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*In memory
of Dr. Monika Sławek*

MONIKA SŁAWEK
1965–2015



Dr Monika Sławek (*née* Lefik) was born on 21st June 1965 in Łódź. In 1980-84, she attended a humanistic profile class at the *Jarosław Dąbrowski* Liceum (No 9) in Łódź. After the final exams, she studied tourism and physical recreation at the Academy of Physical Education in Warsaw where she graduated on 29th June 1988, defending her master's thesis entitled *Physical recreation as a form of leisure time management among working youth* (supervised by Dr Józef Penc). A year later, she started work at the University of Łódź, 1988-91, where she completed post-graduate studies in pedagogy. From 1991-2007, she worked as a lecturer at the University of Łódź Department of Education, Faculty of Physical and Health Education. In 1995 (on 16-28th May), she completed an academic internship at Sunderland University in Great Britain and earned her PhD with a thesis entitled *Attitudes towards health and physical culture among pedagogy students vs. their future occupation* (supervised by Prof. Zofia Żukowska) on 17th September 1998.

From October 2007, she worked as a senior lecturer at the Recreation and Specialised Tourism Section, Institute of Urban and Tourism Geography at the 'Geographical Sciences' Department, University of Łódź. In her research she focused on international cooperation demonstrated not only by her numerous articles but also participation in conferences and informal collaboration. She considered the following to be particularly significant in her academic career: participation in the *XII World Leisure Congress – Transforming Leisure, Transforming City* in Rimini, Italy (30th Sept - 4th Oct 2012) where she presented a paper entitled *Participation in physical recreation among citizens of a large city: the case study of Łódź*; as well as her cooperation with Prof. Barbara Hawkins from the University of Indiana in the USA. In her last years her research was devoted to preparing an habilitation thesis entitled *Łódź as an area of supply and demand for physical recreation at indoor sports and recreational facilities*. In 2010, she received the *Złotą Odznakę* award from the University of Łódź.

Dr Monika Sławek was a member of the Polish University Physical Culture Association (from 2005), the Polish Women's Sport Association (from 2001) and the Polish Chamber of Recreation and Renewal (2005-6).

Apart from her academic passions, her vocation was to work with young people. She supervised 43 MA and many more BA theses on tourism and recreation. Leisure pedagogy, physical recreation, recreational activities, health education and promotion, the organization of sports and recreation events, fitness and modern forms of exercising, were only some of the subjects taught by her on the Tourism and Recreation course. Under an agreement which she initiated, she conducted annual student fitness workshops at the *Nowa Gdynia Station Sport and Recreation Centre*. She was also the originator and organizer of an event called 'Fit Day', promoting physical recreation and a healthy lifestyle. Her ideas for winter and summer camps became an inspiration and an example for her younger colleagues.

Dr Sławek's favourite teaching included sports camps and trips involving active and specialised tourism (sailing, kayaking, skiing, and organizing leisure time activities). She had an opportunity to verify and develop her interests and teaching experience during the Erasmus programme as a part of which she gave a series of lectures at the Technological Educational Institute of Thessaloniki (Greece) in June 2009.

During her work at the Institute of Urban and Tourism Geography, University of Łódź, she held the function of ECTS coordinator for tourism and recreation courses. In 2005, she received the Rector's Award for her teaching achievements while in 2010 she was nominated by the independent Students' Association as the 'best teacher' of the University of Łódź.

She had numerous certificates and licenses as an instructor in swimming, gymnastics, aerobics and skiing. From 2016, as part of the active and specialised tourism winter camp for students of tourism and recreation, a cup funded by skiing instructors from Krynica will be dedicated to her as a memorial.

As an academic, she tried to promote physical culture and recreation while remaining open to geographical perspectives. Thanks to her, we learnt how to combine the 'human' with the 'geographical', what was related to recreation with tourism. Sometimes we argued about the superiority of tourism or recreation, but this was the only way to explore the truth, the essence of research. It was her humanistic view of the world that pointed to new paths which we could follow together in our academic peregrinations. We were happy for her important foreign publications and new international contacts. Deep down, her 'geographical discoveries' made her feel a geographer, like us. Thanks to her, we started to appreciate the significance of physical culture. As a teacher she knew how to inspire students to take up the most daring of ideas and activities – and let them face their own weaknesses – tourist, sports, dancing and life challenges. As a human being, she never refused to help others, always offered friendly advice, while expecting nothing in return. Her modesty, sometimes excessive, was awesome. Her ideas – those already happening and those which she was planning – astonished us by their originality and scale.

We have lost a unique and wonderful person, a colleague and a friend. When the time for reflection approached, she did not have enough time for her unfinished business, to put all her ideas, both older and newer into practice, and stop or at least slow down in the everyday rush...

Editors

Selected publications by Doctor M. Sławek after 2007

- Uczestnictwo i rola rekreacji fizycznej w życiu studentów polskich i niemieckich, [in:] *Kultura fizyczna i zdrowotna w życiu współczesnego człowieka*, A. Kaźmierczak, A. Makarczuk, A. Maszorek-Szymala (eds.), SATORIdruk.pl, Łódź 2007, pp. 229-236.
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- Leisure time vs lifestyle of adults (co-author A. Maszorek-Szymala), [in:] *Wellness in different phases of life*, G. Olchowik (ed.), NeuroCentrum, Lublin 2008, pp. 179-188.
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- Leisure, recreation, and its relationship to work – a variety of meanings (co-author: W. Półtorak), [in:] *Wellness and success*, J. Bergier (ed.), Lublin 2009, pp. 239-249.
- Motor activity of students from Lodz and Rzeszów universities and their lifestyle in the light of comparative research (co-author: W. Półtorak), [in:] *Kultura fizyczna na przełomie stuleci – stan i perspektywy zmian. Ogólnopolska konferencja naukowa*, UR, PWSZ, Rzeszów–Krosno 2009.
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SPORTS TOURISM: TERMINOLOGICAL DISCUSSION

Abstract: This article is a terminological discussion concerning sports tourism and those experts who stress its complexity, multifacetedness and heterogeneity. They distinguish between passive and active participation in sports disciplines and at the same time stress the huge role this form of tourism plays in stimulating regional development, mostly due to organizing mass events. This paper is based on the statements of eight experts from different research centres dealing with tourism (mainly sports tourism) accompanied by the authors' attempt to 'standardise' them by referring to the subject literature.

Keywords: sport, sports tourism, specialised tourism, active tourism, cultural tourism.

1. INTRODUCTION: RESEARCH METHOD

The article is a summary of an inquiry concerning sports tourism conducted among several experts. In order to standardize the term 'sports tourism', the '*Turyzm/Tourism*' journal editors asked specialists for a brief statement with regard to the following five questions:

1. Is there, in your opinion, such a form of tourism as sports tourism? What do you understand by it? Does it fit into currently functioning definitions of tourism?
2. What should be done and what skills (pre-dispositions) are required for sports tourism?
3. What measures can be used to define the scale, seasonality and other parameters of this form of tourism?
4. Does sports tourism require special infrastructure? If so, then what?
5. What is the future of sports tourism?

As a result of the inquiry, eight opinions¹ were obtained from different research centres dealing with sports tourism: Warmia-Mazury University in Olsztyn, Piasecki Academy of Physical Education in Poznań, Czech Academy of Physical Education in Krakow, University of Wrocław, Academy of Physical Education in Wrocław, Economic University in Poznań, Piłsudski Academy of Physical Education in Warsaw and Mickiewicz University in Poznań.

2. 'SPORTS TOURISM': DISCUSSION AND CONTROVERSIES

In recent years, sports activity has been gaining in popularity all over the world. The same concerns sports tourism, especially if it takes the form of participating in large sporting events (MALCHROWICZ-MOŚKO 2015, p. 55). Interest in sports tourism is the result of a growing need for intense emotions and impressions as well as an increasing amount of leisure time and higher incomes. This can be observed in the development of a range of active ways of spending free time, as well as the growth of leisure itself which has led to the development of many new forms of active tourism and sports disciplines, as well as their continuous modification.

Tourism forms involving physical activity and sport are a significant object of Polish and foreign researchers' interest. Over the years, research on these issues has led to the appearance of many concepts and classifications, however a specific terminological chaos in the literature on the subject can also be found – words defining outdoor tourism activity are used arbitrarily – terms are used interchangeably and the differences between them are not clear (BOŃCZAK 2013, p. 61). The researchers studying the phenomena at the interface between tourism and sports do not agree as regards the range of the term 'sports tourism', or the question of categorizing what is hidden behind it (SZCZECHOWICZ 2015, p. 42).

Sports tourism is a young research domain formally established in the early 1990s (PRINKE 2015, p. 77). However, the term appeared earlier, around 1970, and has been widely discussed by authors such as H.J. GIBSON (1998, 2003), J. STANDEVEN & P. DE KNOP (1999), M. WEED (2008), C.M. HALL (1992), E. MALCHROWICZ-MOŚKO (2015), B. BOŃCZAK (2013), J. MOKRAS-GRABOWSKA (2015a, 2015b). According to A. Pawlikowska-Piechotka², *'in Europe, the tradition of active or passive participation in sporting events, away from the permanent place of residence, goes back nearly 3000 years in time (e.g. travelling to take a passive or active part in the ancient Olympic Games)'*. However, in W. Alejziak's² opinion, despite the fact that sports tourism is currently one of the most dynamically developing forms, there is an on-going discussion whether it should be distinguished at all. Studies are still at an early stage. According to S. Bosiacki, it is worth pointing out that sport itself is becoming a powerful 'industry' generating huge financial turnover, as well as becoming a significant element of culture, and a tool used to stimulate a local economy, including the tourism economy.

The literature presents numerous definitions of sports tourism; one of the most popular and most frequently quoted is that formulated by H. Gibson who says that sports tourism signifies tourist trips involving a change in the everyday lifestyle, in order to participate in sports activity (active sports tourism), or to watch sporting events (event sports tourism/fan-tourism), or to visit sports attractions (nostalgia/sentimental sports tourism) (GIBSON 1998, p. 45). This definition encompasses both, active and passive participation. It is also worth referring to the definition formulated by J. STANDEVEN & P. DE KNOP (1999), according to which sports tourism includes all forms of active and passive engagement in physical activity, both occasionally or regularly, which is undertaken for non-commercial or non-business purposes, and which requires travelling outside the place of permanent residence and work.

The majority of the participants (e.g. W. Alejziak, S. Bosiacki, D. Ilnicki, M. Pstrocka-Rak, I. Gruszka and Z. Kruczek) referred to these definitions. Thus, sports tourism is a form of tourism in its wider sense, and it is distinguished as a separate type on the basis of its connection with sport, both as regards actually doing it (engaging in physical activity, active participation in a given discipline either as an amateur or professionally), and attending sporting events as a spectator (e.g. fan-tourism). Sports tourism differs from active tourism in that emphasis is put on the activity (sports discipline) itself, while the aspect of travel is mostly limited to reaching the journey's destination (BOŃCZAK 2013, p. 58). To sum up, as A. Niezgoda² claims, *'(...) the term 'sports tourism' can*

be applied to a form of tourism distinguished on the basis of the travel motivation criterion. Thus, it regards the behaviour of consumers who consider sport to be a motivation to go on a tourist trip'.

W. Alejziak started from explaining concepts such as physical culture, physical education, sport and recreation. In this way, he stressed that apart from the traditional understanding of sport (extreme sports understood as a form of human activity aimed at achieving the best possible results through regular training), the literature on the subject also features the expression 'recreational sports' – a type that *'(...) involves those kinds of physical activity undertaken only in free time, for fun or self-improvement which at the same time are safe, can be practiced throughout a person's life, giving pleasure and compensating for the deficiencies and hardships of the contemporary world.'* At this point, it seems important to stress that the phenomenon is often referred to as 'sport for all' or 'common sport'. This means both activity practiced at sport-recreational facilities (e.g. fitness classes), and outdoors (e.g. cycling in time off work) (MOKRAS-GRABOWSKA 2015, p. 16). This approach seems to explain the semantic complications of sports tourism, mentioned by S. Bosiacki²: *'(...) Is a person who spends their holidays at the seaside, goes jogging, cycles for pleasure or plays tennis a traditional recreational tourist or perhaps a sports tourist?'* The important elements here seem to be this person's purpose and motivation, as well as the way the sports activity is undertaken.

All the experts taking part in the debate stressed the fact that sports tourism has both an active and a passive form as regards involvement. The most frequently mentioned types of activity undertaken as a part of sports tourism included trips made in order to:

- watch sporting events (fan tourism),
- visit sports facilities (so-called nostalgia sports tourism),
- participate in sporting events as competitors,
- do various forms of sports activity.

A similar classification of sports tourism was presented by B. BOŃCZAK (2013, p. 56) and J. MOKRAS-GRABOWSKA (2015, p. 15), who distinguished (Fig. 1) outdoor and indoor sports tourism (active sports tourism, meaning various sports disciplines), fan tourism (watching sporting events), nostalgia sports tourism (visiting sports facilities, both modern and historical) and the tourism of sportsmen and women (competitors travelling to sporting events).

An interesting and fairly similar classification of sports tourism was proposed by D. Ilnicki, M. Pstrocka-Rak and I. Gruszka². They identified four main types of sports tourism: visiting sports-related sites and museums (understood as nostalgia sports tourism), passive participation in sporting events (understood

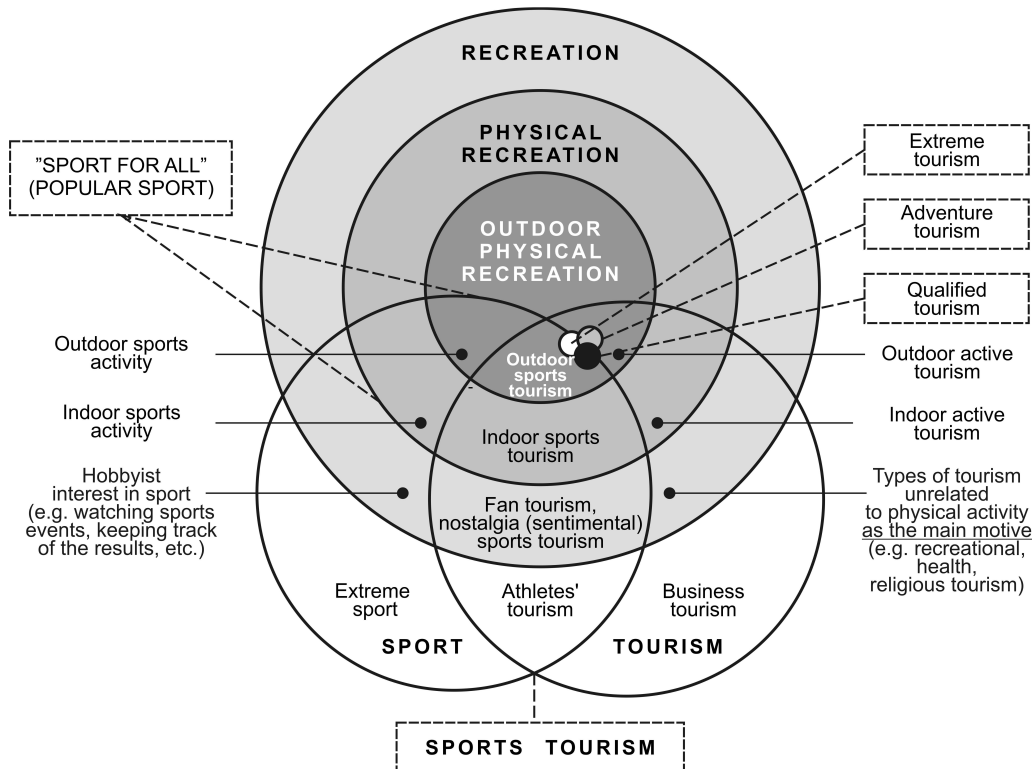


Fig. 1. Model of the relationships between recreation, sport and tourism
Source: author after B. BOŃCZAK (2013)

as fan tourism), active participation in sporting events (amateur and professional), and active and specialised tourism (related to recreational tourism). In this way, the experts stress that nostalgia and fan tourism are related to cultural and sightseeing tourism, amateur participation in sporting events is connected with physical recreation, while professional – with sports and business tourism.

It seems controversial in the classification presented above to distinguish active and specialised tourism as a type; according to J. MOKRAS-GRABOWSKA (2015, p. 15) and B. BOŃCZAK (2013, p. 56), they are separate forms of tourism, but strictly related to sports tourism.

The concept of specialised tourism in Poland was introduced into academic terminology by the Polish Tourism Association (PTTK) in the 1950s (KUREK, ed. 2007, p. 256). It was connected with an attempt to define new areas of tourism which required special equipment and skills (qualifications). Thus, specialised tourism signified the highest form of tourism specialization in a given field, which can make it seemingly similar to sports tourism – it means, for instance, achievements in tourism in order to gain higher distinctions (ŁOBOŻEWICZ 1983, p. 7). Specialised tourism is also regarded as a kind of feat – hence the comparison with specialised sports. This type of tourism, however, also requires having a certain per-

sonality qualities such as psycho-physical preparedness, independence, ability to cope with hardships, high standards of behaviour, the ability to use tourist equipment and behave correctly outdoors and at tourism facilities, as well as a cognitive attitude (knowledge of the environment in which the person stays). It is also important to have the necessary skills (qualifications, often confirmed by certificate) in a given tourism field, as well as to be interested in natural environment, exploration and cognition. Many authors point to the educational character of this kind of tourism (shaping personality). A fundamental element of specialised tourism is also the tourist's passion and expertise which results from being deeply engaged in the activity itself and from a passion for tourism in general (MOKRAS-GRABOWSKA 2015, pp. 30-31).

A slightly different point of view is represented by A. Pawlikowska-Piechotka, who identifies mass 'hard' sports tourism (organized groups of fans), 'soft' sports tourism (individual trips) and nostalgia tourism among all the trips made in order to passively participate in sporting tourism. In turn, among trips made to actively participate in sporting events, she distinguishes active sports tourism (undertaking a given sports discipline) and sports adventure tourism (traveling to remote, hard to reach parts of the world,

expeditions to the 'unknown'). It is worth pointing out that A. Pawlikowska-Piechotka combines adventure tourism with high mountain climbing, hiking and lone sailing (e.g. climbing mountain crowns, breaking sailing records). It must be stressed, however, that activities of this type are also ascribed to forms of specialised, adventure or extreme tourism. This is because the essence of adventure tourism is experiencing a 'trip into the unknown' (exploration). It is characterized by an emotional aspect (for instance connected with higher risk) as well as the spiritual and aesthetic experiences based on contact with different natural and cultural environments. However, adventure tourism is often organized by professional tour-operators and therefore does not require such profound psycho-physical preparedness as specialised tourism. In turn, extreme tourism (risk tourism) means extreme forms of recreation (extreme sports), focused on gaining a strong emotional experience. This is often accompanied by physical exhaustion as well as a high risk of damaging one's health or even losing one's life. In this type of tourism, risk is the key element (MOKRAS-GRABOWSKA 2015, p. 29).

As this discussion implies, establishing fine lines between individual forms of active tourism (sports, specialised, adventure, extreme) is very difficult (sometimes even considered impossible) and greatly depends on the psycho-physical preparedness of tourists, their tourism awareness and professionalism. Many activities may be undertaken in a milder form (active tourism e.g. lowland/mountain hiking), but some of them are only a form of specialised tourism, while others mainly serve the purposes of adventure tourism (e.g. ballooning) or extreme tourism (e.g. canyoning). A widening spectrum of tourist and sports activities can be found related to new trends, fashion and development.

According to L. Butowski², most controversies concern trips made by professionals who can hardly be classified as tourists. In the opinion of L. Butowski as well as D. Ilnicki, M. Pstrocka-Rak and I. Gruszka, there is a group of so called amateurs, who do not treat their participation in competitions as gainful. This form of tourism is also defined as professional tourism and means going to competitions, tournaments and training sessions (BOŃCZAK 2013, p. 58). A different approach is represented by S. Bosiacki², who claims that '(...) it seems justifiable if we understand sports tourism as exclusively those trips where the main motivation is passive participation at sporting events (fans) or active participation in amateur sporting events (e.g. running marathons, canoeing trips or hiking). He believes that the remaining types can be hardly called sports tourism because professional athletes participate in them (the commercial effect).

Another type, which is thought controversial, is nostalgia sports tourism. The objects of interest in this case are both historical sites (e.g. ancient stadiums) and contemporary monumental sports facilities, especially the seats of famous clubs (e.g. the Manchester United, FC Barcelona, or Real Madrid stadiums), as well as museums of sport and sports clubs, commemoration and exhibitions devoted to sportsmen and women, Olympic Games preparation centres, training facilities, Olympic Villages, 'halls of fame', sportsmen's homes, or cemeteries where the famous are buried.

Aleziak believes that trips which involve visiting sports facilities are of cognitive nature, and sports facilities are no different to others such as museums, churches or old mines. This view is supported by Butowski who makes references to the classical tourism geography classification into recreational, sightseeing and specialised tourism. This classification, though a little outdated and incomplete, shows that each aspect of sports tourism may be ascribed to one of its types. Thus, trips made in order to visit sports facilities and watch sporting events can be included in sightseeing tourism, while participation in sports competitions (competitors, professionals) and various forms of sports activity – to specialised tourism. In Butowski's opinion, the term 'sports tourism' covers different, genetically distant forms of tourism and introduces terminological chaos to the literature on the subject – there are various forms of tourism displaying certain affinity to sport. This opinion is shared by D. Ilnicki, M. Pstrocka-Rak and I. Gruszka² from the Academy of Physical Education in Wrocław: '(...) the component forms of sports tourism are included under other types of tourism, such as pop-cultural tourism, business tourism or active recreational tourism'. Trips made in order to visit sports sites expand the relations between tourism and sport by those values related to contact with architecture, and not only strictly sport should also be stressed (SZCZECHOWICZ 2015, p. 42). Perhaps it would be appropriate (though often perceived as quite controversial) to use in this case the term 'cultural-sport tourism' (or 'cultural tourism of sport' (SAHAJ 2015, p. 101), which is defined as travel motivated by the wish to discover and experience sport as a cultural phenomenon – both contemporary and historical (WYSZOWSKA & MALCHROWICZ-MOŚKO 2015, p. 108).

Ending discussion on distinguishing the definitions of sports tourism, it is worth quoting Bośniacki, who says that the term 'sports tourism' is a new and trendy concept, which does not have stable academic foundations and introduces semantic chaos, 'making a career' in Polish tourism literature and trying to transform the terms 'specialised tourism' or 'active tourism'. As

A. Pawlikowska-Piechotka² rightly notices, sports tourism rarely occurs in a 'pure form' – 'it can be assumed that during a trip its participants will be also taking part in cognitive, business or recreational tourism (...). The attempts to define it (...) may lead to excessively expanding or narrowing down this term, as well as distorting this concept and diverting from the popular meaning applied intuitively in everyday language'. To sum up, according to A. Zajadacz², sports tourism cannot be treated as a homogenous phenomenon.

As regards human predispositions to undertake sports tourism, all the experts participating in the debate think that sports tourism in its active aspect requires an appropriate physical condition, good health as well as special preparedness and skill in using equipment. W. Alejziak believes that it is also connected with the formal requirement of possessing certain permits (e.g. sailing licences). In turn, in the case of the passive forms of sports tourism (nostalgia sports tourism, fan tourism), these predispositions may concern only an interest in sport which is enhanced by the desire to take part.

According to S. Bosiacki, participants of sports tourism usually use general tourist infrastructure (accommodation and catering facilities, transport and accompanying infrastructure) as well as the sports and recreation facilities available to all tourists, regardless of their motivation to travel. However, some specialist sports and recreation facilities are addressed at people with higher qualifications (e.g. marinas, climbing walls, cycling circuits). Another issue are the facilities used for sporting events, which are the purpose of travel for both passive and active tourists (but also professionals). They include modern stadiums, sports halls, as well as transport infrastructure (roads, parking lots). According to Z. Kruczek², this development increases the competitiveness of cities and regions through organizing large national and international sporting events. A. Zajadacz² believes that sports tourism trips may not require any infrastructure but they can also heavily depend on the presence of a particular type (e.g. stadiums, arenas, sports halls).

It is forecast that by 2020 income from sports tourism will have increased by 5% each year (WEED 2008, p. 1). Fan tourism alone, also referred to as sporting event tourism, constitutes 14% of the global tourism market, and the value of this sector reaches 600 billion euros (ŚNIADEK 2013, p. 122). The participants point, however, to the difficulty in defining the scale, seasonality and other parameters of sports tourism. Bosiacki says that '*as it is impossible to define sports tourism clearly and precisely, it is difficult to establish its scale and seasonality*'. In his opinion, it seems simple to evaluate the number of tourists (fans present at the largest sporting events) although defining the scale of this phenomenon during holiday or weekend

trips is impossible (and requires additional research on travel motivation). In Z. Kruczek's² opinion, the measure should be the economic effects of the tourists' daily expenses. In turn, according to A. Zajadacz, another basic measure is the number of tickets sold (for using infrastructure, participating in events). Sources of information about trips made by professionals (number of trips, number of athletes, destination, period of stay, seasonality, costs, etc.) include sports organizations, clubs, as well as the accommodation facilities where they stay. D. Ilnicki, M. Pstrocka-Rak and I. Gruszka claim that the choice depends on the level of spatial reference or a description of individual sporting events. It is not possible to state clearly whether seasonality occurs in sports tourism.

According to most experts taking part (A. Zajadacz, D. Ilnicki, M. Pstrocka-Rak, I. Gruszka, Z. Kruczek and A. Niezgodą), taking tourism development forecasts into account, in the near future further development in sports tourism may be expected both quantitatively and qualitatively (measured by the number of participants and its growing diversity). Sports tourism may become a driver of social and economic growth. Sporting events and active sports tourism may diversify the tourism product and have an influence on its innovativeness.

3. SUMMARY

The inquiry has shown an incoherent picture of sports tourism. Despite the adopted definition presenting sports tourism as involving a change in everyday life routine in order to participate in sports activity (active sports tourism), as well as to watch sporting events (event sports tourism/fan tourism), or in order to visit sports attractions (nostalgia/sentimental sports tourism), there are many interpretations of this phenomenon, as well as controversies. While the view that a participant in sports tourism may be active or passive (spectator, supporter) is acceptable, the details vary significantly.

Sports tourism is regarded as one of the most dynamically developing forms of tourism, but at the same time a debate continues whether it should be distinguished at all. What should be stressed is the question of various classifications of sports tourism, to which the experts participating in the inquiry refer to (active and passive participation in sports disciplines), as well as the fact that it is very difficult to ascribe a given activity to a specific type. Moreover, it is typical of different authors to use terms like 'active tourism', 'sports tourism', 'specialised' or 'adventure' and 'extreme' tourism. Additional problems are caused

by the fact that individual components of sports tourism are also included in other types of tourism, such as cultural, business or recreational. This is certainly related to the currently growing range of tourist and sports activities, and the development of new trends, fashion and the growing commercialization of leisure space. However, a useful tool helping to notice the differences between individual types of tourism involving physical activity and sports could be an analysis of the motivations and qualifications of participants. Depending on the participant's qualifications and their motivational structure (including the power of influence of the main motivation), skills, awareness and attitude, individual activities may be included as part of sports, specialised, adventure or extreme tourism.

An important question discussed by the experts is the inclusion of professional trips among forms of sports tourism (professional purposes, money, lack of the cognitive attitude so typical of tourism). This type of trip can hardly be called sports tourism because the participants are professionals (the commercial effect).

The understanding of sports tourism should then be synergic and integrate the features of both tourism and sports.

FOOTNOTES

¹ The researchers participating in the debate included: Professor Wiesław Aleziak (The Academy of Physical Education, Krakow), Dr Stefan Bosiacki (Academy of Physical Education Poznań), Dr Leszek Butowski (Warmia-Mazury University in Olsztyn), Dr Dariusz Ilnicki (Wrocław University), Dr Małgorzata Pstrocka-Rak and Dr Izabela Gruszka (Academy of Physical Education, Wrocław), Professor Zygmunt Kruczek (Academy of Physical Education, Krakow), Dr Agnieszka Niezgodna (Economic University in Poznan), Professor Anna Pawlikowska-Piechocka (Academy of Physical Education, Warsaw/Warsaw Technical University), Dr Alina Zajadacz (Mickiewicz University in Poznań).

² The full statements of the author and all the experts participating in the discussion can be found at the end of this issue, in the part entitled "Voices in the discussion".

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RELATIONS BETWEEN TOURISM AND SPORT IN THE CONTEXT OF TOURISM AS AN ACADEMIC DISCIPLINE

Abstract: The specific objective of the paper is to discuss the mutual relations between tourism and sport and, in a wider context, to draw the reader's attention to the potentially excessive range of research goals in tourism as a discipline. Within the scope of discussion, the author looks at tourism as a social activity and a conceptual and research subject. Research questions, the signposts of intellectual debate, come down to whether tourism shares any common areas with sport (in its widest sense). If so, is such activity still tourism activity? Or perhaps these types of 'sport-tourist' activities should be excluded from discussion on tourism as an academic discipline because of their non-tourist character? The author assumes that there is an exploratory and cognitive zone between these two areas of social activity, going beyond both tourism and sport. Tourist activity and sport activity in fact differ from each other.

Keywords: tourism, sport, sports tourism, exploratory activity, active tourism.

1. INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this paper is to take part in the discussion on the relations between tourism and sport. Issues of tourism, sport and the boundary between them have been discussed by a number of researchers, both Polish and foreign (STEVENS & VAN DEN BROKE 1997, GIBSON 1998, KAZIMIERCZAK & MALCHROWICZ-MOŚKO 2013, BONCZAK 2013A, GOZALOVA *et al.* 2014). The author will try to achieve his aim by evaluating the range of tourist activities and their potential overlap with sport. Tourism is understood here above all as a field of social activity. Nevertheless, the discussion presented below refers to concepts and research in tourism as a discipline. The dilemma: 'tourism as a discipline or as an aspect of human activity described in other disciplines', is present in the literature (COHEN & COHEN 2012, DARBELLAY & STOCK 2011). The key research signposts will be questions concerning areas shared by tourism and, in its widest sense, sport. If such areas do exist, is activity there still tourist activity? Or perhaps these kinds of 'sport-tourist' activities should be excluded from discussion on tourism as a discipline? The author does not intend to provide final evidence or establish a strict boundary between tourism and sport. Establishing such a boundary might be even regarded as impossible due to the considerable fluidity, vagueness and change in the evolution of definitions, tourism research, as well as actual tourist

activity (DEWAILLY 2002). The aim of this paper is to contribute to the discussion in the literature and evoke reflections among both researchers and those organizing tourism in practice. Perhaps as a result of such pre-theoretical conceptual discussion (CHOJNICKI 2005), it is possible to precisely specify or rather not to over-extend the definition of tourism, its research goals and tourist activities. The discussion leaves out the question of recreation and its relation to tourism and sport. Debates on this issue have often been presented in the literature (BACHVAROV & DZIEGIEĆ 2005) but, according to the author, recreation is a term which describes a variety of seemingly sport-related activities, during tourist trips. Thus, it is an important and widely discussed element of the 'sport-recreation-tourism' triad (BOŃCZAK 2013b). Recreation is an indisputable element linking sport with tourism, but not the only one. The other link includes activities such as white water canoeing, high mountain climbing, orienteering or hiking on adventure trails. It can be assumed that following the development of various forms of human outdoor activity at the turn of the 21st c., two activities can be distinguished which bridge sport and tourism. Searching for another link between or, on the contrary, a divider of the two fields is one of the aims here.

Tourism is primarily a human activity (PRZEĆLAWSKI 2002). It is a significant social phenomenon shaping

modern societies in many aspects of their existence and development. As a result, the research subject and conceptual discussion are strongly influenced by actual social activities (GREN & HUIJBENS 2011). The development of tourism as a social activity is considerable, if we consider both its scale and the growing number of tourism sub-disciplines. Along with the growing popularity of 'tourist' styles of living and social attitudes, the speeding 'flywheel' of tourism generates new offers, tourism fields and, consequently, new research areas concerning new tourism activities. This may lead, and in some cases perhaps does lead, to legitimizing new or already existing forms of human activity as tourism, although in fact this is not what they are. There is a kind of hermeneutic loop between tourism as social activity and research. New areas of human activity, called tourist by researchers, find existence in social awareness as well. Researchers confirm the appearance of a new activity and at later stages it is studied in a tourism context. Finally, ignoring the differences between individual definitions, and the lack of connection with an objective definition of tourism (or simply expanding it), a new tourism form is announced, which then appears independently in academic works, supported with texts describing case studies. In the author's opinion, this is what is happening to pilgrimage tourism, which is in fact a religious social activity of *sacrum* nature, and not related to tourism through its aims and motivations. Naturally, religious pilgrimage tourism generates investments which provide services for the 'tourist-visitor' as well. In itself, however, it is not tourism but pilgrimage. Controversies connected with tourist activity may also result from the lobby of entrepreneurs who want some form of social life to be called tourism for commercial reasons. The author believes that the greatest hypocrisy of the contemporary Western World is the expression 'sex-tourism'. This term in fact signifies the morally dubious exploitation of people from poorer countries, perhaps it is even a modern form of colonization and slavery. As reality shows, behind the façade of tourism, it is possible to get involved in sex, developing a new field of socio-tourist activity, but in consequence also an exploratory and explanatory form of tourism. Is it not a research field within the scope of social pathology rather than tourism research?

In times of 'fluid modernity', in which everything is transient, anything may come into being but also may cease to exist, anything may change appearance and transform (BAUMAN 2006), it is easy to distinguish a set of behaviours and call them sex tourism (OPPERMANN 1999), religious tourism (PFAFFENBERGER 1983) or 'black tourism' (Smith 2010), despite the fact that these behaviours have nothing to do with tourism. It is much easier to announce the advent of a new type of tourism than deprive it of a chance to become

a tourism type.... The constantly increasing 'pluralism of lifestyles' (GIDDENS 2001) in Western society encourages contemporary man to search for new, more sophisticated forms of social activity, which includes leisure time. In turn, the growth and ease of spatial mobility are reasons why these individual lifestyles can be easily put into practice in geographical regions far from a permanent place of residence. Technological progress, which enables people to use sometimes highly advanced tools pushing the limits of a physical achievement to an extreme, can be added. Considering all these, it is worth thinking whether any spatial behaviour, replicated in even hundreds, thousands or millions of individual acts, bears the hallmarks of a phenomenon provoking people to create a new field of tourism and open research fields. In other words, the question arises whether the term 'tourism' is not overused or used as an alibi to create a new tourism product and to study reality created in this way. For instance, canoeing tourism is a form which undeniably exists involving one-day or longer canoeing trips, individually or in groups. However, in the course of the evolution of this tourism form, more advanced varieties may appear, such as white water canoeing, sea canoeing, freestyle forms, rafting, etc. Then again, sea canoeing features a lot of more or less advanced activities of those who are interested in it. Here, however, the question can be posed whether each of these activities is a tourist activity. Some of them will come very near a sporting achievement and refer rather to an innate struggle with the participant, nature or rivals. Others will include elements of competition rather than touristic ways of spending free time. Naturally, questions can be asked about those tourists who rent a kayak for a few hours or days on their way to some where else? They are either doing a form of recreation during a tourist trip or are temporarily involved in active tourism. Is it justified then to create a new entity, i.e. sports tourism? The author has his doubts.

2. UNDERSTANDING TOURISM AND SPORT

In order to find hypothetical similarities and differences between tourism and sport, in effect to hold a discussion on potential common areas of sports-tourist activity, and conduct research where tourism borders with sport, there will first be a discussion on the understanding of tourism and sport as social activities.

Z. Kurek & M. Mika note that in early definitions, the concepts of 'tourism' and 'a tourist' were defined relatively generally and universally (KUREK, ed. 2007). It must be remembered here that they were definitions

of 19th c. activities, i.e. activities which were rare and limited for both social and technological reasons. In the early 19th c., many defined tourism as “theory and practice of touring for pleasure” (TRIBE 2009, p. 44), demonstrating at the same time that the word ‘tour’ itself means discovery, journey, reconnaissance, exploration, and that it is rooted in Hebrew. One of the first academic definitions appeared in 1911, presenting tourism as a totality of activities, mostly economic, which are directly related to visitors entering, moving, spending time and immersing in a foreign country, region or city (TRIBE 2009). W. HUNZIKER & K. KRAPP defined tourism as the sum of activities which involve travelling and staying at a destination, with the exclusion of gainful or settlement-related activity (1942).

More recently, the term ‘tourism’ has been used to define spatial mobility, a voluntary activity which involves changing a place of residence and rhythm of living. Tourism defined in this way is also connected with personal contact with the natural and social environment visited (PRZECLAWSKI 1979). Thus, this aspect stresses its voluntary character, spatial mobility, a change of residence and interactive contact with the host environment. Voluntariness is considered a very interesting concept which according to K. Przeclawski, is naturally implied by tourism. This means that tourist activity greatly depends on the potential tourist, and the optionality of this activity is an immanent feature of tourism. Therefore, whether an activity can be called a tourist activity depends on its voluntary character. Naturally, nowadays we may immediately wonder what can be called an optional, rather than an obligatory, activity which we have not been forced to do e.g. by commercials, stereotypes, group conformism, decisions of our bosses or partners, or our life situation. Despite these dilemmas, it can be assumed that the voluntariness of tourism fits the ideas embodied by it: freedom, moving around, change or exploration. K. Przeclawski’s postulate of interactive contact with the natural and social environment should also be noted. However, the early 21st c. brings a question on the genuine character and authenticity of the environment visited by the tourist. Is it a real environmental and cultural landscape or an artefact created to meet the visitor’s expectations?

