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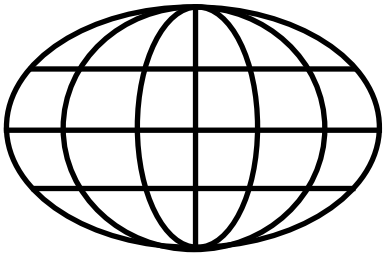

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CONTENTS

REVIEWS, COMMENST, SCIENTIFIC CONTROVERSY, MEMORIES

* * *

FROM THE EDITORS

We bring to you the following, 55th issue of "Folia Turistica" scientific journal, and hope that it will be of interest to a wide range of readers. It consists of a collection of works prepared by authors representing Polish and foreign academic centres, and at the same time – several scientific fields and disciplines. In these works, sometimes completely differing issues were raised, using various approaches and research methods. However, what all these works have in common is the touristic context of the presented reflections.

This issue, which consists of eight articles in its main part, begins with two texts dealing with topics related to broadly understood entrepreneurship (therefore, falling under the scope of economic sciences), but addressing problems relatively rare in literature, and thus – original. The first of these works is by **Marcin Olszewski** and **Marlena Bednarska**, who analyse the importance of gender in the involvement of knowledge transfer between universities and industries. The value of this work can be seen in the fact that although both the issue of gender as a factor determining the roles played by women and men in society and the question of knowledge transfer between "science and business" are strongly present in contemporary scientific discourse, the confrontation of these two issues reveals a very interesting area for research. Answering to the question about differences in the approach of women and men to the commercialisation of knowledge, these authors undertook empirical research conducted in 2018 on a sample of 76 university employees in Poland dealing with tourism research. As a result of using this approach, it turned out that, above all, women are under-represented at Polish universities in the field of tourism education in higher academic positions (i.e. extraordinary and full professors) but, at the same time, they are over-represented among scientists with positions in governing bodies of scientific and industrial organisations, as well as among researchers involved in the transfer of knowledge to industries. These general results of research are discussed by the authors with reference to the literature on the subject and the findings of other researchers.

The second article has been prepared by **Beata Gierczak-Korzeniowska**. Its purpose was to draw attention to the need for tourist enterprises to consider cultural factors in their benchmarking analyses. To justify this thesis, the author – based on a review of literature and examples taken from her own earlier empirical research – tries to reveal key types of cultures and some of their aspects that could significantly reduce or at least hinder the imple-

mentation of comparative analyses by tourism enterprises. Among these key cultural factors, the author distinguishes: national and organisational culture of enterprises as well as the culture and code of conducting benchmarking analyses and – as she convincingly proves in her considerations – all of these factors play important roles in each phase of the benchmarking process (planning, searching, observation, analysis, adaptation). Although the paper is a review in nature, the considerations in it extend the traditional view on the implementation of comparative research in the tourism sector by cultural factors. Thanks to this, the work has cognitive as well as applicative value, which is revealed in the possibility of practically implementing many of the author's interesting insights.

Two more articles refer to the issue of sustainable tourism development, a region's natural and cultural heritage and the role of local residents in the tourism process. **Humberto Thomé-Ortiz** relates to the tradition of collecting and the culinary use of mushrooms (mycological culinary heritage) in central Mexico. On the example of two case studies, thanks to qualitative research including participant observation and semi-structured interviews, the author shows ambivalence in the evaluation of tourism development of the described places. On the one hand, a conflict of interest arises regarding the need to protect tradition, and its potential from the point of view of economic benefits is on the other. The anthropologist's considerations focus on the experiences of selected communities for which mushroom picking and processing are an important aspect of everyday life and intergenerational communication. The commercialisation of tradition by incorporating individual and community experiences in the development strategies of mycological tourism requires respect for the principles of sustainable development in all three of the following areas: economic, environmental and social. This is a dilemma for it is difficult to find an optimal solution, despite the many debates, studies and practical solutions developed since the 1980s.

An interdisciplinary approach, this time with reference to health and sport tourism, is presented in another article. The author – **Gilles Lecocq**, a psychologist, draws on the methodology of qualitative and historical research, bringing closer the region associated with a well-known sporting event – *Tour de France*. The historical context directs reflections onto the relationship between residents and newcomers at various stages regarding tourist development of the area covered by analysis from the 1960s to present day. The factual layer is the background for reflections on the importance of nature for leisure activities, providing possibilities for relaxation, regenerating strength and maintaining well-being, as well as searching for a kind of spirituality and fullfilment, which have their source in the embodied experience of unity with nature. The recollection of the race in 2016, when for the first time the competition ended before Mont Ventoux peak due to un-

favourable weather conditions, reminds us to respect the laws of nature; in this case, it was a mistral – a strong wind, that forced the organisers and participants to change the rules; however, this example serves as a pretext to rethink the relationship between a human being and nature. The phenomenological approach, enriched by the conclusions of interviews, allowed the author to present different points of view on the issue of sustainable tourism development, which is of great importance in the era of climate crisis.

In the fifth article, its author **Krzysztof Kołodziejczyk** undertakes a very interesting comparative analysis, presenting the views of Polish scientists concerning the impact of hiking on the environment (especially mountains) compared to the most important items found in world literature. The author's attention was focused on geomorphological issues related to the effects of migration considered due to type of impact (e.g. soil compaction and erosion, initiation of morphogenetic processes, impaired water circulation, destruction of plant biomass and changes in the world of plants and animals). The author's review of Polish and foreign-language works showed, above all, that the scientific contribution of Polish researchers in the presented field differs in some respects from the achievements of scholars representing the international forum. In particular, Polish researchers devote a lot of attention to technical (reconstruction of tourist routes and their surroundings) and organisational measures (tourism traffic management) to counteract specific negative effects of tourism. Apart from the practical aspects of these applications – related to planning tourist infrastructure and organising the flow of tourists – they lead us to think about which factors (historical, cultural, institutional) are decisive in choosing some and not other directions of development of various fields and scientific disciplines in different civilisation circles. Here, we leave this question unanswered.

The subject of tourism promotion of a place within the context of the current political and economic situation on the example of interwar Poland and contemporary Ukraine is the subject of two subsequent articles. **Oresta Bordun** and **Liubov Althaim** study the role of wooden tourist stamps on the market of tourist services in the Ukraine – innovative souvenirs, which are a key element of a place's brand creation system. The prototype of wooden tourist stamps is associated with the scout movement and school tourism in the Czech Republic, but since 2007, these stamps have appeared as part of the Ukrainian tourist sector. Statistical and comparative research resulted in creating a quantitative set of stamps promoting specific attractions, and the conclusions of the analysis contribute to reflections on tourism semiotics. As the authors write, a wooden tourist stamp can be a tool used to popularise the purpose of trips, and the incentive for their collection may encourage visits. The situation prevailing on the developing tourism market of the Ukraine requires undertaking innovative marketing activities and, according to the authors, one of the solutions already proven and

worth adopting is the wooden tourist stamp, representing the country's most important attractions in categories such as sacred and military monuments, traditional and open-air museums, natural or archaeological objects, and others. Traces of the Czech culture, for instance, constitute a separate category, which reminds us of the history and multi-ethnic heritage of this area.

In his monographic article, **Michał Organ** recalls the 1930s, which were groundbreaking for the development of tourism in the Western Bieszczady Mountains. The author studies the area delineated by the railway lines from Zagórze to Łupków and from Zagórze to Krościenko as well as those by the current borders between Poland and Slovakia and the Ukraine. He focuses on activities initiated by local authorities and other institutions aimed at improving the economic situation, living conditions of local residents and changing the image of the area in question, while attracting visitors from other parts of the reborn country. These initiatives were part of a broader political strategy that was supposed to restore the heritage of the former Eastern Borderlands in nationwide culture. On the basis of such sources of information as guidebooks, maps or documents of organisations that dealt with the preparation of infrastructure (roads, hotels, shelters, tourist routes and trails, etc.), and the dissemination of knowledge about the unique qualities of the south-eastern Second Polish Republic, the author recreates the realities of efforts made to effectively promote this peripheral and hard-to-reach region. The outbreak of World War 2 destroyed these efforts as well as their positive effects, while the complicated situation after 1945 made it difficult to document tourism development in the Western Bieszczady Mountains.

The next article is the result of the cooperative work by a team of 8 researchers: **Anna Wilkońska, Wojciech Maciejowski, Marta Damaszke, Bartłomiej Jerzak, Radosław Łabno, Bartosz Matuszczak, Ewa Palikot, Karolina Pińkowska**, whose members represent four different academic and research centres. The wide composition of this team is fully justified by the originality and specificity of the issue, which is associated with the identification of the current situation in terms of tourist arrivals to Antarctica. This issue was considered by the authors via measuring the size and assessing the structure of inbound tourist traffic recorded at the Polish Antarctic Station named after Henryk Arctowski (King George Island, South Shetland Islands). These measurements and assessments were, in turn, carried out on the basis of two data sources. The first regarded data from a ten-year period (from the 2008/2009 to the 2017/2018 tourist season) on the volume of tourist traffic measured at the Station, and the second – data collected as part of direct interviews conducted among individuals who came to the Station during the tourist season in 2013- 2016 and at the turn of 2017/2018 (N=415). By implementing this approach, it was found that tourists' interest in arriving to Antarctica remains relatively

stable, while the profile of tourists visiting Antarctica is as follows: people mainly from Europe and North America, seniors with higher education, professionally active or retired, well-off and usually travelling alone. Although this profile is not surprising, it should be noted that monitoring the volume and structure of incoming tourist traffic to Antarctica, according to measurements at the Station, has only been conducted for a short period time and no data related to this issue have yet been published.

In addition to the presented articles, this volume also contains a report from the **117th Annual Meeting of American Anthropological Association in San Jose (Nov. 2018)**, written by the participant of this event: **Sabina Owsianowska**. She briefly presents the activity of ATIG (Anthropology of Tourism Interest Group), thanks to which a panel was organised gathering people associated with the book published in 2018 entitled "Anthropology of Tourism in Central and Eastern Europe. Bridging Worlds" (Rowman & Littlefield, eds. S. Owsianowska, M. Banaszkiewicz).

Hoping that this diverse thematic and methodological collection of articles will be found interesting, we encourage you to send your own texts – both in the form of scientific articles and reviews of new publications, or polemics with the authors of works published in "Folia ...".

Sabina Owsianowska, Bartosz Szczechowicz

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THE GENDER GAP IN UNIVERSITY-TO-INDUSTRY KNOWLEDGE TRANSFER ENGAGEMENT: A CASE STUDY OF TOURISM ACADEMIA IN POLAND*

*Marcin Olszewski***, Marlena A. Bednarska****

Abstract

Purpose. The purpose of the paper is twofold: to identify the gender gap in tourism academia in Poland and to explore gender-related differences in knowledge commercialisation activities among tourism academics.
Method. The results are based on an empirical study conducted in 2018 among 76 scientists involved in tourism research. The data analysis involved descriptive statistics and non-parametric tests.
Findings. Research revealed that women are under-represented in senior tourism academia positions in Poland and that there is imbalance in entrepreneurial self-confidence to the disadvantage of women. But contrary to hypotheses, women in Polish tourism academia turned out to be over-represented among scientists sitting in governing bodies of scientific and industrial organisations as well as among scientists involved in knowledge transfer activities to industry.
Research and conclusions limitations. The sample size is relatively small, therefore, generalisation of the findings beyond the specific context of this research is restricted.
Practical implications. The study emphasizes the importance of developing practices that promote academic gender equity, in particular, those that remove systemic barriers which restrain women's capacity to reach senior academic positions.
Originality. The paper addresses the knowledge gap in tourism studies pertaining to gender disparities in academia, which remains an under-researched phenomenon and requires further investigation.
Type of paper. Research article.

Keywords: gender gap, university-to-industry knowledge transfer, tourism, academia.

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Introduction

Engagement in knowledge transfer activities varies amongst scientists. According to P. D'Este and P. Patel [2007], individual characteristics of academic researchers are stronger predictors of variety and frequency of interactions with industry than the characteristics of their departments or universities. However, it is still debatable which traits affect participation in knowledge transfer from tourism scholars to industry.

As recognised by the World Tourism Organization and the United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women [2011], in many countries, women make up the majority of the tourism workforce, but they are predominantly employed at low-status and low-paid jobs [Baum 2013], and only a few of them are able to break the "glass ceiling" [Santero-Sanchez, Segovia-Pérez, Castro-Nuñez, Figueroa-Domecq, Talón-Ballestero 2015]. Empirical evidence appears to support the view that gender disparities also apply to tourism scientists [Munar et al. 2015], but there are limited studies exploring gender-related differences in knowledge commercialisation activities in tourism academia. This study aims to address that gap.

Gender inequalities have been mapped in different spheres of scientific activity, including teaching evaluation [MacNeill, Driscoll, Hunt 2014], scholarly output [Elsevier 2017], citation rates [Knobloch-Westerwick, Glynn, Huge 2013], research grants [Watson, Hjorth 2015], collaboration patterns [Elsevier 2017] and advancement opportunities [Baker 2010]. F. Murray and L. Graham [2007] found that female scientists were substantially less likely to undertake entrepreneurial activity. According to their study, female academics tend to have a lower share in industry publications, industry collaborations and patents compared to male scientists. On the other hand, in the research conducted by P. van Arensbergen, I. van der Weijden and P. van den Besselaar [2012], it is suggested that gendered performance differences in academia are disappearing.

This study focuses on academics scientifically involved in tourism research. In this paper, we investigate whether gender differences are reflected in researchers' engagement in knowledge transfer to the industry. The objectives of this study are twofold:

1) to identify the gender gap in tourism academia in Poland and,
2) to explore gender-related differences in knowledge commercialisation activities among tourism academics.

The remainder of this paper is organised as follows: Section 1 is devoted to the review of the existing body of knowledge on the gender gap in tourism academia and effects of gender on university researchers' engagement in industry, which leads us to the development of the hypotheses tested in this paper. In Section 2, variables used in the study and methodology of data collection and analysis are described. In Section 3, we may find a report and

discussion on the results of our empirical analysis. Finally, the main conclusions reached are summarised and recommendations for future research are proposed.

Literature review

The gender gap in tourism academia

Despite the growing popularity of gender studies, gender-related disparities in tourism still remain marginal and require further investigation. C. Figueroa-Domecq, A. Pritchard, M. Segovia-Pérez, N. Morgan and T. Villacé-Molinero [2015], based on a bibliometric analysis of 466 papers from a nearly 30-year timeframe, categorised the most popular topics of tourism gender research into 4 main classes. They found that 46% of papers dealt with gendered tourists (e.g. consumer behaviour and product typologies); 26% of papers focused on gendered hosts (e.g. development and sustainability, entrepreneurship, residents, sex tourism); 13% of papers explored gendered labour (e.g. wage discrimination, occupational segregation, managerial style and sexual harassment); and 10% of the papers were devoted to theory-building and research structures (e.g. education and academic leadership). A particularly striking conclusion emerging from this analysis is scant enquiry into the gender gap in tourism academia.

Within the tourism context, researchers found gender inequalities in various domains of academic activity. According to the report "The gender gap in the tourism academy" [Munar et al. 2015], women are under-represented in many leadership and gatekeeping positions. The authors found that men held 79% of top editorial positions at the top 20 tourism journals. Similar conclusions were drawn by C. Aitchison [2001], who analysed editorial boards of leading tourism journals. A. Pritchard and N. Morgan [2007; 2017] also found gender imbalance in terms of editorial board composition of top indexed tourism journals. Nonetheless, a comparison of results from studies conducted in 2007 and 2017 revealed that of the 6 journals for which data were comparable, 4 have increased female representation. In a recent study carried by T. Walters [2018], through a critical examination of 53 academic conferences around the globe, it was shown that women were well-represented as conference chairs, but there was unequal gender representation in prestigious roles of keynote and invited speakers. According to a study conducted by J. Basurto-Barcia and C. Ricaurte-Quijano [2017], female scientists made 52% of the presentations at tourism conferences, while only 28% of the keynote speeches were delivered by women, and none of the conference chairs were occupied by females. H. Xu, K. Wang and T. Ye [2017] reported that gender gaps in tourism academia are mainly expressed

by a slower pace of female scholars' career advancement. Furthermore, C. Aitchison [2001] found disproportions in scholarly output, demonstrating that the ratio of male to female authors of articles in leisure and tourism journals between 1982 and 1997 was 4 to 1.

On the other hand, as recognised by J. Basurto-Barcia and C. Ricaurte-Quijano [2017, p. 567], "there is a societal perception that tourism is a female profession". They found that there was a higher number of female than male academics in teaching (53%) and research (67%). Still, many scientists highlight that although women tend to outnumber men among students, their dominance decreases with every step up the academic ladder. This strong vertical segmentation is manifested in the proportion of female graduates at the first level of academic education (59%) compared to female Ph.D. graduates (47%) and female full professors (21%) [European Commission 2016]. In European Union (EU-28), in 2013, the proportion of women among full professors was diversified – the highest being in humanities and social sciences (30% and 24% respectively), and the lowest present in engineering and technology (10%). Analysis of tourism professors in the UK showed that only 13% of them were female [Figueroa-Domecq et al. 2015]. Taking the above arguments into account, we developed our first hypothesis.

Hypothesis 1. There is a gender gap in tourism academia in terms of academic, scientific and leadership positions. More specifically, we hypothesise that:

1.1. women are under-represented in high academic positions (associate and full professors),
1.2. women are under-represented among researchers who have successfully applied for public grants,
1.3. women are under-represented in governing bodies of scientific and industrial organisations.

The gender gap in academics' engagement with the tourism industry

F. Murray and L. Graham [2007, p. 659] argue that in the recent past, "as men parlayed their research into commercial networks, patents, start-up companies and, occasionally, millions, female faculty did not". According to E. Giuliani, A. Morrison, C. Pietrobelli and R. Rabellotti [2010], male academics are significantly more likely to cooperate with industries. P.C. Boardman and B.L. Ponomariov [2009, p. 151] found that "…male scientists are more likely to have served as formal paid consultants and to have worked on commercialising research with industry personnel". Moreover, female academics have a 40–50% less chance of being involved in a new entrepreneurial venture than their male equivalents [Clarysse, Tartari, Salter 2011]. In the same vein, T.E. Stuart and W.W. Ding [2006] observed low rates of participation in

academic entrepreneurship among female scientists. Analogous results were obtained in a study carried out by V. Tartari and A. Salter [2015], who showed that women academics were less engaged in the industry and in different ways than their male colleagues. Contrary to the above-mentioned findings, O.W. Maietta [2015] reported that women more often engaged with the industry. She argued that "…women have greater ability to cooperate, sensitivity to social cues and context dependency" [Maietta 2015, p. 1355].

According to F. Murray and L. Graham [2007], there are some reasons for the gender-based participation gap in commercial science – for example, lower level of professional socialisation and skills in selling science due to exclusion from opportunities in commercial science at early stages of one's career. As V. Tartari and A. Salter [2015] report, female scientists may feel isolated in male-dominated academic and business cultures, which often results in a lack of engagement in scientific knowledge commercialisation.

Furthermore, based on studies of gender and risk, men are more likely to participate in entrepreneurial activities, partly because "…fear of failure has a smaller negative influence on men than women" [Murray, Graham 2007, p. 663]. Moreover, women in science are argued to have less diversified social capital, and "fewer bridging ties outside their local work contexts than their male colleagues" [Tartari, Salter 2015, p. 1177]. One can also suppose that family responsibilities can hinder commercial engagement of female scientists. Although in F. Murray and L. Graham's [2007] study none of the interviewed faculty members explicitly mentioned family as a rationale for non-participation in commercial science. On the basis of previous research, we can expect that academics' engagement in knowledge transfer activities varies according to gender. Based on this reasoning, we developed our second hypothesis.

Hypothesis 2. There is a gender gap in university-to-industry knowledge transfer engagement in terms of entrepreneurial self-confidence, academic-entrepreneurial actions and academic-entrepreneurial intentions. More specifically, we hypothesise that:

2.1. women rate the applicability of their knowledge lower than men,
2.2. women are less involved in knowledge transfer activities compared to men,
2.3. women are less willing to involve in knowledge transfer activities in the future compared to men.

Methodological approach

The empirical analysis is based on a questionnaire carried out among scientists involved in tourism research. In order to find contact details, we have drawn information from Polish Science database maintained by the National Information Processing Institute, covering a population of academic re-

searchers in Poland. The sample frame included 469 scientists who declared tourism and hospitality specialisations. Next, we excluded individuals who, after obtaining a degree, left the academic world and whose contact details could not be traced. Invitation with a link to the on-line survey was sent to 325 scientists at the beginning of 2018. It turned out that 22 e-mail addresses were incorrect; consequently, the questionnaire could be completed by 303 respondents. We received questionnaires from 76 participants, representing a response rate of 25%, which is an acceptable result compared to other web-based studies [Goethner, Obschonka, Silbereisen, Cantner 2012].

To test our first hypotheses, we employed 3 variables related to positions held by respondents in various domains of academic work. Academic position was measured by the degree or title obtained by the scientists, scientific position was operationalised as successful grant application, and leadership position was measured by participation in governing bodies of scientific and industrial organisations.

To test out second hypotheses, we used 3 variables reflecting respondents' engagement in knowledge transfer activities. Entrepreneurial self-confidence of individuals was measured by perception of the applicability of their scientific knowledge, academic-entrepreneurial action was measured by their involvement in knowledge transfer activities in the previous 3 years, and academic-entrepreneurial intention was measured by their willingness to involve in knowledge transfer activities in the following 3 years.

For the purpose of the analysis, we dichotomised all of the variables and calculated proportions of men and women for each category. In order to examine relationships between the variables under study, we applied the chi-square test of independence. Six null hypotheses of no association between variables were formulated and tested. Data were analysed using the IBM SPSS Statistics version 24.0.

Results

In Table 1. the sample breakdown by age, involvement in knowledge transfer and the highest degree or title obtained, are presented. The majority of respondents held doctoral degrees and subjects were between the age of 36 and 45. Of all the participants, almost 3/4 (73%) declared that they were involved in knowledge transfer to the industry within the period of 2015–2017.

To identify gender inequalities, we first computed proportions of female and male academics in the sample of scientists involved in tourism research. Men represented 59% of the participants of the study, with women representing the remaining 41%. The gender distribution of the overall sample served as a reference point for examining gender imbalances in the subsamples under consideration.

Tab. 1. Respondent profile

Variable	Category	Share
Age	under 36 36–45 46–55 56–65 66–75	10% 52% 20% 11% 7%
Involvement in knowledge transfer to industry	yes no	73% 27%
Scientific degree or title	doctoral degree habilitation degree full professor title	68% 25% 7%

Source: Own elaboration.

Next, to test our first hypothesis, we compared the representation of women and men in 3 subsamples: senior scientists; public grant holders and scientists in governing bodies of scientific and industrial organisations (Table 2).

Tab. 2. Gender gap in tourism academia – results

Hypothesis 1.	Males	Females
Share in the overall sample	59%	41%
Share in the subsample of senior scientists (associate and full professors)	78%	22%
Share in the subsample of public grant holders	60%	40%
Share in the subsample of scientists in governing bodies of scientific and industrial organisations	56%	44%

Source: Own elaboration.

We found that the female share fell from 41% in the whole sample of scientists to 22% in the subsample of senior scientists (habilitation degree or full professor title holders). According to the chi-square test of independence ($\chi^2(1) = 5.195, p = 0.023$), there is enough evidence to suggest an association between being a senior scientists and gender.

Our results show that there is no gender imbalance in the subsample of grant holders ($\chi^2(1) = 0.308, p = 0.579$). This means that women are as effective as men in their efforts to receive publicly funded research grants. Moreover, contrary to our assumptions, women turned out to be over-represented in the subsample of scientists in governing bodies of scientific and industrial organisations, nonetheless, the difference in proportions failed to reach statistical significance ($\chi^2(1) = 0.365, p = 0.546$). These results partially

confirm Hypothesis 1, which stated that there is a gender gap in tourism academia. We found a gender gap in one dimension – academic position, which is expressed by the under-representation of women in high academic positions (associate and full professors). We found differences between male and female scientists for other dimensions, but they were not statistically valid.

To verify our second hypothesis, we investigated gender distribution within 3 subsamples: scientists with highly perceived entrepreneurial self-confidence; scientists engaged in knowledge transfer; scientists willing to engage in knowledge transfer in the future (Table 3).

Tab. 3. Gender gap in university-to-industry knowledge transfer engagement – results

Hypothesis 2.	**Males**	**Females**
Share in the overall sample	59%	41%
Share in the subsample of scientists with highly perceived entrepreneurial self-confidence	68%	32%
Share in the subsample of scientists involved in knowledge transfer	56%	44%
Share in the subsample of scientists willing to be involved in knowledge transfer	67%	33%

Source: Own elaboration.

We found that the share of women in the subsample of scientists with highly perceived entrepreneurial self-confidence fell from 41% in the overall sample to 32%. Since the p-value is smaller than the critical value of 0.05, we rejected the null hypothesis because there is enough evidence to suggest an association between gender and perceived entrepreneurial self-confidence ($\chi^2(1) = 7.963, p = 0.005$).

On the basis of previous studies, we assumed that women are less involved in knowledge transfer activities. This hypothesis was not supported by the data. On the contrary, it turned out that women more often participate in knowledge transfer activities than men. However, the difference is not statistically significant ($\chi^2(1) = 0.093, p = 0.760$). We also hypothesised that women are less willing to involve in knowledge transfer activities in the future. Our results appear to confirm this hypothesis. We found that women are more cautious in their declarations about future involvement in knowledge transfer. Only 33% of scientists who declared that they would definitely cooperate with the industry were female. However, the relationship between gender and academic-entrepreneurial intention was statistically insignificant ($\chi^2(1) = 2.462, p = 0.117$). To conclude, the empirical findings provide partial support for Hypothesis 2 that there is a gender gap regarding engagement in university-to-industry knowledge transfer activities.

Discussion

In our analysis, it has been shown that gender matters in tourism academia, which corresponds with the findings provided in previous studies [Munar et al. 2015]. First of all, we found that gender gap in tourism exists in terms of women's under-representation in senior academic positions, as 78% of professors in tourism are men. This appears to confirm the existence of the "leaky pipeline" phenomenon, describing a situation in which the higher the academic career stage, the more strongly the attrition rate of women outnumbers the one of men. The results are in line with C. Hsu's [2014] findings, who observed that men constitute 81% of full professors at the top 10 world-ranked hospitality and tourism institutions. According to A. Pritchard and N. Morgan [2017], the share of male tourism professors in Australia and New Zealand amounted to 84% and 88%, respectively. In light of our results, it may be suggested that the gender gap in tourism is smaller than in other countries, but is greater than the average for Polish academia. According to the Polish Science database, maintained by the National Information Processing Institute, the proportion of men among senior scientists (habilitation degree or full professor title holders) equalled 72% in 2018.

Contrary to our hypotheses, we found that women are almost as successful in obtaining grants as men and more often occupy leading positions in scientific and industrial organisations. These results are in line with the prior findings of D. Watson and J. Hjorth [2015] and U. Sandstrom and M. Hallsten [2008], who found that female researchers had even a slightly better chance of geting public grants than males. Likewise, J. Basurto-Barcia and C. Ricaurte-Quijano [2017] found that more women participated in research projects than men (67% and 33%, respectively).

Secondly, in contrast to our initial expectations and previously analysed studies [Link, Siegel, Bozeman 2007; Perkmann et al. 2013], we found little evidence that women are less involved in university-to-industry knowledge transfer. As hypothesised, women proved to be substantially less convinced about the applicability of their knowledge compared to men. As suggested by H. Xu, K. Wang and T. Ye [2017], women's lack of confidence in the academic profession may be a crucial factor leading to the gender gap in tourism academia. Moreover, E.C.L. Yang, C. Khoo-Lattimore and C. Arcodia [2017, p. 98] conducted a review of existing tourism-risk literature from a gender perspective and found "women's greater sense of fear and risk-related adverse attitudes towards the socially constructed gender roles".

Women's under-representation in senior academic positions can be explained by generational factors. According to A.M. Munar et al. [2015, p. 16], tourism academia is overwhelmed by "scholars who probably started their careers in tourism research 30 to 40 years ago, at a time when women's rep-

resentation in higher education was lower than it is today". Moreover, the existence of a series of "glass ceilings" reduces women's representation in each step up the academic career ladder [European Commission 2016; Munar et al. 2015; Ren, Pritchard, Morgan 2010]. As concluded by A.M. Munar et al. [2015, p. 16-17], "this leaking pipeline would also explain why very few women obtain the highest academic positions". Women's capacity to reach senior academic positions is slowed down by multiple systemic barriers [Pyke 2013]. According to L. Barrett and P. Barrett [2010], unequal responsibility for family duties may lead to interruptions in employment continuity and hinder research activity, which is critical for career progression. Moreover, a lack of role-models and mentors can contribute to a slower pace of advancement among women [Clarke 2011]. H. Xu, K. Wang and T. Ye [2017] summarised factors determining women's under-representation in leadership roles among academia and stressed such causes as: work and family conflicts, weak integration into male-dominated academic networks and limited mobility as well as self-motivation.

University-to-industry knowledge transfer in tourism may be rare, but can still account for significant increases in innovativeness. Higher engagement of women in knowledge transfer into the tourism industry may be explained in different ways. First of all, the tourism industry is perceived as a feminised employer [Nyaruwata, Nyaruwata 2013]. As reported by M.A. Bednarska [2017], almost 2/3 of jobs on the Polish tourism market are occupied by women. This could make communication processes easier for female scientists than for their male counterparts, and lead to even better-developed social networks.

Secondly, we found that female scholars gained more work experience in the industry. Over 53% of women compared to 40% of men have been employed at tourism companies during their academic career. According to S. Krabel and P. Mueller [2009, p. 948], "scientists with close ties to firms in the industrial sector have a strong entrepreneurial perspective". Industry links offer access to social capital and social networks, which are important conditions of future engagement in knowledge transfer. Scientists who are close to the industry have greater chances to establish a network with business owners and other potential customers.

As argued by A.M. Munar et al. [2015], the general reasons behind gender imbalances in tourism academia can be explained from two perspectives. First, women are socialised not to imagine themselves as academic leaders, and secondly, women do not have the same rights and opportunities as men. Given our results (lower self-confidence and intention to transfer knowledge declared by female scholars), the first explanation seems to be more adequate.

Conclusions

Although the proportion of women in science is increasing, academia is still dominated by men [Arensbergen, Weijden, Besselaar 2012]. A discussion on the role of female scientists in tourism academia and their ability to thrive and succeed in their careers is not a peripheral task [Munar, Khoo-Lattimore, Chambers, Biran 2017]. To close the gender gap in tourism and accelerate academic gender equity, some steps should be taken. As advocated by A. Pritchard and N. Morgan [2017, p. 41], this process requires reflection and "…individual, structural and systemic transformations in the field". Moreover, some radical actions, including diversity quotas for academic leadership posts, could be considered.

As suggested by C. Figueroa-Domecq et al. [2015, p. 98], "…there is an urgent requirement to broaden and deepen tourism gender research". The results of this study reveal that women are under-represented in senior positions of tourism academia in Poland. We also found an imbalance in entrepreneurial self-confidence to the disadvantage of women. Nevertheless, contrary to our hypotheses, women in Polish tourism academia turned out to be over-represented among scientists sitting in governing bodies of scientific and industrial organisations as well as among scientists involved in knowledge transfer activities to the industry.

It is important to note that our study has some limitations that should be addressed in future research.

First of all, while the sample size represented a reasonable response rate, a larger group of respondents might provide more diversified data and allow more advanced statistical techniques. We also suggest that other metrics of the gender gap in academia should be implemented. These could include academic career length, scholarly output and collaboration patterns. Future research should take other groups of scholars into account to highlight how differences between men and women vary across disciplines (e.g. social sciences vs. applied sciences) and university types (e.g. public vs. private). It would be also of value to examine gender disparities in the knowledge commercialisation of different industries. Moreover, a deeper understanding of the roots of gender imbalance in Polish tourism academia is required. This would involve a qualitative approach and collecting data through in-depth interviews or focus group discussions.

Finally, longitudinal research could help monitor changes in scientists' activities in knowledge transfer and gender gap dynamics.

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CULTURAL CONDITIONS IN THE BENCHMARKING PROCESS OF TOURISM ENTERPRISES

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Abstract

Purpose. The aim of the study is to draw attention to the key importance of a broadly understood culture in benchmarking analyses. An attempt was made to indicate the types of cultures and some of their aspects which may significantly limit or hinder benchmarking activities among tourism enterprises.
Method. The basic research method was a critical review of literature, partly supported by examples from the author's own research conducted over several years.
Findings. An original concept was presented regarding the inclusion of three key cultural issues playing an important role at every phase of benchmarking in both domestic and international companies. Awareness of the given cultural aspects often constitutes the effectiveness and correctness of implementing the method.
Research and conclusions limitations. This is primarily a theoretical elaboration which reflects the author's own views and research experiences. Some of the considerations are conclusions from the literature review which have not been verified empirically and refer only to the specific tourist industry.
Practical implications. Awareness of cultural issues may help and improve managerial work in implementing benchmarking.
Originality. A comprehensive approach to the issue, unprecedented in previously published works, taking the significant impact of broadly understood culture on the course of benchmarking analyses onto account.
Type of work. An editorial and concept article mainly based on English literature.

Keywords: benchmarking, culture, organisational culture, benchmarking code of conduct, tourism enterprise.

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Introduction

Benchmarking is an organised process consisting of several phases. When implemented, each company should be aware of its ethical and legal issues. These issues provide guidelines for both benchmarking partners to ensure that goals are achieved. However, during the benchmarking process, at its every phase, most companies, especially those cooperating with foreign industries, face two types of constraints. The first one, of ethical nature, concerns the distrust and fear of benchmarking partners resulting from the improper use of provided data[1]. The other one refers to broadly understood culture, being a natural part of every company, and resulting, among others, from its national origin.

In the era of internationalisation and convergence, more and more importance is attributed to cultural differences and determinants dependent on national cultures [Bartosik-Purgat 2012, p. 15]. In many aspects, culture affects the activities of companies on international markets [cf. Mazurek-Łopacińska 2000, p. 2-4], and its significance depends on the stage of company development on the international market[2] [cf. Bartosik-Purgat 2010, p. 36-38]. Unfortunately, no due regard is paid to the fundamental problems related to cultural differences [Brunet et al. 2006, p. 294-295] being so important in the process of cooperation and information exchange during benchmarking. Different organisational cultures, as well as the tradition and national specificity of a country in which a company operates, pose many problems both for relations and interpretations of attitudes and behaviour during benchmarking cooperation.

To minimise the risk of information leaks and to ensure proper handling of and use of data, a benchmarking code of conduct has been developed[3]. Slightly more problems are caused by cultural aspects, which companies find difficult to capture because the special nature of their conditions causes difficulties in their identification and direct consideration in a company's operations. Therefore, it appears necessary to recognise these issues in order to carefully establish contacts and to maximise the chances for success.

Tourism is not a typical industry in which benchmarking is commonly used. The vast majority of benchmarking initiatives appear among profit-oriented tourism companies, especially in the hotel industry. Generally, benchmarking in tourism is greatly limited in terms of the number and quality of analyses performed. This is mainly due to the nature of the indus-

[1] This regards confidential data.

[2] At each stage of company development on the international market, a different number and quality of the analysed cultural factors are taken into account.

[3] In literature on the subject, different definitions of these principles can be found: benchmarking code of proceedings, benchmarking code of conduct and benchmarking code.

try dominated by small and medium-sized companies. On the other hand, in practice, the majority of reported successful benchmarking applications come from large organisations. This primarily concerns leading global companies, such as Ford, Xerox, Motorola, AT&T, Kodak, Exxon, IBM and Microsoft [Świerk 2010, p. 877-890]. Benchmarking is successfully implemented in, for example, aviation and pharmaceutical industries.

However, what is extremely important with regard to the discussed topic, is the fact that in the tourism industry, cultural diversity and different attitudes are most often encountered, both on the sides of supply and demand.

The thesis of the article is the statement that at every phase of the benchmarking process, a key role is played by the cultural conditions which are an integral part of the entities involved in the cooperation. Of course, it should be noted that companies resolve different cultural issues locally, compared with the issues on international markets. The differences concern the organisational culture of companies, their knowledge and understanding of benchmarking behaviours and any attitudes as well as value systems resulting from the operation of a company in a given country. Therefore, the aim of the study is to draw attention to the key importance of broadly understood culture in benchmarking analyses. An attempt was made to indicate the types of cultures and some of their aspects which may significantly limit or hinder benchmarking activities among tourism enterprises.

The aim was facilitated by the definition of two research questions. Firstly, at which phase of the benchmarking process are cultural issues most important? Secondly, is the interpretation of benchmarking results, data and analyses also marked by culture? The basic research method was critical review of literature, partly supported by examples from the author's own research conducted over several years.

Benchmarking as a process – a review of literature

The perception of benchmarking as a process is characteristic of almost all definitions which may be found in literature on the subject. The concept of 'process' is fundamental to benchmarking. Knowledge, resulting from the process, allows a benchmarker to create effective improvements to boost competitiveness. The benchmarking process is viewed as a kind of 'snapshot' of the moment of a company's success which the benchmarker would like to 'imitate' [Attiany 2014, p. 41].

The process approach of the method can be found among many researchers, including V. K. Omachon and J. R. Ross [1994, p. 140-141] who claim that the benchmarking process is more than just a way to collect data about how well a company operates. Benchmarking can be used in various

industries, both those related to service and production. It is also a method for identifying new ideas and new ways to improve processes, and thus, to better meet customer expectations. The ultimate goal of benchmarking is to improve processes to meet customer needs [cf. Vaziri K. 1992]. H.Y. Harington and J.S. Harington [1996, p. 15] define benchmarking as a continuous process of identifying, understanding and adapting the products, services, equipment and activities of the best organisations [Spendolini 1992] to improve company performance. The process includes comparing an organisation and its elements with the best, not being restricted to the same industry or the country. The essence of benchmarking is also the process of determining the highest standards and then introducing improvements necessary for their achievement, commonly referred to as 'best practices' [Bhutta, Huq 1999, p. 254-263]. The justification for this statement lies partly in the question: 'What is the point of reinventing the wheel when I can learn from someone who has already done it?' [Elmuti, Kathawala 1997, p. 229]. Finally, benchmarking is a dynamic process of continuous productivity improvement through learning from others, those who are better [Deiss 1999/2000, p. 36].

In subject-based literature, many studies[4] can be found presenting reference models of benchmarking process. The universality of the method provides an opportunity for practically each and every organisation to develop their own (need-dependent) ways of leading to success. In order to more accurately portray the essence of the benchmarking process, it is often necessary to specify the basic elements recommended during the introduction of the method. The framework procedure includes the following steps [Sprow 1995]:

- introduction – staff training, internal benchmarking, etc.,
- planning – defining the method of measuring clients' needs and their expectations, as well as one's own strategic perspective,
- searching – selection of a benchmark, building databases based on the information collected and finally establishing contact with co-participants of the process and obtaining their approval for benchmarking,
- observation – determination of differences between companies engaged in the process,
- analysis – determination of the reasons for the difference in the company's performance and indicating potential process changes,
- adaptation – development of an action plan which synthesises best practices, setting goals and initiating the implementation of the process,
- improvement – analysis of the effects of benchmarking leading to the definition of new goals and restarting the process from re-planning.

