencies regarding foreign language skills and outbound tourist activity of Poles.
Findings. Although, according to the findings of the research carried out by the Public Opinion Research Center CBOS, there is a correlation between the foreign language competences and the outbound tourist activity of Poles (Phi = 0.346; $p < 0.001$), it is difficult, if not impossible, to unambiguously determine the direction of conditioning between these two variables. It is true that citizens who have mastered a foreign language travel more easily and that frequent tourist stays abroad imply advanced foreign language skills. Thus, there is no basis to conclude that any unidirectional dependency between these two variables exists, even if some researchers mistakenly try to evince it. On the contrary, there is a high probability that these two facts simply coexist, as they both depend to a great extent on the level of education, professional position and material situation, place of residence, and age of the respondents.
Research and conclusions limitations. The presented analysis is only pertinent to Poland.
Practical implications. The findings of the analysis highlight the relationship between traveling and speaking or learning a foreign language and can successfully be used in both glottodidactics and the sociology of tourism.
Originality. Data concerning outbound tourist activity and competences in foreign languages were gathered from heterogeneous sources and were analyzed in detail.
Type of paper. Review article presenting findings and conclusions of a secondary data analysis.

Key words: tourism, language, outbound tourist activity of Poles, linguistic competences of Poles.

* Ph.D., University of Warsaw, Faculty of Modern Languages, Department of Italian Studies [dr, Uniwersytet Warszawski, Wydział Neofilologii, Katedra Italianistyki]; e-mail: juliarozewska@wp.pl.

Introduction

The two following facts are undeniable: people travel abroad and people learn and speak foreign languages. But a relevant question is whether these two social facts are interrelated by any means. If so, in which direction does the conditioning proceed? Is it true that people mastering a foreign language are more eager to undertake outbound tourist activity than those without any linguistic skills? Or do frequent world travelers possess, or develop, greater linguistic competences due to their experiences abroad? Both proposals would be logical and imaginable. First, it is easier to stay abroad if one speaks a foreign language, preferably English or the local language of the target destination, and an inability to communicate could be an obstacle to travel. Second, stays abroad may positively influence the language skills of a tourist as they motivate and even force a tourist to use a foreign language (English or the local language of a visited country) in daily interactions with locals. However, not only is the relationship between these two variables unclear, it is also theoretically possible that there is no dependency between them: they may simply coexist. Hence, the aim of the present paper is to investigate a possible conditioning and, if applicable, its direction, as well as the possible mutual dependency between outbound tourist activity and competences in foreign languages.

It is important to expand our knowledge of this topic for at least two reasons. First, the process of worldwide "touristification" seems to be unstoppable, and it is necessary to monitor the social behavior accompanying, enabling, and resulting from this highly complex phenomenon. Such behavior includes preparation for the journey, interactions during travel, and reasons for the social exclusion of individuals who are not traveling. Linguistic skills may matter and even, hypothetically, be of great importance during each of these stages. Second, all questions concerning language learning and intercultural communication are particularly vital in increasingly heterogeneous societies. This is because the newer conception of a "salad bowl" (or "mosaic") seems to be fully replacing the older concept of a "great melting pot" [Gerstle 2001, p. 51; Hirschman 1983, p. 397], originally born in America and later adopted throughout the world. Many efforts supported by international and national institutions (i.e., the European Union, Council of Europe, or UNESCO) are directed towards the promotion of foreign language learning, which is considered to be essential to harmonious coexistence and collaboration between representatives of different cultures.

In the first part of the paper, i.e., the literature review, contributions of several accredited scholars and researchers (representing research institutions) will be synthesized into a summary of what is and what is not known about the possible conditionings between outbound tourism and language learning. Interestingly, some areas of controversy can be identified in the existing studies. After a short methodological section, including a description of the chosen research method and its limitations, as well as research questions formulated for the needs of the present study, the findings of a secondary analysis will be presented. The results of the research direct attention to the relationship between traveling and the process of foreign language learning and can be applied to both glottodidactics and the sociological analysis of tourism.

Literature Review

People often associate traveling abroad with language learning and vice versa, both in layman's terms and in scientific discourse. Nevertheless, considering what has actually been researched and generally published, and based on reliable studies within this particular topic, there is no proof of such a dependence. According to the knowledge of the author, no target research has been carried out in this field. There are, however, many studies that focus separately on tourist activity and the process and specificity of language learning. Based on these data, it will be possible to search for potential mutual conditionings in some cases.

