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A SCIENTIFIC EXPLANATION AND UNDERSTANDING OF EPISTEMOLOGICAL ISSUES IN TOURISM RESEARCH (A STUDY BASED ON THE THEORIES OF KURT LEWIN AND JOHN TRIBE)

Abstract: The article presents the essence as well as various models of academic explanation and the explanatory value of understanding, indicating their usability and limitations as regards understanding why and how tourism functions. Particular attention has been paid to the epistemological dimension of tourism research, as well as its new directions. The author has referred to two models concerning the epistemological aspects of tourism research where the focal point is the category of 'truth about tourism'. These have been presented in two articles by John Tribe.

Keywords: tourism, tourism research, theory, typology, explanation, understanding, prediction, epistemology.

1. INTRODUCTION

One of the foundations of knowledge is the assumption that there is a recognizable regularity and a specific order in the real world which makes it possible to sort out and 'structure' different areas of social and economic reality (Frankfurt-Nachmias, Nachmias, 2001). Following this assumption, regardless of the intensity of changes taking place on the contemporary tourism market, academic research tries to explain various facts, processes, phenomena, etc. In the case of such a multi-faceted and dynamic phenomenon as tourism however, it is not easy, especially as tourism research, regardless of the progress achieved in recent years (Alejziak, 2005; Butler, 2015; Butowski, 2014; Dann, Nash, Pearce, 1988; Jafari, 2001; Liburd, 2012; Oviedo-García, 2016; Ritchie, Burns, Palmer, 2005), is still at an early stage of development (Alejziak, 2008a; Ballantyne, Packer, Axelsen, 2009; Benckendorff, Zehrer, 2013; Pearce, Butler, 1993; Tribe, 1997, 2006, 2010). As for an evaluation of tourism research, it is also very important to remember that it is currently an object of interest for representatives of many academic disciplines who use varying approaches and take different methodological perspectives in their work (Alejziak, 2008b; Hall, Williams, Lew, 2004; Theuns, 1986; Winiarski, 2003, 2004; Xiao, Smith, 2004). This is clearly visible in the wide range of academic explanation types, as well as in the specific way in which other academic functions (understanding and predicting) are performed. For these reasons, the analysis and evaluation of tourism research is not simple, especially from an epistemological perspective.

By performing three basic functions: descriptive, explanatory and prognostic (Brzeziński, 2005), science aims to provide verifiable knowledge which helps to explain, predict and understand empirical phenomena as well as the features and/or performance of processes, ideas, etc. which are dealt with in a given discipline. In tourism research, we deal with an exceptionally broad range of research problems and issues, including the spheres of culture (society, economy) and nature (environment). It is vital for the discussion presented later in the article that all three functions, though characteristic of all disciplines, are performed differently in natural sciences than in the social sciences and humanities. This particularly concerns explanation, frequently considered to perform the superior function.[1]

Scientific explanation is widely discussed in various academic disciplines. An important issue (especially from the epistemological perspective) is whether explanation is more about explaining what is unknown by what is visually known, as postulated by Aristotle,

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or is it about explaining what is visually known by what is unknown, i.e. about enhancing our knowledge about the world, as postulated by Karl Popper (*cf.* Bogucka, 1991). Simply put, it can be assumed that, in terms of science, explanation involves analysing and locating what we explain in the context of its current state, as well as trying to find a proper place for a given object, fact or regularity among issues and explanations already known and accepted by science. Explaining tourism phenomena encounters numerous difficulties due to the fact that research and academic knowledge about tourism is still at an early stage of development and the theories related to it have many faults. Let us take the example of theories and explanations regarding exclusion factors as inhibitors of tourist activity. They are usually explained on the grounds of attribution theory while their causes are not indicated (Alejziak, 2016) and even its researchers are often unaware of them. Generally speaking, there are not many well-grounded theories (let alone laws) in tourism which could be the basis of scientific explanation and understanding of its phenomena. As a result, explanation is largely based on typologization and simple modelling (Alejziak, 2013).

The essence of scientific explanation is often referred to as a process which aims to provide an answer to the question 'why?'.[2] Without going into much detail concerning the relativity of this question (the discussion of the issue is developed in a number of other academic disciplines), this article focuses on an analysis of different types and the role of explanation in tourism research, as well as on the epistemological problems of the knowledge it provides. These issues seem to be extremely important for the further development of tourism research and knowledge, especially if they involve changes in knowledge acquisition and transfer.

2. EXPLANATION AS A FUNCTION OF SCIENCE: ITS ESSENCE AND TYPES OF EXPLANATION

Academic explanation may be viewed from two perspectives coming from different traditions of approaching these issues on the grounds of scientific philosophy, which was presented in a concise way in *Filozofia a nauka. Zarys encyklopedyczny* (1987):

> On the one hand, to explain a fact means as much as to indicate a general regularity, whose particular case is the following: 'An individual fact is said to be explained by pointing out its cause, that is, by stating the law or laws of causation, of which its production is an instance' (John Stuart Mill). According to the other approach, to explain a phenomenon means indicating the law revealing its nature; to understand a phenomenon is as much as 'express its essence in the form of a concept' (Georg Hegel, after: *Filozofia a nauka…*, 1987, p. 741).

It should be remembered that the laws of science may reflect substantial, attributive, cause-and-effect, functional and structural relationships of what is studied. It is assumed then that this can also be characteristic of explanation.[3] In the explanation process, we apply different categories, the most important of which include essence, law, cause, function and structure (Nikitin, 1975, p. 33). Occasionally, these categories are treated as equivalent, but in reality, for instance, the gnoseological theory of explanation assumes that is has a complex structure, consisting of hierarchically ordered levels. At the highest level, there is the category of 'essence', which makes it possible to discover and provide the most general description of the nature of explanation; lower we find a law which reveals the basic mechanism of the explanation procedure; while the lowest level is constituted of categories such as cause, function, structure, etc. which provide a more specific and fuller description. It is only at the last level that the transition from explaining in general to identifying its individual type takes place.

The classic model of academic explanation was proposed by Hempel & Oppenheim (1948, 135-175; after Nagel, 1985) who first developed the original model of deductive-nomological explanation (Gr. *nomos* – law),[4] extended later with the hypothetico-deductive explanation model. In the deductive-nomological model (D-N), the phenomenon which is to be explained (as well as the sentence defining it) is referred to as an *explanandum* (Latin – 'what is to be explained'), while the element which is used to explain the phenomenon with is called the *explanans* (Latin – 'explanation'). Every *explanans* is composed of two methodologically different parts: sentences representing individual facts and sentences representing general regularities. The essence of this model of explanation is deductive reasoning, whose conclusion is an *explanandum* sentence E, while the set of premises is the *explanans*, consisting of general laws L_1, $L_2,\ldots$, L_r and sentences C_1, $C_2,\ldots$, C_k, adducing certain individual facts, as illustrated in the model below:[5]

$$(D-N)\ \frac{\begin{matrix} L_1, L_2, \ldots, L_\mathrm{r} \\ C_1, C_2, \ldots, C_\mathrm{r} \end{matrix}}{E} \quad \begin{matrix} \\ Eksplanans \\ Eksplanandum \end{matrix}$$

The *explanandum* is usually a sentence (or a set of sentences) describing a given fact (system, phenomenon, process, etc.), though it may also be an empirical generalization, law or academic theory. The *explanans*, on the other hand, consists of a set of explanatory sentences which state certain individual facts (boundary conditions). With the help of the deductive-nomological model, based on research and the knowledge it provides, we can explain individual facts (e.g. why X is a tourist more often than Y), as well as general regularities (e.g. why people living in cities are more active tourism-wise than those who live in the countryside).

According to Nikitin, logically speaking, two basic conditions can be indicated for the *explanandum* and four for the *explanans*. The *explanandum* should provide a precise and exact model (in the linguistic sense) of what is being explained, and it should be true. On the other hand, the *explanans* should mirror the same area as the *explanandum*, contain at least one scientific law, and formulate the conditions under which the *explanandum* is covered by such a law. Moreover, from the point of view of the information it contains, it cannot be identified with the *explanandum*, or contain it as a part (Nikitin, 1970, after Lubański, 1972).

It should be emphasized that not every kind of explanation is scientific. Hempel & Oppenheim stated the conditions that must be fulfilled to make an explanation scientific: the *explanandum* must be a logical consequence of the *explanans*, the sentences forming the *explanans* must be true, and the *explanans* itself must contain at least one general law and have empirical content.