Based on K. Przeclawski’s definition of tourism, it can be referred to in narrower or broader senses. In the latter case, the researcher accepts the inclusion in tourism of such forms of social activity as sport, a religious cult, visiting family or gainful activity (PRZECLAWSKI 1996). But this is where boundary and misunderstandings appear as regards the social activity itself (am I an athlete, pilgrim, football fan or tourist?), the research subject (do I study athletes, advocates of a religion, football fans or tourists?) and the tourism product (is a pilgrimage a religious *sacrum* or a tourist

profanum? Is an extreme canoeing trip still tourism or an advanced product for sports-minded people?).

Tourism is viewed from a wider perspective by the researchers at the University of Łódź. Deliberating over the tourism product, they claim that tourism is any social, economic and cultural phenomena, related to travel for recreational, sightseeing, health, religious, family, professional or other purposes, with the exclusion of permanent and work-motivated movement (KACZMAREK, STASIAK & WŁODARCZYK 2005, p. 16).

Observing the discussion on the meaning of tourism, it can clearly be seen that along with the social and economic development of the contemporary world, definitions and interpretations of tourism and tourist behaviours are changing.

Trying to establish the scope of contemporary tourism, J. URRY (2007, p. 16) lists its attributes, such as spending free time as opposed to orderly working time, moving to places other than the permanent place of residence and work, temporary stays with the intention of going back ‘home’. The researcher stresses that tourism is connected with breaking from a fixed, everyday routine and subjecting your senses to the influence of other stimuli. In this sense, tourism can be perceived as the ‘other side of the mirror’ of everyday life. Tourism then must take place away from home, out of the regular order of things, and everyday ‘normal’ stimuli, but also outside work (in contrast, the UN WTO definition considers travel for gainful purposes and business is also a form of tourism). In J. Urry’s definition, the motive to undertake tourist activity is clearly a psycho-social one, and the attributes, even if they are environmental (nature-related), produce social effects (new experiences, a different image of oneself during a tourist activity). Free time as the basis for tourist activities was also the basis of M. BACHVAROV’S & E. DZIEGIEĆ’S (2006) article.

Discussion concerning tourism and its academic sub-disciplines (or individual human activities) sometimes allows an element of competition to appear in definitions. For instance by B. BOŃCZAK (2013b) who focuses on the special character of specialised tourism, which may encourage people to compete and in this way bring them closer to sport.

At the end of this short review of definitions, it is worth mentioning J. NOVY’S approach (2011). He describes tourism as a social, cultural and psychological phenomenon. As a social phenomenon, tourism is an interaction of people from the host countries with individual or group travellers (travel agencies). As a psychological phenomenon, tourism animates personal traits, skills and capabilities so that tourists can make decisions concerning travel and tourist activity, as well as put those decisions into practice. Finally, as a cultural phenomenon, tourism is a flow of

norms and values between the visitor and the host representing different cultures.

So what is tourism? The common denominators which allow us to define the research area include motivation to leave home, change rhythm and lifestyle as well as place of residence, contact with the host environment, but also (though it was not stated in the definitions) activity institutionalization (especially on a mass-scale). It is also worth repeating the thought that definitions make it much easier for researchers to include additional aspects of social life in tourism types than to define what tourism is not.

It is much easier to formulate the definition of sport. As provided in Art. 3 point 3 of the Physical Culture Act of 1st September 2005, sport is a form of human activity aiming at improving a person's psycho-physical strength, individually or collectively, following arbitrary rules. According to the Act, 'formal' sport is a form of human activity involving participation in sports competitions organized and supervised in a given sport by the Polish Sport Association or entities operating on its authority. The key elements are institutionalization, competition and/or self-improvement. Self-improvement may be regarded as a kind of competition or struggle with the self (weaknesses, limitations and ailments) but also in achieving records. If sport is understood in this way, it may be any physical form of self-improvement through competition, rivalry, challenging an opponent(s) or oneself. Sport is defined in a similar way in the Oxford dictionary as an activity involving physical effort and specific skills, in which a person or a team compete with someone for fun(?) (<http://www.oxforddictionaries.com> accessed on 25 January 2015). Based on these two definitions, it can be concluded that not every physical activity is sport. What is more, sport is defined first of all through competition and not physical activity. The areas potentially shared by tourist and sports activities are the places where they occur, while in most cases the aims and forms of sports activity (especially competitiveness) will clearly separate these areas of social behaviour.

It might seem then that the whole thing is simple. Unfortunately, as in the introductory discussion above, what is found in the literature shows the complexity of the issue of boundary and what tourism and sport have in common if looked at from both theoretical and practical points of view. Discussion begins when it concerns activities like trekking, skiing, canoeing, horse-riding or diving. In an attempt to find a solution regarding the classification of tourism disciplines, a new type was introduced, called sports tourism (GAMMON & ROBINSON 1997, GIBSON 1998). There are two aspects to sports tourism: active and passive. The first type involves active sport, professionally or recreationally, e.g. skiing, canoeing or horse-riding. In

the other case, tourism involves participating as an observer, supporter, as well as visiting places related to sport. Here, the term 'fan tourism' seems to be more appropriate (KUREK, ed. 2007). Despite a large body of theoretical and empirical studies (GAMMON & ROBINSON 1997, WEED & BULL, 1997, BATTISTI & FAVRETTO, 1997, GIBSON 1998, TOMIK 2013), the author is sceptical about the term 'sports tourism' and its scope of research. Tourism and sport have in fact different purposes therefore the expression 'sports tourism' is more than imprecise. The research subject also may raise doubts – on the one hand, it is the spectators of sporting events and supporters, but on the other – it is the competitors themselves, doing sport professionally, or tourists getting involved in some recreational (but not sporting) activity. The question appears whether the first two social categories are tourists who might interest a tourism researcher, and the third includes those who play sport, i.e. competitors. Actually, the answer to this question is simple and results from the basic social roles involved: the first group are sports fans, the second – participants and the third – tourists.

The author's view of the relations between sport and tourism is presented in the next section.

3. MUTUAL RELATIONS BETWEEN TOURISM AND SPORT: POTENTIAL COMMON AREAS

3.1. TOURISM AND SPORT (WITH THE EXCLUSION OF RECREATION)

In order to find common as well as different areas of sport and tourism, a conceptual procedure was carried out defining the indices of both activities. At this point, it is worth quoting again from the introduction: recreation is an undeniable bridge between the two activities. However, it is assumed that there is another connection, going beyond the classical concept of the 'tourism-recreation-sport' triad. After analysing definitions, it has been assumed that tourism involves changing the place of residence and a temporary change of lifestyle. It has its informal and institutional manifestations while for sport it has been assumed that its characteristic features include competition and/or self-improvement, as well as its institutional and informal aspects. As a result, it is possible to draw a diagram of the mutual relations between both these areas of social activity, based on three key variables: institutionalization, competition/self-improvement, changes in place of residence and lifestyle (*cf.* Fig. 1). This enables the visualisation of potential common and separated areas for sport and tourism. It has

already been mentioned that the most important distinguishing element is competition, and not only differentiating but even separating them. Looking for a definition of tourism, it is not possible to find one which includes competition in any form of tourist activity.

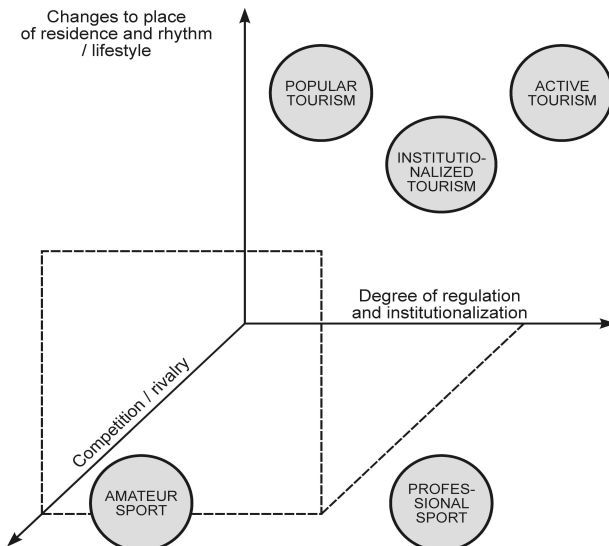


Fig. 1. Mutual relations between tourism and sport with reference to the three variables
Source: authors' idea

The basic aims of tourism include sightseeing, learning and exploration (perhaps in a relative and subjective sense of the word rather than objective). Direct and indirect competition with opponents or results is a natural element of sport, not only in its professional version. In fact then, tourism and sport are separated by the purpose of activity and thus it would be difficult to find common areas. On the one hand, the development and popularization of technologies related to tourist, sports and exploratory activities, and on the other – a search for new forms of activity in the 21st c., introducing an element of self-improvement or self-testing, as well as a pursuit of 'tourist records' into a certain dimension of tourism. Technological possibilities and psycho-social needs open forms of activity which go beyond tourism understood as cognitive. Practically speaking, only places where this activity is found, such as mountains, rivers, forests, etc., remain as arenas of these behaviours. On the other hand, physical preparedness, experience, special skills and technologies, as well as the aims of activities, are reasons why tourism and tourist behaviours can be spoken of no longer. In this sense, tourism has come close to sport and seemingly has a lot in common. Seemingly because, in the author's opinion, it is not sport that this tourism is bordering on. Recognizing the aims, the term 'active tourism' can be used (BOŃCZAK 2013a). Perhaps due to

its popularity, this expression would be today gladly accepted socially, which is important from the point of view of tourism as an applied discipline. The term can be also used to describe outdoor or exploratory activity and here the activities no longer carry the hallmarks of tourism. It is the boundaries of tourism that are marked by this active tourism category. Beyond it, there is a sphere which becomes increasingly different due to engagement, competences (also physical), as well as the technologies that are used.

3.2. TOURISM AND EXPLORATORY ACTIVITY

The common area of both activities and, consequently, also of tourism research is exploratory activity (also referred to as exploration) (cf. Fig. 2).

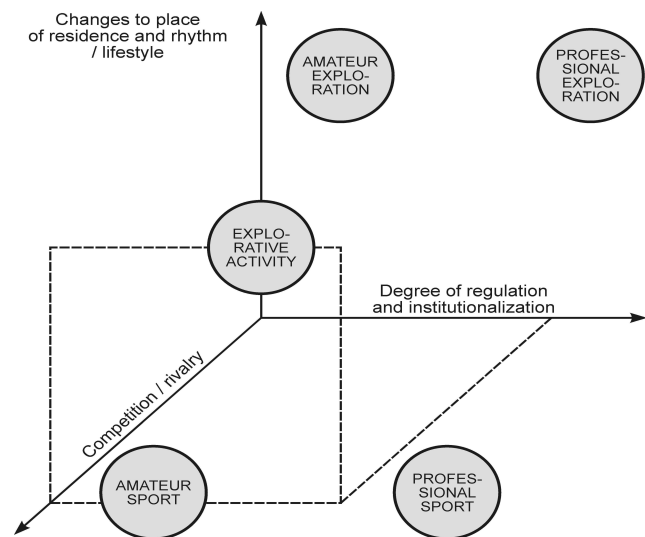


Fig. 2. Mutual relations between tourism and exploratory activity with reference to three variables
Source: authors' idea

In this case, not only the place of activity and types of technology used are similar, but also, or maybe above all, the purpose which is cognitive. Naturally, exploratory cognition is much more advanced than classical tourism cognition. A tourist discovers something new subjectively and does not in fact explore it objectively. Sightseeing is individual cognition. Exploratory cognition becomes a kind of geographical and/or cultural achievement. An explorer (often colloquially called a 'traveller') discovers genuinely new, not fully explored and not commonly accessible, areas or cultures. In its pure form, exploratory activity can in no way be identified with tourism. In exploratory activity, people usually set themselves pioneering goals or want to repeat other discoverers' achievements. Tourism refers to popular and non-professional activities, both in geographical and

cultural dimensions, even in specialised tourism. However, tourist activity will be sometimes come close to exploration through these goals, as well as through the actual skills of the person and the special equipment used. Exploratory activities quite often bear the hallmarks of individual or group rivalry/competition, which is a typical feature of sport. Apart from competition, other elements which form a common platform for exploratory tourism and sport include the use of professional equipment and the pursuit of records, in the sense of pushing the limits of cognition. As a result, exploratory activity appears to be a kind of bridge between tourism and sports activity. It helps understand the borderline areas of tourist activity, but following from this, research focused on tourism can be conceptually and empirically isolated.

3.3. EXPLORATION AND SPORT

Exploration has already been defined as activity focused on cognition or re-exploration of places or cultures already discovered. The basic purpose of such activity is cognition or repeating someone else's actions, i.e. discovering or rediscovering a place, verifying earlier actions. Considering the way in which it is formulated, its purpose has relatively little to do with sport. However, in a number of cases, certain connections with sporting activity can be found (*cf.* Fig. 3).

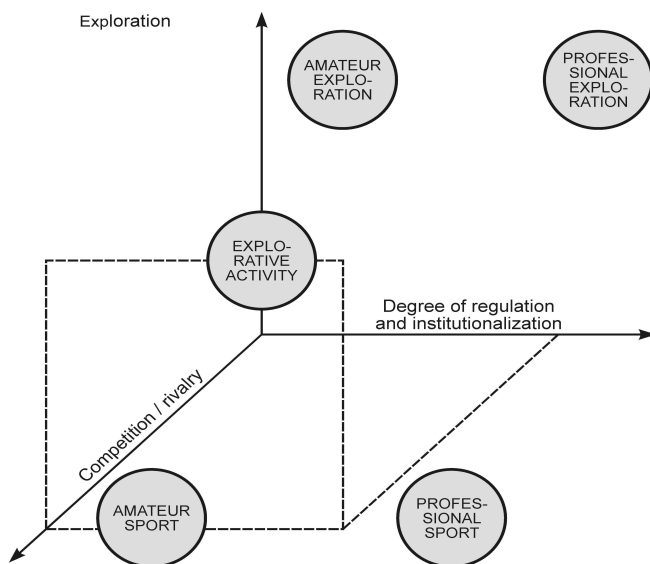


Fig. 3. Mutual relations between sport and exploratory activity with reference to three variables
Source: authors' idea

They appear when:

- 1) a stimulus related to rivalry/competition between individuals or teams is introduced into the

process of exploration. The element of rivalry will be redefining exploratory activity;

- 2) those engaged in exploratory activity approach the limits of human possibilities. In this case, apart from exploration, there appears the motive of self-improvement and genuine struggle with personal weaknesses.

In both cases, it can be ascertained that the cognitive-exploratory goal will be placed behind the sport-related goal – then an exploratory activity will smoothly change into a sports one. If competition clearly comes to the forefront, then the whole activity will acquire more and more features of sport. For instance, walking along a mountain ridge may be a strictly tourist activity. If, however, this is the first crossing of an unexplored area, it will certainly turn into an exploratory one at the conceptual and preparatory stage. If the significance of the speed of doing the task or the element of competition with another team are added, such an undertaking can be seen as a sporting activity.

4. SUMMARY

The primary aim of the discussion is to discuss the boundaries of tourism and sport, as well as those areas which they share and those which make them different. Firstly, two important reasons for holding such discussions were outlined. On the one hand, they help specify the research subject and develop conceptual debates concerning tourism. In order to debate the development of tourism as a discipline, areas of interest must first be defined. On the other hand, establishing the areas shared by tourism and other forms of social activity is important for practical reasons. Such discussions make practitioners, such as tourism organizations, bodies creating tourism products, but also tourists themselves, aware that not everything can be referred to as tourism. In a commentary on the conceptual aspect of the discussion on mutual relations between tourism and sport, it can be said that:

- the key elements defining the scope of research on tourism and sport are the goals of these activities – and it can be added that these goals are very different;
- an important element identifying human social activities is the recognition of the primary social role which guides them. This role also clearly points to the type of activity: tourism or sport;

Apart from recreation, the zone between tourism and sport contains a type of activity which is referred to as 'exploratory'. This is a huge study area which is (together with recreation – not discussed in this paper)

an area indirectly linking tourism and sport. In this way, the bridges between sport and tourism (but also differences between them) have two dimensions. One is recreation, but there is another which takes the discussion beyond the classical 'tourism-recreation-sport' triad. Active or specialised tourism remains a type that does not involve competition; this discipline is on the boundary of tourism.

The practical aspect of these conclusions can be mentioned as well, and can in fact start a discussion extending beyond the scope of this paper. It can be ascertained that differentiating between tourism and sport as regards practical activity, in addition to bringing exploratory activity into the discussion, eliminates many misunderstandings between the customer, organizer and product seller. These misunderstandings result from giving an improper name to the product sold, but they are also related to the consequences of tourists participating in activities which have ceased to be touristic. In this case, it is possible to avoid the problem of exposing customers to danger only because an extreme product (extreme because of the skills required and technologies used) will be sold not as a tourism product, but as a product related to exploration or even sport.

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REMARKS ON SPORTS TOURISM AS A REFLECTION ON *RELATIONS BETWEEN TOURISM AND SPORT CONCERNING THE ORGANIZATION OF TOURISM STUDIES* BY J. KOTUS

Abstract: The text is a dispute with the author of the article, who attempted to define the concept of “sports tourism”. The article is published in this issue, on pages 19-25.

Keywords: sports tourism, sport, tourism, terminology.

After reading J. Kotus' article entitled *Relations between Tourism and Sport concerning the Organisation of Tourism Studies*, I came to the conclusion that it was interesting, but also provoked debate especially on a conceptual plane and as regards an understanding of the two most dynamically developing and popular types of human activity, i.e. tourism and sport.

By establishing the goals, problems and assumptions of his work, J. Kotus starts a discussion on “the mutual relations of tourism and sport”, making them his focus. He also asks some research questions: “Does tourism share some common ground with sport?” and “If so, is it a tourism activity?” In the final part of his work, the author hypothesizes that “there is a buffer zone between tourism and sport”, which he calls “exploratory activity”.

The aims, questions and assumptions presented by Kotus are sufficient to provoke a broader debate on the developments of tourism and sport. My remarks will mainly concern terminological issues, and because they have not been appropriately resolved will lead to many misunderstandings. Inspired by Kotus' article, I will focus mostly on the term ‘sports tourism’.

Tourism, particularly dynamic in the second half of the 20th c. and in the early 21st c., has enforced multiple ‘corrections’ to definitions of tourism and the tourist, as discussed in *Turystyka* (KUREK, ed. 2007). Referring to those who are interested in specific definitions, let us recall here only the most important features that someone must have to be regarded as a tourist. They must have free time which they can spend on travelling, the trip must be voluntary, it must not be

commercial or connected to employment, it should change to a place of stay outside their place of permanent residence, should not last less than 24 hours (a trip including at least one night) or longer than one year. Generally, the purpose should involve a change in the natural and social environment, discovery and recreation, broadly understood as a regeneration of physical and mental strength.

As we can see from the above, the contemporary definition of ‘visitors’, divided into ‘tourists’ (at least a 24-hour stay) and ‘excursionists’ (shorter), is very inaccurate. This, combined with the high mobility of the global population, leads to tourism statistics internationally soaring to over one billion annually (not counting domestic tourists).

The numerous typologies and classifications of tourism according to a variety of criteria have relatively recently included sports tourism.

Let us take a closer look at how this form of tourism is defined by some authors. Describing selected forms of tourism, M. MIKA (2007) distinguished the following: cognitive, recreational, specialised, health, religious and business tourism. The cognitive group includes ‘fan tourism’, alongside environmental, cultural, ethnic, festival, and other types. This term covers tourist trips connected with sport and sporting events held outside the permanent place of residence, which they make in order to watch sports competitions live. Sports tourism understood in this way includes trips to individual sporting events (one match, one competition), tournaments in a single discipline lasting several days, and continental or world championships. The

largest sporting event, attended by hundreds of thousands of spectators, is the Olympic Games. It is worth remembering that it was the Olympic Games that suspended wars in ancient Greece and encouraged people to travel to the places where they were held to take part in them. Those remote events can be regarded as the beginning of world sports tourism (LISZEWSKI 2005).

Identifying sports tourism with 'fan tourism' brings it closer to cultural or festival tourism, where the motivation for travel is a specific event in which we want to participate. Nowadays, this comparison is justifiable due to the location of the event. Huge investments in sports facilities are increasingly often planned in such a way that they can be used not only for sport competitions, but also for staging music festivals or performances by renowned artists. This functional flexibility, which refers to types of events and audiences, is observed in Poland e.g. at the Atlas Arena in Łódź, the National Stadium in Warsaw, and several other facilities.

In the work entitled *Turystyka*, the author of a popular course book, W.W. GAWORECKI (2010) describes selected forms of tourism, mentioning 'sports tourism' in 19th place. In his opinion, "sports tourism involves travelling outside a given person's place of permanent residence in order to participate in sports activity for recreation, to play sport professionally, to watch sporting events, visit famous sport-related attractions, for not longer than a year without a break, outside a person's everyday environment" (GAWORECKI 2010, p. 94).

Further on, with reference to the literature, the author states that sports tourism is identified with travel in order to:

- visit a place,
- participate in physical activity,
- watch a sports match,
- participate in a sporting event voluntarily.

According to W.W. Gaworecki, sports tourism combines watching sporting events or visiting sports facilities with actually playing sport. It seems that currently these two activities have been separated.

The above review of opinions and definitions encourages me even more strongly to try and formulate a definition of sports tourism as I see it.

Though very generally and imprecisely the term 'tourism', however often changed and extended, does define the phenomenon. The term 'sport', which is put together with tourism here, requires at least some further explanation. In my opinion, one of the most important features of sport is competition. Every person, participating in a sports competition, individually or in a team, tries to achieve a better result or beat an opponent, no matter whether the competition is held in a sports hall, at a stadium, in

a forest, in the water, etc. It is the competitiveness and the desire to win that encourage the person to train intensively that makes a 'champion' out of an 'average' person, although equipped with specific physical and mental predispositions.

Nowadays, in order to bring up a 'true' champion in a given discipline, parents place their child under the care of a coach. The life of this child is divided between school time and training.

The idea of practicing sport with the intention of maintaining good health has moved from sports clubs to 'leisure centres', groups and associations, also those which propagate active or specialised tourism and active recreation.

It is difficult to connect sport, which has been an economic undertaking for many years now, with tourism, or look at it as a model health-oriented activity. Confronted with the brutality of some sports or sportsmen, the slogan '*sport to zdrowie* – sport is health', which used to accompany sport competitions, has had to make room for advertisements of various hypermarket products or for other commercial slogans.

The main purpose of organizing modern professional sport (and only this kind of sport interests the media) is to make money. Both the competitors, for whom sport is a job ('athletes'), performing in specially built arenas (stadiums, halls, pitches, courts, etc.), and those who watch these events ('fans') participate in a great economic undertaking, based on a concrete calculation which includes the remuneration for the competitors, coaches, attendants, physicians and, finally, for clubs, the costs of renting the facilities, etc., as well as the income from ticket prices, TV broadcasts, advertisements and so on. What the organizers of such sports events care about is a positive financial result, while the spectators count on the dose of adrenaline provided by the victory of 'their' competitor, team, etc.

A very interesting example of sports tourism connected with the 28th Olympic Games in Athens can be found in the article by M. SŁONIEWSKI (2005). The author gives a fairly detailed presentation of the costs and the profits which the Games brought to Greece (Athens). Without going into detail, it is worth quoting an opinion expressed by the Greek Association of Tourism Enterprises, which claimed that in the year of the Olympic Games, Greece was visited by 10% fewer tourists than in the previous year. The reason turned out to be the inflated hotel prices in that year, as they expected an increased inflow of guests ('fans') wishing to watch the Olympics. Unfortunately, they were mistaken.

To sum up, I would like to express the opinion that the large numbers of people all over the world who travel for the general purpose of sport should be

divided into two groups: those for whom the motivation to travel is the desire to personally watch a sports competition (a fan, supporter), and those who travel to take part in active sport, especially its newer forms (e.g. cross-country or street running), as well as specialised tourism requiring suitable equipment.

It seems that for the first of these would be appropriate to use the term 'fan tourism', suggested by M. MIKA (2007), but adding the attribute 'sport' to it 'sports fan tourism'. It is necessary because the expression 'fan' may also refer to the fans of music bands, singers, festivals, games or other mass events.

'Sports fan tourism' would refer to trips made by those who meet the criteria of a tourist (see: definitions) and passively (as spectators) take part in sporting events (matches, tournaments, championships, Olympic Games, etc.). The number of large, international sporting events is growing from year to year, just like the number of people (fans) who come to watch these events and 'their' favourites (e.g. the ski jumping tournament in Zakopane). It seems right to expand our knowledge about this form of tourism and conduct substantial studies on an international scale.

I believe that the latter of the two groups – tourists who practice different types of activities and prefer active recreation, wanting to improve their health, experience strong emotions, manifest a certain style of living, make a public manifestation (running), etc – are a part of specialised or recreational tourism.

Finally, I would like to refer to the statement included by J. KOTUS (2016) in his article. He assumes that "there is a buffer zone between tourist and sport activity, in the form of exploratory/ cognitive activity, going beyond tourism and sport". First of all, I want to stress that I agree that "tourism and sports activity are different". However, I wish to point out that in some circumstances these activities co-occur and cannot exist without each other. It is difficult to imagine, for instance, a European Cup football match without footballers (sportsmen) or without their supporters (tourists). The former travel to work (and therefore cannot be regarded as tourists), and the latter are 'fan tourists', and their main aim is to see the match and the victory of their favourite team. These relations look different, at least because of the scale of the event, for example during a 10-km ski event for the world championship.

Returning to J. Kotus' theses about the "buffer zone in the form of exploratory/cognitive activity" – the author associates this activity with exploration, which is an activity typical of tourism, but also, according to J. Kotus, of certain sports disciplines.

At this point, it should be remembered that in an article concerning tourism space and its types, S. LISZEWSKI (1995) distinguished a tourism exploration space. In further studies conducted by academics of the Institute of Urban and Tourism Geography, University of Łódź, this concept was developed. They identified the tourism exploration of geographical space (geographical space discovered for the first time) and the individual space of tourism exploration (geographical space discovered for the first time by a particular person-tourist). Nowadays, the former tourism exploration space is rather small (generally, the land areas of the Earth have been discovered), while the latter is the everyday object of discovery at every place visited by a tourist for the first time.

In this sense, the 'buffer' between the tourist and the sport activity, i.e. exploration (discovery), occurs extremely rarely and probably concerns specialised tourism and extreme sports.

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ESCAPE ROOMS: A NEW OFFER IN THE RECREATION SECTOR IN POLAND

Abstract: Globalization leaves its footprint on the leisure market contributing to the global popularization of brand new forms of recreation. A perfect example of such instant diffusion of innovation on a global scale is the rapid development of escape rooms. The aim of the article is to try and explain the extraordinary popularity of escape rooms in Poland, mainly through an analysis of what they offer. The author presents the origins and development of this particular form of recreation, discusses the location of nearly 600 facilities functioning in 2016, as well as giving a detailed description of escape rooms in the ten large Polish cities. The study leads to the conclusion that the phenomenon of escape rooms stems from, among other things, the fundamental assumptions of the experience economy.

Keywords: leisure time, forms of recreation, escape rooms, experience economy.

1. INTRODUCTION

In the globalization era, ways of spending leisure time are undergoing constant change, showing a tendency towards a rapid diffusion of innovation at the same time as easily adopting and adapting new models. It concerns not only affluent societies, but also the inhabitants of countries aspiring to belong to this group and readily copying the Western style of living. In hedonistic consumer societies, discretionary income is willingly allocated to all kinds of pleasures and increasingly sophisticated forms of recreation, to be a particular manifestation of the buyer's social position and status.

A response to the growing demand for attractive types of recreation is the development of the leisure industry. The term refers to the sector of economy including recreation, entertainment, sports and tourism services (REST). It encompasses extremely varied economic entities creating a commercial (paid) and professional (expertly prepared) offer of goods and services used for the purpose of organizing leisure time in an original way. Due to very strong market competition, people are continuously looking for new, more sophisticated, sometimes even extreme forms of

recreation, building new and fascinating attractions and facilities, as well as creating exceptional, emotions and experiences.

The political, social and economic system transformation in the 1990s introduced Poland to the global free market. As a result, all major globalization phenomena are reflected on the Polish market as well. This, of course, concerns the leisure market, too, although in Poland it has a particular character. The beginnings of the economic transformation were related to the pauperization of a large part of the society, which was the reason why the demand for recreation services did not appear until the end of the decade when the middle class emerged and developed, together with its aspirations.

The current dynamic growth of the recreation sector in Poland is based on the following:

- systematic popularization of recreation forms which until recently were regarded as exclusive and financially inaccessible for the majority interested in them, such as tennis, golf or horse riding;

- introducing attractions, popular in the West for years, but for various reasons absent from Poland e.g. gyms, fitness clubs, bowling alleys, shopping centres, theme parks, science and technology centres;
- a new leisure industry offer, e.g. climbing walls, ropes courses or military games (paintball, laser games, archery battles, air soft guns).

One of the latest phenomena on the recreation service market, not only in Poland but across the world, are escape rooms¹. They have become a real hit of the second decade of the 21st c., and their number of fans is growing exponentially. The aim of the article is to explain the causes of the extraordinary popularity of escape rooms in Poland, mostly by analysing what they offer. The author presents the origins and development of this particular form of recreation, discusses the location of the 594 facilities functioning, as well as giving a detailed description of the 381 escape rooms in the ten largest Polish cities. The source of information was the data presented on lockme.pl website on 30th April 2016². The author focuses above all on the issue of supply; the description of escape room users will be the subject of a separate article.

2. THE ORIGINS AND DEVELOPMENT OF ESCAPE ROOMS

TV game shows are sometimes considered to be the predecessors of escape rooms; the contestants discover the next clue to the treasure by accomplishing a variety of physical and mental fitness tasks. This category includes shows like the French 'Fort Boyard' and the British 'Crystal Maze', broadcast in many countries all over the world³.

However, it was computer games that were closer in the form of play to escape rooms. The first game of this type appeared in 1988 and was based on... text only! The monitor screen presented the description of the adventure, including a locked room from which the player could escape after solving all the puzzles. Much greater possibilities were created in the later adventure games of the point-and-click type due to the visually more attractive graphics, full of detail. They required the player to solve puzzles or find hidden items; by clicking the mouse, the player led his/her hero through a virtual world. One of the first producers of this type of game was George Lucas. In the most famous of them, 'Myst', the journey between worlds depended on solving the puzzles found in special books. The game is considered to be the pioneer of the 'escape-the-room' segment (KOWALIK 2015).

The real beginnings of today's escape rooms, however, should be sought in the world of computer

games from 10 years ago. In 2006, a group of computer programmers from Silicon Valley, inspired by the books by Agatha Christie, designed a game entitled 'Origin'. It quickly became very popular, not only in the USA, but also in Asia.

The next stage in the development of escape rooms, i.e. moving from cyberspace into the real world, took place in the Far East. In 2007, in Kyoto, a publishing house SCRAP opened the first real escape room, known as Real Escape Game (REG). Interest in the new product went beyond the creators' boldest expectations. In the following years, similar escape rooms were created in many other Japanese cities, as well as in Singapore, Taiwan and in China. The escape rooms in Hong Kong even started to be used for educational purposes during youth camps for secondary school students (<https://lockme.pl>).

In short, we can say that the idea of a real escape room was conceived in the marriage of TV game shows and point-and-click computer adventure games (KOWALIK 2015). As a result, "the virtual escape room was transformed into a real life escape room" (<https://lockme.pl>). The game really became real – the player who had been sitting in front of the computer screen could personally enter a mysterious room, experience it with all his/her senses and 'do the mission' (solve all puzzles and leave the room within the set time limit).

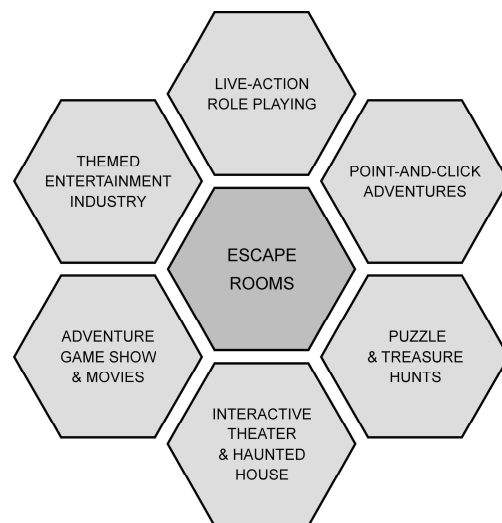


Fig. 1. Escape room precursors (NICHOLSON 2015)

A definitely more complex version of the origins of escape rooms is presented by S. NICHOLSON (2015) who believes that there were six precursors to escape rooms (Fig. 1). Apart from the point-and-click adventures and TV adventure game shows and movies, he includes the following:

- **live action role-playing**⁴ – the extraordinary popularity of the fantasy game 'Dungeons and

Dragons' inspired in the 1980s sets of rules and scenarios for this type of game; in some of them the players were supposed to look for clues and solve puzzles in order to escape from locked rooms. This conception was used, for instance, in 2003, during the Gen Con convention (one of the largest conventions of fantasy fans in the USA);

- **puzzle & treasure hunts** - in puzzle hunts, teams of players (from several up to even 200) solve puzzles (traditional, both 'on paper', e.g. crossword puzzles, jig-saw puzzles, anagrams, codes or sudoku, or in a digital version) which led them to further puzzles or so-called meta-puzzles (only by solving a number of minor puzzles is it possible to solve a major one)⁵. Treasure hunts⁶ are based on similar principles - the participants must find clues hidden in the area and overcome numerous obstacles so they could finally reach the target. A modern version of this game is geocaching, in which finding the hidden 'treasure' is possible using the GPS (Global Positioning System);
- **interactive theatre & haunted house** - some escape rooms make use of the interactive theatre idea where the border between the actors and the audience is purposefully blurred, and the audience is drawn into the performance in various ways. The spectators are not just passive observers but take an active part in the spectacle, interact with the actors, have influence on the course of action, etc. On the one hand, the scenes played in escape rooms by actors make the players more active and provide them with the clues they need, and on the other hand, they create the atmosphere of a game, e.g. a horror game like those played in haunted houses;
- **themed entertainment industry** - escape room models also include all kinds from the entertainment industry. For instance, in the Entros restaurant opened in Seattle in 1993, diners waiting for their meals could solve puzzles throughout the room, and in the '5 Wits Productions', the players could find themselves in the very centre of a film or video game action thanks to computer special effects and physical interaction.

S. NICHOLSON (2015) points out, however, that there is no single inspiration that would be common for all escape rooms. They have been created independently and their creators were inspired by different experiences.

At the beginning of the second decade of the 21st c., the fashion for escape rooms reached the USA, Canada and Europe where they immediately became realistic, furnished rooms, situated in ordinary flats in

city centres (<https://lockme.pl>). It is interesting that the pioneers of this type of entertainment on the 'Old Continent' were Hungary and Switzerland. In 2013, the first escape room was created in Poland at Wrocław called 'Let Me Out'.

Towards the end of 2013, in Beijing, there were 120 such facilities and in 2015 - 182 (Fig. 2). In October 2014, on the Escape Room Directory website, there were 514 registered escape rooms all over the world, while in June 2015 - 1,765. This is not, of course, the full list as it includes only English-language rooms. According to MarketWatch, globally, there could be at least 2,800 registered escape rooms. Nearly all of them have been created over the last five years, since 2010. The growth rate is clearly explosive. Some escape room proprietors and fans claim, however, that this boom cannot last forever and that in many cities the market is slowly becoming saturated (FRENCH & SHAW 2015), but in many countries, including Poland, there is still a lot of space for new escape rooms.

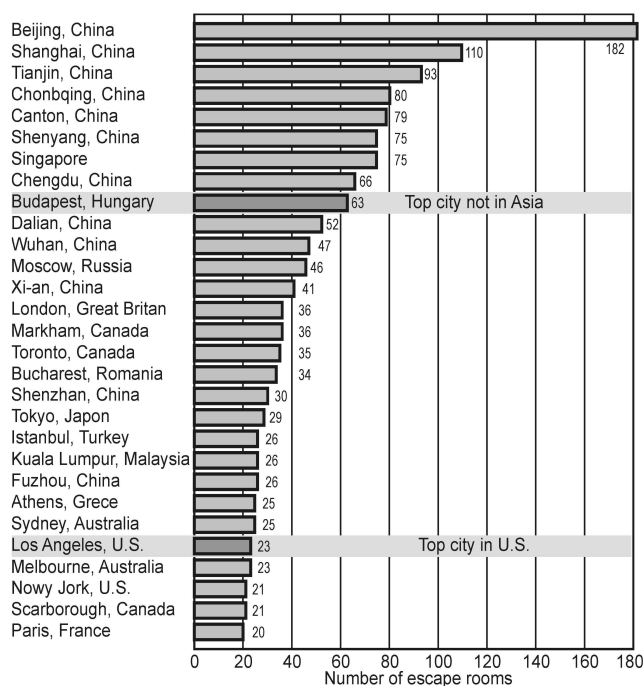


Fig. 2. Cities with the largest number of escape rooms, according to the Escape Room Discovery (as of 20/07/2015)
Source: S. FRENCH & J.M. SHAW (2015)

It is an interesting fact that the idea of an escape room was used for the production of a TV game show entitled 'Race to Escape', broadcast in 2015 in the USA and Australia. The spectators were excited to observe a contest between two teams that competed against each other to leave the themed escape room as fast as possible. The prize for the winner of each of the six episodes of the series was 25,000 USD (https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Race_to_Escape).