Outbound tourist activity is one of the indicators of the economic condition of a society and is thus a seasonally monitored and well-researched area in developed countries. Statistics concerning citizens' holidays outside the country, gathered by many surveys conducted by independent institutions, include general statistics, the characteristics of the vacationers (such as age, gender, profession, income, etc.), the directions of the journeys, the length of the stay abroad, the expenses before, during, and after the trip, and the barriers to traveling. In Poland, the main institution responsible for gathering data relevant to living standards, the condition of the economy, and social behaviors is the Central Statistical Office (Główny Urząd Statystyczny, GUS). The institute annually publishes a version of the *Statistical Yearbook of the Republic of Poland* in two languages. In Chapter 13 of the most current edition, the topic of tourism, including data on arrivals to and departures from Poland, the tourist infrastructure, and catering and accommodation establishments, was presented alongside sport and culture [*Statistical Yearbook of the Republic of Poland* 2013, pp. 407–414]. Data concerning the domestic and outbound tourist activity of Poles are also gathered by the Polish Institute of Tourism (http://www.intur.com.pl). Some further information on when, where, why, and how often Polish residents travel can also be found in periodically published reports such as *Social Diagnosis 2011: Objective and Subjective Quality of Life in Poland* [Czapiński, Panek 2011, pp. 118–120] and in reports of the Public Opinion Research Center (CBOS) on tourist activity and linguistic competences. These two areas are generally treated in two separate parts with minimal consideration to their relationship, which will be discussed later in the article [Badora 2014, pp. 1–21; Boguszewski 2012, pp. 1–15; Strzeszewski 2001, pp. 1–13; Strzeszewski 2004, pp. 1–10; Strzeszewski 2006, pp. 1–9; Wciórka 2009, pp. 1–15].

In this context, it should be highlighted that although much has been published on the outbound tourist activity of Poles, the topic of competences in foreign languages has only been mentioned in some reports. Moreover, some of the researchers' findings should be questioned, submitted to discussion, or even subjected to further query.

As far as linguistic skills are concerned, every country monitors the language competences of its own inhabitants, as they are considered an important indicator of human capital. Accordingly, in the previously mentioned publications, data regarding the language skills of Poles are presented in detail [Badora 2014, pp. 1–21; Boguszewski 2012, pp. 1–15; Czapiński, Panek 2011, pp. 42–44; *Statistical Yearbook of the Republic of Poland* 2013, pp. 346–347; Strzeszewski 2001, pp. 1–13; Strzeszewski 2004, pp. 1–10; Strzeszewski 2006, pp. 1–9; Wciórka 2009, pp. 1–15]. Moreover, international data on the topic are available, which enables comparisons between Poles and citizens of other countries [*Special Eurobarometer* 2012; *The Erasmus Impact Study* 2014].

Only a few contributions to the topic of the relationship between traveling and language learning are available. Some linguists have attempted to research the general impact of staying abroad on progress and improvement in language learning. B.F. Freed [1995] focused on language acquisition in a study abroad context and came to the conclusion that there is no automatic procedure of becoming fluent even after a longer stay in the natural milieu of a target language [1995, pp. 123–148]. J. A. Coleman pointed out similar considerations of the rather limited success of learners under the same circumstances (a longer stay abroad without studying the target language) [1997, pp. 1–20]. Some aspects of the relationship between language learning and tourism have been brought up in the context of studies dedicated to international summer language courses [Murrmann 2012, pp. 112–121; Różewska 2008, pp. 131–142].

Research Method and Questions

The methodological procedure chosen for the research was a secondary data analysis, which "is the method of using preexisting data in a different way or to answer a different research question than intended by those who collected the data" [Schutt 2006, p. 411]. The data in question, provided mainly by social science surveys, government statistics, and reports prepared by government agencies, regard the topics of traveling abroad and foreign language skills in Poland separately. The adopted research method was pioneered by French sociologist E. Durkheim [2006] in his famous study of suicide rates in Catholic and Protestant populations. Hopefully, it has been applied in this paper without any erroneous conclusions or inadequate evaluations. As many previous studies have evidenced, working with data from preexisting reports can be seriously limiting. This is because the researcher only has access to certain sets of measurements [Babbie 2005, p. 370] and they may not be completely valid [Babbie 2013, p. 153]. A newly designed target study would undoubtedly be more appropriate and useful for the purpose of the present research. However, the conception and design of such a study and the acquisition of pertinent data would be problematic and difficult to complete. This might be the reason why, as was previously mentioned, no research has been carried out in this field until now. Aware of the existing limitations and risks, the author poses three central research questions:

1) Do language competences, or the lack thereof, influence outbound tourist activity positively or negatively?
2) Is traveling abroad among the factors that positively influence the process of language learning, and is it among the possible usages of foreign language skills?
3) Are there any indices or data available for drawing a correlation between traveling abroad and speaking (or learning) a foreign language?