The literature on scientific methodology provides many typologies of explanation as well as descriptions of the usefulness of different types in individual academic disciplines. Their diversity and basic uses are presented in Table 1.

Explanation may be classified in various ways based on different criteria. In Table 1, the author partly used the classification and description of different types of explanation presented by Waszczyk & Szczerbicki (2003), modifying at the same time the earlier conceptions developed by Nikitin.[6] Among the numerous types of explanation identified in various classifications, it is worth mentioning three more: intentional, co-existential and theoriological.

Intentional explanation is typical of social sciences (mainly psychology), revealing the immense complexity of cultural and social interactions among individuals. It refers to the intentions (intended aims) of active individuals, so it is essentially similar to teleological explanation containing certain elements of functional explanation as well. Intentional explanation basically involves indicating the future state towards which the activity being described is supposed to lead. However, the general model of this explanation should include not only someone's goals and desires. A person acting with a certain intention in mind chooses a specific mode of action because they are convinced that it is the right means to achieve the goal. This conviction is connected with other convictions concerning the present state as well as causal relationships between the means and the goal. Thus, with intentional explanation, we should consider the relationship between desires, convictions and action (Strawiński, 2011, p. 326).

Co-existential explanation involves referring to a law which indicates permanent relationships among the features of what is being explained, according to the following formula: 'for every x, if x is characterized by W, x is also characterized by Z'. According to Waszczyk (who refers to Bunge, Nikitin and Hajduk), in this context we can mention such types of explanation as structural, substantial-attributive and systemic, because "… to simplify, it can be assumed that the types of explanation mentioned above, as well as explanation by classifying (taxonomic) and referring to another level of phenomena, are based on co-existential laws, so each of them can be referred to as co-existential explanation" (*cf.* Waszczyk, 1996, p. 148).

In **theoriological explanation**, the *explanandum* is a specific theory, understood as a structurally organized system of laws. While in other types of explanation, the *explanans* features a specific law (or set of laws), and the related theory that has been applied is often implicit, in theoriological explanation, the *explanans* must contain a clearly defined theory which explains the *explanandum*,[7] and which is, in a way, 'covered' by another, more popular but slightly modified theory (changing the boundary conditions). Then, 'something less known' is explained by 'something better known'.

When analysing the functions, types and uses of academic explanation, we should remember that its different functions may interpenetrate and link to one another,[8] and in addition some of them may be formulated in such a way (by translating the formula of laws of one kind to another) that they assume a different form: causal or co-existential, or teleological, or probabilistic. It must be remembered, however, that such 'reformulating' may be misleading. For example, functional laws, despite the fact that they can be approached causally, infact are not causal at all, because they usually do not meet the condition of asymmetry as the majority of functional relations are symmetrical and do not change when cause and effect 'swap over' (Bunge, 1968).

It is also worth adding that not every scientific explanation is based on a universal (general) truth and this is particularly significant in the case of discussion anchored in epistemology. The dilemmas related to discovering universal truth are particularly noticeable in social sciences in which there are relatively few universal generalizations. That is why social sciences widely use probabilistic explanation[9] which refers to generalizations expressing either the arithmetical relation/ratio of one phenomenon to another (n % X = Y), or certain tendencies (X tends to generate Y). The most important

Table 1. Basic types of academic explanation

Identification based on the character of the laws used in the *explanans*	
Teleological (purpose-focused) explanation	It refers to the rule which assumes that the final state of a given *explanandum* phenomenon (e.g. an event) has a significant impact on the state which is being explained. Thus, it consists in searching for the purpose of a given event. The basic question which can be helpful in teleological interpretation is 'what for?' (e.g., What did the event occur for?). In teleological explanation, we are searching for a purpose which 'something' (a fact, structure, event, circumstances) serves or will serve in the future.
Functional explanation	It indicates the function performed in a given system (e.g. economy) by the *explanandum* phenomenon (e.g. tourism market). Thus, it is about referring to the law which states a given relationship between an element and the system. Due to the fact that functional laws can be classified as a certain type of co-existential laws, functional explanation is often interpreted as substantial-attributive or systemic explanation. Some believe that it is a kind of teleological explanation (assuming that it is actually a description rather than an explanation).
Genetic explanation	It establishes the transformations which the *explanandum* phenomenon undergoes over a period of time. Its significant feature is the identification of circumstances in which the transformations take place by examining the factors causing the changes. To explain the origins of something is to answer the question how (but also where from) it originated, remembering that circumstances and causes often do not have an immediate and direct effect, and they have consequences occurring later in time. Therefore, mainly those factors are taken into consideration which display some substantial or structural bond with the phenomenon that is being explained. Some scholars claim that genetic (historical) explanation is a type of causal explanation.
Causal explanation	It refers to laws which may be generally covered by the following rule: 'the same causes, in the same conditions, produce the same results'. In this explanation, we often identify a number of intermediate stages which the system had gone through before it reached the state presently explained. A kind of causal explanation is consequential explanation, also referred to as 'inverted' causal explanation. While causal explanation reveals the essence as 'something' passive (generated by 'something'), consequential explanation presents the essence as an active (causal) beginning. In causal explanation, the essence of what is being explained occurs as an effect, and in consequential explanation – it functions as an active cause. Consequential explanation is not homogenous, and its effectiveness depends on how permanent the effects generated are.
Probabilistic explanation	Here, the *explanandum* is explained by referring to the statistical law, which extrapolates the distribution of variables in a statistical sample to the whole population. Despite criticism, it is currently the most popular type of explanation in social sciences (especially in economics). If we assume strict determinism, statistical laws are formulated only because it is impossible to know all the factors of a given event taking place. As regards criticism of this type of explanation, it is worth recalling Bunge's maxim, which says that "rejecting statistical explanation would be as silly as considering it to be finite" (Bunge, 1968, p. 366).
Identification based on the type of the *explanans – explanandum relationship*:	
Explanation through a law (theory, hypothesis)	The *explanans* enters into a direct relationship with the *explanandum*. Analogy is not used here, but it is stated directly that 'it happens so because…' (or: 'usually, in certain conditions – i.e. statistically, it happens so and so'). The term used to refer to this explanation refers to the fact that a given object is explained through a law approximating an objective law of a given objective domain (own laws). The law (hypothesis) used for explanation must have an adequate 'explanatory quality' (Nikitin, 1975, pp. 49-51).
Model explanation	It is increasingly used in contemporary science because real objects are sometimes inaccessible (usually due to their complexity and difficulties in direct recognition). Then, the model plays the role of an intermediary mirroring the reality, and the laws of the model are used in the *explanans* as explanatory laws. In order for such a procedure to be valid, the model must meet certain conditions. The two most important ones are 'isomorphism' and 'homomorphism'. The former assumes that the model must always be similar to the original, and the latter – that it must be different from it; otherwise modelling would be senseless (Bunge, 1968). This type of explanation is sometimes criticised because it often features an analogy, while the classic model is based on deduction.

Source: author, based on: Nikitin (1975), Waszczyk, Szczerbicki (2003), Apanowicz (2000).

limitation to probabilistic (inductive) generalizations is that, compared to general laws, the conclusions concerning specific cases cannot be drawn with complete certainty.[10] According to some researchers, probabilistic explanation is in fact only one of the extensions of the classical model of explanation which stems from the fact that in the empirical sciences, in addition to explicit laws, there are also statistical laws which state that the occurrence of events of a particular type is probable provided events of another type take place.

Despite the multitude and diversity presented above, there are, in fact, three most common types of explanation: teleological (purposeful), genetic and functional (Table 2).