3. THE IDEA, TYPES AND ORGANIZATION OF ESCAPE ROOMS

The escape room rules are very simple. It is a feature game, in which all the players are voluntarily locked in a room, and they must leave it within a time set (usually 45-60 minutes) with the help of the clues and items found there. To achieve this, they must perform a variety of specially prepared tasks. They can be ordinary mind games (crossword puzzles, sudoku, puzzles), looking for hidden objects or padlock codes, or manual tasks checking the player's reflexes and skilfulness. Every item, word, symbol or element of the room's furnishing may be significant and move the players one step closer to winning the key which will allow them to unlock the door.

The majority of games are designed for groups consisting of 2-5 people because some puzzles cannot be solved alone requiring the cooperation of at least two players. Thus, they are team games, requiring not only perceptiveness, intelligence and cleverness, but also the ability to work in a group, good communication skills and an effective share of duties. The emotions evoked by solving subsequent puzzles are additionally intensified by the pressure of the running time.

The attractiveness of an escape room depends not only on how interesting the puzzles are, but also on the room's atmosphere. Therefore, the most popular are rooms having one leading theme. As the aim of the game is to get out of a locked room, the first escape rooms were modelled the following types of interior: a prison cell, space station, hospital room, doctor's surgery, etc. With time, the range of room themes was expanded and may intrigue, amuse or scare the players. Apart from themes commonly known from computer games, literature or films, original local conceptions and motifs based on the local heritage (history, art, legends, etc.) can be found.

Analysing the themes of 175 escape rooms across the world, S. NICHOLSON (2015) noticed that most of them referred to reality, to specific historical sites and periods: 25% to 2000-15, 24% to the 20th c., and 13% - to the 18-19th c. The most popular themes are horror (13%), fantasy (12%), science/laboratory (12%), future/new technologies (7%), the military (7%), and a toy room (3%). The character of every tenth room was abstract and did not represent any specific theme.

As for the game conception and storyline, nearly every third (30%) escape room was based on an escape from some strange and unpleasant place, e.g. a dungeon, prison or a kindergarten. Other, but less frequent motifs, included investigating criminal cases and mysteries (9%), fighting supernatural powers (8%), solving a murder (5%), diffusing explosive devices

(5%), being an adventurer (4%), collecting information and spying (4%), or taking part in a robbery (4%).

Taking into account the theme and narration criteria at the same time, S. NICHOLSON (2015) distinguished four possible types of escape room:

- **rooms without a leading theme** (13%), where a sequence of puzzles does not have a common theme or narration;
- **themed but not narrative rooms** (27%), whose interiors, props and soundtrack create a special atmosphere, but the game does not have any pre-planned storyline ('a stage set without a screenplay'); so during each game the players create their own story;
- **narrative rooms** (21%), in which the plot is outlined and individual players are ascribed specific roles (an introductory video, the gamemaster's story); the puzzles are not always strictly related to the story and solving them does not necessarily have to move the action forward;
- **fully narrative rooms** (39%), in which the puzzles do not exist independently, but are an integral part of a story; it is impossible to leave the room until the whole scenario has been played out. Fully narrative rooms are most popular in Asia, where they make up 52% of all escape rooms.

Immersing the players in the atmosphere of the game requires well-thought out and meticulous interior design. The room ambience is created not only by the furniture, but also the colour and texture of the walls, the floor, carefully assorted objects (historical or contemporary), appropriate lighting, as well as sounds and special effects making the game more attractive. On the other hand, there are also escape rooms with a highly minimalist, even ascetic décor (e.g. a white room with only one padlocked chest of drawers). Mobile escape rooms are becoming more and more popular; they are organized for company team-building events. In these cases, the hotel room décor options are quite limited.

Regardless of the theme and narration, nearly all escape rooms include several common, almost obligatory, elements⁷:

- the **door** - a symbolic attribute of the game; opening them and leaving the room is the main aim; in reality, however, in 22% of rooms the door is not really locked for security reasons (quick evacuation in an emergency);
- the **clock** - placed in a prominent place, measures the time to the end of the game; it happens that in order to raise the level of players' emotion, the room operators change the timing, e.g. by prolonging the last 10 minutes to 12 minutes, or the last minute to 90 seconds;

- a **desk and stationery** (a notebook, ballpoint pen, pencil, etc.) – needed to make notes, solve puzzles, do tasks, etc.;
- **artefacts** – items which are of key importance in the course of the game; they may be visible elements of the room’s furnishing (though with a hidden meaning), or they may be hidden; in the latter case, the players must find the props they need (e.g. clues, tools, valuable objects), following the rule of ‘non-force’ at the same time, and they must not move the furniture; to make the game more difficult, there are also false clues and trails (red herrings) planted in the room;
- the **soundtrack** (music, noises, human voices) – serves the purpose of creating the general atmosphere of the room (e.g. melodies related to the leading theme), and working on the players’ imagination and emotions (e.g. mysterious, terrifying sounds, whispers), as well as building up tension during the game (e.g. the sound of a ticking clock);
- the **‘gamemaster’** – introducing the players to the room, explaining the rules of the game, watching over its course, helping find solutions to some puzzles (if necessary);
- **monitoring** (CCTV) – a system which makes it possible to oversee the players’ actions; in the case of company events; it also makes it possible to film/record the game in order to analyse the psychological profiles of the players and choose natural team leaders;
- the **casket (box)** – another symbolical prop; a series of puzzles to be solved leads to opening the box and finding the key which unlocks the door; the average success rate for escape rooms all over the world is 41%, but differs considerably in the case of individual rooms (the most difficult SCRAP room in the USA, called ‘Escape from the Mysterious Room’ is actually left by only 2% of players).

Room organization is fundamental for the whole undertaking. From the players’ point of view, it is important that the game is exciting, original and challenging to the very end. Therefore, it is essential that the difficulty level should be defined appropriately, i.e. in such a way that the puzzles are not solved too rapidly but are not too difficult either. As a rule, two-thirds of the players need a little help from the staff to leave the room within the time set. Another necessary feature of a good escape room is the ability to evoke real emotions – both the arrangement of the room and the storyline together with the game scenario should involve the players; they should be putting themselves in the shoes of the characters they play to the

maximum and forget about everything except the room. Escape scenarios are constantly being improved and changed in order to match the clients’ requirements and to complicate the game even more (many rooms have more than one exit), or simply to refresh the original conception.

S. NICHOLSON (2015) identified three basic ways of organizing escape rooms:

- **path-based structure** (45%) – the most popular, consisting of several paths through puzzles which the players may solve; they need to have all the answers to solve the meta-puzzle, which signifies victory;
- **sequential structure** (37%), where the puzzles are presented linearly; solving one puzzle unlocks the next, solving the last puzzle ends the game;
- **open structure** (13%) – the players can solve different puzzles at the same time and their results lead them to final success (cf. Fig. 3a).

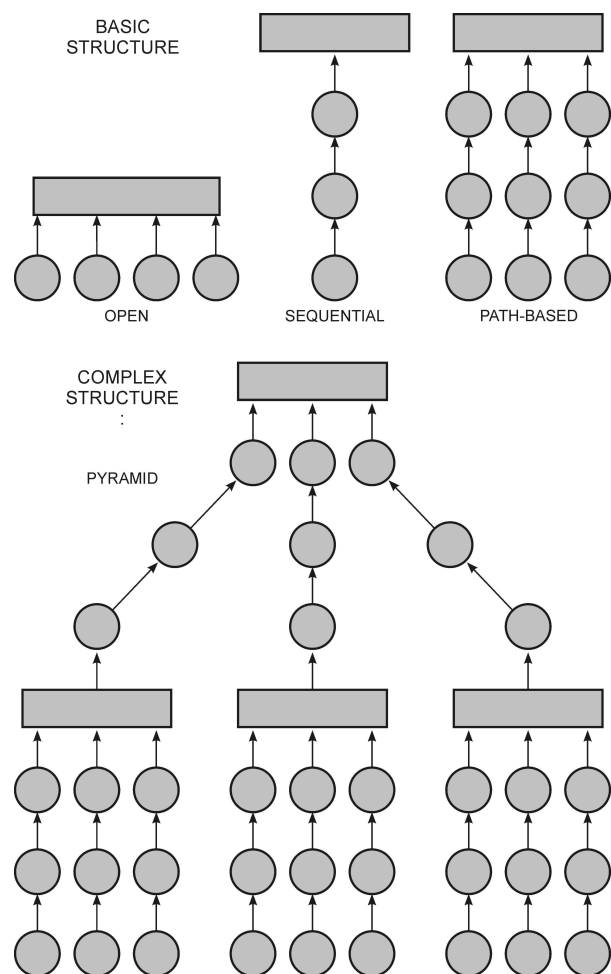


Fig. 3. Puzzle structures in escape rooms:

a) basic structures: open, sequential (linear), path-based;

b) complex structure: pyramids

Source: S. NICHOLSON (2015)

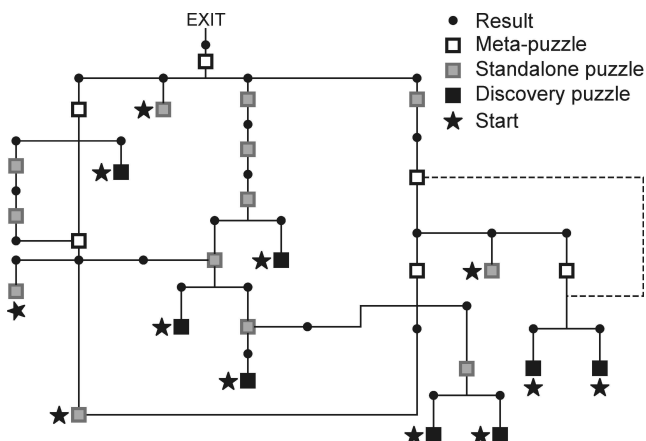


Fig. 4. The puzzle structure in Bewilder Box Brighton
Source: www.bewilderbox.co.uk, after S. NICHOLSON (2015)

Combining two or three simple structures produces a complex (hybrid) structure, which may take the form of a pyramid (Fig. 3b). On the market, even more complicated puzzle structures are created which include variants of the paths leading to the 'escape', or even enabling the players to go from one room to another (Fig. 4).

4. ESCAPE ROOMS IN POLAND

The first Polish escape room was created in Wrocław in 2013. Three friends gave up their jobs and set up a company called 'Let Me Out', which originally managed two rooms in the city centre. The company quickly became the pioneer, setting the standards of this form of entertainment (number of players, game time limit, price, etc.).

The new form of recreation instantaneously gained an army of fervent fans, and companies opening escape rooms started to spring up all over Poland. Their number rose dramatically – in three years, over 600 escape rooms offering various themes were opened. Apart from typical themed rooms, special rooms for children or only for adults (18+) appeared. In 2015, in Łódź, the first room of fury was created, and in Szczecin, the first underwater escape room is being built. Commissioned by large international corporations, mobile rooms are created in hotels, and open-air events involving mass escape games are becoming increasingly popular. The internet offers special websites describing and evaluating escape rooms where you can directly book tickets (e.g. <http://lockme.pl>), and the fans of real escape rooms run blogs in which they describe the facilities they have visited (cf. SAKOSIK 2015 and <http://room-busters.blogspot.com>).

The escape room market is growing not only because new companies appear, but also as a result of

franchising – franchise suppliers offer their recognizable brands, experience and know-how (a conception of the room décor, puzzles and tests). This is how (e.g. Let Me Out) the largest company on the Polish escape room market is growing – in April 2016, it operated in nine cities, offering a total of 24 rooms (four in Wrocław, three in Gdańsk, Katowice, Kraków and Lublin, two in Bydgoszcz, Poznań, Sosnowiec and Warsaw). They are planning to go international, with a first room opening in Brussels (KOWALIK 2015). Other leaders include *Tkalnia Zagadek* (Puzzle Weaving Plant) with 20 rooms (Łódź – 4, Kalisz, Płock, Poznań, Radom – 3 each, Wrocław, Zielona Góra – 2 each), *Escaperooms.pl* with 14 rooms (Gdańsk – 6, Bydgoszcz, Warsaw – 4 each), 'Exit Room' with 8 rooms (Wrocław – 6, Poznań – 2) and 'Sir Lock' with 7 rooms (Warsaw – 5, Łódź – 2)⁸.

Most escape rooms in Poland are arranged in rented rooms which need renovation and complete refurbishing. The 'Let Me Out' company, as a part of the franchising system, set the medium level of investment in a flat at about 80,000 PLN, and 'Sir Lock' estimated the value of equipment in one of their rooms at 30,000 PLN (KOWALIK 2015). The majority of Polish escape rooms, however, are arranged at a much lower price.

Initial costs additionally include the rent (to a few thousand PLN monthly), and advertising in the media and marketing⁹. Despite that, running escape rooms is a very profitable business and with 200 visits, one flat can generate 20,000 PLN a month (KOWALIK 2015). Also in other countries, running escape rooms is considered to be a very lucrative undertaking. In the USA, in 2013, the cost of preparing a modest room (7,000 USD) was returned after one month, and the annual income rate reached 800%. In 2015, the profit brought by one room could reach 70,000 USD monthly (FRENCH & SHAW 2015).

5. LOCATION

According to *lockme.pl*, in 2016, there were 594 escape rooms at 67 destinations in Poland. Their distribution, however, is very uneven, with the majority found in the largest agglomerations: Warsaw, Trójmiasto, Łódź, Poznań, Kraków, Wrocław and the Upper Silesia conurbation. The smallest number is found in the eastern and north-eastern provinces (Fig. 5 and 6).

Facilities of this type are in principle opened in cities big enough to guarantee adequate attendance and it is assumed that an escape room may function well in a city inhabited by at least 100,000 people (KOWALIK 2015). And indeed, among the 25 Polish cities with the largest number of escape rooms, there

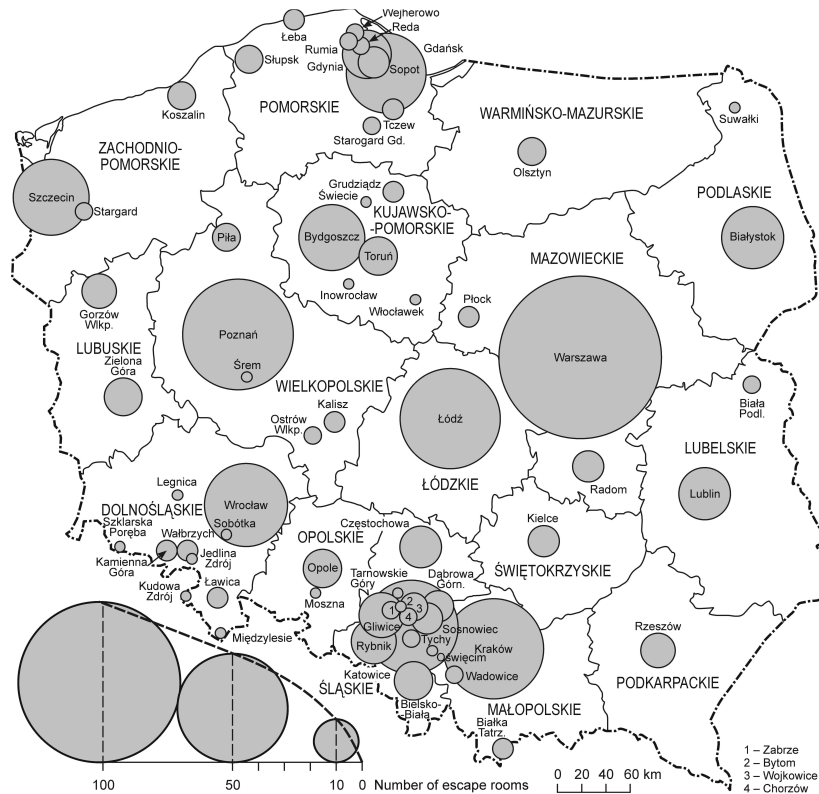


Fig. 5. Distribution of escape rooms in Poland (30/04/2016)
Source Figs 5-12: author, based on <https://lockme.pl>

was only one with a smaller number of inhabitants, Sopot, one of the most popular seaside holiday resorts and at the same time a part of the Trójmiasto agglomeration inhabited by 750,000 people.

The largest number of escape rooms can obviously be found in the largest city – Warsaw, where 38 companies run 97 escape rooms. Warsaw is followed by Poznań (49 rooms, 24 companies) and Łódź (42 rooms, 16 companies). What may be surprising is the relatively low position of Wrocław, where escape rooms in Poland began. At present, there are 33 there, managed by 14 companies, including some large ones operating nationally. Perhaps it is the strong competition among the biggest players on the market that prevents new facilities from opening. Although Wrocław is outrun only by Katowice with its 300,000 inhabitants, we must remember the surroundings of the latter. After all, it is the capital of an Upper Silesian conurbation inhabited by 2.2 to 3.5 million people¹⁰, depending on how we delimit the area.

In the largest Polish cities, a single company runs an average of over two rooms (2.34). However, there are significant differences between individual centres: e.g. in Gdańsk, there are three rooms per company and in Bydgoszcz – only 1.8 (we must remember here that there some companies operate in several cities).

As regards escape rooms, saturation rates look interesting (Table 1). In most cities, there are 5-6 rooms per 100,000 inhabitants, with the exception of Poznań (nearly 9) and Katowice (over 12). The number of companies running escape rooms usually varies between 2 and 3 per 100,000 inhabitants. Only in three cities is

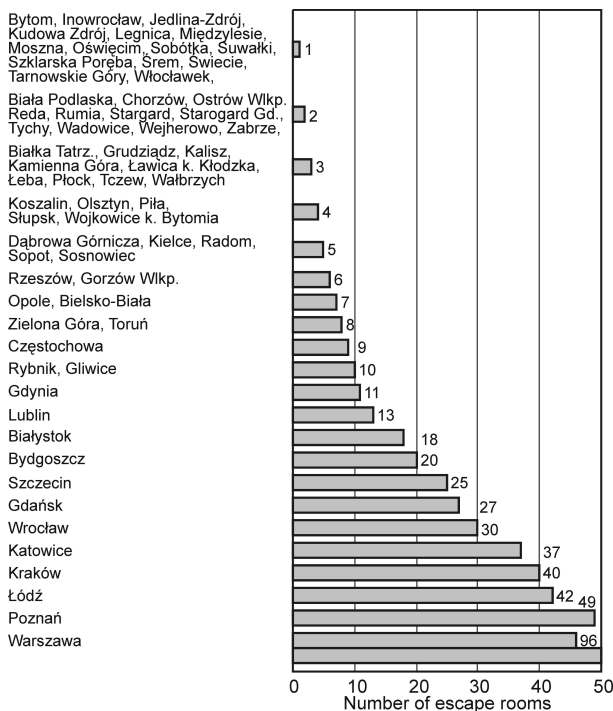


Fig. 6. Number of escape rooms in Polish destinations

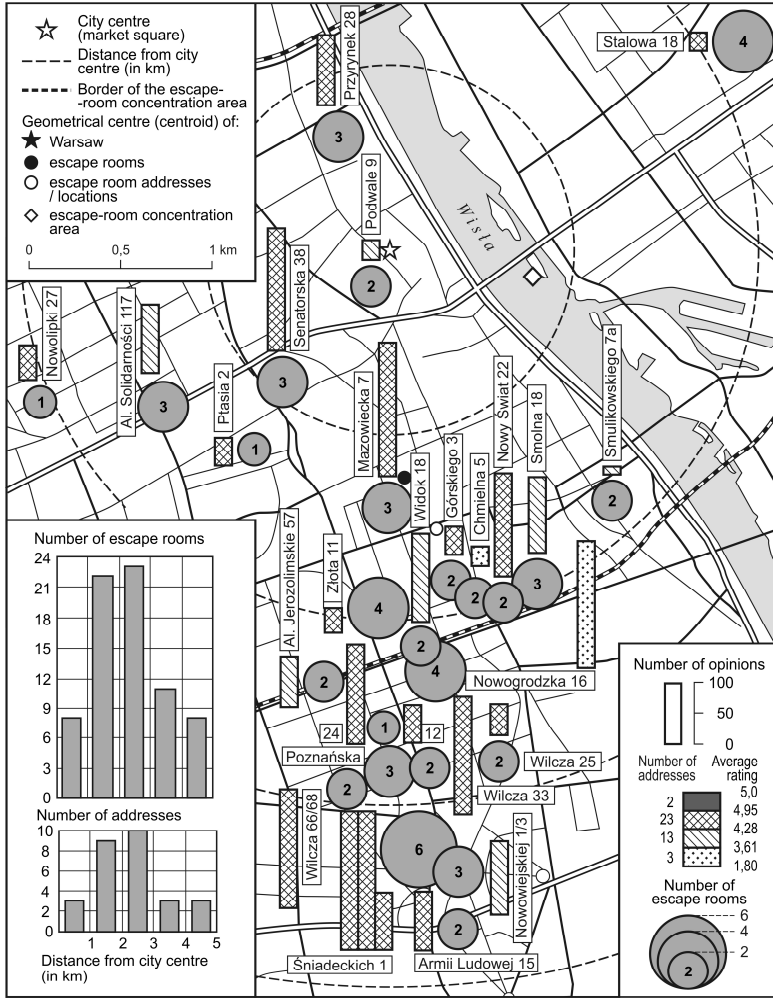


Fig. 7. Location of escape rooms in Warsaw

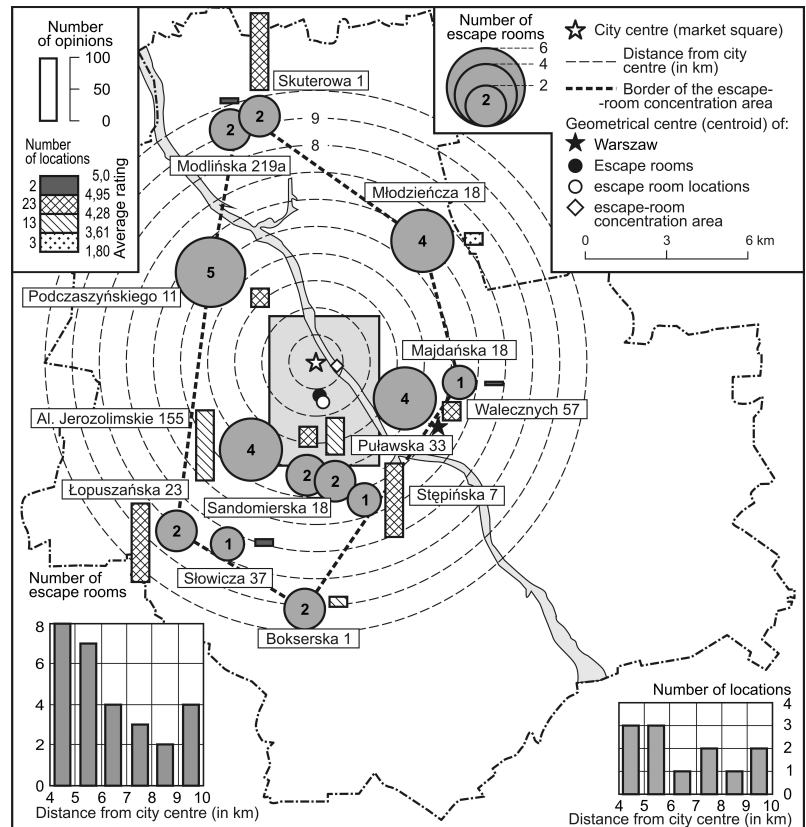


Table 1. Cities in Poland with the largest number of escape rooms

No.	City	Number		No of rooms/ companies	No of inhabitants (31.12.2014)	No of rooms/ 100 000 inhabitants	No of companies/ 100 000 inhabitants
		rooms	companies				
1.	Warsaw	97	38	2.55	1, 735,442	5.59	2.19
2.	Poznań	49	24	2.04	545,680	8.98	4.40
3.	Łódź	42	16	2.63	706,004	5.95	2.27
4.	Kraków	39	2.17	761,873	5.12	2.36	
5.	Katowice	37	16	2.31	301,834	12.26	5.30
6.	Wrocław	33	14	2.36	634,487	5.20	4.31
7.	Gdańsk	27	9	3.00	461,489	5.85	2.21
8.	Szczecin	21	11	1.91	407,180	5.16	1.95
9.	Bydgoszcz	18	10	1.80	357,652	5.03	2.37
10.	Białystok	18	7	2.57	295,459	6.09	2.70

Source: author, based on <https://lockme.pl>.

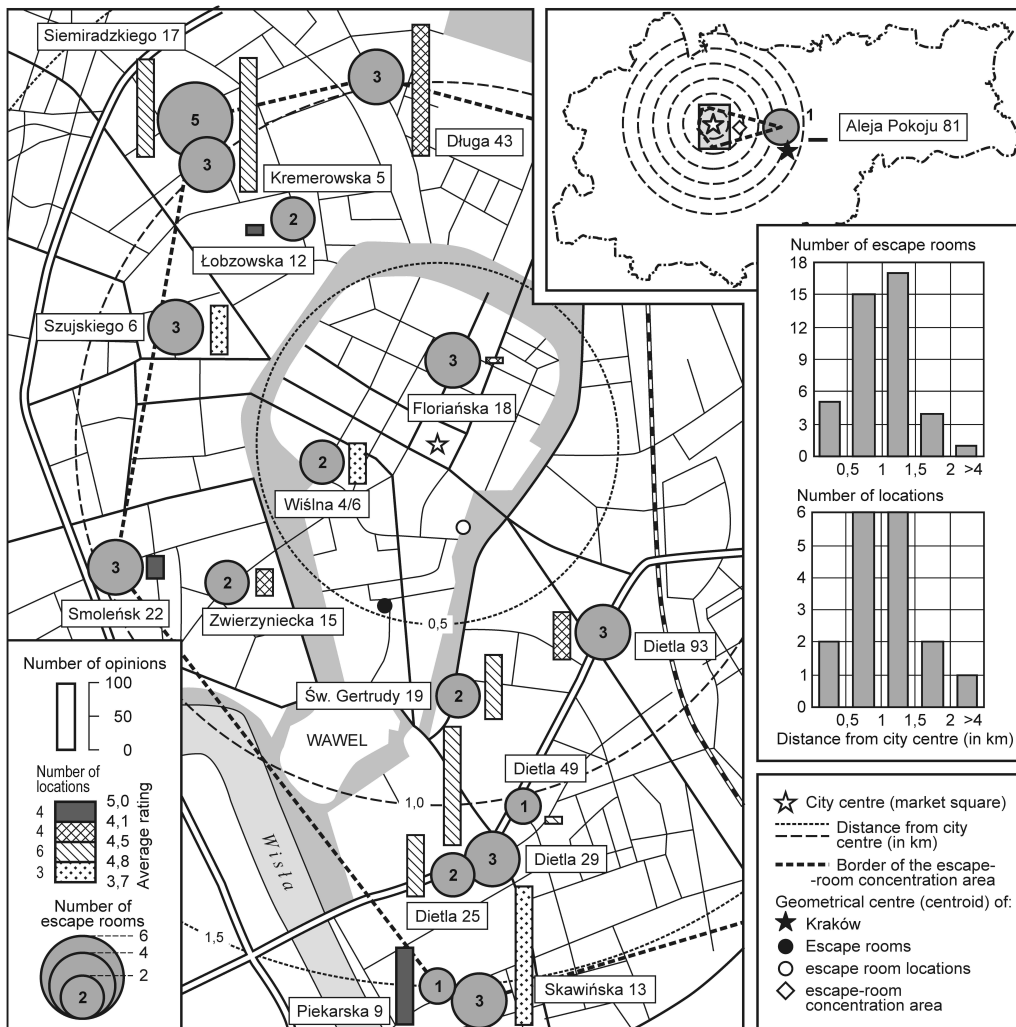


Fig. 8. Location of escape rooms in Krakow

this rate higher (Katowice – 5.3, Poznań – 4.4; Wrocław – 4.3). It can be assumed then that in Polish conditions, there are on average 2-3 companies managing 5-6 rooms which operate among 100,000 inhabitants. In huge cities, the market seems to be already saturated,

but there are still medium-sized cities, inhabited by 100-200,000 to consider.

The study of the exact location of escape rooms in the ten large cities led to several interesting conclusions. In nearly all the cities, the escape rooms are

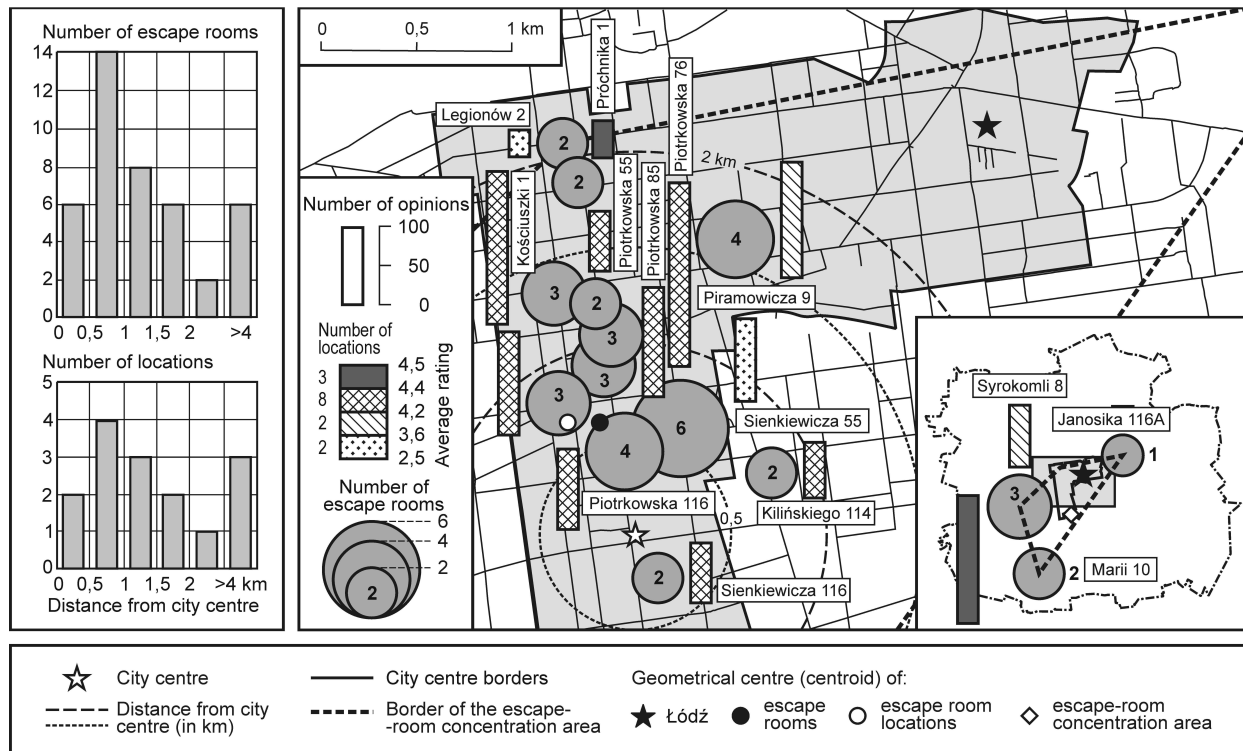


Fig. 9. Location of escape rooms in Łódź

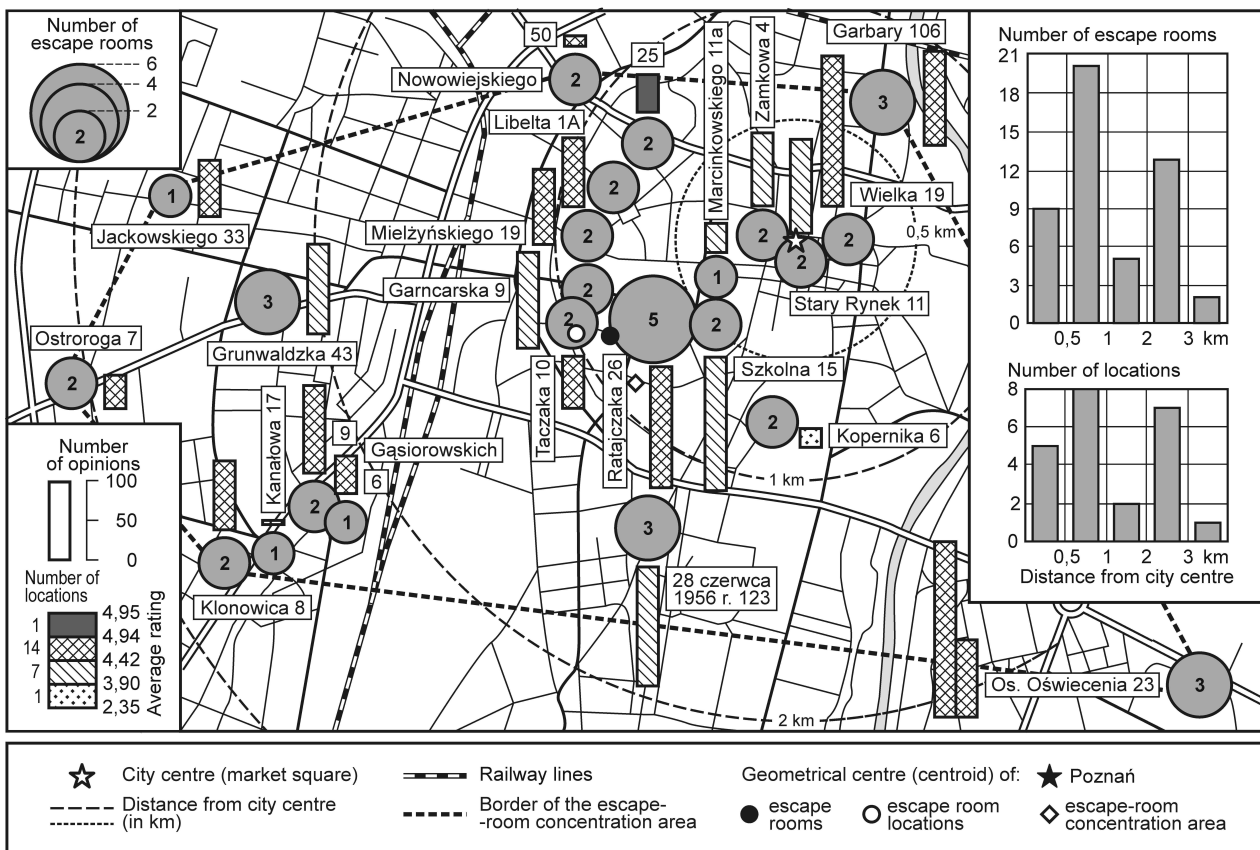


Fig. 10. Location of escape rooms in Poznań

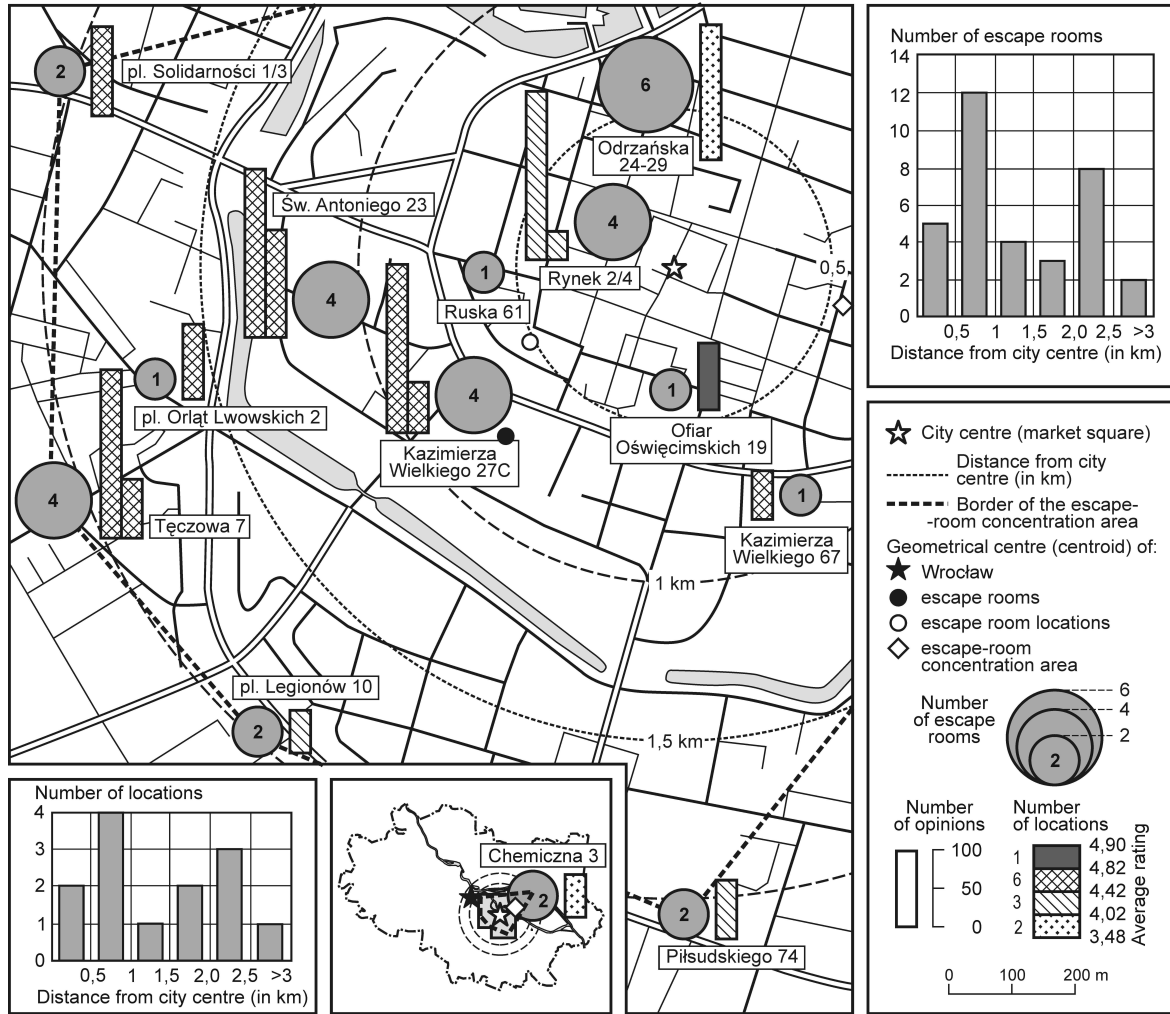


Fig. 11. Location of escape rooms in Wrocław

situated in the strict centre, usually in the immediate neighbourhood of the Old Town market square (cf. Fig. 7-12). At least 80% of all escape rooms are found within a distance of 2-2.5 km from the central point, with the exception of Warsaw where the escape room concentration zone has a wider radius – up to 5 km, due to the much larger scale of the city. It partly comes from the fact that the Old Town in the capital lies on the side of the present city centre, which is the Dmowski Roundabout (the junction of Marszałkowska St and Jerozolimskie Av). It is in the northern and southern city centres where the largest number of Warsaw escape rooms can be found. Another special case is Łódź, where the escape rooms are situated mostly on Piotrkowska St and nearby. As a result, we are dealing with a concentration zone from north to south. Escape rooms situated further from the city centre are rare.