The Impact of Mastering a Foreign Language on Traveling Abroad

In the Public Opinion Research Center's (CBOS) periodic reports on tourist activity and linguistic competences, we can find the main characteristics of the Polish people who are traveling abroad. The CBOS data confirm that the knowledge of foreign languages is useful, yet not indispensable, to traveling abroad. In 2001, 47% of outbound tourists did not possess any language skills [Strzeszewski 2001, p. 3]. These results, fully presented in Table 1, were similar to the data recorded during the subsequent survey periods: in 2004 – 45% [Strzeszewski 2004, p. 2]; in 2006 – 43% [Strzeszewski 2006, p. 5]; in 2009 – 42% [Wciórka 2009, p. 11]; and in 2012 – 53% [Boguszewski 2012, p. 11]. In other words, a lack of linguistic competences is not a definite reason for not traveling abroad. Interestingly, although the differences from year to year were not great, a slow upward trend can even be seen, which suggests that it is becoming easier to travel without language skills.

Table 1. Percentage of respondents with or without foreign language competences and travel outside of Poland

Years: 2001/2004/2006/2009/2012	**(Tourist) stays abroad**	
Foreign language competences	**Yes**	**No**
Yes	53/55/57/58/85	24/27/27/24/15
No	47/45/43/42/53	76/73/73/76/47

Source: Author's work based on data provided in seasonal CBOS reports. Strzeszewski 2001, p. 3; Strzeszewski 2004, p. 2; Strzeszewski 2006, p. 5; Wciórka 2009, p. 11; Boguszewski 2012, p. 11.

The fact that a lack of linguistic competences does not represent an important reason for not traveling abroad may also be confirmed by another fact: respondents did not mention a lack of language competences as a reason for not traveling abroad. Instead, the following reasons were cited for not traveling: financial problems (45%), advanced age or health issues (13%), and family or domestic obligations (10%) [Badora 2014, p. 14]. Surveys of the Polish Institute of Tourism documented the same outcomes [http://www.intur.com.pl/inne/ podr_polakow3kw 12.pdf].

The Impact of Traveling Abroad on the Process of Language Learning

Around half of Poles admit to not speaking any foreign language [Boguszewski 2012, p. 11; Czapiński, Panek 2011, p. 42; *Special Eurobarometer* 2012, p. 15]. Compared to other countries, language skills in Poland are a little less advanced: 54% of the citizens of 27 European Union countries participating in the survey claim to be conversant in at least one other language in addition to their mother tongue. In contrast, almost all respondents in Luxemburg (98%) and the Netherlands (94%) are able to hold a conversation in at least one additional language [*Special Eurobarometer* 2012, p. 15].

As far as the use of languages is concerned, foreign languages are most commonly used on holidays abroad: 50% of the citizens of 27 EU countries said so in the survey. Interestingly, the result for the Polish respondents was much lower: 32% of Poles declared using foreign languages on holidays abroad [*Special Eurobarometer* 2012, p. 52].

As for language learning motivations, three-fifths of Europeans (61%) think that a key advantage of learning a new language is that it aids in working in another country. A slightly smaller proportion cited using other languages on holidays abroad (47%). The outcomes for Poland were similar concerning the first motivation (62%) and significantly higher (60%) for the motivation of using a language while on holiday [*Special Eurobarometer* 2012, p. 65], which is striking considering the lower percentage of the use of foreign languages during outbound tourist activity, as mentioned above.

The most common method used by Europeans to learn a foreign language is through lessons at school. This was mentioned by just over two-thirds of Europeans (68%; 76% of Poles). Other methods are much less widely adopted [*Special Eurobarometer* 2012, p. 100]. When seeking a connection between learning and traveling, we can mention two ways of learning, which are, however, less often used: long or frequent visits to a country where the language is spoken (15% of Europeans, 11% of Poles) and language courses in a country where the language is spoken (7% of Europeans, 4% of Poles) [*Special Eurobarometer* 2012, p. 103]. Moreover, the survey also included a question regarding circumstances that could significantly enable or support language learning. Polish respondents indicated “if the lessons were free" (40%), and less frequently indicated "if you had the opportunity to learn a language in a country where the language is spoken" (9%), and "if there was a prospect of traveling abroad at a later stage" (13%) among the best facilitators for language learning. These results do not show any special ties between foreign language learning and traveling [*Special Eurobarometer* 2012, p. 89].

In the 2009 report of the Public Opinion Research Center (CBOS) on tourist activity and linguistic competences, it is stated that language skills are fueled by traveling abroad. B. Wciórka [2009, p. 11] pointed out that "people who went abroad can communicate in a foreign language more than twice as often (58%) as those who never left Poland (24%)." Nevertheless, based on the same report, we must remember that 42% of Poles went abroad and did not possess any language skills (compare Table 1).