Despite the fact that tourism studies are conducted by representatives of various disciplines, where the mean-

Table 2. Three main types of scientific explanation: their basic concepts and questions, as well as uses in various domains of social sciences and the humanities

Basic types of scientific explanation			
Type of explanation	Basic concepts	Basic question	Use
Intentional	sign – meaning	'What did he mean to achieve/ say?'	– psychology – hermeneutics, text interpretations – nce predominant type of causality (reading signs, messages, intentions)
Functional	structure – function	'What role does it play?', 'What does it give?'	– biology and natural sciences, theory of evolution, theory of systems – functionalism in sociology – evolutionary orientations in psychology
Genetic	situation – origins	'How did it come about?', 'How did it happen?'	– history, – psychology (narrative theories of the mind)

Source: based on: Nikitin (1975), Grobler (2006), Alejziak (2016).

ing of individual functions ascribed is not always the same, and where different kinds of methodological apparatus are used, it is explanation that is usually considered to be of key importance.[11] It is believed that it has a crucial influence on developing theories regarding tourist behaviours and the effects of tourism (economic, social, cultural, environmental, etc.). A similar opinion, with reference to all of science, was voiced by Karl Popper:

> I believe that the goal of science is to search for good explanations to everything that, in our opinion, needs to be explained […] it must be explanation provided by means of verifiable and falsified universal truths and initial conditions. […] The supposition that the goal of science is to search for good explanations leads us to the idea of a gradual improvement of explanations by raising the level of their verifiability, i.e. by moving over to theories which are more verifiable, to theories of larger content, higher degree of universality and higher degree of precision (Popper, 1992, p. 252, after Strawiński, 2011, p. 323).

In this context, we should emphasize the considerable significance that the choice of the proper type of explanation, which should be adjusted to the character of the phenomena under study, has for research results and the theories based on them. Regrettably, in tourism studies, the situation is not good in this respect, as a result of which explanations are often quite general and do not go too deep into the 'essence of the matter'. In this situation, if we are satisfied with the simplest explanations, some important issues remain undiscovered (unexplained), left in the 'hidden dimensions of explanation'.

As an example, let us take a model of analysis concerning an explanation of the causes of a lack of tourist activity which the author presented at the 4th Forum of European Tourism: "Future in tourism – tourism in the future", held in Wrocław and Polanica Zdrój, in 2017.[12]

Let us hypothetically assume a situation in which we are informed that *John did not fly for a pilgrimage to Rome*. Trying to explain it, we first think about the lack of activity (participation in this trip), and especially its reason/reasons. Therefore, we will probably ask: ***Why** didn't John fly for a pilgrimage to Rome?* (Question 1) because that is what is done in the basic model of research on tourist activity. Through this question (putting the stress on **why**), we may find the answer concerning the reason (or reasons) and explain the lack of participation in the pilgrimage. But let us think what will happen if we accentuate something else in an identically formulated question:

- Question 2 – *Why didn't **John** fly for a pilgrimage to Rome?* while other students in his class or other company employees did;
- Question 3 – *Why didn't John **fly** for a pilgrimage to Rome?* and 'lost' two or even more days, going by car or train;
- Question 4 – *Why didn't John fly **for a pilgrimage** to Rome?* but, for instance, for a football match AS Roma – FC Barcelona;
- Question 5 – *Why didn't John fly for a pilgrimage **to Rome**?* but travelled, e.g., to Fatima or Częstochowa.

Let us notice how accentuating different words in the same question (*Why didn't John fly for a pilgrimage to Rome?*) changes the area of analysis and the explanative aspects of reasoning, broadening the spectrum of the analysed aspects of the phenomenon and increasing the possibilities of a full explanation of the same fact (*John didn't fly for a pilgrimage to Rome*).

In each of the five identical sentences (questions) where different words are accentuated, we deal with a completely different area of tourism knowledge, as well as with different issues that need to be examined and explained. Question 1 is about tourist needs, motivations and preferences. Question 2 is about the conditions and factors determining the level and structure of tourist activity, and especially issues of social differences in this respect. Question 3 examines a huge area of knowledge regarding the role of transport in tourism, the significance of individual means of transport, etc. Question 4 additionally reveals (apart from the issue of motivation) the diversity of the offer which can be used by contemporary tourists as well as forms of participating in tourism. Finally, Question 5 opens another huge area of tourism knowledge – space and geography – the diverse locations of tourist attractions, directions of tourists, etc. Each of these questions (or actually one question with different words accentuated) presents a quite different area of tourism knowledge – starting from psychology, through sociology, economics, marketing, transport, geography, etc – which, taking the traditional approach (without different accentuation) we are not aware of and we would not take it into consideration during an explanation. Moreover, it is noteworthy that in most questions (2-6), we actually do not have to deal with the lack of tourist activity (lack of trip) but just with different forms of participating in tourism.

The example above shows something more than the problems and some hidden dimensions of scientific explanation, or the fact that it may be of a pragmatic nature, depending not only on the context but also on the person who does the explaining and the person who expects the explanation.[13] This example, which illustrates yet another type, i.e. erotetic explanation (Kuipers, Wiśniewski, 1994),[14] shows above all that in tourism studies we should not reject new approaches and we should try and discover various (sometimes hidden) dimensions of explanation. Only by constantly looking for new inspirations as regards explaining the laws and mechanisms governing tourism, will we be able to formulate new questions and research hypotheses going beyond set patterns. Then, perhaps, the phenomenon we are all studying will reveal its other, interesting and so far hidden face, and we will have a right to say that we have substantially benefited knowledge. Therefore, in the next part of the article, the author will try to present the links and relationships between explanation and understanding as well as prediction. He will also describe their importance for the epistemological dimension and further development of tourism research and, consequently, also for the development of this important and dynamically growing domain of social and economic life.

3. UNDERSTANDING AND PREDICTION AS FUNCTIONS OF SCIENCE

Scientific explanations become reliable and valuable only when they have been tested. Testing is largely connected with another function: prediction (previdism). To put it simply, it is a procedure for deriving knowledge about the future from knowledge about the past and the present. We may talk about prediction with reference to prognostics (talking about future events), as well as postgnostics or retrognostics, when we refer to facts which, in our opinion, took place in the past but were not recognized (Heller, 1992). Predicting and explaining (as well as understanding) are mutually complementary functions, although from the epistemological point of view, they are 'irreplaceable'.

3.1. PREDICTION

Logic-wise, prediction is, on the one hand the same, and on another, contrary to explanation.[15] In both cases, we are to deduct something from a set of accepted laws and sentences about facts. The difference lies in the starting points: in explanation, it is an accepted statement describing the fact for which we are seeking arguments that would explain it. In prediction, we start from a set of accepted laws and statements about facts, describing verified cases of these laws. Going from here, we deduce the statement describing the predicted fact, and its actual occurrence confirms the prediction. In prediction, we make a prognosis based on the *explanans* constructed in the process of explaining. It does not mean, however, that the epistemological role of these two research procedures is the same.[16] The expectation that scientific knowledge should lead to accurate prediction is based on the thesis that if X causes Y and X has taken place, then it can be predicted that Y will also take place. This expectation is based on the assumption that both general laws and probabilistic generalizations are recognizable and true. However, it is not always so, especially as regards social sciences, which we often criticize because though they are able to explain some facts and phenomena, they are often unable to predict them. What is helpful in this situation is understanding.

3.2. UNDERSTANDING

According to Ablewicz (2003, p. 92), it was only in the 20th century that people noticed that understanding is a universal human cognitive procedure "… fulfilling and constituting the basic structure of the person's relation with themselves and with all that it is not them". Compared to the remaining cognitive procedures and functions of science (explanation and prediction), understanding is much more difficult to define and operationalize (Czarnowska, 1991). The difficulty lies in the fact that the term 'understanding' is used in two meanings: predictive, and one based on empathy which is often defined as the '*Verstehen*' type.[17]

Predictive understanding is represented particularly by representatives of, so called, logical empiricism, who assume that in social and natural sciences, it is possible to acquire objective knowledge, referring to the same methodological rules. Nowadays, however, this approach has few followers. Another approach prevails which is based on a reverse assumption and defines understanding in terms of searching and recognizing meanings hidden under observable things (facts, phenomena, etc.). In this approach, it is assumed that human activities are not axiologically neutral which makes research results dependent on value. Thus, in this approach, understanding aims above all as capturing (by 'sensing') what is unique and exceptional in human activities.