The tendency to locate escape rooms in the city centre is not surprising and results from several basic factors. The city centre is a district focusing the activity

of inhabitants and tourists which creates potential demand for different kinds of entertainment. In effect, it is easier for a facility to achieve a high attendance rate. Convenient accessibility by transport is also quite important. What is more, the historical centre of the city features representative buildings with interiors capable of creating a special atmosphere (tenement houses, villas, etc.) and providing appropriate settings for escape rooms, without making major investments. High rent is not a problem as escape rooms are highly profitable.

6. OFFER DESCRIPTION

Over the few years that escape rooms have been functioning in Poland, certain standards of this form of recreation have been established, sometimes different from those set in other countries. A game in an escape room is a team game. In most Polish cities, an offer of

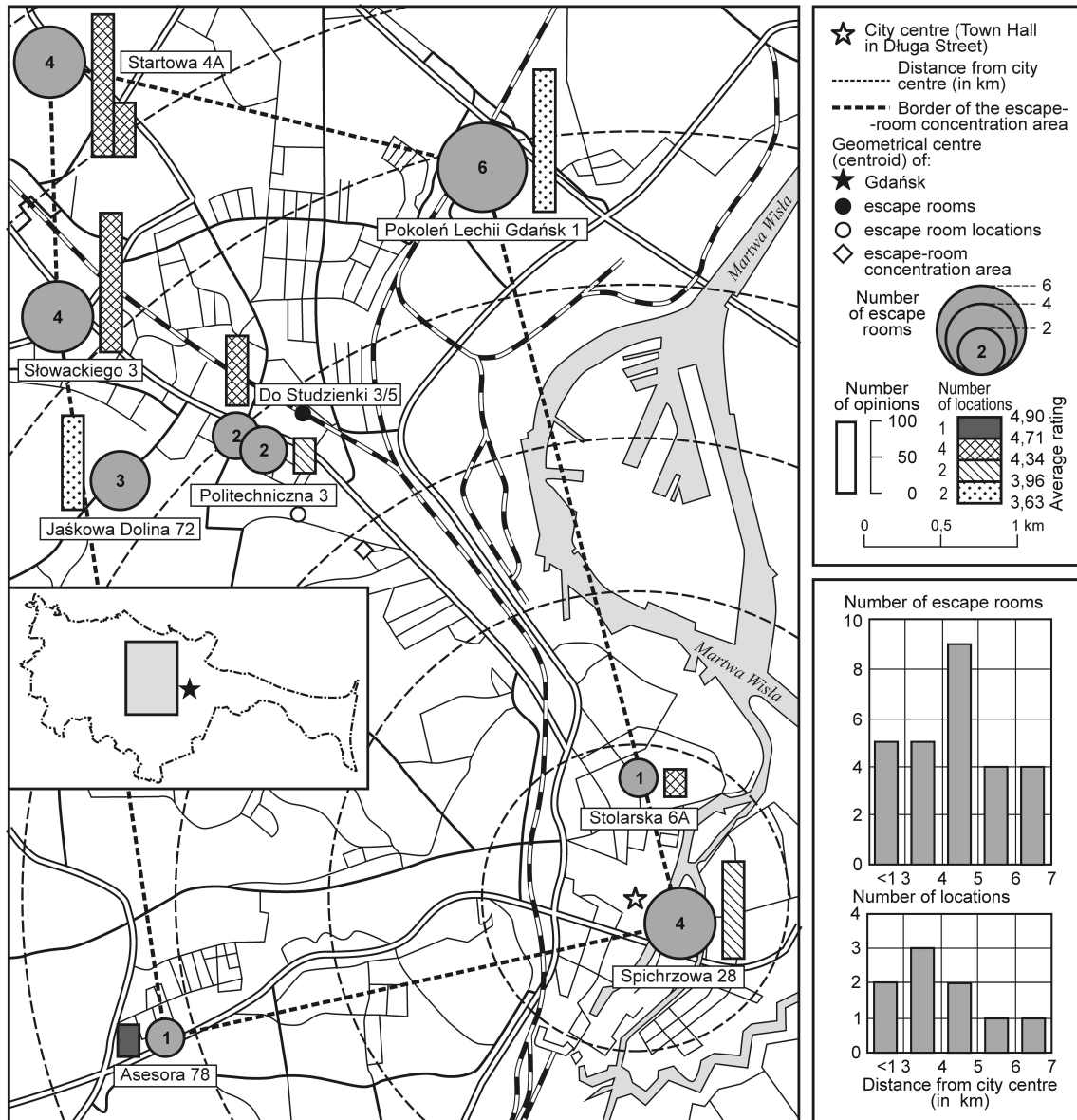


Fig. 12. Location of escape rooms in Gdańsk

this type is designed for groups of 2-5 people, more rarely for teams of 2-4 players. The possibility of playing alone or in a team consisting of 6-7 people is really rare.

Small groups of players are typical for Australia and Europe (2-7 people, 3.98 on average). In Asia and North and South America, the teams are definitely larger, sometimes consisting of more than 10 people (6.07 on average). While in the first case the players arrange to play the game together earlier, in other situations the teams are made up from volunteers on the spot (so the team consists of players who do not know one another, which may have a negative effect on their comfort and satisfaction with the game). Globally, the average capacity of the rooms is 4.58 persons (NICHOLSON 2015).

In Poland, games usually last 60 minutes due to their graphics. One-hour modules dominate in eight cities (Wrocław – 64%, Kraków – 67%, Białystok – 78%, Bydgoszcz, Gdańsk, Poznań, Szczecin, Warsaw – over 80%). Only in two cities is the offer more varied as regards timing. In Łódź, one third of the games take 60 minutes, one third – 50 minutes, and 28.6% – 45 minutes. In Katowice, one-hour games make up 43.2% and 45-minute games – 37.8%. The latter game format is standard in escape rooms run in different cities of the country by the largest firms: ‘Let Me Out’ and *Tkálnia Zagadek (Puzzle Weaving Plant)*. Games lasting longer than one hour (70, 80 or 90 minutes) are relatively rare. The longest game offered in Polish escape rooms is the 120-minute ‘Ocean’s 2’, offered by *Show Escape* in Warsaw, and the shortest – the 30-

minute 'Golden Train' in the *NIEpokój* Escape Room in Szczecin¹¹.

Due to the considerable unification of the length of visits in escape rooms, the total time of games available in individual cities is tightly correlated with the number of the existing rooms. In order to visit all the rooms in the capital, one would need 5,730 minutes (95.5 hours), in Poznań – nearly 2,940 minutes (49 hours), and in Wrocław, Katowice, Łódź and Kraków – 2,000–2,200 minutes. The 'shortest' offer is that in Białystok and Bydgoszcz – slightly over 1,000 minutes. In total, we can spend nearly 370 hours in the escape rooms in the studied cities.

The average distance from the city centre to escape rooms ranges between 1 and 2 km (Kraków, Poznań, Łódź). It is shorter only in Wrocław (0.6 km). The most distant from the city centre (3.5–4 km, on average) are the escape rooms in Warsaw and Gdańsk (Fig. 13).

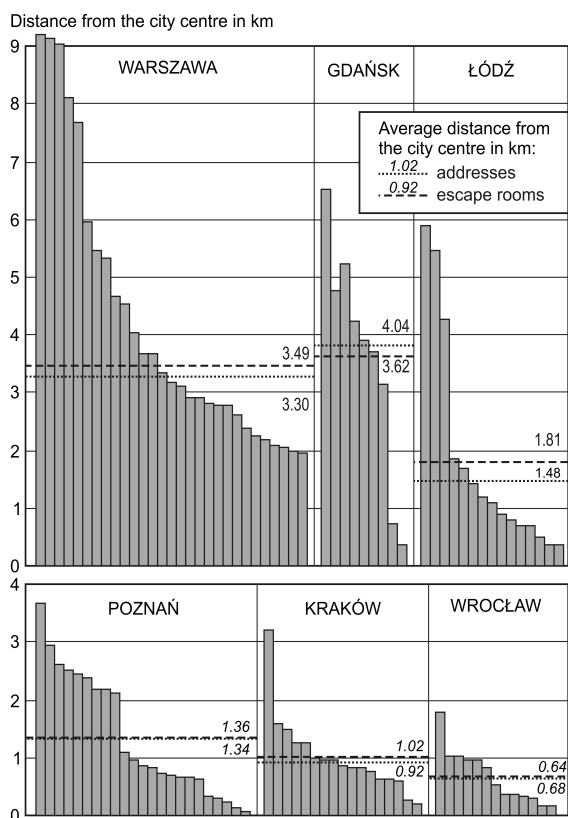


Fig. 13. Average distance between escape rooms and addresses and the centres of the studied cities
Source: author, based on <https://lockme.pl>

The descriptions of escape rooms found on <https://lockme.pl> show that their themes are not much different from the themes of escape rooms all over the world. The majority are thriller-crime rooms (28.1%)¹², where the players play the roles of the police or detectives identify the murderer, find stolen treasure or an ab-ducted person or, as criminals, rob a bank or steal money from a safe. A popular theme is horror

(14.2%) – these games are to give players a shiver of emotion, e.g. during a meeting with a ghost, sadistic murderer or just... a dentist. Every tenth room refers to literature and film (11%) or history (10.5%). In the first group, inspirations are above all world-known crime stories (*Sherlock Holmes*, *James Bond*, *Arsene Lupin*, *Pink Panther*), thrillers and horror films (*Saw*, *The Shining*), science-fiction and fantasy films (*Alice in Wonderland*, *Star Wars*, *The Lord of the Rings*, *Matrix*, *Jumanji*, *Game of Thrones*), or adventure stories (*Indiana Jones*). Polish films as leading themes of escape rooms are used extremely rarely (*Seksmisja*, *Stawka większa niż życie*), in contrast to historical rooms which are often based on various events from the history of Poland. You can look for the treasure of Gdańsk pirates, the Amber Room, or the Golden Train, try to break the Enigma code or steal the secrets of the Riese project, help Warsaw insurgents or deal with the absurdities of socialist times in Poland.

A much less popular kind of escape room are scientific (laboratory) rooms – 6.3%, adventure rooms (desert island, looking for treasure) – 5.3%, futuristic and science fiction rooms – 4.2%, military and medical rooms (hospital, dentist's office) – 3.2% each, as well as logical/abstract rooms – 2.1%. Over 20% of escape rooms represent still other themes demonstrating their broad thematic spectrum.

The difficulty level in escape rooms is extremely important for player satisfaction. The game should be neither too easy, because then it ends too fast, nor too difficult, because despite hints the players may become discouraged. The escape rooms described on lockme.pl were ascribed four levels of difficulty (first timers, beginners, advanced players and experts). Generally, the majority of escape rooms in Poland are suitable for beginners, which obviously comes from the fact that it is a relatively new form of entertainment and there are still few experienced players. It can be assumed, however, that with time the number of more difficult rooms will increase. In the 10 cities under study, rooms for beginners make up around two thirds, while the remaining one third is an offer for more advanced players ('first time' rooms are rare). The largest number of 'difficult' escape rooms can be found in Białystok (61.1%), Szczecin (54.6%) and Warsaw (50.5%), while the smallest number – in Poznań (20.4%), Kraków (15.4%, no rooms for experts) and Bydgoszcz (16.7%). Due to a lack of information about the evaluation criteria concerning the difficulty level of puzzles, we cannot draw far-reaching conclusions from the room structure (e.g. regarding the growing popularity of escape rooms in a given city or the number of advanced players)¹³.

There are two basic ways of charging people for using an escape room: the price is calculated either per player (one person) or per game (all participants);

Table 2. Escape room offer in selected cities in Poland

City	Percentage of 60-min. rooms	Total game time (min.)	Percentage of 'difficult' rooms		Average price per game (PLN)	No of opinions	No of opinions per room	Average evaluation
			A	AE				
Białystok	77.78	1,020	55.56	61.11	78.72	225	12.50	4.67
Poznań	83.67	2,940	18.37	20.42	93.45	2,056	41.96	4.53
Bydgoszcz	83.33	1,065	11.11	16.67	86.78	651	36.17	4.52
Wrocław	63.64	2,040	24.24	30.30	105.64	1,753	53.12	4.51
Warsaw	83.51	5,730	37.11	50.52	120.61	3,934	40.56	4.47
Katowice	43.24	2,070	27.27	33.33	80.83	1,038	28.05	4.46
Szczecin	86.36	1,240	45.46	54.55	86.71	651	31.00	4.41
Łódź	33.33	2,215	38.10	45.24	110.60	1,605	38.21	4.35
Kraków	66.67	2,250	15.38	15.38	86.49	1,454	37.28	4.34
Gdańsk	85.19	1,590	44.44	44.44	89.11	1,169	43.30	4.25
Total	70.67	22,160	31.70	37.20	93.89	14,536	36.22	4.45

Key: A - for advanced players; AE - for advanced players and experts.

Source: author, based on <https://lockme.pl>.

globally, the first option is more popular. The average cost of play in the escape rooms examined by S. NICHOLSON (2015) was 23.68 USD per person or 74.42 USD per team (after recalculating local currencies into American dollars). However, prices on individual continents are greatly diversified. S. FRENCH & J.M. SHAW (2015) estimate the cost of a game for one person in an American escape room at 25-30 USD. Europeans pay definitely less (12 USD), not to mention Asians (only 5 USD), though if we refer these prices to the GDP per capita in individual countries, it will turn out that they are the highest ticket prices anyway (NICHOLSON 2015).

From the Polish user's point of view, the prices charged in other countries may seem shocking and in this respect, the escape room market is quite different. Firstly, charging per game is common practice, regardless of the number of players (within an acceptable limit, of course). Secondly, due to the fact that Polish society is not as well-off as for citizens of most developed countries, the prices are established at a much lower level. It is assumed that escape rooms were to become competition for the cinema, so the price for a game should be around the same as the price of 4-5 cinema tickets, i.e. ca. 100 PLN (KOWALIK 2015).

The average price for one game in the ten Polish cities under study was slightly below 94 PLN (Table 2). Naturally, Warsaw is most expensive (over 120 PLN per game), followed by Łódź (over 110 PLN per room), which is surprising, both because the city is perceived as 'poor' and because escape rooms in Łódź offer the shortest game times. Another city where we will pay over 100 PLN for an escape room is Wrocław (over 105 PLN, on average). Prices in Poznań are

closest to the average price in Poland. The cheapest escape rooms are offered in Katowice (slightly below 81 PLN) and Białystok (slightly below 79 PLN).

The lockme.pl portal makes it possible to evaluate the visited escape rooms (on a scale 0-5) and post a descriptive justification. The overall assessment encompasses three components: service, difficulty level and atmosphere. By 20th April 2016, over 14,500 opinions had been posted on the website, concerning the escape rooms in the cities under study, their spatial distribution being highly diversified (Table 2). The largest number of opinions (27% - nearly 4,000) regarded rooms in Warsaw, the smallest (only 225) - in Białystok. The number of opinions is obviously related to the size of the city and the number of escape rooms, although the largest number per room (over 53) was recorded in Wrocław¹⁴. With the exception of Białystok, the rooms in the remaining cities were evaluated at least 30-40 times, on average. It is certainly not a representative sample, but it allows us to draw, with caution, some conclusions.

Generally, escape rooms in Poland are readily accepted and very highly evaluated. The arithmetic mean from the 13,500 posts was 4.45. Escape rooms in Białystok were assessed the highest (4.67), but due to the small number of opinions, the result may raise doubts. Marks above the national mean were also allocated to rooms in five cities, including three with marks above 4.5 (Poznań - 4.53, Bydgoszcz - 4.52, Wrocław - 4.51). Gdańsk was definitely the worst (4.25).

It is difficult to summarize briefly and objectively the descriptive evaluations posted on lockme.pl. Many of them contain words of praise concerning the atmosphere (mystery, horror, adventure) and the imagin-

ativeness of the people designing the rooms and inventing tasks for players. The authors stress the exceptional excitement and incredible emotions accompanying solving the puzzles, as well as the professionalism and helpfulness of the staff. Occasionally, there are also voices of criticism, pointing to faults or mistakes in the puzzles, the lack of logic in a storyline, the visual incoherence of the interior, technical faults in the equipment or a lack of proper support from the facility staff.

7. SUMMARY

The beginning of the 21st c. brought many dynamic changes to the world tourism and leisure market (cf. WEIERMAIR & MATHIES 2004, NIEZGODA 2014, MOKRAS-GRABOWSKA 2015). In the globalization era, these phenomena spread fast and become popular in other countries and on other continents. A perfect example of such instantaneous global diffusion of innovation may be the birth, development and international career of a brand new form of recreation – escape rooms. At present, escape rooms are certainly among the most interesting phenomena on the leisure market. Over just a few years, in many countries all over the world (with totally different traditions and culture), they have become a real alternative to bowling, billiards or cinema. The phenomenon of escape rooms is intriguing, as they require mental effort (rather avoided by the modern consumer) rather than physical.

Based on the study of the escape room offer in Poland, as well as available foreign publications, we may venture to distinguish the most significant causes of the extraordinary popularity of such rooms. They include the following:

- transferring the love of computer games into reality – having the opportunity to experience adventures known from cyberspace into the real world, with all senses;
- creating an attractive diversion from the everyday – having the possibility of relieving stress by students and yuppies, or escape from the burdensome condition of living in a metropolis (cf. *Real-life escape games offer...*);
- satisfying the desire to experience something new, original, unique and not the banal so common in hedonistic consumptive societies, to experience strong emotions, excitement, etc.;
- making international corporations interested in organizing unconventional integration and motivation events (often combined with observation of behaviours and an analysis of the psychological predispositions of the game participants).

What supplements (or rather strengthens) the demand stimuli are an exceptionally favourable supply factors: lack of the prerequisites to start such a business, a still unsaturated market (weak competition), the ease of copying ideas and business conceptions, relatively low cost of starting and running business activity, and first of all, regardless of country, the high profitability of such undertakings.

It seems that the success of escape rooms depends on yet another, less obvious factor. Escape rooms are based on the fundamental assumptions of the experience economy (PINE & GILMORE 1999). This advanced form of economy is based mainly on services which provide customers with unique experiences, strongly saturated with emotion. Among its other significant features, I. SKOWRONEK (2012) also distinguishes: exceeding the buyers' expectations, creating sensory products and services affecting the customers' senses, using aesthetics in marketing, managing the buyers' perception and emotions, building relations based on the emotional value. The essence of the market success is then turning an ordinary product into an extraordinary experience (LASALLE & BRITTON 2003), which will stay permanently in the buyer's memory.

Escape rooms fit these assumptions perfectly. They offer sequences of events which engage the players on the emotional, physical, intellectual and even spiritual plane. The product, meticulously prepared, guarantees a departure from everyday routine, moving to a different reality, engaging all senses, the so-called 'emotional story', dramatization of space, interactivity, active participation and co-creating one's own and others' experiences. In order to achieve that, it is necessary to reorient thinking: concentrate on the product (the process of production, maintaining quality, management, etc.) must be replaced by concentration on experience (planning the desired experience, creating sensory products, customers' perception and emotions management, generating their emotional involvement, etc.). As a result, the product is not so much a service package as an experience package. The Reverse Thinking Model proposed by the Performance Solution company fully proves itself in the planning and practical organization of escape rooms.

All the factors listed above have certainly contributed to the massive increase in the number of escape rooms in Poland. Over just three years, 600 establishments have appeared, situated mostly in the centres of the largest cities. The large city market seems to be almost fully saturated (5-6 rooms per 100,000 inhabitants). The greatest development potential lies in middle-sized towns whose offer in this respect is still quite limited. Polish escape rooms do not differ much from those abroad. They represent

a full spectrum of game themes and storylines, although the predominant themes are the same as those popular all over the world: thrill and crime (28.1%), horror (14.2%), literature and film (11%) and history (10.5%). Local specificity is stressed in escape rooms which refer to various episodes from the Polish history (mainly World War II and the socialist era). About two thirds of the escape rooms are addressed to beginners, and only one third to more advanced players.

These proportions will probably be reversed in time. In comparison with escape rooms abroad, the Polish ones are different above all as regards financial issues: the commonly accepted charge for a room/game and low prices – ca. 24 USD per room, which is equal to the average world price paid for a game by... one person (NICHOLSON 2015). The new form of recreation has been enthusiastically received by Poles (4.45/5). The elements which particularly delight the players are the meticulously prepared interiors and atmosphere of the rooms, surprising storylines of the games, imaginative puzzles and exceptional emotions accompanying the 'escape'. We can be hopeful, then, that the escape room market in Poland will continue to develop.

However, regardless of the causes and the scale of the extraordinary popularity of escape rooms, one question remains open: will they be a permanent element of contemporary recreation services or, like many other attractions before, will they be ephemeral, enjoying the short-term interest of customers constantly looking for new experiences?

FOOTNOTES

¹ The term commonly used in Poland is 'mystery room' (*pokój zagadek*), though it is not a word-for-word translation of the English 'escape room', and neither does it express the idea of the game (escaping from a room).

² Lockme.pl is the largest internet website devoted to escape rooms in Poland. It is a continuously updated and enlarged source of information. It provides data on e.g. the room location and theme, the game timing, the level of difficulty, prices, information how to book a game, and users' opinions. As the internet is the main promotion and distribution channel for this form of entertainment, it can be assumed that it is the fullest data base concerning escape rooms in Poland. As regards the analysis of the escape rooms in 10 cities, data was verified on the basis of the websites of individual companies. The percentage of rejected addresses was minimal (individual rooms, either not active any more or about to be opened), which entitles the author to consider the data source to be reliable and highly credible. Naturally, there must be escape rooms which have not been included on lockme.pl. Their number and importance, however, do not seem statistically significant.

³ In Poland, Fort Boyard was broadcast in the 1990s, on two cable TV channels, and in 2008-9, TVP2 broadcast two series, 13 episodes each.

⁴ A role-playing game (RPG) – a game based on narration, in which the players assume the roles of fictional characters living in a world which exists only in their imagination. The aim of the game is to play it according to a pre-planned scenario, following an established set of rules (so-called game mechanics). Apart from traditional pen and paper games, there are also computer games (based on https://pl.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gra_fabularna).

⁵ One of the most popular games of this type is the MIT Mystery Hunt (played annually since 1981) – a search for a symbolical coin on the premises of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology by even 40 teams (2000 players) at a time, who for 48 hours are solving up to 160 puzzles prepared for them by the previous year winners.

⁶ The game resembles the Polish *podchody* (Hare and Hounds) or the German *Schmitzeljagd*.

⁷ Based on: S.FRENCH and J.M.Shaw (2015), who provide the quoted figures.

⁸ Based on: <http://escaperooms.pl>, <http://exitroom.pl>, <http://sirlock.pl>, <http://tkalniazagadek.pl>, www.letmeout.pl, <https://lockme.pl> (13 May 2016).

⁹ Escape room proprietors run low cost promotion campaigns, mostly on the Internet. They have their own websites (of the room or a network of rooms belonging to a given company) and Facebook profiles. They offer discounts on popular group shopping webpages (e.g. Groupon). Mostly, however, advertising is based on recommendations from satisfied customers.

¹⁰ In the whole Upper Silesian conurbation, there were 79 escape rooms, nearly half of which were situated in Katowice.

¹¹ After study materials had been collected, games lasting 10-15 minutes were introduced in Łódź and Szczecin.

¹² The rooms could be classified into several theme groups.

¹³ The difficulty level of rooms is indirectly related to the percentage of games which end in "escape". According to S. NICHOLSON (2015), 41% of all games end successfully (in both Americas – 26%, in Asia – 33%, in Europe – 52%), out of which in rooms described as easy – 61.7%, medium difficult – 48.5% and difficult – 36.3%. Studies of this kind as regards Polish escape rooms have not been conducted yet.

¹⁴ This is most probably caused by the fact that Wrocław is the cradle of Polish escape rooms, and the lockme.pl operator is based in this city.

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ŁÓDŹ AS AN ARENA OF GRAND SPORTS EVENTS: SELECTED EXAMPLES

Abstract: The paper presents Łódź as a city where major sports events are held. Several sports facilities are featured which make it possible to organize various kinds of events, including international ones. In recent years, based on the existing infrastructure, several such events, for instance European or world championships, have been held in Łódź. The city is also perceived as a leading centre for volleyball competitions (league matches, Champions League, World League, European Championship, World Championship).

Keywords: Łódź, sport, tourism, sports infrastructure, sports events, sports tourism.

1. INTRODUCTION

Tourism is not mere recreation or visiting architecturally or historically attractive destinations. It also involves travel related to participation in events, including sports events. Recently, in the academic and specialist literature, concepts, such as 'sports tourism' and 'event tourism' or 'tourism product-event' have been encountered. However, none of them appropriately or fully defines the fast growing phenomenon of fan tourism. Due to its ideal transport location, relatively good accommodation infrastructure, and continually developing sports facilities, Łódź has become a place where national, European and other international sports events are being organized increasingly frequently.

The author's aim is to present Łódź as an important national centre of sports tourism. Research on tourism conducted in 2010-12 shows that sports events are the main purpose of travelling to Łódź for 2-10% of tourists, and one of the purposes for 5-12% of respondents. Sports events held in Łódź are rated as good and very good by 25-27% of tourists (where 60% gave 'I have no opinion' responses). About 7-10% of visitors define sports events as one of the main attractions of the city (LISZEWSKI, ed. 2010, WŁODARCZYK, ed. 2011, 2012). These figures make it justifiable to undertake a detailed study on Łódź as a city where sports events and tourism play an important role.

In addition to some theoretical-terminological issues, the paper presents the infrastructural potential of the city related to sports development, as well as the most important sports events which been organized there in the last 10 years. Particular attention is paid to FIVB Volleyball Men's World Championship 2014, presented as a case study. The research results presented here partly come from an article by SOBIERAJSKA (2015), as well as from materials which sum up and the organizational efforts of the local authorities.

2. THE DESCRIPTION OF SPORTS TOURISM

Sports tourism is an interesting subject for researchers, both as regards describing its essence by trying to define it (e.g. GIBSON 1998, WEED & BULL 2005, KOZAK 2010, HINCH & HIGHAM 2011, KAZIMIERCZAK & MALCHROWICZ-MOŚKO 2013, STASIAK & WŁODARCZYK 2015), and placing it in numerous classifications of tourism (e.g. HINCH & HIGHAM 2011), BOŃCZAK 2013a, 2013b, MOKRAS-GRABOWSKA 2015, STASIAK & WŁODARCZYK 2015). In an analysis of sports tourism as an original tourist activity, a theme devoted to sports events as a significant factor stimulating such activity can clearly be identified (e.g. OTTEVANGER 2007, ROSE

& SPIEGEL 2011, BUDNER 2014, HADZIK, TOMIK & RYŚNIK 2015, KOZAK 2015, PIECHOTA 2015). It is also covered by numerous empirical studies mostly focusing on the influence of large-scale sports events on various aspects of their location (e.g. TUREK 2007, KOZAK 2010, ŚNIADEK 2013, BOSIACKI 2015).

Sports tourism is defined as taking short trips away from one's home environment, oriented towards participating in sport, during which such a sport is characterized by specific rules. Usually competition involves raising fitness levels and having fun (HINCH & HIGHAM 2011). The concept of sports tourism is defined in a slightly broader way by KOZAK (2010) who believes that it is a set of tourist behaviours which express their authentic interest in sport (facilities, venues of major events, etc.), as well as participation in general. Another approach, referring more to the cultural aspects of the phenomenon, is presented by the authors of a coursebook entitled *Turystyka*. They believe that sports tourism involves attending as a spectator or fan and is thus a part of cognitive tourism. This, in turn, concerns the cultural development of humankind (KUREK, ed. 2007), a part of cultural tourism, which means travelling in order to take part in cultural events which are also sports.

The concept of 'sports tourism' appeared in the literature fairly recently and perhaps this is the cause of some uncertainties in its definition. To the majority of researchers, sports tourism includes all forms of tourism activity related to sport; this is a generalization and it refers to at least several different phenomena. As this follows from earlier discussions, definitions usually specify sports tourism as travel in order to watch a sporting event or to participate in it personally, or as travel which involves visiting sport-related sites and facilities, even if no sports events are currently held there (e.g. WEED & BULL 2005). Sports tourism defined in such different ways can be divided into a number of categories which include the following:

- active sports tourism - trips involving personal participation in sports events as a competitor;
- cognitive sports tourism - visiting sports facilities, often historical, e.g. olympic stadiums, football grounds, motor racing courses, tennis courts, etc.
- sports-event tourism (fan tourism) - attending sports events as a spectator (supporter).

Another term used alongside 'sports tourism' is 'fan tourism' and defines tourist trips made in order to watch sporting events. The main motivation for this is the wish to support one's favourite team on their way to victory during a competition. Fan tourism is connected with international events, Olympic Games or World Championships, but also includes lower

ranking events organized regionally or locally (BRUMM 2012).

Fan tourism may be divided into *groundhopping* (supporting sports teams, i.e. actively attending sporting events) and *groundspotting* (visiting facilities used for sporting events). Both terms were created in the early 1990s and have been present in the specialist terminology ever since (STASIAK & WŁODARCZYK 2015).

In Poland, the term 'fan tourism' appears occasionally and is used with regard to journeys made to support a national team, sports clubs or individual athletes, but in the academic literature it has not been sufficiently explored. The fundamental difference between sports tourism and fan tourism lies in the fact that, in the first case, we are dealing with the willingness to play sport and be involved in active recreation, while in the other, it is about watching sports competitions (KUREK, ed. 2007).

Sports events tourism may certainly be treated as the starting point for organizing a tourism product of the event type. It is a product which is planned and organized, integrating individual services and tourism assets. The most important elements of this integration are organization, management and a specific location. The characteristic features of an event product include considerable thematic and organizational coherence, specific location and time, exceptionality and regularity (KACZMAREK, STASIAK & WŁODARCZYK 2010).

There are an increasing number of tourist packages tailored to the potential needs of attendees at such events. The most popular are 'mega-events' such as the Olympic Games, football or athletics World Championships, or Formula One grand prix. Smaller-scale events are usually chosen by supporters of teams and the individual sportsmen and women participating in them, or by those involved in a particular sports discipline. Most packages offer tickets for sports events, transport, accommodation, board, visits to the city or other sites en route, the event venue, as well as meetings with competitors and visiting sports facilities and other attractions dedicated to this special market segment.

Sports event tourism can be also divided into hard sport event tourism and soft sport event tourism (RITCHIE & ADAIR 2004). The former includes those travelling above all because they want to take part in a sports event, and all other elements of the trip (e.g. sightseeing) are only additional. The latter type includes trips in which the basic functions are recreation, cognition, etc., and the tourist decides to attend a sporting event 'by the way'. As a rule, the higher the prestige of the event, and the greater the popularity of the sports discipline, the larger the share of hard-sport-event type tourism becomes, while at lower ranking events, it is more often accidental.

When a sports event is being transformed into a tourism product, the rank of a given event is very important as it makes it possible to evaluate its scale and, through that, the number of potential tourists (supporters), interested in coming to a given city. J. KACZMAREK, A. STASIAK & B. WŁODARCZYK (2010) classify events (after BOWDIN *et al.* 2003) into four categories with regard to rank and scope:

- 1) 'mega-events': events which have an influence on the economy of a sizeable area, broadly covered in the national and international media (e.g. the Olympic Games, world championships);
- 2) 'distinguished' events: events recognizable and associated with a city or country which are an interesting tourism product due to their uniqueness and rank (e.g. national marathons, club championships);
- 3) major events: events of a lower rank, but well promoted, as a result of which the scale of the event and the media's interest are reflected in the organizer's and city's incomes (e.g. national leagues, city football derby);
- 4) local events: small events; low expenditure on organization and promotion resulting in little recognition, media coverage and low tourist attendance (e.g. local club matches).

Each of the listed groups represents events of a different rank and scale, so, consequently, the target group is formed by different recipients. For instance, in the case of the Olympic Games (a mega-event), the recipient will be the mass tourist, who expects the atmosphere of a grand sports festivity, while with local events, most attention should be paid to promotion at the event venue, focusing mainly on the local supporters of a given team or competitor.

W. ALEJZIAK (2008) believes that sports events occupy a particular position among the factors attracting tourists to a given destination. This is connected, among other things, with the uniqueness of each event, emotions evoked by sport, the continuously changing location of events and, consequently, cultural diversity. The 'spectacularity' of sport and its unpredictability ideally match the expectations of the contemporary tourist. An additional attraction for a spectator of such an event is its media profile. The contemporary tourist-supporter wants to personally take part in the event which is watched by millions instead of using the media. The tourist feels privileged because the event can be watched from the stands. All these factors make sport-event tourism increase in importance, and countries and cities usually compete to organize events of the highest rank. This happens because the advantage of huge sports events is that they last for a short time but have long-term consequences. These opinions are shared by A. HADZIK

(2014) who connects these issues to grand international sports events.

B. FAULKNER (1993) enumerated the effects of organizing sports events. In his opinion, they have an influence on the economy, tourism and the environment of the host areas. He classifies them in the following way:

- 1) economic effects, including:
 - visitors' expenditure,
 - authorities' expenditure on infrastructure,
 - event organizers' expenditure;
- 2) tourism-related effects, including:
 - changes in tourist motivations
 - the significance of the media in the promotion of events;
- 3) environmental-social effects, including:
 - influence on the natural environment,
 - access to services, goods, etc.,
 - socio-cultural and psychological influence.

M. KOZAK (2010) also lists four aspects of sports tourism which are directly connected with the organization of sports events:

- 1) the economic aspect – concerning the cost of organizing international sports events,
- 2) the social aspect – where sports events enhance the feeling of national pride,
- 3) the promotional aspect – which involves promoting the place where the event is held,
- 4) the planning aspect – which defines the influence of organizing events on the development of the reception area.

The profits from organizing sports events mostly come from the income generated by those who attend.

According to J. BORZYSZKOWSKI (2011), there are also other income sources from a sports event including:

- 1) spectators – money for tickets and other expenses,
- 2) players – entry fees, expenses connected with taking part in the event (e.g. equipment), other expenses (e.g. accommodation, board),
- 3) volunteers – the value of volunteers' work, other,
- 4) media, officials and others involved; hosts and sponsors,
- 5) exhibitors and providers of services and goods.

The discussion so far has shown how important and multifaceted an activity organizing a large sports event is.