If we include the participants of the Erasmus Mobility and Intensive Program as outbound tourists (considering a period of stay shorter than one year and a non-economic purpose of the stay abroad), we can also use data from a study on the effects of mobility on the skills of students. In a recently published European Commission report, *The Erasmus Impact Study* (EIS) [2014], it is claimed that one of the top motivations for studying or training abroad is the opportunity to improve foreign language skills: "Over 90% of the mobile students wished to experience living abroad, to develop skills such as adaptability, and to improve their language abilities" [EIS 2014, p. 16]. An improvement in speaking proficiency is also listed among major perceived effects of the mobility and skills acquired during a stay abroad: "More than 90% of the students reported an improvement in their soft skills, such as knowledge of other countries, their ability to interact and work with individuals from different cultures, adaptability, foreign language proficiency and communication skills" [EIS 2014, p. 17]. Nevertheless, it must be stressed that linguistic competences are one of the indispensable entry requirements for applying for a scholarship for admission to a higher education institution because "language preparation is a crucial element to ensure success in mobility outcomes" [*Erasmus Charter for Higher Education 2014–2020* 2013, p. 8]. The partner institutions can individually agree on the proficiency level required in the language of instruction and, if different, the local language at the start of the mobility, but the hosted students are generally expected to meet level B2 on the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* [2001].

The Premises for Drawing a Correlation Between Traveling Abroad and Speaking a Foreign Language

It is worth noting that both language skills and outbound tourist activity depend to a great extent on the level of education, professional position, material situation, place of residence, and age of the respondents.

Of course, the higher the level of education and professional position, the younger the residents, and the bigger their incomes and hometown are, the more foreign language competences and travels outside of Poland they are likely to have had. Hence, these two variables are influenced by the same set of socio-demographic factors. After performing a detailed analysis on the tourist activity and foreign language competences of Poles, R. Boguszewski [2012, p. 11] stated that considering the fact that these variables condition both the declarations about tourist activity and linguistic competences, it shouldn't be surprising that there is a significant correlation between trips abroad and language skills (Phi=0.346; p<0.001). According to the findings of R. Boguszewski [2012, p. 11], the respondents who speak at least one foreign language travel abroad significantly more often than those who do not possess these skills (85% against 53%; compare Table 1). This is certainly a legitimate conclusion, but it must be underlined that it is difficult, if not impossible, to univocally determine its direction and to establish a clear cause-effect relationship. This also holds true when it comes to the findings of a previous report [2009] drawn up by the same institution, the Public Opinion Research Center (CBOS).

Discussion

Based on the results of the secondary data analysis carried out above, and in line with the findings of Freed [1995] and Coleman [1997], it cannot be argued that any stay abroad, either for tourist, educational, or long-term living purposes, contributes automatically to language proficiency. Undoubtedly, long stays abroad or frequent foreign departures are certainly useful in developing foreign language skills, but they do not guarantee any success. As far as tourist activity is concerned, the situation becomes even more complicated and more factors need to be taken into consideration: the length of the stay, the convergence of the language of communication spoken by a tourist and the locals, travel companions (and their language skills), and, last but not least, the character of the travel. For instance, according to the first sociological typology of tourist experiences, where tourist roles are categorized on a continuum based on combinations of novelty and familiarity typical to each role, backpackers, hitch-hikers, lifestyle travelers, or so called "do-it-yourself tourists" are all generally considered to be *explorers* or *drifters* [Cohen 1972]. These travelers are more likely to use a foreign language during their travels than *individual* or *organized mass tourists*. The latter travel rather with their guided groups in an "environmental bubble," to use D. Boorstin's [1964] term, and are not necessarily interested (or at least not determined enough in their interest) in having an in-depth relationship with the "strangeness" of the host environment [Urry 1990, p. 7]. Generally, it can be assumed that most outbound tourists that use travel agencies for purchasing packaged services (according to the Institute of Tourism, this included around 20% of Polish tourists in 2011, and this tendency is gaining in strength) will be less likely to be fully immersed in the local culture and, consequently, in the language of another country. Therefore, when investigating the impact of traveling abroad on foreign language competences, much depends on the character of the journey. Certainly, a special type of tourism, namely the international language courses commonly referred to as "language tourism," positively influences skills in a target language. However, the language tourists, barely 2% of all travelers in Poland, are already language-oriented and possess advanced linguistic competences. It is unusual to encounter a total beginner among these tourists [Murrmann 2012].

Fluency in a foreign language is certainly an important facilitator in traveling abroad, but, according to the gathered data, a lack of language skills is not a true barrier to traveling. This is particularly true if we consider organized package tours. During these tours, tourists are not necessarily encouraged to communicate with locals. However, it must be stated that the perception of the usefulness of foreign languages during foreign departures is present and valued even more highly than the actual effective use of foreign languages while traveling. This statement can be formulated based on how useful Polish respondents say they find language skills to be for traveling (60%) and how they really use their language competences while abroad (32%).