The problem of understanding particularly concerns social sciences and humanities, where the object of study is the human being, and the researchers are a part of the subject of their academic discipline. It had already been noticed by Max Weber (representing, so called, 'understanding sociology') who presented a person as an individual who interprets his/ her activities and the activities of other people by indicating that they may have different meanings. He decided that since people interpret one another's activities then this fact must not be ignored in constructing social theories. However, a truly substantial contribution to the development of the theory of understanding was made by Wilhelm Dilthey who was among the first to reject the positivist thesis about the methodological unity of science. While searching for an objective status of humanistic cognition, he abandoned the psychological theory of understanding which connected it with 'sensing' the intentions of another person, while it is in fact this person who is the object to be understood. Knowing the drawbacks in the social studies methodology used earlier, Dilthey pointed at the same time to the potential usefulness of the hermeneutic approach, according to which understanding should be considered in the context of human existence and human cognition. The main part of the discussion about understanding is based on hermeneutics which has made understanding the basic object of study (Szulakiewicz, 2004).[18]

When deliberating over the essence and mechanism of understanding, many authors use the metaphor of a circle or spiral (Ablewicz, 1998; Gadamer, 1993). They assume that understanding something, we move forward, but not linearly by adding consecutive pieces of information e.g. successive in time. Instead, we deal with circular motion, moving from a certain point to the object of cognition, following a circular path. When cognition reaches the furthest point, which is our goal, it returns, but not along the same route because it has already been changed. It must go to the beginning, i.e. to the place where it originated, but due to the 'journey' this place is not the same any more, either. It lies a little 'above' the starting point and surpasses the previous one in richness of knowledge. Thus, we deal with a form of a spiral.

Such constant movement 'from-to' is first of all the movement 'from what is subjective to what is objective'. An individual always learns the objective, using their own subjectivity as a point of departure. Having encountered it (it does not matter whether it is natural or cultural), the person returns 'to him/herself' and based on such subjectivity builds an understanding of the world and themselves. Formally speaking, this is moving 'from the particular to the general' and they are strongly interrelated. A change in the smallest part causes a qualitative change in the whole. Every new experience (a book that has been read, a conversation with another person, contact with nature, etc.) changes a human being as a whole, altering (depending on the type of the experience to a greater or lesser degree) their perception of the world, attitude to reality, people, etc. Sense may be read correctly only in the context of an individual's life, perceived as a whole.

The term 'understanding' is often considered in a broader sense than that presented above when it goes beyond the simple interpretation of its function as regards cognition. According to Ludwig Landgrebe, understanding does not just accompany cognition, but in fact is its foundation. He believes that before scholars start research, they already possess certain resources of understanding because "… everything that we are given, we first and foremost understand in the sense it has for us. Every understanding is 'entangled' in some meaning. The meaning of 'for us' is very important here because it is only through abstraction that we arrive at a pure 'object', which is the object of study" (Landgrebe, 1993, p. 200). In order to see it in such an objective form, we must consciously isolate it from the whole that we experience. The problem, however, is that this process of isolating is already based on some understanding which has built a specific research perspective. Martin Heidegger and Hans Georg Gadamer called it *pre-understanding*, and considered it to be one of the central concepts and, at the same time, a major goal in hermeneutics (Czarnowska, 1991).

Thus, in hermeneutics, understanding is treated not only as a cognitive process, but much more broadly. It stems from the assumption that a person (researcher) experiences two basic (epistemologically speaking) facts: that s/he is and that s/he learns. According to Ablewicz, "in the ontological sense, a human being is 'predestined to an existence of understanding'. In this meaning, understanding in a way precedes knowledge. Consequently, even the assumptions of empirical studies based on theories derived from such studies which most aspire to objectivity, are based on non-empirical premises" (Ablewicz, 2003, p. 94). Following this, three levels of understanding can be identified which are added overlaying one another: existence, cognition and research level (Ablewicz, 2003). Looking from this perspective, the circular (spiral) structure described earlier, characteristic of understanding, is preserved (Ablewicz, 1998).

Hermeneutics looks for understandings and meanings, but this search in fact never ends. Researchers face new contexts all the time. Understanding is permanently open, the spiral of understanding never ends and the borders between objectivity and subjectivity are blurred. In order not to get lost in the multitude of interpretations (especially if they are equally possible), it is necessary to search for what enables people to understand. Such opportunities are created by **phenomenology**, according to which every object, phenomenon or idea, presented in specific meanings, conceals its specific (original) sense in which it may be recognized as particular and not differentiated. In this context, it is important to define the essence of the relationship between phenomenology and hermeneutics, remembering that "… the aim of phenomenology is to explain, and in this way verify all cognition. In order to achieve this aim, phenomenology excludes everything that can be doubted in any way, all that can be removed" (Ingarden, 1988, pp. 15-16). The co-existence and methodological relationship between hermeneutics and phenomenology considerably benefited the development of the social sciences, including tourism research (cf. Kowalczyk, 2014). In recent years, the concept of understanding has become the key term defining humanism, and hermeneutics has become a kind of humanistic epistemology (Szulakiewicz, 2004).

4. THE EPISTEMOLOGICAL DIMENSION AND RESEARCH PROCESS ISSUES IN TOURISM: DISCUSSION BASED ON KURT LEWIN'S AND JOHN TRIBE'S THEORIES AND MODELS

Similar to any intentional and consciously performed human activity, tourism research is directed towards a desired effect, which in this case is cognition and academic knowledge. The discipline which deals with these issues in a particular way is the theory of cognition, also known as epistemology (Morton, 2002).

> Epistemology is interested in the relations between our beliefs and the world; the conditions that must be met for our beliefs to contain knowledge and not superstitions or illusions; values which we ascribe to the carriers of our knowledge, i.e. statements, such as truthfulness, justifiability, probability, explanative power, the ability to predict, as well as the reasons which allow us to ascribe these values to them; functions performed by knowledge in action. There are two benefits of epistemology: cognitive – human knowledge is one of the most important and puzzling aspects of cognition; responsible and modern epistemology plays quite an important role; and practical – familiarity with general qualities of knowledge, ways of achieving it, the rules of distinguishing between reliable knowledge and elusive knowledge facilitates action, particularly when a lot depends on the ability to learn about the world in a critical way, i.e. action such as, e.g. practicing science, doing business or managing people (Morton, 2002, text on the book cover).

The epistemological dimension of the research process spans two classical philosophical stances: empiricism and rationalism. It seems that it is necessary to explain basic epistemological issues and the differences between the most important paradigms of contemporary science to continues discussion about the methodology of tourism studies. Each of the two philosophical-methodological stances quite differently treats not only research methodology but even such fundamental concepts as truth.

John Tribe must have been guided by this idea. He discussed these issues with reference to tourism knowledge in his works published in recent years, written by himself or in cooperation with other authors. The beginning of this particular series of articles seems to be his *The indiscipline of tourism* (Tribe, 1997) where, apart from the basic thesis concerning the lack of the 'disciplinariness' in tourism or the possibility of identifying it as an independent academic discipline, he drew an outline of a theoretical model which he referred to in his later works. The same applies to the two works which are the axis of the discussion contained in this article where it was decided to present Tribe's views on the epistemological dimension of tourism studies. He put special emphasis on their evolution which reflects the changes in contemporary science both as regards research methodology and transfer of knowledge.

The starting point for the analysis was the article entitled *The truth about tourism* (Tribe, 2006), which is not only a splendid study of the epistemological aspects of tourism studies, but also turned out to be very inspiring for further discussion regarding the system of tourism knowledge.[19] In this work, the well-known Force-Field Theory developed by Kurt Lewin,[20] quite frequently used in a range of disciplines (*cf.* Stivers, Wheelan, 1986), has been used and put it together with positions presented in earlier works about research methodology and tourism knowledge. The concept of a knowledge force-field is used to describe the factors (forces) participating in the process of translating the empirical world into the world of theory/knowledge (Lewin, 1935, after: Tribe, 2006). Although Lewin's theory does not have direct connotations or links with tourism,[21] it proved useful in analyses concerning the processes of establishing knowledge about it. Tribe decided to use it to satisfy the needs of those who complained about the shortage of publications regarding the ontology and epistemology of tourism studies. It was not the first time this researcher and tourism theoretician[22] had shown his exceptional talent for creatively using interesting concepts based on other disciplines for the purpose of tourism studies. This time, he posed a fundamental question: is it possible to "discover and present the truth about tourism?" (Tribe, 2006, p. 360).

Transferring the basic assumptions of Lewin's theory[23] to the domain of tourism studies, Tribe describes the complicated process of expanding theoretical achievements in this area. It is illustrated on the diagram (Fig. 1) where he presents the main conditions for and mechanisms of tourism research, as well as the relationships between them. The key role in the whole conception is played by the correct identification of the 'hindering and helping' forces that have an influence on the facts, processes and phenomena studied, as well as the relations among them. In the knowledge force-field that he identified, he included five basic forces coded as person, rules, position, ends and ideology. They are surrounded, in an orderly way, by the tourism theories then developed, as well as the conditions and circumstances in which they were created.