2. SPORTS INFRASTRUCTURE IN A CITY

The first sports facilities in Łódź were created in the early 20th c. (related to football clubs and associations) were often supported by the city which gave urban land for the first investments. Currently, Łódź, as the third most populated city in Poland, has a well

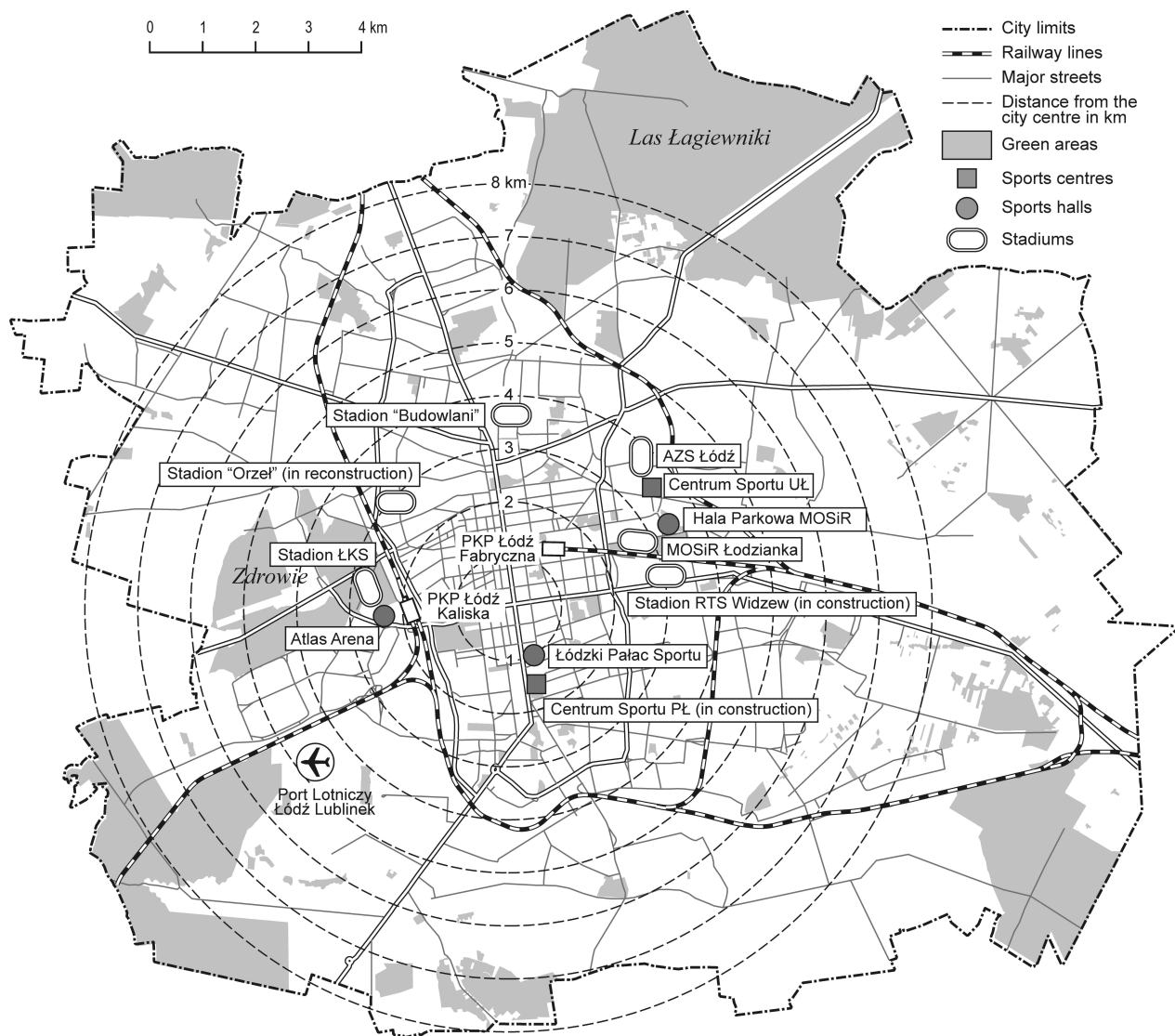


Fig. 1. Distribution of major sports facilities within the urban space of Łódź
Source: author

developed sports infrastructure due to which it is possible to organize national and international events. Naturally, it does not offer a full standard for everything, but the new investments and initiatives in the city are very positive.

A characteristic feature of the distribution of major facilities where sports events are held is their location next to the attractive city centre (Fig. 1). On the one hand, it encourages people to visit Łódź somewhat 'by the way', but on the other, it is the reason why there is a shortage of parking spaces which are in great demand during international events.

The most renowned city sports facilities include Łódź Palace of Sport, the Atlas Arena, and Łódź football stadiums associated with Widzew and ŁKS clubs (Photos 1-4). They will be described in more detail below.

Until recently, an important role in the history of Łódź sport and cultural events had been played by a sports hall opened in 1957 and later called the **Palace of Sport** - *Pałac Sportu* (Photo 1). In the beginning, it was regarded as the most modern facility of its type in Poland. About 9000 spectators could be accommodated. It hosted not only sports events (boxing and volleyball matches, ice shows and hockey matches), but also large cultural events such as music concerts, film screenings, meetings addressed by famous people and events such as the famous *Łódzka Gwiazdka* Christmas fair. In recent years (1998-2008), it has also hosted Championship League volleyball matches, in which the best known volleyball team from the Łódź Province (*'Skra'* Belchatów) competed. After the Atlas Arena came into use, the Palace of Sport lost its significance, mostly hosting various trade fairs (e.g. *Interstone*). Currently, the hall requires complete

renovation of the main floor and the auditorium. The Sport and Tourism Division of the Museum of Łódź is found here offering permanent exhibitions such as *The history of Łódź sport*, *The greatest achievements of Łódź sportsmen and women*, or *Citizens of Łódź at the Olympic Games*.



Photo 1. Palace of Sport (*Palac Sportu*)
Source: <http://myself.rogatek.pl>



Fot. 2. Atlas Arena
Source: <http://www.eventim.pl>

The performance and sports hall called **Atlas Arena** (Photo 2) opened in June 2009 is one of the largest of its type in Poland. It offers full service to the organizers of sports and entertainment events. It is suitable for organizing sports events in disciplines such as basketball, volleyball, handball, 5-a-side football, martial arts, *enduro* and many others (Table 1).

It is equipped with modern infrastructure maintaining the standards set by international sports federations and organizations. The central floor has been constructed in such a way that it is possible to place a skating rink on it, or even a swimming pool. The facility's functionality enables artists, athletes, officials, VIP guests and the audience to enter separately. The Arena features a sports hall, its own modular stage as well as conference rooms. Apart from sporting, other events held here include concerts, trade fairs and

meetings requiring a large number of seats. It can hold 13,806 spectators (the grandstand – 10,049 seats, the telescopic stand – 2060 seats, and 1697 additional seats can be made available). Until the Ergo Arena in Sopot (2010) and the Tauron Arena in Krakow (2014) were opened, the Atlas Arena had been the largest and the most modern in Poland.

Table 1. Selected sports events held in the Atlas Arena in 2009-16

Year	Sports event	Sport discipline
2009	World League	volleyball
	Marcin Gortat Camp	basketball
	Hubert Jerzy Wagner Memorial	volleyball
	FIBA European Championships	basketball
	Women's European Volleyball Championship	volleyball
	Professional Boxing Gala	boxing
2010	Polsat Boxing Night	boxing
	Professional Boxing Gala	boxing
	Wojak Boxing Night	boxing
	MMA (Mixed Martial Arts) Gala	martial arts
2011	16 th Martial Arts Meeting	martial arts
	World League	volleyball
	MMA Gala: Fighters Arena Łódź 2	martial arts
	Women's European Basketball Championship	basketball
2012	17 th Martial Arts Meeting	martial arts
	19 th Martial Arts Meeting	martial arts
	Professional Boxing Grand Gala	boxing
	Traditional Karate World Championship	karate
	Monster X Truck	motor sports
	Super <i>Enduro</i> World Championship	motor sports
2013	Davis Cup eliminations	tennis
	WWE Raw Wrestlemania Revenge Tour	martial arts
	FIM Super <i>Enduro</i> World Championship	motor sports
2014	24 th Martial Arts Meeting	martial arts
	FIVB Volleyball Men's World Championship	volleyball
	<i>Dbam o Zdrowie</i> Łódź Marathon	long distance running
	Polish Women's Volleyball Cup	volleyball
	Qualifiers for the Women's World Volleyball Championships	volleyball
2015	<i>Pedro's Cup</i>	athletics
	Polsat Boxing Night	boxing
	Super <i>Enduro</i> World Championship	motor sports
	Champions League	volleyball
	<i>Dbam o Zdrowie</i> Łódź Marathon	long distance running
2016	World League	volleyball
	<i>Dbam o Zdrowie</i> Łódź Marathon	long distance running
	Champions League	volleyball

Source: Author based on MOSiR Łódź data.

The ŁKS city stadium (MOSiR) in Łódź (Photo 3) has gone through several stages. After the regaining of independence by Poland in 1918, the first President of Łódź, Aleksy Rzewski, supported building the Park of Sport in 1922, which was to be used by the Łódź Sports Club founded 10 years earlier. The city authorities gave the club an area in Polesie Konstantynowskie. A part of the complex was a football stadium built in 1924-5.

The rundown facility underwent a major modernization in 1969-70. First, a new grandstand was opened, at the back of which, apart from standard offices, there was a hall used later for over 40 years by basketball and volleyball teams. A year later, new floodlighting was installed on four tall gantries. In 1971, 45,000 spectators could watch a match between ŁKS and Polonia Bytom in the renovated stadium.

After installing seats in the 1990s, the stadium started to deteriorate. In 2007, ŁKS gave it to the city authorities to finance and undertake a complete modernization. In 2009, the city announced an architectural competition, but the design of a stadium for about 30,000 spectators was not implemented. In 2011, an idea was conceived to build a new stadium, partly replacing the existing one, this time for only 16,500 spectators but extendable (<http://stadiony.net>).

At present, it consists of a football pitch and one stand with an attractive front, partly made of glass, the sign 'Łódź', several levels inside with spacious changing rooms, saunas, SPAs, conference halls, etc. (<http://www.fakt.pl/sport/pilka-nozna>).



Photo 3. ŁKS City stadium (under construction)
Source: <http://fotopolska.eu/stadiony>

The RTS Widzew city stadium (Photo 4) was built in the 1930s and since then has been modernized several times. In the late 1950s, construction work on developing the football stadium started between the railway and *Armii Czerwonej* St (currently *Pilsudskiego* St). The construction accelerated in the second half of the 1970s after the club had been promoted to the Polish professional league. The old wooden stand on the *Tunelowa* St side was demolished, the athletics track was

removed and new stands were built (later, concrete benches were constructed there) situated quite close to the pitch. At the beginning of 2015, it was demolished together with the club building and sports hall. Currently, a new stadium is being built, with 18,018 seats on the same site as the previous one and it is planned to be ready by the end of November 2016 (https://pl.wikipedia.org/wiki/Stadion_Widzewa).



Photo 4. Widzew City stadium (under construction)
Source: <https://www.youtube.com>

The city's four flagship sports facilities described above are complemented by the Park Sports Hall (MOSiR) (Photo 5), located next to the complex of sports grounds called *Łodzianka* (including, e.g. a stadium with a full-size grass-covered football pitch with stands, surrounded by an 8-lane athletics track; a complex of *orlik* (young eagle) football pitches, two beach volleyball pitches, a beach football pitch and five tennis courts, a multifunctional sports centre with a main hall – 23 x 43 m, a mirror hall – 14 x 14 m, a dry sauna and six changing rooms, as well as a driving practice course.



Photo 5. Park Sports Hall in Łódź
Source: <http://Łódź.fotopolska.eu>

An important role in the city's sports space is played by facilities connected with universities. One of them is the University of Łódź Sports Centre (including, e.g., a sports hall and a swimming pool), combined

with the facilities of the university sports club (AZS) (athletics stadium, a football pitch, an indoor tennis court). In the near future (May 2017), the sports infrastructure of Łódź will be enlarged by the investments of the Łódź University Sports Education Centre – *Zatoka Sportu* (Łódź University of Technology). It will include a 50 m long, 10-lane Olympic swimming pool, with stands for 1200 spectators, a 30 m long swimming pool with trampolines, platforms and a multilevel 10 m diving platform, a climbing wall with a boulder training section, a multifunctional and full-size sports hall, also used for multimedia cultural presentations, together with an auditorium and a TV platform. It is planned to be the venue of European swimming and climbing championships.

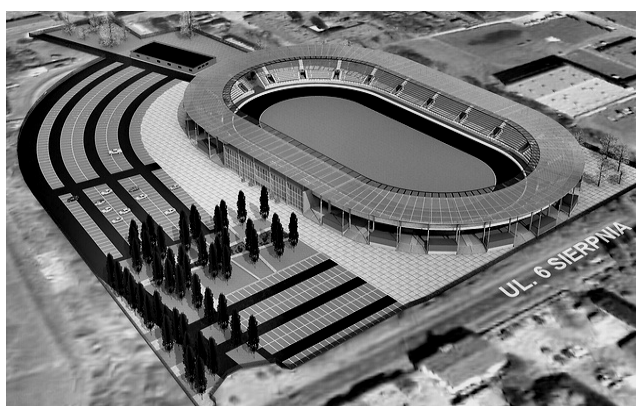


Photo 6. Visualization of the new *Orzeł* (Eagle) Stadium
<http://sportowefakty.wp.pl/zuzel/416277/znamy-wizualizacje-stadionu-orka-Łódź>

The currently modernized speedway stadium *Orzeł* (Photo 6), as well as the *Budowlanych* rugby stadium should become major facilities used for sports traditionally played in Łódź.

4. MAJOR SPORTS EVENTS IN ŁÓDŹ: SELECTED EXAMPLES

Decisions concerning the organization of large sports events are usually taken with the hope of achieving measurable benefits, which include:

- covering the costs of the event;
- predictable, satisfactory profits from the event;
- profits for hoteliers, restaurant owners as well as other entrepreneurs, providing supplementary services;
- a growing interest in the event venue among the fans attending the event;
- building or strengthening a positive image of the host (including advertising value equivalent).

Before building the Atlas Arena in 2009, not many sports events had been held in Łódź. The role of the largest and the most important sports facility in the city was played by the MOSiR sports hall (Urban Centre of Sport and Recreation). Between 1999 and the year when Arena was opened, it was MOSiR that hosted World League Volleyball matches.

Since 2009, when the Atlas Arena – the city's most important sport and performance facility was opened, the number of sporting events organized in Łódź has increased. The event which inaugurated the Atlas Arena was a match played as a part of the World League Championships between Poland and Brazil.

Since 2004 a street run, known as the *Dban o Zdrowie* Łódź Marathon, has been organized in the city. For the first six years, it was called 'mBank Łódź Marathon'. Unfortunately, in 2010, the race did not take place because the titular sponsor withdrew. In June 2011, the event was reactivated under the name *Dban o Zdrowie* Łódź Marathon; its office was established in the Atlas Arena. There are several routes; the main route differs slightly from before, while the start always takes place in *Unia Lubelska*, near the Fala Aquapark, and the finish is situated in the Atlas Arena. Moreover, the event includes shorter routes (10 km long) and those for children. It is becoming increasingly popular; from year to year, more and more people, not only from Poland but from all over the world, participate in it. In 2011, there were 500 competitors, and in 2012 – 2200 from 21 countries. The next two marathons included about 4000 runners each, and the event received a prestigious award – the certificate of the International Athletics Federation (IAAF) bronze in 2013 and silver in 2014 (www.Łódź.sport.pl). The event is broadcast live every year by Polish Television, and many other channels present reports concerning the race. Apart from promoting sport, the race has a further purpose to raise funds for a chosen organization which is a partner of the event. The marathon has become a regular sporting event.

Major sporting events held in Łódź in 2009 included Men's European Basketball Championship and Women's European Volleyball Championship. Matches of the **FIBA European Championship** (second group phase) were played in the Atlas Arena, on 12-16th September. Nine matches were played, during which it was possible to see teams from Spain, Lithuania, Poland, Serbia, Slovenia and Turkey. The Polish team shared 9th place with Macedonia. To promote the event, the city issued a fan's guidebook and a tourist map which were accessible on the Łódź City Council websites, in hotels, at the airport, and at Łódź Fabryczna Railway Station. Moreover, in *Manufaktura*, a fans' zone was created, where it was possible to play basketball and watch the matches of the Polish team. For the time of the championships,

additional tram and bus routes could be used in Łódź, as well (www.mmŁódź.pl).

The **Women's European Volleyball Championship** (2009) was also held in the Atlas Arena, and the matches were played from 25th September – 4th October. They included those of the first and second group phase and of the final phase. Altogether, 19 matches were played in the Arena and the Polish team came third. To promote the event, a Volleyball 'Picnic' was organized in *Dąbrowskiego Square*, during which it was possible to take part in competitions or play volleyball.

Both events held in 2009 in the Atlas Arena, contributed to the growing recognition of Łódź and – according to the authorities – the city gained a positive image among tourists. Due to the opening of the Atlas Arena and holding two significant sports events there, it was named as the **Sports Facility of 2009** (www.atlasarena.pl).

2011 was the year when the **Women's European Basketball Championship – Eurobasket Women** was organized in Łódź. The final phase of the event included five days of matches and lasted from 29th June to 3rd July. The championships included 16 national teams, eight of which advanced to the finals and played matches in Łódź. The championship was watched by 500 spectators (quarter finals) rising to 5000 (the final match between Russia and Turkey). Out of 12 matches played in Łódź, 11 were broadcast live by various European television and internet channels. Following the example of the greatest sports events in the world, a well functioning fan zone was created near the sports hall. Despite the relatively small attendance at the matches (considering the Atlas Arena capacity), the whole event was positively evaluated both by international institutions and the fans.

Apart from the European Championships, Łódź has hosted other international events as well. In 2012, in the hall of Łódź MOSiR, an equestrian parade took place. A year earlier, this event was organized in the Atlas Arena, but it did not attract a large audience. In 2012, at the same venue, the Davis Cup eliminations were held as well. Apart from major sporting events, local, regional or provincial sports events are being organized in the city all the time (www.mosir.lodz.pl). The **POTZCUP International Ice Hockey Tournament 2014** was held at the Łódź ice rink called *Bombonierka* at 28 *Stefanowskiego St.*

The sports event which was the most important for the city in 2014 was the group phase of the **FIVB Volleyball Men's World Championship**. The competition comprised 12 matches in all, including six in which the Polish team played while winning the overall title.

In February 2015, the 11th 'Pedro's' Cup indoor athletics meeting was organized in the Atlas Arena. On 26th September 2015, it was the venue for the **Polsat Boxing Night** gala.

Over the last 10 years alone, Łódź has hosted many sporting events of varying importance. These events make tourists more interested in the city and contribute to the improvement of the image of Łódź, which is becoming increasingly attractive not only to sports tourists.

Taking advantage of this wave of success was the organization of the FIVB Volleyball Men's World Championship, the authorities established a new institution, called Łódź Event Centre, which started its activity in 2015. The main aim of the new body is to promote all cultural and sports events organized in the city, as well as gain support for organizing subsequent events involving both smaller and larger audiences.

The biggest failure during that period, as regards organizing grand sports events, was the unsuccessful application to be a part of UEFA EURO 2012. The latest media reports suggest that the city's efforts to win the organization of the Men's European Basketball Championship in Poland, in 2017, will also be un-successful.

5. WORLD CHAMPIONSHIPS IN MEN'S VOLLEYBALL 2014: A CASE STUDY

The Volleyball Men's World Championship is held every four years and is a great international event organized by the International Volleyball Federation (FIVB – *Federation Internationale de Volleyball*). Until now, 18 such tournaments have been organized. The opening ceremony in 2014 took place on the National Stadium in Warsaw while the opening match (Poland-Serbia) was watched by 61,500 fans and invited guests. Polish Volleyball Association, as the Polish organizer, selected the seven Polish cities which met the strict requirements as regards sports and hotel infrastructure, as well as convenient accessibility by transport. Apart from Łódź, matches were played in Bydgoszcz, Gdańsk, Katowice, Kraków, Wrocław and Warsaw. In total, between 30th August and 20th September, 103 matches were played. The final match, Poland – Brazil was played in Katowice *Spodek*.

Long before the championships started, Łódź had begun intensive promotional activity, providing comprehensive information about the event, running an advertising campaign (large-format banners, new design for public transport tickets, events preceding

the championships – the World Volleyball Mini Championships Poland 2014, participation in a tourism trade fair in London). In addition, the city gave almost seven million zlotys to PZPS for promotional activity. At the same time, the advertising value equivalent, i.e. the value of publications in newspapers, on the radio, TV and the internet was estimated to have reached almost 25.5 million zlotys (if the city had had to pay for it).

For people who for different reasons were unable to watch the matches in the Atlas Arena, a ‘fan zone’ was organized on the *Manufaktura* agora, which turned out to be very popular. Apart from professional services (security, paramedics, etc.), the organization of the event in Łódź was aided by 83 volunteers working in the press office, marketing, information and other services (SOBIERAJSKA 2015). During the championships, on presenting their tickets, the fans could travel free of charge on city transport, and had free entry to some museums, swimming pools, the Zoo, the Botanical Gardens and the Palm House.

In the Atlas Arena, the second and the third group phase matches were played, as well as the match for fifth place. Out of 13 matches played by the Polish team at these championships, six were played in Łódź. Despite relatively high ticket prices (80-290 zlotys), the attendance was over 95% (Fig. 2).

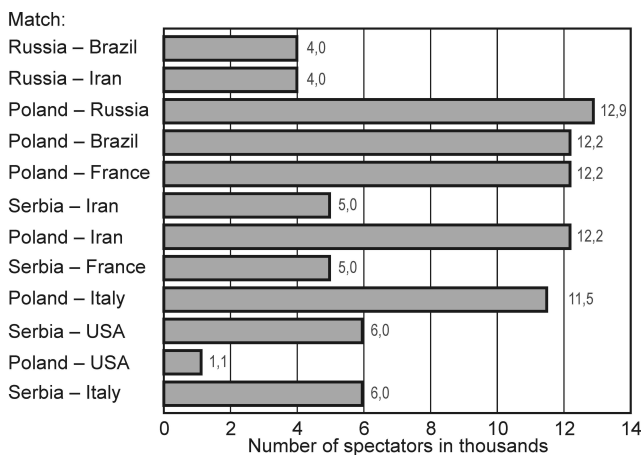


Fig. 2. Attendance at matches played in the Atlas Arena
Source: www.lodz.gazeta.pl

All in all, during the event the Atlas Arena was visited by 102,100 fans. Based on research conducted, it was possible to establish that they were mostly inhabitants of Łódź and Łódź Province (35%), as well as Masovian (25%) and *Wielkopolska* Provinces (10%) i.e. regions located the closest to the event venue. The number of fans from the remaining provinces did not exceed 5%. Each of the matches was watched by up to a hundred foreign fans (depending on who was playing in the match). The championship attributes

rated the highest were atmosphere (4.83) and the sound system (4.64), and the lowest – the availability of parking places (3.63) (SOBIERAJSKA 2015).

As many as 82% of all the fans from outside Łódź arrived by car. The respondents were most often accompanied by friends (44%) and family (43%). 75% of them watched only one match, so they may be classified as one-day visitors (SOBIERAJSKA 2015) but this did not stop Łódź hotels located within a close distance from the Atlas Arena from earning a good income (Fig. 3). The room occupancy figure during the championships was on average 10-50% higher than at other times of the year.

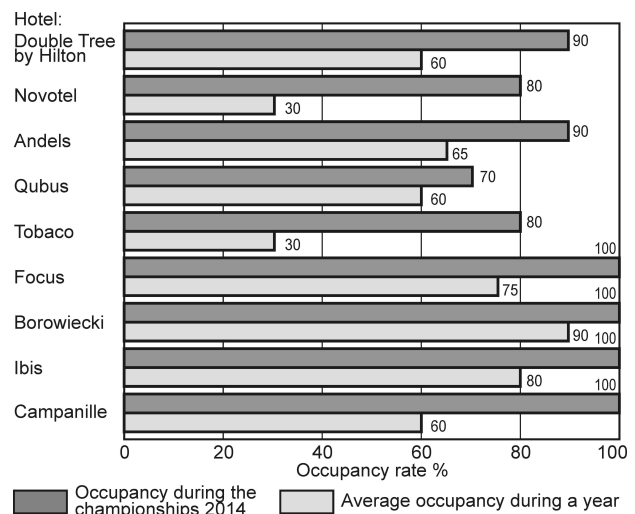


Fig. 3. Occupancy of selected Łódź hotels during a year and during the Men’s World Volleyball Championship
Source: www.lodz.gazeta.pl

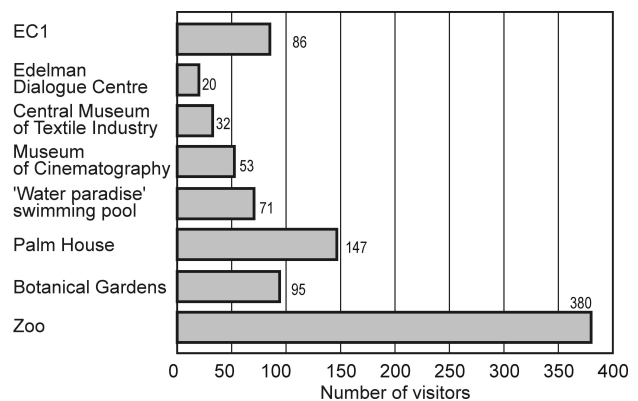


Fig. 4. The number of people visiting Łódź at selected sites during the Men’s World Volleyball Championship 2014
Source: www.lodz.gazeta.pl

Interviews conducted with the owners of Łódź ‘gastronomic establishments’ who had also prepared for the championships (e.g. by buying a licence to show the matches on jumbotrons or television sets, 10-15% discounts for meals, beer for ticket holders to

the matches), showed that interest in their offers during the championships was much less than expected.

The supplementary offer prepared by the city for fans present at the matches and fan zones was not very popular either. Compared to the number of people in the Atlas Arena, those who visited museums and the remaining attractions made up less than 1% of fan tourists (Fig. 4). Nevertheless, the championships turned out to be a huge success as regards organization and building the image of Łódź as a city supporting large sports events and friendly to the fans.

6. CONCLUSIONS

Organizing huge sports events is a very attractive undertaking for the majority of large cities. Having the status of host city usually brings specific benefits which not always can or should be evaluated in terms of money. Occasionally, the image is more important, and sometimes it is sufficient to one find oneself in good company. Łódź, which in recent years has made a clear 'civilizational leap' as regards accessibility by transport, the capacity and standard of accommodation, as well as its gastronomic and sports infrastructure, is a good example of the skilful use of large sports events for the purpose of building a positive image of a city supporting sports events and friendly to the fan tourists attending them.

Based on the discussion and the case study presented in the article the following general conclusions have been formulated:

- sports events organized in Łódź contribute to an increase in the number of tourists and visibly shape the tourism structure;
- national and international sports events result in positive changes in the perception of the city by visitors, most of whom rate their organization as 'good' or 'very good';
- the fans participating in the sports events in the city, apart from going to matches, take little advantage of the supplementary cultural offer, other than sport;
- despite the low level of participation in supplementary events, the fans rate the tourist attractiveness of Łódź as 'good' or 'very good';
- sports events organized in the city bring the greatest benefits to the hotel and catering industries;
- due to its success and professionalism in organizing huge sports events, especially volleyball competitions (league matches, World League, European championships), the media has named the city the capital of Polish volleyball.

As a result of the Men's World Volleyball Championship, Łódź's image has considerably improved, proved by the advertising value equivalent. However, apart from hotels located close to the Atlas Arena and the city centre, as well as selected gastronomic establishments, economic benefits were much lower than expected. On the other hand, one of the positive outcomes was the establishment of the Łódź Centre of Events in 2015, whose aim is to promote regular cultural and sports events, as well as support the organization of new mass events.

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SKI TOURING IN POLAND: WHO TAKES PART IN THIS FORM OF SPECIALISED TOURISM? HOW DO THEY TAKE PART AND WHY?

Abstract: The article presents a description of ski touring by Polish tourists. The author is looking for answers to the following questions: Who goes on this form of tourism? How and why? How experienced are the tourists? Are they aware of the risks involved? Are they theoretically and practically prepared for the danger of avalanches? The author compares their social features and tourist-recreational behaviour to research conducted by the Central Statistical Office in 2012.

Keywords: ski touring, tourist behaviour, tourist motivations, safety, Poland.

1. INTRODUCTION

Academic discussion on ski touring focuses on a variety of aspects. R. PHILIPP (2010), in his work entitled *Is skiing returning to its roots?: some thoughts on the philosophy of skiing*, approaches this problem as a humanist. He notes that “ever since antiquity, people have been striving for physical and spiritual perfection” (PHILIPP 2010, p. 80). Based on a historical-philosophical analysis, he compares the attitudes of ski-lift tourists to those of skiers who do not use them. The latter are closer to the idea of skiing propagated in the 1930s by Oppenheim, the precursor of skiing in Poland, who wrote in his guidebook: “By listing the skiing routes in the Polish Tatra Mountains, we hope to encourage many skiers to go on winter excursions in the high mountains. The essence of skiing is fully developed cross-country representing the most culturally valuable advantages of this sport: strength, self-reliance, sense of direction and resourcefulness in dangerous and difficult situations” (OPPENHEIM 1936, p. 41).

Over the last century, ski tourism has changed unrecognizably. Skiing infrastructure is easily accessible, even at mountain tops, the quality of equipment has increased (it can be bought or rented) and it has become available to Poles with an average income. Old skiing routes that used to take days to cover, are currently ‘run’ by ski mountaineers in 2-3 hours, and an average tourist has access to detailed weather data

in real time. Can it be said, then, that there is still traditional ski tourism? A term which seems to be more appropriate is ‘ski touring’; foreign-sounding and unfamiliar to many tourists and mountain lovers though it is. It refers to a new, revolutionary form of tourism which offers an extreme experience. However P. BARTOCHOWSKI (2011) questions whether the differences in equipment and alternative methods are enough to make it a different discipline.

In the 1980, changes in skiing led to the reintroduction of skins (<http://www.national-geographic.pl>) and new touring bindings. Skins were already known in the 19th c. and currently they are back in fashion. The new generation of skiers found out that skis are useful not only for descending, but equipped with skins, they make it easier to ascend. Individual skiers started to take advantage of new technological ideas as regards equipment. They noticed that not using the ski lift for the benefit of their own muscles was rewarded with a new experience and a long descent in an untouched high mountain area simply cannot be compared to anything else. With time, ski touring started to gain in popularity. Information about this unusual sport began to appear in the specialist press and Polish enthusiasts brought equipment from abroad. R. Weiss, the author of a ski touring course book written in German in the early 1980s (after PHILIPP 2010),

wrote that ski-touring affects the entirety of a person ("*erfaßt den Menschen in seiner Ganzheit*"; WEISS 1983, p. 7).

The aim of this work is to present ski touring in Poland, describe the profile of Polish ski tourers, their demographic features, as well as their tourist activity, motivations, use of professional tourism guidance, and their awareness of safety and the danger of avalanches. Knowing skiers' behaviour and views will allow an understanding of what ski touring actually is and how much it differs from Oppenheim's times.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Ski touring often takes place in protected mountain areas free from tourist pistes. An important research issue, presented in the academic literature, was the opening of mountain regions to recreation and ski touring in the protected areas of British Columbia (HARSHAW & SHEPPARD 2004), Switzerland (FREULER & HUNZIKER 2007), and in the Tatra National Park in Poland (ADAMCZYK 2009).

However, the issues most frequently discussed concern the problems of skiers and the risk of avalanches threatening ski tourers. This was pointed out by S. HARVEY & B. ZWEIFEL (2008) who studied accidents which had happened in Switzerland in 1977-2006 as a result of avalanches, as well as by VALAT & RAVANEL (2013) who remind us that every winter avalanches cause ski tourists' deaths (in the 2011-12 season, there were 32 avalanche accidents and 14 deaths reported in France alone). Swedes have also conducted such research (MAARTENSSON *et al.* 2013) which shows that in the 2012-13 season, seven Swedes died in avalanches, six of them outside Sweden. An interesting study on this issue, supplemented with an analysis of data obtained from two social media alpinism websites (www.bergportal.ch and www.camptocamp.org), was presented by F. TECHEL *et al.* (2014).

Direct research on tourists is only a small part of this research and they rarely present their profiles, views, etc. Such research can be found in work devoted to issues such as conflicts arising among ski tourers and other forms e.g. downhill skiing (THAPA & GRAEFE 2004, VASKE 2004) or snowmobiling (KNOPP & TYGER 1973). These also spend time on the slope and compete for space at the same time. Social research is found in works concerning the behaviour and views of tourists staying in protected areas (FREULER & HUNZIKER 2007, BIELAŃSKI 2010, WITKOWSKI *et al.* 2010).

3. RESEARCH METHODS AND SOURCES

Methods used in tourism research are based on various secondary sources, e.g. those provided by statistical offices, tourism institutes, etc., as well as other sources of direct information such as the measurements of tourist numbers on a piste, and indirect information, e.g. the number of cars parked near attractive tourism sites. In-depth knowledge about tourists can be gained from social studies. In this paper, the research subject was active ski tourers in Poland¹. The following methods and sources were used:

- observing skiers off-piste, also indirectly on the basis of the skin tracks on the snow;
- social research on tourists;
- Central Statistical Office data concerning sports activity among Poles and their educational level;
- the results of research conducted by Sedlak & Sedlak who publish reports on remuneration on the wynagrodzenia.pl website, based on their own methodology;
- other authors' results.

Direct observations were conducted on those pistes which are considered the most popular by skiers: Chochołowska Valley, Kościeliska Valley, Kondratowa Valley, Hala Gąsiennicowa, Pięciu Stawów Valley and Rybi Potok Valley. Moreover, the research included observation of the skin tracks in these valleys, including their upper sections and branches. The exception was Kościeliska Valley, where only a few tracks were observed, mainly in the Ornak massif. For nature protection reasons, Waksmundzka and Pańszczyca Valleys were not visited. Skin tracks left by tourists make it easier to indicate the most frequented places as well as provide information concerning the level of the skiers, their skiing skills and their techniques. They were observed at an early stage of the research. Having established that active ski tourers do appear in the Polish Tatra Mountains, it was possible to move onto the next stage.

Four basic methods of collecting data in social research were distinguished: observation techniques, surveys, secondary data analysis and qualitative studies. The first three were applied in this research. Participatory observation, where the researcher becomes a member of the group which he/she wants to study can be overt or covert. In this case overt observation was used – neither the object of observation, nor the identity of the researcher or the research centre was kept secret. A pilot study was carried out on-line on the www.skistory.fora.pl forum followed by a questionnaire survey. It is not easy to reach people who take part in this type of tourism and the survey was difficult because of the surroundings and the season.

Tourists look for excitement far from the hassle of the city, and they should not be disturbed. They are often in motion and should not be stopped by a researcher and for this reason, it was impossible to sample. Knowing the population enabled the researcher to select individuals for the sample group from several sources. The respondents included people met accidentally on the piste or at a shelter and organized groups led by a guide or a skiing instructor. A survey among 59 active skiers and tourists was conducted in the Tatra National Park, and a ski touring internet forum was used which made it possible to reach a larger group of 92 skiers. It is a forum which has existed since 1st March 2006 and has 1853 subscribers and 39750 posts (as of 2nd September 2011) and has been described as an 'informal ski touring club' (BARTOCHOWSKI 2011). This survey was conducted in April 2011, i.e. at the peak of the ski touring season and included a total of 151 people (18 women and 133 men), which may make up around 5-10% of those actively involved in ski touring in Poland in 2011. It was assumed that the collected results were sufficient to draw conclusions and also give a picture of the whole population.

4. RESEARCH RESULTS

What is ski touring? Is it a new form of active tourism or a return to the roots? Who does it? What are their motivations and are they aware of the dangers on the mountain pistes? Do they disturb other tourists? These are just a few of the questions to be answered.

The analysis of the ski tourer profile initially included:

- demographic features,
- place of origin,
- health self-assessment,
- tourist and recreational activity.

Ski touring in the respondents' lives was studied through an analysis of their answers to questions such as how long they have been doing it, who with, how they learnt about this form of tourism, what are their motivations and whether they took part in competitions. Awareness of safety and danger of avalanches, and an evaluation of their knowledge and skills as regards safety rules were the remaining issues.

4.1. THE DESCRIPTION OF RESPONDENTS

The answer to the question "Who takes part in this type of tourism?" is provided by an analysis of questionnaires (N - 151) and participatory field observation. The majority of respondents were men (88%), compared women (12%) as confirmed by field observation. As regards age, 90% were under 45 and over 18.

The largest group were aged 26-35 (40%), followed by 36-45 (26%) and 19-25 (25%). The sample contained less than 10% older than 45, and only one was at retirement age. It is puzzling that there was no one under 18, even though the author set no age restriction. The results show that ski touring is a form of recreation preferred by the young and middle-aged, most probably due to the demanding physical requirements (impossible to be met by elderly people), as well as the necessity to have sufficient mountain experience. The educational level was above average for Poland - 74% had completed university or higher education (55% - masters and 19% - *licencjat*), and the remaining - secondary or further education (26%). According to the National Census 2011, 16.8% of Poles had higher and 34.1% - secondary and further education showing a divergence from the average.

Occupation varied greatly: one in four was an IT specialist or engineer, and every tenth a student. The group consisted of traders, financiers, office clerks, teachers, medical doctors as well as representatives of other professions. It can be assumed that the majority were white-collar workers; only 2% indicated that they were manual workers.