A high level of education, a high position on the occupational ladder, a good economic situation, a large hometown, and a young age are the socio-demographic factors which mostly influence outbound tourist activity. The same education-, occupation-, income- and age-based factors determine foreign language competences to the largest extent. Thus, there is a very high probability that there is no unidirectional dependency between the variables in question, but rather coexisting and bidirectional, or, in other terms, reciprocal, conditioning.

Conclusions

Although, according to the research of the Public Opinion Research Center (CBOS), there is a correlation between foreign language competences and the outbound tourist activity of Poles (Phi = 0.346; $p < 0.001$), it is difficult, if not impossible, to unambiguously determine the direction of the conditioning between these two variables. It is true, as common sense suggests, that citizens who master a foreign language travel more easily, enjoyably, and probably feel safer and more relaxed during their travels. In addition, frequent tourist stays abroad imply advanced foreign language skills according to the rule of "learning by doing". Thus, there is no basis to conclude that any unidirectional dependency between these two variables exists, even if some researchers try to insinuate it in an unauthorized way.

On the contrary, there is a high probability that these two social facts simply coexist, as they both depend to a great extent on the level of education, professional position, material situation, place of residence, and age of the respondents. It would be, however, interesting to investigate whether the findings of this study are also pertinent to other countries with a different linguistic situation, for instance America, Australia, or Great Britain, where the official language (different varieties of English) is commonly deemed to be an international code of communication and a contemporary *lingua franca*. In contrast, the situation in countries with less widely-used languages, or "niche-languages," such as Swedish, Danish, or Hungarian, may be extremely different. Undoubtedly, further long-term target research would be appreciated.

The findings of the conducted analysis direct attention to the relationship between traveling and speaking or learning a foreign language and can successfully be used in both glottodidactics and the sociology of tourism.

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ZNAJOMOŚĆ JĘZYKÓW OBCYCH A WYJAZDY ZAGRANICZNE POLAKÓW. ROZWAŻANIA NA TEMAT WZAJEMNEGO WARUNKOWANIA I KIERUNKU ZALEŻNOŚCI

Abstrakt

Cel. Analiza związku pomiędzy dwoma zmiennymi niezależnymi: wyjazdami zagranicznymi Polaków oraz znajomością języków obcych Polaków.
Metoda. Wtórna analiza danych pochodzących z badań społecznych, statystyk rządowych oraz raportów przygotowanych przez agencje rządowe i dotyczących podróży zagranicznych oraz znajomości języków obcych w Polsce.
Wyniki. Mimo iż na podstawie wyników badań przeprowadzonych przez CBOS można wykazać istnienie korelacji pomiędzy posiadaniem kompetencji językowych a uprawianiem turystyki zagranicznej (Phi = 0,346; p < 0,001), trudnym jest, jeśli nie wręcz niemożliwym, jednoznacznie określić, na podstawie dostępnych wyników badań, kierunek zależności pomiędzy tymi dwoma zmiennymi. Zarówno fakt posiadania wysokich kompetencji lingwistycznych ułatwia podróże zagraniczne, jak i częste pobyty turystyczne za granicą sprzyjają rozwijaniu znajomości języków obcych przez Polaków. Nie można wyciągnąć wniosku, iż występuje jednokierunkowa zależność, której doszukują się w nieuprawniony sposób niektórzy badacze. Co więcej, najprawdopodobniej jest tak, iż te dwa fakty społeczne po prostu współistnieją, jako że są uwarunkowane tymi samymi cechami społeczno-demograficznymi, takimi jak: poziom wykształcenia, pozycja zawodowa, sytuacja materialna, miejsce zamieszkanie oraz wiek.
Ograniczenia badań i wnioskowania. Wykorzystane dane dotyczą rzeczywiści polskiej.
Implikacje praktyczne. Wyniki badań, zwracające uwagę na relacje pomiędzy turystyką zagraniczną a nauką języków obcych, mogą być przydatne zarówno w glottodydaktyce jak i socjologii turystyki.
Oryginalność. Poddane analizie wtórnej dane dotyczące aktywności turystycznej Polaków oraz znajomości języków obcych przez Polaków pochodzą z wielu heterogenicznych źródeł i zostały szczegółowo omówione.
Rodzaj pracy. Artykuł prezentujący wyniki wtórnej analizy danych.

Słowa kluczowe: turystyka, język, zagraniczne wyjazdy Polaków, kompetencje lingwistyczne Polaków.