[4] E.g. in: [Bogan, English 2006, p. 165; Andersen 1999, p. 6-10, Castro, Iglesias, Piñeira, Paül 2011, p. 121-123].

In practice, various suggestions are made regarding the conduction of benchmarking, but the differences usually refer to the number of phases into which the whole process is divided [Penc-Pietrzak 2001, p. 10; Goncharuk 2014]. Individual authors also indicate a different number of actions (sub-phases) to be performed as part of individual phases [Kowalak 2009, p. 28]. However, it is unarguable that properly conducted benchmarking requires performing actions in a specific order [Jedlińska 2002, p. 86; Kowalak 2009, p. 28].

S. Hollensen and P.V. Freytag [2001, p. 27] divide the benchmarking process into seven phases, including a decision as to what processes will be compared; an assessment of the significance of each thematic area; a definition of peer companies; gathering information; comparison of 'the best-in-class' to one's own results; implications of benchmarking results and bench action – implementation of the changes. However, the most popular models for describing the benchmarking process include R.C. Camp's model, G.H.

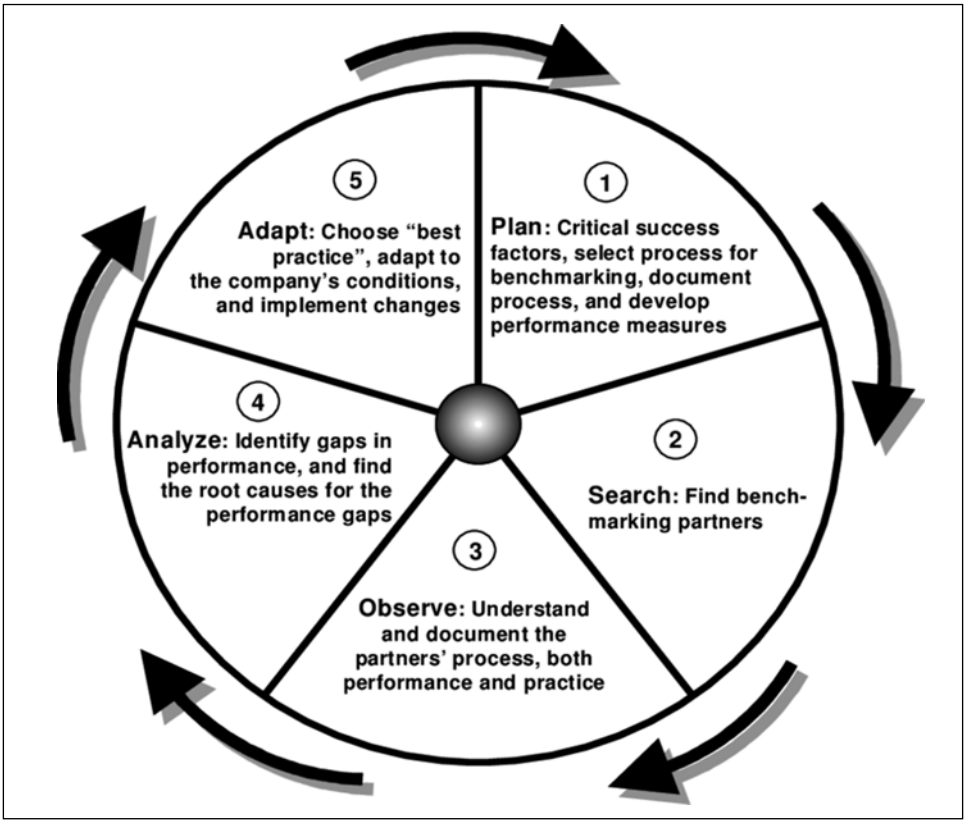

Fig. 1. Benchmarking wheel
Source: [Andersen 1999, p. 2].

Watson's model[5], the *IBC*[6] model and B. Andersen's *Benchmarking Wheel* [Kuczewska 2007, p. 18], which may be relatively considered as the richest (Figure 1).

An additional advantage of B. Andersen's model is the presentation of the benchmarking process as a circle [Penc-Pietrzak 2001, p. 15; Kuczewska 2007, p. 21-22]. *The Benchmarking Wheel* was created based on the existing literary output on benchmarking. Closing all phases, and thus planning, searching for partners, observing their activities, analysing the information given and adapting their solutions (implementation of changes) within the circle symbolises that benchmarking is a continuous and repetitive process. It cannot be a one-off event, performed only when the company is in a disadvantageous market situation.

To finally deliver the expected results, benchmarking must be permanently inscribed in the strategy and awareness of the employees [Penc-Pietrzak 2001, p. 15]. Measuring the effectiveness of benchmarking does not end the whole process, but is only the basis for starting a new comparison cycle. Institutions dealing with benchmarking theory even propose an analogy to the well-known Deming Wheel (PDCA), the benchmarking counterpart of which (PCAA) contains four phases called plan – collect – analyse – adapt. It allows organisations to continuously improve their functioning within a specific 'benchmarking loop' [Salerno-Kochan, Galski 2001, p. 31].

Cultural aspect in benchmarking vs. benchmarking in culture – discussion

Culture is a decisive issue in the respect of the nature of cooperation and also, indirectly, the success of benchmarking analyses. The cultural aspect is treated as hardly quantifiable, a so-called soft element of the international business environment, as the analysis of cultural differences among companies located in different countries including, among others, legal, administrative and social conditions, social policy and the education system, which have an effect on their location.

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[5] G.H. Watson's model contains fewer steps compared to that proposed by Camp, but describes all the phases in a complete benchmarking study. In comparison to Camp's model, Watson 'allocates' more space for specific benchmarking activities. In addition, the emphasis on individual phases of the process is better balanced. Watson's model allows a more flexible approach to the process.

[6] The IBC model provides very limited information on the phases of the benchmarking process. It does not 'explain' the details of individual phases. However, the correctness and the sequence of the phases of the study are appropriate, and each phase can be performed freely (with any assumptions and actions in line with the specified preferences). A significant reduction in the number of phases simplifies the model and makes it easier to be remembered.

Therefore, in the process of establishing contacts, acquiring information and performing tasks within the framework of cooperation with other companies on foreign markets, it is of fundamental importance to be aware of the diversity of cultures and, therefore, to distinguish e.g. Western and Eastern cultures (T. Sitram, R. Cogdel), Hofstede's[7] five dimensions of culture (*Power/Distance*[8]*, Individualism/Collectivism, Masculinity/Femininity, Uncertainty/Avoidance, Long-term/Short-term Orientation*), cultures differentiated by their attitude towards people, time and environment (F. Trompenaars, Ch. Hampden-Turner), and monochronic/polychronic cultures as well as high/low context (E.T. Hall) [Karcz 2004, p. 177]. When analysing specific features of cultures, it is also necessary to take possible internal differences within them into account, e.g. the existence of subcultures (e.g. ethnic subculture) [Libański, Drabik 2010, p. 380]. Knowledge of the cultural differences included in the dimensions above allows, among others, for effective management of international companies.

Ethnocentric[9], polycentric[10] and geocentric[11] attitudes of managers in international companies pose additional difficulties and challenges [Perlmutter, Heenan 1986, p. 136-152; Stoner, Freeman, Gilbert 2001, p. 157]. The features of each attitude translate into a way of cooperation and conducting conversations with partners. Incorrect attitudes, which is a manifestation of disrespect for a partner, as well as underestimating the importance of cultural aspects in business contacts, can significantly impede cooperation and exchange of information, or even discontinue it. Indeed, benchmarking is not about teaching managers to imitate actions, but rather about indicating what new ways can be used to view old problems, using ideas from others. Therefore, managers working with foreign employees must very frequently overcome their own prejudices and show great confidence in relation to a benchmarking partner.

K. Johnson (Corporate Counsel at Texas Instruments) states, 'To guard against the *erosion* of *trust*, one *must focus* on *avoiding* the *appearance* –

[7] A Dutch scientist who developed one of the best known classifications of national cultures. He identified the so-called cultural dimensions, i.e. cultural factors relevant to the management of an organisation. Then, using these criteria, he characterised the cultures of 40 countries.

[8] Companies from countries with a low-power distance will be more likely to enter into strategic alliances with foreign partners [Wiktor, Oczkowska, Żbikowska 2008, p. 65].

[9] Ethnocentric managers consider other countries and their inhabitants to be worse than their home country. They profess the view that management methods applied in their country can be exported with their own products and services.

[10] Polycentric managers consider all countries to be different and difficult to understand. Generally, those managers leave their foreign branches free to operate, assuming that local managers may know their needs best.

[11] Geocentric managers perceive both similarities and differences between individual countries. They try to use the most effective techniques and methods, regardless of their source [Stoner, Freeman, Gilbert 2001, p. 157-185].

not just the *reality* – of *hidden* agendas' [*Bureau of Business Practice* 1996, p. 151]. Johnson emphasizes the importance of openness in the benchmarking process. He indicates that many challenging ethical questions may appear during the process of comparative analysis.

Although culture can be perceived as a relatively stable system passed on from generation to generation, it is subject to gradual and lasting changes. Both national and organisational cultures undergo mutual influences, the effect of which may be their partial or total convergence. While there is a high degree of convergence of so-called hard management elements (the shape of organisational structures and the resulting division of labour, power and communication, logistic, financial, operational management and strategic systems, etc.), the process of unification of organisational culture usually does not occur at the same pace and similar intensity. Simply stated, managers around the world do more or less the same (cultural convergence), but in different ways (cultural divergence) [Karcz 2004, p. 43].

Does organisational culture diminish (or even eliminate) the influence of national culture? This question is of particular importance in the era of globalisation and transnational corporations employing workers with differ-

Tab. 1. Selected cultural issues affecting the implementation of individual phases of benchmarking

	National culture	**Organisational culture**	**Culture and the benchmarking code of conduct**
Planning	• selection of a partner on the international market • types of attitudes among managers of international companies: ethnocentric, polycentric and geocentric	• difficulties in choosing people for the team • lack of knowledge among employees of areas covered by the study • lack of strategic approach • specificity of the industry where it operates	• knowledge of benchmarking code of conduct
Searching	• language barrier • a different approach to the importance and price of the transferred data, • understanding the nature of intellectual property owned by both partners and legal advice on restrictions regarding such property • punctuality • selection of the speakers • knowledge of the meaning of symbols and cognitive schemes	• sectoral particularism on the part of managers in search of a partner for benchmarking, limitation only to one's own industry • disinterest of top management in the conducted research • lack of an innovative approach • punctuality • the way the members of the organisation communicate	• awareness of diversity regarding legal issues of the companies involved • principle of good preparation for cooperation

Observation	• obtaining consent to collect information • types of attitudes among managers of international companies: ethnocentric, polycentric and geocentric • punctuality • knowledge regarding meaning of symbols and cognitive schemes • different behaviours and attitudes	• openness and flexibility of the company • lack of knowledge • awareness of different sensitivity and willingness of the organisation to share information • honesty • meeting deadlines	• awareness of antitrust legislation and unfair commercial practices • knowledge of benchmarking code of conduct
Analysis	• difficulties in processing and interpreting data – their equivalence	• inability to process data • organisation's ability to learn • lack of communication in the company	• knowledge of benchmarking code of conduct
Adaptation	• difficulties in adapting good practices as a result of technological differences • diversity of company market environment	• lack of experience • creativity or lack thereof	• knowledge of benchmarking code of conduct

Source: Own research.

ent cultural backgrounds. It can be undoubtedly assumed that every form of internationalisation results in cultural interaction among areas of the national culture of a company's home country – the organisational culture of the company which is internationalised – the organisational culture of the host company – the national culture of the host market [Karcz 2004, p. 43].

Importance of the cultural element has a slightly different value, also, in relation to the type of applied benchmarking. The need to take cultural diversity into account is most visible in relation to global benchmarking. In the future, global (international) benchmarking may become a tool for exchanging international experiences, considering the national cultural processes of companies [Goncharuk 2014]. In addition, at each phase of benchmarking analysis, other problems and issues arise which are the result of varying organisational or national culture, or knowledge of the benchmarking code of conduct by the companies involved (Table 1).

National culture

It is assumed that national culture is a way of life for a given community which is passed on from one generation to the next. It contains both conscious and unconscious values, habits, attitudes and symbols modelling human behaviour, resulting from religion, the level of development of society,

applicable law or language [quoted in: Karcz 2004, p. 51]. According to the research conducted by N. Adler, national culture has greater impact on people's behaviour than organisational culture [Adler 1991, p. 58-60].

The implications of cultural differences are revealed not only in the processes of communication on foreign markets. Cultural features of a given country or region influence the choice of topics and symbols appropriate for communication [Mazurek-Łopacińska 2000, p. 2] and data exchange between companies. Difficulties in obtaining information for benchmarking and conducting comparative analyses are confirmed, among others, by the employees[12] of PLL LOT. Interestingly, the problems in this respect are more frequent in relation to airlines operating in specific regions of the world, and less frequent in relation to specific countries whose airlines are often national carriers. For example, as the employees note, American airlines are very reluctant to share information on their wage policy, and airlines from the Far East, information on strategies and development plans[13].

On the other hand, it is commonly believed that Western economic organisations wishing to enter the Far East markets are usually surprised by the amount of information received from Japanese competitors. There are other intentions hidden in the willingness to provide detailed information. The provision of some information is used to obtain other data. The questioner is a potential competitor. Faster identification of competition means a fuller understanding of the environment [Karaszewski 2009, p. 246]. In turn, in European culture, there is no rooted habit of sharing information, although Europeans are characterised by extraordinary openness to knowledge. Many managers even have concerns that the competition will have access to information if they agree to two or three interviews. As a result, the companies employ consultants and third parties to perform benchmarking to ensure confidentiality. A characteristic feature of, for example, European airlines, is the attachment to tradition often limiting the absorption of information[14].

Teamwork plays an enormous role in the benchmarking process and therefore, the benefit is gained by those companies for which teamwork is a permanent and natural element of culture. Even better results appear in the implementation of benchmarking when a benchmarking unit exists in the company structure.

Surveys taking nationality into account indicate that 70% of Japanese employees work in teams, while in Europe, this figure is only 0.7%. In Japanese companies, group identity plays the most important role. Its source, as it seems, is the family system of values, as the Japanese family attaches great im-

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[12] The research related to the use of benchmarking in PLL LOT was conducted between 2010 and 2014.

[13] Information obtained during an interview with a LOT Polish Airlines employee.

[14] Information obtained during an interview with a LOT Polish Airlines employee.

portance to group identity and the necessity of belonging to a group [Zimniewicz 2009, p. 44]. They also show the greatest determination in searching for and obtaining information which forms the basis for benchmarking analyses. Attaching importance to collecting information has contributed to the shaping of the Japanese business culture, where competitive intelligence is almost an obsession[15]. However, the Japanese are not satisfied just by collecting information about their competition. They try to absorb and adapt the obtained data to their environment. The borrowing philosophy is deeply rooted in Japanese culture, as they always use someone's ideas[16] for the benefit of themselves, having more often been imitators than innovators.

The Japanese are a community society, and what is published is available and can be shared. However, obtaining information is only the first step. The Japanese are successful in borrowing because they want to learn. Therefore, they treat mutual interaction as an opportunity [Bogan, English 2006, p. 302-303]. This interest in the activities of competitors[17], their capabilities, tactics and strategies, has helped Japanese companies to gain their current competitive advantage. In other countries, companies do not pay so much attention to their comparison[18] to foreign competition, as evidenced by Ernest & Young and the American Quality Foundation report. In a survey of 500 companies from Canada, Germany, Japan and the USA, Japanese companies seem to be the leaders in making comparisons. As many as 92% of Japanese companies admitted that this was the main element of their strategic planning process [Bogan, English 2006, p. 301]. According to the principle of 'think globally, act locally', Japanese companies adapt the best world solutions as a result of benchmarking.

Organisational culture

In addition to the cultural conditions of a given country, the organisational culture of a company also influences the way of communication and cooperation with other companies in the benchmarking process[19]. This term

[15] In Japan, knowledge of the competition is part of a manager's every responsibility. There are also stories about the difficulties Japanese managers have in decentralising and transferring responsibilities to foreigners out of fear for losing valuable data [Trompenaars, Hampden-Turner 2002, p. 218].

[16] Unlike the Americans, they are more open to foreign ideas than to people.

[17] Once, somebody noticed that in a library, a Japanese senior manager was reading American business reports published over the last 10 years. The manager explained that by reading letters from general managers to shareholders, he hoped to learn about the competition [Bogan, English 2006, p. 301].

[18] There are organisations (e.g. Electoral Reform Ballot Services) which advise clients against using data from different cultures because of the danger of making incorrect comparisons.

[19] The organisational culture of a company is influenced by the culture of the country it which it operates, as well as the fact that it belongs to a given industry or economic sector.

appeared for the first time in the 1940s, but it had not been widely used in management sciences until the 1980s. This trend was influenced by international comparative studies on the processes of work organisation in the United States and Japan [Sułkowski 2002, p. 54-56]. Organisational culture refers to the social level and concerns the learned processes, joint organisations and their members [Karcz 2004, p. 42].

Therefore, it is important that there are values and attitudes in an organisation which form the basis for the effective use of benchmarking, such as international aspirations, willingness to make changes and share information (inside and outside), consent and willingness of managers to be involved in the process and motivate employees at all levels to take active participation [Bendkowski, Bendkowski 2008, p. 114]. Organisational culture differs from national and ethnic cultures. It exerts influence on the behaviour of individuals in an organisation, but this influence is not just simple determination [Karcz 2004, p. 42].

Benchmarking is associated with two important factors which affect its success, and, at the same time, are the characteristics of organisational cultures, namely the degree of organisational commitment and previous experience in benchmarking. Alike all new innovations in management, obtaining support from senior management is crucial for the success of comparative analyses [Elnathan, Lin, Young 1996, p. 37-54]. Benchmarking is a process which affects all management levels. Therefore, in this case, most appropriate are organisational cultures with open relations and communication policies between managers and employees. Benchmarking requires feedback, strong strategic focus and some flexibility in achieving the objectives set by management [Elmuti, Kathawala 1997, p. 241].

It is worth mentioning that strong organisational commitment over time will result in heightened efforts to increase the scope of an organisation's experience in the area of benchmarking through greater commitment of resources for training and retention of benchmarking experts. Elnathan et al. (1996) argue that the preparation for comparative projects and the ability to effectively interpret the benefits of learning improve over time [Elnathan, Lin, Young 1996, p. 37-54].

The lack of active employee involvement in the process of changes serves as an example of a potential benchmarking trap and a feature of the organisational culture concerning many companies [Omachon, Ross 1994, p. 137-154]. And it is the high level of employee engagement, their participation and teamwork that are absolutely necessary for the benchmarking programe to be successful. Every member of the organisation needs to understand the goals and benefits of implementing the method. All employees should be trained in the skill of interpreting and applying the results of comparative analysis. For the process of comparative analysis with the best to retain its dynamic nature, enthusiasm and persistence of its performers

are also necessary. However, the most important problem to be solved lies in interpersonal relations. If there are barriers in the organisation which make it impossible to appreciate and accept the experiences of others and the data they provide, then successful benchmarking cannot be expected [Gierczak 2015, p. 67-68].

Another issue with significant impact on the benchmarking process is the degree of an organisation's openness to external ideas (from a different industry) and the tendency to experiment and take risks. A common problem of tourism enterprises is the lack of extension of the scope of searching for model solutions outside their own industry. Although a slightly different approach can be observed in the hotel industry between those hotels belonging to a chain and those run by private owners. Chain hotels use benchmarking much more often, and reach beyond their own industry in search of model solutions [Gierczak-Korzeniowska, Gołembski 2017]. And finally, in some organisational cultures there is a lack of continuity and regularity in the implementation of tasks, learning, rather short-term prevention of emerging problems, which does not create a favourable climate in the process of building a learning organisation.

Ultimately, benchmarking may result in a necessary change in the culture of an organisation which, in the course of time, becomes more experienced in finding and implementing model solutions. A company implementing benchmarking is also future-oriented because the discoveries are encouraging and provide both theoretical and practical knowledge while triggering a continuous learning process which becomes part of the organisational culture.

Culture and the benchmarking code of conduct

The question of whether culture and the benchmarking code of conduct impede the implementation of benchmarking and exchange of information, seems to be entirely legitimate. Or is the contrary true? Are they a source of facilitation, making the exchange process safer and richer with new, more interesting views resulting from the cultural diversity of the companies involved?

The prerequisite for both accessing information about an organisation and obtaining its consent to participate in a benchmarking project is not only a mutual interest in exchanging information on best practices but also a guarantee of confidentiality regarding the information provided [Karlöf, Östblom 1995, p. 178]. Therefore, the basis for this should be honesty, integrity and business skills. This process should be largely formalised, all comparisons should be documented and treated as confidential and under no circumstances should information or data that is not prepared to be disclosed be requested [Misiołek 1999, p. 126]. It is also important not to violate the law, thus, denying the chance for mutual long-term benefits.

Comprehensive benchmarking codes of conduct developed by various organisations[20] are extremely helpful in this difficult task. All the more so because, as B. Andersen notes, at the early phase of benchmarking development, many critical voices were heard in relation to the ethical issue of benchmarking [Andersen 1999, p. 6].

These codes do not represent legal documents but are only informative, yet complying with them allows for benchmarking in accordance with the principles of ethics. Samuel C. Certo [1994] gives a general definition of ethics as 'our concern for good behaviour'. He adds that it is our duty to take not only our personal well-being into account, but also that of other people. "Ethics, where it is compared, can be defined as 'principles, guidelines or standards defining the protocol of interaction between people and organizations". The European Benchmarking Code of Conduct[21] is an example of such a code, developed by the Performance Improvement Group in cooperation with the Eurocode Working Group [Penc-Pietrzak 2001, p. 14]. The Code contains eight principles[22], which include[23]:

1. Principle of preparation. Direct contact with benchmarking partners requires prior preparation, e.g. providing them with a questionnaire and agenda; taking legal advice is also advisable.
2. Principle of contact. It is necessary to determine the manner of providing information and to select people who will be responsible for benchmarking contacts designated by the partner organisation.
3. Principle of information exchange of a similar 'gravity'[24] between partners; honesty and openness in contacts being indispensable.
4. Principle of confidentiality. Confidential information which was acquired must not be communicated to third parties without the consent of the benchmarking partner. The partners' identity should not be disclosed without their consent.
5. Principle of proper information use only for the purposes stated to and agreed upon with the benchmarking partner. Information should not be

[20] Usually, useful information on how to conduct the analysis can be found in American or European benchmarking codes of conduct, which differ only in the number of rules or rules in force. The organisations or institutions which were involved in the development of the code include International Benchmarking Clearinghouse (IBC) at the American Productivity and Quality Center (APQC) and Benchmarking Council at the Strategic Planning Institute, and Performance Improvement Group in cooperation with Eurocode Working Group.

[21] http://www.globalbenchmarking.org (23 Apr. 2019)

[22] A broader description regarding the rules of the benchmarking code of conduct in: [Karlöf, Östblom 1995, p. 179].

[23] Also in: [Bogan, English 2006, p. 138-139; Lendzion, Stankiewicz – Mróz 2005; Bendkowski, Bendkowski 2008, p. 117-118; Kisperska-Moroń 2000, p. 27-28; Kowalak 2009, p. 99-101; Jedlińska 2002, p. 87.

[24] If requesting specific information, one must be prepared to reciprocate information of the same type.

used in other ways than those resulting from the process of comparison with the best [Misiołek 1999, p. 126].

6. Principle of legality. Confidential information should not be disclosed (e.g. pricing, unless it is the basis for setting prices) [Wyciślik, Gajdzik 2008, p. 76; Sprow 1995, p. 3]. One should refrain from the acquisition of information which could be interpreted as improper including a breach, or inducement of a breach. Questions and actions suggesting the pursuit of monopolistic practices should be avoided (market and customer division, collusion, agreements restricting trade, setting up bids, bribery or misappropriation).
7. Principle of completion. Analyses and studies should be prepared in accordance with prior arrangements; this provides for the timely performance of all commitments.
8. Principle of understanding the benchmarking partners and using the information provided in accordance with prior arrangements[25].

The code emphasizes special caution in dealing with partners who are direct competitors of the company. It recommends taking frequent legal advice and the involvement of an experienced and renowned third party, e.g. consultants [Penc-Pietrzak I. 2001, p. 15]. When compared with competitors, we must assume that not all information will be made available and we should not try to obtain it without the prior consent of our partner. There may be a demand to remain anonymous, which must, then, be strictly maintained [Misiołek 1999, p. 126].

Compliance with these principles is important not only for ethical reasons. It should be borne in mind that benchmarking is a long-term process, often assuming long-term cooperation with benchmarking partners. One mistake can cost a partner's loss of trust and the efforts of the entire benchmarking team will be lost. A negative opinion can also prevent the company from making further contacts. Therefore, care should be taken to perform benchmarking not only efficiently and effectively, but also in compliance with the principles of ethics, bringing tangible benefits to all of the organisations involved [Penc-Pietrzak 2001, p. 15].

However, as it appears, knowledge of the principles of the benchmarking code of conduct is not as widespread as interest in the method itself. During research on the impact of benchmarking on the quality of tourist services on-board aircrafts, LOT Polish Airlines employees were asked whether they were familiar with the benchmarking code of conduct or its key principles. For the vast majority of respondents, that concept was unknown (93% of respondents). This was quite a surprising result given the nature of the company and the type of international cooperation, and the fact that the use of

[25] These rules are general. In the case of information exchange with a particular partner, it is necessary to specify the rules in the contract very precisely in order to avoid any misunderstandings in the future.

benchmarking was declared by all surveyed employees. On the other hand, interestingly, the vast majority of the employees were unable to determine whether, when undertaking benchmarking activities, they comply with the principles contained in this code. When asked: 'Do you follow the principles of the *The Benchmarking Code of Conduct*?' – 67% of the respondents did not know, 7% answered in the affirmative, but 26% provided a negative reply. Individual interviews with the respondents, aimed at refining the data, showed that the majority apply some of the principles in practice, being unaware that these are the rules in force by the code.

Knowledge of the benchmarking code of conduct does not only sanction and facilitate the acquisition of information and its exchange, but also refutes the common association of benchmarking with industrial espionage or economic intelligence. And the unjustified association of benchmarking with industrial espionage is demonstrated by Article 85 of the European Treaty, which prohibits any coordinated agreements or agreements with other entities which may distort competition or have a negative effect on trade within the European market [Andersen 1999, p. 6]. Therefore, it is greatly important to emphasize that the relations established with the partners will be in the form of an open exchange of information.

Unfortunately, an established code of ethics or reference to the culture of benchmarking do not guarantee that all companies will comply with it[26]. For this reason, some organisations are not interested in participating in comparative processes.

Summary

'What makes cultures different? First of all, customs. Tell me how you dress, how you behave, what habits you have, what gods you worship, and I will tell you who you are. Humans not only create culture and live in it, humans carry it, humans mean culture'.

Ryszard Kapuściński

The need to take cultural differences into account in the benchmarking process is very challenging and raises a number of problems for many companies. At the same time, it is also a unique opportunity to gain invaluable knowledge and experience, which frequently determine the nature and value of further cooperation.

[26] The provisions contained in the code draw attention to the limitations of the use of information. This raises various questions. What guarantees does a benchmarking partner have that s/he has found an ethical company? If some information should not be asked, then, what is the point of benchmarking? It is widely known that having information means having power. Who will be willing to share it?

As well as creating invisible yet natural barriers for trade, cooperation and information exchange, cultural differences can also induce new market opportunities. Both opportunities and challenges are two good reasons for changing existing practices and habits in pursuit of a company's goals. It is important that managers, when implementing benchmarking, are aware that existing cultural differences may constitute an additional source of inspiration for companies, the usefulness of which is justified both by growing customer demands and their cultural diversity.

The inclusion of cultural diversity in company cooperation is also a manifestation of respect and openness in business contacts. It is characterized by a conscious and growth-oriented company which perceives cultural diversity and its consequences as a source of knowledge and interesting solutions. Benchmarking as a method enabling new contacts and obtaining valuable data is a challenge, but also a way to test one's own company for tolerance and acceptance of cultural diversity. In addition, it is a process which involves several phases, during which cultural issues increase in varying degrees. Their knowledge and the necessity of compliance is most evident during the phases of exploration, observation and analysis. These are the key phases for effective benchmarking cooperation, during which employees must demonstrate not only vast knowledge and experience, but above all, understanding and professional ethics.

It also appears that it is impossible to avoid interpreting the results of benchmarking analyses from the perspective of cultural conditions. The method brings the expected results forth only when it is part of a flexible organisational culture. It is not without significance that the culture in various industries is diverse, which translates into a way of making decisions, establishing contacts with other entities and sharing information.

This article is theoretical and introduces the subject. The multidimensionality and multifaceted nature of the concept of culture are certainly not exhaustive. It 'proposes' a concept relating to the inclusion of particular types of cultures and their aspects at every phase of the benchmarking process, which certainly contributes to interesting and in-depth research in this area. Cultural diversity is a great challenge for business cooperation, but it is also a source of inspiration and many interesting solutions greatly important in the benchmarking process.

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SOCIAL CONSTRUCTION OF MYCOLOGICAL CULINARY HERITAGE AS A TOURIST RESOURCE AND ITS DIMENSIONS OF SUSTAINABILITY

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Abstract

Purpose. To identify contributions to the sustainability of the territory from the tourist uses of mycological culinary heritage, within the context of late capitalism
Method. Multiple case studies with a qualitative and exploratory approach. No probabilistic sampling by snowball technique and validation by saturation criterion, to develop multiple perspectives through triangulation strategy. Semi-structured interviews (N = 24) applied to key informants around the practice of mycological tourism.
Findings. The cases studied showed evidence of the contributions that mycological tourism can generate in the economic, environmental and social dimensions of sustainable development. However, the capacity of these very specific initiatives for their incorporation into major development strategies is not clear. There is the ambivalence between the preservation of heritage and its economic use, related to the hedonistic and experiential logic of late capitalism.
Research and conclusions limitations. This is a case study only recovering the internal perspective of some communities in central Mexico that participate in mycological tourism strategies.
Practical implications. Qualitative studies that provide a deep vision regarding tourism experience of rural communities are a useful source of information for the design of public policies that meet the real needs of their users and to propose development strategies, based on the characteristics of each context.
Originality. The articulation between tourism based on wild foods and sustainability, from a critical and qualitative perspective.
Type of paper. Research article.

Keywords: mycological tourism, Integrated Rural Tourism, rural development, central Mexico.

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Introduction

Gathering, commercialisation and consumption of wild edible mushrooms have been an essential part of the culture and economic sustenance of forest communities around the world [Boa 2004]. In central Mexico, edible mushrooms are focal foods, which can be found in traditional cuisine of different rural areas [Libin 1991]

From an alimentary point of view, edible mushrooms are resources difficult to define given that their biological nature relative to the fungi kingdom (they are not part of the animal or vegetable kingdom) makes it difficult to understand and categorise them within the socio-cultural structures of food. On the other hand, their wild nature, linked to the forest and being unpredictable, gives them a "non-human" dimension that implies rethinking the relationship between human beings and nature.

Wild edible mushrooms can be considered local foods, which express a territorial anchorage with the places where they are harvested, consumed and marketed. These are seasonal products, which imply a high level of specialisation in their harvesting process and which acquire added value on their final markets due to the scarcity principle. Likewise, they can be identified as typical, land-based products, traditional, specific and authentic or of differentiated quality.

The above connotations refer to social constructions, through which mushrooms are re-valourised; within the context of contemporary agro-food markets, growing in complexity and sophistication. However, only a small percentage of its final retail price reaches the hands of mushroom pickers, who are social actors living in conditions of marginalisation and poverty.

Recently, as a way to add value to mushroom harvesting, various activities related to tourism and recreation have been incorporated, through a moderately structured offer of products and services, conceived as mycological tourism [De Frutos, Martínez, Esteban 2012]. The interconnection between these foods, space and identity [Everett, Aitchison 2008], linked to tourism, provides a comparative advantage through differentiation criterion, from which development proposals, centred on the territory and in some food resources, may be generated.

Mycological tourism is a type of recreational leisure activity that is located halfway between nature and culture [Lázaro 2008] and involves the enjoyment of forest food landscapes, from the perspectives of aesthetic contemplation, nature tourism, recreational harvesting and traditional cuisine. The tourism dimension of wild edible mushrooms supposes a complementary economic activity for the harvesting communities through added-value strategies in the territory [Thomé-Ortiz 2015].

Despite the broad scientific productivity of wild edible mushrooms in Mexico, it has been oriented from a biological or ethnic mycological per-

spective and has been of highly descriptive nature regarding the number of known species, their phenology, anthropocentric uses and economic importance indices. That is why there are important gaps that must be filled to understand mushroom use from a sociocultural perspective, as this implies the understanding of difficult aspects to objectify such as memory, tradition, identity, knowledge transmission and social behaviour around the harvesting, distribution and consumption of mushrooms. In another sense, the use of mycological resources as a tourist attraction allows us to understand the new dynamics around which food heritage and processes of elitisation of local foods are focused.

The lack of deep knowledge about the social and cultural dimensions of mycological culinary heritage generates important difficulties in managing their "heritagisation" process through tourism initiatives. The touristification of mycological resources implies their transformation and redefinition, with an ambivalent sense that is torn between their heritage recovery and their economic use. From these processes of productive restructuring of the forest, among communities, some dichotomous positions arise, including: i) opportunities and threats, ii) benefits and impact, iii) economic development and new processes of exclusion, iv) recovery of gastronomic heritage and trivialisation of traditional cuisine. Hence, the need to explore the possible contributions to sustainability that may or may not derive from the articulation between mycological culinary heritage and tourism.

In this paper, the author aimed to identify contributions to territorial sustainability, based on the tourist uses of mycological culinary heritage within the context of late capitalism. For this, an attempt was made to answer the following fundamental question: How are environmental, social and economic benefits generated from the tourist appropriation of wild edible mushrooms? And can this contribute to the development and maintenance of mycophagy culture and the regeneration of rural spaces?

The text is composed of six parts that are structured as follows: after this introductory section, a literature review is presented. The methodological design of the research is explained below, followed by a presentation of results, and subsequently, discussion. Finally, the conclusions are developed.

1. Theoretical considerations and practical implications

In studies on the productive restructuring of the countryside, authors have based their understanding of the transformation of rurality in the traditions of rural economics and rural sociology [Cloke, Marsden, Mooney 2006], focusing on the multifunctionality of the territory and the pluriactivity of social actors, providing the economic, social and cultural foundation for the emergence of new activities, products, and services in rural areas.

Mycological tourism can be framed within this set of structural changes, designated a "new rural paradigm" [OECD 2006], in which the logic of productive diversification is the precept that guides rural development policies [Wilson 2008]. However, this paradigm presents problems regarding harmonisation between environmental protection and tourism activities, which is why these processes of change reveal a series of opportunities to expand the social capacities of territorial governance [Hjalager, Johansen 2013] and their sustainability perspectives.

The role that local foods can play in the configuration of a sustainable tourism destination is fundamental since the use of an iconic food as a tourist attraction has various impact such as increasing tourist consumption, generating a multiplier effect, positively impacting the local economy, generating tourist reflexivity [Urry 1995] as a mechanism of differentiation, in this case, from an iconic food that captures the nature of a particular place [Bessière 1998]. But, equally, it is assumed that tourism activities carry the risk of generating negative effects for the host community [Long 2004].

Certainly, the touristification of agro-food products is a way of patrimonialising them. The designation of these resources as cultural heritage is a social construction in which the interests of different groups come into play, depending on specific objectives. When the social construction of agro-food heritage intersects with tourism activity, it is important to consider the contributions that this unique relationship generates both for agro-food resources and for the social groups reproducing them [Medina 2017].

The debate on the benefits and impact of tourism activities has been developed within the framework of Integrated Rural Tourism [Clark, Chabrel 2007], which implies the simultaneous development of environmental, economic and social benefits, based on tourism activity. It is an approach according to which the best tourism model is one allowing to generate benefits at all levels and for all groups, without the benefits generated for one area implying detrimental effects on another.

The specific case of tourism in forest areas involves bias towards contemplative, sports and nature activities, anchored to protection policies of natural areas. However, there are global trends to incorporate the cultural and food dimension of these spaces as a tourist attraction [Hjalager, Johansen 2013]. An example of this is the harvesting of wild edible mushrooms, one of the most emblematic activities related to local foods in forest areas [Thomé-Ortiz 2019]. Traditional mycological cuisine is a culinary specialty that has the potential to develop tourism and recreational activities. However, as already mentioned, this is of controversial nature when considering its dimensions of sustainability.

The harvesting, commercialisation and consumption of mushrooms constitute a three-dimensional system of food heritage with the corpus (knowledge), cosmos (beliefs) and praxis (practices), that is reproduced from

generation to generation, being part of the collective heritage of specific social groups. However, the development of mycological tourism activities implies new social practices regarding the conventional use of wild edible mushrooms. Therefore, it is necessary to develop new conceptual connectivity and institutional frameworks [Hjalager, Johansen 2013] that would allow the articulation and normalisation of new productive activities in rural areas.

The possibility of developing tourism products from food, strongly attached to a territory, can be attributed to local gastronomic patterns becoming a source of cultural identity within the context of late capitalism [Richards 2002], which is expressed through logics of consumption covered by an "alternative hedonism", reflecting social concerns about the inauthentic nature of modern societies [Soper 2007].

In this sense, wild edible mushrooms play an important role as markers of territorial identity, given their nature as localised cultural artefacts [Cook, Crang 1996]. These localisation processes are a characteristic feature of culinary tourism, which is often based on a dialectical relationship between material geographies (location of products and services anchored to the territory) and cultural flows (new mobility with cultural and consumer motivations). This implies rethinking the limits restricting ethnic mycology to the explanation of human consumption of mushrooms through dualism between mycophilia and mycophobia [Hawksworth 1996]), to situate this renewed and multifaceted interest in wild edible mushrooms within the most complex scenario of cross-cultural consumption [Howes 1996]. The reason why the impact of external influences the evolution of food identities is a fundamental dimension of analysis in mycological tourism.

2. Methodology

During the 2016-2018 mushroom seasons (June-September), multiple case studies were conducted [Stake 2000] to compare similarities and differences regarding the contributions of mycological tourism to the sustainability of a territory. Three forest communities were selected that are considered illustrative of the process of mycological resource touristification and share the following criteria: i) they are rural communities with an ancestral mycophagy culture, ii) they share the cultural identity of the forest peoples of the Mexican Central Highlands. and iii) they are in the process of implementing a strategy of productive diversification through mycological tourism.