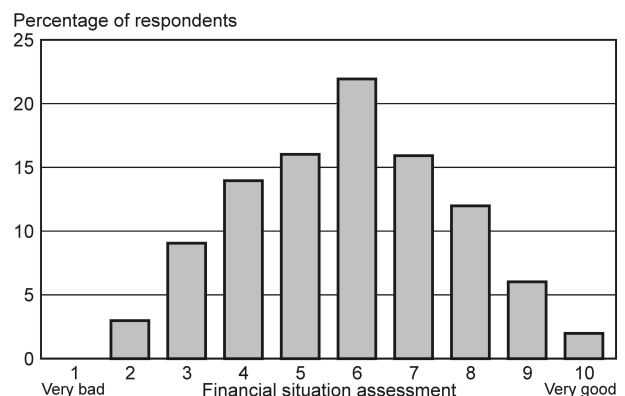


Fig. 1. Respondents by financial situation: assessed on a scale from 1 (very bad) to 10 (very good)

Source: P. BARTOCHOWSKI (2011), modified

Occupation is related to the earnings necessary to afford tourism and to allocate a certain amount of money to buying specialist equipment which may be a barrier. The answers to the question: "How do you rate, on a scale from 1 (very bad) to 10 (very good), your financial situation?" varied (Fig. 1). The respondents described their financial situation as slightly better than average (the median and the mode equalled 6 out of 10). This may result from their occupation. The comparison of the mean earnings of IT specialists, doctors, managers and engineers in Poland, published on www.wynagrodzenia.pl (09.2011) with those of other professional groups confirms that the earnings of the former exceed the national mean. It is visible that the majority of ski tourers belong to this

particular group. However, those with lower earnings are also quite numerous (teachers, those working in retailing and administration). Respondents included no one with extremely low earnings. The cost of ski touring is high enough to become a barrier for the least affluent social groups, but it is not an exclusive discipline accessible only to the richest (BARTOCHOWSKI 2011).

Where did the respondents come from? All of them were Polish. The majority (81%) lived in urban areas of various sizes (Table 1), and the remaining outside these areas. Nearly half (54%) came from large cities of over 100 000 inhabitants (mainly Krakow, followed by Warsaw, Łódź, Wrocław and Poznań). Every fifth tourist arrived from a small or medium-sized town, but such a high number is due to Zakopane, inhabited by many active skiers. Of those declaring a rural origin 19% were not in agriculture; most of them indicated suburban localities near large urban agglomerations, as well as places in Podhale, such as Poronin or Mała Ciche.

Table 1. The size of settlements inhabited by respondents

Size of place of residence	%	% accumulated
City with over 500 000 inhabitants	40	40
City with 201-500 000 inhabitants	6	46
City with 101-200 000 inhabitants	8	54
Town with 51-100 000 inhabitants	6	60
Town with under 50 000 inhabitants	21	81
Rural areas	19	100

Source: P. BARTOCHOWSKI (2011), modified.

The respondents' place of residence was related to its distance from the Tatra National Park. Most were the inhabitants of Małopolska Province (41%), which encompasses the park, as well as the Silesian Province (26%) which is the largest concentration of urban population in Poland. Other provinces included Masovian (8%), as well as Łódź, Lower Silesian (5% each), Wielkopolskie and Podkarpackie (neighbouring Małopolska). Others were indicated only by individual respondents. There was no one from West Pomeranian, Warmińsko-Mazurskie or Podlaskie Provinces.

4.2. RESPONDENTS' TOURIST AND RECREATIONAL ACTIVITY

The respondents' tourist activity may be related to their health and questions were asked because of the high physical demands of ski touring. Therefore, it was important to know how aware the tourers were of their health condition (Fig. 2). The majority indicated

very good health, with 76% rating it 8 or higher. Both, the median and the mode of the answers were 8 out of a possible 10.

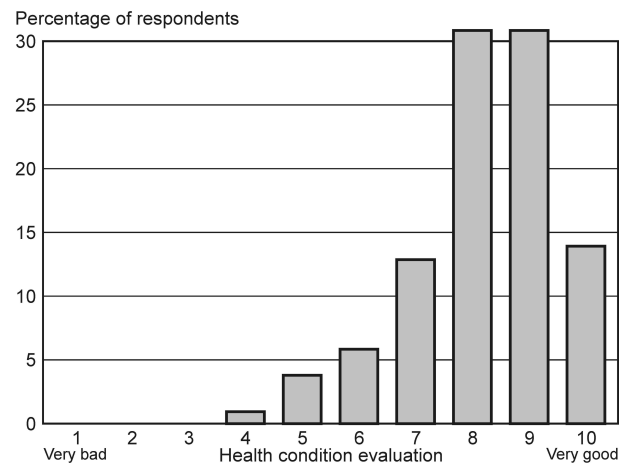


Fig. 2. Respondents by health: assessed on a scale from 1 (very bad) to 10 (very good)

Source: P. BARTOCHOWSKI (2011), modified

Such good health may result from physical activity throughout the year, It is significant because tourists mostly declared professions involving very little physical activity, e.g. computer programmers or doctors. Physical recreation turned out to be very popular among the respondents and nearly all of them indicated at least some sport. Such a high level is not surprising, considering the physical requirements that must be met in this discipline.

Most respondents regularly took physical recreation. The frequency varied: nearly one in ten exercised every day (9%), 15% exercised 4-6 times a week, over 50% - 2-3 times a week. One in four only once a week or less often.

Compared to the whole of Polish society, the respondents were very active physically. Not only did each respondent admit that they regularly took part in physical recreation, but most of them did so very often. In comparison, according to the Central Statistical Office report from 2012, over the period of 1 October 2011 to 30 September 2012, about 50% took part in sport, but only 20.3% of household members (<http://stat.gov.pl>) exercised regularly, i.e. at least once a week. It can be concluded then that sport and recreation are an important element of the studied group's life to which they devote a considerable part of their free time.

As regards the different sports listed above, several tendencies (Fig. 3) can be observed such as the significance of activities related to mountains (mountain tourism - 31%, downhill skiing - 70%, mountain climbing - 49%). Disciplines requiring physical strength were very popular (cycling - 70%, running - 36%, swimming - 31%). The percentage of gym and fitness

exercises was very low which suggests that the respondents preferred outdoor physical activity. As regards winter sports, percentages of cross-country skiing and snowboarding were relatively low compared to downhill skiing. It can be assumed that the latter is the key element of ski touring for the majority of respondents.

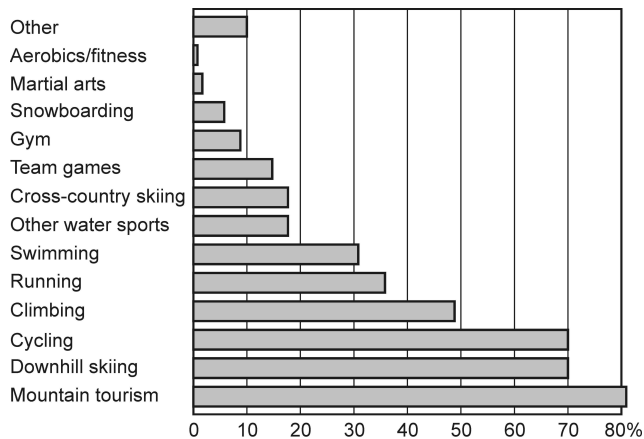


Fig. 3. Respondents by sport
(they could indicate more than one answer)
Source: P. BARTOCHOWSKI (2011), modified

The studied group differed from those analysed by the Central Statistical Office in 2011/12. "The most popular sports-recreational activities among Poles were cycling and swimming. The first was undertaken by 66.0% of respondents, the other by 39.9%. In addition, men preferred football (36.7%), volleyball (14.3%) and basketball (10.3%), as well as fishing (13.3%). Women usually chose aerobics, fitness, yoga and gymnastics (19.5%), dancing (16.5%), jogging, Nordic walking (15.8%) and volleyball (13.3%)". Winter sports were not among the favourite activities at that time, as they proved among those studied.

4.3. SKI TOURING IN THE RESPONDENTS' LIVES

The answer to the question "What experience do you have in this form of tourism?" will give not only a better understanding of its community, but can also be used to evaluate how long it has been undertaken. Half of the respondents (54%) pointed to small (less than three years) ski touring experience, and the group of beginners was quite large (11%) – Table 2. Nearly every fifth respondent claimed 4-5 years of experience, and every tenth indicated 6-8 years or over 13, 8% had been active for 9-12 years. These results may be a proof of the dynamically growing popularity of ski touring, as well as of an accelerated development of this discipline since 2008-9.

Table 2. Respondents' ski touring experience

Experience	%	% accumulated
First season	11	11
2-3 years	43	54
4-5 years	18	72
6-8 years	10	82
9-12 years	8	90
13 years and longer	10	100

Source: P. BARTOCHOWSKI (2011), modified.

How did they learn about this form of tourism? Over a half of the respondents (52%) heard about it from friends, almost one third (31%) had seen ski tourers on the piste. Another source was the internet (17%) while sources, especially traditional media, had an insignificant influence. These results show that it is attractive and growing though still a niche discipline. Most ski tourers inform and encourage their friends to take part as well. The basic information is often passed to tourists met accidentally on the piste and interested in a discipline which they are not familiar with.

Ski touring is a niche form of specialised tourism; it does not involve organized group tours. The only commercial form are the one- or several day trips under the care of a mountain guide, or ski touring courses for beginners, but they were not popular among the respondents (Fig. 4). A large majority (75%) of tourists skied with friends. Many of them admitted that they had also skied alone, which seems to be quite controversial with respect to safety in the mountains in winter. A small percentage took their family members with them, which involves considerable physical and technical skills. Combined with a relatively high risk, it is not an ideal form of activity for families with children.

What were the motivations of those taking part this sport, which requires a good physical condition? The respondents' main motivation was active recreation and relaxation (71%). They spent their holidays and weekends going on ski tours and it was their way of relaxing after work. Slightly less important, but also significant was the need to care for their health and fitness (49%). At this point, it is worth remembering (Fig. 2) that the studied group evaluated their health condition as excellent, but despite that they did not object to taking care of their physical condition all the time. Other motivations encouraging the respondents included the opportunity to test their own skills (31%) and gain new experience (19%). As ski touring is not a popular discipline, included among so-called 'extreme sports', these responses are not surprising. There were two other particularly distinctive motivations. The first one, typical of downhill skiers, was the conviction that ski touring enables tourists to descend away from designated pistes, in deep snow and in a difficult

terrain. The other motivation, mentioned mainly by walking tourists, was presenting ski touring as a convenient way of travelling in the mountains in the winter season.

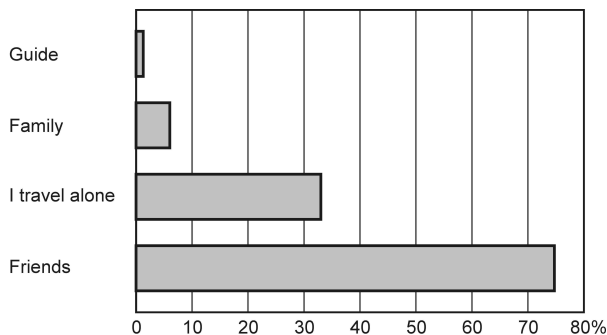


Fig. 4. Those accompanying respondents on the piste (they could indicate more than one answer)
Source: P. BARTOCHOWSKI (2011), modified

The respondents' answers show that their motivations to ski tour are different than the motivations of the majority of Poles who take part in sport, as according to the Central Statistical Office's study from 2012, the main motivations were pleasure and fun, indicated by two thirds of the respondents. The need to stay fit and keep a good figure was indicated by 15.5% of men and 20% of women. Every tenth Pole took part in sport and recreation for health reasons.

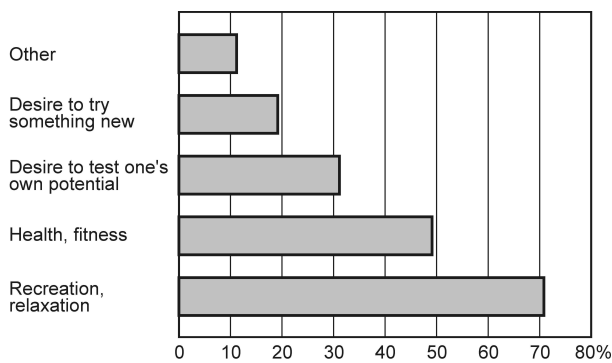


Fig. 5. Respondents' motivations for ski touring (they could indicate more than one answer)
Source: P. BARTOCHOWSKI (2011), modified

Some respondents with longer experience in ski touring, had taken part in Alpine skiing competitions. In the group who regularly participate in competitions (4%), the majority have 4-8 years of experience; most of them being professional sportsmen, training almost every day and having equipment prepared specially for the race (possibly light skis, boots and accessories complying with the norms set by the Alpine Skiing Committee). People who compete only occasionally come from all groups, but most of them have over 6 years of experience; they are experienced skiers who

naturally have better skills. Most of them are amateurs who may test themselves, e.g. at the Polish Amateur Cup in Ski Alpinism competition, where the pistes are technically easier and the competitors do not have to meet the strict norms concerning equipment or possess a professional licence. Alpine skiing competitions require perfect physical condition, as well as experience in using the equipment, and especially a fast rate of changing the ascent/descent configuration. At the same time, it is worth noting the fact of the percentage of new competitors, no matter how small, who must face many difficulties.

In order to take part in ski touring, it is necessary to carry professional equipment, different from that used in downhill skiing, as well as wear appropriate clothing, goggles or sunglasses, a helmet, backpack and skis (different from those used for downhill skiing as regards their strength and weight - they are lighter, with skin adhesive and sometimes a hole on the ski tip) with proper bindings (special bindings with a movable heel, which enable the skier to ascend a slope. Skins are made of fur arranged in one direction, hence, while moving forward, hair-wise, they prevent it from moving back, even on a steep slope. In the past they were made from seals' fur, which gave them the name). Other accessories include an avalanche detector, a probe and a spade. For this reason, the cost of an expedition may be higher than in the case of people skiing recreationally. Fig. 6 shows how high the costs are and whether there is a relation between the costs and the respondents' financial situation.

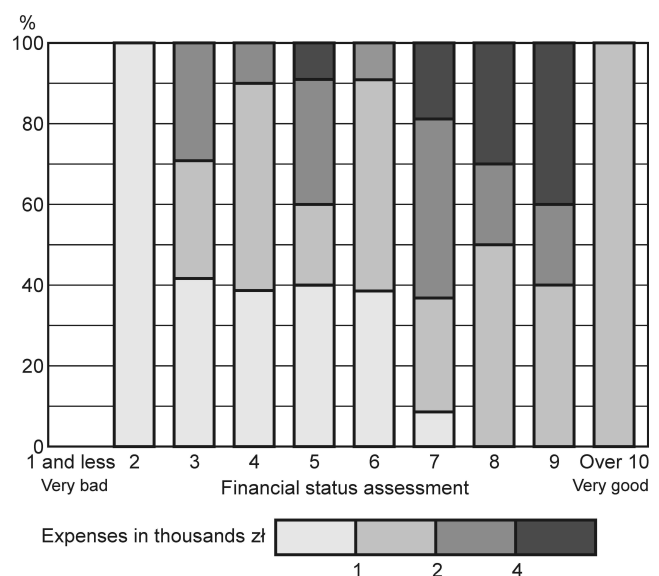


Fig. 6. Ski touring expenses compared to respondents' financial situations
Source: P. BARTOCHOWSKI (2011), modified

It can be concluded that the more affluent spent more on ski touring - respondents who rated their financial situation at 7-9. The worse the financial

situation, the less the money that was spent. The least affluent spent up to 1000 zlotys per season and among those who were moderately rich the expenses varied. Three people at the highest financial level (10 points) spent under 2000 zlotys.

What other costs are paid by people involved in this form of tourism? They also pay for the services of an experienced guide. Some respondents regularly participated in several-day long skiing trips in the Polish and Slovakian Tatra Mountains, as well as the Alps. The latter are an important source of income for guides. The particulars of skiing in glacial mountains are different and the organizational difficulties of such a trip are greater. As a result, the best guides have a group of regular clients who visit Alpine summits and passes with them every year. Only the most experienced respondents did not use the services of a guide (Fig. 7).

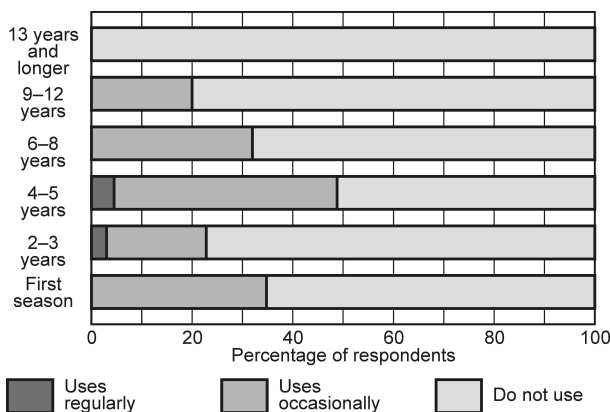


Fig. 7. The ski touring period and use of guide services
Source: P. BARTOCHOWSKI (2011), modified

Among mountain guides' clients were people with varied experience. A sizeable group consisted of beginners, learning ski touring on courses. However, the percentage of those with several years of experience, who used the services of a guide, was greater. They sometimes even regularly participated in several-day long skiing tours in the Polish and Slovakian Tatras, as well as the Alps.

Moreover, nearly every respondent had completed one or more courses related to mountain activities. The most popular were avalanche courses (42%), which is a positive trend as regards the growing awareness of the dangers caused by masses of snow. Slightly less popular (35%) were courses teaching the basics of rock climbing, organized in the summer. These technical skills are not very useful during traditional ski touring trips. However, they may turn out very important in ski alpinism, climbing glaciers or walking rock ridges. About one third of the respondents had completed a specialist ski touring or

winter tourism course. A small group of respondents had completed a Tatra winter climbing course. They were usually highly skilled and well-informed.

4.4. TOURISTS' SAFETY

Ski touring is found in the mountains, away from regular pistes, in hazardous conditions, e.g. during an avalanche alert and is not a safe form of specialised tourism. The safety theme can be found in the academic literature and that is why it was an object of the author's interest. Accidents and injuries suffered during ski touring had happened to 13% of the respondents, 3% of which had been serious accidents and the remaining 10% had suffered minor injuries. Three per cent is a substantial percentage compared to other disciplines, even those which are regarded as dangerous. Considering the fact that the study did not include those who do no longer go ski touring due to accidents, or have died during skiing trips, the statistics are dramatic.

It is important to know the respondents' knowledge and skills as regards safety on the slope. Tourers' knowledge about mountain dangers is most probably much greater than average in the Tatra Mountains. Numerous courses (e.g. avalanche courses had been completed by 42% of respondents) prove that the respondents are aware of the need to raise mountain qualifications. It is worth noting, however, that ski touring is an extremely demanding discipline. Just having the knowledge is not sufficient if it is not applied in practice; even very experienced people ignore the basic safety rules for no reason which can end in an accident. Many ski down the couloirs/crevasses with an unstable snow cover, despite mountain rescuers' warnings. Even mountain guides sometimes walk on frozen ponds in late spring with a serious danger of the ice breaking. Apart from abiding by some regulations, it is necessary to continue practicing, e.g. searching for people buried under snow with the help of an avalanche detector, or slowing down a fall on a steep slope. In a dangerous situation, only instinctive, learnt reactions may be effective. In the skiers' and generally mountain tourists' milieu, however, there is a tendency to expand knowledge and skills, so it can be hoped that the number of accidents will decrease.

The evaluation of knowledge and skills regarding safety and first aid, on a scale 1 to 5, fluctuated between 2 and nearly 4. Beginners occasionally declared high level skills, and a mountain guide with many years of experience described his knowledge as average. These facts resulted not only from the desire to present oneself in a better light, but above all from

the lack of awareness of certain dangers looming in the mountains.



Fig. 8. Knowledge and skills assessment
Source: P. BARTOCHOWSKI (2011), modified

Personal skiing skills were evaluated the highest (Fig. 8). Good skiing skills were confirmed on the basis of the traces left by skis on the slopes during field work. Most respondents were skilful in the mountainous area.

Unfortunately, the problem of avalanches is still greatly ignored by the respondents. Nearly 40% did not carry an avalanche detector – a necessary tool for finding people under snow. Such low popularity is caused by their high price and tourists being unaware that they should have them and must not ignore the problem. Fortunately, the popularity of detectors is steadily growing and their producers are introducing models which are also simpler to use. A detector may be rented as well. Several years ago, few people owned avalanche detectors, while at present over 50% have admitted using one. Several respondents did not have detectors but used the services of avalanche equipment rental. Poles are still far behind French tourists, 95% of whom are equipped with a trio (a detector, a spade and a probe) and at the same time 95% have their mobile phones as a tool for alerting rescue services – overrated as it gives an impression of being (too) important for safety (VALAT & RAVANEL 2013). Also Swedish research confirms that 11% of skiers do not use safety devices but 87% use them regularly.

5. CONCLUSIONS

How much contemporary ski touring has diverged from the skiing tours of Oppenheim's times (early 20th c.) is hard to say. It can be assumed that qualities such as strength, independence, resourcefulness in the face of danger and difficulties, still remain tourism qualities because to be in the mountains in winter, off-

piste, requires the modern tourist to have them. Oppenheim pointed to active recreation and relaxation (71%), care for health and fitness (49%), as well as the desire to check one's potential (31%) as the main motivations for ski touring, which this thesis has confirmed.

It can be concluded that ski touring in Poland is a niche type of tourism, taking place mainly in the Tatra Mountains, as well as in others (Beskidy and Sudety Mountains). It is the choice of a particular group of tourists who cannot be called typical Polish tourists. First of all, they represent a high education level (74% – university, 26 – secondary and further education), they are young – ranging from 19 to 45 years of age (ca. 90%), and do mostly intensive white-collar work (IT specialist, engineer, physician, financier, manager, student, representative of free professions, business person). The group is dominated by men (88%), people caring for their fitness and health, regularly engaging in physical recreation throughout the year, mostly outdoors, in touch with nature. A large group earn sums exceeding the median for Poland and invest in skiing equipment.

The majority (75%) are people coming from the provinces of southern Poland in the area of which there are the mountain ranges of the Sudety and Carpathians, but are dominated by inhabitants of the Małopolskie (41%) and Silesian (26%) Provinces. As many as 81% arrive from cities; the predominating group (54%) from large cities with over 100,000 inhabitants (mostly from Krakow, as well as from Warsaw, Łódź, Wrocław and Poznań). Tourism requiring intensive, physical, exhausting effort is good for people (mainly males) who after stationary white-collar work relax through contact with nature and fulfil their need to check their own capabilities and gain new experience. Not only is fitness important for them, but also developing their knowledge and skills as regards ski touring, climbing and skiing. Most of them show considerable skiing skills. They take advantage of courses and tours led by experienced guides in Poland and abroad. Some try taking part in Alpine skiing competitions, which may point to their ambitions.

Almost one hundred years after Oppenheim, we may certainly say that the contemporary tourist is better equipped with modern gear (boots, skis, skins etc.), can use avalanche detectors (devices used for looking for people buried under snow), as well as other appliances, such as a mobile phone. Moreover, a tourist who has access to the internet may receive detailed weather information in real time and other ski-tourers opinions about snow conditions. It gives them a certain comfort, increasing their sense of safety in case of emergency, which unfortunately does not mean that there are fewer accidents.

FOOTNOTE

¹ For the purposes of this work, the author used the results of research conducted by Piotr BARTOCHOWSKI MA (2011), a graduate of Tourism and Recreation, University of Łódź.

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MOUNTAIN HIKING IN TATRA NATIONAL PARK

Abstract: Tatra National Park is the most frequently visited national park in Poland. During the peak season (summer), it attracts both 'fully aware' tourists, properly prepared for mountain hiking, and 'casual' hikers, motivated mainly by the shallow desire to 'tick off' the most popular places in the highest Polish mountains. The article describes the specific character of mountain hikers in Tatra National Park during the summer season, with particular attention paid to the motivations and skills involved in active tourism.

Keywords: active tourism, specialised tourism, mountain hiking, Tatra National Park.

1. INTRODUCTION

Mountain tourism encompasses various types and forms of activity which take advantage of the natural assets of the mountain environment including hiking, skiing, biking, horse-riding or exploring caves (KUREK 2007, p. 317). The most popular form of mountain tourism, however, is hiking.

Mountain hiking and analysing the motivations for this kind of activity have been discussed by researchers since the early 20th c. (CZYŻ 2010, p. 242) with three main groups identified for high mountain hiking and Tatra climbing: cognitive, aesthetic and sporting. Typical features have always been selflessness and the pursuit of discovery, a desire to experience or even 'defeat' hardships and danger.

Mountain hiking has always involved aesthetic motivations, such as the beauty and harmony of the 'mountain world'. Mountains have a certain metaphysical or even mystical aura evoking different behaviours – some people are attracted and enchanted while others are consumed by a lack of confidence or even fear.

Research on tourism in such a popular area as Tatra National Park may reveal various attitudes. Visitors include 'regular Tatra climbers' and 'romantic vagabonds' – 'mountain people', for whom hiking is the essence of their life and the mountain environment a metaphor, an experience, or even a religious exultation (KRZYMOWSKA-KOSTROWICKA 1997, p. 44). There are also 'incidental' tourists, usually unprepared

both technically and mentally who treat mountains as an area in which they may raise their social status and prestige by reaching flagship sites. Many tourists choose to go to the Tatras 'automatically'; they are not guided by a need to have contact with mountains but are attracted by the well-developed infrastructure of Zakopane and current trends. In this case, the Tatras are treated as background or scenery for a wide range of entertainments (FRYDRYCZAK 2007, p. 105). Such tourists travel for 'pretty sights', which they already know from the mass media, usually in a simplified form.

The article presents a description of mountain hiking in selected regions of Tatra National Park. The author pays special attention to the tourists' motivations, as well as their skills as regards active tourism. The analysis is an attempt to define the special character of mountain hiking tourism in an area with a heavy tourist concentration.

2. THE VOLUME OF TOURISM IN TATRA NATIONAL PARK

In European terms, Tatra National Park is small but at the same time one of the most 'touristy' (POCIASK-KARTECZKA, BAŚCIK & CZUBERANT 2007, p. 272). The natural environment, easy access and a satisfactory

tourism infrastructure make it the most frequently visited national park in Poland. Moreover, tourism in the Polish Tatras is strongly focused in time (July, August) and space (Palenica Białczańska, Kościeliska Valley).

The number of people visiting national parks in Poland varies and ranges from ca. 10,000 to over 2.5 million (PARTYKA 2010, p. 13) with Tatra National Park the most frequently visited, followed by Kar-konoski and Woliński National Parks. What is more, it is an area where, despite being most intensive in the summer season, tourism occurs all year round.

The tourism carrying capacity of the Tatra Mountains, as well as trail usage, is seriously exceeded. According to Tatra National Park statistics, over the period of 2000-14 it has fluctuated, reaching peak values in 2012 (2,947,949 tourists) (Fig. 1). In 2014 the park was visited by 2,791,837 tourists.

The attendance rate in 2014 was marked by clear seasonality – most visits were recorded in the summer months, mainly August – 567,929 tourists (Fig. 2). In 2015, the number of tickets sold increased and in August, the area was visited by 793,060 tourists. Such a tourism distribution is certainly related to the fact that in the summer the park is more easily accessible, and the holiday season is favourable for individual and group visits alike. The winter month with the largest number of tourists is February, which is related to the organization of the school winter break. It is worth stressing, however, that due to the rich skiing offer at the foot of the Tatra Mountains, many tourists do not visit the park at this time.

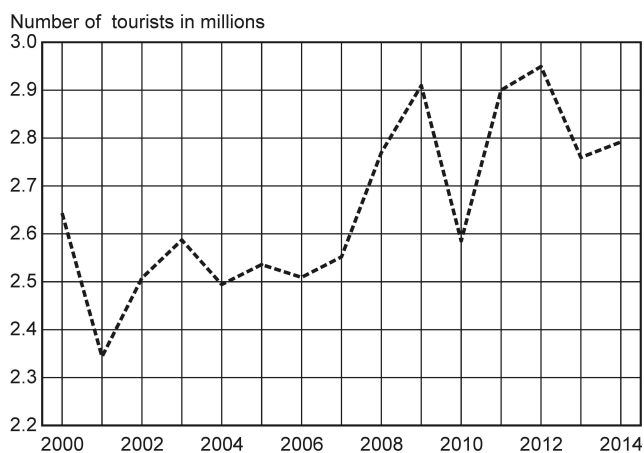


Fig. 1. The volume of tourism in Tatra National Park: 2000-2014

Source: author, based on Tatra National Park statistics

*Data does not include: admissions outside the season when ticket boxes are open, admissions of the inhabitants and people exempt from charge, unticketed admissions, as well as admissions of tourist shelters' residents

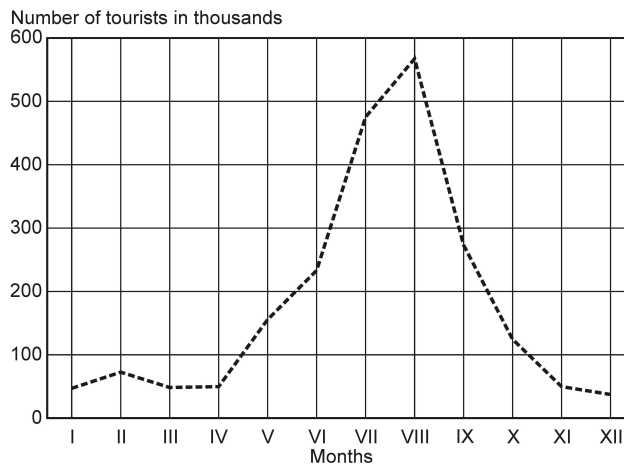


Fig. 2. The volume of tourism in Tatra National Park: in 2014 by month

Source: author, based on Tatra National Park statistics

*Data does not include: data of the Forest Community in Witów, PKL data, admissions outside the season when ticket boxes are open, admissions of the inhabitants and people exempt from charge, unticketed admissions, as well as admissions of tourist shelters' residents

The analysis also provides interesting information regarding admission to Tatra National Park at chosen ticket selling points (Fig. 3). We may observe a significant domination of the Łysa Polana (Palenica Białczańska) entrance, where in 2014, 722,164 visits were recorded based on the number of tickets sold. It is above all related to mass tourism on the Palenica Białczańska – Morskie Oko trail, where the number of daily visits during holiday weekends approaches 10,000. The second most frequently visited place is the Kościeliska Valley (447,925 tickets sold). Both places are regarded as the top attractions of the park where the most popular tourist trails cross (CIAPAŁA, ZIELONKA, KMIECIK-WRÓBEL 2010, p. 72)¹.

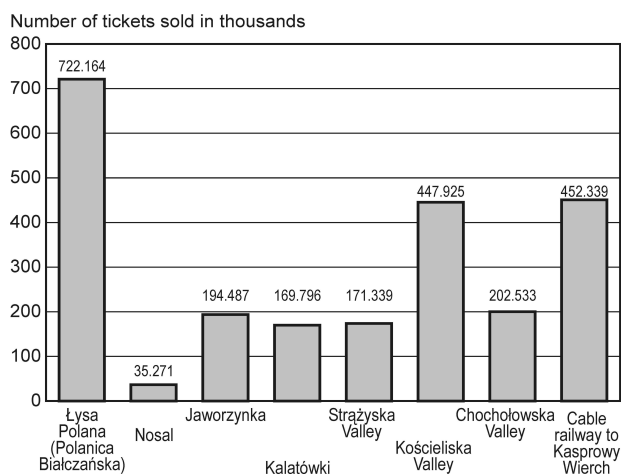


Fig. 3. The number of tickets sold to Tatra National Park in 2014 at selected ticket selling points

Source: author, based on Tatra National Park statistics

As J. POCIASK-KARTECZKA, M. BAŚCIK & S. CZUBERNAT (2007, p. 272) report, the most important factors of such a large concentration of tourism at these places include not only unique natural assets, but also easy access, fashion, as well as a very low level of difficulty as regards hiking on trails (e.g. the asphalt road to Morskie Oko).

3. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Research on tourism in Tatra National Park was conducted during the summer months of 2015 (July, August)², in the vicinity of five mountain shelters: PTTK (Polish Tourism and Sightseeing Society) 'Murowaniec' shelter in Hala Gąsiennicowa, PTTK shelter in Hala Kondratowa, PTTK shelter in Roztoka, PTTK Mountain Shelter in Polana Chochołowska and PTTK Mountain Shelter in the Five Ponds Valley.

As a method of study, the author used a questionnaire survey in order to conduct an in-depth analysis of the behaviour of mountain hiking tourists visiting selected regions of the Polish part of the High and Western Tatras. The research technique was *in situ* individual questionnaire interviews. The survey was carried out near the mountain shelters.

The survey included a total of 540 respondents; 120 interviews were conducted near each shelter, with the exception of the PTTK shelter in Roztoka which has a different character – it is not located at a node of tourist trails and therefore it is not a good springboard for hikers (only 60 interviews were conducted at that shelter). The researcher used a systematic sampling method, based on a numerical system – every tenth tourist was approached.

4. THE SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC STRUCTURE OF RESPONDENTS AND THE ORGANIZATION OF THE TRIP

In the analysis of the socio-demographic structure of the respondents, the percentages of both sexes were quite balanced, with the exception of the 'Murowaniec' shelter, where the majority of tourists were men (55%). In contrast, at the shelter in Hala Kondratowa, there were significantly more women (65.8%). With respect to the age structure, two cohorts could be clearly distinguished: tourists aged 26-35 and 36-45. The smallest groups consisted of those below 16 years of age and the elderly (above 55), with the lowest percentage recorded in the area of the Five Ponds

Valley shelter (1.6%). This distribution may be related to the fact that this facility is the most difficult to reach among all the shelters included in the study (the highest such shelter in the Polish Tatras). As regards education, most tourists had completed university education.

As for the respondents' permanent place of residence, the most numerous group in all three areas were inhabitants from the Masovia Province (Polana Chochołowska – 20.8%, Hala Kondratowa – 25%, the Five Ponds Valley – 19.1%). In the case of tourists approached near the shelter in Roztoka and 'Murowaniec', they mostly came from the Małopolskie Province (25.3% and 24.1%, respectively). Moreover, the provinces which were represented by relatively large numbers included Łódzkie, Lubelskie, Wielkopolskie, Pomeranian, Świętokrzyskie and Silesian. The respondents were usually inhabitants of large cities. Foreign tourists made up only a small percentage and they were not present at all in the study sample near Polana Chochołowska shelter. In Hala Kondratowa, there were tourists from England and Sweden (5.8%), at 'Murowaniec' – from the Netherlands and Scotland (9.1%), in the Five Ponds Valley – from France, Ireland and Germany (2.5%) and in Roztoka – from England (1.6%).

The average length of stay was 4-7 days (Hala Kondratowa – 67.5%, Polana Chochołowska – 60.8%, the Five Ponds Valley – 54.1%). A shorter stay (up to 3 days) was most often reported by tourists who were staying at the shelters which are high mountain climbing bases: 'Murowaniec' (57.5%), Roztoka shelter (41.6%) and the Five Ponds Valley shelter (30.8%). Stays lasting longer than two weeks were rare and reported mostly in the area of Roztoka shelter.

The most popular form of tourist accommodation in the Tatra Mountains was a guest house or private B&B (78.1% in the Polana Chochołowska area). However, the respondents relatively often indicated several options and another popular type was a mountain shelter. This was indicated most frequently near the one in Roztoka (75%), relating to the fact that this shelter came first in the 4th Ranking Competition of Mountain Shelters published by the Mountain Tourism Magazine (*Jak liczyliśmy...* 2015, p. 22). Thus, many people arrived at this shelter in order to check its gastronomic and accommodation offers after recent redecoration. Sleeping 'under the stars' was mentioned most often near 'Murowaniec' (3.3%) and the Five Ponds Valley shelter (5%), due to the fact that both facilities are situated in the Orla Perc' climbing area, where many tourists who go high mountain climbing spend the night 'under the stars' because there are no vacancies in the shelter.

5. FORMS OF SPENDING LEISURE TIME DURING A STAY IN THE TATRA MOUNTAINS

As regards ways of spending leisure time while staying in the Tatra Mountains, the respondents indicated mountain hiking for up to 10 hours as the predominant activity (Fig. 4). The smallest number was noted in the area of Hala Kondratowa shelter due to the fact that this facility is easily accessible from Zakopane, and is often the ultimate trip destination, or possibly a resting point on the way to a seemingly easy trail to Giewont. This is confirmed by the fact that respondents from this study area often (47.5%) mentioned shorter trips, lasting 8 hours maximum, as well as going high mountain climbing least often as regards the areas studied (1.6%). It is also where the highest percentage of respondents (17.5%) admitted using cable cars and horse-drawn carts during their trips.

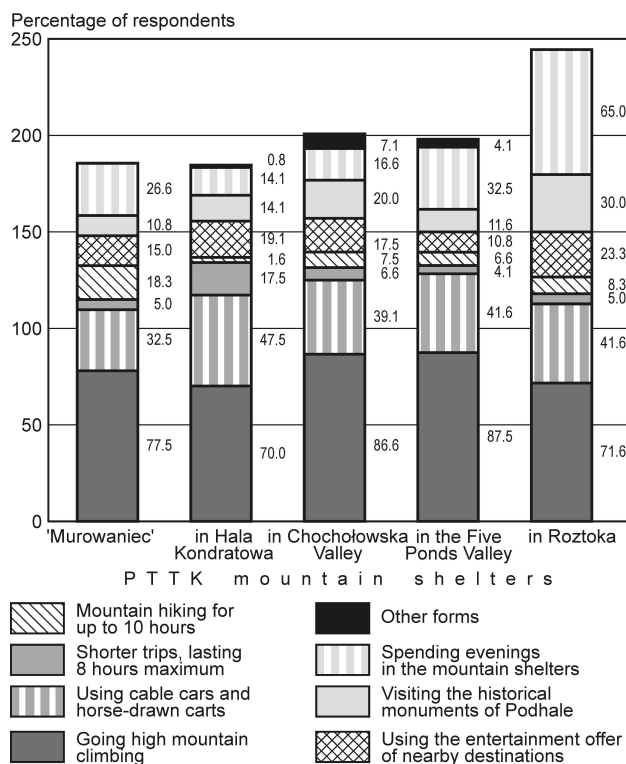


Fig. 4. Forms of spending leisure time by respondent and area of study

Source: author, based on field study

Most people going high mountain climbing were found near 'Murowaniec' (18.3%), which highlights its special character as a springboard to the mountainous trails of Orla Perć. The area was also one of the three (after Roztoka - 65% and the Five Ponds Valley - 32.5%) where the respondents usually spent evenings in the mountain shelters (26.6%).