INFORMATION AND INSTRUCTIONS FOR AUTHORS

General Information for Authors Preparing Academic Articles

1. The Editorial Office accepts for publication only original empirical and review papers that address tourism from interdisciplinary points of view, such as theory of tourism, cultural anthropology, philosophy, sociology, geography, law, psychology, history, economics, management, and marketing.
2. Submitting a paper for publication is construed as transferring the copyright to the Editorial Office. This means that neither the paper nor a part of it can be published in other journals or digital media without the Editorial Office's written permission.
3. The article should be prepared according to the "**Instructions for authors preparing academic articles",** found below. Otherwise, the article will be sent back to the Author(s) for correction.
4. Do not provide personal data or any other information that could enable identifying the Author(s). Instead, provide personal data in a separate **Author Form**, available on the Journal's website, and submit it together with the article.
5. The paper, together with a filled Author Form, should be submitted to the Editorial Office's e-mail address: **folia.turistica@awf.krakow.pl**.
6. The Editorial Office will not accept papers that show signs of scientific dishonesty, such as *ghostwriting* and *honorary (guest) authorship,* for publication. The Editorial Office will disclose any recognized cases of dishonesty; this includes informing institutions employing authors, scientific associations, etc.
7. All papers are reviewed by at least two independent reviewers (the review form is available on the Journal's website) and maintaining full anonymity. In other words, a double-blind review process will be implemented; otherwise, the reviewers are obliged to sign a declaration that there exists no conflict of interests between them and the authors of the paper. The Editorial Board will accept the paper for publication or reject it based on the reviewers' opinion. This procedure is in accordance with guidelines provided by the Ministry of Science and Higher Education.
8. The Editorial Office reserves the right to modify the style makeup of submitted papers.
9. The author of the paper will receive an electronic version of the Journal issue in which the article was published, free of charge.

Instruction for Authors Preparing Academic Articles

I. Preparing Text

1. The volume of submitted papers should not exceed 20 pages of normalized manuscript, i.e., 40,000 characters (one author's sheet).
2. Text files should be created in the Word 6.0–XP editor in DOC format.
3. Page setup:
   - paper size: A4;
   - margins: all margins 2.5 cm;
   - line spacing: 1.5.
4. Title: use 14-point Times New Roman font, bold. Capitalize the entire title. Insert a 14-point line of space following the title.
5. Abstract in English: between 1500 and 2000 characters (including spaces); use 10-point Times New Roman font.
6. The abstract should comprise the following, clearly separated (presented in the form of a list) parts:
   - Puropse.
   - Method.
   - Findings.
   - Research and conclusions limitations: comment on the representativeness of your research and its potential limitations due to cultural, environmental, geographical, or other conditions.
   - Practical implications.
   - Originality: describe how your research (results and opinions) differs from other publications on the subject.
   - Type of paper: specify whether your article presents empirical research or theoretical concepts or whether it is a review, a case study, etc.
7. Key words: 3-6. Insert a 12-point line of space following the key words.
8. The paper should include elements listed below. Titles of elements may be changed if justified by content. Furthermore, especially in the case of review articles, the paper may have a more complex structure, i.e., it may comprise more elements or have a given element subdivided further (such as the Literature Review section).
   A. For empirical papers:
      - Introduction (subject of research, aim of the article, and justification of the aim),
      - Literature review (a review of publications presenting the aim of the article and describing current knowledge on the subject matter),
      - Method (aim of empirical research, research hypotheses and questions, and a description of methodology and how the research was conducted)
      - Results (research results, including the answers to the research hypotheses and questions),
      - Discussion (a discussion of the study results in view of results obtained by other authors in publications on the subject matter),
      - Conclusions (conclusions from the study results and their discussion, including practical implications and suggested directions for further research on the subject),
      - References.

B. For review papers:
   - Introduction (subject of research, aim of the article, and justification of the aim),
   - Literature review (a review of publications related to the aim of the article describing current knowledge on the subject matter),
   - Discussion (a discussion of current knowledge on the subject matter, including critical analysis based on publications),
   - Conclusions (conclusions from the discussion, including its practical implications and suggested directions for further research on the subject),
   - References.