Exploratory research was carried out, collecting information in the field and from secondary sources. The research assumed a qualitative approach with the intention of making a crosslink between the information obtained from empirical evidence and those reported in other research. It

is considered that qualitative case studies provide a privileged perspective to investigate in-depth, emerging phenomena about which there is no clarity, in this case, concerns regarding the sustainable nature of mycological tourism. On the other hand, this methodological perspective allows the construction of a theoretical corpus based on formulations derived from systematic analysis of reality [Eisenhardt, Graebner 2007], which has had special relevance for the consolidation of culinary tourism studies [Hjalager, Richards 2002].

2.1. Three case studies in Central México

Forest communities in central Mexico are part of the Mesoamerican food pattern, based on corn, chili and beans as the main ingredients [Staller, Carrasco 2010]. However, these territories have some differentiated products that shape their particular food identities, such as the use of wild mushrooms. This indicates the presence of mycophagous peoples, which is explained by the millenarian co-evolution between humans and their forest environments.

2.1.1. San Francisco Oxtotilpan

Located in the municipality of Temascaltepec, the State of Mexico at a height of 2,634 metres above sea level. It has a population of 1,435 inhabitants (INEGI 2010), who are the last descendants of the Matlatzinca ethnic group [García 2004]. The main ecosystem is the *abies religiosa* forest, which is

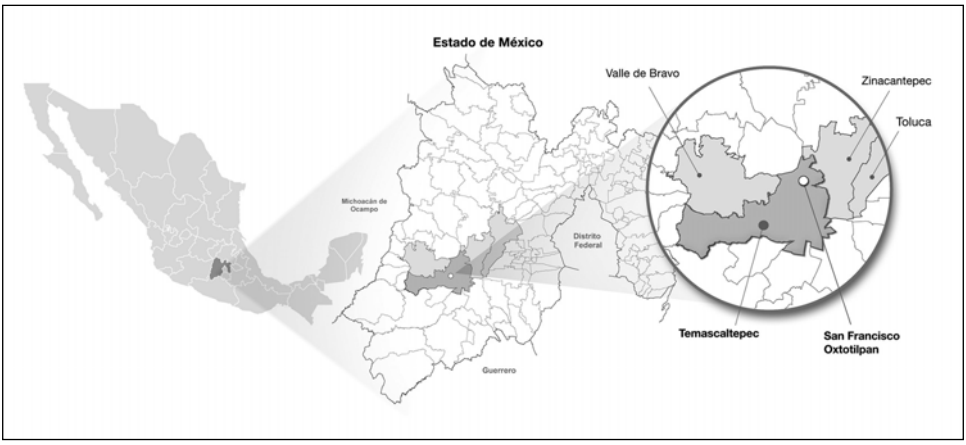

Fig. 1. Location map of San Francisco Oxtotilpan, Temascaltepec, the State of Mexico
Source: Own elaboration.

a type of vegetation with the highest productivity and concentration of wild edible mushrooms in central Mexico [Burrola et al. 2013]. The continuous occupation of the territory since the 12th century has resulted in the establishment of a strong mycological culture in the area [García 2004]. The consumption of 25 species of wild edible mushrooms in the community has been documented [Thomé-Ortiz 2019]. In 2014, to counteract poverty, the Mexican government promoted tourist development of the territory [Thomé-Ortiz 2016; González, Thomé-Ortiz, Osorio 2018]. One of the proposed activities was mycological tourism, which has been promoted since 2016 by the joint action between the academy and some local actors.

2.1.2. Ejido Venta Morales (La laguna)

Located in the municipality of Texcaltitlán, the State of Mexico at an altitude of 2,680 metres above sea level. It is a small community of 373 inhabitants that barely have the basic services of electricity and potable water, its average duration of schooling 6.88 years, thus it can be considered in conditions of marginalisation [INEGI 2017]. The valley, where the village is located, is surrounded by *pinus spp* and *abies religiosa* forests, where 36 species of wild edible mushrooms have been identified [Thomé-Ortiz 2018]. It is a territory with a reputation for mushroom gatherers and traders, who sell their acquisitions roadside or in nearby markets. This village has also been incorporated into tourism activities through an initiative of the Mexican government. In 2016, from the impulse of the academic sector in conjunction with the local population, mycological tourism tours started to be offered.

Fig. 2. Location of Ejido Venta Morales, Texcaltitlán, the State of Mexico
Source: Own elaboration.

2.1.3. San Juan Atzingo

Located in the municipality of Ocuilan, in the State of Mexico, at an altitude of 2,597 metres above sea level, having a population of 949 inhabitants [Pérez, Zizumbo 2014]. In this village lives the Tlahuica ethnic group who call themselves *Pjiekakjoo*, meaning "what I am" or "what I speak". The main ecosystem of the territory is composed of *pinus spp, abies religiosa* and *quercus* forests, which stimulates the high productivity of mushrooms. This makes the Tlahuica the ethnic group consumers of the largest number of wild edible mushrooms in Central Mexico, having detected a total of 84 species [Aldasoro et al. 2016]. Since 2017, they have begun to offer mycological tours as a strategy of economic diversification.

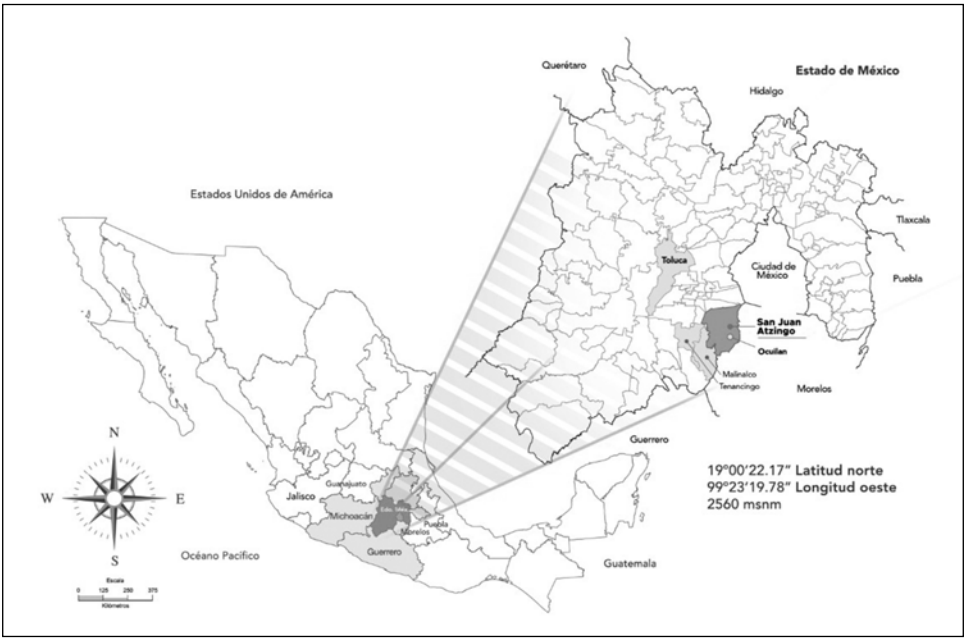

Fig. 3. Location of San Juan Atzingo, Ocuilan, the State of Mexico
Source: Own elaboration.

2.2. Interviews

A number of 24 semi-structured interviews were applied regarding aspects such as identity, personal experience, daily practices and the role of mycological culinary heritage in the territory. The selection of informants was carried out via non-probabilistic snowball sampling [Noy 2008] through which the main actors involved in this type of tourism were identified.

Table 1. Characteristics and profiles of the interviewees

Number	Community	Sector	Occupation	Sex
1	San Francisco Oxtitilpan	Tourism	Traditional cook	Female
2	San Francisco Oxtitilpan	Local population	Traditional cook	Female
3	San Francisco Oxtitilpan	Tourism	Mushroom picker	Female
4	San Francisco Oxtitilpan	Local population	Mushroom picker	Male
5	San Francisco Oxtitilpan	Tourism	Tourism service provider	Female
6	San Francisco Oxtitilpan	Government	Local authority	Male
7	San Francisco Oxtitilpan	Local population	Inhabitant	Male
8	San Francisco Oxtitilpan	Local population	Inhabitant	Female
9	Ejido Venta Morales	Tourism	Traditional cook	Female
10	Ejido Venta Morales	Local population	Traditional cook	Female
11	Ejido Venta Morales	Tourism	Mushroom picker	Male
12	Ejido Venta Morales	Local population	Mushroom picker	Male
13	Ejido Venta Morales	Tourism	Tourism service provider	Male
14	Ejido Venta Morales	Government	Local authority	Male
15	Ejido Venta Morales	Local Population	Inhabitant	Female
16	Ejido Venta Morales	Local Population	Inhabitant	Male
17	San Juan Atzingo	Tourism	Traditional cook	Female
18	San Juan Atzingo	Local population	Traditional cook	Female
19	San Juan Atzingo	Tourism	Mushroom picker	Female
20	San Juan Atzingo	Local population	Mushroom picker	Female
21	San Juan Atzingo	Tourism	Tourism service provider	Female
22	San Juan Atzingo	Government	Local authority	Male
23	San Juan Atzingo	Local population	Inhabitant	Female
24	San Juan Atzingo	Local population	Inhabitant	Male

Source: Own elaboration.

Those interviewed included people who had a direct relationship with the mycological culinary heritage, tourism and the public sector. In this way, it can be seen that traditional cooks who had a direct connection with tourism projects were interviewed, but also those who only perform this activity

in the domestic or ritual spheres. The same applies in the case of mushroom pickers, some of which are part of the tourism projects and others only develop the activity for self-consumption or sale at local markets.

This distinction was important because the exploratory visits showed that both traditional cooks and mushroom pickers are the main guardians of the mycological culinary heritage, but their perspectives regarding the use of these resources greatly differed depending on their relationship with tourism activity.

2.3. Participant observation

As a complement to the interviews, participant observation was carried out [Markwell 2001] during the accompaniment of 12 mushroom collections in the 3 studied communities (4 in each community). An observation guide was designed based on the following key aspects: i) harvesting dynamics, ii) knowledge associated with mushroom collection, iii) the roles played by different social subjects involved in the activity, iv) recreational and aesthetic nature of the activity, v) compatibility of traditional mushroom collection with other activities.

The observations were written in a field notebook and were complemented by a photographic archive. Nonverbal behaviours and attitudes of the participants were recorded, which allowed understanding aspects of the mushroom collection that were not clear in the interviews. Participant observation was conducted after the interviews because accessing the collection practices required developing a high level of trust with the mushroom pickers and also depended on the mushroom outbreak during the rainy season. The process of organising mushroom harvesting consisted of requesting authorisation from mushroom pickers to accompany them in the 'hunt' for mushrooms. Once they accepted and provided the necessary equipment, the activity began before sunrise to search for some specific species in places related to specific trees. The mushroom pickers with whom the collections were undertaken were the same pickers as those interviewed, but some members of their families also participated, as well as other collectors (mainly elderly) not interested in tourism-related activities.

2.4. Analysis

Since the data obtained only reflect the internal perspective of the studied communities, the author sought to triangulate [Decrop 1999] the obtained information through multiple perspectives derived from the perspective of the actors involved in mycological tourism; local authorities, the inhabit-

ants of the communities and those derived from the participant observation. On the other hand, although the view of this phenomenon is partial, it is the host communities that suffer the most from the impact of tourism activities [Andereck, Valentine, Knopf, Vogt 2005].

Categories for analysis were determined *a posteriori* using content cluster analysis. For this purpose, the semi-structured interviews were carefully read, determining which themes were repetitive from frequency analysis. These themes were coded to interpret the similarities and differences they expressed among the interviewees. The categories of analysis were: i) heritage dimension of mushrooms, ii) tourist reinterpretation of local resources, iii) social perceptions of mycological tourism, and iv) conflicts around local resources concerning productive restructuring of the territory. From these categories, thematic analysis was carried out [Myles, Huberman 1994], exclusive based on the dimensions of sustainability (economic, socio-cultural and environmental) as an analytical framework. Observational data were integrated into the analysis of the interviews to confirm the findings and sharpen the interpretations.

3. Results

Although this paper was written with the intention to understand interactions between tourism, mycological culinary heritage and transformation of the territory, the analytical framework from which these economic, social and cultural transformations are interpreted, is sustainability. For this reason, the results were structured from the three dimensions of sustainability on which a theoretical and methodological consensus has been achieved: the environmental, economic and socio-cultural dimensions.

3.1. The environmental dimension

Mycological tourism allows generating a unique perspective from which integration between food, nature and recreation is possible. The traditional mycological cuisine offers the opportunity to link the actors involved in tourism activity with the natural environment, through enjoyment of the landscape and the narrative associated with each species of mushrooms. The fact that the centre of activity is a food resource (mushrooms), implies that harvesting is a fundamental aspect in the development of significant experiences for tourists [Lund et al. 2008]. This experience is related to the process of immersion in the forest that is sensory, ludic and cognitive, as well as the process of obtaining food with one's own hands.

> "The people who visit us are amazed to realise that mushrooms sprout from the earth, in the middle of the forest, that some are next to the trees, others below the ground and others in the plains, they have much fun looking but find almost nothing, they get very excited but the mushrooms they find are bad [inedible]" (mushroom picker).

According to the perception of these informants, one of the attributes of this tourist modality is that it serves as a vehicle for reconnection of urban tourists with nature. A convergent expectation was detected that contact with the forest, in the harvesting process, is a mechanism that allows tourists to develop awareness of the importance of nature. Certainly, this is related to the fact that the design process of the mycological harvesting tours has been conceived from an interpretative perspective that lies between "institutionalised" mycological (scientific) and local ethnic mycological knowledge. The discourse, with which the process of immersion of the tourist in the forest is conducted, is aimed at generating environmental awareness and a sustainable conscience. This allows analysis of the multidimensionality of this tourist modality, with environmental education being one of its main successes.

> "What is learned during a mycological tours allows people to change their perspective on the importance of fungi and understand that in the forest, all the present elements are interconnected. Without a doubt, people leave with a different idea of the importance that nature has and with greater respect for it" (mushroom picker).

Some informants, especially those who are outside mycological tourism, have expressed serious concerns about this activity, including: the possibility that tourists monopolise mushrooms, the effects that the arrival of visitors can cause to other species of flora and fauna, and the general damage that tourist activity can cause to the forest. It is observed that a key aspect that the community conceives for the development of the activity is organisation, in the sense of having planned paths that do not cause disturbances, control over the visitors and respect to carrying capacity.

No antagonisms or clear opposition towards mycological tourism have been detected, however, some caution was noted regarding the environmental effects that the activity can cause, even by those directly participating in it. An aspect that coincides with that expressed by Wearing and Neil [2009] regarding sustainability in tourism is the constant negotiation process, not a consolidated fact.

> "Fortunately, now they bring small groups of 10 to 15 people and they do not let them loose there in the forest. They are taken by a guide who explains the importance of the mushrooms, they do not let them pick up everything they

> find, they can only collect the mushrooms that come in the guide and each team has the right to put a copy of each species in their basket. We must be watching to keep things being done right" (inhabitant).

The links between recreational leisure, food and nature in mycological tourism allow us to think that part of the analysis of traditional cuisine sustainability can be inserted into the broader discourse of contemporary tourism sustainability. Hence, the need to develop trans-disciplinary and complex perspectives, to address the temporal, spatial and symbolic dimensions of an object (mushrooms) that is torn between the limits of that human and the nonhuman, in a biocultural interface.

3.2. The economic dimension

As with other expressions of rural tourism, the incorporation of the tourist dimension into mushroom harvesting can be motivated by 3 fundamental aspects: i) a reaction to the conditions of marginality and poverty faced by harvesters, ii) a way of creating additional income from underutilised resources and iii) an opportunity to interact with tourists [McGehee, Kim 2004].

> "Our main motivation to join the mycological tourism project was to generate extra money with which our family could live better" (traditional cook).

While mushroom harvesting and their sale at local markets are considered a marginal economic activity, the development of mycological tourism broadens the possibilities of generating economic income, adding value to resources and retaining significance in the territory.

> "The people who come to the tours want to taste the mushroom dishes that we prepare here and try all the possible types of mushrooms. That's good for the community because this generates profits for everyone, the gatherers who take the people to the forest win, the ladies who cook win, and we who shelter the people in the cabins win" (local authority).

The previous testimony shows that mycological tourism is a way to increase tourist spending in destinations that were traditionally oriented towards a visitor of a day hiking trip and carrying their food. This activity not only incites tourists to stay overnight in the community, to get up early for mushroom harvesting, but also stimulates the on-site sale of mushrooms, handicrafts and culinary preparations made with mushrooms.

One of the most questioned aspects regarding the contribution of mycological tourism to the economic sustainability of a territory is the seasonal

nature of this activity. However, it is the seasonality that gives it a unique character and an indissoluble link with the *terroir* [Fusté-Forné 2019]. Following the above, it is possible to define mycological tourism as a seasonal specialty that responds to very diverse tourist motivations, coming from the need to question global food patterns, experience new things, build a meaningful experience and/or have a moment of recreation, all within a broad spectrum ranging from nostalgic family meals to gastronomic experience and interest in ethnic cuisine [Cohen 1979; Mitchell, Hall 2003]. Based on the observations made in this field, as well as the testimonies recovered through interviews, it is possible to infer that the mycological tourists, who come to the studied communities, are usually a middle-class adults, travelling as couples or with friends, without children, having an average cultural level and whose main reason for travelling is to experience nature and wild foods. Up to this point, it was possible to infer that the existence of a tourist market interested in local mycophilic cultures is a source for generating complementary resources for these rural communities, which can be considered an economic contribution to the local population. However, studies that correlate specific typologies of tourists and their role in the sustainable development of the territories are minimal [Everett, Aitchison 2008].

> "The mushroom season has always been important for us. Since we were kids, we used to gather mushrooms in the rainy season and then our moms would sell or exchange them at the market, with that we had more food. Now with tourism, it is better because tourists pay us well for tours and meals, they stay to sleep in the cabins and buy some things" (mushroom picker).

Although local actors can develop a critical perspective about some possible negative effects of mycological tourism, in general terms, there is an enthusiastic attitude towards these initiatives in the process of their implementation. However, one of the main problems that could be detected both from the observations made in the field and the testimonies gathered during the interviews was that beyond the specific activity performed by each actor (cooking, guiding tourists, cleaning cabins, etc.), there is no complete vision of the strategy in terms of the collective capacity of tourist use regarding mycological resources, of the relevance that a specific task has for the construction of a complete tourist experience and concerning the opportunity to develop new business. Certainly, not being an activity the initiative of which was developed within the communities, but is still part of the intervention process of the academy in rural areas, the global understanding of the strategy, often requiring a process of social appropriation that can occur in the medium or long-run, but on which its economic viability depends [Macbeth, Carson, Northcote 2007].

3.3. The sociocultural dimension

Opposition between local and global food and the intermediation of tourist activity, products, ingredients and dishes, are raised to a status of heritage that is valued through different discourses presented to a tourist.

> "The people of the city who come to the mycological path cannot conceive that we look for our food in the forest and widely recognise our efforts and knowledge" (traditional cook).

Having monetary incentives for an activity that is increasingly less valued, socially and economically, tourism is a way to promote the preservation and development of the mycophilic identity that is at a risk of disappearing. In this sense, in addition to the new economic incentive provided by tourism, the new emotional bonds that are created in the process of reconstructing the food identity of the communities are very important. Every time the activities of harvesting, transformation and consumption of mushrooms are performed through tourism, they are elevated to the rank of food heritage; there occur processes of self-affirmation and increases in self-esteem, given the material and symbolic recognition that tourists provide to the local inhabitants.

> "It is very nice to take tourists to collect mushrooms and see the respect and admiration for our work. Many of them have only tasted wild mushrooms from the markets, some only at expensive restaurants, not being able to imagine the effort and the risks involved in gathering mushrooms. Now, even our children want to get involved in the tours and for that, they have to improve their mushroom collecting knowledge and abilities" (mushroom picker).

The previous speaks for the fact that tourism can contribute to conservation of ethnic mycological heritage, the harvesting, preparation and distribution of mushrooms and, in general, to the restitution of the ways of life of a mushroom picker. However, there is also the perception that tourism can be a risk trivialising traditional cuisine [Cohen, Avieli 2004], causing it to lose its authenticity as has happened in other gastronomic corridors in the region where mushrooms are offered, indistinctly cultivated and wild. Nonetheless, there is nothing more dynamic than different expressions of culture, among which traditional cuisine has a special place, thus it is impossible to fossilise local culinary traditions while recognising the importance of diversifying them to help in their material and symbolic reproduction.

> "The restaurants that sell soups and stews roadside often deceive the tourist and offer poorly prepared dishes, using cultivated mushrooms sold at supermarkets instead of natural wild mushrooms, causing the flavour to be completely different. They take advantage of the fact that people do not know what they are eating" (traditional cook).

One of the aspects that stand out in the testimonies collected from the interviews is the centrality that has been assumed by "the local" as an argument of differentiation against global standardisation. In the case of wild edible mushrooms, they must be considered as foods with a historical depth, which are related to a specific culture and place. For this reason, the sense of belonging expressed through food identities is intensified by the exposure that tourism makes of communities to external cultural patterns. This is how mechanisms of resistance to external influences and any eventual modification of traditional cuisine are generated. However, there is also an awareness that tourism is a way to revitalise the regional mycological culture, from its influence on the development of new activities, the maintenance of ethnic mycological knowledge and the reintroduction of wild foods into daily diets.

4. Discussion

Discussion on the tourist use of wild edible mushrooms and their relationship with sustainability incorporates environmental, economic and socio-cultural dimensions. One of the main challenges in analysing these dimensions is to create a balanced and comprehensive perspective of them, understanding how each dimension is associated with the other and how the behaviour of one determines the trajectories of those remaining. Certainly, the link between mycological tourism and rural development creates bias oriented towards the economic potential of the activity, running the risk of losing sight of environmental and socio-cultural dimensions.

Nevertheless, one of the aspects that have generated most concern about the tourist use of wild edible mushrooms is related to the possible environmental impact of the activity [Mortimer et al. 2012]. Although there is no scientific evidence showing that mushroom harvesting causes damage to mycological resources in the short run, there are no data derived from statistical monitoring to assess the long-term influence of commercial harvesting [Egli et al. 2006; Pilz, Molina 2002]. In addition to this, it should be considered that the development of tourism activities implies new anthropic pressure that must be added to those of mushroom harvesting.

Regarding the reinterpretation of mycological resources as a product for cultural consumption, it has been observed that the growing interest of tourists to consume local and authentic products, as well as their willingness to pay more for them [Andersson, Mossberg, Therkelsen 2017], is the basis for thinking about the possible contribution that mycological tourism could make to sustainability economics of mushroom gathering communities. In other words, the conversion of a wild raw product into a cultural object, oriented towards the tourism market, makes the economic and cultural continuity of this agro-food heritage possible.

In addition to the above, it is important to consider that there is a dialectical relationship between the new ways of using rural spaces as tourist resources [Saxena et al. 2007] and the new forms of tourist consumption based on more specialised offers. This means that the possibility of generating wealth in the new expressions of post-Fordism tourism [Shaw, Williams 2004], is based on the need to economically stimulate rural spaces, generally those depressed, and the ability of these spaces to respond to the needs of bucolic imaginary about the countryside, linked to a middle-class tourist profile [Munt 1994]. Therefore, we observe that the economic viability of these foods is connected with new ways of producing and consuming endogenous resources within the context of cultural and food globalisation.

According to Jacinthe Bessière [2001], the forms of rural tourism anchored in a food resource, as a starting point, may assume the paradoxical fact that food homogenisation generates resistance that can be expressed through the resurgence and the vindication of rural cuisine, being the rural space, a space of reconciliation, preservation and affirmation of culinary heritage. In this sense, rural tourism based on food, such as mycological tourism, is an opportunity to demand alternative forms of food from the large global agro-food industry.

Food-related tourism offers the opportunity to strengthen social relationships, having an emotional dimension, allowing to learn and develop a sense of belonging [Di Domenico, Miller 2012]. Therefore, it represents an economic and socio-cultural practice that allows resistance to food homogenisation and its negative effects. However, given the centrality of local food in tourism, it should be noted that large tourism companies developing conventional practices could copy these initiatives.

The 3 studies cases show evidence of the role that tourism can play in the regeneration of mycological heritage, particularly concerning the contribution this may have to local economic activities, to the reinterpretation and revitalisation of mycological culture and as a tool of reconnection between social actors and nature. It is thought that mycological tourism has been an important motivation for the preservation and reintroduction of mushroom picking skills, as well as allowing the development of new productive activities (related to tourism) to expand options for generating wealth in the communities

From an economic point of view, the use of wild edible mushrooms as tourist resources, since they are highly iconic foods, serves as a territorial marker for the differentiation and specialisation of a destination [Urry 1995]. Creating a destination image, based on local landscapes and traditional harvesting methods, could be the basis for attracting new visitors and increasing the economic sustainability of a territory. It has been observed that a certain type of mycological tourism (organised) may contribute to an increase in tourist spending and extent of their stay, but there are serious

doubts that this does not, at the same time, imply environmental and cultural risks for the region.

From an environmental perspective, it is essential to think about the need to plan mycological tourism activity through the careful designation of trails, articulation of guided tours, appropriate interpretation of resources [Pröbstl, Wirth, Elands, Dell 2010] and good harvesting practices for mushrooms. However, there are serious doubts within the community regarding the risks that this activity implies for forests while, on the other hand, there is not enough evidence regarding the effects of long-term, commercial and intensive mushroom gathering.

Regarding the socio-cultural aspects, it is important to highlight the fundamental role of tourism initiatives in the process of revalourisation of traditional mycological cuisine as a culinary heritage, an aspect that has had positive impact on the processes of self-affirmation, strengthening identities and increasing self-esteem of mushroom pickers and cooks. However, it is also perceived that tourist dynamics and overexposure to external cultures are factors that threaten the authenticity of traditional mycological cuisine and that enable its trivialisation and commoditisation as a tourist resource.

Conclusions

This paper provides initial elements needed to understand the relationship between the social construction of traditional mycological cuisine, tourism and sustainability. In this sense, the conducted research may constitute a reference for the initial approach to tourism based on wild foods. However, it is important to highlight the necessity to conduct broader studies that would incorporate other areas with mycological tourism proposals in order to contribute to larger theoretical debates.

This study provides evidence regarding the role of mycological tourism on the triple objective of sustainability: economic, environmental and social. However, there are still doubts regarding the capacity of such specific initiatives, such as including them in larger sustainable development strategies. This is due to the persistence of ambivalence between heritage preservation and economic exploitation, as fundamental tension that can be extrapolated to different productive fields, immersed in the hedonistic and experiential logic of late capitalism [Boltansky, Chiapello 2005; Lipovetsky, Serroy 2013]. The challenge related to such strategies as this one is to increase the sustainability of traditional activities, landscapes and communities, with the fundamental objective of encouraging development within the sustainable domestic tourism industry [Sims 2009]. A limitation of this study is that it only provides an endogenous perspective from the community; thus, fu-

ture research requires the integration of more comprehensive analysis that would include the perspectives of tourists, the market and experts in environmental, economic and social areas.

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MEETING EXOTIC LANDSCAPES AND DELICATE NATURE OF THE INNER SELF: TWO SIDES OF THE "VIE AU GRAND AIR" NEAR "GÉANT DE PROVENCE" (FRANCE)

*Gilles Lecocq**

Abstract

Purpose. The purpose of this paper is to identify an intelligible network of human activities that are dedicated to health tourism and sports tourism and that have been the subject of intercultural controversies generating innovations.
Method. Developing an inter-disciplinary historical and mixed-method approach to a regional sustainable tourism project and describing how subjective well-being influences sport practices, body ecology and existential authenticity.
Findings. A sport tourism destination allows an individual to, firstly, improve his or her state of corporeal health and, secondly, reveal a new mode of feeling that is not only about performance but also about the inner freedom and immersive vulnerability that are scarce but essential resources.
Research and conclusions limitations. This case study is limited to a valley which is located on the northeast side of Mont Ventoux. Some comparisons will have to be made with other specific tourist sites that are closed to this valley.
Practical implications. The authenticity of a tourist system cannot be content with artifices that are not closely shared with inhabitants. Therefore, the impact of innovations in rural areas requires taking archaeology of individual stories and collective histories into account. Stories and histories allow perceiving the outlines of sustainable tourism where growth in consumption is associated with the maintenance, protection and diversification of bio-ecosystems.
Originality. Innovations which emerge in a hinterland have to be tested from the authentic perspective of people coming from elsewhere and who cross the authentic views of the people of here. Then, when a hinterland agrees to open itself to the strangeness of what is foreign to it, a fundamental process is to be encouraged: that recognises the different forms of heritage that make up the identity of this hinterland.
Type of paper. Case study.

Keywords: body ecology, sports tourism, health tourism, Mont Ventoux.

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Introduction

How can we identify an intelligible network of human activities that is dedicated to health tourism as well as sports tourism and that has been the subject of intercultural controversies that will generate innovations? To answer this question, the author proposes developing an inter-disciplinary historical and mixed-method approach for a regional sustainable tourism project, close to a mega sport event: *Tour de France* which passed through the summit of Mont Ventoux for the first time in 1958. The convening of different human and social sciences to enhance a contextual form of knowledge would be favoured [Timans, Wouters, Heilbron 2019]. Then will there be an opportunity to describe how subjective well-being influences sport practices, body ecology and existential authenticity in a small territory which is located at the foot of the northeast slope of Mont Ventoux: the "Upper Toulourenc Valley". It is from this perspective that the author proposes to elaborate the life story of a geographical territory, which in the period of forty years, has gone from the status of an isolated hinterland to that of a cultural archipelago where economic and ecological challenges collide. This life story combines diachronic and synchronic data to enhance a contextual form of knowledge. It is built around multiple ways to give sense of a social world, and multiple standpoints on what is important and to be valued [Bowen, Rose, Pilkington 2017]. The life story of this archipelago is built, on the one hand, from historical, geographical and economic data, and on the other, from the speeches of three generations of people who have lived in ways embodied by the psycho-social evolutions of this archipelago since 1958: the "Pioneers", the "Indigenous Inhabitants" and the "New Others". Such a perspective, which consists in understanding the driving forces of a complex model of living together, is part of the lineaments of an embodied sociology. Thus, the aim of this study is to reconcile the subjective and objective dimensions of a human phenomenon which stages people and institutions, the narration of a history engaged in present times and the evocation of a memory history distanced from the past [Wacquant 2016].

Appearing on the programme of the *Tour de France* in 1951, it was on July 13, 1958 that a stage ended for the first time at the summit of Mont Ventoux. On the 14th of July 2013, at the end of a stage of the 100th *Tour de France*, the *Géant de Provence* once again became, for a few hours, a heritage dedicated to a tradition that combines kinaesthetic sensations experienced by viewers through power of attorney [Spinney 2006]. Throughout the year, Mont Ventoux also became an opportunity for those who climb its flanks in different ways to discover at its base hinterlands that become visible as the roads become accessible to the greater population. On July 16, 2013, after a day of rest at Vaison la Romaine, the *Tour de France* rolled out its itiner-

ant and ephemeral along the "Upper Toulourenc Valley", which is part of a Regional Nature Park: the Baronnies Provençales. This show, which uses the modern sporting history of the *Tour de France*, also develops photogenic, kinaesthetic and telegenic interests for the crossed-territories which become vectors of event promotion at least as important as cycling [Lamont, McKay 2012]. Taking advantage of a sporting event that does not concern them, the inhabitants of this hinterland were nevertheless confronted with what is revealed by the dimensions of an existential authenticity, which consists of opening up to foreigners who are seduced by a landscape while being close to the fear of losing heritage identity [Brown 2013].

Between an immediate authentic welcome and a fear of lasting involvement in a relationship with "those from elsewhere", the author is are interested in how a rural area can be the seat of a lasting encounter between local cultural identities and exotic multicultural identities. Thus, from bodily experiences sought and experienced by people from elsewhere, before, during and after physical exertion, it is important to understand how the combined effects of sports and health tourism promote sustainable development and the valuation of a hinterland. Several endogenous and exotic forces progressively, between 1958 and 2019, brought out an original rural tourism system [Gard McGehee et al. 2013]. The author's purposes being:

- to identify ways in which interactions between indigenous and exotic cultural practices favour the emergence of unprecedented societal configurations [Amis 2005].
- to identify an intelligible network of human activities that are dedicated to health as well as sports tourism and that have been the subject of intercultural controversies that generate innovations, that themselves, become stabilized under the effect of provisional consensus [Paget 2010].
- to highlight the symbolic sites of belonging that promote the development of heritage tourism systems unpublished in rural areas [Panik 2011].

Therefore, the first aim of this paper is to examine in which ways a health tourism destination allows an individual to firstly improve his/her state of health and/or wellbeing so as to discover the world of imagination wherein s/he can take a step sideways and face realities from completely new angles. The second aim of this paper is to describe a new mode of thinking and feeling that is not only about joy, contentment and self-fulfilment, but also about inner freedom and immersive vulnerability that are scarce but essential resources [Vanhooren, Leijssen, Dezutter 2017]. As a result, the author examines how the time of freedom is built and how a specific psycho-biological rhythm is reconstructed via the ecological effect of a specific environment, through some slow corporeal movements and some fast imaginal movements [Hooker, Masters, Park 2018]. Five historical periods

are highlighted from the same event: the arrival to one stage of *Tour de France* at the peak of Mont Ventoux, the first arrival having taken place on July 13, 1958 and the last but "fake" arrival dating from July 14, 2016. For each period, the time limits chosen are linked to a major sporting event, which put the "Géant de Provence" in the media spotlight. On each of these dates, "Tour de France" thus visited this natural monument and served as a sounding board for this sporting event. A setting in which sporting culture and monumental nature interact with each other is an opportunity to highlight the evolution of a socio-economic history – the one of the "Upper Toulourenc Valley". Even if *Tour de France* is not at the origin of these evolutions, visibility of this evidence makes the valley welcoming for the "Pioneers", the "New Others" and the "Indigenous Promoters".

- The first period (July 13, 1958 to July 10, 1970) specifies in which ways "Pioneers" discover a hinterland not yet recognized by a civilization of sports and recreation.
- The second period (July 13, 1972 to July 19, 1987) specifies in which ways the establishment of "New Colonies" view the establishment of "New Others".
- The third period (July 20, 1987 to July 13, 2000) specifies the consequences of the reconstruction of a spa on new spaces and new times that structure seasonal socialities gradually escaping their indigenous promoters, while they originally thought to be the authors.
- The fourth period (July 21, 2002 to July 14, 2013) specifies the effects of an innovative marketing strategy, the function of which is to make this "Upper Toulourenc Valley" a dream destination for health tourism that integrates concerns associated with those of sports activities.
- The fifth period (July 15, 2013 to July 14, 2019) highlights a significant change in tension between sports and health tourism, particularly with the chaotic arrival of *Tour de France* which on July 14, 2016, cannot be at the top of Mont Ventoux. That day, the mistral, this powerful wind from the north, was stronger than the best cyclists in the world**.** The stop at the *Chalet-Reynard* stage, six kilometres before the summit, symbolically marks a big change: one where humans must accept compliance with nature surrounding them.

By identifying the way sport, health and tourism blend together an original way within the same terroir, the processes that led an ecological niche to structure itself into an economic niche will be specified. This will further be an opportunity to identify the mutations of a territory proud of its geographical heritage into a territory punctuated by values that have become temporarily foreign to it. Tourism thus becomes a paradoxical human activity being both cultural and natural. It is from this paradox that the recognition of a narrow gateway is born, making it possible to close the gap between fast and slow rhythms of life [Kahneman 2011].

At the margins of the *Plateau d'Albion*: Pioneers discover an isolated territory (July 13, 1958 to July 10, 1970)

Between the victory of Charly Gaul at the summit of Mont Ventoux on July 13, 1958 and that of Eddy Merckx on July 10, 1970, the rural world that nestles on the north-east side of Mont Ventoux did not benefit from the "Glorious thirty", which, not far from it, on the sides of the valleys of the Rhone and the Durance, transformed agricultural spaces into industrial sites. Through new means of communication, the industrialisation of these territories was also accompanied by a new temporality devoted to a new civilization of leisure and tourism. The hinterland is only accessible for two forms of "Pioneers", who enjoy spending their leisure time off the beaten track [Courtois et al. 2017]:

- Patrimonial Pioneers who discover the hinterland by participating in the reconstruction of public and private buildings in ruins, during summer camps of young people.
- Sports Pioneers who through walking and cycling participate in the rehabilitation of roads and trails that lead them to the heart of the "Upper Toulourenc Valley".

Then, the renovation of the habitat and access roads become a pretext to weave new inter-individual links. Thus, during each summer holiday, a double aesthetic emotion connects the people "left behind", the Patrimonial Pioneers and the Sports Pioneers. While an enchanting vision of a fragment of paradise seizes people, who allow themselves to undertaken social wanderings, the "natives" rediscover in the eyes of others, the beauty of their habitats and their landscapes. Olfactory, taste, visual, auditory and kinaesthetic memories are solicited and collective heritage becomes a pretext to build authentic inter-individual links. The meeting of several cultural histories that, in principle, have nothing in common with each other, reveals links that expose ways of thinking positively about differences:

- for those who have always lived and worked at the spot and for whom an exodus is unthinkable, the habitat and the landscape become symbols that remind us of belonging to a family line and are rooted in a terroir.
- for the Pioneers, habitat and means to access the "Upper Toulourenc Valley" are mysterious symbols on which it is possible to leave the imprint of other stories from elsewhere.

What is then associated with a restored habitat and a domesticated landscape are seen as times and spaces to contemplate. Between restoration and domestication, "those from elsewhere" then allow "those who stayed here" to recognise that a hinterland is not isolated but is at the crossroads where cultures can confront one another and mix [Honneth 2008]. New

trends of cultural temporalities confront each other and reveal new ways of representing a hinterland. Between Rhône and Durance, the end of the 1950s is characterised by a strong techno-economic expansion and significant ambitions in terms of regional development, especially those designated as hinterlands. These views of places that have no economic value reflect the expression of a state centralism that refuses to rely on locally developed skills. And yet, there are small family businesses that allow an industrial fabric to promote the employability of "people here". Around the habitat, spaces on which this industrial fabric develops become the stake of speculations and provoke controversies when appreciation of the national protection policies of the natural inheritance ignores the economic and industrial potential of the "Upper Toulourenc Valley". In this context, new economic order is led to identify the ways in which territories become new symbolic places for tourist practices imported by Pioneers.