The tendencies presented above are also stressed in the respondents' answers which concerned using the entertainment offer of nearby destinations, as well as visiting the historical monuments of Podhale. The smallest number of tourists interested in these forms of leisure activity was recorded near 'Murowaniec' and in the Five Ponds Valley area, which stresses their interest in mountain hiking (including climbing) rather than in the historical monuments.

Other forms of activity (most of which occurred near the shelter on Polana Chochołowska - 7.5%) included attending church services, spending time with children or cycling excursions. Attending church services is connected with the fact that many people visit the Pope's Trail (Jarząbcza Valley, sites related to the visit of Pope John Paul II in 1983). They are both individual tourists (including monks) and Oasis movement groups.

The respondents were also asked to indicate which regions of the Tatra Mountains they had visited or were going to visit during their current stay. The question included suggestions of places, some of which can be regarded as 'obligatory', and some as less popular and hard to reach (Orla Perć, Kasprowy Wierch, Rysy, Wołowiec, Starorobociański Wierch, Kościeliska Valley). The places which turned out to be most frequently visited were Kościeliska Valley and Kasprowy Wierch. In both cases, most indications were given in the areas of Hala Kondratowa and Polana Chochołowska, which again implies that they are visited by 'less specialized' tourists, treating mountain hiking more lightly. Orla Perć was visited by the largest number of respondents from the area around the 'Murowaniec' and Five Ponds Valley shelters (56.6% and 43.3%), which results from their location (an ideal springboard to the high mountain trails of Orla Perć). The area was mentioned least often by respondents from Hala Kondratowa (20.8%) and Polana Chochołowska (19.1%). Rysy was chosen mainly by the tourists visiting the shelter in Roztoka (35%), due to its location, as well as popularity among the more specialized tourists. As regards the Western Tatras, they are most often visited by respondents from the Polana Chochołowska area shelters (Wołowiec - 56.6%, Starorobociański Wierch - 21.6%). This area is significantly less popular or even ignored by those visiting the remaining four areas, where it is often referred to as 'unknown'.

6. MOTIVATION AND QUALIFICATION ASSESSMENT OF RESPONDENTS

One of the aims of the research was to define hikers' motivations to visit given parts of the Tatra Mountains. The respondents were asked to rate on a scale

Table 1. Motivation for respondents' tourist activity

Motivational dispositions	'Murowaniec' Shelter	Hala Kondratowa shelter	Polana Chochołowska shelter	Five Ponds Valley shelter	Roztoka shelter
	mean value				
Activity-motivational					
Satisfying the need for physical activity, negative energy release and rest	4.07	3.6	3.8	3.9	3.8
Cathartic-motivational					
Escape from everydayness (escapism)	4.06	4.4	4.5	4.5	4.5
Sense of freedom and independence	4.2	4.1	4.1	4.1	4.3
Health-motivational					
Improvement of health, fitness and good feeling	4.2	4.1	4.1	4.03	3.8
Socio-motivational					
Opportunity to make new friends	2.4	2.6	2.1	2.3	1.8
Emotional-motivational					
Strong impressions, emotions (risk, challenge)	3.1	2.9	2.6	3.1	2.9
Testing yourself, fighting your own weaknesses	3.6	3.4	3.4	3.8	3.5
Ambition-motivational					
Rivalry, competition, tourist feats	1.7	1.6	1.5	1.8	1.4
Respect from others, desire to be 'up-to-date', to make yourself distinguished	1.1	1.1	0.9	1.01	0.7
Trying to reach a set target	3.8	3.7	3.7	3.8	3.6
The need to obtain mountain tourism badges	0.8	0.8	1.2	0.5	0.2
Cognitive-motivational					
Discovering and learning about the region	3.6	3.4	3.5	3.5	3.4
Contact with the natural and cultural environment of the region	3.7	3.9	3.9	3.7	3.8

Source: author, based on field study.

from 0 to 5 the significance of the individual dispositions listed in the questionnaire. They were chosen on the basis of the recreational activity classification by R. Winiarski, where the author distinguished seven main groups and the activity motivations related to them (WINIARSKI 1988, p. 53). Mean values (arithmetic mean) were calculated from individual dispositions which allowed the author to define their average significance for respondents in each of the areas studied.

As shown in Table 1, at all the research sites the most important was cathartic-motivational disposition, including escapism³ (the mean assessment rate oscillated around 4.5 in each case). Motivations included relaxation and a sense of rest, as well as the fulfillment of emotional needs thanks to mountain hiking. During mountain excursions, especially those made in the company of close friends or relatives, particularly favourable conditions for 'syntony' - 'joyous tiredness' are created (FENCZYN 2000, p. 4). Only rated slightly lower, within the same disposition, was the sense of freedom and independence. The cathartic motivation is based on needs related to the lack of rest and the desire to make a psychological escape from everyday problems.

The next was health-motivational disposition, followed by cognitive- and activity-motivation while the remaining were rated much lower. Interesting observations regarded risk and challenge, which in the literature are usually treated as features of active tourism, including specialised, adventure and extreme tourism (WEBER 2001, pp. 360-361, POMFRET 2006, p. 115). This motivation was rated rather low but highest by respondents from the areas of 'Murowaniec' and the Five Ponds Valley shelters (the average rating was 3.1 in each case), which may be related to high mountain climbing.

Within the scope of ambition-motivational disposition, as broadly understood, the most important motivation is the attempt to reach the target set, while the least significant was the need to obtain mountain tourism badges (the lowest average rating - the shelter in Roztoka: 0.2). As it turned out, respondents do not attach significance to this motivation; they often regard collecting tourism badges as an anachronism, usually associated with tourism organized by PTTK. Tourist feats, combined with rivalry and competition, were also rated low; although it often appears in the literature on the subject as a significant feature of specialised tourism (ŁOBOŻEWICZ 1983, p. 8).

Table 2. Respondents' skills concerning mountain hiking

Skills	'Murowaniec' shelter	Hala Kondratowa shelter	Polana Chochołowska shelter	Five Ponds Valley shelter	Roztoka shelter
	mean value				
Ability to choose and use tourist equipment and tourist clothes	3.8	3.5	3.4	3.7	3.7
Using maps and guidebooks bought before the trip	3.9	3.9	4.2	4.2	4.2
Searching for information about the area individually	3.9	3.7	3.7	3.9	4.3
Planning routes, having sense of direction	3.8	3.5	3.8	3.7	4.2
Checking weather conditions and the situation on tourist trails before setting out	4.2	4.3	4.3	4.3	4.6
Preparing mentally and physically for departure	3.3	2.9	3.3	3.2	2.8
The ability to cope with the hardships of a mountain hiking trip	3.8	3.9	3.8	3.9	3.7
Knowing the code of conduct on the trail and in tourist facilities	4.4	4.4	4.3	4.4	4.6
Knowing the safety regulations in mountain hiking tourism	4.5	4.3	4.3	4.3	4.5

Source: author, based on field study.

Motivation among those high mountain climbing (8.3%), a large part of whom (47.8%) were tourists, approached in the area of the 'Murowaniec' shelter, seems to be very similar. However, they rated the activity-motivational disposition higher (average rating - 4.4); second after cathartic motivation. In turn, attempts to reach a set target were rated much lower there than by the remaining respondents (2.3). As it turned out, risk and challenge are of only medium significance to mountain climbers (3.5) while rivalry, competition and tourist feats were rated even lower (1.9). It is noteworthy that those high mountain climbing stressed the autotelic character of their activity, admitting at the same time that aspects related to competition or prestige are of no importance to them.

In the evaluation of the respondents' skills, they were asked to rate on a scale from 0 to 5 their mountain hiking skills. Individual skills were chosen as those typical for specialised tourism and most frequently mentioned in the literature on the subject (ŁOBOŻEWICZ 1983, MERSKI 2002). Similar to motivation, mean values (arithmetical means) were calculated which enabled the researcher to define their significance for respondents in each of the areas studied.

Table 2 shows that all skills were rated quite highly which may result from the respondents' high assessment of their own and a kind of daring approach to mountain tourism. The skill rated the highest in individual areas was the ability to behave properly on the trail and in tourism facilities (the highest - in the Roztoka shelter - 4.6). An equally highly rated skill was knowledge of safety regulation (the highest - in 'Murowaniec' and Roztoka shelters - average rating: 4.5).

The highest skills were characteristic of respondents from the area of the Roztoka shelter, which means that this particular place is visited by more tourism-conscious tourists, experienced in mountain hiking. The location of the shelter away from tourist trails is the reason why 'incidental' tourists do not reach it, often not knowing of its existence.

A much higher evaluation of their skills was made by tourists high mountain climbing. Similar to the remaining respondents, knowing the code of conduct on the trail and in tourism facilities, as well as knowing safety regulations were rated highest (average rating in each case - 4.6). The ability to choose and use tourist equipment was also rated highly (4.5), as well as the ability to use maps and guidebooks (4.5), plan routes, and having a good sense of direction (4.5). Mental and physical preparedness for setting out is rated much higher (3.5), which is certainly related to greater demands, specialization and difficulty of the activity itself. Also the ability to cope with the hardships of mountain hiking is greater in mountain climbers (4.5).

An important aim of the study was to verify mountain hikers' familiarity with the concept of specialised tourism. As it turned out, not many of them could explain it. It is interesting that the largest number of tourists who were unable to provide any definition were found in the area of the Five Ponds Valley (85%), regarded as the springboard for specialized tourists (often referred to as 'real tourists'). The respondents usually claimed that they had never heard this term.

The most tourists who knew the meaning of specialised tourism were found in the area surrounding

the Roztoka shelter (51.7%), which confirms the findings presented above (the shelter was mostly visited by those more experienced in mountain hiking). Specialised tourism was most often defined as professional, safe, prepared, specialized, advanced, demanding or extreme. It was also identified with PTTK membership, obtaining a guide's licence and collecting shelter stamps. There were also those claiming that this is tourism organized exclusively by the PTTK (hiking tours, camps, etc.).

As the term 'specialised tourism' was introduced in the 1950s by the PTTK milieu, it is worth looking more closely at the tourists who declared PTTK membership (only 5.9% of the respondents). The percentage of active members oscillated around 5% in individual research areas. The small percentage of PTTK members results from the contemporary tendency towards individualizing tourist journeys (PRÓSZYŃSKA-BORDAS 2013, p. 65). Mountain trips are usually organized by tourists themselves – using organizers' (including PTTK) services less often.

The motivational dispositions of the discussed group of respondents are as follows: cathartic-motivational (including escapism), health-motivational and cognitive-motivational. It is interesting that the need to obtain mountain tourism badges was rated very lowly (1.4 on average). However, the respondents quite highly evaluated their skills, with knowledge of the code of conduct on trails and tourism facilities and of safety regulations rated the highest (4.8 each). Also the mental and physical preparedness for a hiking trip was rated higher than other skills (3.6).

7. CONCLUSIONS

The analysis of tourism in selected areas of Tatra National Park at the peak of the tourist season shows differences as regards the motivations and skills of tourists mountain hiking. The greatest motivation is typical of tourists visiting the areas of the 'Murowaniec' and the Five Ponds Valley shelters, which is the springboard for tourists walking along high mountain trails. These areas are also characterized by the highest skill levels in tourists. In this respect, a high position is also occupied by the area of the Roztoka shelter, visited by tourists who are more tourism-conscious and experienced in mountain hiking. The shelters on Polana Chochołowska and Hala Kondratowa are the springboards to excursions to the 'gentler' parts of the Western Tatras, which is why they are more frequently visited by tourists who are less 'specialized' and undertake a simpler and more accessible form of active tourism. This is also shown in the forms of

spending leisure time by the respondents during their stay in the Tatra Mountains.

In terms of motivation, the most significant is the cathartic-motivational disposition, including escapism, followed by the health-, cognitive- and activity-motivational dispositions. Less significant are risk and challenge, obtaining mountain tourism badges, rivalry and competition. These motivations are of no great importance even in the case of tourists going high mountain climbing, who by definition can be called specialised tourists.

Thus, the research shows that mountain hiking in Tatra National Park in the summer season has mostly a 'gentler' form. It is undertaken as specialised tourism by people associated with the PTTK or those who go high mountain climbing. However, even among specialized tourists, many features believed to be required in specialised tourism, such as mental and physical preparedness, looking for information about the visited area, as well as trying to reach the set target or the need to obtain mountain tourism badges, are of little importance.

FOOTNOTES

¹ Other areas considered the most popular in the Polish Tatras include the trail from Kuźnice to Giewont and to Hala Gąsiennicowa, as well as the Chochołowska Valley Trail to the shelter in Polana Chochołowska (CIAPAŁA, ZIELONKA & KMIECIK-WRÓBEL 2010, p. 72).

² The choice of the date of study was intentional – the interviews were conducted in each region for subsequent four days (week days and weekends), in the holiday season, when the attendance of visitors is the largest in the year.

³ A psychological need to escape from 'everydayness'.

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APPROACHES TO ACTIVE TOURISM IN THE URALS AND IN PERM KRAI

Abstract: Located in the south of Ural, Perm Krai, apart from mineral resources and well-developed industry, can boast vast areas that lend themselves to active and qualified tourism, with the quality of an amateur sport. The development of these forms of tourism often requires large expenditure needed for adjusting the space to various types of activity. It also requires a correlation between a given character of the space and the preferred form of tourism, which often leads to environmental conflicts between the development of tourism and nature protection. The article presents the most important elements of the tourism potential in Perm Krai, as well as the sports tourism development perspectives in the context of real and potential environmental conflicts.

Keywords: active tourism, sports tourism, tourism development, Ural, Perm Krai, nature protection.

1. INTRODUCTION

The idea that the areas which are the most interesting in natural terms, must be used rationally in tourism and be protected from other, especially non 'environmentally-friendly', activities is quite commonplace in today's world and is almost universally accepted. It primarily concerns unique beautiful natural places. Such areas must have a certain system of organization in the form of national parks, reserves and other types of protection to encourage tourism and combine the functions of nature conservation and tourism.

A number of countries have succeeded in this field and have nationwide networks of national parks.

Creating such a network has always lagged behind the needs of tourism and recreation in the natural environment in Russia due to a shift in priorities towards the protection of the natural heritage from all economic activities, including recreation and tourism. Such 'sanctuaries' are the creation of the protected natural areas (PNA) system in Russia, a template for nature with a landscape-geographical base. What is more, no intervention in such areas is the main principle according to classical notions of wilderness protection and natural sanctuaries, formulated in late 19th - early

20th c. by Dokuchaev, Kojevnikov, Borodin, Sukachov and other prominent writers.

Specialized areas for nature-oriented tourism have been insufficiently developed because of this focus on establishing sanctuaries. The lack of such areas on the one hand, and vast undeveloped territories on the other, has led to the emergence of an independent 'self-regulating' tourism indigenous to the Soviet Union and Russia.

The vector of development and creation of the network of protected areas has changed in modern Russia. New national parks are formed every year for which recreation is one of the main functions. However, traditions which have been developing over a hundred years of 'self-regulating' tourism are impossible to overcome. Thousands of tourist trails, regardless of current environmental status, are laid out.

This article sets out the current concepts of self-regulating, active and sports tourism in Russia, highlights the present state of active tourism, and deals with its rational spatial organization in the Urals and Perm Krai.

2. ACTIVE AND SPORTS NATURE-ORIENTED TOURISM: CONCEPTS AND CORRELATION OF TYPES

In formulating the concepts it is necessary to give a short retrospective review. Tourism, in terms of organization, was divided into planned and self-regulating in Soviet times. Planned tourism implied using trails developed by tourist organizations, pre-paid (when purchasing a package holiday) and with guaranteed services (accommodation, meals, excursions, etc.). Tourists used prepared trails with an experienced instructor by active means (walking, kayaking, catamaran sailing, skiing, horse riding). Currently, this is commercial tourism organized by tour operators. 'Self-regulating' tourism existed alongside and in contrast to the planned one.

'Self-regulating' tourism is using trails that tourists develop themselves, or are recommended by tourist clubs. In its turn, it is subdivided into mass 'self-regulating' tourism and sports 'self-regulating' tourism.

Russia has its own understanding of sports tourism, different from the rest of the world. The point is that sports tourism in Russia is a sport in itself and competitions are held at various levels, and categories and titles have been conferred since 1949. Two directions are distinguished in sports tourism: classical (trekking) and sports tourism competitions. These latter are for different types of tourism where a team must cover a certain distance via an obstacle course typical for the given type of tourism, as quickly as possible, observing safety rules, without making any mistakes and without losing any equipment. Typically, for most types of sports tourism, this distance is covered in one hour and routes have different levels of complexity. According to the competition results, sports categories and titles are conferred.

Sport treks can be of six categories of complexity. The meaning of trekking is to cover a trail in the wilderness and overcoming obstacles with maximum safety and ten types are distinguished: hiking, mountaineering, skiing, water activities, caving, cycling, car, motorcycle (here quadricycles and snowmobiles can participate too), sailing, and horse riding. The minimum duration of the trek for the first category is six days, and for the sixth category of complexity it is 20 days. These are the minimum standards, there are no upper limits.

Sports tourism is organized, but not commercial. To take such a trip it is necessary to obtain the relevant documents from the trail-qualification board and after the trip to fill in a special report to be submitted to the same board. Only then is it possible for a certain trail to be eligible for any competition and for categories/titles to be conferred. Besides, this report captures the

experiences of the participants necessary to attempt a more difficult trail next time. In Russia there is one large main organization, the Federation of Sport Tourism of Russia (FSTR), and every region has its regional federations, which, in their turn, include various tourist clubs, associations and other organizations.

Modern active tourism goes back to the mass 'self-regulating' tourism of the last century. Active tourism is commonly understood to be undertaken in an environment little altered and by active means. A wide range of types can be distinguished: water, hiking, caving, cycling, sailing, etc.

Sports and active tourism have common roots, but differ in their goals and content. Sports trekking has a specific sporting goal towards which the team put all their efforts which particularly concerns trails of the highest complexity category. Trails of the 1st, 2nd etc. categories are stepping stones to more complex ones. With the increase in such excellence, sports tourists are mastering more and more challenging trails and areas, led by trails of the highest category and path finding (MISHLAVTCEVA 2007). Sports tourism is not on a mass scale. In total, several hundred thousand people are now engaged in it in Russia, and in Perm Krai, which ranks third nationally in terms of such development, up to ten thousand.

In active tourism preferences are given to trails which are unclassified, and have no or low (I, II, III) categories of complexity. In terms of organization, this can be done by tourists themselves or by tour operators. Active travel programs are developed on the basis of catalogs and classifiers and 'self-regulating' travel guides published at the height of 'self-regulating' tourism movement. This type is more large scale. Although it is extremely difficult to determine the volume of active tourists, and the official statistics do not keep a record.

Thus, the natural environment is the main resource for organizing both sports and active tourism, so both types are oriented towards it. Each of these types has its own nature and spatial organization.

3. THE URALS AS A TOURIST DESTINATION

In terms of nature, the notion of the 'Urals' covers territory spreading for over 2 000 km on a north-south axis from the coast of the Kara Sea to the steppes and semi-deserts of Central Asia. The Urals, as a mountainous territory, are surrounded by lowland plains (Russian and Western Siberian) to its west and east.

The Ural Mountains are a clearly defined tourist area and one of the most convenient world tourist

zones in the future, despite the fact that they are located inland and far from coastal areas. They are not too high, do not have such sights as volcanoes and geysers, and are far from the capital and national borders. The Urals in the broad sense, i.e. the Ural Mountains with adjacent territories, is filled with natural attractions. In this regard, over several decades active tourism areas have been developed with a great variety of tourist trails, primarily associated with nature-oriented types of tourism (ZIRYANOV & KOROLEV 2009).

Standard trails of varying complexity for many types of sports tourism have been developed and utilized for a long time in the Urals (ZIRYANOV & KOROLEV 2008).

The Ural Mountains and the adjacent zones of the Cis-Ural region and Trans-Urals could have been considered as 'tourist country' during the development of mass 'self-regulating' tourism in the USSR. Many tourists try to trek the greatest possible distance and even entirely from the north to the south or vice versa. Quite a few have achieved this during a single expedition. Most often tourists visit one region of the Ural Mountains followed by another; having trekked in the Central Urals, they then go to the Southern, Northern, and then Polar and 'Nether-Polar' Urals. The especially enthusiastic tend to visit the continuation of the Urals to the north (the Pai-Khoi range) and to the south (the Mugodzhar hills in Kazakhstan). There even was a club in Yekaterinburg, uniting those who have traversed the length of the Ural Mountains, stretching for over 2,000 km.

Many active tourist trails are cross the Ural Mountains as they are not wide. Populated areas are situated on both sides of the mountains in the southern half of the zone and cross mountain trails often have an inter-regional character.

In terms of opportunities and the role of tourist systems in major countries, the Urals can be compared to the Sierra Nevada and the Rocky Mountains (in the northern part of the USA). In the US the system of protected areas used for tourism in the mountains of Sierra Nevada forms a continuous belt. The nature of the protected areas, established in the Urals, is different. The 'sanctuaries' of Vishera and Basegi in Perm Krai, Denezhkin kamen in Sverdlovsk region, Bashkiria in Republic of Bashkortostan, founded in the last century, have become an obstacle for the development of tourism, dividing once whole trails.

The Ural Mountains occupy about a quarter of the area of Perm Krai, its north-east, and with the foothill belt of the Cis-Ural region about half of the territory. The Ural Mountains and the Cis-Ural region are the most attractive natural areas in terms of tourism in Perm Krai.

4. ACTIVE TOURISM DISTRIBUTION IN PERM KRAI

The most important tourist attractions of Perm Krai are connected with the abundance of rivers, mountain and forest landscapes.

The eastern part of the region is the main area for aquatic tourism in spring and summer; traditions of rafting are very strong here. The Vishera, Berezovaya, Yaiva with Chanva, Chusovaia, Usva and Sylva Rivers are the most popular and a huge number of commercial trips are taken along these rivers, mostly in summer. This is due to good transport accessibility at the beginnings and ends of the trails, as well as the high landscape diversity of the Perm rivers. Also in Perm Krai, May rafting during high flows is very popular. Most of the rivers in the Central and Northern Urals are passable during high flow only, which increases their complexity level to the 2nd, and for some rivers, the 2nd with elements of the 3rd. The most popular for such sports rafting are the rivers Usva, Vilva, Vijay and Koiva. It is not difficult to get to the start of the trails on these rivers, nor is it hard to leave them. Rafting itself is carried out during certain days, and the starting place is a few hours' drive away from the regional centre. Mainly independent unorganized tourists and a small number of organized groups travel down these rivers in spring, totalling up to several thousand per river during the first ten days of May.

The Ural Mountain part of Perm Krai is the area for hiking which was on a mass scale in the recent past. The main advantages of the natural areas of the Northern and Central Urals in Perm Krai are mountains with different forms of terrain: conspicuous and expressive (peaks, cliffs, rock outcrops) as well as gentle and smooth. The latter are typical for the Northern Urals and used for hiking trips in the mountains. The trail along the Hoza-Tump ridge is a classic tourist trail along the Northern Urals.

The most accessible and visited area is the 'Stone Town' located on the Rudyany Spoi ridge in the Gremyachinsk region, and Ermak rock in the Kungur region. Longer hiking trails run through the Kvar Kush plateau-like ridge (maximum height of 1066 m), where it is possible to meet wild reindeer. An amazing natural attraction of Kvar Kush is the Zhigalansky waterfall located on the river of the same name. Another popular trail is to the Chuvalsky ridge, located on the border of the Vishera 'Sanctuary'. Oslyanka ridge (1119 m) is the highest point of the Central Urals.

The tourist attractions of Perm Krai which are the most interesting and difficult to access, are located in Vishera 'Sanctuary', which is genuinely mountainsou. Here one can find the Tulymsky kamen ridge (the

highest in Perm Krai – 1,469 m), the Isher ridge, Muraveini kamen (Ant Stone), Munintump, Saklaim-sori-chakhl and others. Due to the high conservation status visiting is strictly regulated.

As for caving tourism in Perm Krai, it is less on a mass scale than aquatic tourism. There are over 700 caves in Perm Krai, and the four main caves can serve as its emblems: Orda, 5,200 m, the longest flooded cave in Eurasia; Temni (dark) – (3B category of complexity) the most difficult cave in Perm Krai; Divya (over 10 km long) the longest in Perm Krai; and Kungur Ledyanaya (Kungur Ice cave) the most visited in the world (annually by 120,000) as well as the only cave in plaster where excursions are held.

In addition to these there are a number of very popular large caves with good transport accessibility: Russian, Geologists 1, 2 and 3, Pashieskaya, Kize-lovskaya, Chudesnica, Chanviskaya, Kichmenskaya, Zuyatskaya, Octabrskie, Tain caves and others. Each can be visited in a single day and are used on a mass scale for weekend visits. The most favorable season is from November to March when the level of ground water is very low and the caves are drier. All the caves of Perm Krai, except Kungurskaya and Orda, where cave diving has been developed, lack organized commercial tourist trails. They are visited only by independent and 'self-regulating' tourists, and the total number of visits to all caves by such tourists is several thousand a year.

5. ACTIVE TOURISM AND PRIORITIZING NATURE CONSERVATION

A system of active tourist trails has been created within the Urals over a seventy-year period. The highest concentration is found within the Ural mountain country in the outskirts of such regions as Perm Krai, Sverdlovsk region, Chelyabinsk region and the Republic of Bashkortostan. A system of protected areas of varying status began to develop there from the 1930s. Spatially, the two systems coincide closely which inevitably leads to conflicts between nature conservation and recreation. These are particularly acute in such protected areas where conservation status has been assigned, but its execution is controlled poorly. These areas include natural monuments, protected landscapes, landscape 'sanctuaries', etc. The simplest solution is seen to be through changes to the tourist trail network, reducing recreational pressure on the most valuable natural complexes. In practice, this does not seem feasible for several reasons. One is that the tourist network in the area was formed long before securing conservation status. Consequently, tourist specialization has had a longer period. Another reason

for the close existence of the two networks is that the natural environment requirements are very similar. So SPNAs (specially protected natural areas), especially large ones (e.g. 'sanctuaries') were created on the landscape-geographical principle in the least disturbed territories. From the very start setting up such preserves repeatedly faced difficulties in allocating large areas and as a rule, they were in low populated areas.

The tourist trail network gravitates to less settled and economically developed places. Finally, the tourist trails are laid in the most diverse landscapes and beautiful natural places.

Thus, the most valuable natural areas are under pressure from mass tourists. Problems primarily relate to littering the riverbanks with waste, trampling vegetation in the parking places, unauthorized cutting down of trees etc. Fires are especially a problem in the most accessible areas leading to the degradation of natural systems and, consequently, to a decrease in their value and recreational appeal.

6. MODERN APPROACHES TO ORGANIZING ACTIVE TOURISM IN PERM KRAI

As practice shows, the tourist and recreational needs of the population can be met with the least damage to natural systems in specialized areas, such as national parks and reserves. These areas are prepared for mass scale tourists, functional zoning has been carried out, recreational and no-disturbance areas have been allocated, infrastructure necessary for visitors has been created, trails have been designed, parking and camping equipped, logistics and navigation established etc. In the 20th c. national and natural parks combined environmental protection objectives and tourism in most countries of the world.

Currently, more than 40 national parks operate in Russia. In modern conditions it seems necessary to expand their network, especially in regions with a strong tradition for nature-orientated types of tourism. According to the concept of the development of specially protected natural areas of federal importance (*The concept...* 2011) another 20 national parks are planned to be created in Russia by 2020. Only one on this list is to be created within the Urals (NP 'Zigalga' in Chelyabinsk region). Thus, SPNAs of this category have been created in all the regions of the Urals, except Perm Krai (Table 1).

The need to create a national park in Perm Krai has been expressed by many. The territories proposed are the Sylva valley, Kungur 'city' (AKIMOV, AFANASEVA & STENNO 1996), Kvar Kush Ridge (KOROLEV 2012).

At present, the issue is not resolved positively, but the creation of such areas is necessary due to the high recreational load on the unique and typical natural complexes, leading to degradation of the latter. There is a real threat of loss to the Perm Krai natural heritage. If the creation of a national park as an area under federal jurisdiction is impossible at the moment, an alternative solution is proposed to organize a natural park, a regional specially protected natural area (SPNA), which combines the functions of nature conservation and tourism development (BUZMAKOV, ZAI-CEV & SANNIKOV).

Table 1. Nationals Parks in the regions of the Urals

No.	Region	National park	Year of creation
1	Republic of Komi	'Yugyd - Va'	1994
2	Sverdlovsk region	'Pripyshminskie groves (Боры),	1993
3	Perm Krai	none	-
4	Cheliabinsk region	'Taganay' 'Zyuratkul' 'Zigalga'	1991 1993 2014
5	The Republic of Bashkortostan	'Bashkoria'	1986

Sours: Autors.

Selecting the location for the establishment of newly protected areas is a complex task. Experts believe that the organization should take into account the park's natural potential and characteristics of modern wildlife management, as well as modern factors of the anthropogenic impact on natural systems. The latest research shows that among the latter, the recreational load is essential. Recreational degradation has been noticed in many protected areas located in different parts of Perm Krai. One reason for the spread of recreation in SPNAs is the lack of such a category of protected area in the Kama River region, which would combine preservation of the natural environment with recreation, namely, a natural park. The establishment of protected areas of this category on the basis of modern SPNAs will streamline and optimize the recreational impact, while protecting typical, unique and highly valuable sites.

Creating a natural park with the necessary environmental management and qualified personnel (security, guide and maintenance service, medical services and environmental education service) will prevent the degradation of ecosystems, reduce risks to public health, and will lead to increased environmental culture.

The territory for a natural park mid-stream Usva river valley (from the village Shumikhinsky to the village Mis) and the surrounding area is proposed due

to several factors. According to experts in the tourism field (KHU DENKIKH 2006), this area has a high tourist and recreational potential for the development of nature orientated (active) forms of tourism, such as water (rafting and inflatables), walking (hiking and excursions), rock climbing, ice climbing, caving, mountain skiing tourism, etc.

The area in question has good transport accessibility. The nearest towns, Gremyachinsk and Chusovoi, are situated 15 and 60 km respectively away from village of Usva, the distance to the city of the main centre for tourism (the city of Perm) is 190 km, and to Berezniki, 125 km. The village of Usva, which is located on the Kungur-Solikamsk road, can serve the 'gateway' function to the projected park while the Chusovoi-Solikamsk railway goes alongside. Some of the important sights are accessible via the roads maintained by local government ('Kungur-Solikamsk' to Yubileini, Yubileini-Bezgodova in Gremyachinsk region, the Kalino-Mis in Chusovoy region).

Tourist development of this area has a long history as result of a number of factors. River Usva is widely known in the region and beyond as a place for family rafting. Low difficulty, good transport accessibility, the landscape beauty of the mountain taiga on the border of Europe and Asia, and the 'Usvinske pillars' cliffs make it one of the most attractive rafting rivers. Tourist trails along the Usva River are described in guidebooks published in the second half of the 20th c. At present, the water trail along the River Usva (from Usva to Mis) is one of the most visited at weekends in summer.

A unique Central Ural landscape is the rocky mazes that adorn many of the tops of the wooded mountains. These are the so-called 'stone cities' or 'devil's settlements', One of the most spectacular is located on the Rudyansky Spoi ridge near the village of Usva. Stone outcrops here, as well as 'devil's settlements' are a favorite place for rest and exercise for hikers, climbers and campers.

Besides, the area has an abundance of caves with more than 10 on the territory of the planned nature park: Geologists 1, 2, and 3, Pervomaiskaya, Rebristaya, Dynamitnaya, Usvinskaya ledenaya, Vysotskogo, Usvinskaya-1, Usva ugolnaya, and Usvinskaya medvejaya (Bear) caves. The most characteristic geological sections of Permian period can also be found here. All the caves are actively visited by cavers.

Usva village itself is located within Gornozavodsk-Prikamye, one of the regions of the Gornozavodsky Urals, a belt of towns and villages that have grown due to the mining of various minerals. This is the Perm analog of Bazhovskie places with stories similar to Mistress of Copper Mountain and Malachite box.

Modern non-productive specialization of mining and metallurgical areas of Perm Krai is connected with mountain ski recreation. Significant variations in surface height (up to 200-300 m), good infrastructure, great snow depth, and high demand contribute to its development in the mountains of the Central Urals with the natural and socio-economic conditions for its development.

Here, on a relatively compact area of 26,500 ha, several SPNAs of regional significance are located: including the monuments of nature 'Pillars', 'Big Beam', 'Ponoramnaya rock' 'Swivel log', 'Omutnaya stone', 'Dry log', 'Stone Town', All the SPNAs are experiencing an increased recreational load.

Thus, all the sights have different degrees of tourist attraction and the most visited are 'Stone Town', Usvinskie pillars, the River Usva water trail, and 'Dry Log tract'. According to expert estimates, 8 000 people visit a season but distributed unevenly with the peak load falling at weekends in July-September. More than 200 people can gather at the same time over a September weekend in 'Stone Town'. For more accurate data on tourist flows and its distribution throughout the season it is necessary to conduct special surveys.

Cave visiting is not on such a mass scale, however they are also among important recreational sites. The most visited there are those in the 'Dry log' area (Geologists 1, 2, 3, Ribbed).

Currently, visits have an uncontrolled and spontaneous nature which leads to the degradation of natural systems. In this regard, one of the important directions of work on the creation of a new nature park is to determine the maximum allowable recreational load on the territory's ecosystems. This work remains to be done.

An effective method of environmental protection, in our opinion, is the creation of a large protected natural area of regional significance. Giving the territory a new status will enable the necessary work for its improvement and create conditions for the regulation and management of tourism.

As a recommendation for the maintenance of ecological balance it is necessary to develop proposals for the management of a natural park and preparations for visiting.

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VOICES IN THE DISCUSSION

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SPORTS TOURISM: A CONTRIBUTION TO A DEBATE ON ITS DEFINITION AND RESEARCH SUBJECT MATTER

The current state of research and the existing definitions of sports tourism

Many publications concerning the modern tourism market present the opinion that sports tourism is currently one of its most rapidly developing forms. On the other hand, its definition is being continuously argued over as well as whether it should be distinguished as a separate form of tourism and, consequently, a separate segment of the tourism market. Controversies concerning this are particularly interesting because the basis for distinguishing this form has accompanied tourism from the very beginning (e.g. the Olympic Games), although nowadays the links between them have become much stronger and much more important. Discussing sports tourism is difficult due to the fact that research is still at an early stage. Despite the apparent need for academic integration of these two domains, both sport and tourism have been mostly treated by researchers and practitioners as separate activity areas (GLYPTIS 1991, p. 165).

The literature offers many definitions of sports tourism, which have been formulated in various academic disciplines. They include those which try to define its essence in the simplest way possible, like the one which describes sports tourism as "travelling for non-commercial purposes, which involves participating in or observing sporting events far from the place of residence" (HALL 1992, p. 194), or the one which describes it as "holidays¹ during which a person takes part in sports activity, as a spectator or participant" (WEED & BULL 1997, p. 5). There are also definitions which have a more developed form and content such as the one formulated by Gibson, according to whom sports tourism is "travelling in one's free time outside the area of residence in order to watch or participate in a physical activity, or to enjoy attractions related to this activity" (GIBSON 1998, p. 49). There is also the definition of STANDEVEN & DE KNOP, who see it as "all forms of active and passive engagement in physical activity, both occasional (unorganized – note: WA) and organized/scheduled, undertaken for non-commercial or business purposes and requiring travelling away from the place of residence and work" (STANDEVEN & DE KNOP 1999, p. 12). In many definitions, it is also stressed that sports (active) tourism (cf. KAGANEK 2015, p. 33) takes place in touristically attractive circumstances and its participants make use of sports and recreation facilities outdoors (MOKRAS-GRABOWSKA 2015, p. 14).

Sports tourism set against synonymous and related concepts

It seems that discussion on the essence and potential specificity of sports tourism should start from analyzing the two terms which constitute this concept, i.e. sport and tourism, as well as other expressions of related or/and similar meaning to them. The broadest is **physical culture**, understood as "... an expression of a specific approach to one's own body, conscious and active care of one's development, fitness and health, as well as the skill of

¹ It seems that the term 'holidays' used by the authors of the definition may be understood much more broadly – as any 'trip'.

organizing and spending time to maximally benefit one's mental and physical health" (Demel & Skład 1976, after ŁOBOŻEWICZ 2001, p. 18). Even though there were some controversies in the past concerning the role of tourism in physical culture, it is currently accepted that next to sport, physical education, physical recreation and rehabilitation, tourism is the pillar of physical culture, though each of these areas is to some extent an independent social entity. A component which plays a significant role in shaping tourism activity and, consequently, in the study of sports tourism is **physical education**, which may be defined as "a pedagogically formatted form of participating in physical culture by young generations, whose aim is to enhance physical development and health, as well as to maintain and increase these qualities in later life" (GRABOWSKI 1984, p. 24). It performs a preparatory and prospective function in relation to tourism, by shaping the fixed habit of spending free time actively as well as the need to care for one's health and physical fitness. Another phenomenon closely related to tourism is **recreation**, i.e. "... activity undertaken apart from professional, household and social duties for the purpose of recreation, entertainment or the development of one's own personality" (WINIARSKI 1989, p. 9).