9. Headings of each part of the paper: use 12-point Times New Roman font, bold, centered. Number the parts with Arabic numerals. Insert a 12-point line of space following each heading.
10. Running text: use 12-point Times New Roman font and 1.5 line spacing. First line indent: 1 cm. Use tools available in the editor to format the text rather than the space bar, as using space bar makes markup and typesetting difficult.
11. Do not use the bold face, capitals, and underlining in the text. Italics should only be used for titles listed in the footnotes and the References section and for letter symbols in the running text. Insert a space after punctuation marks, not before them.
12. Use an en dash (–) to indicate breaks in a sentence and between numbers that denote close values not provided precisely (such as time periods); do not use a hyphen (-) or an em dash (—). Examples of use:
    - “Secondly – as tradition dictates – every student should wear formal attire tomorrow”.
    - “The years 1914–1918, or the times of World War I, is an extremely important period in the history of Europe”.
    - “Relevant information can found on pages 12–24 of the aforementioned publication”.
    - Most waters in the area of Wysowa belong to the sodium-bicarbonate type and have a high concentration of carbon dioxide.
13. Footnotes can be used (sparingly) to complement the running text: use 10-point Times New Roman font with 1.0 line spacing.
14. References in the running text should be formatted according to the Harvard System (i.e., provide the last name of the author of the quoted or referenced publication, the year of publication, and the page or pages you refer to in square brackets within the running text). Do not place a comma between the name and the year. If two or more publications are referenced in the same parentheses, separate them with a semicolon.
15. The References section, located at the end of the article, should only include texts that are quoted or referred to in the article. References should be given in an alphabetical order with full bibliographic descriptions. Guidelines for and examples of bibliographic descriptions can be found in Part III of these instructions.

II. Preparing Tables and Illustrations

1. Tables and illustrations (figures, charts, and photographs) should be included in separate files and described in detail. Mark their locations in the running text through centered titles, as in the example below:

Table 1. Tourist activity inhibitors

2. The entire article should use the division into tables and figures (i.e., everything that is not a table, e.g. charts, diagrams, or photographs, is considered a figure). Refer to figures in the abbreviated form ("Fig.").
3. Place titles of tables above tables, and titles of figures below figures.
4. Write the titles of tables and figures in 10-point Times New Roman font.
5. Under each table/figure provide its source (using 10-point Times New Roman font).
6. Figures should be scanned at a resolution no lower than 300 DPI (optimal resolution is 600 DPI) and saved as line art files in TIFF format.
7. Charts should be created in black. Gray tints or textures are allowed.
8. Digital photographs should be saved in TIFF or JPEG format at full resolution. Do not use compression.
9. If the article includes figures, tables, etc. taken from other academic papers, the author is obliged to obtain a reprinting permission. The permission should be sent to the Editorial Office together with the article and other attachments.

III. Preparing the References Section

1. The References section, located at the end of the article, should only include texts that are quoted or referred to in the article. References should be given in an alphabetical order with full bibliographic descriptions.
2. References to papers of different types should be prepared to according to the guidelines below. Note that all references should be provided in a single list (the division into types, found below, is meant only to provide examples of referencing different sources).
3. For two or more papers written by the same author and published in the same year, add subsequent lowercase letters to the year, as in: (2014a), (2014b), etc.
4. List Internet sources (webpages) for which the appropriate elements of a full bibliographic description cannot be provided in a separate Internet Sources section. The list should provide URL addresses of the referenced webpages in alphabetical order, described as in the following sample:
   http://www.unwto.org/facts/eng/vision.htm (08.09.2014).
5. For articles to be published in the English issues of the Journal, provide English translations of the titles of non-English publications (in square brackets), as in the following sample:
   Winiarski, R., Zdebski, J. (2008), *Psychologia turystyki* [*Psychology of Tourism*], Wydawnictwa Akademickie i Profesjonalne, Warszawa.

Sample References to Different Types of Papers in the References Section

A. Books:

Urry J. (2001), *The tourist gaze*, Sage, London.

McIntosh R.W., Goeldner Ch.R. (1986), *Tourism. Principles, Practices, Philosophies,* John Wiley & Sons, New York.

B. Edited books and joint publications:

Ryan C., ed., (2003), *The Tourist Experience*, Continuum, London.
Alejziak W., Winiarski R., eds. (2005), *Tourism in Scientific Research*, AWF Krakow, WSIZ Rzeszów, Krakow-Rzeszów.

C. Chapters in edited books and joint publications:

Dann G.M.S. (2002), *Theoretical issues for tourism's future development*, [in:] Pearce D.G., Butler R.W., eds., *Contemporary Issues in Tourism Development*, Routledge Advances in Tourism, International Academy for the Study of Tourism, London, New York, pp. 13-30.

D. Articles in scientific journals:

Cohen E. (1979), *A Phenomenology of Tourism Experiences,* [in:] „Sociology", Vol. 13, pp. 179–201.
Szczechowicz B. (2012), *The importance of attributes related to physical activity for the tourism product's utility*, [in:] „Journal of Sport & Tourism", Vol. 18 (3), pp. 225–249.

E. Articles in trade magazines and trade newspapers:

Benefits tourism not OK (2014), [in:] „The Economist", Nov 15th.