The public utility of nature confronts "people left here" with a natural heritage that is no longer theirs, since it goes beyond local interests in the name of national legitimacy. A sense of isolation is accentuated when the dynamic of heritage appreciation excludes local particularities and takes into account interests perceived as unsuited for the future of the inhabitants of the "Upper Toulourenc Valley". Between chosen consumption and undergone marketing, the development of leisure activities in this valley cannot free itself from new values associated with physical activities for fun and ecological purposes [Andrieu, Loland 2017]. Nevertheless, the multiplicity of national schemes and their local interpretation reflect the segmented, allowed children sent by work councils to enjoy a life outdoors specific to the "Upper Toulourenc Valley". The societal configuration that emerges from this triple dynamic is dominated by a process of assimilation, where the "people here" consider the needs of the Pioneers, without changing their own lifestyles. At the dawn of the seventies, arrival of a military-industrial strike force at the plateau of Albion, near the "Upper Toulourenc Valley", allowed new Pioneers to discover this hinterland thanks to excessive road infrastructure. However, this new colonization required "people here" to dedicate part of their territory to activities that would benefit the "New Others". The future is a time that is not yet been physically lived and is encysted in injunctions that limit a time horizon [Elias 1992]. "People here" were concerned with four trends regarding the links between natural and cultural time:

- do not take one's time,
- do not waste one's time,
- remove from one's path any temptation to drift towards an unforeseen path,
- avoid being interested in any unexpected experiences.

The time had come for this territory to welcome the "New Others" to a less and less isolated territory.

The establishment of new Colonies favours the establishment of "New Others" (July 13, 1972 to July 19, 1987)

Between the victory of Bernard Thévenet at the summit of Mont Ventoux on July 13, 1972 and that of Jean-François Bernard on July 19, 1987, the territory of the "Upper Toulourenc Valley" was transfigured by the construction of three symbolic spaces of a new civilisation of leisure activities available to as many people as possible: a communal swimming pool, campsite and a family-oriented holiday village. New forms of colonisation were thus established mainly during the summer season, in this territory not previously covered by organised family tourism and domesticated aquatic practices. If the authenticity of a heritage makes it easier for "New Others" to come, "people here" have to respond, unlike in the previous period, to cultural and legislative norms governing recreational activities at a national level. By discovering these norms that remove a spontaneous dimension for the reception of tourists, other dimensions emerge: the entrepreneurial passion, the need to take up challenges, the desire to integrate new cultural and corporal practices within of the "Upper Toulourenc Valley". Then, creative entrepreneurial innovations favour the opening of a hinterland to needs that do not concern its inhabitants [Cole 2016].

The massive influx of new tourists, undertaking corporal practices where competition becomes a secondary value, and cultural practices that enhance the landscape, is connected with a desire shared by several local actors to revive a Thermal Spa and a Health Tourism in the valley through waters with recognised therapeutic effects. The decentralisation laws that were put in place during the 1980s in France allowed for the transfer of political skills that had the effect of favouring the emergence of localised entrepreneurial initiatives. This becomes visible when local projects are the subject of national and European grant applications. Obtaining them allows the economic value of a local innovation to grow mainly thanks to support granted by foreign economic and political entities to the Upper Valley. By agreeing to ask for support outside the hinterland, territorial actors favour the advent of an economic intelligence of public utility that allows everyone to feel concerned by the re-enchantment of a heritage collective. This form of intelligence develops even further when the industrial skills developed by family companies of the "Upper Toulourenc Valley" combine professional skills that local actors develop in the public service or companies outside this Valley. An entrepreneurial intelligence becomes sustainable when people outside the valley are sensitive to localised innovations.

The growth of tourism in the "Upper Toulourenc Valley" had a price: to become open to the sensitivity of people from other geographically close

territories and other geographically distant cultures. However, does the economic value associated with thermal water require cross-territorial development that would benefit those who do not have this heritage resource? Does the re-enchantment of the thermal water have an economic value that would benefit the inhabitants of the "Upper Toulourenc Valley"? The specific water, both natural and medicalised, of the spa thermal project then becomes rooted in a shared representation of exoticism that constitutes an invitation to travel to the Other and Elsewhere. The craze for sites and places associated with the notions of well-being and health are based on the combined benefits of water, the sun and wind [Diener et al. 2017]. The commercial relations of hydrotherapy and physiotherapy are not primarily valued. What is put aside is the concealment of the back side of the decor, which is shown; it is the enchantment that provides sensations of well-being caused by the assets of a territory. The tourist who become a thermal spa patients agree to be guided by values that stimulate their imagination, even if a form of deception is provided through marketing that is sometimes misleading. However, when a spa is about to be reborn, extra-territorial logics emerge, and the inhabitants of the "Upper Toulourenc Valley" feel both the pleasures related to the development of their territory and, at the same time, discover that the dividends of this growth do not concern them very much. A creative innovative rural tourism niche emerges when the irruption of symbolic places dedicated exclusively to recreational practices requires the establishment of new modes of accommodation and catering that can no longer rely on what already exists.

These new symbolic sites are no longer rooted in the history of the "Upper Toulourenc Valley" but are part of a genealogy of recreation areas unknown to "people here". The controversies provoked by the dialogues between the "New Others" and the "people of here" become the subject of innovations that obey three dynamics: they emanate from "people from elsewhere", only partially benefit "people here" and need to be rationally planned. The societal configuration that emerges from this dynamic is dominated by a process of accommodation where the "people here" take the needs of the "New Others" into account, without modifying their own lifestyles and without understanding the lifestyles that these develop when they are on vacation. Thus, when in the 1970s, the "New Others" were wondering about the lack of hot water in the showers of the pool and at the campsite, it took a few years for the "people here" to admit that such a request deserves to be satisfied. The 1980s witnessed an inflection of relations that "people here" established with the "New Others". It is no longer the spontaneous inter-individual relationships that structure a tourist niche but rather technological creativity that serves as a transitional space for "New Others" who become fee-based clients.

Creative management of a 'tourist island' gives way to rational management of a 'tourist archipelago' (July 20, 1987 to July 13, 2000)

The day following the victory of Jean-François Bernard at the summit of Mont Ventoux on July 20, 1987 and that of Marco Pantani on July 13, 2000, the opening of a Thermal Spa completed a cycle of innovations, their main focus on actors of *Haute-Vallée* passionate about the rise. Another cycle opened, one in which the legacy of previous innovations had to be absorbed along with the cultural, ecological, political and economic shocks they caused. While in the 1960s, these shocks were lived in a relationship of proximity between several individuals, the 1990s saw the advent of intercultural dialogues that became inaudible and unsustainable by the indigenous population. Thanks to the thermal water and thermal spa, new forms of seasonal socialities were to be built .... But by whom?

With the opening of the thermal spa building, spring and autumn become seasons that should be valued as much as the summer season, now that "people from elsewhere" are no longer present primarily to being seduced by a collective heritage but mainly for tourism choices related to well-being and health. This recovery was based on the need to develop new touristic products adapted to the needs of "people from elsewhere" who then dissociate themselves from the summer authenticity of "people from here". The innovations associated with these new seasons were based on other local stories that became pretexts to justify a new health economy that diverts the heritage values of the "Upper Toulourenc Valley" in favour of a marketing that boasts products elsewhere. For their part, the professions associated with the thermal tourism sectors did not find valley qualified workforce adapted to their needs and it was "people from elsewhere" who were recruited to welcome other "people who come besides". New relationships, new spaces and new times then structure seasonal socialities that gradually escaped their indigenous promoters. Disappointments awoke in a hinterland excluded from what it initiated and that no longer contained the creative ferments conducive to decisions made by "people here". By delegating to others, the development of health tourism, a transfer of skills deprived the "Upper Toulourenc Valley" of these capacities of initiatives. Therefore, the creativity of local actors was no longer seen as freedom but as confinement in roles that only concern activities anchored in the nostalgia of a bygone past while professionals who develop new health products, pointed to a future whose contours no longer belonged to "those here". Nonetheless, can a tourist place survive without an authentic way of life [Harter 2002]?

Not concerned with innovations originated in the development of the Thermal Spa Ceremony, the survival of the "Upper Toulourenc Valley"

passed through an ability to rethink a territorial dynamic that weaves continuous links and being close to the natural environment that ensures the exceptional nature of this territory. The central core of a relational tourist paradise is characterised by notions such as authenticity, recognition, autonomy and the sense of belonging to a territorial archipelago perceived as a protector for sustainable perspectives. As a complement with what was being developed at the Spa Thermal Building, a local form of non-profit marketing was at the service of social causes, educational or intercultural, which lie on the margins of a culture of health. By showing passion and independence, the entrepreneurs of the "Upper Toulourenc Valley" advocated that their lifestyles would remain in harmony with an environment perceived as being in-keeping with their personal, economic and social needs [Sampaio et al. 2012]. A militant commitment to genuine development of this environment was accompanied by political commitment that allows collective strategies to rely on the creativity and passion of individual actors. This creativity and passion are based on two motivations that oppose the rational management of tourism practices [Ryan, Deci 2017]:

– perception of individual immediate time is valued at the expense of a long-term time perspective that needs to be planned.
– preservation of a family patrimony is privileged thanks to a professional activity that adapts to the new needs of clientele.

The dynamism of these motivations favours the creation of a new socio-economic entity where a fragmented and diversified offer is part of a tourist archipelago in constant recomposition under the combined effect of the needs of tourists and the needs of "people from here". Time is coming to create innovative, fragmented and diverse rural niche tourism. While the political controversies concerning the usefulness of the local development of health tourism are not subject to consensus within the "Upper Toulourenc Valley", the controversies provoked by the dialogues between the managers of the Spa Thermal Centre and the "people from here" being the subject of innovations following three dynamics: developed jointly by managers and "people here", benefiting "people here" being the subject of rational planning. The societal configuration that emerges from this dynamic is dominated by an adaptation process where the "people here" agree to submit to economic logics whose outcomes they do not know. In the same way, managers who take care of other spas at a national level accept to recognise the specificities of the lifestyles of this hinterland. A consensus then takes the form of reciprocal recognition of differences and favours the emergence of a new, third culture comprising new lifestyles and new territorial symbols [Rifkin 2011].

When a new innovative territorial intelligence is revealed in the acceptance of an original third culture (July 21, 2002 to July 14, 2013)

Between the victory of Richard Virenque at the summit of Mont Ventoux on July 21, 2002 and that of Christopher Froome on July 14, 2013, a diversification of recreational sports practices and non-medical health practices favoured the emergence of new intercultural relations. The primacy of individual desires is articulated with a need to maintain links with an authentic collective heritage that 'rubs shoulders' with new forms of sociality where cross-cultural imaginaries and symbols are mixed [Bauman 2011]. Having become a heritage of mixed and hybrid well-being, the "Upper Toulourenc Valley" also undergoes the transformation of its social fabric and asks itself a question regarding its recomposition of identity in the face of the visible arrival of a new type of inhabitants.

This unprecedented category includes two types of these "people from elsewhere": those converted to professions concerning well-being, health, sports, tourism and recreation, and those who feel the need to settle this hinterland area to find conditions for reconnection with bio-psycho-social well-being. By no means opposed, does the meeting of the aspirations of these "people from elsewhere" and "people here" promote awareness: the stakes of each are complementary and allow recognition of forces that are contained in a territorial mosaic. It is this recognition that allows areas of power to re-draw, to share and serve two complementary missions: to assume the legacy left by previous generations and to contemplate the contours of a future adapted to the needs of young generations of the Upper Valley. Empowerment is a process which builds the contours of a new territorial mosaic. The succession of technological and intercultural innovations has, within a few decades, re-drawn the contours of a rural territory that is today characterised by a set of micro-cultures with porous borders between them. This porosity allows several systems of representations of well-being and physical effort to combine with a patrimonial identity perceived simultaneously as belonging to a pure individual attitude and leading to a collective construct as well as a fact of culture [Halfacree 2004]. This combination, which allows controversies to become the melting pot of innovations, restores dynamism to local initiatives and promotes an empowerment process. This becomes efficient when two additional conditions are met:

- The first condition supposes that these initiatives are carried out by actors concerned by the future of their individual territories.
- The second condition requires those actors to inscribe their actions within a recognised and identified collective, both in and outside the territory to which they claim membership.

Then, an innovation becomes sustainable when a human community does not seek its security in an illusory autarchy but seeks support in its capacity to accept new styles of tourists. A mixed tourist system becomes the crucible from which new forms of personal interaction and symbolic sites emerge. But a risk is always present when the authentic tourism development of the "Upper Toulourenc Valley" is intended to become a heritage eco-museum. Therefore, the commodification of the Upper Valley touristic heritage, developing for several decades, has highlighted a reality perceived by "people from elsewhere" as exceptional and priceless. Yet, this denial of the economy does not prevent "people here" from questioning all categories of economic growth associated with health, tourism and sports. If an unprecedented territorial identity can appear as a prerequisite for opening up a hinterland, is it still necessary the territories surrounding this hinterland agree to let it grow by taking advantage of their own resources? Thus, in 2013, the Upper Valley faced a challenge yet to be met: that of accepting to resolutely join a process of cross-territoriality which is accompanied by the staging of a network of opportunities incessantly in renegotiation. A tourism system that is able to combine the norms, values and symbols of health tourism and sports tourism must accept opening up to territorial networks that transcend its own borders [Yalcin, Malkoc 2015].

Facing the power of Nature, a meeting with oneself becomes a touristic site to be respected (July 15, 2013 to July 14, 2019)

This discovery of new realities for health purposes is a leisure activity that has developed at odds with bodily discoveries. Routine observation of tourist spots has made it possible to take into account, in a phenomenological way, how health tourism revisits the benefits of Life in the Big Air, this specific *Vie au Grand Air*. As such, if health tourism was to imagine, through spaces on the surface of the Earth, being swept away by benevolent winds, the development of an optimal physiology of the act of breathing, there is another way to comprehend a breath that, at first sight, seems confined in a small space and favours the emergence of new forms of inspiration and expiration. These provide a perception of time consisting of colourations, flavours, scents and luminosities that are growing in the depths of the body of an individual who is immersed in the depths of his/her own feelings. The chaotic arrival of Tour de France which, on July 14, 2016, could not be at the top of Mont Ventoux, the wind, natural element par excellence, undermining the desire for grandeur of a sports tourism. The stop at the *Chalet-Reynard* stage symbolically marks a big change: one where humans must accept to compose with the Nature that surrounds them. The recognition

of Nature allows to experience inner feelings and favours new bodily experiences. The senses are challenged by new landmarks generated by the discovery of unimaginable routes. This journey, which goes from exteriority to interiority, then redeploys itself to an unprecedented form of intimate exteriority where Man finds himself able to unfold his whole being, within and around him. This intimate exteriority can be measured by a three-phase process:

- temporal redeployment that is at the heart of the emergence of "tourism closer to the body", allowing an individual to discover new forms of spatiality, mobility and corporeality: in this case, s/he experiences the fundamental moment when carnal body, memorial body and emotional body come together.
- moment to encounter a bodily destination that is usually elusive: a deep-ecology through immersion in an element of nature which is the body where sensory-motoricity is a carnal language which has to be heard.
- breathing that is both involutive and expansive when the human body, immersed in the depths of feeling, expresses an invigoration of the body that had previously been silent within in the depths of its imaginal.

This psychological path is sufficient to allow oneself to travel towards the encounter of an Elsewhere which is in the Self. But what makes this Elsewhere different from an Elsewhere projected in a hypothetical future? What is the best way to move around in a reasonably enclosed space? Can moving around in one space be considered a voyage? Living a new temporality is the opportunity to become detached from an identity that has become inauthentic. Feeling a new temporality in one's body is an opportunity to enable a living corporeity to assert itself [Bodner et al. 2014]. Unthinking bodily consciousness is metamorphosed and incurs a deeper incarnation that meets a new square of felt-meaning:

- take one's time,
- waste one's time,
- accept the discovery of unexpected spaces,
- recognise unforeseen moments as opportunities for encounters with that ineffable among oneself.

These four dimensions are an opportunity for the individual to open up to new breathing that can develop, despite the finite dimensions of cultural thermal spaces. This breathing is an opportunity to rediscover spaces of the body that had previously been ignored or denied. This experience is characterised by a paradoxical delusional perception. Indeed, it is only a specific temporality that favours access to a moment of conversation, when the temporary precariousness of the present moment becomes a unique moment combing the past and future [Rosa 2013]. Then, touristic life is not only trans-spatial but also trans-temporal when it flows into the body of an in-

dividual in the manner of a vortex that leads to a moment where the timeless source emerges from the Being. After all, delusion represents a change in meaning that might not seem so strange [McKenna 2017]. What emerges is inspiration for the body in its environment and an exaltation of the environment within the body. The experience of intimacy with one's self is accompanied by a living presence that encourages the fall, the loss of temporal points of reference and letting-go. Then, tourism assumes the form of a pilgrimage where a large inner sight and a light heart to see as much as possible of the labyrinth of the world and get to know it as deeply as possible can be found side-by-side, with an attempt at not only visiting and seeing, but also first and foremost finding inspiration, feeling and deep experiencing [Jirasek 2011]. Relations between tourism and pilgrimage can be distinguished by their connection to personal "spiritual centre", this centre, which for an individual symbolizes ultimate meanings, at the beginning of the path and at the end of the journey [Emmons 1999]. Several reasons explain why tourists are prepared to experience the earth's depth for purposes of well-being [Cohen 1979]:

- a primary reason involves tourists who look for well–being in their journeys. They require regeneration of their will to be powerful for their everyday lives and the renewal of adherence to the meaningfulness of their usual way of life.
- a secondary reason describes tourists who seek to avoid alienation in everyday existence, but not to find meaning. Existential vacuum is a model of time where nothing changes between the beginning and the end of the path in the depth part of an inner world.
- a third reason describes tourists looking for knowledge and searching to discover another way of life, even if no other explicit demand for change is expressed verbally.

These three reasons are part of a consumerist approach in which a search for hedonic immediacy is valued. The next two reasons are part of an existential approach, a search for eudemonic depth linked to a dual approach: the encounter with the 'black hole of the Psyche' and access to 'the source of Time'.

- a fourth reason is the existence of individuals who are researching a new reason to be alive and a way to change their way of life in so doing. Those individuals are not passive during their path. Looking for themselves, they appreciate experiencing something which seems to be rather exotic and authentic. The main purpose to live this moment near the centre of the earth seems to be a response to existential questions: Who am I? What is my authentic path through life?
- a fifth reason involves pilgrims who are looking for authentic experiences and who encourage access to a spiritual centre. The transition from the status of a tourist to that of an individual and a pilgrim allows ap-

preciation for the responsibilities assumed by those who create natural places dedicated to the purpose of improving well-being.

Immersion in an inner landscape encourages both a paradoxical change of scenery but also a new form of desynchronisation with respect to the usual time of the action. Immersion is not stagnation but a moment that encourages unconscious triggering of hitherto implicit feelings. The immersive experience overflows the lived body during the simultaneous experiencing of slowness, speed and depth. In the sensory experience, this gap between the living body and the lived body reveals how much language can describe sensory liveliness without being able to bring it to life. When these facets are reflected in each other, a path towards personal fulfilment gives new voice and vitality. The journey in the inner parts of one's body is a great opportunity to allow individuals to feel the effects of fully inhabiting their body, having nevertheless exceeded its boundaries. When this turns into a pilgrimage, the journey is a site of the three opportune moments that allow an individual to relate to what includes him or her in an imaginal temporality, excluding him or her from an alienating cultural world and permitting liberation before the World, while affirming his/her exotic status [Lecocq 2018].

Conclusions

In 2019, *Tour de France* did not stop near the Mont Ventoux. At the same time, the "Upper Toulourenc Valley" still had a differential attractiveness for revelation and sharing through the hybridisation of bodily practices that are embedded in its vernacular heritage and ancestral memories. The "Upper Toulourenc Valley", on the border of two areas, two regions and two Regional Nature Parks, is both a hinterland and a link between several cultures that allow it to reveal third-spaces featuring these "people staying here" and those "people from elsewhere".

However, new forms of accommodation and urbanisation gradually exclude natives from the possession of their memorial habitat on which their collective heritage is anchored. Beyond an irenic vision of the hybridisation of cultures, the gentrification of a territory, this process which designates the modes of social renewal and transformation of the existing building, is an object of research to understand the dynamics restructuring the habitable plots of the "Upper Toulourenc Valley". If the houses are restored and the villages are prettier, how long will they be alive? To answer this question, it is up to the inhabitants of this "Upper Toulourenc Valley" to agree to stand on a fault, between the forces of a past but still present, and the future already here but incomprehensible. It is around this fault that the sustainable development of a diversified and creative eco-tourism of health is

to consolidate three perspectives of the future: logics of opportunity which are revealed in the short term, logics of adaptation in the medium term and logics of sustainability that requires apprehension of the needs of future generations.

In each of these temporalities, the authenticity of a tourist system cannot be content with artifices that do not make people dream for a long time, due to a lack of depth of shared symbols. When a trip to the "Upper Toulourenc Valley" gives the impression that spatial mobility is culturally immobile, the encounter with "the people here" becomes a sham. The incremental economic impact of innovations in rural areas is not an end in itself. Other indicators than the number of jobs created by health tourism and sports tourism enterprises for welfare purposes should be considered. Therefore, this requires taking into account archaeology of individual stories that collide to forge mixed-race collective histories. The breathlessness of the uniform and the emergence of the multiple are then an opportunity to perceive the outlines of a sustainable economy that would no longer be correlated with growth in consumption, but would be associated with maintenance, protection and diversification of bio-ecosystems [Jackson 2017]. Marketing that comprises cultural heritage of a real destination, therefore, requires joint consideration of individual taste, olfactory, auditory, visual and kinaesthetic heritages of those who will take the time to reach this destination [Kolar, Zabkar 2010]. An interpretation of multi-sensory demands that assume sport and health as pretexts is thus still to be developed [Weed 2012]. For that, it is necessary that future innovations emerging in the hinterland of the high Valley are tested from the authentic perspectives of the people who come from elsewhere and which interrelated the authentic perceptions of the people of here [Urry, Larsen 2012]. Only then may opening the hinterland be accompanied by the recognition of the different forms of life that make up the identity of a heritage.

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THE NEGATIVE IMPACT OF HIKING ON THE MOUNTAIN ENVIRONMENT – THE POSITION OF POLISH SCIENTISTS IN COMPARISON TO GLOBAL LITERATURE

*Krzysztof Kołodziejczyk**

Abstract

Purpose. In this article, the position of Polish scientists is presented with regard to the impact of hiking on the environment, particularly mountain areas, by reference to the broader context of selected works of global literature.
Method. The paper is mainly in the form of a review of literature connected with Earth sciences, chiefly geomorphology. Particular emphasis is placed on the effects of hiking, which have been divided by impact type (e.g. compaction and soil erosion, initiation of morphogenetic processes, impaired water circulation, destruction of plant biomass and changes in the plant and animal world).
Findings. The Polish scientific contribution to the subject area presented should be considered significant, however, it does differ in certain characteristics from the achievements of the wider world. Considerable attention has been devoted to means of counteracting particular negative effects of tourism, both the technical (remodelling of trails and their surroundings) and organisational aspects (management of tourist traffic).
Research and conclusions limitations. The position of Polish science is mostly presented, however, this is done in comparison to the broader global literature on the topic.
Practical implications. The suggested means of counteracting the negative effects of hiking may be useful while planning tourist infrastructure, especially in protected areas.
Originality. In the paper, a complex review is presented regarding the opinions of Polish scientists, not only on the topic of the negative impact of hiking, but also methods of its prevention.
Type of paper. Literature review.

Keywords: tourist trails, hiking, environmental management.

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Introduction

For many years, Polish and global scientists have failed to recognise the impact of tourism on the natural environment and cultural landscape. The first serious studies in this regard were thus conducted in the 1970s, with an intensification coming in the second half of the 1980s, when tourism had already been highly developed [Myga-Piątek, Jankowski 2009]. O. Rogalewski [1977] was one of the first Polish authors to address the general causes of devastation to the natural environment as a result of tourist traffic. In his view, they include:

- an excessive number of tourists in relation to environmental capacity;
- inappropriate forms of sightseeing, often associated with improper adaptation of tourist sites to the needs of tourism (e.g. tourist dispersion throughout an area, trampling vegetation and causing ground erosion due to a lack of suitable paths and established viewing areas);
- inappropriate use of tourist sites (e.g. recreational tourism in protected areas);
- lack of appropriate tourist behaviour (noise, littering, picking flowers, disturbing animals);
- improper location as well as type of tourist structures and facilities (mainly related to poor adaptation to terrain, tourist traffic intensity and its directions, as well as architectural forms typical of an area).

The conflict between tourism (including hiking) and the mountain environment (but also between different forms of tourism) was analysed by J. Czerwiński, B. Mikułowski and J. Wyrzykowski [1991], taking the example of the Polish Carpathians and Sudety Mountains into account. They emphasized that "the development of tourist infrastructure is in itself a threat to the environment" [p. 58], which may be due to improper location (including excessive concentration) or lack of adequate treatment facilities for wastewater from tourist lodges. As a result of their analysis, they indicated rational directions for the development of tourism, with particular emphasis on natural protected areas, acceptable combinations of different forms of tourist use and the optimal tourism capacity in mountain areas. Z. Denisiuk [2009] analysed the potential for development of various forms of tourism and satisfaction of tourism needs in landscape parks. According to the author, "tourist traffic should be subject to more stringent restrictions at smaller sites, at sites with a high proportion of reserve protection, during periods of reproductive activity of animals and in adverse weather conditions (e.g. during prolonged rain and at times of spate water). In addition, relatively greater restrictions are present in mountain and upland areas" [Denisiuk 2009, p. 37]. More general models of the relationship between tourism (including various types of tourism and recreational activities) and the natural environment were presented by A. Krzymowska-Kostrowicka

[1997], Y. Leung and J. Marion [2000], M. Mika [2004], P. Pawlaczyk [2002] and G. Wall and A. Mathieson [2006][1]. A brief overview of these issues was presented by M. Barker [1982], M. Jodłowski [2001], C. Krajczyńska [2010], M. Mika [2001, 2003, 2008], Z. Mirek [1995, 2010], U. Myga-Piątek and G. Jankowski [2009], S. Sprincova [1972] and M. Staffa [1992]. Several papers on the impact of tourism on the natural environment of mountain areas were written by W. Kurek [1999, 2004a, 2004b, 2005]. It must be borne in mind that mountain areas are particularly sensitive to the effects of tourist activity. This is becoming increasingly important today, when the space available for qualified tourism continues to decline.

The work covers studies on the environmental impact of one of several forms of tourist activity pursued along tourist trails – hiking, undertaken in mountain areas. Its aim is to make a comparison of Polish and non-Polish literature, however, emphasis is placed on the Polish perspective. As a consequence, the Polish literature is represented to a greater extent. It was selected to demonstrate various processes from different perspectives (geology, geomorphology, botany, zoology, spatial planning), showing research from the most important Polish scientific centres (mostly Cracow, Warsaw, Wrocław, Poznań, Gdańsk, Rzeszów). Of course, a large fraction of the studies focuses on the mountain ranges considered as the most popular from the tourist perspective (Tatra Mountains, Pilsko Massif, Karkonosze Mountains), but the author attempts to show reports also from other regions. On the other hand, among the non-Polish literature, works by the most appreciated authors are cited most often (among others, N. Bayfield, D. Cole, D. Dale, Y. Leung, M. Liddle, T. Weaver), however, areas other than Great Britain and USA are also presented thanks to works by other authors. The comparison of Polish and non-Polish literature on the covered issues seems important as it allows evaluation of specific topics, methods, scales of analysis and results. Is the position of Polish scientists similar or not to studies presented in global literature? Do the changes have a similar course, obviously depending on natural conditions?

The effects of hiking are almost always associated with a relatively large number of people pursuing these activities on a narrow strip of land. The consequences, however, are smaller than in the case of single points, as the linear, two-dimensional form is associated with some kind of dispersion of tourists [Wall, Mathieson 2006]. Hiking is also regarded as relatively less harmful compared to e.g. downhill skiing. It is very difficult to specify which type of activity causes more damage to the environment, as the nature and intensity of changes depend on a number of factors (including intensity of tourist traffic, the overlapping effects of various forms of tourism, vegetation, ground resistance and slope gradient). Nonetheless, it is gen-

[1] Contains reference to numerous earlier published papers by European (mainly British) and American authors. An earlier edition of this book (A. Mathieson and G. Wall, *Tourism Economic, Physical and Social Impacts*) appeared in 1982.

erally assumed that skiing is more destructive than hiking along a narrow stretch of land [Kurek 2004a]. This conclusion was drawn by N. Bayfield [1973, 1979] in his studies conducted in Scotland (mainly the Cairngorm massif), E. Gorczyca and K. Krzemień [2006, 2009] and K. Krzemień [1997] in studies conducted in the Monts Dore, France, M. Mika [2004] in studies in Beskid Śląski and P. Skawiński [1993] in research on Kasprowy Wierch peak and in Goryczkowa Valley in the Tatra Mountains. Furthermore, C. Pickering, W. Hill, D. Newsome and Y. Leung [2010] compared the effects of hiking, mountain biking and horse riding on vegetation and soils both in Australia and the United States of America. Unfortunately, according to a survey conducted by A. Buchwał and M. Rogowski [2007], tourists are only vaguely aware of the negative impact of tourist traffic on the environment and do not always understand the reasons for measures taken to counteract this (compare [Adamski, Kolasińska, Witkowski 2016], [Guo, Smith, Leung, Seekamp, Moore 2015] and [Kolasińska 2010]). Polish literature on the subject touches mainly on the environmental consequences of hiking.

The negative impact of hiking on the environment

The morphogenetic role of hiking consists mainly of the mechanical tourist impact on the biologically active surface of tourist paths and trails and their immediate surroundings. The first studies describing trampling-related disturbances of plant vegetation near hiking paths date back to the interwar period [Liddle 1997; Mika 2004]. However, the research was not developed until the second half of the 20th century. The impact of hiking can be divided into several forms, depending on the mechanism of changes, their actual source(s) and the subject undergoing these processes. The classification of the effects of hiking presented below was prepared by the author according to the literature in order to show the complexity of the phenomena, their sequence and correlations. The first seven items are, in a sense, potentially divisible into stages of environmental destruction. Other processes mentioned in the following items, to a greater extent, take place simultaneously. The list includes only those entries in the literature which provide a broader approach to a given process. However, some of the publications address the entire set of phenomena and hence, these are not assigned to specific items, but only mentioned later in the work according to relevant subject area.

- Mechanical degradation and reduction of vegetation cover biomass (including mycelium) on and around paths (broadening of paths, creation of desire lines) and at trail interchanges and nearby tourist resorts[2] un-

[2] Trails running through meadows are usually wider than those leading through forests, as the traffic is at least partially channelled by trees and bushes. This is confirmed by both

til the appearance of the soil surface as a result of trampling [Barančok, Barančokova 2007; Bolland 1982; Cole 1978, 1991, 1995a, 1995b; Cole, Bayfield 1993; Cole, Trull 1992; Czochański 2000; Dale, Weaver 1974; Fidelus 2007a; Gołaszewski, Rojan, Tsermegas 2010; Guzikowa 1982[3]; Kellomäki 1977; Kroh 2002; Michalik 1972, 1996a; Mirek, Piękoś-Mirkowa 1979; Pawlaczyk 2002; Piękoś-Mirkowa 1982; Piękoś-Mirkowa, Mirek 1982; Poleno 1988; Rączkowska, Kozłowska 2010; Roovers, Verheyen, Hermy, Gulinck 2004; Ukkola 1995; Weaver, Dale 1978], and sometimes, as a result of the traffic to shelters; tearing off whole fragments (packets) of turf saturated with meltwater and rainwater [Cole 1991]; changes to and destruction of the root system, causing fungal infections and impaired growth as well as death of trees and shrubs; picking plants with attractive appearance, including protected species [Bogacz 1974; Mirek, Piękoś-Mirkowa 1979; Swatowska 1996], damage to tree bark and breaking plant shoots, branches and even whole plants, shortening their life span [Bandoła-Ciołczyk, Kurzyński 1996; Bogacz 1974].

- Topsoil compaction and related modification of its air and water properties [Fidelus 2007b; Kopeć, Głąb 2002; Liddle, Greig-Smith 1975; Łajczak 1996; Poleno 1988; Prędki 2002; Szydarowski 2000; Weaver, Dale 1978]: destruction of humus horizon or distortion of soil profile surface levels, changes in mechanical structure[4], reduction of rainwater infiltration and the water holding capacity of soil [Ukkola 1995], chemical changes in the soil (loss of carbon and nitrogen), reduced soil biological activity, reduced aeration, changes in acidity values, increased thermal conductivity, over-drying of upper layers and wind-erosion; sites devoid of vegetation are characterised by higher temperatures and faster heating, which can further accelerate the weathering of parent rock.
- Devastation of paving rubble, loosening and fragmentation of base material, which then becomes more prone to wind-erosion and flushing; disruption of weathering mantle stability; direct displacement of loose rock material by tourists (rocky tongues on slopes below the path).
- Disruption of water circulation [Łajczak 1996]: reduction in infiltration and supply to underground water reservoirs, reduced retention, forma-

U.S. [Dale, Weaver 1974] and British research [Bayfield 1971]. The development of vegetation in the affected areas can occur only 5–10 years after the trampling ceases (provided that soil degradation did not occur, a factor capable of preventing regeneration of vegetation), while the total restoration of the damaged ecosystem may take as long as 15–20 years [Zaręba 2010].

[3] On the basis of transect studies on trails leading through the meadows in the Pieniny National Park, M. Guzikowa [1982] notes that damage to plant communities due to excessive trampling occurs in just a few years, while the regeneration process is much longer (probably about 15–20 years).

[4] Peat areas are especially vulnerable to degradation – a single passage of several persons along the same path causes permanent changes in the structure of the peat [Pawlaczyk 2002].

tion of erosion runoffs, conservation of compacted and icy snow covers on pathways resulting in delayed and shorter vegetation period [Buchwał, Fidelus 2008; Fidelus 2007b]; water uptake by tourist lodges and shelters; accelerated disappearance of mountain lakes due to increased emission of particulate matter and initiation of mass movements by tourists; reshaping stream beds through construction of stone dams [Balon 2001b].

- Initiation of morphogenetic processes on exposed soil [Barančok, Barančokova 2007; Barczak, Jankow, Kubinek, Struś, Wołowiec 2002; Buchwał, Fidelus 2008; Fidelus 2007a, 2007b[5]; Gorczyca 2000; Gorczyca, Krzemień 2009; Kurzyński, Michalik 1982; Łajczak 1996]: slopewash, mud-and-debris flows, dispersed downwash and linear wash [Kasprzak 2005, 2006], aeolian processes (deflation), cryogenic processes (nivation), the impact of needle ice [Mazurski 1972], splash and gravitational and pluvial-gravitational processes.
- Erosion of exposed and compacted soil cover devoid of vegetation on and around the path as far as the rock rubble surface of mountain slopes or even the bedrock [Cole 1978; Dale, Weaver 1974; Weaver, Dale, 1978], which is especially evident below the upper limit of the forest and on the ground thresholds; movement of rock material down the slope and its accumulation [Łajczak 1996].
- Development of microrelief forms on paths (fluting, grooves, erosion troughs and channels, upslope erosion indents, erosion thresholds, shelves between tree roots, evorsion hollows, gelideflation steps, nival niches, deflation niches, crionival niches, deflation pavement, turf monadnocks, terraces and troughs caused by trampling, embankments along the paths, alluvial fans, talus fans, accumulation tongues and landslide dumps), leading to further degradation and trampling of alternative paths by tourists [Barančok, Barančokova 2007; Barczak et al. 2002; Buchwał, Fidelus 2008; Fidelus 2007b, 2010; Gorczyca 2000; Krusiec 1996; Krzemień 1997; Łajczak 1996[6]; Mazurski 1972[7]; Szydarowski 2000; Wałdykowski 2006].

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[5] In both works, the intensity of morphogenetic processes on tourist trails in the Tatra Mountains is analysed depending on the morphogenetic periods and geoecological belts.

[6] Based on the research results from the Pilsko Massif, A. Łajczak [1996] distinguished five steps of forming erosion rills, even leading up to exposure of solid rock at the bottom of the V-shaped valley.

[7] Based on field research in the Karkonosze (Giant) Mountains, K. Mazurski [1972] presented an interesting classification of microforms which can be found on tourist trails. The triggered changes (mainly erosion processes) lead to the development of initial microforms (trampled paths, ruts and scarps), which, in time, are transformed in early microforms (flutes, mini terraces, cobblestones, heaps of soil and pyramidal heaps) and then into developed microforms (troughs, rubble steps, material fillings, complex terraces, debris cones, bars and mini evorsion hollows). New manifestations of erosion developed within the created microforms are called complex microforms.

- Changes in plant species composition and disruption to altitudinal zonation: restriction of the growth of certain species due to soil degradation (including compaction); an increase in the proportion of species resistant to trampling at the expense of more vulnerable species, resulting in formation of specific carpet communities consisting of non-native species (largely moss) on and around paths [Cole 1978; Dale, Weaver 1974; Guzikowa 1982; Pawlaczyk 2002; Kellomäki 1977; Rączkowska, Kozłowska 2010; Roovers et al. 2004; Weaver, Dale 1978]; spreading of ubiquitous (cosmopolitan), synanthropic and ruderal species along trails and routes, transported from valleys and lower parts of the mountains to higher areas on the shoes and clothing of tourists, with the resulting displacement of species native to the habitat [Benninger-Truax, Vankat, Schaefer 1992; Cole 1978; Guzikowa 1982; Michalik 1972; Mirek, Piękoś-Mirkowa 1979; Pawlaczyk 2002]; synanthropisation, including via eutrophication of the environment, littering (including leftover food) and waste dumps near lodges and shelters[8], as well as the establishment of rock gardens, flower beds, etc. near lodges [Guzikowa 1982; Mazurski 1998; Mirek, Piękoś-Mirkowa 1979; Piękoś-Mirkowa, Mirek 1982[9]; Swatowska 1996].
- Destruction of vegetation by landslide material or that carried by rainwater from areas where soil was exposed due to trampling, with the resulting release of loose material and initiation of gravitational processes [Fidelus 2010; Szydarowski 2000].
- Changes in the animal world: mechanical injury to animals, bird nests, burrows and ant hills; inadvertent or deliberate killing of invertebrates, reptiles and amphibians which are considered dangerous or arouse aversion due to their appearance [Starzyk 1974]; disturbance of animals by noise, traffic and interference with migration routes, causing psychological and behavioural changes in animals, reduction in their living space, problems with access to food, impaired immunity to diseases, reduced fertility and changes in population size [Kurzyński, Michalik 1982; Pawlaczyk 2002]; synanthropisation of fauna – changes in the lifestyle and dietary behaviours of animals causing dependence on humans; attraction of animals to certain areas due to feeding and the presence of landfills, leading to changes in the composition of their diet

[8] Waste is produced by tourists and tour operators. It originates from tourist service facilities and infrastructure maintenance.

[9] Based on studies conducted in the Tatra Mountains, the authors concluded that tourism-related vegetation modifications near lodges and shelters are "relatively short lived", as "the non-native species there are at the limits of their ecological capabilities" [Piękoś-Mirkowa, Mirek 1982, p. 173]. Only a few species become established there, mainly in open or semi-open habitats. In general, however, after the cessation of human activities, synanthropic plants quickly disappear.