The theoretical model of tourism research and knowledge acquisition presented in Fig. 1 shows that we are never able to gain full knowledge about it because the whole research process involves a mechanism which Tribe calls 'double selectivity'. The first time such a selection takes place is when we 'cast a glance' over the world of tourism (K → J, in Fig. 1). The choice of the elements of 'tourist reality' which this glance 'lights up' largely depends on predetermined factors which fill the 'tourism knowledge force-fields' (Circle 2) because not all problems have the same chance of attracting the researcher's attention. The second selection is made during the study because the research process and its results (J →, i.e. Circles 2 and 3) are also subject to certain limitations; the

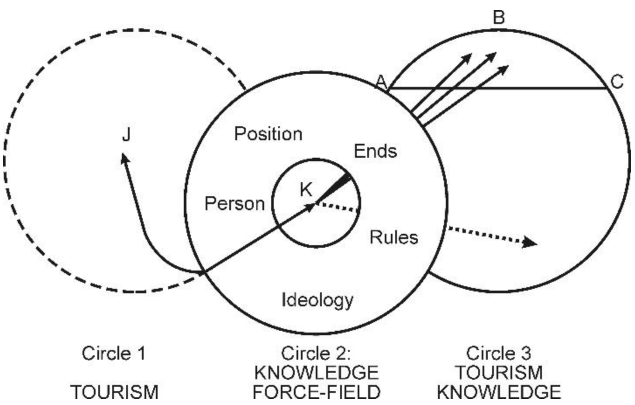

Figure 1. Knowledge force-fields in tourism research
Source: Tribe, 2006, p. 383

research process is dependent on the factors creating the knowledge force-field, i.e. factors participating in the process of translating the empirical world into the world of knowledge (theory).

The relationship between the real world of tourism (Circle 1) and the canon of knowledge connected with it (Circle 3) are described and explained with the help of the forces of knowledge (Circle 2) which play the key role in the whole process. The forces found in this field not only influence the researcher's perception of tourism, but they also affect one another. The diagram does not present them in separate frames, as is usually the case, which stresses the fact that there are no discernible borders between them. Each of the five forces is a kind of 'prism' which the information gained during research must be refracted through in order to reach the sphere of tourism knowledge. Tribe based his discussion on an analysis of the most important works on tourism, and also on scientific methodology in general, published over the last few decades, trying to indicate various 'hindering and helping' forces (Lewin's terminology) which have an impact on establishing knowledge about tourism. Below, we will find a description of the five groups of factors which determine the research process and the mechanisms of tourism knowledge development:[24]

– **Knowledge force-field – the 'Person' factor**: its particular significance among all five groups comes from the fact that it is the researcher who is the most important element in the whole process of establishing knowledge about tourism. The author believes that the factors related to a 'researcher's body and mind', which are often not realized and consequently disregarded, have a strong influence on the choice of the research direction and the specific issues to be studied, the methods that are used and the obtained results.[25] One research aspect which has been considered only recently is the researcher's gender. Studies conducted by Aitchison (1996) showed that the number of male writers publishing the results of their research on tourism and recreation is four times larger than the number of female, which, according to this author, confirms the thesis that developing knowledge in this discipline has a significant, though rarely considered dimension related to gender (Aitchison, 1996). In Tribe's opinion, in tourism research, the problems related to the individual (thus subjective) perception of phenomena which are components of the tourist reality as a whole, are of utmost importance. At the same time, the word 'I', due to the load of subjectivity it carries, is even forbidden in academic journals (e.g. *Annals of Tourism Research*).
– **Knowledge force-field – the 'Position' factor**: concerns the conditions related to the geographical location of research centres (and the researchers' place of living), both internationally (the differing influences

of individual countries on knowledge development) and sub-nationally (prevalence of certain research centres, universities, faculties, etc.). Ethnocentrism, location within university establishments and belonging to various academic communities seems to be an important force having an impact on the knowledge force-field. The analyses of publications about tourism conducted by Tribe indicated that the majority of theories ('truths' – with respect to the title of the work) which have built up present knowledge on tourism concern matters, are important to the tourist rather than the host, to consumers rather than those producing, and to the industry rather than the environment. Each of these dichotomies defines the interests of a dominant group, juxtaposing them with the interests of an inferior group (Hollinstead, 1999, after: Tribe, 2006).

– **Knowledge force-field – the 'Ends' factor**: we should bear in mind that the goals which accompany the process of establishing knowledge at a given moment have a strong influence on what, how and where researchers investigate. In this context, Tribe points to the commercialization of research and the treatment of knowledge as a commodity, as well as how significant the questions of financing tourism research are, the share of public funding to support this research, and how effectively these funds are used. Research of this kind is rarely sponsored by large companies or industrial sectors, as is the case in, for instance, the pharmaceutical industry. Financial resources for tourism studies are usually very limited, which makes them, or rather the subjects providing them, important selectors of research projects, deciding directions, procedure, methods and so on. All this, naturally, has an influence on research results and, ultimately, on knowledge about tourism.
– **Knowledge force-field – the 'Ideology' factor**: conditions of this kind play an important role, though researchers do not always take it into serious consideration. According to Tribe, the significance of this force may be viewed from two perspectives. On the one hand, tourism research is obviously determined by ideological factors, often involving religion, and on the other, tourism is a kind of ideology itself, forming a framework for analysing history, nature, tradition, etc. The former aspect of the ideologization of tourism research is more important. Its significance can be seen in the fact that as a result of research conducted, as well as the knowledge about tourism dominating the literature, views mainly related to capitalism and, so-called, Western culture are represented. By no means does it reflect the full range of ideological stances; the canons of tourism knowledge in practice lack theories based, for instance, on Islamic[26] or Hindi points of view.
– **Knowledge force-field – the 'Rules' factor**: concerns the broad sphere of academic organization, including the structures and rules according to which research is conducted. It embraces such elements as multi-disciplinary character, paradigms, traditions, methodology and so on. Particularly important are the limitations resulting from the fact that tourism is not an independent academic discipline, and this hinders research while influencing the number and quality of researchers who, consequently, experience some difficulties in developing their academic career. Tribe also writes about the 'tyranny of the discipline', which occurs in some new, interdisciplinary sciences. In tourism, economics is considered to be a 'disciplinary tyrant' and at the same time a kind of 'selector', partly deciding the research projects that are conducted (Franklin, Crang, 2001). Due to its predominance, "… this discipline appropriates most major socio-cultural problems of tourism, treating it as a set of actions of economic nature" (Tribe, 2006, p. 366).

The large and costly system of establishing knowledge on tourism (universities and other research institutions, conferences and symposia, academic journals, etc.) exists in order to discover and popularize the truth about tourism which should be the basis of all decisions connected its further development. The analyses conducted by Tribe show that developing knowledge is a complicated process and the force-field regarding the canon of tourism knowledge (Fig. 1, area ABC – the upper section of Circle 3) is considerably smaller than the field of unexplored, undiscovered or unexplained issues (area AZB). As a result, the circle regarding tourism knowledge (3) does not provide full and coherent knowledge about real tourism (Circle 1). Despite the efforts made by tourism researchers to make their research reliable and credible, they do not reveal the whole truth about tourism, and even sometimes lie. However, the reasons for such a situation and the answer to the question 'how to find the truth about tourism?' should not be sought only among the drawbacks of tourism research methodology (or at least not only there), but also in general research methodology. One of the reasons for this situation is that we often fail to see the differing limitations which affect research and, consequently, the theories formulated on its basis. According to Tribe, many tourism researchers perceive themselves as 'lions in the jungle', believing that in their research undertakings they are in practice restricted by nothing, while in reality they can be compared to 'lions in a circus' which remain locked in a cage of numerous structural limitations (Tribe, 2006). These opinions are shared by Butowski who believes that many questions regarding the ontological and epistemological dimension of tourism will probably have no clear answers for a long time (*cf.* Butowski, 2011, 2016).