F. Papers without a stated authorship, including research reports and statistical yearbooks:

Tourism Trends for Europe (2006), European Travel Commission.
Tourism Highlights. 2010 Edition (2011), UNWTO.

G. Legal acts:

Act on Tourism Services, of 29 August 1997, Dz. U. of 2004, No. 223, item 2268, as amended.

H. Publications available on the Internet:

International tourism on track to end 2014 with record numbers, http://media.unwto.org/press-release/2014-12-18/international-tourism-track-end-2014-record-numbers (20.12.2014).

* * *

General Information for Authors Preparing Academic Reviews and Polemics

1. Only original reviews of Polish and foreign monographs, academic articles, and handbooks, as well as other types of academic and didactic papers, such as research reports, doctoral theses, and habilitation theses, will be accepted for publication.

2. The Journal publishes reviews of papers on the theory of tourism, as well as papers that address tourism from the viewpoint of cultural anthropology, philosophy, sociology, geography, law, psychology, economics, management, marketing, and other academic fields and disciplines.
3. Submitting a paper for publication is construed as transferring the copyright to the Editorial Office. This means that neither the review nor a part of it can be published in other journals or digital media without the Editorial Office's written permission.
4. The article should be prepared according to the "**Instructions for authors preparing academic reviews and polemics",** found below. Otherwise, the article will be sent back to the Author(s) for correction.
5. The review should be submitted to the Editorial Office's e-mail address: folia.turistica@awf.krakow.pl.
6. The Editorial Team reserves the right to modify the style makeup of submitted reviews.
7. The Author of the review will receive an electronic version of the Journal issue in which the review was published, free of charge.

Instruction for Authors Preparing Academic Reviews and Polemics

1. Text files should be created in the Word 6.0–XP editor in DOC format.
2. Page setup:
   - paper size: A4;
   - margins: all margins 2.5 cm;
   - line spacing: 1.5.
3. Name of each Author: use 12-point Times New Roman font, bold. Insert a 12-point line of space following the name(s).
4. Provide each Author's academic degree or title, affiliation (i.e. name of the institution represented by the Author, in this order: university, faculty, department, etc.), phone number, and e-mail in a footnote. Footnote formatting: use 10-point Times New Roman font and 1.0 line spacing.
5. Samples of title formatting:
   1. REVIEW OF "INTERNATIONAL TOURIST ORGANIZATIONS" BY WIESŁAW ALEJZIAK AND TOMASZ MARCINIEC.
   2. AN OPINION ABOUT "POLAND'S MARKETING STRATEGY IN THE TOURISM SECTOR FOR 2012–2020".
   3. RESPONSE TO THE OPINION… etc.
6. Title: use 14-point Times New Roman font, bold. Capitalize the entire title. Below the title, provide a full bibliographic reference for your article, including ISBN and the date of submission to the Editorial Board.
7. Format the titles of responses to reviews or other forms of academic polemics according to the guidelines above (e.g. Response to the Opinion…).
8. Insert a 14-point line of space following the title.
9. Headings of each part of the review (if appropriate): use 12-point Times New Roman font, bold, centered. Number the parts with Arabic numerals. Insert a 12-point line of space following each heading.

10. Running text: use 12-point Times New Roman font and 1.5 line spacing. First line indent: 1 cm. Use tools available in the editor to format the text rather than the space bar, as using space bar makes markup and typesetting difficult.
11. Do not use the bold face, capitals, and underlining in the text. Italics should only be used for titles listed in the footnotes and the References section and for letter symbols in the running text. Insert a space after punctuation marks, not before them.
12. Use an en dash (–) to indicate breaks in a sentence and between numbers that denote close values not provided precisely (such as time periods); do not use a hyphen (-) or an em dash (—). Examples of use:
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    - "The years 1914–1918, or the times of World War I, is an extremely important period in the history of Europe".
    - "Relevant information can found on pages 12–24 of the aforementioned publication".
    - Most waters in the area of Wysowa belong to the sodium-bicarbonate type and have a high concentration of carbon dioxide.
13. Footnotes can be used (sparingly) to complement the running text: use 10-point Times New Roman font with 1.0 line spacing.
14. Illustrative materials (tables and figures) should be formatted according to the same guidelines as academic articles (see **"Instructions for authors preparing academic articles"**).
15. References in the running text should be formatted according to the Harvard System (i.e., provide the last name of the quoted or referenced publication, the year of publication, and the page or pages you refer to in square brackets within the running text. Do not place a comma between the name and the year. If two or more publications are referenced in the same parentheses, separate them with a semicolon.
16. The References section, located at the end of the article, should only include texts that are quoted or referred to in the review. References should be given in an alphabetical order with full bibliographic descriptions, prepared according to the same guidelines as for academic articles (see **"Instructions for authors preparing academic articles"**).

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