[Adamski 1996; Ukkola 1995; Wall, Mathieson 2006]; acclimatisation under strong human pressure; encroachment of non-native species of invertebrates (mainly insects) together with synanthropic vegetation.
- Degradation of rock surfaces (rocks) owing to tourist-induced erosion (abrasion); deliberate removal of rock fragments; creation of stone piles.
- Soil pollution due to improper disposal of garbage and leakage of operating fluids from lodge and shelter equipment and hostel service vehicles.
- Water pollution caused by wastewater from lodges or shelters as well as low-standard and insufficient sanitary facilities [Choiński, Galas, Jodłowski, Pociask-Karteczka, 2007; Mazurski 1998], by leakage of operating fluids from equipment and improper storage of waste; water pollution caused by tourists themselves, which is particularly evident near Morskie Oko (Sea Eye Lake) in the Tatra Mountains, where tourists throw various objects into the water, e.g. coins ('for good luck'), garbage and food scraps ('feeding fish'), drop litter or relieve themselves among rocks and mountain pines by the lake and wade or soak their feet in the water, thus, affecting the structure of bottom deposits [Choiński et al. 2007; Kapera 2007]; all of this leads to eutrophication of mountain reservoirs, ecological imbalance and changes in the trophic chain.
- Air pollution due to the emission of carbon dioxide and other harmful substances generated by coal, coke and oil heaters used in lodges and shelters [Mazurski 1998] as well as due to emissions from hostel service vehicles; the high energy consumption of traditional heating devices used in some lodges.
- Deterioration of aesthetic landscape values (urban development) due to irrational use of land, fragmentation, creation of unsightly structures not integrated into the landscape (often makeshift seasonal facilities), destruction of vegetation (including deforestation for construction of new structures), trail erosion and littering [Kapera 2007].
- Increased risk of fire due to campfires and dropping cigarette butts [Grzelak, Harabin 2010; Pawlaczyk 2002]; blackening of branches by smoke rising from campfires located near trees and shrubs [Bogacz 1974].

Most Polish studies on the effects of hiking (but also cycling or ski touring) on the natural environment are performed on a local scale and cover some of the phenomena listed above. M. Ewertowski and A. Tomczyk [2007] presented a tabular overview of selected Polish studies on the subject and proposed the use of GIS tools for assessing the state of the geographical environment along tourist trails for the integration and analysis of terrain and cartographical data; a similar proposition was made by Z. Jała and D. Cieślakiewicz [2004], Z. Magyari-Sáska and S. Dombay [2008], A. Tomczyk and M. Ewertowski [2013], but also by K. Taczanowska, L. Gonzalez et al. [2014], who used an interesting mixed method consisting of GPS tracking and graph theory. According to M. Ewertowski and A. Tomczyk [2007],

Tab. 1. Areas in Poland studied by Polish researchers in terms of the negative impact of hiking

Areas / Obszary	**Studies / Badania**
Tatra Mountains	Balon 2001a, 2001b; Buchwał, Fidelus 2008; Buchwał, Rogowski 2010; Chabowski 2014; Choiński et al. 2007; Ciapała, Zielonka, Kmiecik-Wróbel 2010; Cieszewska, Deptuła 2013; Czochański 2000[a)]; Ewertowski, Tomczyk 2007; Fidelus 2007a, 2007b, 2008, 2010; Gołaszewski et al. 2010; Gorczyca 2000; Gorczyca, Krzemień 2006, 2009; Kopeć, Głąb 2002; Kroh 2002; Krusiec 1996; Krzemień, Gorczyca 2005; Mirek, Piękoś-Mirkowa 1979; Piękoś-Mirkowa 1982; Piękoś-Mirkowa, Mirek 1982; Rączkowska, Kozłowska 2010; Skawiński 1993; Starzyk 1974; Szydarowski 2000; Witkowski, Mroczka, Adamski, Bielański, Kolasińska 2010
Pieniny Mountains	Adamski, Kolasińska, Witkowski 2013, 2016; Adamski et al. 2014; Gorczyca, Krzemień 2006; Guzikowa 1982[b)]; Kolasińska 2015; Witkowski et al. 2010[b)]
Gorce Mountains	Tomczyk, Ewertowski 2013; Wałdykowski 2006
Pilsko Massif[c)]	Adamski 1996; Bandoła-Ciołczyk, Kurzyński 1996; Kurzyński, Łajczak, Michalik, Mielnicka, Witkowski 1996; Łajczak 1996, 2003, 2004; Michalik 1996a, 1996b; Mielnicka 1996; Witkowski 1995, 1996
Babia Góra Massif	Bogacz 1974; Buchwał, Fidelus 2008; Buchwał, Rogowski 2010
Beskid Śląski Mountains	Mika 2001, 2004
Bieszczady Mountains	Kurzyński, Michalik 1982; Myga-Piątek, Jankowski 2009; Prędki 2002
Karkonosze (Giant) Mountains	Jała, Cieślakiewicz 2004; Kasprzak 2005, 2006; Mazurski 1972, 1998, 2010; Myga-Piątek, Jankowski 2009; Parzóch, Katrycz 2002; Swatowska 1996
Ojców National Park	Barczak et al. 2002; Witkowski et al. 2010

a) Author presented an original relief degradation typology in tourist areas.
b) Authors explored the effects of trampling on the tourist trails in this area and the possible measures for its counteraction.
c) The majority of works concerning Pilsko Massif are part of a monograph entitled *The impact of skiing and hiking on the natural environment of the Pilsko Massif* [Łajczak, Michalik, Witkowski, (eds.) 1996]. Some of its conclusions, however, raise certain doubts, as the authors (particularly A. Łajczak [1996]) claim that hiking has greater impact on the degradation of soils and relief than downhill skiing, which is contrary to the results of most research conducted to date (see the Introduction section of this paper). It seems that an insufficient account was considered when regarding the differences in time since the commencement of these types of tourist activities in the Pilsko Massif. In addition, hiking is blamed for the intensification of erosion within the downhill ski runs while overlooking the fact that erosive changes were originally initiated by deforestation and turf destruction during the construction of ski runs, by skiing and snow groomers. It may be of consideration as to what the severity of the erosion on the tourist paths which currently intersect the downhill runs would be if the latter did not exist.

Source: Author's own elaboration.

"studied on and around tourist trails, was the impact of tourist traffic on one of the components of the geo-ecosystem: relief, soil, vegetation, fauna, tourist infrastructure or a complex of these" [p. 272]. Polish researchers often focus on high mountain areas – the Tatra Mountains, the Pilsko Massif, Mount Babia Góra and the Karkonosze (Giant) Mountains (Table 1). They have also addressed the effects of hiking beyond Poland, e.g. in the Monts Dore Massif, located in the highest part of the Massif Central in France [Gorczyca, Krzemień 2006, 2009; Krzemień 1997], and the Slovakian Tatras [Fidelus 2010][10]. The effects of trampling have also been investigated by foreign researchers (Table 2). While analysing the effects of trampling, D. Cole [1978, 1991, 1995a, 1995b], D. Cole and N. Bayfield [1993] and D. Cole and S. Trull [1992] focused on developing a standard experimental method for assessing the intensity of this adverse phenomenon and the resistance of vegetation to trampling, taking even factors as specific as shoe type or hiker weight into account and studying the course of changes for each plant species alone. R. Knapp and M. Ducey [2010] presented an original method which requires investigating only selected parts of the trail net-

Tab. 2. Areas studied by selected foreign researchers in terms of the negative impact of hiking

Studies / Badania	**Areas / Obszary**
Barančok, Barančokova 2007; Barančokova, Barančok 2007	High Tatras in Slovakia
Benninger-Truax et al. 1992	Rocky Mountain National Park, Colorado, USA
Cole 1978, 1991, 1995a, 1995b	Various mountain areas in USA, mainly the Rocky Mountains
Cole, Trull 1992	Northern Cascade Mountains, USA
Dale, Weaver 1974; Weaver, Dale 1978	Northern Rocky Mountains, USA
Kellomäki 1977; Ukkola 1995	Finland
Liddle, Greig-Smith 1975	Northern Wales
Magyari-Sáska, Dombay 2008	Romania
Pickering et al. 2010	Australia and USA
Roovers et al. 2004	Central Belgium
Shackley 1999	Peru
Taczanowska, Brandenburg et al. 2014	Tatra National Park, Poland
Taczanowska, Gonzalez et al. 2014	Danube Floodplains National Park, Austria

Source: Author's own elaboration.

[10] The author compared the nature and intensity of anthropogenic effects on tourist paths and trails in the northern and the southern slopes of the Tatra Mountains.

work in order to obtain the overall results. A GIS-based method was proposed by Z. Magyari-Sáska and S. Dombay [2008], while three complementary procedures for assessing the condition of hiking trails were developed by Australian researchers W. Hill and C. Pickering [2009].

In general, it is clear that well-organised hiking tours along tourist trails have relatively small impact on the environment, especially with respect to vegetation and soil cover [Dale, Weaver 1974; Denisiuk 2009; Kurek 2004a, 2005; Weaver, Dale 1978; Zabierowski 1982]. Adverse effects occur only in the case of an excessive intensity of traffic and improper preparation of paths, as well as with the use of desire paths[11] and in the most crowded areas, e.g. at trail intersections, viewing points, rest areas and around campsites, particularly those wild and seasonal, without proper infrastructure (sanitation facilities, waste-bins etc.). It should be noted, however, that trampling-related changes are usually preceded by less visible processes, such as changes in flora composition associated with the accidental introduction of foreign plant species or behavioural and structural changes in the fauna [Pawlaczyk 2002], which occur even with a low intensity of tourist traffic. Moreover, such changes occur not only on the path and in its immediate vicinity, but also across a wider area around the trail [Barančokova, Barančok 2007]. According to B. Mielnicka [1991, 1992, 1996], M. Guzikowa [1982], B. Konca [1984], R. Olaczek [1982], A. Sobczak [1983] and M. Staffa [1992], most damage is caused by mass tours involving people exhibiting poor tourist behaviour and limited knowledge of the environment as well as the principles of sightseeing and hiking. Such tourists typically produce a great deal of noise, scare away animals, drop litter, pick plants and move around in groups off the trails, breaking tree branches and shrubs. Some of the tourists use desire paths, trampling out new routes. Unfortunately, mass tourism dominates in most national parks. In contrast, sporadic hiking does not cause significant changes in the environment [Balon, German, Maciejowski, Ziaja, 2001]. Another important risk factor is the activity of tourist facilities (e.g. lodges and shelters), which are often located in areas of particular natural value.

In the case of broadly understood erosive effects related to hiking, it is clear that hiking simply triggers or intensifies natural morphogenetic processes [Buchwał, Fidelus 2008; Fidelus 2007b; Kasprzak 2006; Krusiec 1996], the course and intensity of which depends on several factors, including: 1) ground resistance and soil type, 2) exposure and slope gradient of land surface (also the presence of wide areas enabling trail expansion), 3) geoecological belt (defining a set of climate and vegetation characteristics in

[11] The issue of hiking off trails (so-called illegal dispersion) in national parks and nature reserves in Poland was investigated by Z. Witkowski et al. [2010] and particularly in the case of Pieniny National Park, by P. Adamski et al. [2013] and A. Kolasińska [2015], and for the Polish Tatra National Park, by S. Chabowski [2014].

relation to the relief), 4) water relations, 5) type of plant community near the trail, 6) trail characteristics (width, type and condition of the surface, additional surface protection, trail course – adaptation to the terrain orography as well as the needs and physical capabilities of the average tourist), 7) intensity and seasonality of tourist traffic (and other means of using the trail and its surroundings, if any), and 8) availability and attractiveness of off-trail sites [Bogacz 1974; Czochański 2000; Ewertowski, Tomczyk 2007; Fidelus 2007a, 2008; Gołaszewski et al. 2010; Mirek, Piękoś-Mirkowa 1979; Szydarowski 2000; Wall, Mathieson 2006].

Paths running perpendicular to contour lines with a slope gradient of more than 20–25° are particularly vulnerable to degradation [Fidelus 2007a; Kasprzak 2006; Krusiec 1996; Łajczak 1996; Mazurski 1971, 1972]. However, according to A. Marsz [1972, as cited in Pawlaczyk 2002], rapid deterioration of soil and vegetation cover occurs on slopes above 7° and even due to low-intensity trampling (hence, such slopes should be closed to pedestrian traffic). This claim is a very rigorous one and, if implemented, would essentially prevent tourism in mountain areas. Although sections perpendicular to contour lines, often based on old firebreaks or skid trails, reduce the time required to climb elevations and are thus popular among tourists, they pose a serious threat to the environment. Concentration of tourist traffic in a narrow stretch of land confined by dwarf mountain pine contributes to a deepening of footpaths [Gołaszewski et al. 2010]. On the other hand, M. Ewertowski and A. Tomczyk [2007] recognise the positive effects of tall vegetation along trails, as this prevents travellers from straying off the trail, reducing damage, which is usually of a linear rather than surface nature. According to the authors, other factors which prevent straying include running the trail through traverses (limited by a steep slope on both sides), running the trail over a narrow valley floor in the immediate vicinity of a stream (on one side, the trail is limited by a steep valley slope, on the other, by the stream) and artificial protection (fences).

Means of preventing selected negative effects of hiking

Many papers related to erosion on tourist trails provide solutions for its prevention and limitation. Forms of development for highly eroded trails – without prospects for natural regeneration of soil and plants – include special constructions aimed at preventing erosion, as well as at deposition of soil material and regeneration of plant cover. Among these are wooden or stone steps (barriers) preventing the flow of material in erosion drainpipes, meshes and mats retaining rock material [Barczak et al. 2002; Gorczyca 2000; Krzemień 1997; Łajczak, Krzan, Michalik, Skawiński, Witkowski 1996; Ukkola 1995] and permanent barriers made of spruce poles arranged parallel

to levels or as a truss with the empty space filled by turf or other biological materials of local origin, or covered with a thin layer of soil [Skawiński 1993]. The meshes are made of natural fibres or plastic, then sown with various species of grass. Other proposed approaches also include the insertion of wooden poles, the spreading of gravel or rock rubble on trails and covering exposed soil areas and tree roots with appropriate materials (such as reeds). Slopes with damaged plant cover are sheltered with straw, improving conditions for growth, and then, sown with grass [Krzemień 1997]. Many erosive forms are simply covered (buried).

First, however, an area subject to regeneration of soil and plant cover must be secured against the mechanical impact of tourists. For this purpose, artificial obstacles are used to outline the course of the trail clearly and direct tourist traffic towards it. These include tapes, posts, curbs, barriers (high and low), rails and fences, and even water ditches. It is important that all forms of trail fencing, their lengths and their design, be adjusted to the requirements of animal movement [Bolland 1982]. Other means include beams, boards, wooden poles, trusses, scattered rocks or other obstacles preventing widening of the trail, departure from it and trampling out shortcuts. If such protections are properly fixed, soil can accumulate between them and, as a consequence, plants may encroach, while they can also be covered at once with turf. Since the damage and erosion of trails results in intense trampling of the sides of paths and alternative paths, the proper technical preparation of the path is also important so that walking is more convenient on it rather than next to it. The goal is the repair of the surface of the path and, if traffic is high, even the introduction of an artificial surface, but above all, the appropriate dispersal of rain and meltwater from the path using wooden or rock steps, gutters and culverts. Otherwise, even an artificial surface will be washed away by water and mud-and-debris flows [Buchwał, Fidelus 2008; Buchwał, Rogowski 2010; Cole 1991; Fidelus 2007a, 2008; Gorczyca 2000; Guzikowa 1982; Krusiec 1996; Rączkowska, Kozłowska 2010; Staffa 1985, 1992].

As noted by K. Parzóch and M. Katrycz [2002], one means of protection against washing away is covering trails with cobblestone, tarmac or rock blocks, as in the Karkonosze (Giant) Mountains. They do not comment, however, as to whether those solutions are fully effective and appropriate, since it must be stressed that all construction work on trails also has impact on the environment. R. Olaczek [1982] mentions a "chequered pattern of stone slabs made of appropriately selected material" [p. 47]. Also used are the metalled surface, a covering of local rubble (breakstone) and construction of steps made of wood and rubble or rocks in order to level greater slopes. In the case of the surroundings of the Gąsienicowa and Kondratowa mountain pastures in the Tatra Mountains, J. Fidelus [2007a] described the following artificial surfaces: built up with rocks or stone blocks, the metalled surface (sometimes

bounded with rocks) and the cobblestone surface; only 11% of the length of the trails in this area had a natural surface. On the other hand, A. Swatowska [1996] believes that mountain trails should be natural paths, improved only by the levelling the surface and provision of appropriate drainage, and that an artificial surface is acceptable only on sections with particularly heavy traffic. The rock material used for the construction of the trails should always be of local origin. Retaining walls are used on steep slopes to reduce the dynamism of erosive processes (the soil cover washing away and crawling down) and can, in certain situations, direct tourist traffic, while footbridges are built and planks laid on boggy sections [Barczak et al. 2002; Buchwał, Rogowski 2010; Cole 1991; Fidelus 2008; Gorczyca 2000; Kasprzak 2005, 2006; Mazurski 2010; Mielnicka 1992; Partyka 2010b; Skawiński 1993]. On the other hand, according to J. Gajewski [2007], bordering Tatra Mountain paths with rocks and walls while covering them with pebbles and earth is not effective, with tourists still (and perhaps all the more) walking on the sides of these paths, trampling them, the trails deteriorating as a result. Nor are wooden barriers always effective, instead marring the landscape.

In conclusion of the the above study, it must be said that in order to restore the soil cap and the plant cover in a given area, it is first necessary to limit or eliminate the impact of the factor triggering the erosion, then to restrict erosion and, finally, to take steps leading to the restoration of soil and plants, such as sowing seeds, covering soil with plant material, covering the surface with peat substrate, implanting turf and planting trees and bushes [Łajczak et al. 1996]. A list of devices preventing illegal dispersion and the resulting erosion was prepared by S. Ciapała et al. [2010], based on the example of the Tatra Mountains. Among the means of channelling tourist traffic, they listed tourist trails, 'no passage' signs, traffic marking tapes, information boards presenting rules relating to behaviour at protected sites, wooden beams placed on trail sides across their course (so-called stumblers), wooden handrails, balustrades and fencing, wooden trail width limiters (curbs), fencing of beauty spots, and portable toilet cabins (in order to eliminate the main reason for departure from the most popular trails). The means of preventing tourist erosion include rock stairs, wooden steps filled with rocks, earth steps strengthened with beams, wooden stairs, rock slope reinforcements, road edge reinforcements, stream and brook edge reinforcements, and wooden, stone or metal water drains [Ciapała et al. 2010]. It is important to match not only the type of protection to traffic intensity, but also its design and scale. As stressed by J. Czochański and D. Borowiak [2000], it is not possible to indicate any universal types of technical treatment with respect to tourist trails, as these must be "adjusted to local environmental conditions and the manner of impact of the tourist traffic on the environment" [p. 358–359]. Various managing strategies for tourist trails were investigated by Y. Leung and J. Marion [2000] as well as by J. Marion and Y. Leung [2004].

As noted by M. Kasprzak [2006], "none of the protections help prevent destruction of roads permanently. Even the most solid artificial surfaces eventually become washed out (due to scouring) and collapse, and their further destruction leads to the stripping of the outer layer of the slope cover" [p. 184]. Furthermore, technical treatments and appropriate shaping of infrastructure may improve the condition of the environment and increase tourist volume only with respect to certain aspects. Although appropriate preparation of the path surface prevents the trampling and destruction of soil and undergrowth, it does not make the scaring of animals any less likely, and perhaps even increases potential for introduction of foreign plant species [Pawlaczyk 2002]. J. Partyka [2010a, 2010b] turns attention to the impact of tourist trail or beauty spot protection on the landscape, which is often associated with the introduction of concrete and metal barriers and bridges – for example the trail on the summit of Szczeliniec Wielki in Stołowe (Table) Mountains National Park, the platform at Dark Cave (Jaskinia Ciemna) in Ojców National Park or the stairs over the boulder fields in Świętokrzyski National Park.

Beyond building up trails, the prevention of their erosion or rehabilitation may be accomplished by regulating (limiting) tourist traffic, especially during the spring season when the soil is saturated with water (a limitation of tourist traffic in the period when the soil is saturated with water has been proposed by D. Cole [1991] and J. Fidelus [2007a], among others). It is, however, usually difficult to achieve this. Such regulation has been partially effective around the Kasprowy Wierch mountain peak (the routes of some paths have been corrected) [Skawiński 1993] and on Pilsko [Łajczak et al. 1996]. Adverse changes in the area of the Kasprowy Wierch mountain peak continue, caused by the permanently high tourist traffic. Changes on the tourist paths of Kasprowy Wierch which occurred within a single year are described by Z. Rączkowska and A. Kozłowska [2010]. An interesting proposition with respect to the regulation of hiking traffic, based on a study of traffic intensity and destruction of paths, has been offered for Pieniny National Park by A. Bolland [1982]. His suggestions were, however, rejected. More recently, detailed rules for the reorganisation of tourist traffic in the vicinity of Morskie Oko lake in the Tatra Mountains – assuming the closure of a section of a trail and plotting a new path, thereby pushing tourist traffic away from the water – have been suggested by A. Choiński et al. [2007], while general issues related to the management of tourist traffic throughout the Tatra National Park were discussed by P. Skawiński [2010]. When changing the route which a trail follows, it is crucial to mark the new variant appropriately and erase the signs on the old one effectively. The new route should also offer a higher standard of hiking than the current variant and the adjacent areas thanks to a good surface, appropriate drops and, where possible, additional attractions.

The route of many trails has been changed based solely on intuitive assumptions rather than in-depth study of ecological correlations [Cole 1978]. D. Cole [1978, 1991] provides criteria which should be followed when making the decision as to whether a bypass is to be prepared for a given section or whether it is simply enough to prepare the section appropriately. The decisive factors are: whether an area with more erosion-resistant soil is available, the area (length) of problematic sections, the total resistance of the environment, the resistance of individual plant communities, the ability of the destroyed areas to regenerate and the potential for appropriate directing tourist traffic (effectively closing the old trail). With the appropriate information available as early as the trail planning stage, it is possible to select the route which will have the smallest impact on the environment [Cole 1978]. Experience shows that the revival of plants on damaged sections, even after complete elimination of tourist traffic, is very slow (and sometimes never occurs), because – as mentioned above – the tourist traffic is only a factor initiating degradation, with the key role later played by natural factors. As such, A. Bolland [1982] stresses that despite traffic regulation, the path surface (of both the old and new sections) continues to require various technical treatments, such as hardening trails using rocks or wood and fencing paths at more devastated sites.

Naturally, besides the construction of trails it is necessary to design the supporting infrastructure in an appropriate manner, i.e. to construct only the necessary devices in suitable locations and using proper technology, and to ensure that they merge well into the landscape and culture. A. Łajczak et al. [1996] and U. Myga-Piątek and G. Jankowski [2009] believe that certain solutions can be of significant assistance in disciplining tourists. These include boards and ideographs providing rules to follow at a given protected site, a schematic map of tourist trails and boards reminding tourists to walk on the marked trails, not leaving them, informing of rehabilitation works. Among older papers, the importance of a campaign to improve tourist behaviour was also stressed by A. Bolland [1982] and M. Guzikowa [1982]. A good practice is the creation of a tourist development plan for each national park (including so-called studies shaping the tourist and didactic function) or, on a larger scale, for all protected areas [Baranowska-Janota 2007; Stasiak 1997].

Summary

Although recognised only in the late 20th century, the impact of hiking on the environment, particularly mountain areas, has received increasing scientific attention mainly due to the often high intensity of adverse environmental consequences. Polish scientific achievements, studying the impact of using

hiking tourist trails on the mountain environment, must be considered significant, although – compared to the international achievements – they are usually local and more qualitative than quantitative in orientation. Most authors, especially of the most recent papers in geomorphology, focus on a single valley or a few trails, inventorying the changes caused by hiking and then describing them (usually by division into several categories). Much less frequent are detailed analyses and assessments of the forms and volume of materials removed. Polish researchers, however, have been observing transformation and damage of a nature similar to that observed by researchers from other countries of similar climate. Considerable attention has been devoted to means of counteracting certain negative effects of tourism, both the technical (remodelling of trails and their surroundings) and the organisational aspects (management of tourist traffic). Particularly valuable are the proposals to limit and prevent erosion on tourist trails, including the proposals to reorganise the trail network by taking local environmental conditions into account. Unfortunately, such suggestions, supported by scientific proof, have not always been implemented. Recommendations for preventing tourist erosion on trails vary significantly, from barriers and other obstacles channelling tourist traffic, to special devices intercepting mineral and organic materials, draining water from trails, and onto artificial surfaces. In general, however, it must be borne in mind that first of all, the intensity of the factor causing the erosion must be removed or limited, and only then can steps be taken to restore or rehabilitate the soil and plant cover.

A great number of papers deal with the impact of hiking on the environment. Other forms of active tourism (for example cycling or cross-country skiing) are studied much less often. This is due mainly to the popularity of the respective forms of recreation in Poland. Cycling tourism has been developing only since the 1990s (with the first cycling trails being constructed around that time) and cross-country skiing, after many years of regression, has only recently begun to attract more tourists (and compared to hiking or downhill skiing, is still considered a niche activity). These relationships have an unambiguous effect on the scale of the transformations caused by these three types of tourism. As far as the selection of the research area is concerned, the highest Polish mountain formations – the Tatra Mountains, the massifs of Babia Góra and Pilsko, the Bieszczady Mountains and the Karkonosze (Giant) Mountains – are the most popular choices. Of particular interest is the first of the areas listed, in fact, the only area of Poland of a typical high-mountain form, occupying only 0.3 percent of its area, and simultaneously, a national park visited by the largest number of tourists (around 2.5 m people each year, i.e. approx. 30% of the total number of tourists visiting Polish national parks). This involves many negative effects on the precious local environment, a situation which has been noticed by Polish scientists and studied thoroughly. In other re-

gions, analyses are only fragmentary. Beyond Poland, the interest of Polish researchers lies primarily in the mountains of Slovakia, the Alps and the Massif Central, but the majority of texts on these mountain ranges focus on the effects of downhill skiing.

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A WOODEN TOURIST STAMP AS AN INNOVATIVE SOUVENIR IN THE TOURIST ACTIVITY OF THE UKRAINE

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Abstract

Purpose. Organising excursion services of the Ukrainian tourism industry on the global market is still underdeveloped and uncompetitive. The main excursion objects and complexes have been abandoned and require rebuilding and restoration. Thus, the infrastructure needs reconstruction and repair, while the level of services not meeting international standards should be improved. The entertainment industry is poorly developed and unorganised, and a significant list of environmental, social and economic problems is not resolved. Considering the above, it is necessary to identify measures to stimulate and promote excursion services in the Ukraine. Changing this situation will make it possible to turn the domestic organisation of excursion services on the international market into a prosperous, stable and competitive endeavour.
Methods. Comparative, statistical, quantitative, field research and the survey method provided an opportunity to form a map of tourist marked places in the Ukraine, by means of which analysis was conducted. In the conclusions, the most tourist marked places in the Ukraine were noted finding out which regions are leaders, and where these sites are non-existent.
Findings. The introduction of selling the wooden tourist stamp in almost all regions of the Ukraine in the complex of all souvenir products was among the new, important measures in this direction. This is of incredible popularity among tourists of different age groups. This research will help to achieve: the maximum possible use of excursion services; maximum consumer satisfaction among different tourist groups; representation of the widest selection of excursion services for the various members of the excursion groups; maximisation of the quality of excursion services.
Research and conclusions limitations. The scope of analysis was limited by the sources of information which were the official websites of wooden tourist stamps of European countries. The authors also reviewed scientific articles in different languages: Czech, Slovak, Polish and English. Geographically, the analysis was limited to the territorial boundaries of the Ukraine. Analysis was carried out mainly via field methods.
Practical implications. The use, distribution and introduction of wooden tourist stamps in all regions of the Ukraine will enable the tourism industry to increase the intensity of excursion flows, as a result, financing can be found for the maintenance, development and preservation of excursion objects. This may also attract the attention of state and public organisations in order to save valuable objects.

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Type of paper. In the article, the appearance of the most popular wooden tourist stamps are described. On the basis of analysis, their main content characteristics are identified and their types and main available category groups are presented throughout all regions of the Ukraine.

Keywords: excursion services, tourism marketing, tourist flows, wooden tourist stamps, wooden tourist stamped places.

Introduction

Analysing the current state of excursion services in the tourism industry of the Ukraine, it may be stated that the country is becoming more attractive in this direction for both domestic and foreign tourists. There are still opportunities for the development of this tourism industry, since an existing tourist and excursion potential is available, but there are some difficulties for tourism development due to unfavourable conditions. Under the circumstances of socio-economic stability and with the existing tourist/excursion potential, it is no less important to conduct some marketing activities to popularise and promote excursion services.

By assessing the current state of excursion organisation services in the Ukrainian tourism industry, it can be said that it is still underdeveloped and uncompetitive on the global tourism service market. Major excursion objects and complexes (60%) that require restoration and rebuilding, are being neglected [Kit 2018, p. 20]. The majority of the infrastructure needs reconstruction and repair, the level of service does not meet international standards, the entertainment industry is poorly developed and unorganised, and a significant list of ecological, social and economic problems is not resolved.

That is why incentives stimulating and promoting excursion services in the Ukraine are an essential aspect that can make the domestic tourism industry prosperous, stable and competitive on the international market. The purpose of such measures is:

- to achieve the maximum possible consumption of excursion services;
- to achieve the maximum consumer satisfaction in various groups of tourists;
- to represent the widest selection of excursion services for the various members of excursion groups;
- to represent the widest choice of excursion services for the various members of excursion groups;
- to achieve maximum improvement in the quality of excursion services.

Literature review

Many scholars have been engaged in studying specific issues regarding the planning, formation, organisation and functioning of the excursion service market in the Ukraine. Among the latest, some works should be highlighted: L.B. Althaim "Organisation of excursion services" [Althaim 2017] and B.P. Panhelov [Panhelov 2010], who describe the theoretical aspects of organising excursion routes: "The value and principles of the organisation of excursion services", in which the importance and basic principles of the organising excursion services is revealed; "The role of social and economic factors in its arrangement, which indicates the importance and role of socio-economic factors for the organisation of excursion services in the Ternopil region" are further described by Althaim [2014, 2018].

Foundations for studying the marketing elements of promoting a tourism product are laid by Philip Kotler [Kotler 1996]. The role of marketing measures in order to increase tourist flows to various attractions is described in the works of O. Bordun: "The role of souvenir products in the strategy of increasing the competitiveness of castle tourism" [Bordun, Bilous 2010], ethno-tourism [Bordun 2010], religious tourism [Bordun, Kovalchuk 2018] and especially rural ecotourism in agrarian districts [Bordun 2011] is substantiated in these articles.

Wooden travel stamps, as a new tourist souvenir that change and renew the tourist audience, attract new visitors and are the engine of innovation influencing modern travel, are written about by K. Haiz and G.L. Rüti in the article: "Find the typical of a travel destination. Souvenirs awaken holiday memories and act as advertising ambassadors" [Haiz, Rüti 2012].

In the German magazine "Tourism concept Baden-Wurttemberg" [2009], it is stated that wooden tourist stamps should be created based on travel experience, being represented in all corners of the country, and that regional wooden tourist stamps are the main instrument for positioning particular territories, especially lesser-known regions. If they work in conjunction with internationally renowned tourism brands and bear regional specificity in mind, they will increase the value of these territories to take national level [*Special Edition of the Tourist Stamps*…]. These aspects should be taken into account and implemented in the regions of the Ukraine.

In Germany, and especially in the Czech Republic, the arrangement of granting permission for manufacturing the tourist stamps has been worked out by the municipal executive authorities after the application was submitted [*Consent to the production of a tourist stamp*…]. These mechanisms still need to be improved.

However, despite the coverage of some examples of the successful use of marketing measures and souvenir products, there are no sources in the scientific literature devoted to geospatial analysis in the regional dimension of Ukrainian tourist-stamp objects.

Method

Comparative, statistical, quantitative, field research and the survey method provided an opportunity to form a map of tourist marked places of the Ukraine, by means of which analysis was conducted and conclusions were drawn. This helped find out where the most tourist marked places are in the Ukraine, which *oblasts* are leaders, and where they are completely absent.

To study the awareness of the Ukrainian people about such a new marketing element as the wooden tourist stamp, the authors conducted marketing research on souvenir outlets in different places of the Ukraine. Preparation of the marketing surveys consists in selecting an appropriate number of popular touristic objects for research, i.e. conducting the so-called selection of a representative sample. In the case of the described research, this was, first of all – tourist information centres in big cities such as Kyjiv, Lviv, Ternopil, Kamianets-Podolskij, Uzhorod, Mukaczewe, Lutsk, Czernivci, and small cities with a rich history and attractive stamped tourist sites such as Zowkwa, Rudku, Biszcze, Sambir, Kamianka-Buzka, Berezany and others.

Results

The methods described above should enable the tourism industry to increase the intensity of excursion flows. However, it should be noted that not all tourist visits to excursion objects are undertaken as a result of the direct influence of stimulation and promotion of excursion services. The tourist product is also analysed by the consumer in terms of its attractiveness and presence of such elements as availability and novelty.

Such a new and important step in this direction was the introduction of the wooden tourist stamp to the complex of all souvenir products, which is incredibly popular among tourists of different age groups.

The wooden tourist stamp is a round wooden item with a tourist object depicted on it. In different countries, wooden tourist stamps have different names. For example, in the Czech Republic, it is called “Turistické známky”, in Poland – “Znaczek Turystyczny”, in Germany – “Erlebnismarken”, “Tourpoints” – in the USA and “Memory Stamps” in the UK.

In Figure 1, the wooden tourist stamp of the Poltava region is depicted, № 423 – “Ensemble of the Round Square (1805-1841) Poltava”.

Fig 1. Wooden tourist stamp № 423 – "Ensemble of the Round Square (1805-1841) Poltava"

Source*:* [*Special edition*…]

This wooden tourist stamp is dedicated to the landmark of urban planning and architecture. The Cadet Corps (1840), one of great buildings of the Round Square, is depicted on this wooden tourist stamp № 423 – "An ensemble of the Round Square (1805-1841)", and can be purchased at the tourist information centre, located at: Pioneer 3. Wooden tourist stamps № 421, 422, 424 and 427, which are devoted to famous places near Poltava, can also be purchased at this centre. It is interesting that the mentioned wooden tourist stamps of Poltava are included into various categories of wooden tourist stamps. For example, the wooden tourist stamp № 421 "Reserve – The Field of Poltava Battle" belongs to the category "Museums and open-air exhibitions". The Battle of Poltava was the greatest battle of the Great Northern War. It was on June 27 (July 8), 1709. The Russian army of Peter the Great and the Swedish army of Charles XII participated in it. Today, in the Poltava region, there is the State Historical and Cultural Reserve "The Field of Poltava Battle", in which there are nine rooms with expositions of the Kozak period [*Poltava touristical*…].

Wooden tourist stamp № 411 “Church of the Assumption of the Blessed Virgin Mary, 1728 – Rudky”, belongs to the category “Church buildings”. A famous Polish writer Oleksandr Fredro is buried at this church. A great number of pilgrims come to this sacred place from the Ukraine and Poland [Bordun, Kovalchuk 2018, p. 59] (Fig. 2).

Fig. 2. Wooden tourist stamp № 411 “Church in Rudky, 1728 – Cathedral of the Assumption of the Blessed Virgin Mary”

Source: Oresta Bordun’s collection.

Thus, wooden tourist stamps may depict any object that is valuable from historical, cultural, social or natural aspects, and is an incentive to conduct excursions. Wooden tourist stamps and tourist souvenirs are new concepts in the excursion services and tourism industry in agrarian districts of the Ukraine [Bordun 2011, p. 169].

Every region of the Ukraine should be involved in the wooden tourist stamp project, because the purpose of participation in the project is the establishment of the region on the world and domestic tourism markets as areas of tourist/excursion value, popularising the objects of tourist interests, various folk crafts centres, tourist-attractive events of the region, providing new markets for potential for Ukrainian and also those from

abroad [Bordun 2010, p. 78]. As an example, the collection of wooden tourist stamps from the Lviv Tourist Information Centre is presented below (Fig. 3).

Fig. 3. Wooden tourist stamps at Lviv Tourist Information Center
Photo: Oresta Bordun.

Participation in such a project is greatly meaningful. This, first of all, allows specific excursion objects and events to enter the European system of wooden tourist stamps, since they receive their own numbers and will be posted on the project site. Such advertisement and a description of the institution, monument or festival will be another reason for tourists to visit this object and purchase a collectible stamp. Participation in the project will provide the regions with proper informational support, improving the collaboration with the potential users of excursion services and will, consequently, encourage new targeted tourist flow to the region. Tourist-stamp souvenir manufacturing can be ordered at the main site of the project. There are some differences between the wooden tourist stamp and the souvenir. The tourist souvenir can have owners of objects that do not meet the criteria for obtaining a classic wooden tourist stamp. Souvenirs are smaller in size, their edges are more rounded. Other differences in form are not observed. Such souvenirs can be ordered by tourist complexes, temples, restaurants, hotels or other interesting objects (Fig. 4).

Fig. 4. Tourist-stamp souvenirs
Source: Oresta Bordun's collection.

Souvenirs are also a powerful tool in promoting excursion services because they create advertising for a sightseeing place or enterprise and attract tourist visits. The concept of tourist-stamp souvenirs has much in common with the concept of the wooden tourist stamp. Descriptions of tourist souvenirs and their coordinates are presented at the main site of the project. Collecting wooden tourist stamps and tourist souvenirs is an interesting col-

lectible game. Visiting Synevyr Lake in the Transcarpathian, a tourist may purchase a wooden tourist stamp of this natural object for their collection. At the foot of the lake, there is a famous cafe – "Vitryak" and the restaurant – "Kolyba", which have their own tourist-stamp souvenirs.

Therefore, during the journey, tourists will be able to obtain some souvenir trophies. Wooden tourist stamps and souvenirs are a novelty that can really attract tourists and stimulate them to travel. The use of the system of stamps and souvenirs in the marketing promotion complex of the excursion product is very effective in terms of excursion object advertising. Today, we are witnesses of the growing interest in wooden tourist stamps. The majority of wooden tourist stamp places are located on the territory of the Lviv region. Among the institutions that have their own tourist souvenir are "Robert Dom's Beer House", "Videnska kavyarnya", the "Shtuka" gallery-café, the "Dzyga" art gallery (Fig 5).

Fig. 5. Wooden tourist stamp № 15 – "The second meeting of collectors of wooden tourist stamps – Lviv"

Source: Oresta Bordun's collection.

Tourist-stamps souvenirs will benefit from advertising and sales. As a rule, commercial enterprises invest money in what makes a profit. The more advertising and marketing – the bigger profit for the enterprise. It is important to determine the attitude of consumers towards a certain excursion object or a wooden tourist stamp in order to carry out effective activities to promote excursions. First of all, it is necessary to study the level of popularity of the excursion object, to which wooden tourist stamp is assigned. This way of marketing research is aimed at revealing the level of attractiveness of a certain excursion object. Popularity establishes the connection between the stamp and the category of the excursion object to which it belongs. Marketers often receive information about the level of popularity thanks to consumer survey about excursion objects, already known to them, within the category under study. An analysis of the collected data about the popularity of a certain excursion object category can be used to determine the proportion of potential buyers and the level of memorability of stamps and excursion objects (some stamps and names of excursion objects are poorly remembered, although easily recognisable) [Althaim 2017, p. 109]. Classic and wooden tourist stamps have their own specific attributes: brand name, stamp mark, trademark, and copyright. Decisions on stamp marks appear to determine affiliation and authenticity.