The problems indicated in the first part of this article, regarding explanation and understanding as the basic functions of science, are best visible in studies and theories concerning various aspects of tourism. In the social sciences, which dominate as regards tourism research and establishing knowledge about it, we can observe a coexistence of individual trends often taking very different research perspectives. What they have in common is the constructionist model of cognition (Machnikowski, 2011) which assumes the lack of the chance to learn about the world in a way which is completely independent of cultural influences. As a result, it is not possible to find an objective truth about studied phenomena. Opponents of such an approach criticise exaggerated subjectivist interpretations that replace the objective truth in their narratives. The objective truth is replaceable regardless of the narratives having objective qualities or not.

The problems indicated above are particularly important with respect to those social sciences where the majority of research involves qualitative studies. In these disciplines there are many supporters of the, so-called, grounded theory, which is believed by many researchers to be the most 'objective' method of conducting qualitative research. This conception, developed in its basic form by Strauss & Glasser who described it in *The discovery of grounded theory* (1967), is also becoming increasingly used in tourism research (Metteucci, Gnoth, 2017) because:

> … it may offer a new level of understanding of the study of tourists and their interactions with the tourist environment. The grounded theory can generate explanations of events and relationships reflecting true experiences of individuals, groups and processes which are the focal point of tourist experience (Jennings, Junek, 2007, p. 2002).

The main role in this theory is played by the assumption that social reality is best understood by the actors involved who also include researchers. The theory rejects the traditional approach where the researcher analyses a community, using an earlier developed theoretical model, assuming that it causes 'self-verification' of the theory (the researcher finds what s/he wants to find). Research is conducted without pre-conceptualized theories, and with subsequent research procedures (interviews, observations, etc.), the amount of information and data is increasing, the theory in a way emerges from the study itself ('becomes grounded'). There are various types of the grounded theory, which differ in their approach to the question of the nature of being (ontology), the nature of knowledge (epistemology), ways of discovering and learning about the world (methodology), as well as the question of values (axiology). Each type has an impact on research practices and the interpretation of the results. Usually, three basic types of the grounded theory are distinguished: objectivist, post-positivist and constructivist (Metteucci, Gnoth, 2017). Their basic ontological, and epistemological assumptions as well as the most important methodological features are presented in Table 3.

Research conducted by Matteucci & Gnoth (2017) showed that tourism researchers have relatively little knowledge of the differences between the individual types of grounded theory presented in Table 3. These authors analysed 48 articles published in three academic journals considered to be the best ('Annals of Tourism Research' – ATR, 'Tourism Management' – TM and 'Journal of Sustainable Tourism' – JST). It turned out that in as many as 42% of the articles, their authors did not say which version of the theory and, consequently, which methodological 'regime', they had adopted in their

Table 3. Three basic versions of grounded theory (GT)

	GT objectivism	GT post-positivism	GT constructivism
Ontology	Realism	Realism	Realism
Epistemology	Positivist empiricism/ objectivism	Pragmatism	Relativism
Methodological description	– Researcher as a natural observer – Freedom of expression – Emerging from data which is self-evident – The goals include discovering and striving at abstract generalizations – Answers to *why*- questions – Rigorous coding procedure which powers the research – The number of investigated cases determines their objectivity – Literature reviews after data analysis	– Thoughtful researcher – Evaluation of statements – Using a pre-conceived framework for data analysis – Striving at developing a medium-range theory – Defining the differences in research results – Literature review before, during and after data analysis	– Thoughtful researcher – Evaluation of statements – Emerging from interaction – Striving at developing a medium-range theory – Generalizations may be dependent (agentic), strongly conditioned – Attempting answers to the questions *what?* and *how?* – Defining the differences in the research results – Flexible analytical procedures – Literature review before, during and after data analysis – Using the storytelling technique

Source: Charmaz (2011, after: Metteucci, Gnoth, 2017, p. 10).

research; in 10% of the papers, they chose the objectivist version, and the remaining two versions were referred to in 19% of the other publications (Matteucci, Gnoth, 2017). Similar conclusions follow from the study (this time based on an analysis of 31 articles) conducted by Stumpf, Sandstrom & Swanger (2016). They noticed however, that starting from the first publication on that topic which appeared in 1995 interest in this method and its application in tourism research had been constantly growing. In their opinion, this method enables researchers to make expected noticeable progress, as well as leading to better explanations and understanding of tourism. However, such expectations still remain unfulfilled, the epistemological, ontological and methodological dimensions of tourism research are still severely criticised, and many researchers believe that tourism studies lack a stable, solid theoretical basis, and are falling behind other disciplines (Benckendorff, Zehrer, 2013).

Pondering on the future of research and on the way to improve it, ten years after publishing the article *The truth about tourism*, presented in outline here, Tribe decided to return to the issue of the epistemological dimension of tourism research and knowledge. In 2016, he published an article where he introduced substantial modifications to the earlier model. The main advantage of this modification was to take into consideration many elements (conditions) which were absent in the original, as well as emphasizing the influence of digital transformation and changes in the academic communication system on the processes of building knowledge. Tribe presented his new ideas in an article written together with Liburd, entitled *The tourism knowledge system* (2016), where, with reference to earlier conceptions, a new model was presented called the tourism knowledge system.[27]

This will be presented later in a way which will allows us to easily observe the differences compared to the original model, show its advantages and disadvantages, as well as evaluate its usability for the evaluation of tourism research and setting new trends. In the authors' opinion (already quoted in the abstract), based on earlier studies in the field of tourism ontology and epistemology, this new model makes it possible to conduct analyses and present explanations regarding "… knowledge space, knowledge force-fields, knowledge networks, the four key domains of creating knowledge and their mutual relationships" (Tribe, Liburd, 2016, p. 44). According to the authors, it is to serve the purpose of explaining tourism more effectively, particularly the processes of investigating and gaining knowledge about it. The model (system) is presented in Figure 2.

The main components of the system are the elements of the old model, where the entrance and exit points are presented in the form of two circles: Circle 1 – the world (of tourism) and Circle 4 – knowledge (of tourism),[28] to which new elements have been added, in the form of two circles: Circle 2, which includes four basic domains of science, and Circle 3, containing types of extra-disciplinary and 'extra-scientific' knowledge. The boundaries (inner oval β), environmental factors (outer oval α), as well as numerous feedback loops (dashed lines: a, b, c, d, e, f) and networks (j, k, m, n), which emphasize the dynamics of the system and the fact that all its elements remain in mutual relationship, are additional elements. Combined with letters (a, b, c, d, e, f), the arrows point in two directions to emphasize the feedback between all four basic elements of the system (large circles).

It is evident that Tribe's original model has undergone a profound re-configuration. It has been supplemented with many new elements which need to be discussed. First of all, we must pay attention to the changes concerning the knowledge force-fields. Although their number has not changed, the modification is highly significant. Assuming that the borders between the fields distinguished earlier were not clear enough, and some important types of forces were not taken into account, the previous five fields were combined into three forces: 'person', 'position' and 'ideology' (the conditions written into the two remaining fields – 'rules' and 'ends' – were also taken into consideration), and the new model included two new fields: 'government' and 'global capital'. These changes strengthen various impacts on the system of searching for knowledge by centres of power and capital (an example is, on the one hand, an EU program 'Horizon 2020', and on the other – the growing share of huge, usually international corporations in academic research).

A particularly significant modification of the conception lies in the fact that in the new model, the precious Circle 2, which filtered the knowledge provided by tourism research, has been replaced by two other circles (2 and 3), which refer to two separate sub-systems of knowledge acquisition. The first one (Circle 2) regards knowledge 'produced' in an academic environment as a part of four basic domains of science, and the other one (Circle 3) – the knowledge gained outside it (e.g. expert opinions, reports by different organizations, etc.). Other new elements are the small inner circles in both these fields (delimited with a dashed line), marked 'x' and 'y'. The first one (x) is to symbolize the flow of tourism research, which allows interpenetration the knowledge acquired in various domains and disciplines. Zone 'x' is a space where we observe the linkages of the knowledge gained from different disciplines.