While considering sports tourism, however, the key issue is the way we define **sports**. Similar to tourism (as well as other terms quoted above), it can be understood in a variety of ways. One popular definition says that sport is "... an organized form of human activity, aiming – through regular training – at achieving the best results possible, characterized by competition and selection as well as growing commercialization" (Diweckert 1978, after WINIARSKI 1989, p. 12). When discussing sports tourism, however, it is worth adding that apart from this traditional approach (particularly as regards so-called extreme sports), there are also recreational sports which involve those kinds of physical activity which are practiced only in free time, for fun or self-improvement, and at the same time are safe, can be practiced throughout a person's life, giving pleasure and compensating for the deficiencies and hardships of contemporary times.

Does a form of tourism such as 'sports tourism' exist? What should be understood by it and does it fall into the range of currently functioning definitions of tourism?

Assuming that tourism is "all the phenomena connected with people travelling and staying temporarily and voluntarily outside their everyday environment, which involves economic and social interactions among tourism organizers, direct service providers, a local population and the tourists themselves, unless their main aim of travel is gainful activity, paid at the given destination" (ALEJZIAK 1000, p. 29), it should be concluded that sports tourism is a form of tourism as generally understood, and the basis for distinguishing it are its connections with sport, both as regards participation (undertaking physical activity by sports tourists to pursue their interests and for health reasons) and show / performance (organization and tourists' attendance at sporting events). I believe that it is possible to distinguish between several basic components of sports tourism, especially trips in the form of outdoor recreation, trips connected with amateur practice of various sports, trips connected with participating in sporting events and supporting favourite athletes. If I were to formulate my own definition, it might be as follows:

Sports tourism – a form of tourism whose semantic range encompasses both human activity and the activity of various institutions involved in organizing events and providing services for those who travel directly related to it – temporarily and voluntarily and not for gainful purposes – away from their everyday environment, in order to pursue their sports-related interests, either by undertaking physical (sports) activity, or by attending sporting events as spectators.

The drawback of this definition is that it is long, while its advantage is that it makes it possible to quite accurately define what forms of activity (human and institutional), traditionally (rightly or not) associated with sports tourism, can be included in it or not. I have excluded trips which involve just visiting sports facilities (i.e. at the time when no events are being held there) because I do not think this is a sufficient reason to classify such trips as sports tourism. I think that such trips are simply cognitive and sports facilities in this sense do not differ from other types of buildings, which, performing other functions, are visited by tourists as well (e.g. museums, churches, mines, etc.).

From my point of view, it seems important to differentiate between two concepts: **sports tourism** and **sport in tourism**. While the latter refers to sports (recreational) activity which constitutes the tourist activity of the population (basic or just supplementary), the concept of sports tourism additionally includes the activity of various institutions involving the organization of sporting events and providing services for the tourists participating in them. It seems that in this situation, with regard to this part of the broad term 'sports tourism' which concerns 'sport in tourism', we should be using the term 'active tourism'², while the use of the term 'sports tourism' should be restricted to the most general description of the relation between tourism and sport.

² We may also consider using the term 'specialised tourism', which has a long tradition and is frequently used in the Polish literature.

What should be done and what skills (predispositions) are required for sports tourism?

Taking into account what has been written above, this question should in fact refer only to those parts of sports tourism which concerns 'sport in tourism', i.e. active/specialised tourism. There is ample literature on this subject so I will only point out that it requires the participants to be fit and sometimes especially prepared and able to use appropriate equipment (skis, bicycle, sailing boat, etc.). Undertaking some forms of such tourism individually may also formally require having certain permits (e.g. sailing certificates). On the other hand, with regard to sports tourism, the 'predispositions' mentioned in the question may only concern interests in sports, enhanced with a person's willingness to participate in sports-related trips.

Other dimensions and aspects of sports tourism that may provide an object of study

Research into sports tourism focuses above all on the role of sport as a motivation for tourism and a component of tourism event schedules, as well as on the importance of sporting events on the contemporary tourism market, especially large-scale events, such as the Olympic Games or world championships in the most popular sports disciplines (e.g. football). However, sports tourism as broadly understood presents many other issues, interesting from a researcher's point of view, which are relatively rarely discussed or not approached at all.

For instance, it is worth noticing that when looking for areas shared by sports and tourism, it is usually stressed that sport plays a very important role in tourism, while the fact that tourism is also important for sport is rarely appreciated. The same happens as regards the significance of sport as a factor identifying tourism destinations, not only locally or regionally, but also nationally (e.g. Canada – ice hockey; New Zealand – rugby; Norway – cross-country skiing, etc.). So called 'national sports' may be an important marketing tool as regards tourist promotion. In the classification of sports tourists and the destinations they visit, there is a natural contradiction between the concepts of tourist and visitor, resulting from the differences between sport and tourism perspectives. For instance, from the tourism perspective, spectators at an international sporting event who live outside the host city and arrive to see a given event (e.g. a football match) are classified (e.g. at hotels) as tourists, i.e. in the same way as the fans of the opposing team who arrive for the match (often from another country or even continent). From the sports perspective, especially from a psychological point of view, the spectators who arrive to watch their national team feel at home at the stadium, even if they have come from other, distant cities. Thus, participation in the same event differs between sports and tourism perspectives which may be an interesting research issue.

Other issues which are worth investigating are the tourist aspects of a sports career, as well as how to refer to travel by coaches and other 'officials' travelling to sporting events. Are these business trips? Or perhaps, due to the large number they make (to competitions, training camps, etc.), such people should be treated as particularly active 'sports tourists'? A similar problem may concern journalists. As regards this aspect of sports tourism, we may ask a number of research questions about the socio-demographic features of the participants, their behaviour during a journey, the significance and specificity of service and other aspects of the functioning of each of these groups, as well as trying to establish whether and to what extent they may be regarded as sports tourists.

From the epistemological perspective, an interesting research aspect is the affinity of sport and tourism, in the sense that time and space play a particular role in both. No matter whether they are analysed in similar or different dimensions, they play an important role in both these domains (in sport – e.g. in connection with the achieved results; in tourism – in connection with the temporary change of the place of stay, seasonality, etc.). Another interesting issue is the question of turning sport into a commodity which can be studied not only in the context of sports tourism, but also other forms of tourism.

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SPORTS TOURISM: SOME REFLECTIONS ON SEMANTIC MISUNDERSTANDING

In the contemporary world, sport is becoming not only a huge ‘industry’, generating a gigantic turnover, but it is also a significant element of culture. Cities are fighting to organize important sporting events, which are a perfect tool for promoting a given area (destination), creating a positive image for a city and, consequently, stimulating the local economy, including the tourism economy.

As Smith rightly says, “for the local authorities, sports personifies a new era and is a new way for cities suffering from the post-industrial identity crisis” (SMITH 2001, p. 129). Sporting events, the positive emotions they evoke as well as the presence in national and international media, are a very good way to change the image of a city or region.

While in the 1980s sports and tourism were perceived by academics and business as separate domains of human activity, nowadays they are often put together and at the same time attempts are made to establish new semantic rules, not always entirely justifiable.

One such concept is ‘sports tourism’, usually defined as “all forms of active and passive engagement in sports activity, individually or in an organized way, for non-commercial or business-commercial purposes, which require travelling far from home and place of work” (STANDEVEN & DE KNOP 1999, p. 12).

Researchers distinguish four categories of sports tourism: tourism including elements of sport, tourism involving participation in sport, trips for training purposes, and trips to sporting events (WEED & BULL 2004, pp. 124-131).

The question arises whether such a definition of sports tourism does not distort the meaning of the commonly used definition of tourism.

The answer to this question is clear to me: tourism is a single entity while its motivations are many. The motivation to participate in sporting events (actively or passively) is just one of the numerous motivations behind tourist trips. Thus, as it is not an independent ‘entity’, sports tourism is not one either.

Semantic complications involved in sports tourism also refer to the current fashion for an active style of spending one’s free time during holidays or weekends. Is a person who spends their holidays at the seaside, goes jogging, cycling for pleasure or plays tennis, a traditional recreational tourist or perhaps a sports tourist?

It seems justifiable if we understand sports tourism as exclusively those trips where the main motivation is passive attendance at sporting events (fans) or active participation in amateur sporting events (e.g. running marathons, canoeing trips or hiking).

It is hard to call the remaining types of trips sports tourism, because their participants are athletes – professionals (the commercial effect), or people for whom the main goal is sports as such and not those elements which have long been ascribed to tourism.

It is also difficult to find the border between terms already functioning in tourism terminology, such as specialised tourism, active tourism and sports tourism. Similarly, it is hard to point to the skills (predispositions) which sports tourism participants should possess.

Tourists taking part in sport usually take advantage of the general tourism infrastructure (accommodation and gastronomic facilities, transports, tourist information) and sport-recreational facilities available to all tourists regardless of their motivations to travel to recreation destinations. Only a small part of highly specialised sport-recreational facilities is intended only for those with particular skills (e.g. sailing marinas, climbing walls, cycling tracks, etc.), but even these buildings and facilities can be used by tourists who arrive at a destination to spend holidays or weekends there. To me, they are tourists in the traditional sense.

As it is impossible to define sports tourism clearly and precisely, it is difficult to establish its scale and seasonality, or the measures which show what portion of all tourist trips can be treated as sports tourism. It seems

relatively simple to estimate the number of tourists – sports fans present at the most important international sporting events (it is much harder as regards national events), but establishing the scale during holiday or weekend trips is a difficult task. I also believe that it is quite unnecessary.

Nowadays, academic terminology regarding tourism is adopting new, ‘fashionable’ terms which are not academically justifiable and make this terminology semantically chaotic. To my mind, ‘sports tourism’ is one of these terms. It is an expression currently widely used in Polish tourism literature, trying to transform the terms ‘specialised tourism’ and ‘active tourism’ into one joint conceptual aggregate, yet unsuccessfully.

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SPORTS TOURISM: REAL OR VIRTUAL?

In as early as the 1970s, the Polish literature on the subject presented a classification of tourism by the motivations to travel and the types of tourism assets used. According to these criteria, the following types of tourism were distinguished: recreational (recreation as the motivation to travel), sightseeing (cognitive motivation) and specialised (an opportunity to pursue one’s hobby, passion, etc.) (ROGALEWSKI 1974). This classification, though at present a little outdated, is still useful, especially for didactic purposes. Its main drawback, however, is incompleteness, as it does not include certain new forms of tourism which have rapidly developed in recent decades. Its incompleteness also results from expanding the definition of tourism which has started to encompass business trips (business tourism). It seems, however, that in order to discuss the semantic range of the term ‘sports tourism’, the traditional division into sightseeing and specialised tourism may prove useful.

Let us start from establishing the semantic framework of the term ‘sports tourism’. In the literature, it usually includes the following four forms of tourism activity (BONCZAK 2013a, GIBSON 1998, p. 45, MOKRAS-GRABOWSKA 2015, pp. 121-2): 1) trips made in order to watch sporting events (fan tourism); 2) trips made in order to visit sports facilities (e.g. famous stadiums, not necessarily during sporting events); 3) trips made in order to participate in sporting events as competitors¹; 4) trips made in order to undertake various forms of sports activity (without elements of competition²).

Even a superficial analysis of these forms of sports tourism shows that each of them can be ascribed to one of the types of tourism mentioned earlier. Thus, trips made in order to visit sports facilities as special tourism assets (attractions) are a typical example of sightseeing tourism. The situation is similar in the case of so-called ‘fan tourism’, which is a cultural variety of sightseeing tourism (a sporting event as an element of mass culture). On the other hand, active participation in sports competitions, as well as being involved in sports activities without the element of competition meet the traditional criteria of specialised tourism (participants’ skills, the ability to use specialist equipment). It can be seen from this that individual forms of so called ‘sports tourism’ are different in character, despite the fact that they often occur under the same name (Table 1).

This short terminological analysis, defining at least in general the semantic range of the term ‘sports tourism’ as well as its relation to other types of tourism, may be the basis for certain general conclusions. Firstly, is using the term ‘sports tourism’ legitimate (in the sense that it appears in contemporary literature)? It seems that from the cognitive point of view it is not justifiable and may introduce terminological chaos. The term ‘sports tourism’ covers (as was shown in the discussion) various, genetically distinct forms of tourism, while in order to accurately

¹ There are certain doubts whether trips of this type can be classified as tourist trips because a considerable part of them are work-related (professional sport) (BONCZAK 2013b). However, there is also a group of amateur athletes (in the literal sense of the word), who do not treat their participation in the competition as gainful activity.

² It must be stressed that in accordance with the Sports Act of 25th June 2010, “sport is all forms of physical activity which by incidental or arranged participation help to achieve or improve physical and mental strength, develop social relations or achieve sports results on all levels”. This means that competition may but does not have to be an attribute of sports activity.

Table 1. Relations between traditional types of tourism and forms of sports tourism

Types of tourism	Corresponding forms of sports tourism
Sightseeing tourism	Visiting sports facilities
	Watching sporting events (fan tourism)
Specialised tourism	Participating in sports competitions as competitors
	Undertaking various forms of sports activity (without elements of competition)

Source: author.

describe certain relatively new tourism phenomena (forms), it is necessary to clearly establish what form of tourism connected with sports activity is the object of our interest.

This conclusion means that in the ontological sense, there is no such thing as sports tourism. However, there are different forms of tourism which are somehow related to sports activity, but they are so far from one another that it is difficult to find a common denominator for them. For instance, what does a group of football fans travelling to see their team play in the neighbouring town have in common with a sailing trip around the world? At the same time, both forms fit the concept of 'sports tourism', as it is often presented in the literature.

Taking into account the conclusions above, more detailed analyses regarding predispositions to undertaking 'sports tourism', applicable measures, essential infrastructure or development prospects should be conducted with regard to its individual forms, at least those mentioned in this discussion.

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SPORTS TOURISM: A VOICE IN THE DISCUSSION

In M. WEED's (2009) opinion, the concept of sports tourism has been present in the academic literature since the 1960s due to D. ANTHON's (1966) work. Therefore, it seems that the discussion over the fact whether the concept and phenomenon exist would be, in a sense, forcing an open door. However, the whole problem focuses around the definition of the concept, specifying what we understand by it. Finally, would it be a universal definition or 'only' a provisional one each time? It must be said that despite the 50-year-long history of using this term, it is still defined in a variety of ways.

Many researchers set very wide boundaries to sports tourism (e.g. GAWORECKI 2008, GIBSON 1998, 2003, KAZIMIERCZAK & MALCHROWICZ-MOŚKO 2013, MALCHROWICZ 2012, Standeven & De Knop 1999 after BRENT & DARYL 2004). They assume that it involves all forms of active physical activity, as well as passive attendance at sports and sports-recreational events, which require changing a person's everyday environment. It is important that this change may result from the necessity to take on professional duties¹ (e.g. professional athletes), or the activity may be undertaken in one's free time (amateur athletes).

¹ Here, it seems to contradict the definition of the tourist / tourism that is not connected with performing professional duties.

Other authors narrow the meaning of sports tourism down, for example to the form of tourist activity involving attendance at sporting events as a spectator or a competitor (BRENT & DARYL 2004, DZIĘGIEL & LUBOWIECKI-VIKUK 2013, HADZIK 2010, 2014, OLSZEWSKI 2010, BOŃCZAK 2013a, WOJDAKOWSKI & FORMELLA 2009, WYRZYKOWSKI & MARAK 2010). Sports tourism also involves visiting sports facilities (e.g. stadiums, ski jumps) built in contemporary times or as a part of historical heritage, as well as visiting museums of sports (BRENT & DARYL 2004). The term sometimes also encompasses trips whose main goal is active recreation, such as kayaking or horse-riding (Siwiński 2007 after BOŃCZAK 2013b, TALEGHANI & GHAFARY 2014, MERSKI 2002).

The literature on the subject presents several classifications of sports tourism. The most popular one distinguishes the following forms: active sports tourism, event sports tourism and nostalgia sports tourism. The latter refers to visiting historical and modern sports facilities and museums of sports (BERBEKA 2010, BRENT & DARYL 2004, FUNK & BRUUN 2007, ISKRA & WALASZCZYK 2015).

Following some literature studies and an analysis of the findings described above regarding the term 'sports tourism', we would like to present a proposition concerning its content range (Fig. 1). It is necessary to have a comprehensive approach to the understanding of and defining the term 'sports tourism'. In this way, it may be understood as travelling away from the place of everyday life, for the maximum period of one year, when at least one of the main motivations for travel is:

- passively attending sporting or sports-recreational events as a spectator (fan);
- actively participating in sporting or sports-recreational events, for personal (e.g. to do sport as an amateur), or for professional reasons (as athletes);
- visiting sports facilities and museums of sports;
- actively undertaking chosen form(s) of recreational and/or specialised tourism, e.g. skiing, horse-riding, sailing, etc.

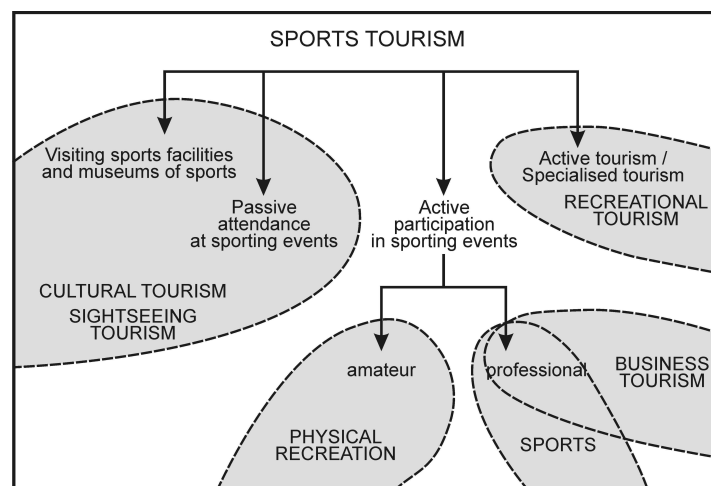


Fig. 1. Forms of human activity constituting the content range of sports tourism
Source: author, based on a literature review

At present, the proposition can be treated as an attempt to look globally at the content range of sports tourism.

In part, defining sports tourism in this way does not refer to and seems to 'contradict' the classical understanding of the concept of the tourist, of who the tourist is. Therefore, the term 'sports tourism' is more of a convenient expression used in media jargon. Despite the fact that we are aware of the confusion concerning the content range of the term, we believe it justifiable to include one-day visitors as 'sports tourists'. In this way we propose a discussion whether this form should include tourist activity lasting less than 24 hours, during which visitors do not use or are not made to use tourism infrastructure and/ or they do not purchase any products or services (e.g. free passive or active participation in sports-recreational events in the neighbouring destinations, lasting several hours). Here, we again come to the question whether it is still tourism or only moving from place to place, mistaken for tourism, where the main motivation is sport. In this way, the whole problem seems to result largely from the changeable nature of the times in which we live, which are ahead not only of statistics, but also the academic world which has trouble describing and understanding the complexity of phenomena and processes. As a result, all problems related to sports tourism, its description and measurement come from the lack of a generally acceptable definition. It is largely due to the fact that the component forms of sports tourism are included in the conception of other types of tourism, such as pop-cultural tourism (MIKOS VON ROHRSCHEIDT 2008), business tourism

(WYRZYKOWSKI & MARAK 2010), or active recreational tourism (BRENT & DARYL 2004). An equally important issue in this case is specifying the subject of sports tourism, defined one way or another. At the same time, we must not forget that in a large part of research we deal with the fragmentariness of presenting sports tourism. It shows in studying 'one' of its manifestations through selected parameters, which results from the complexity of the term and the visible lack of interest in capturing it in official statistics.

Just like other forms of tourism, in sports tourism the basic measures which may define its scale are the number of participants and the amount of income, analysed as absolute or relative in comparative studies. Currently, with the lack of statistics, establishing any measures/indicators would certainly be unrealistic, and it would be impossible to check their usefulness in describing the phenomenon and the degree of diagnostic potential. An equally important element determining the choice of indicators is to assume a given level of spatial reference, or a description of individual events. The lack of clearly specified spatial reference units, as well as multidimensionality, do not allow us to state straightforwardly that seasonality is a feature of sports tourism. To our mind, it is possible to provide evidence of seasonality but at the same time demonstrate that this seasonality does not occur. Moreover, it is important in this discussion whether we talk about sports tourism as a whole or about certain aspects: how to define the time over which we will try to define seasonality (a year, month or week), as well as what differences between individual values will entitle us to confirm its occurrence.

We are convinced that sports tourism, no matter how it is defined, does not require infrastructure dedicated especially to it, apart from that which is necessary to undertake various types of tourism, physical recreation and sports, which constitute sports tourism.

As for the future of sports tourism as an area of academic research, opinions expressed in the literature vary. However, in this case, all depends on the interest of the researchers themselves. The fact that they have been interested in sports tourism for 50 years and that they are discussing it perhaps does not suggest any boom in the research in this field, but proves a constant interest in studying these and related issues. It cannot be denied that sports tourism is gaining in significance.

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A VOICE IN THE DISCUSSION: SPORTS TOURISM

In my opinion, sports tourism can be treated as a separate type, like culinary, film or other forms of cultural tourism as broadly understood. It has already been described by different authors attempting to define and study it. It encompasses all forms of active and passive engagement in sports activities performed away from the place of residence and work (STANDEVEN & DE KNOP 1999). Participating in sports tourism passively or actively depends on the main motivations to choose this type of travel. Depending on whether they are sport or tourism focused (GAMMON & ROBINSON 2004), they divide participants into those who undertake sports tourism with the stress placed on either sport or tourism. In the first case, the participants are more strongly motivated by sport and in the other by tourism. A similar interpretation can be found in the definitions by Polish authors (HADZIK 2008, 2010, KAZIMIERCZAK & MALCHROWICZ-MOŚKO 2015). The division into these two types depending on tourist behaviour is best illustrated in the figure below:

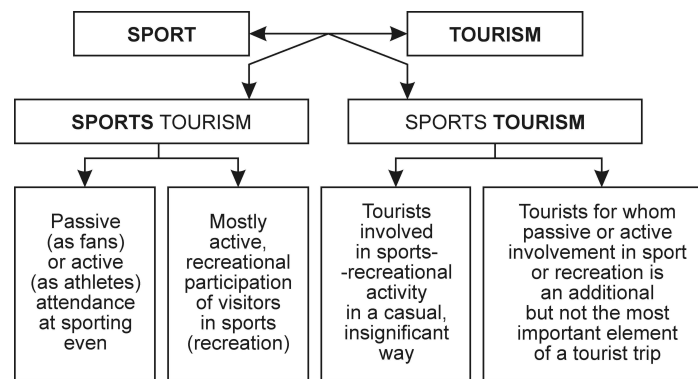


Fig. 1. Sports tourism definition after A. HADZIK (2014)

Moreover, there are the following forms of sports tourism: active sports tourism, sporting event tourism and nostalgia sports tourism (ROSS 2001, HADZIK 2014, pp. 24-30).

Passive sports tourism by supporting one's favourite team does not require special predispositions, except belonging to a community of fans or a personal interest in sports. On the other hand, undertaking active sports tourism requires good health, stamina and the skills characteristic of a given sport.

The basic measure is the number of people participating in sports **tourism** (focusing on tourism) events, and in the case of **sports** tourism (focusing on sports) – the number of fans who have arrived from other destinations to watch the event. The next measure should be the economic effects measured by the tourists' daily spending, the profit made by the organizers and those investing in sports facilities, as well as cities and regions.

Sporting events require modern sports, recreation and tourism infrastructure; investing in stadiums or sports halls increases the attractiveness of cities, an example of which were the facilities built for EURO 2012, or the modern Tauron Arena in Krakow, attracting world sporting events and hosting concerts of world-famous performers. In 2015, the Arena was visited by 500 000 people. The National Stadium in Warsaw is open to organized groups of tourists, and the unsurpassable ideal is the FC Barcelona Experience, which attracts 1.7 million visitors annually (more than the Gaudi Museum). Sports and tourism may be perceived as the competitiveness determinants in cities and regions, and the modern infrastructure created alongside large national and international sporting events help tourism develop. Apart from sports facilities, other types of infrastructure are essential: transport (access roads, parking lots), hotels, gastronomy, and service offices. Modern infrastructure and sporting events held in a given city may be, and often are, the main motivation to visit it.

Sports tourism may become the driving force behind social and economic development. Sporting events and active sports tourism may diversify the tourism product and increase its innovativeness, and as a result – the tourists' satisfaction, the profits from economic activity and the share in the market. They may also create a new image and increase the attractiveness of the tourist offer. Considering the above, I forecast further, dynamic growth in sports tourism.

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SPORTS TOURISM: A VOICE IN THE DISCUSSION

The term 'sports tourism' can be applied to the form of tourism distinguished on the basis on the travel motivation criterion. Thus, it regards the behaviour of consumers who consider sport to be a motivation to go on a tourist trip. This approach does not differentiate between sports tourism which involves sport, and sports tourism which involves participating in sporting events (an approach presented by Middleton). Cultural tourism can be approached in a similar way; it can be undertaken by both those who attend cultural events and those who take advantage of cultural goods in any other way.

When adopting the motivation criterion, we should stress that it is not a strict criterion and the basic assumption is that the tourist goes on a tourist trip for more than one reason. During sports tourism, he or she may also take recreation, sightseeing and other motivations into account.

Considering various sport-related motivations allows us to classify sports tourism more narrowly (travelling in order to take part in sporting events) and more widely (travelling in order to do sport). The fact that it is necessary to provide infrastructure for tourists undertaking sports tourism and that they need to show predispositions and skills resulting from the purpose of travel.

The future of sports tourism is connected with prospective tourist behaviours, as it is the tourists with their preferences who will shape tourism demand and, in agreement with the marketing principle, tourism supply. At present, it is possible to observe a trend towards 'healthy and active living' and a fashion for physical activity, especially among the better-off part of society, the inhabitants of cities and so-called 'rich suburbs'. It can be assumed that it will be reflected in a growing interest in sports tourism.

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SPORTS TOURISM: ACTIVE AND PASSIVE PARTICIPATION IN SPORTING EVENTS (AMATEUR AND PROFESSIONAL)

Sports tourism is a relatively new concept in academic papers devoted to tourism (COOPER et al. 2005, GOŁEMBSKI, ed. 2002, KUREK, ed. 2007), though the phenomenon itself is not new at all. In Europe, the tradition of active or passive attendance at sporting events, away from the permanent place of residence, goes back nearly 3000 years in time (let us take travel to take an passive or active part in the ancient Olympic Games in the 7th c. BC). 'Sports tourism' then has existed for a long time, but until recently it has not been either clearly distinguished or given a name. Since the end of the 20th c. it has become increasingly discernible (on a global scale) from other forms of tourism as a result of the growing mobility of contemporary society, the growing number of attractive sporting events as well as their energetic promotion (GAMMON & ROBINSON 2003, LOMINE & EDUMUNDS 2007, RITCHIE & ADAIR, ed. 2004). Considering the special character of the increasingly popular sports tourism, we can divide it into two groups (passive and active):

1. Travelling for the purpose of passive attendance at sporting events:
 - Hard mass sports tourism (organized groups of fans) or soft mass sports tourism (individual), travelling in order to be a spectator in a football match or other sporting event (including a whole series of competitions: Olympic Games, world championships). It is not a new phenomenon; such journeys were already made in ancient Greece (LIPONSKI 2012).
 - Nostalgia sports tourism – cognitive travel in order to visit places related to great sporting events and sports stars. Tourists are interested in both historical buildings (antique stadiums in Olympia, Delphi, Athens, Ephesus) and modern monumental sports facilities, particularly the seats of famous football clubs (the stadiums of Manchester United, FC Barcelona, Real Madrid). They readily visit sites which are the icons of important sporting events (the Olympic Complex in Beijing, the new Olympic facilities in London, the National Stadium in Warsaw, Wimbledon tennis courts in London). Some of them are extremely popular and visited by hundreds of thousands of tourists annually.
2. Travelling for the purpose of active participation in sporting events:
 - Active sports tourism concerns those who travel in order to take part in a given sport actively. This group of tourists includes both professional athletes for whom it is the way to earn their living¹, and amateurs, craving sporting experiences but treating physical effort in terms of recreation and fun as well and as a method to satisfy their vanity and snobbism. These are often ready to pay a lot of money for a competition entry fee and the opportunity to take part in a prestigious competition, play a tennis or golf match on a famous tennis court or golf course, have the honour of taking part in famous sailing competitions, learn a given sport from the champions and participate on paid courses – in this case, it is an element of educational and specialised tourism (GAMMON & ROBINSON 2003, LOMINE & EDUMUNDS 2007, RITCHIE & ADAIR, ed. 2004, THEOBALD 2005, UNWTO 2003).
 - Adventure sports tourism involves travelling in rough areas, off the beaten track; it is based on the tradition of expeditions to the unknown and the desire to make exciting geographical discoveries, full of hardships and unexpected situations. Nowadays, it is related to disciplines such as high mountain climbing, hiking, or lone sailing. In this case, competing means conquering a difficult summit by climbing a new route or in extreme conditions, or breaking time records in sailing a difficult route. It often overlaps with doom tourism, which is not a new form of tourism; the disciplines mentioned above have been long present in the European culture. It should be pointed out that many activities as a part of adventure sports tourism are traditionally ascribed to specialised tourism (LIPONSKI 2001, 2012).

Answers to other questions asked in the survey conducted by 'Turyzm' editors:

1. Sports tourism (in all its varieties) has existed for several thousand years, but it has been developing particularly dynamically since the end of the 20th c. Its organizers believe that it has a promising future ahead, and even today it generates considerable income and has a positive influence on an economy; it also brings significant non-economic benefits, which we could see in Poland during EURO 2012 (RITCHIE & ADAIR, ed. 2004, UNWTO 2003).
2. Sports tourism (in all its varieties) fits the range of currently accepted definitions of tourism, mostly formulated by UNWTO, on the condition of travelling from one's permanent place of living and spending at least one night away from home during the journey (COOPER *et al.* 2005, GOLEMBSKI, ed. 2002, KUREK, ed. 2007, UNWTO 2012). The definition of 'sport' encompasses only its active forms and some forms of specialised tourism (those where we deal with elements of sports competition) (Lipoński 2001, UNWTO 2003).
3. In order to undertake passive sports tourism (hard, soft or nostalgic), a person does not need any predispositions or special skills, except a fascination with sport, an interest in sporting events and curiosity about the world. These tourists use the infrastructure prepared for ordinary visitors (accommodation and gastronomic facilities, transport, complementary infrastructure).
4. In order to undertake sports tourism actively, a person needs exactly those predispositions, qualifications and specialist equipment which are necessary in a given sport. There will be different requirements for water sports (sailing, kayaking or windsurfing), winter sports (snowboard, skiing, skating), to climb high mountains or play golf. Obviously, a part of the basic tourism infrastructure (accommodation, gastronomy, transport, elements of complementary infrastructure) remains unchanged, as it is needed by tourists regardless of the sports and the kind of participation.
5. Traditionally, the seasonality of many sports has been related to specific topographic and climatic conditions. At present, new technologies allow us to engage in many sports' disciplines, which used to depend on

¹ It seems that during trips to sports competitions or training sessions, professional athletes should be classified as 'tourists' (by analogy to business tourism and business trips – according to the criteria established by UN WTO).

the season and region, all year round (LIPONSKI 2012). Naturally, the romantic atmosphere of natural conditions is irreplaceable.

6. It seems that to make planning research on sports tourism easier, as well as to establish clear categories and parameters, we should distinguish the following segments: a) passive and active sports tourism; b) travel whose main purpose is to undertake sports and not other reasons and motivations; c) the division into professionals and amateurs (GAMMON & ROBINSON 2003, LOMINE & EDUMUNDS 2007, RITCHIE & ADAIR, ed. 2004, UNWTO 2003).

It must be stressed that sports tourism (like other forms) rarely occurs in a 'pure' form. It can be assumed that during a trip its participants will be also taking part in cognitive (cultural, sightseeing, educational), business or recreational tourism. Therefore, attempts to define, study and measure the scale of involvement using statistical methods may turn out to be quite complicated because it is sometimes difficult to identify the main purpose of travel (KORSTANJE 2007, RITCHIE & ADAIR, ed. 2004, THEOBALD 2005).

To conclude, here is a general remark concerning the potential danger of trying at any cost to precisely define and categorise concepts which by their nature lie on the borderline of various phenomena. This is often impossible and as regards sports tourism, it may lead to the excessively expanding (or narrowing) of this term, distorting this concept and diverting from the popular meaning applied intuitively in everyday language by the whole of society.

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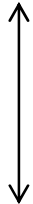
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SPORTS TOURISM: AN ATTEMPT TO DEFINE THE CONCEPT

The attempt to define the concept of 'sports tourism' requires reference to the meaning of the basic terms, 'tourism' and 'sports'. Tourism is a subset of journeys and is defined as "all activities performed by persons who travel and stay for recreational, business or other reasons, for not longer than one year without breaks, away from their everyday environment, except trips where the main aim is earning activity, paid at a given destination" (UNWTO 1991, after KUREK & MIKA 2007, p. 12). Thus, the basic criteria for identifying tourism trips include the following: a temporary change of the place of stay, a change of the surroundings (a trip away from the everyday environment) and the motivation to travel (presented in detail in *International Recommendations for Tourism Statistics* 2008). Sport, on the other hand, signifies "all forms of physical activity, which by occasional or organized participation have an influence on building up or improving one's physical and mental condition, the development of social relations and achieving sports results at all levels" (Sports Act of 25 June 2010).

In the context of the above definitions, in the classification of tourism types based on the travel aim criterion, we may distinguish sports tourism, understood as a kind of tourism where the main aim is physical activity, participation in sporting events or visiting sports facilities (GIBSON 1998, ROSS 2001, MOKRAS-GRABOWSKA 2015). Diversifying the aims of travel and the degree of physical activity undertaken by tourists (Table 1) is the reason

Table 1. Sports tourism classification by aims of travel

Main aim of travel	Type of tourism	Physical activity
Visiting sports facilities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Nostalgia sports tourism • Supporters' tourism ✓ <i>Groundspotting</i> 	low  large
Travelling with athletes, following athletes (relatives, idols)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Supporters' tourism: ✓ Event sports tourism 	
Participating in sporting events	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Fan tourism ✓ <i>Groundhopping</i> 	
Amateur physical activity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Active tourism • Specialist tourism • Specialised tourism 	
Professional physical activity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Athletes' tourism 	

Groundspotting – visiting sports facilities (outside sporting events).

Groundhopping – ‘jumping from pitch to pitch’ in order to take part in the maximum number of sporting events.

Source: author, based on: H.J. GIBSON (1998), D. ROSS (2001), J. MOKRAS-GRABOWSKA (2015), A. STASIAK & B. WŁODARCZYK (2015).

why sports tourism cannot be treated as a homogenous phenomenon. From the point of view of sports tourism – the tourist – participating in this type of trip may on the one hand (scale of activity) not require any special physical predisposition (visiting, observation), but on the other, it may refer to trips made by professional athletes.

Including trips made by professional athletes (training, competitions), tourism travel is analogous to travel related to work as a part of business tourism (STASIAK & WŁODARCZYK 2015).

The large diversity, not only as regards the activities and fitness of sports tourism participants, but also the objects and subjects of their interest (facilities, events, sports teams, competitors – athletes), is the reason why it is very difficult to define the conditions of sports tourism development, related to the type of necessary infrastructure. Trips of this kind may not require any infrastructure (e.g. swimming in a lake, climbing mountains), but they may also strongly depend on the occurrence of specific sports infrastructure (e.g. visiting stadiums, attending mass events on stadiums, arenas and sports halls).

The diversification of sports tourism types also causes problems with measuring its scale and its features (e.g. seasonality, kinds of tourism, directions of travel, sites). In the case of sports tourism connected with visiting ticketed facilities, using paid equipment (e.g. ski lifts) or attending events, one of the basic measures is the number of tickets sold. Monitoring changes in the attendance, those visiting facilities and using infrastructure make it possible to establish the scale of these forms of sports tourism and their variation over time. The source of information regarding trips made by professional athletes are sports organizations, clubs (number of trips, number of athletes, directions of travel, length of stay, seasonality, cost of travel, etc.), as well as the accommodation facilities where they stay. The most difficult is to define the scale of the sports tourism phenomenon related to the activity of amateurs, which does not require paid infrastructure. Identifying this type of tourist among all travellers requires research concerning motivations for travel.

The growing diversity of types of tourism, which can be defined as sports tourism, their rapidly growing popularity (e.g. marathons, hiking, trips of the groundspotting and groundhopping type) reflects the changes/transformations taking place in the style of living of contemporary societies, increasingly oriented towards physical activity. Adding tourism development forecasts (*Tourism towards 2030*), we may expect further growth in sports tourism in the near future both in the quantitative and qualitative sense (an increasing number of participants and a growing diversity of forms, respectively).

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