The idea of wooden tourist stamps originated in the Czech Republic. The first wooden tourist stamps were created by Czech scouts for their pupils. They organised a trip to the Jesenik mountain region, and in order for the children to better remember the visited objects, the leaders created round items with the tourist objects depicted on them, which we nowadays call wooden tourist stamps. The first official wooden tourist stamps were given to the owners of houses that were located near the stops on the route [*Travel stamps*...].

The history of the emergence of wooden tourist stamps in the Ukraine dates back to 2007. The Czech scout, Vladimir Gulin-Migalets, visited the country and came to the conclusion that on its territory, there are quite a lot of unique objects on the basis of which it is possible to create a Ukrainian system of wooden tourist stamps [*Project Buszcze is an effort*...].

Excursion services and cultural heritage are sufficiently interdependent. Programmes for the development of excursions and tourism should be created at a national level. Unfortunately, as economic and military problems exist in contemporary Ukraine, not enough attention is paid to the development of tourism or the preservation of tourist attractions.

Since wooden tourist stamps attract the attention of the citizens of our state and those countries whose history is related to certain excursion objects, we can rely on the fact that in the future, wooden tourist stamps, through advertising, will promote financing for the maintenance, development and preservation of these sites. This is illustrated by the history of

a church restoration in the village Bishche, Ternopil region. This is an object, to which TS № 38 – "Church of the Virgin Mary, 1644 – Bishche" is assigned. A few years ago, the church was in ruins. There was greenery on the roof, the church was practically destroyed. The state in which the church was and the occurred changes can be seen in the image below (Fig. 6). In the fall of 2013, the church's restoration work began, which was carried out by the locals. In 2014, the installation of a wooden base for the future roof had begun. In July 2015, the church was consecrated. At that time, the roof of the church had already been completed and the walls were partial-

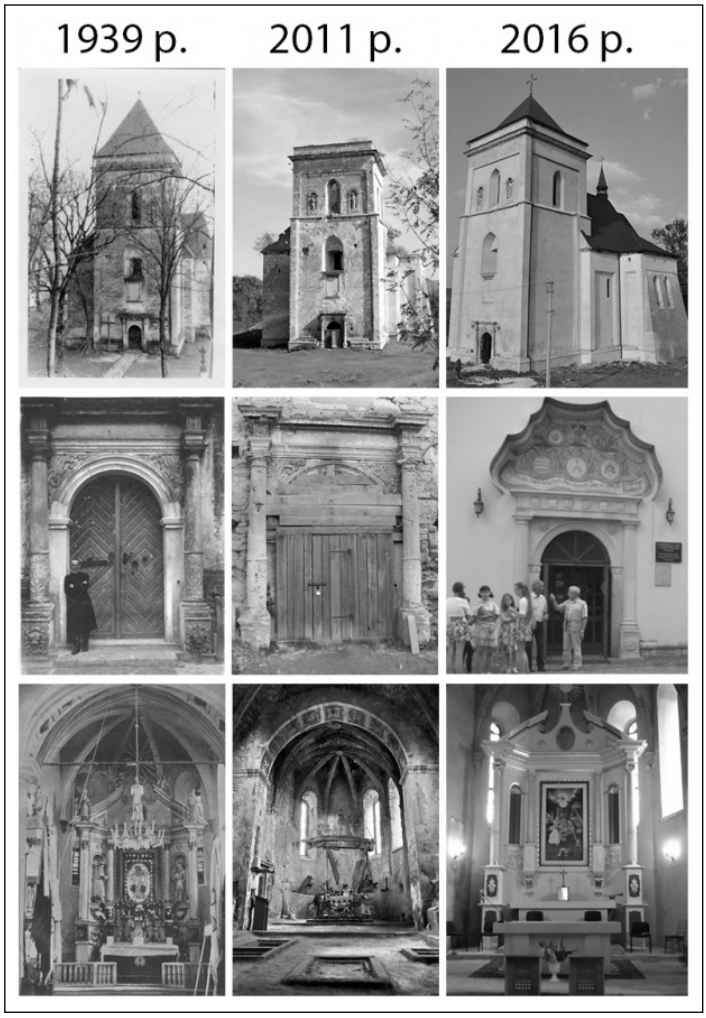

Fig. 6. The church restoration in Bishche village, Ternopil region
Source: [*Continuation of the history of the renovation*…].

ly restored in and outside the building. But that was not all. In 2015, the entrance to the church was restored and the decorating process continued. All this would not have been possible without the large funds provided by the people from Bishche village, who now live in the United States. Poland also made a significant contribution to the restoration of this monument. In order for everyone to follow the restoration process, a website was created: http://projektbuszcze.org/. The historical cycle of changes from the interwar years to the present can be viewed on this page [*Project Buszcze is an effort*...].

Thus, wooden tourist stamps are also something that can attract the attention of state and public organisations to undertake preservation of valuable objects. At present, the Ukraine has enough problems with excursion objects preservation. Evidence that the preservation of cultural heritage in our country is not given enough attention and funding is an absolute or partial disappearance of cultural and historical objects. The fact that the first Ukrainian premium stamps depicted the churches of the Zakarpatska region is quite interesting. Unfortunately, they no longer exist: e.g. Kobyletska, Polyana and Maidan. Throughout its history, Ukrainian wooden tourist stamps have been constantly improved. The first Ukrainian tourist stamp cost 10 hrn. 00 kop., and its design was marked by neat minimalism. The cost of the first stamps was written directly on the stamp, and the hooks for hanging it were simply nailed into a tree. For comparison, we want to add that today's price is not written on the stamp, and the hooks for hanging it only need to be twisted.

Table 1. Types of wooden tourist stamps

Types of wooden tourist stamps	**Available amount**	**Type description**
Premium	18	Stamps of this category differ because they can not be purchased. You can get them only by collecting ten numbered stamps.
New Year TS	2	Stamps dedicated to the New Year theme.
Jubilee TS	6	Non-numbered wooden tourist stamps dedicated to the celebration of events, people, attractions or characters. The only type that does not require the presence of a collector.
Festival TS	6	Non-numbered wooden tourist stamps dedicated to certain festival events.
TS souvenirs	13	This type of stamp can be purchased at temples, coffee shops etc. It is also non-numbered.

Source: Own elaboration.

The texts on wooden tourist stamps have also changed over the years. Moreover, a sticker-sketch code of the stamp has also been added. Since 2015, magnets have been installed on the back of wooden tourist stamps, which facilitates the issue of their storage. Thus, the history of wooden tourist stamps has originated relatively recently, but the popularity of stamps grows each year. Working with different types of wooden tourist stamps, we have found that most of them are classic and serial. Information about non-series types of stamps is given in Table 1.

According to the information in the table presented above, there are types of wooden tourist stamps that do not require the tourist's presence at a given place for it to be bought. Such an instance is the jubilee stamp № 3 "Lesia Ukrainka, 25.02.1871 – August 01, 1913, 140 years from the day of birth". The number of such stamps is rather small and they tend to relate to certain events, serving as souvenir products.

In this way, we have analysed the types of wooden tourist stamps. In general, they can be divided into:

- classic wooden tourist stamps – which represent attraction objects due to their uniqueness;
- event wooden tourist stamps: festival, New Year, premium, etc.

It is also important to define categories of wooden tourist stamps and to give their examples on the basis of the Ukrainian stamps registry. The

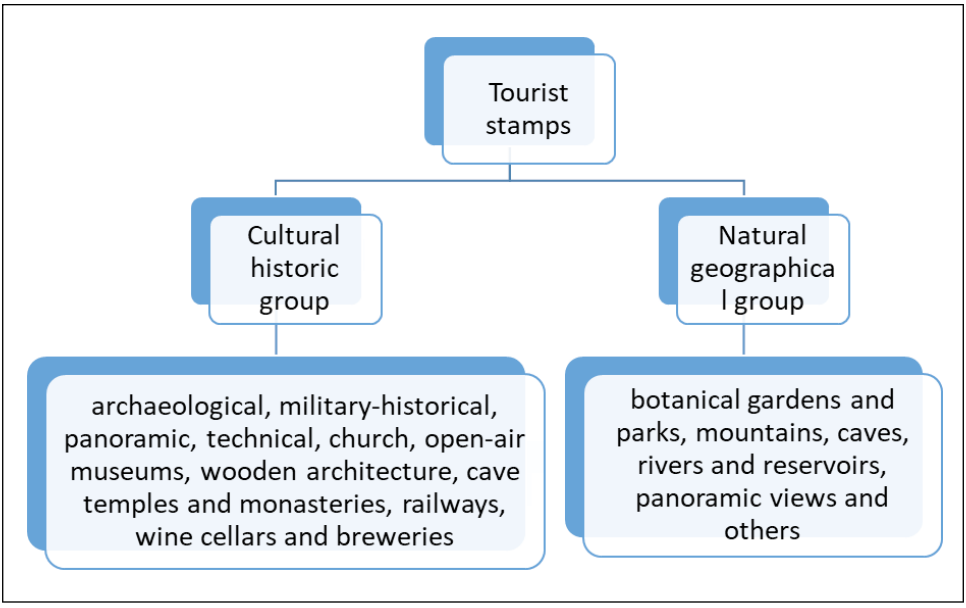

Fig. 7. Categories of wooden tourist stamps

Source: Own elaboration.

total number of wooden tourist stamps categories is twenty-four. According to the origin of excursion objects, we have divided the categories of wooden tourist stamps into two groups (Fig. 7).

As a rule, wooden tourist stamps depict the images of fortifications: № 3 "The ruins of Templar Castle" in Serednie village, Zakarpatska region, № 102 "Pnivskiy Castle" in the village of the Ivano-Frankivsk region; palaces: № 97 "The palace of the Count of Shenborniv – Buheiniv" in the urban village Chynadiiovo, Zakarpatska region, № 85 "Palace of Count Baden" in the urban village Koropets, Ternopil region; monasteries: № 193 "Monastery of the Basilian Fathers" in Krekhiv and № 197 "Monastery of the Dominicans" in Pidkamin village, Lviv region. Wooden tourist stamps with churches are extremely popular. Among them, the examples of stamp № 9 "Church Vozdvyzhennia Chesnoho Khresta" in Drohobych, Lviv region and № 203 "Armenian Church of St. Apostles Peter and Paul" in Chernivtsi, may be given.

Cities are also included in the system of tourist objects depicted on wooden tourist stamps. Examples of such stamps include: № 99 "Rakhiv – the most mountainous city of the Ukraine" and № 200 "The Renaissance city of Zhovkva".

Wooden tourist stamps are also assigned to natural objects. Famous wooden tourist stamps № 8 "Sea Eye" of Lake Synevir in the Zakarpatska region, № 23 "Stone Velet-Pidkamin" in the urban village Pidkamin, Lviv region, № 100 "Goverla", located in the Chornohirskyi range, № 125 "Valley of daffodils" in Kireshi, Zakarpatska region, show that natural objects are no less important and valuable in terms of creating wooden tourist stamps.

What is also interesting is the fact that the wooden tourist stamp places found in the registry include those non-existent today. As a rule, such objects were of particular value in the past and were potentially be important for the development of tourism in the region in which they were located. Officially, one of the newest wooden tourist stamps in 2017 was № 275 "House of the regimental office, 1756-1765 – Kozelets". It can be bought at the place that is depicted on the stamp – at the house of the regimental office. The house is located on the territory of the city park. The regional library is located in the historic building. On the first floor, there is a children's library, on the second – a library for adults. Wooden tourist stamps can be purchased on the second floor. The library is open from 9 a.m. to 6 p.m., excluding Saturdays. It is interesting that St. Nicolas Church 1781-1784 is located not far away, for about three hundred metres on St. Nicholas Street. This historically architectural building could have its own TS, but the sale of TS in the church was forbidden; another possible sale place of stamps is the Museum of Weaving History of the Chernigiv Region, which is now in a 'pending state'; Voznesenska church, where the museum is located, was officially transferred to the UOC-KP at the end of February 2017 without the provision of a new building for the museum itself. Currently, the muse-

um "coexists" in the same building, along with the new church. The next TS from Kozelts can be released after solving the problems concerning the museum [Althaim 2009].

Wooden tourist stamps are unique souvenirs because they have a distinct authenticity. These souvenirs are made only in the city of Rymariv, which is located on the territory of the Czech Republic. The manufacturing of wooden tourist stamps is patented and protected by international law. In Rymariv, wooden tourist stamps are produced for more than twenty-two countries, including Spain, the Netherlands, Slovenia, Switzerland, Australia, Great Britain, Austria, Germany, Poland, the Ukraine and others [*Co to sou touristicke znamky?*...].

It is true that wooden tourist stamps help popularise excursion objects and their preservation in all of these countries. One of the peculiarities of wooden tourist stamps is that a tourist can only obtain them at a marked place. Namely, the stamp is like a kind of trophy. Due to this feature, a special collecting game appeared. Tourists become stamps hunters [*Tourist stamps*...].

Thus, the wooden tourist stamp plays the role of a tool for popularising and promoting the excursion object, which leads to an increase in the intensity of excursions and tourist flow.

The advertising a wooden tourist stamp creates for excursion objects, attracts more authorities' attention to a wooden tourist stamp place that affects investments for the maintenance of the object, its protection, restoration and preservation. The evidence of the increasing popularity of wooden tourist stamps is the appearance of a special application for smartphones.

Discussion

The majority of Ukrainian tourist enterprises are focused on outbound tourism and offer foreign tours. However, domestic tourist products are becoming more and more popular. Tourist agencies develop excursion routes in the territory of an area, but very often, tourists are not aware of their services due to the shortage of information and advertisement.

In this area, the tourism industry requires additional advertising. Special attention should be paid to forming of a positive image of a region in the tourist market of a given country and Europe, applying PR methods. Advancement of tourism products in the Ukraine, both on domestic and international markets, is impossible without providing proper advertisement. It is a very effective constituent of the system of marketing communications and needs to undergo considerable changes [Bordun, Althaim 2017, p. 61].

One of important elements of touristic marketing is stamping tourist places. Many participants of the tourism and excursion market in the

Ukraine still do not recognise the importance of stamping such tourist and excursion objects. They believe that the sale of the souvenir products is not an important factor promoting and attracting tourists' attention to the destinations. In some areas, the small number of wooden tourist stamp places but also local information tourist centres do not develop this topic. However, this segment of the tourism market is one of the most important factors influencing tourist flow, the amount of such objects and, at the same time, it is an important stimulus in the development of branches of souvenir product material production and relating them to areas of activity [Althaim 2018, p. 129].

The total number of wooden tourist stamp places in the Ukraine is 300, 290 of which are owners of the stamps that are already sold on the market. The other 10 are being developed and are not yet for sale. Carrying out geospatial analysis of wooden tourist stamps, it was found that some TS have a serial number greater than 300. The last wooden tourist stamp was released under number 491. Project managers explained that tens, according to which wooden tourist stamps are divided, are not fully closed yet. When a particular object is given a wooden tourist stamp it also receives a serial number. When stamps start a new 10, then it is necessary to be completed within the area where the object is located. For convenience, wooden tourist stamps are grouped into tens. Consequently, when the next wooden tourist stamp is assigned by project leaders to the object of another region, its sequence number is determined by the internal register. Having collected ten marks, tourists receive a 'premium' stamp, which depicts objects not yet existing on stamps. In order to get a premium stamp, a collector must accumulate 10 classic stamps or one 'joker', which may be a jubilee or festival stamp, and 9 classic stamps. A premium stamp can only be obtained by cutting off blue-and-yellow coupons and sending them to a specific project manager.

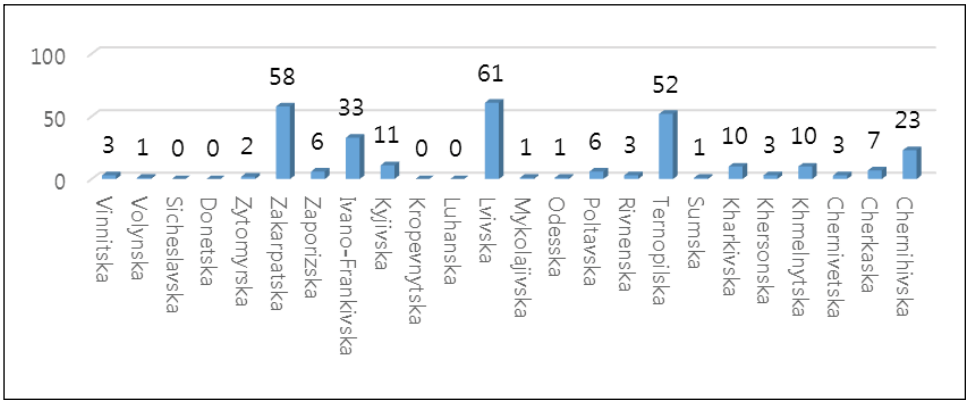

Fig. 8. Diagram "Number of wooden tourist stamps in regions of the Ukraine"
Source: Own elaboration.

The graph above shows the number of wooden tourist stamps in regions where it is possible to trace the distribution tendencies of tourist stamps in regions of the Ukraine (Fig. 8).

According to this graph, it is evident that the least number of tourist brands are in Volynska, Zhytomyrska, Khersonska, Chernivetska and Cherkaska oblasts. The number of travel stamp places in the mentioned territories does not exceed ten. And on the territory of Luganska, Sicheslavska, Donetska and Odesska *oblasts*, there are no TS places. However, there are plenty of TS locations in regions of western Ukraine. There are more than 60 wooden tourist stamp places in Lvivska oblast. A few less can be found in Zakarpatska and Ternopilska *oblasts*.

Having grouped travel stamps into wider categories than done by the project representatives in the Ukraine, the authors placed them on the map and with the help of symbols they were visually identified, the territories in which smallest and largest number of wooden tourist stamps of a particular category are found in a given region (Fig. 9).

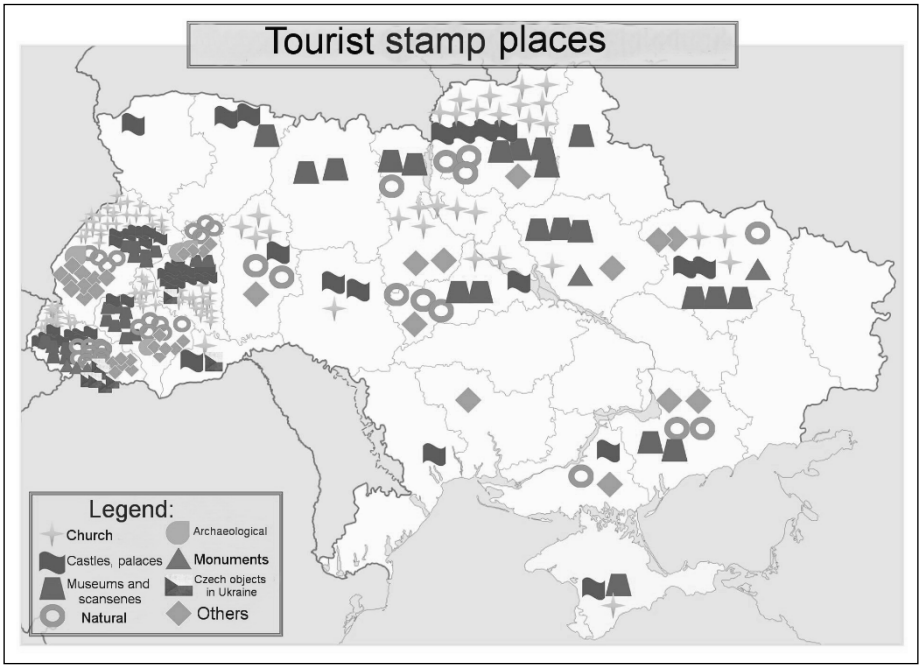

Fig. 9. Map of wooden tourist stamp places
Source: Own elaboration.

By analysing this map, it is evident that most travel-marked objects of all categories can be found in the territory of western Ukraine. Among wooden tourist stamp places in this region, the majority of stamps regard

'Church monuments' and the 'Fortresses, castles, palaces' categories. The presence of wooden tourist stamped castles is an element of the strategy concerning the development of castle tourism in western Ukraine [Bordun 2010, p. 78]. Within the territory of the Transcarpathians, 24 churches have obtained their wooden tourist stamps. The authors would especially like to highlight the wooden tourist stamps № 122 "Cathedral and the residence of bishops, XVII-XVIII centuries – Uzhgorod", № 130 "St. Michael's Church, XVI-XVIII centuries – Svaliava-Bystry", which indeed make an impression with their beauty. In the Lviv region, the number of travel marks, denoting sacred places, is 34. This is about a half of the total number of TS of the Lviv region. Lvivska, Zakarpatska and Ternopilska *oblasts* are famous for their large variety of wooden tourist stamp places. On the territory of western Ukraine, wooden tourist stamps are assigned to cities and town halls. For example, there are wooden tourist stamps already for sale: № 414 "Town Hall, XVII-XIX centuries – Sambir", № 45 "The old Town Hall and trade ranks of the XIX century – Chortkiv", № 79 "Town Hall, 1803 – Berezhany". The category 'Czech Objects in the Ukraine' includes wooden tourist stamps mainly from Transcarpathian and Chernivtsi regions: № 12 "Četnická stanice 1921 – Tavern in Kolochava", № 64 "Czech neighbourhood 1924-1925 – Khust", № 91 "Tereble-Ritska hydroelectric power station 1949-1955". Incidentally, it was in the Transcarpathians that the first places were marked. Since founders of the project were citizens of the Czech Republic, they found many interesting objects in the Transcarpathians. Because these lands were once part of Czechoslovakia, one may even today come across traces of the Czech culture resembling the old days. The category 'Others' includes some interesting objects: deer farms, wine cellars, breweries, casinos, taverns, etc. By analysing the prevalence of wooden tourist stamps, one may become acquainted with the valuable places regarding travel and touristic aspects. A map of wooden tourist stamps is a kind of travel catalogue, which allows travellers and tourists to discover previously unknown tourist destinations. For example, it is not a well-known fact that in the Transcarpathians, there is a deer farm called "Iza", where deers are grown and looked after by caretakers. The Transcarpathians have long been famous for berry wines, but thanks to the travel catalogue, tourists may learn that the attraction is a "Historic wine cellars of Serednie village".

On the territory of the Volyn region, only Lubart Castle has its wooden tourist stamp. There are many sacred objects, open-air and traditional museums in the north of the Ukraine. In central Ukraine, travel stamp places are practically absent. Kropevnytsk, Donetsk, Luhansk regions do not have such objects. Interesting is the fact that practically all wooden tourist stamps in the east of of the Ukraine belong to the territory of the Kharkiv region. Three objects out of twenty belong to the category 'Church monuments'. It can be seen that none of such stamps are assigned to any other

Table 2. The number of existing categories of wooden tourist stamps in the *oblasts* of the Ukraine.

		Names of categories of wooden tourist stamps								**Total in *oblast***
		Church monuments	**Fortresses, castles, palaces**	**Museum and open-air locations**	**Natural**	**Archaeological**	**Monuments**	**Czech Objects in Ukraine**	**Others**	
1.	Vinnitska	1	2	-	-	1	-	-	-	**4**
2.	Volynska	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	**1**
3.	Sicheslavska	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	**-**
4.	Donetska	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	**-**
5.	Zytomyrska	-	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	**2**
6.	Zakarpatska	23	10	5	9	-	3	6	6	**62**
7.	Zaporizska	-	-	2	2	-	-	-	2	**6**
8.	Ivano-Frankivska	11	2	8	6	1	-	-	6	**34**
9.	Kyjivska	6	-	2	1	-	-	-	2	**11**
10.	Kropevnytska	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	**-**
11.	Luhanska	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	**-**
12.	Lvivska	33	8	6	4	1	-	-	10	**62**
13.	Mykolajivska	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	**1**
14.	Odesska	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	**1**
15.	Poltavska	1	-	3	-	-	1	-	1	**6**
16.	Rivnenska	-	2	1	-	-	-	-	-	**3**
17.	Sumska	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	**1**
18.	Ternopilska	25	17	2	4	2	1	1	4	**56**
19.	Kharkivska	3	2	3	1	-	1	-	2	**12**
20.	Khersonska	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	1	**3**
21.	Khmelnytska	4	5	-	2	-	-	-	1	**12**
22.	Cherkaska	2	1	2	3	-	-	-	1	**9**
23.	Chernivetska	2	1	-	-	-	-	2	-	**5**
24.	Chernihivska	14	4	4	3	-	-	-	1	**26**
25.	Autonomous Republic of Crimea	1	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	**3**
Total in category		**126**	**59**	**42**	**36**	**4**	**6**	**9**	**38**	**320**

Source: own elaboration.

regions of eastern Ukraine. Only nine objects, three of which belong to monuments of nature, can be found in the territory of southern Ukraine.

Analysing the map of wooden tourist stamp places of the Ukraine, it is evident that the most wooden tourist stamp objects can be found in the territory of western Ukraine, and a certain number of objects is observed within north and north-eastern Ukraine. In the central part of Ukraine, there are only a few of them. The leaders in the number of stamps are the Transcarpathian, Lviv, Ivano-Frankivsk and Ternopil regions. Among the regions of eastern Ukraine, regions Kharkiv and Poltava come in first. According to category, they are presented in Table 2.

Conclusions

The introduction of selling wooden tourist stamps in almost all regions of the Ukraine within the complex of all souvenir products was among the measures new and important in this direction. These products have gained incredible popularity among tourists of all age groups. The use of wooden tourist stamps to promote and popularise excursion services offers the following possibilities:

- to find customers who collect wooden tourist stamps, satisfying their needs by providing high-quality excursion services to make a profit;
- wooden tourist stamp indeed become an advertising tool promoting an excursion product;
- the more wooden tourist stamp sightseeing objects there are, the bigger tourists' and travellers' potential will be in this region of the Ukraine;
- the availability of wooden tourist stamps and the attempts to increase tourists' private collections, promotes the protection, preservation, restoration and reconstruction of these objects.

The process of developing a wooden tourist stamp is not so difficult to implement, however, its role in promoting and popularising excursion facilities, as well as organising and providing high-quality excursions, is still underestimated.

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‘GO TO BIESZCZADY!’: TOURISM IN THE WESTERN BIESZCZADY MOUNTAINS IN THE 1930S

*Michał Organ**

Abstract

Purpose. The aim of the study is focused on the development of tourism in the Western Bieszczady Mountains in the 1930s, the period being a turning point which started to change the perception of the region and its opportunities for further progress in the field.
Method. To present a comprehensive image of the issue in question, individual subsections covered in the study are devoted to available contemporary sources of tourist information, including maps and guidebooks, the creation of an activity profile of selected organisations, institutions and societies which had undertaken various steps and made investments in the tourist infrastructure. Furthermore, the contemporary transportation network and accommodation possibilities are discussed to outline the most severe limitations of tourism in the region. A depiction of marked tourist trails allowing first trips in the Western Bieszczady Mountains to be undertaken was also provided. To convey the intended study, historical-type methodology was applied.
Findings. The conducted analysis indicates that one of the most significant issues hindering the development of tourism in the region was the unsatisfactory transportation network, and especially the quality of roads and lack of means of transport which would successfully link eastern and western railroads, allowing further touristic exploration and development of tourist infrastructure, especially places of accommodation. Furthermore, analysis of the contemporary sources indicates that the previously negative perception of the Western Bieszczady Mountains among tourists and specialists in the field had started to change.
Research and conclusions limitations. The final conclusion, stating that the 1930s may be treated as a turning point in the development of tourism in the Western Bieszczady Mountains, at least in terms of their perception, can be drawn thanks to analysis of the available primary sources issued in the covered period.
Practical implications. The presented discussion demonstrating the development of tourism in the Western Bieszczady Mountains in the covered period of time may constitute very useful material for any further research devoted to the history of tourism in Poland, and especially for studies discussing the history of mountain tourism in the Polish Carpathians.
Originality. The study offers the first comprehensive discussion provided in Polish literature solely devoted to the topic in question. Previous sources are very limited in terms of analysed primary sources or treat the subject, especially the discussed period of time, as short introductory paragraphs or subsections in the discussion of tourism in the Western Bieszczady Mountains.
Type of paper. Monographic article.

Keywords: history of tourism; Western Bieszczady Mountains; the 1930s.

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Introduction

The introduction to the theme suggested by the title may be illustratively conveyed by the reminiscence of a doyen of Polish tourism expert, Mieczysław Orłowicz.[1] As a young boy, none of Orłowicz's schoolmates had ever heard of the Bieszczady Mountains. Never had any of his teachers told him about this range, no one had persuaded anyone to organise trips to this area. Only once had he heard the name, which was when a beggar knocked at the door and begged for alms, Orłowicz's grandmother gave him a dressing-down by saying: "Go to Bieszczady!".[2] At that time, the name Bieszczady was used then to denote a no-go and cursed land [Orłowicz 1970, 68]. This forbidden and forgotten mountain region situated somewhere in the geographical and cultural marches, for many years, lingered on like a land unworthy of any special attention, and was certainly not a terrain perceived as a destination for the average tourist. Not until the last decade prior to the outbreak of the World War 2 had the Western Bieszczady Mountains[3] experienced any serious institutional activity or development of tourist infrastructure, including places of accommodation and the first tourist trails. It was a period in which the terrain started to be noticeable for tourists and authors of the first texts, accounts and guidebooks introducing the Bieszczady Mountains to the larger public. Therefore, the purpose of the following study is to depict the development of tourism in the Western Bieszczady Mountains in the 1930s.

The selection of the 1930s as a temporal bracket is predominantly determined by the contemporary growing interest in the development of mass tourism in the era of the Second Polish Republic, when different actions undertaken by local governments and tourism societies encompassing the improvement of infrastructure and supply system took place. Furthermore, in this period of time, more emphasis was placed on such tourism-enhancing aspects as the emergence of specialist publications devoted to the promotion of tourism in different districts, holiday and summer resorts. The tourism movement of the 1930s started to evolve into a more organised form, especially due to the involvement of authorities, also including local govern-

[1] Mieczysław Orłowicz (1881-1959) – Doctor of Law, ministerial official, specialist and promoter of tourism. A graduate of the University of Lwów, co-founder of the Academic Tourist Club in Lwów (1906) and organiser of the first Olympic Committee in Poland. He was the author of over one hundred tourist guides. Orłowicz also promoted tourism in the Eastern Bieszczady and in the eastern areas of the Second Polish Republic, he also designed the course of the eastern part of the Main Beskidy Trail [for more details see: Kowalik 2009].

[2] All citations in the article were translated from Polish by the author.

[3] The Western Bieszczady Mountains are here understood as a touristic terrain delimited by the railroads from Zagórz to Łupków and from Zagórz to Krościenko, as well as by the modern state borders with Slovakia to the south, and with the Ukraine to the east and south.

ments, who aimed at improving economic conditions and living standards. A huge role was played by the League of Tourism Support, founded in 1935, which, inter alia, tried to increase the number of summer visitors by the introduction of popular trains, railway discounts, low-priced packaged holiday deals, organisation of holiday and summer campaigns, establishing and promoting the development of tourism organisations and societies, creation of tourist accommodation centres, publication of posters, leaflets, brochures, maps and other sources, etc. Additionally, new associations, organisations, societies and boards were created in different local administrative units, which attempted to develop summer tourism by different investments in infrastructure, accommodation and teaching locals how to provide necessary standards for the holidaymakers. Tourists also started to perceive the Western Bieszczady Mountains, predominantly located in the area of the Lwów voivodeship, as a potential tourist destination.

Although research on tourism in the Western Bieszczady Mountains has already been selectively discussed by J. Wrona [1983; 1990], K. Szpara [2016] and W. Wesołkin [2017], none of the enlisted studies were solely devoted to the complexity of tourism in the interwar period, especially the 1930s, which was revolutionary in terms of the development of local tourism. It should be noted, however, that W. Wesołkin [2017] largely discusses this period in his text, but his study is only devoted to one article found in the contemporary local press, and therefore, it may only be viewed as a valuable contribution to a larger and more holistic study conveyed from a broader perspective. In the discussion of tourism potential in the Bieszczady Mountains in the 1970s, J. Wrona [1983] very succinctly mentions only a few aspects of tourism in the pre-war Bieszczady. Similarly, the author only very briefly provides a few short paragraphs devoted to the subject of pre-war accommodation possibilities [Wrona 1990]. In the most comprehensive discussion so far, K. Szpara [2016] provided one introductory subsection discussing the history of tourism in the Western Bieszczady Mountains from its beginnings to the outbreak of the World War 2; however, the majority of his research is limited to the area of Sianki, and very little or no attention is paid to the western side of the Bieszczady Mountains. The sources used in the discussion, due to the very nature of the undertaken sphere and the general lack of proper archive records are mainly limited to contemporary studies, guidebooks, maps, brochures, leaflets and articles presented in local and regional press, especially several issues of *Turka News* that provide some interesting and valuable tidbits of information concerning the development of tourism in the Sianki region. Furthermore, the articles written by M. Orłowicz [1934] and A. Wrzosek [1938a; 1938b] are invaluable first-hand records of tourists travelling in the area, both of the authors, being doyens of Polish mountain tourism, offer a glimpse into the region and discussed phenomena. More information concerning statistical data, espe-

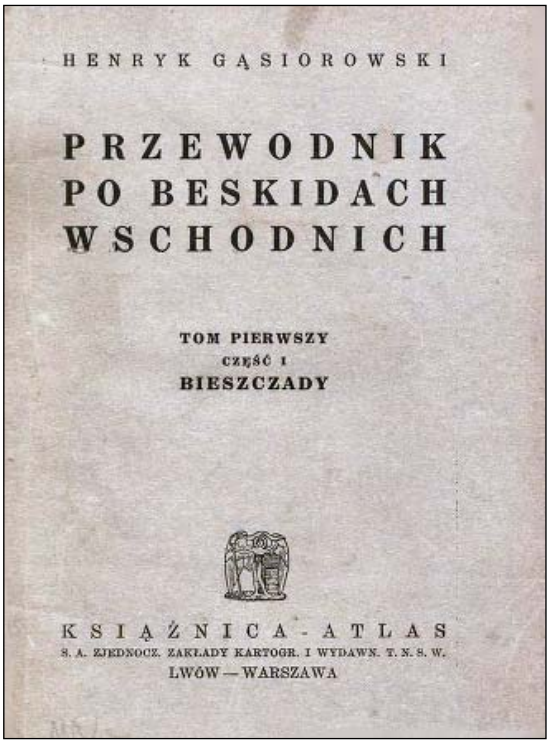
cially the number of tourists, visitors and accommodation possibilities may be found, among others, in the research by Z. Nawodzka [1939], K. Woyciechowski [1938] and S. Smolec [1938]. In this regard, the author of the conducted study aims to fill the niche and present some selected, significant aspects connected with the development of tourism in the discussed period and geographical area. The following individual subsections, devoted to the available tourist literature, the presentation of selected organisations, societies and institutions, communication and accommodation issues as well as the contemporary network of tourist trails, are an attempt to provide a truly multifaceted image of tourism which could serve as a valuable contribution to any further research in this field.

Maps & Guidebooks

Mieczysław Orłowicz [1934, 2] recalled that he and the members of the Lwów's Academic Touristic Club had hiked in the most important parts of the Eastern Beskidy Mountains, Gorgany, Middle Bieszczady, Czarnohora, Hutsul Beskid and even ranges of the Romanian Carpathians, but only the Western Bieszczady Mountains remained completely unknown to him. A similar tone was expressed by A. Wrzosek[4] who claimed that "among the Polish Carpathians, perhaps the least renowned mountains are the Bieszczady" [Wrzosek 1938a, 72]. This situation was, among other aspects, caused by an almost complete lack of up-to-date tourist literature which would introduce and approximate this fragment of the Eastern Beskidy Mountains, whereas older and rather short sources depicted the Western Bieszczady Mountains as "completely similar to the Western Beskidy Mountains, but more monochromatic and empty" [Wrzosek 1938a, 72]. However, the 'monochromatic' and rehashed depiction did not correspond with reality, as despite trite and hackneyed claims and lack of characteristic elements, the scenery of the Western Bieszczady Mountains had many unique features, and one could find such elements that were not present in the remaining parts of Carpathians. To form an opinion about the Polish mountains, it was necessary to become familiarised with them [Wrzosek 1938a, 72]. Sightseeing of the area was handicapped by the lack of suitable sources in the form of guidebooks and maps, and a great majority of the available sourc-

[4] Antoni Wrzosek (1908-1983) – geographer, professor of geography at the Jagiellonian University who specialised in the geography of tourism. In addition to his academic work, Antoni Wrzosek dynamically undertook action in tourist organisations: the Polish Tatra Society, the Polish Sightseeing Society, and then, in the Polish Tourism and Sightseeing Society. He also published numerous articles, his pre-war publications were focused on the Eastern Carpathians and the Tatra Mountains, and after the war, he wrote mainly on the subject of the Sudetes and Lower Silesia [for more details see: Majkowska, Fiałek 2008].

es were focused on the Eastern Bieszczady Mountains, especially on the area of Skole [Orłowicz 1914a; Orłowicz 1914b and *Turysta w Skolszczyźnie* 1939]. Similarly, many specialists and journalists, despite being familiar with the Bieszczady's geographical situation, almost entirely focused on the description of tourist attractions located in the eastern part of the mountains [Kozłowski 1932, 24-25]. It was only thanks to the first volume of H. Gąsiorowski's guidebook describing the Eastern Beskidy Mountains being published, did tourists acquire specialist and up-to-date information on the Bieszczady [Gąsiorowski 1933]. Although Gąsiorowski focused almost solely on the Eastern Bieszczady (he depicted the area around Sianki, including trips to Halicz, Tarnica, Bukowe Berdo, Wielka Rawka, Ustrzyki Górne, Stuposiany), his work gained much attention and provoked further interest in this area. Nevertheless, the whole terrain of the Western Bieszczady Mountains between Ustrzyki Górne and Osława valley remained untouched in guidebooks specially written for mountain tourists. Only a skiing guidebook written by Zygmunt Klemensiewicz covered the whole area of the Bieszczady Mountains, from Wyszkowska to Łupków Pass [Klemensiewicz 1934].


HENRYK GĄSIOROWSKI

PRZEWODNIK
PO BESKIDACH
WSCHODNICH

TOM PIERWSZY
CZĘŚĆ I
BIESZCZADY

KSIĄŻNICA-ATLAS
S. A. ZJEDNOCZ. ZAKŁADY KARTOGR. I WYDAWN. T. N. S. W.
LWÓW — WARSZAWA

Fig. 1. Henryk Gąsiorowski's guidebook
Source: Gąsiorowski [1933].