The whole circle 2 has been divided into four areas: two of them regard those domains which are of key importance for tourism research: social sciences and business-related sciences, while the other two regard humanities and the arts (especially philosophy and history), as well as exact sciences, which – despite being less important – may significantly enhance the tourism knowledge and the understanding of related phenomena. The

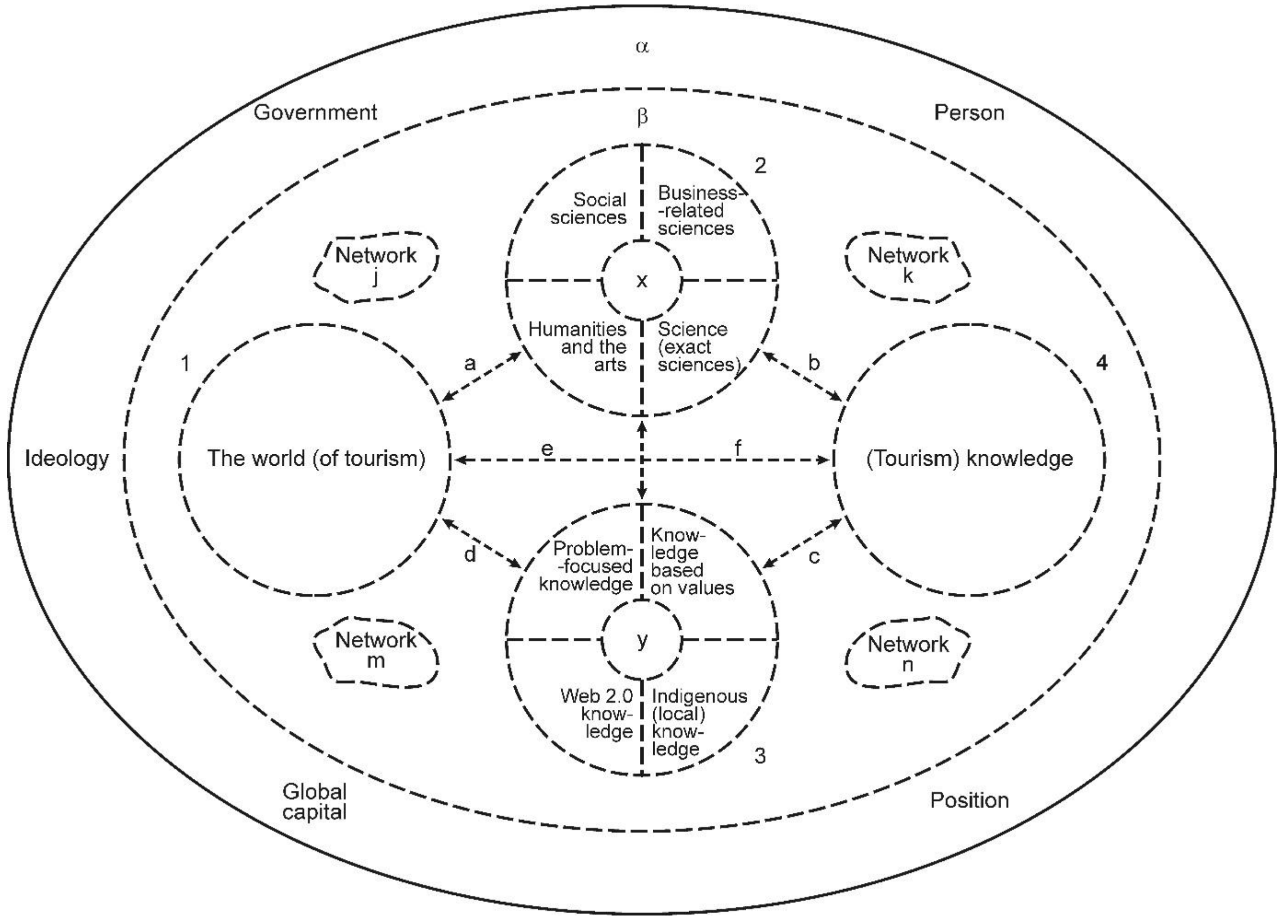

Figure 2. Tourism knowledge system by Tribe & Liburd: a modified conception of the knowledge force-field theory in tourism research
Source: Source: author, based on Tribe, Liburd (2016), p. 46

authors of the conception stress the importance of the fact that in the face of certain limitations in social and business sciences as regards creative visions of the future, humanities and the arts offer an extremely valuable (under the circumstances) possibility to understand the past, present and future visions of tourism (Tribe & Liburd 2016, p. 48). In their opinion, representatives of exact sciences provide valuable knowledge about a number of issues related to and important for tourism (e.g. designing aeroplanes, construction, using computer systems and the internet and medicine). However, quoting some examples of works on this topic,[29] the authors emphasize the "insufficient engagement of exact sciences in the academic analysis of tourism so far" (Tribe, Liburd, 2016, p. 49).

The area delimited by Circle 3 regards extra-disciplinary knowledge, gained 'outside the academy'. It has been divided into four parts: problem-focused knowledge, value-based knowledge, indigenous knowledge and Web 2.0 knowledge. Problem-focused knowledge is particularly significant for practitioners (sometimes, it is referred to as 'practical knowledge') and usually takes the form of tacit knowledge. It may even be poorly rooted in research, but its intention is good understanding and practical use. The authors call it 'extra-disciplinary knowledge', and examples include UNWTO, OECD, EU reports, research and development works by specialists, consultants, etc. Aware of the fact that knowledge focused on solving practical problems may sometimes generate problems itself, the authors stress the significance of value-based knowledge which, regardless of avoiding excessive 'practicality', also has certain advantages as regards protection against unnecessary domination and 'theoretizing' reality through the knowledge coming from Circle 2.

A separate area in circle 3 is Web 2.0. This issue is particularly appealing to Liburd who brings new, valuable elements into the system, understanding how significant nowadays is the fact that "…in contrast to passive browsing and downloading processed information, Web 2.0. refers to the rules and practices facilitating information exchange and social interaction by creating, changing and sending Internet content by users".[30] The knowledge popularized by means of Web 2.0 is above all popular academic knowledge (partly through social media, such as Twitter or Facebook) and although it is not so very important for purely academic communication, the dynamic development of the academic blogosphere, as well as specialist dedicated portals such as Academia.edu or ResearchGate, change the situation in this respect (Alejziak, Liszewski, 2016). Web 2.0 undoubtedly has a huge influence on knowledge transfer systems (Cisek, 2008). Yet another phenomenon in academic communication, which is worth mentioning at this point, is Open Access (OA) which is of key importance as regards popularizing research results. (Maciejewska, Moskwa, Urbańczyk, 2007). We can hardly disagree with Tribe & Liburd, who claim that nowadays, "… striving at pluralistic epistemology, knowledge production is a question of continuous reflection on the part of producers, buyers and users. Web 2.0. is growing based on multi-, inter- and extra-disciplinary knowledge, supplied by users, who create it and work for it together" (Tribe, Liburd, 2016, p. 51).

The fourth area in Circle 3 regards indigenous knowledge, referring to specific cultures resulting from geographical location, traditions, or even local beliefs, which is ontologically and epistemologically connected with a specific community.[31] This kind of knowledge, however contextual and based on superstition, and often perceived by 'Western science' as old-fashioned or 'worse', proves useful in explaining many phenomena and processes taking place in different areas of tourist reception (especially 'exotic'). Including these issues fits into a new agenda, postulated by some researchers for local tourism epistemological decolonization (Chambers, Buzinde, 2015). It has been also been put forward to reduce the domination of English in tourism knowledge, as a result of which it would gain a better epistemological dimension encompassing perception and understanding from a local perspective (Dann, 2011; Tribe, Dann, Jamal, 2015).

An important part of Circle 3 is also the small circle 'y' in the centre, marked by a dashed line. It delimits the area of contradiction and interpenetration, emphasizing the diversity of forms and channels through which knowledge is not only acquired, but also transferred. The authors' zone 'y' is a good place to ask new questions and search for answers which may lead to new directions in research.

The last new component in the model are knowledge networks, presented in the diagram as clouds (j, k, m, n), which encircle individual elements of the system. By giving them the shape of clouds, the authors wanted to stress their metaphorical contrast with the remaining elements of the system, as "…clouds grow, come together, are fluid, are moving, float, dissolve, reappear" (Tribe, Liburd, 2016, p. 55). This element of the system clearly refers to an earlier work, entitled *Tribe, territories and networks in the tourism academy* (Tribe, 2010), where the author combined the paradigm of mobility with the Actor-Network Theory (ANT) for the purposes of tourism knowledge analysis. By placing this new element in their model, the authors meant fully and partly formalized networks (TRINET, ATLAS, CAUTHE, IAST), as well as completely informal networks based on researchers' private contacts. An interesting example of such a network quoted in the article is Critical Tourism Studies, formed in connection with the preparations for and during a conference held in Dubrovnik in 2005, which remains a flexible forum of discussion about new directions in tourism research, open to new members.