A similar situation concerned maps; a schematic 1:200 000 map of the Bieszczady and Western Gorgany Mountains was published for the first time in 1932 thanks to the cooperation of the Polish Tatra Society (PTT) branches from Lwów, Drohobycz and Stryj; however, its character, scale and the area covered made it only useful for less demanding tourists [Krygowski 1988, 66]. In 1936, Edmund Słuszkiewicz, a member of the Sanok PTT, published a guidebook describing the historical Sanok District, in which he mainly focused on Sanok and the surrounding areas, and it only provided some elementary information on the western side of the Western Bieszczady Mountains, for instance, he wrote only a few lines about Łupków and Duszatyn [Słuszkiewicz 1938]. Fortunately, tourists could also use very detailed and modern 1:100 000 scale maps issued by the Polish Military Geographical Institute; nonetheless, the names used to denote various elements of topography in the area of the Western Bieszczady Mountains were different than the names used by the locals. The issue could become problematic when tourists asked for directions, for example, M. Orłowicz was corrected by a local Boyko that 'Krzemień' (literally a flint) is actually 'Hreben' (from a Ruthenian word denoting a comb) [Orłowicz 1970, 342].

In the 1930s, the region started to gain more interest: "These saddest part is that the Bieszczady are the most attractive elements for tourists. In terms of landscape, they are incomparable. For painters and amateur photographers simply invaluable, for an ethnographer very interesting, for a naturalist, the Bieszczady Mountains are a colossal field for studies and observation" [*Ziemia Kontrastów* 1932, 8]. To make them more accessible for tourists, skiers, holidaymakers and many other groups of people, a few societies, organisations and institutions were founded at that time.

Selected tourism organisations and their missions

The selection of the discussed organisations and societies was primarily decided by their involvement and participation in the process of tourism development in the area of the Western Bieszczady Mountains, their actions aiming to increase the number of tourists visiting the region, as well as the very high availability of sources allowing to discuss the issue.

The establishment of a PTT branch in Sanok took place on 16th May, 1929, following an initiative by a local chemist Jan Hrabar, who two years later, in 1931, resigned from his function. His resignation greatly affected the functioning of the PTT in Sanok as for the next five years, the branch was declared as non-functioning. Its official reactivation took place in 1936 [Kapłon 2009, 15-19]. The tasks of Sanok's PTT branch encompassed the promotion of tourism by providing necessary information on the surrounding areas as well as maintaining and establishing tourist infrastructure, in-

cluding marking tourist trails, building new mountain hostels, publishing guidebooks and maps, organising mountain trips and contests, etc. [Krygowski 1988, 117]. One of the biggest events organised by the PTT in Sanok was the Mountain Convention that took place on 14-17th August, 1936, gathering a few thousand people – highlanders and representatives of different organisations and institutions – to discuss various themes devoted to the mountains and tourism [*Zamknięcie Zjazdu Górskiego* 1936, 2]. Moreover, during the convention, the Association of Mountain Lands was established. It was designed to coordinate the actions undertaken by various tourist, economic, cultural, youth, scientific, educational, social and health organisations. Its main task was focused around the support given to different organisations promoting tourism, sightseeing, and in general, the Polish mountains among Poles and foreigners, while paying the much needed attention to protection of mountains and wildlife areas [*Statut Związku Ziem Górskich* 1937, 1].

In Turka, a new Society – the Friends of the Turka District – was founded on 13th April, 1932. It aimed to promote the district as terrain with huge potential, beautiful landscapes and health-friendly conditions. The members of the society wanted to stimulate tourism, attract holidaymakers in the summer and skiers in the winter season, who would become clients of newly established boarding houses, health resorts, mountain hostels and hotels [*Towarzystwo Przyjaciół Powiatu Turczańskiego* 1932, 2]. During the same period, on 17th April, 1932, the Turka Association of PTT was created at the Drohobycz-Stanisławów Branch of the society. Its main aims encompassed the creation and further marking of tourist trails as well as building mountain hostels in Sokoliki Górskie and Sianki [*Polskie Towarzystwo Tatrzańskie* 1932a, 4]. Further activities of the society included the organisation of hiking trips in the Bieszczady Mountains and acting for the extension of a tourist border zone with Czechoslovakia in the area of Sianki [*Turystyka i Krajoznawstwo* 1932, 4; *Polskie Towarzystwo Tatrzańskie* 1932b, 4].

The development of tourism in the Western Bieszczady Mountains was one of the aims of the Tourism-Holiday Association of the Lwów Region's Districts and Counties of "Bieszczady" [*Statut Związku Letniskowo-Turystycznego "Bieszczady" Powiatów i Gmin Wojew. Lwowskiego* 1938, 16]. The tasks of the association, established in 1938 [Smolec 1938, 5], comprised the promotion, support, organisation and development of tourism, holiday and winter resorts, as well as preparation of the region to fulfil the assumed aims. In order to do so, the association: provided advice, suggestions and help in terms of organising the functioning of resorts, cooperated in various initiatives aimed to improve the conditions found in resorts, represented them in publicity and administration, acted for their defence, planned and gave opinions on the undertaken initiatives associated with their development, established information centres for tourists and holidaymakers,

organised and coordinated actions designed for tourists wishing to stay at different resorts, cooperated with different institutions, organisations and governments at different levels [Niewczas, Zaborniak, Szmyd 2017, 205]. To emphasize the complexity of tourism in the region, at the beginning of 1939, in Olszanica – situated in the northern part of the Bieszczady Mountains – the association held a conference devoted to holidaymaking issues, including the problems connected with holidays and the tourism movement, cooperation with other tourism organisations, financial complexities and the importance of quarter-mastering, classification of resorts in terms of tourism, the tourism act, investment plans and further events [Tokarski 1939, 70-71]. The association also published a special journal called *Our Spas and Summer Resorts* [*Nasze Zdroje i Letniska*] devoted to the issues of tourism, holidaymaking and health resorts, which provided, inter alia, specialist information on running a tourism business, especially accommodation, and presented different boarding houses, etc. Furthermore, the members of the association from Lwów offered their help to tourists seeking accommodation tailored to their needs [*Nasze Zdroje i Letniska* 1939, No. 3, 4]. The actual accessibility of the recommended tourist destination points was largely affected by the insufficient communication network in this area.

Communication

Due to its mountainous and borderland nature, and resulting civilisational delay, the terrains of the Western Bieszczady Mountains, especially their tourist attractions and mountain trails, were not adequately accessible in terms of infrastructure, communication or means of transportation. In approximately 600 km of the Polish Carpathians, 7 main railroads were constructed which crossed the mountain arc transversely. Among them, there was only one line, namely Nowy Zagórz – Łupków, along which there was no officially acclaimed tourist destination point. The line also differed in terms of popularity when compared to the Chyrów - Sanok line, as the line to Łupków had more of a local character. Although built already in 1874 as a military strategic line connecting the Przemyśl Fortress with Budapest, after World War 1, its character largely changed, the second existing railway track was pulled up and the line was cut by the new border near Łupków Pass. In the 1930s, the railway infrastructure on this line remained unsatisfactory, as reported at the time, "there only run mixed trains pulled by ancient steam locomotives. At the stations, the locomotives wildly capered, leaving the train and moving cargo carriages even for almost an hour. Such experiments did not cause enthusiasm among those travellers who were accustomed to modern trains" [Wrzosek 1938b, 85]. The line travelled along Osława River onto Rzepedź, where the track left the valley and went to-

wards Komańcza, the only village experiencing at least some tourist traffic. The line continued its route to Łupków, where the tunnel under Łupków Pass was located, and by which one could travel to Czechoslovakia. Additionally, one could leave the train in Rzepedź and continue his or her journey by a forest narrow-gauge line to Duszatyn near Chryszczata. However, if the traveller was late for the narrow-gauge train, a handcar pulled by horses along the railway could be used [Słuszkiewicz 1938, 131].

For tourists aiming to travel to the central parts of the Western Bieszczady Mountains, the penultimate railway station in Nowy Łupków was more attractive in terms of communication as it was simultaneously the starting station for a forest narrow-gauge line heading to Majdan near Cisna. Nevertheless, this journey required some previous preparation, as the narrow-gauge train functioned only for three days a week [Wrzosek 1938b, 88], that is on Mondays, Wednesdays and Fridays [Słuszkiewicz 1938, 124]. If a tourist were to arrive in Nowy Łupków on the wrong day, she or he would have to wait for the arrival of the train. From Nowy Łupków, the line headed towards Majdan via Osława valley, and passed stations, inter alia, in Wola Michowa, Maniów and Balnica. In the last village, for a while, the railway crossed the Czechoslovakian border and passengers were escorted by border guards. Only after the correction of the Polish-Czechoslovakian border in 1938 was the railway fully incorporated into Poland [Rygiel 2002, 27]. From Balnica, the railway headed downwards via Solinka valley to Majdan near Cisna. From the last railway station, it was an approximately 2.5-km walk to the centre of Cisna.

Until the 1930s, extended narrow-gauge lines functioned, leading further east from Majdan to Kalnica and Beskid (a forest hamlet located near Smerek). On the eastern side of the Western Bieszczady Mountains, run a similar forest narrow-gauge line linking Sokoliki Górskie with Ustrzyki Górne. However, due to the economic downturn in the forest industry, as well as a lack of necessary investment in the technical condition of the railways, both narrow-gauge lines were closed and dismantled. Between the final stations of both railways there was 20 km in a straight line, a distance that if connected by a new railway, would have allowed travel from the western to eastern (and vice versa) side of the Western Bieszczady Mountains [Pawłowski 1926, 255]. Obviously, both narrow-gauge lines were predominantly industrial but could be occasionally used by tourists, and their liquidation significantly limited the possibilities of tourism and infrastructure development in this region [Wrzosek 1938b, 93].

The second railroad to Sianki, built before World War 1, was intended to provide a railroad connection between Lwów and Budapest. The scale of the investment was clearly visible in Sianki, where a dozen or so railway tracks were built along with a locomotive shed as well as several multi-storey buildings for staff. However, as a result of the change of boundaries af-

ter the First World War, the line lost its importance to a point at which the station in Sianki "was almost dead" – during the day, only one train stopped there [Wrzosek 1938a, 74-75]. Antoni Wrzosek recalls his journey in 1930 along the railroad, mentioning that he was the only passenger from Sambor who got off in Sianki: "I was struck by the emptiness, lifelessness and poverty, so conspicuous in the village. Admittedly, there were a few holidaymakers, but their presence was difficult to notice" [Wrzosek 1938a, 74-75]. Only after the new mountain hostel was built in Sianki in 1932 did the village become more popular and, as a result, it acquired a direct railroad connection with Warsaw. To make Sianki more attractive in the eyes of potential tourists, one could get special discounts on selected railway lines, for instance, in the 1937/38 tourist season, the Przemyśl Skiing Society – in cooperation with the Tourism Supporting League – proposed a special discount offer for those who would spend at least 6 days in Sianki or Sławsko [*Sianki i Sławsko* 1937].

Fig. 2. Railroad station in Sianki
Source: Kraus [1932].

Apart from railroads, tourists could also use local roads, especially along the northern and western boundaries of the Bieszczady Mountains, for instance, paved roads from Zagórz to Ustrzyki Dolne and from Zagórz to Radoszyce Pass. One of the notable exceptions was the road from Lesko to Baligród, where a local bus line allowed travel from the northern boundaries of the Western Bieszczady Mountains closer to their centre [*Powiat Le-*

Fig. 3. Road to Komańcza
Source: Poddębski [1936].

ski – Kraina Szybowisk 1935, 4]. However, reaching Cisna, the only larger village offering basic accommodation for tourists in the southern part of the Bieszczady required more planning as a potential tourist had to get off the train at Lesko-Łukwica station, then get to Lesko, board a bus to Baligród and then either walk almost 17 km to Cisna or hire a local cart [Wrzosek 1938b, 88]. The final stage of the journey to Cisna was described as truly picturesque, "the road covers scenic switchbacks reaching a watershed between Solinka and Hoczewka" [*Powiat Leski – Kraina Szybowisk* 1935, 4]. Nevertheless, the great majority of local roads were not suitable for average vehicles, the condition of local roads was even criticised by contemporary specialist publications devoted to tourism. The Lesko District, situated in the Bieszczady Mountains suffered from an undeveloped road network affecting the accessibility of communication means, for instance, in the district there were only 260 km of paved roads which did not meet local needs. Moreover, "whole stretches of the elongated district are deprived of suitable lines of communication, and dirt roads may be used only during a few weeks in summer" [*Kurne chaty* 1932, 79].

The importance of designing road networks allowing accessibility in all seasons and weather conditions for the development of tourism was at the centre of interest for the Association of Mountain Lands. Its body, the Bureau of Regional Planning, created idea to work out a network of roads in the terrain of the Carpathians, and simultaneously, incorporate the local economic and touristic needs of individual regions into them. The planned

roads were aimed to facilitate the "development of all spheres of cultural and economic life" [Pawlewski 1938, 8]. Their incarnation, the Carpathian Route, was planned to link Cieszyn, located near the Silesian Beskid, with Czeremosz valley. "The Carpathian Route aims to revive the tourism and holiday movement along the Carpathians. The route is designed for cars and tourists, and, due to its target, it will run through the boundary between densely populated areas, health, holiday and winter resorts (the Tatra and Czarnochora Mountains), simultaneously allowing travellers to enter parts of the Carpathians that are difficult to access, like the Gorgany, Bieszczady and Lower Beskid" [Pawlewski 1938, 9]. In this view, the highly recommended construction of the Carpathian Route was perceived as a necessity to open the terrain for any serious investments connected with tourism and the development of local villages, the difficulties of which were described by a contemporary account as: "Today the villages located along the narrow-gauge railways are godforsaken holes, very rarely visited by skiers and even less frequently by the summer tourists. It would be highly recommended that one day, the terrain cross the grand 'Carpathian route'. It would be one of the most picturesque sections of this daring and unique route, which would renaissance the inaccessible and lethargic Bieszczady villages, and tourists could familiarise themselves with the beautiful, both in the summer as well as winter, tourist terrains in the Western Bieszczady Mountains, which today are so unfairly neglected" [Wrzosek 1938b, 93]. Therefore, the construction of the road would be beneficial not only for potential tourists, but also to thousands of people living in one of the most densely populated and, at the same time, isolated regions of Interwar Poland, allowing improvement in overall quality of life and establishment of new local businesses, for instance, providing appropriate accommodation for tourists, skiers and holidaymakers.

Accommodation

In light of the official data, in the 1930s, huge interest in tourism could be noticed, especially in the Lwów voivodeship, thanks to its landscape, nature and first investments in tourist infrastructure. There were 88 official holiday resorts (92 with health resorts), and in 1936, the voivodeship was selected as a tourist destination point by 48,000 people. Thanks to this, the Lwów voivodeship was the fourth most commonly visited by tourists region in Poland (just after Cracow, Warsaw and the Stanisławów voivodeships). Most of the tourists visited the region during the summer period, however, the tourist movement started to also be present during the winter, especially due to tourists coming from the contemporary south-western regions of Poland [Leszczycki 1938, 5]. Nevertheless, the majority of

tourists visiting the region came from Lwów, Stanisławów and Tarnopol voivodeships. Additionally, a huge share of tourists seeking accommodation in summer resorts in the Lesko region came from Silesia. Tourists from this voivodeship were mainly focused on cheaper summer resorts and did not pay much attention to their quality, but rather to the virtue of their landscape. In contrary to tourists from Silesia, visitors from the Warsaw voivodeship opted for resorts which could offer better conditions in terms of infrastructure, etc. Therefore, guest houses (B&Bs) better equipped and prepared for tourists in Sianki, Komańcza and many other manor houses were more popular among this group. It was emphasized that resorts could function as more general and popular tourist centres only when their infrastructure would be developed, the standard of accommodation improved and additional possibilities for entertainment offered [Nawodzka 1939, 5; Woyciechowski 1938].

Sianki was the most commonly visited resort in the Western Bieszczady Mountains, as more than 600 holidaymakers visited the village during each of the summer breaks; similarly, it became a leading ski resort centre during the winter season [*Śląska żeńska drużyna harcerska w Siankach* 1932, 4]. Most of the summer resorts offered very basic accommodation conditions, and only Sianki and Komańcza had higher-standard guest houses providing the possibility "to find oneself in better, more cultural conditions" [Woyciechowski 1938, 6]. In terms of frequency, only Lesko, Krościenko, Komańcza and Cisna were visited by some 200-500 tourists in the summer period, and only Sianki was the chosen destination for more than 500 tourists. Thanks to reviews and recommendations published in the press, readers could find a suitable place for their stay [*Nasze Zdroje i Letniska* 1939, No. 3, 37]. For instance, Sianki, Komańcza and Cisna were fully booked in the summer period, and thanks to their growing popularity, Sianki and Komańcza were also visited by tourists from Warsaw [Woyciechowski 1938, 9-10]. Due to the popularity of Sianki, the adjacent Sokoliki was also considered to be a popular summer resort, for instance, in 1932, it was visited by many famous people, including Juljusz Petry, Jan Gerlach and Artur Passendorfer. The local press even advertised Sokoliki as a possible place where Elga Kern would spend her summer holidays [*Wieści z powiatu* 1932, 3]. The number of accommodation facilities available was also a direct cause of the limited character of local tourism, for instance, in Cisna, there was only one, not fully equipped, guest house – 'Pod Beskidem' – owned by Hugo Herczko [Kryciński 1996, 119]. The search for other accommodation in the area was very difficult as "the low level of culture and the lack of elementary sanitation devices was not helpful in the search for lodging in ordinary village houses" [Wrzosek 1938b, 88]. Therefore, the potential tourists wanting to visit Bieszczady had to largely rely on the offer provided by local summer resorts.

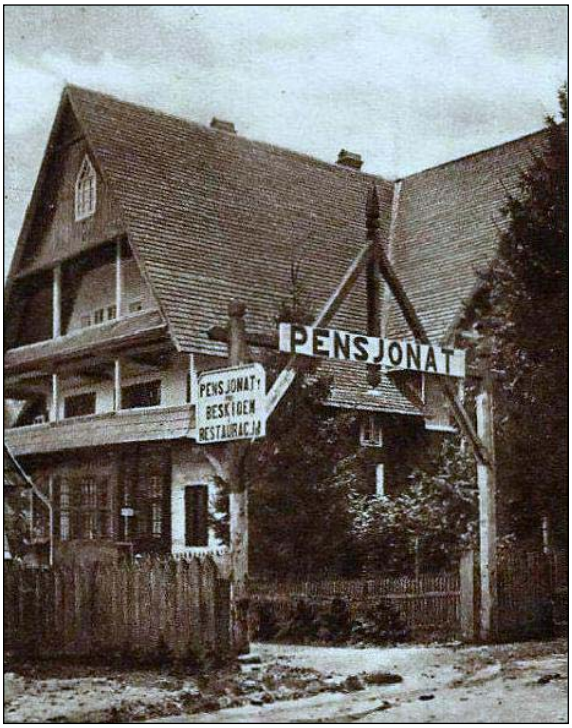


Fig. 4. 'Pod Beskidem' guest house in Cisna
Source: Anon [1928].

In 1938, in the whole Lwów region, there were 144 summer resorts, among which 33 were located in the Western Bieszczady Mountains: Lesko, Huzele, Uherce, Olszanica, Stefkowa, Wola Michowa, Zabrodzie, Myczków, Ustianowa, Łobozew, Sokole, Ustrzyki Dolne, Cisowiec, Mchawa, Kiełczawa, Roztoki Dolne, Baligród, Stężnica, Bystre, Rabe, Łubne, Kołonice, Jabłonki, Cisna, Kulaszne, Szczawne, Rzepedź, Komańcza, Prełuki, Duszatyn, Tarnawa Niżna, Sokoliki Górskie and Sianki [Nawodzka 1939, 93-94]. Noticeably, none of the afore-mentioned resorts were located between Cisna and Sianki, causing a severe gap in accommodation possibilities. In many villages, the local manor houses started to offer accommodation to tourists, for instance, in Myczków, Wołkowyja, Olszanica, Średnia Wieś and Sokole [*Lato we dworach na Ziemiach Wschodnich* 1938, 11-13; *Nasze Zdroje i Letniska* 1939, No. 3, 35]. Advertisements for selected guest houses created in such landed estates, like the one in Sokole belonging to Aleksandra Brandys, were published in the press and local guidebooks [Słuszkiewicz 1938, 138]. The adverts described the manor as a summer, bathing and winter resort and a PTT station. In order to get to Sokole, a tourist had to get off the train in Ustjanowa and take a horse and cart provided by the mansion

to travel the 14-km road to Sokole. The San River, meandering near the guest house, allowed the visitors to take a swim, whereas the beach near the bank of the river was a place designed for sunbathing. The manor provided whole-season accommodation, the building was spacious, fully furnished and offered full-board meals: "Manor cuisine is substantial and healthy. Four meals a day. Table d'hôte. First-class drinking water" [Słuszkiewicz 1938, 138]. The guest house had a lobby, terrace, a waste disposal system in the bathroom, a tennis court, a volleyball court, a library, a radio, a piano, numerous board games and provided the daily press. During the winter season, there was a skating rink and visitors could also go on a sledge ride along the frozen San River. Similar guest houses were mainly located in the northern and western parts of the Western Bieszczady Mountains and could only accommodate smaller groups of tourists and holidaymakers.

Larger, organised groups of tourists predominantly sought accommodation in mountain hostels and larger tourist resorts [*Wieści z powiatu* 1933, 4; *Zakosem* 1936, 11-12]. In 1939, on the land of the Polish Carpathians, there were 92 mountain hostels, more than 100 tourist stations and maintenance-free mountain shelters, out of them, 52 mountain hostels and 62 stations belonged to the PTT. When enumerating the mountain hostels in the Carpathians, Krygowski[5] [1939, 3] observed the improvement of accommodation possibilities in the Bieszczady terrains; however, in their western part, he only mentioned mountain hostels located in Łupków and Sianki and a tourist station in Berehy Górne, the remaining great majority of accommodation was placed in the Eastern Bieszczady Mountains. It was planned to rectify the lack of professional mountain hostels between Łupków and Sianki by the construction of a new PTT mountain hostel situated in the pass between Tarnica and Krzemień, near an available source of water [Orłowicz 1934, 2; Krygowski 1939, 6].

Sianki, the most popular tourist resort in the Bieszczady Mountains, recommended due to its fresh "mountainous air", was located below the Polish-Czechoslovakian state border, at the very south-eastern end of the Western Bieszczady Mountains near Użok Pass and the source of the San River [*Sami nie wiecie, co posiadacie* 1932, 2]. In the resort, tourists could find a post office equipped with a telephone and telegraph, a train and police station, a library and press shop [*Miejscowości letniskowo-turystyczne okręgu turczańskiego* 1938, 14-16]. The most representative building offering accommodation was the mountain hostel belonging to the Przemyśl Skiing Society. The building, functioning all-year-round thanks to the electricity produced by a generator and warmth provided by central heating, could

[5] Władysław Krygowski (1906-1998) – lawyer, attorney, employee and activist of Polish tourist organisations, writer, an expert on the Polish Carpathians, author of mountain guides and books devoted to the mountains, one of the most meritorious individuals for the development of Polish mountain tourism [for more details see: Wójcik 2010].

provide accommodation for more than 200 tourists [Kryciński 1995, 338]. The interior design of the "pleasing" mountain hostel was appealing thanks to the stylish Hutsuls furniture and fittings [*Zakosem* 1936, 8; Kowalik 1989, 35]. Apart from the mountain hostel, rooms could be hired in 6 boarding houses, which altogether, could accommodate 460 residents, for example, in the guest house owned by the Higher and Middle Education Teachers' Society, more than 100 guests could sleep [*Z miasta i powiatu* 1932, 4], whereas the 'Szawinka' guest house owned by Genowefa Stefańska offered rooms to 80 residents [*Informacyjny kalendarz narciarski na sezon 1937-1938* 1937, 77]. Additionally, local peasants could host more than 100 tourists at their homes. In Sianki, tourist infrastructure was far more developed in comparison to other resorts in the Western Bieszczady Mountains, as it encompassed a few restaurants, a buffet, 4 shops, a bakery, a butcher's shop as well as tennis, volleyball and basketball courts. In the winter season, skiers could use several ski routes designed for beginners and more experienced enthusiasts of downhill skiing, a ski jump and a toboggan run [*Miejscowości letniskowo-turystyczne okręgu turczańskiego* 1938, 14-16].

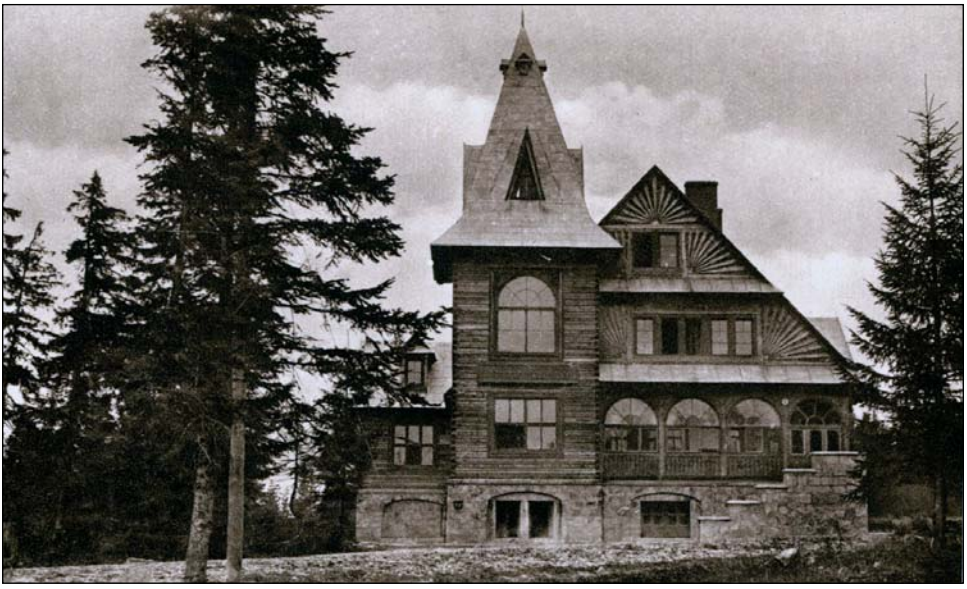


Fig. 5. Mountain hostel in Sianki
Source: Wiesner [1937].

Apart from Sianki, a short-lived mountain hostel functioned in Łupków, on the very western border of the Western Bieszczady Mountains. The PTT branch in Sanok took out a lease from Lwów's Polish State Railways Head Office on a former railway building in Łupków to create a mountain hostel,

Fig. 6. Mountain hostel in Sianki – interior decor
Source: Anon [1938].

which was to function during the whole year. Thanks to the financial resources coming from the Main Board of the PTT, in 1937, the renovation of the building started, but its opening was delayed due to difficulties in finding a person who would be willing to run the hostel. Finally, at the very beginning of the following year, Franciszka Strzelecka took out the lease, and in the 1937/38 winter season, 50 tourists slept in the mountain hostel. Its opening was celebrated by a skiing competition specially organised for this event which gathered a few dozen competitors. Łupków's mountain shelter offered full board, there was a kitchen, dining room and 8 rooms for 25 guests who could sleep on 20 beds. Unfortunately, already in the summer of 1938, the hostel was vandalised by railway workers who lodged in the building [Słuszkiewicz 1938, 114 and 134-135; Kapłon 2009, 26-29; Skała and Szpara 2009, 102].

In the winter season, skiers could look for accommodation at smaller tourist stations (up to 10 beds) located in Komańcza, Łupków, Maniów, Wołosate and Berehy Górne. In the latter village, in the 1930s, a small shelter for tourists, especially for the members of the Carpathian Association of Skiers, was established. The thatched shelter offered very basic condi-

tions for 10 people as it was just a one-room extension added to the forester's lodge [Kapłon 2009, 73; Kryciński 2012, 112]. Larger groups (between 10 and 30 people) could find accommodation in Łupków, Cisna, Myczków, Sokole, Olszanica, Gromadzyń and Ustrzyki Górne. Finally, apart from individual tourists and larger groups, mass tourism could only be accommodated in Sianki, where most of the skiing competitions were held [*Informacyjny kalendarz narciarski na sezon 1937-1938* 1937, 75-77 and 226-228; *Bieszczady jako teren turystyczny i narciarski* 1932, 1; *Wieści z powiatu* 1933, 4].

The system of accommodation and its placement largely affected the possibilities of sightseeing in the mountains, especially expressed by the marked trails and paths available for average tourists.

Tourist trails and routes

The model of tourist trails in the Western Bieszczady Mountains, especially in their western parts, was not well-developed due to the initial lack of interest in this area expressed by tourists and very limited accommodation. This view was stated by one of the doyens of Polish mountaineering – Władysław Krygowski – who perceived this part of the Carpathians as the eastern boundary of the Middle Beskid, which generally lacked mountains and peaks considered attractive for tourists (with the notable exception of Połonina Wetlińska) [Krygowski 1939, 3]. The first tourist trails were marked in 1932 by members of the Przemyśl Skiing Society and activists gathered in the branch of the PTT from Turka [*Szlaki turystyczne Przemyskiego Towarzystwa Narciarskiego* 1932, 4]. They were marked in the immediate vicinity of Sianki, both in the direction of the Western and Eastern Bieszczady Mountains, allowing visiting tourists to walk to the nearest mountains and summits. The yellow mountain trail started in Sianki near the railway station, and led towards Szczawinka. After 1 hour of walking, a tourist would reach the summit which offered views in the direction of the Western Bieszczady Mountains, especially Halicz and Kińczyk Bukowski. The purple trail starting in Sianki led towards the east and after a 3-h walk, a tourist could get to Magura. A continuation of this trail, also marked by purple stripes, went in the direction of Sychłowate underneath Katarzyna. A longer trip was offered by the red trail leading in the eastern direction to Starostyna and Pikuj. The blue trail led walkers to Halicz; the trail started in Sianki and went through Beniowa and Rozsypaniec. Finally, the blue and red trails allowed tourists to walk to Opołonek. However, the quality of markings was highly questionable, for instance, Mieczysław Orłowicz after his first mountain trip in the Western Bieszczady Mountains, appealed for improvements in the conditions of the local tourist trails: "the marking of the most important tourist trails from Sianki and Sokoliki, including Bu-

kowe Berdo (there are no marks in the western direction) is unsatisfactory. Usually, marks are not placed where they are most needed" [Orłowicz 1934, 2]. Responsibility for maintaining the proper condition of trails and their marking mainly rested on the shoulders of the Sanok PTT Branch. For instance, in 1936, its members improved the marking of the Józef Piłsudski Main Carpathian Trail over a distance of 90 km between Dukla and Halicz. Łupków Pass, a place where the eastern part of the Józef Piłsudski Main Trail started its route through the Bieszczady. The concept of its route in the Western Bieszczady Mountains was worked out by Mieczysław Orło-

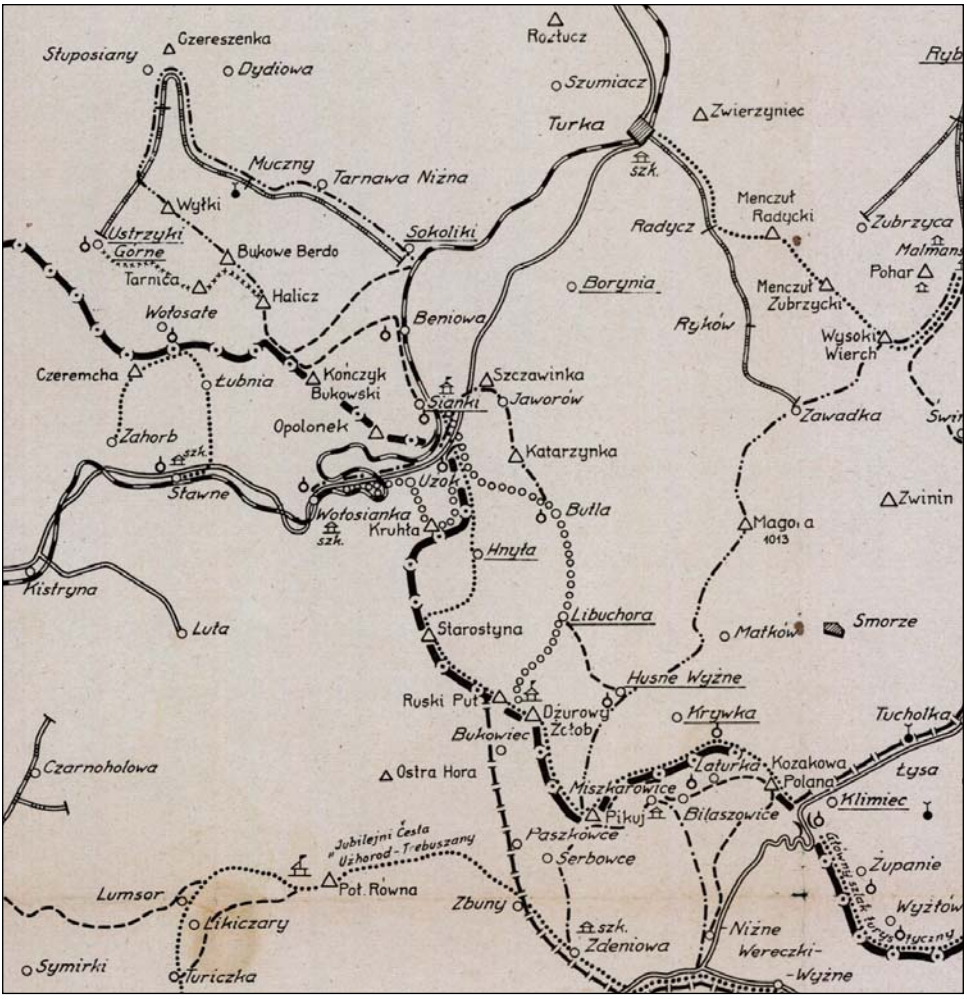


Fig. 7. Tourist trails in the area of Sianki – a fragment of the map included to Gąsiorowski's guidebook

Source: Gąsiorowski [1933].

wicz, and covering its distance was a necessary element in order to be awarded the Large Silver Mountain Tourism Badge issued by the PTT [Kowalik 1989, 51; Krygowski 1973, 71]. Additionally, the PTT in Sanok marked approximately 40 km of trails connecting Wetlina with Rabia Skała, Wielka Rawka with Połonina Bukowska, Smerek with Połonina Wetlińska, and Komańcza via Duszatyn with Jasło [Kapłon 2009, 21]. One year later, the PTT in Sanok was responsible for 250 km of tourist trails in the area of the Western Bieszczady Mountains, these were: the red trail from Łupków via Solinka, Rabia Skała, Wielka Rawka, Wetlina, Połonina Wetlińska, Berehy Górne, Połonina Caryńska, Ustrzyki Górne, Szeroki Wierch, Halicz, Kińczyk Bukowski, Stinska to Sianki; the blue trail from Wetlina to Rabia Skała; the yellow trail from Wielka Rawka to Połonina Bukowska; the blue trail from the state border to Ustrzyki Górne; the blue and red trails from Komańcza via Duszatyn, Chryszczata, Jasło to Okrąglik; the blue trail from Okrąglik via Smerek to Połonina Wetlińska [Kapłon 2009, 23-24]. The system of trail marking was supported by schematic maps installed by the members of the PTT in the most popular tourist railway stations, for instance, in Nowy Zagórz, Lesko and Komańcza [Krygowski 1988, 117].

Marked trails were adjusted to the list of peaks, trails and routes enlisted by the *Rulebook of the Mountain Tourism Badge* [*Regulamin górskiej odznaki turystycznej PTT wraz ze spisem punktowanych wycieczek oraz*

Fig. 8. Skiers in Sianki

Source: *Zakosem. Jednodniówka kursu narciarskiego w Siankach* [1936, 11].

spisem przewodników GOT 1936, 50-55], in which the area of the Western Bieszczady Mountains was covered in two sections proposing mountain routes in the Middle Beskid and Bieszczady Mountains. Trips in the Middle Beskid were grouped into two subsections, namely peaks in the most western part of the Bieszczady Mountains from Łupków to Smerek (for instance, Wysoki Groń, Hyrlata, Chryszczata, Wołosań, Jasło, etc.), and on the northern side, from Ustrzyki Dolne to Lutowiska (for example, Holica, Żuków, Jawor, Otryt, etc.). Routes proposed in the Bieszczady Mountains included various trips allowing tourists to reach Połonina Wetlińska, Połonina Caryńska, Wielka Rawka, Tarnica, Krzemień and Halicz.

The Western Bieszczady Mountains were also important for enthusiasts of winter sports, especially skiing, as they were included among the proposed highly-scored, top-down planned routes needed for acquiring the Mountain Badge of the Polish Skiing Association. The skiing hike enabled the crossing of most of the highest parts of the Western Bieszczady Mountains; the route connecting Łupków with Sianki included, inter alia, such points as Wysoki Groń, Jasło, Połonina Wetlińska, Połonina Caryńska and Halicz [*Informacyjny kalendarz narciarski na sezon 1937-38* 1937, 257]. The source also enlisted selected and most important mountains and passes for skiing and mountaineering purposes.[6]

Conclusion

The 1930s were a period of time when the first tourists began to take interest in the area of the Bieszczady Mountains. Although initially perceived as not worthy of sightseeing, in the second half of the 1930s, it attracted more attention and research, facilitating the development of the first mountain shelters, guest houses and resorts constituting a base for further touristic exploration of the mountains. Although the Western Bieszczady Mountains "do not indeed possess the rocky peaks of the Tatra mountains or wide-stretching giants of Czarnohora, the local people cannot boast of colourful highlanders or Hutsuls costumes, and there are no huge spas and health resorts; nevertheless, the local nature conceals a lot of beauty, the

[6] Tarnica; Halicz; Krzemień; Bukowe Berdo; Wielka Rawka; Połonina Caryńska; Szeroki Wierch; Połonina Wetlińska; Kińczyk Bukowski; Smerek; Dziurkowiec; Hrubki; Rabia Skała; Jasło; Czeremcha; Dział nad Berehami; Kańczowa; Beskid Wołosacki; Hyrlata; Wołosań; Łopiennik; Opołonek; Sękowa above Wetlina; Magura Stuposiańska; Wilki; Majdan (Magura near Sianki); Dwernik; Chryszczata; Borsuk; Falowa; Jaworniki above Ustrzyki; Wysoki Groń; Kiczera above Sianki; Rydoszowa; Hulskie above San; Ostre above Lutowiska; Terpiak near Łupków; Dyszowa; Pass beneath Wielka Rawka; Pass beneath Balnica; Pass above Wołosate; Pass above Berehy; Przeł. Użok Pass; Pass above Solinka, Żebrak Pass; Pass above Żubracze (749 m); Pass above Sokoliki and Łupków Pass [*Informacyjny kalendarz narciarski na sezon 1937-38* 1937, 257].

numerous summer and winter resorts allow tourists to rest in comfortable and inexpensive conditions, and a number of peculiar curiosities provide desired variety for the visitors" [*Powiat Leski – Kraina Szybowisk* 1935, 2]. One of the issues most negatively affecting the development of tourism was the lack of a proper network of communication allowing travel from Cisna to Sianki and vice versa. The severe lack of adequate roads and means of transport largely limited transportation possibilities, not only for tourists, but also for local inhabitants. This also further influenced accommodation possibilities, as 'unreachable' villages had little, or at most limited, opportunities to develop and propose accommodation that would be adequate to contemporary needs. Despite encountered difficulties, the first 'expeditions' to the unknown mountains began, and thanks to the first depicted trips which led through the previously disrespected or passed over terrains, the Western Bieszczady Mountains became noticed and appreciated by visitors. The change in attitudes is perfectly visible in the description of one of the famous 'August trips' led by Orłowicz: "I have experienced a very pleasant disappointment. I have convinced myself that the range undoubtedly belongs to one of the most interesting parts of our Beskidy Mountains, in terms of the landscape, it resembles the far higher mountains of Czarnohora and outclasses the far more popular ranges of the Eastern Bieszczady Mountains near Skole and Sławsko in every respect" [Orłowicz 1934, 2]. However, these were only words from one specialist in the field; much more work still needed to be undertaken. Further explorations, tourist visits and development of the tourism industry in the Western Bieszczady Mountains were brutally halted by the outbreak of World War 2. After its end, the changes in state boundaries, further fights with the Ukrainian Insurgent Army, and its direct consequence, Operation Vistula, completely ruined the local beginnings of tourism.

The final remark should be given to Orłowicz, in the summary of his expedition from Sianki to Smerek, he stated that the Western Bieszczady Mountains are a first-class skiing and tourism terrain, which is "the range of the future", and he ends with an emphatic: "Visit the Western Bieszczady Mountains!" [Orłowicz 1934, 2]. These prophetic words became especially true in the second half of the 20th century.

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TOURIST PROFILE IN POLAR REGIONS ON THE EXAMPLE OF VISITORS TO THE HENRYK ARCTOWSKI POLISH ANTARCTIC STATION

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Abstract

Purpose. Presentation of the current situation to the extent of touristic arrivals to Antarctica, in view of measuring the scale and structure of incoming tourism recorded at the Henryk Arctowski Polish Antarctic Station (King George Island, South Shetland Islands).
Method. The number of persons arriving to the Arctowski Station was measured and subjects interviewed according to a standardised questionnaire.
Findings. Research has indicated that there is constant interest in visiting Antarctica. These travellers are mainly people from Europe and North America, in particular seniors, with higher education, professionally active or retired, affluent and usually travelling individually.
Research and conclusions limitations. Carrying out measurements regarding the scale and structure of incoming tourism is connected with various limitations, including the way in which such measurements are conducted, the access and quality of source materials or the human factor, i.e. interviewers.

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Practical implications. This article refers to the latest data concerning the number of persons arriving to the Arctowski Station and the structure of the tourist traffic, which constitute basic information for, among others, the tour operators.
Originality. The problem involving the scale and structure of tourism, especially in polar regions, is still current and extremely significant due to the importance of the global ecosystem. Research on the structure of incoming tourism to Antarctica, according to the measurements at the Station, has been recently conducted and presented for the first time.
Type of paper. In the article, the results of the authors research, similar to those relevant from literature, are presented.

Keywords: polar tourism, tourism, Antarctic, polar tourists, Henryk Arctowski Polish Antarctic Station.

Introduction

The rapid development of tourism and the increasing number of tourists, which has been taking place around the world since the turn of the 19th and 20th centuries, has not evaded polar regions [Warszyńska, Jackowski 1979; *Polar tourism* 2005, Stewart et al. 2005; Maciejowski 2007; Roura 2010, 2012; Lamers et al. 2012b]. The interest in them, as a potential space for tourism development, was already noticeable at the end of the 19th century and was connected with the growing popularity of polar expeditions, which at that time, were intended to reach the North and South Poles by man [Groch 1996; Lück et al. 2010]. Already then, the first hotels were set up on the Arctic islands, such as Spitsbergen [Baird 1965].

Nowadays, the constantly growing global tourism [*Tourism Highlights 2018 Edition*[1]] forces some tourists to look for new, unusual destinations, which are not clearly associated with tourism. These include the Arctic and Antarctic polar regions, perceived as difficult to reach. On the one hand, the long distance, poorly developed tourist infrastructure, the possibility of sightseeing mainly in the short summer season, as well as generally unfavourable environmental conditions (such as low temperatures, frequent storms at sea) cause the vast majority of tourists to not consider trips to these corners of the world at all. On the other hand, the polar regions have unspoilt nature and are largely protected, which for some tourists, is the greatest value of all [Szeligiewicz 2006, Kruczek 2011].

A steady increase in the number of tourists to the Arctic and Antarctica has been observed approximately since the late 1950s and in the last 30-35 years, this has been the time of its true prosperity [Bertram 2007; Maciejowski 2007; Hall, Saarinen 2010]. The development of tourism is fostered by the significant potential of tourist assets. These are primarily natural values - virgin or slightly transformed natural environment (including mountain and continental glaciers), or the possibility of encountering

[1] It should be noted that Antarctica is not included in the statistics of the World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO).

unique flora and fauna, but also non-natural values such as archaeological sites, historical objects and research stations [Hansom, Gordon 1998; Maciejowski 2007; Roura 2010].

The increase of interest in polar areas is also influenced by the changes taking place in the natural environment of circumpolar areas. It should be borne in mind that according to the World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO), tourism has increasing impact on the natural environment [Kowalczyk 2000]. The climate change, which generates a decrease of the ice cover, is causing polar regions to be seen as the last chance for tourism [Lemelin et al. 2010; Lück et al. 2010; Lamers et al. 2012a; Turner, Marshall 2011]. In addition, the decreasing ice cover makes many areas more accessible and the landscape changes, such as the emergence of new fjords and islands, increase great interest in them [Ziaja, Ostafin 2018]. Hence, polar areas are subjected to environmental monitoring, a part of which are tourist traffic streams [Lamers et al. 2012b].

Tourism, due to its dynamics, diversity of forms and variability in time and space, as well as its difficult manner of registration, is a phenomena difficult to capture [Zajadacz 2008]. At the same time, its consequences are long-term and may lead to irreversible changes in natural or cultural environments. It is a key issue to understand who is a tourist travelling to Antarctica, from the point of view of making this area accessible to travellers, tourist flow and its impact on the natural environment. The location of the H. Arctowski Polish Antarctic Station allows for multidimensional monitoring of tourist phenomena.

The aim of this article is to present the current situation regarding tourist arrivals to Antarctica. Two basic aspects of tourism are pointed out: the scale and structure of people arriving to this isolated corner of the world. This refers to the latest data showing the volume of tourism recorded at the H. Arctowski Polish Antarctic Station[2], expanding this knowledge by research in the form of interviews with the use of a standardised questionnaire on a representative research sample, conducted at the Station from the 2013/2014 to the 2017/2018 summer seasons, with a break for the 2016/2017 season. It should be highlighted that these measurements were carried out during the guests' stay in Antarctica (in situ study) in one measurement point, but strategic for the distribution of tourist traffic in this area. Therefore, this article, along with the obtained results of the research, fills an important gap in the context of the knowledge about tourists coming to this area.

[2] According to the classification of tourist traffic, in the case of the Arctowski Polish Antarctic Station, we are dealing with one-day visitors (without accommodation), however, in the article, the concept of a tourist related to the whole Antarctic and the specificity of travelling to this area are considered.

Method

Taking into account data concerning the scale of tourist traffic measured at the Arctowski Station, results from the last 10 years were totalled, which made it possible to trace the changes that took place during this period.

In the next part of the article, the results of research are presented for direct interviews conducted with the use of a standardised questionnaire during the Antarctica tourist seasons in the years 2013-2016 and at the turn of 2017/2018. A total of 415 correctly completed questionnaires were collected, which was a statistical error margin of 5% for a confidence level of 95%.

The respondents were people arriving by ship and having a planned stop at the Arctowski Station. Common tourist groups dominated there. It was assumed that in the case of families, only one person was interviewed and in the case of small groups, at most, two persons from the group were enquired. Taking some larger groups of tourists into consideration, the maximum number of examined persons was from 5 to 10.

The questionnaire had been earlier prepared in 5 language versions, i.e. Chinese, Polish, Spanish, English and German. All of them were selected in accordance with the previous indications of the Station's employees, related to the nationality and languages spoken by tourists coming there. Originally, 4 language versions were prepared, however, during one of the seasons of the study, an increased number of tourists from China was observed, and as a result, another questionnaire in Chinese was added. These research activities were carried out in the area managed by the Arctowski Station. The questionnaires were filled in on the paper version. A short period of research (measurements from 4 tourist seasons), as well as many countries from which tourists came, does not allow to draw far-reaching conclusions, but still gives the opportunity to conduct analyses and observe certain regularities that indicate possible directions for further research.

Study area

The Arctowski Polish Antarctic Station, where the research was carried out and then presented in this article, is located on King George Island, in Admiralty Bay (the South Shetland Islands). It was launched in February 1977, primarily for the purpose of scientific research. The Arctowski Station and its surroundings are one of the most important reception areas for tourism in Antarctica [Stewart et al. 2005]. It is conveniently located in relation to the tourist traffic streams to the Antarctica continent and Antarctic entry roads (*Antarctic gateways*) from South America and Ushuaia city [Vereda 2008, Schillat et al. 2016] (Fig. 1). Therefore, it is often treated by tour operators as a stop on the way to or from Antarctica. P. Ciaputa and K.

Salwicka [1997] estimate that an average 20% of tourists arriving to Antarctica visit the Arctowski Station, whereas the data presented in the following part of the article concerning the scale of tourist traffic according to the measurements carried out at the Arctowski Station and by IAATO, seems to indicate a lower level. Regardless of that, the Station is certainly one of the most important places to conduct research on the volume and structure of tourist traffic.

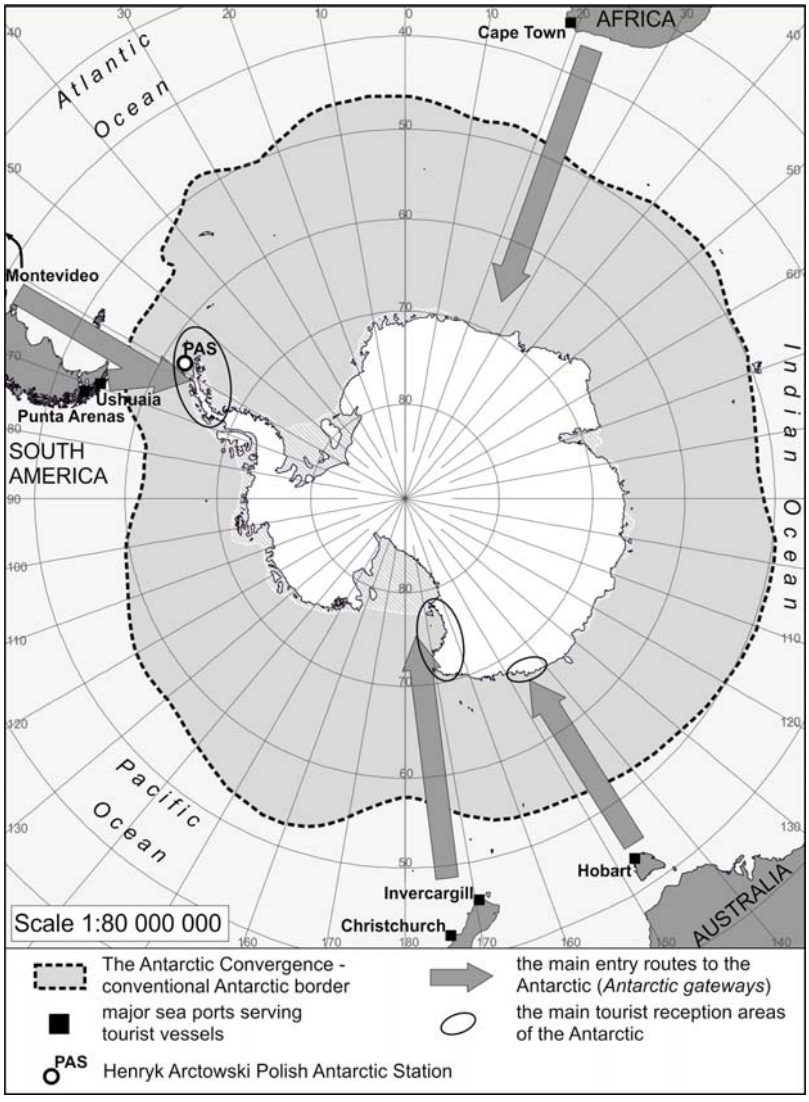

Fig. 1. *Antarctic gateways* – the main entrance roads to the Antarctic

Source: Own study based on: [Stewart et al. 2005; Lamers et al. 2012a; Schillat et al. 2016].

The measurement of the tourist traffic scale, due to its dynamics, is very problematic. However, in the case of the Arctowski Station and because of so-called bottlenecks[3] with which it has to deal with, it is very likely that the traffic volume may can be estimated. Over the past years, the volume of tourism at the Station has been referred to in several scientific publications. P. Ciaputa and K. Salwicka [1997] were among the first authors who pointed out the possibilities of better tourims management at the Station, in conducting an appropriate policy. B. Stonehouse [1999] presented the nature and functioning of tourism in the Arctowski Station, while S. P. Donachie [1994] pointed to the Station as a good example of combining scientific and tourist functions.

Results

The scale of incoming tourism

In the Antarctic area, tourism has been studied since the middle of the 20th century. *The International Association of Antarctica Tour Operators* (IAATO) is currently the most important institution collecting data concerning its scale. It has been working since 1991, connecting the largest tour operators organising expeditions to the Antarctic, who are obliged to provide information about all their activities every year [Stewart et al. 2005]. In addition, IAATO also collects information related to the actions of other tour operators that are not members of IAATO and publishes aggregate data about the number of visitors to Antarctica on its website [https://iaato.org]. They are the major source documenting Antarctic tourism and are often quoted as a reference point in many publications showing the impact of tourism on the functioning of the Antarctic geographical environment [e.g. Stonehouse, Crosbie 1995; Chwedorzewska, Korczak 2010; Hall, Saarinen 2010; Lück et al. 2010; Stonehouse, Snyder 2010; Summerson, Bishop 2012; Barre de la et al. 2016].

The first measurements of tourist traffic to the Antarctic Peninsula were connected with Argentinean and Chilean expeditions in the early 1950s [Brewster 1982; Hall, Saarinen 2010]. This area has the best conditions for the development of tourism from the point of view of its climatic and logistic characteristics, as it is the nearest to the inhabited areas of the South American continent [Kruczek 2011]. It was here that the largest number of scientific and research stations were established. From the 1950s

[3] Tourist traffic is basically channelled to only one landing site (the second landing site is used very rarely, usually during unfavourable conditions for landing at the main site), which makes its evaluation as accurate as possible.

until the end of the 1980s, tourism throughout Antarctica was relatively low, rarely exceeding 3.5 thousand tourists during the tourist season [Bertram 2007]. A significant increase has been observed only since the beginning of the 1990s [Stewart et al. 2005; Lamers et al. 2012a; Lamers et al. 2012b]. Throughout the 1990s, the number of tourists increased almost three times, attaining a number of 10 thousand people, while in the last 5 years, this number exceeded 20 thousand visitors in the tourist season [IAATO data]. Since the beginning of the 21st century, there has still been a high interest in travelling to Antarctica, combined with the diversification of offers, transport modes and the initiatives of tour operators [Lamers et al. 2012b]. In recent years, tourist traffic in Antarctica reached its highest values in the 2007/2008 season (Fig. 2), when the number of tourists exceeded slightly over 46 thousand people [IAATO data; Chwedorzewska, Korczak 2010; Lamers et al. 2012b], and a decade later, during the 2016/2017 and 2017/2018 seasons, the area was visited by 45.1 thousand and 58.1 thousand tourists, respectively [IAATO data]. Between those two peak seasons, there was a short period of regression (with a minimum of 26.5 thousand visitors in the 2011/2012 season), which was affected by the global economic recession [Lamers et al. 2012b].

For many years, tourist traffic has been monitored at various polar research stations (e.g. Brown, Decepción, Esperanza, McMurdo) visited by tourists [Palazzi 1993; Reggio, Haene 2003; Schillat et al. 2016]. This also refers to the Arctowski Polish Antarctic Station, which tourists have been

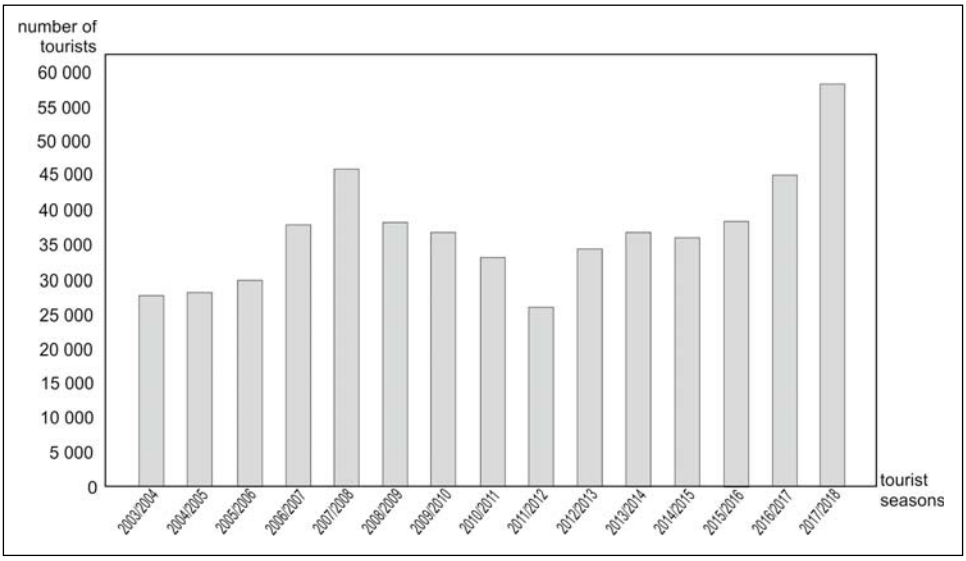

Fig. 2. Tourism in the Antarctic during the last 15 tourist seasons
Source: Own study based on IAATO data [https://iaato.org].

visiting since the 1980s. However, regular monitoring of incoming tourists has been carried out since 1991 [Ciaputa, Salwicka 1997; Kruczek 2011]. Tourists are treated as all the people who arrived here and came ashore for purposes not connected with work in the Antarctic Station areas. Tourist traffic is measured via special staff designated by the Arctowski Station. Monitoring is carried out throughout the summer season (usually from the end of October up to the middle of March), when tourist groups arrive. If it is not possible to calculate large groups of tourists (counted in hundreds), the measurements may be burdened with some errors, nonetheless, they do not disturb the reality of the tourism. At the beginning, the highest number of tourists at the Arctowski Antarctic Station was recorded in the 1992/1993 and the 1993/1994 seasons, when the tourist traffic reached almost 3 thousand people [Ciaputa, Salwicka 1997; Chwedorzewska, Korczak 2010]. It increased again to the level of over 3 thousand tourists at the beginning of the 21st century, and in the 2006/2007 season, the Antarctic Station and its surroundings were visited by up to 5.7 thousand tourists [Chwedorzewska, Korczak 2010; Kruczek 2011].

During the last 10 tourist seasons (Fig. 3), the tourist traffic at the Arctowski Antarctic Station, after exceeding 4 thousand people in the 2008/2009 season, has significantly decreased and at present, does not exceed 2 thousand people during the tourist season. A distinct minimum was recorded in the 2010/2011 season, when only 493 tourists reached the Polish Station. Similarly as in the case of the tourism analysed by Z. Kruczek for the whole

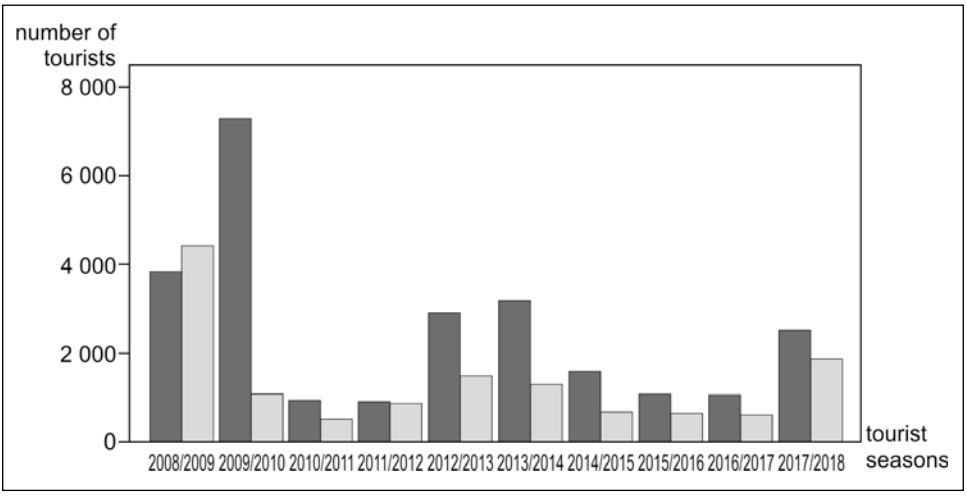

Fig. 3. Tourist traffic at the Henryk Arctowski Polish Antarctic Station during the last 10 tourist seasons; (data marked in black according to IAATO, data marked in grey from measurements carried out at the Arctowski Station)

Source: Own study and IAATO data (https://iaato.org).

Antarctica area, at the Arctowski Polish Antarctic Station, one can also observe its cyclicality, according to the model proposed by R.W. Butler [Butler 1980; Kruczek, Kruczek, Szromek 2018].

At this point, it is important to note the differences in the data presented by the IAATO and the measurements carried out by the employees of the Arctowski Station, which are mentioned by P. Ciaputa and K. Salwicka [1997]. They are certainly connected with the fact that not all ships declaring arrivals at the Station are able to get tourists across to the mainland, or with some other difficulties related to the estimation of the incoming tourist scale, including the method of measurements or source materials, etc.

Characteristics of tourist traffic

Considering the basic characteristics of tourists coming to Antarctica, i.e. geographical, demographic and economic areas, it should be noted that visitors to the Arctowski Station represented a total of 30 countries and 6 parts of the world. More than a half of them were European citizens (Table 1), which matches the global data related to tourism, stating that this area generates the largest incoming tourist traffic [*Tourism Highlights 2018 Edition*]. The distance from Antarctica to Europe does not have any affect on tourism.

Tab. 1. Parts of the world from which the respondents came

PARTS OF THE WORLD	PERCENTAGE OF RESPONSES [%]
Africa	0.0
South America	2.7
North America	18.4
Australia and Oceania	7.3
Asia	7.0
Europe	64.6
TOTAL	100.0

Source: Own study.

According to the research conducted in Ushuaia (Argentina) by M. Schillat et al. [2016] during the 2012/2013 and 2013/2014 tourist seasons, travelling to Antarctica was dominated by North Americans (45.5%), while Europeans accounted for 28.9% of respondents.

Distribution concerning the countries of origin of the respondents coming to Antarctica is quite interesting (Table 2).

Tab. 2. Respondents' place of residence

COUNTRY	PERCENTAGE OF RESPONSES [%]
Germany	23.3
USA	15.8
Switzerland	10.2
Great Britain	9.0
Australia	6.3
Poland	6.1
China	5.6
OTHERS	23.7
TOTAL	100.0

Source: Own study.

The high presence of tourists from Poland has been also observed, which is certainly related to their willingness to visit the native base in this area. It should be remembered that the survey is significantly influenced due to the languages spoken by the interviewers; in the case of the Arctowski Station's employees, English language skills are required. In previous years, there has been an increase in the number of tourists coming from China. Many years ago, the enormous potential of this market in global tourism had already been pointed out [Kowalczyk 2000]. The last category includes visitors from such countries as Belgium, Norway and Canada.

Considering the demographic characteristics of respondents, we may observe a relatively high average age of visitors to Antarctica, i.e. 51.5

Tab. 3. Professional status of visitors to the Arctowski Polish Antarctic Station

TYPE	PERCENTAGE OF RESPONSES [%]
school student	0.5
unemployed	1.3
professionally active	55.5
university student	2.7
retired person (annuitant)	37.1
housekeeper	2.9
TOTAL	100.0

Source: Own study.

years, with the small domination of women (54%) in comparison to men (46%). In general, the largest number of visitors was at working age, however, with a high share of older people (42.2% of all respondents at the age of 60 and above).

Taking the education of visitors to Antarctica into account, it should be emphasised that well-educated persons dominated, i.e. 77.6% declared higher education, 12.7% secondary education and only 9.7% some others. Another specified feature of the visitors to the Arctowski Station was the professional status of respondents (Tab. 3).

The respondents were dominated by professionally active persons (1/2 of persons), with a high share of retired people and annuitants (over 1/3 of persons). In the studies quoted by M. Schillat et al. [2016], there were 33.4% of retirees and 61.3% of professionally active people.

The visitors to the Arctowski Station were also asked to indicate their material status, at their own discretion, considering the scale proposed for assessment: from very poor to very good situation. In general, 1/3 of people (33.2%) stated that they had very good financial status, and adding the indication for the "good" status - this gave a total of 84.7% of people who declared better financial affluence. Nobody described their material situation as very poor or poor. Such results are certainly connected with the higher costs of coming to Antarctica. Taking the company of the respondents who travelled to Antarctica into account, almost half of them arrived alone (45.9%), while those remaining were accompanied by friends and/or colleagues (54.1%). More than a half of the travellers to this area took part in a package travel organised by a specific travel agency (64.7%). The other persons purchased some seats on ships (29.4%) or the trip was connected with their work (5.9%).

It should be noted that all of the interviewed tourists at the Arctowski Station indicated that during their stay in the Antarctic areas, it was always planned to disembark the mainland .

Respondents were asked whether they had already been to Antarctica before. For a significant number of visitors to the Arctowski Station, it was their first stay in the area. A positive response was received from 14.5% of the respondents, but most of them were people sailing on ships or researchers. The majority of subjects were from: Germany, China, Poland and Great Britain. In a study presented by M. Schillat et al. [2016] - 4.8% of people indicated that they had previously been to Antarctica.

Completely different was the distribution of answers to the question connected with staying in other areas, similar in nature to the Antarctic. A relatively high number of people, i.e. 42.4%, indicated that they had been to some other places with similar climate and environmental conditions before. The most frequent mentioned regions were Arctic ones, mainly countries with part of their territories located near the Arctic Circle (Tab. 4).

Tab. 4. Most frequently mentioned areas outside Antarctica visited by respondents (multiple indications)

DIRECTION	PERCENTAGE OF RESPONSES [%]
Svalbard	31.3
Greenland	29.0
Spitsbergen	14.8
North Scandinavia	9.7
Iceland	8.0
Alaska	7.4
Canada	5.7
Russia	5.1

Source: Own study.

The northern borderlands of the world, including Europe, were the most frequently visited. This group of respondents, who had previously been to the polar regions, was dominated by people from Germany, the USA and Poland (more than a half of all people), as well as those British, Swiss, Norwegian and Chinese.

Respondents who had previously been to other areas with similar climate and environmental conditions as Antarctica, were at an average age of 54 years, including both men (49.7%) and women (50.3%). The vast majority of them (77.2%) had higher education. They were mostly professionally active persons (60.6%) or retirees (26.3%). Their declared material status is similar to that of all respondents - mainly very good (33.4%) and good (53.8%), which in total, is a slightly higher indicator of better material status than for the whole research sample.

Conclusions

The development of global tourism as well as global changes in the natural environment make it necessary to monitor what is happening in the Antarctic region. The question that arises here is: to what extent do the growing trends in tourism around the world have impact on this area? Within the framework of environmental monitoring, especially in Antarctica, there is a need for constant control of the activity and behaviour of tourists in the local geographical area.

In this publication, aspects related to the scale of tourism and the profile of tourists visiting the Arctowski Polish Antarctic Station are the only noted. Information concerning the scale of this phenomenon is currently

very important in polar regions, especially from the point of view of efficient planning tourism development, including the control of tourist traffic. For it is here in the Arctic and Antarctica that monitoring and protection of the natural environment are some of the most important challenges faced by today`s modern world.

Taking into account the results of research and analysis presented in this article, it is necessary to pay attention to several aspects:

- there is continued tourist interest in the Antarctic tourism. In recent years, it has started to increase, reaching 60 thousand visitors during the tourist season;
- the Arctowski Polish Antarctic Station is an important point on the map of tourist traffic streams and in the study of tourist phenomena;
- in the recent period, the Arctowski Station has recorded about 2 thousand tourists during the summer season;
- a tourist in Antarctica, according to the measurements conducted at the Arctowski Station, is a person who arrives there for the first time, but more than once, it is another area which is similar in its climate and environment. Most visitors come from Europe and North America. It is a person above the age of 50, with higher education, professionally active or retired. This tourist quite often travels alone, using the services of travel agencies. Therefore, it is a conscious tourist, who is interested in polar directions, is well-educated, elder and financially afluent.

The Polish Academy of Sciences, as the institution directly managing the Arctowski Station, within the context of its plans and intentions points out, among others, the importance of social research in relation to the polar areas and polar policy of Poland [Węsławski, Ziaja eds. 2017]. It is necessary to pay attention to the importance of tourism research, from the point of view of appropriate development planning, awareness of threats connected with tourism and to quickly respond to them. It should be borne in mind that today's development, related to a regional level, is not considered to be the equivalent in its growth. This is a sustainable process, indicating positive changes, also in the preservation of natural environment [Wilkońska 2017]. Nowadays, all over the world, it is said that there is a problem of too expansive tourism, especially in cities, so called *overtourism* may also begin to have impact on polar regions in the next few years. Therefore, the damage that mass tourism can cause may be irreversible, especially in Antarctica. For that reason, monitoring tourist phenomena provides strong contributions to research in these areas.

Acknowledgements

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CONFERENCE REPORT: ANTHROPOLOGY OF TOURISM INTEREST GROUP (ATIG) PANEL AT THE 117TH ANNUAL MEETING OF THE AMERICAN ANTHROPOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION (2018)

Sabina Owsianowska*

On November 14-18, 2018, the 117th Annual Meeting of the American Anthropological Association (AAA) was held in San Jose, California, the theme being: "Change in Anthropological Imagination. Resistance, Resilience, Adaptation". Established in 1902, the AAA brings together more than 10,000 members, including both academic staff and practitioners, operating at governmental and non-governmental institutions, museums, etc. The purpose of the Association is to promote knowledge in the field of anthropology through, among others, scientific journals and annual meetings, which gather anthropologists and representatives of various disciplines and fields of knowledge, adopting an anthropological perspective in their research. Since the 1970s, the AAA has begun analysing tourism more closely as a dynamically developing economic and also socio-cultural phenomenon. The session in 1974 was crowned with the publication entitled "Hosts and Guests. The Anthropology of Tourism", edited by Prof. Valene Smith, with the participation of pioneers regarding humanistic reflections on tourism, such as N. Graburn, D. Nash, M. Swain and T. Nuñez.

Currently, researchers focusing on various aspects of modern travel operate within the Anthropology of Tourism Interest Group (ATIG). The Founding Steering Committee (2012-13) of ATIG comprised: Q. Castañeda (who was the first convener, 2013-2016), M. Di Giovine (current convener) and H. Hindman, N. Leite (co-convener in 2013-16), M. Mostafan-

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ez, R. Norum and N. Salazar. The Distinguished Honorary Members of the Board include Professors: E.M. Bruner, N. H.H. Graburn, V. Smith and M.B. Swain. ATIG aims not only to associate people who share similar scientific interests, but also to disseminate knowledge in the field of tourism anthropology, research reports, reviews, call for papers, etc. Materials available on the website include films useful in education; the so-called Tourism Studies Listservs, e.g. H-Travel, Society for Applied Anthropology (SfAA) Tourism Topical Interest Group, Travel Research Network or Tourism Research Information Network (TRINET). In addition, texts on current events (e.g. "Tourism in Times of Pandemic") are published in the "News & Original Content" section. The authors of the most important anthropological books on tourism are awarded acknowledgements: The Nelson Graburn Prize (for the author of the first book) and The Ed Bruner Prize (for the authors of the second and subsequent books). During the ATIG meeting in 2018, the winners of the prize funded by Prof. Graburn, were Dr. Naomi Leite and Dr. Valerio Simoni [more info at: atig.americananthro.org]. It is worth adding that at the same meeting, Dr. Magdalena Banaszkiewicz presented a letter in defence of Polish anthropology, which as a result of the amendment to the Act on Higher Education, lost its status of a scientific discipline and was included in cultural and religious sciences.

One of the manifestations of the ATIG's activity is sponsorship of thematic panels during the annual AAA congresses. Our panel has also received this substantive support. The organisers were M. Banaszkiewicz, Ph.D. (Jagiellonian University) and S. Owsianowska, Ph.D. (University of Physical Education in Kraków), editors of the book "Anthropology of Tourism in Central and Eastern Europe. Bridging Worlds" [2018], which appeared in the series "Anthropology of Tourism: Heritage, Mobility, and Society" by Rowman & Littlefield (the editors of the series are professors: Michael Di Giovine and Noel Salazar). The title of the panel – "Bridging Academic Worlds - Strategies of Resistance and Adaptation Within the Anthropology of Tourism" – referred to the theme of the Annual Meeting and to the earlier, several-year cooperation of people from various academic centres, representing different disciplines and countries involved in the creation of the monograph.

The panel leader was Prof. Graburn (University of California), a key figure for this meeting, as well as for the earlier conference in Kraków (2015): "Anthropology of Tourism. Heritage and Perspectives" (organised by the Institute of Intercultural Studies at UJ and the Faculty of Tourism and Leisure at AWF Kraków). This event was an impulse to prepare the book "Anthropology of Tourism in Central and Eastern Europe ...", as well as two thematic issues of the Journal – "Folia Turistica" [37-2015 and 39-2016], and the Polish monograph "Anthropology of Tourism" [2017]. The *spiritus movens* of the Kraków conference was M. Banaszkiewicz, with whom I also collaborated on other scientific, publishing and didactic

projects. The invitation to participate in the panel was accepted by Prof. Hana Horáková (Metropolitan University of Prague), one of the book's reviewers. A group of authors was represented also by Prof. A. Wieczorkiewicz (University of Warsaw), Dr. Banaszkiewicz, Dr. M. Nieszczerzewska (Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznań) and Dr. Owsianowska. For business or personal reasons, Prof. Di Giovine (who was to co-chair the session) had to resign from participation in the conference, as well as Prof. Tom Selwyn (author and speaker) and Dr. Naomi Leite (discussant). Nevertheless, their role at various stages of the book's creation and its final version cannot be underestimated.

As earlier mentioned, the subject of the panel "Bridging Academic Worlds – Strategies of Resistance and Adaptation Within the Anthropology of Tourism" corresponded to the assumptions of the conference. This panel examined the ways in which anthropologists rooted in different academic traditions approach the complex, global phenomenon of tourism. It aimed to identify and compare the extent to which the specific expertise of scholars from various regions may contribute to a more holistic understanding of changes taking place in the modern world. The panel was supposed to be an occasion for exchange and confrontation of both mainstream and underrepresented positions, and resulted in analyses which are based on diverse experiences and heritages. Therefore, the objective of the proposed panel was to reflect both on the object of research and the manner of conducting it within certain paradigms, as researchers themselves are object to the processes of change, resistance, resilience and adaptation. The insider-outsider perspective allows the inclusion of different points of view in discussing topics such as: regional specificity of research, paradigms and critical perspectives in anthropologically-oriented tourism research; the advisory role of anthropologists as experts on sustainable tourism development, cultural heritage interpretation, host-guest relationships, mediation of tourist experiences, gender issues in the tourism industry or new technologies in tourism, to list only a few. The primary theme of the panel was thus resilience, while the secondary themes were identity and equity. This session was supposed to be of particular interest for applied anthropologists.

The session participants presented papers entitled "Ethnography of Tourism Under Post-socialism: Epistemological and Methodological Challenges" (Horáková); "East versus Orient. Political Transformation and Changing Tourist Imagination (The Case of Post-communist Poland)" (Wieczorkiewicz); "The guides of the Chernobyl Exclusion Zone (Online). The Role of the Internet in Presenting Dissonant Heritage Sites" (Banaszkiewicz); "Urban Exploration as a Multidimensional Cultural Practice" (Nieszczerzewska); "Interpreting Dissonant Heritage in Central and Eastern Europe: Strategies of Resistance and Adaptation in Tourism Discourse" (Owsianowska). The second panel devoted to tourism was organised and led

by Dr. C. Sammells, (who also acts as the ATIG Program Chair). Dr. Paweł Plichta, representing the ISM UJ, was among the speakers with a paper on religious tourism and pilgrimages to Santiago de Compostela.

The 117th AAA Annual Meeting in San Jose California gathered several thousands of people who, for four days, participated in various events: keynote lectures, thematic panels, workshops, ethnographic film shows, anthropological book fairs or other performances and encounters. The following congress, prepared jointly with the CASCA association of Canadian anthropologists, took place in Vancouver in November 2019, while this year's event will not take place in the traditional form due to the COVID-19 pandemic. In this situation, the organisers of congresses and conferences face completely new challenges, some deciding to transfer meetings to the Internet, successfully testing alternative opportunities for cooperation. In the era of health and climate crisis, virtual events of the MICE sector will probably occur more frequently.

Pictured from right to left are: Hana Horáková, Dean MacCannell, Juliet Flower MacCannell, Nelson Graburn, Małgorzata Nieszczerzewska, Magdalena Banaszkiewicz, Anna Wieczorkiewicz, Paweł Plichta, Sabina Owsianowska.

Photo: Author's archive.

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:
   - Purpose.
   - 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 Polish and foreign 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 Polish and foreign 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 Polish and foreign 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 Polish and foreign 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:

Tab. 1. Tourist activity inhibitors
Tabela 1. Inhibitory aktywności turystycznej

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 Rzeszow, Krakow-Rzeszow.

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*, „Sociology", Vol. 13, pp. 179–201.
Szczechowicz B. (2012), *The importance of attributes related to physical activity for the tourism product's utility*, „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:
    - "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. 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"**).

Folia Turistica is a specialist forum for exchanging academic views on tourism and its environment, in its broadest definition. It is one of Poland's leading academic periodicals, published continuously since 1990. The magazine publishes articles in the field of tourism studies, from a broad interdisciplinary perspective (humanist, economic, geographical/spatial, organizational, and legal issues etc.). Apart from articles presenting the results of empirical research, the journal includes original theoretical, overview, and discursive pieces. The separate headings contain research reports, announcements, and bulletins, reviews of academic works, information on conferences and symposia, and discussions and polemics.

Folia Turistica **is indexed in the ERIH Plus (European Reference Index for the Humanitise and Social Sciences), Index Copernicus International (ICV 2019: 87.27), and MIAR (Information Matrix for the Analysis of Journals; ICDS = 4,0).**