Finally, it should be emphasized that in the new version of the model, the earlier double selectivity in producing tourism knowledge changes into five-fold selectivity, as a result of including additional elements and enriching the whole conception with aspects such as researcher's rhetoric, audience gaze and audience interpretation (Tribe, Liburd, 2016). This was a great benefit to the explanatory assets of the model because those additional elements revealed a number of conditions that went unnoticed before and that could have had a negative influence on the processes of 'producing' and 'consuming' tourism knowledge.

The comparison of the old and the new models in illustrating the tourism research system allows us to conclude that the new version is a complete and well thought-out conception, which considers practically all the conditions of this research and has a considerably larger potential as regards scientific explanation of various phenomena occurring in tourism and 'around' it. Its basic advantage is its universal character and the emphasis put on the flexibility of the present process of establishing tourism knowledge. This does not mean that this model is perfect, especially in terms of general conditions (generally concerning explanation and understanding in social sciences), discussed in the first part of the article. It seems, however, that it is the most comprehensive and fullest description of the tourism research system that has ever been presented in the literature. It is worth popularizing, especially among those younger tourism researchers who will be establishing the directions in tourism research in the near future.

5. CONCLUSIONS

As tourism is a phenomenon which is developing very dynamically and undergoing constant transformations, tourism research must be changing as well (Rojek, Urry, 1997). The problems signalled in this article, related to understanding and academic explanation, as well as tourism research methodology bring epistemological consequences. They mainly regard the character of the knowledge gained during the study and, consequently, also the 'truth about tourism', which loses the advantage of objectivity and at least partly becomes relativised.[32] In this situation, the role of epistemology and hermeneutics, where we look for the most creative directions of research from the epistemological point of view (Botterill, 2001). The typical emphasis on subjectivity, which is opposed to the instrumental logic of positivism, is perceived as a particular chance for a better understanding of the tourism and the significance of the accompanying phenomena. It is based on the assumption that social structures and processes are too complex to be fully explained with the help of even the most properly used methods of observation. Therefore, a tourism researcher must skilfully combine intuition with interpretation, as the assumption that somebody can be totally objective and able to see the world 'as it really is' should be rejected in the light of present knowledge (Davis, 2001). Despite the fact that the hermeneutic approach has drawbacks as well,[33] it seems that together with other methodological conceptions deriving from new trends in the 'philosophy of practicing science' (including those which involve integrated approaches – interdisciplinary and systemic), it will have a decisive impact on the direction of further developments in tourism research. They may also lead to a breakthrough in this research. Taking into account the opinions on the post-disciplinary character of tourism (Coles, Hall, Duval, 2005), we should abandon traditional approaches and move towards more flexible forms of establishing academic knowledge. This concerns practically all elements constituting the general methodology of tourism research: new concepts, methods, techniques and research tools, as well as knowledge transfer systems which have also become substantially modified (Alejziak, Liszewski, 2016). The opinions, theories and concepts of John Tribe, presented in this article, match these expectations, and the two models, analysed in detail, may be a good reference point for a further search for new approaches and directions in tourism research.

ENDNOTES

[1] Such an opinion stems from a relatively popular concept of the symmetry of explanation and prediction, according to which every explanatory model may be used for prediction (if A is explained through B, then based on B, we can predict A). This particular issue has been presented in an interesting way in: *Aspects of Scientific Explanation* (Hempel, 1965) and *Wyjaśnianie a przewidywanie* (Woleński, 1979).

[2] This opinion refers to Aristotle's division of knowledge into demonstrative (answering the question "how?") and theoretical (answering the question "why?"). In fact, we also speak of explanation if we use the following questions: "for what purpose?", "who?", "how?", "what?", "where?", "where from?", as well as "was the event necessary?" (Nikitin, 1975, pp. 10-13).

[3] According to Nowak, the first of the perspectives is expressed through the concept of nomological-deductive explanation. In his opinion, "an extension of this model is probabilistic explanation which considers the fact that, apart from clear-cut laws, empirical sciences also include statistical laws, stating that the occurrence of events of a given type is probable, provided events of another type take place" (*Filozofia a nauka. Zarys encyklopedyczny*, 1987, p. 741).

[4] Sometimes, it is referred to as the covering-law model.

[5] The notation and description of the model has been taken from the Polish translation of Carl Gustav Hempel's fundamental work: *The Philosophy of Natural Science* (translated by Stanosz) (Hempel, 2001), found in Chapter 5 – *Laws and their role in scientific explanation*.

[6] They at the same time believed that different types of explanation can be classified on the basis of three basic criteria: the character of laws used in the *explanans*, the character of the *explanandum* and the relations between the *explanans* and the *explanandum* (Waszczyk, Szczerbicki, 2003).

[7] Theoriological explanation is often regarded as inter-theoretical explanation, i.e. one based on reduction. In fact, it is not so, as reduction – as intended by the creators of the science unification program (Vienna Circle) – was first of all supposed to ensure the unity of sciences by bringing basic methodological rules of the disciplines (theories), which are less developed theory-wise, to the concepts, objects and laws (theories) found in the best developed domains (especially in physics) (Waszczyk, 1996, p. 148).

[8] For instance, according to Waszczyk, Szczerbicki (2003), economics is dominated by statistical-factological model, as well as the co-existential-factological model explanation.

[9] According to some authors, probability has become a fundamental concept of science in the 21st century (cf. Nekrases, 1992).

[10] For instance, if it is known that in a given year, trips involving spending at least one night away from home were made by 60% of Poles with university education, we cannot conclude with full certainty that the probability of such a trip in the case of an individual Pole with higher education will be 6/10. It follows from the fact that the behaviour of certain people is influenced by other factors (apart from level of education). Such a person may, for example, love mountains and be a member of a mountaineering club, which increases the probability of tourism (it may also be a 'multiple' trip). On the other hand, if this is, for instance, a disabled person, the probability of this trip will significantly decrease.

[11] According to Chojnicki, in the modern philosophy of science, a predominant view is that of the essential role of explanation which establishes the cognitive sense and the framework of research procedure. This, however, does not mean the lack of the necessity to constantly look for new approaches and conceptions of explanation which would be appropriate for the character of individual disciplines. It is worth adding that this renowned representative of socio-economic geography saw the difficulty in using the deductive-nomological model (especially in the social sciences) and propagated a relativist approach to explanation, which, in his opinion, is "…not only a justifying procedure, but also a revealing one, in the course of which the premises of explanation are established. They constitute the knowledge about the processes and mechanisms determining the occurrence of facts, mainly with regard to real social systems" (Chojnicki, 2002).

[12] The author's presentation given at that conference can be found on: https://wtir.awf.krakow.pl/attachments/article/135/wyjasnianie_naukowe_i_rozumienie_w_badaniach_nad_turystyka.pdf (access: 15.09.2019).

[13] It is well illustrated by the example quoted by Grobler with reference to the question "Why did this road accident happen?", where the police will probably be satisfied with the answer: "Because the driver wasn't quite sober", a civil engineer will expect to hear that, e.g., "the road bend wasn't aligned correctly", and a car

designer will be interested in a possibly faulty construction of the car (Grobler, 2006, p. 113).

[14] Erotetics is the theory of questions and answers, which deals with the structure of interrogative sentences, question assumptions, types of answers and, so called, erotetic reasonings. A substantial contribution to the development of this type of explanation was made by van Fraasen in his book *The scientific image* (1980).

[15] This particular "reversal" of the logical structure of explaining and predicting is questioned by some authors. An interesting criticism was presented by Motycka (1984).

[16] The similarity of the logical model that we use in explanation and prediction does not mean that their role in building a scientific theory is similar. In social sciences, we deal with a specific feature of prediction, which has no analogy in natural sciences. They are, so called, self-fulfilling and self-refutable predictions (e.g. publicly announcing research results which predicted the occurrence of given social phenomena may have an influence on the attitudes and behaviours of people in such a way that as a consequence of this change these predictions will be confirmed or refuted (cf. Pawłowski, 1986).

[17] *Verstehen* – a German word (though used in other languages), signifying inner understanding by empathy, intuition or imagination. It stands in contrast to external knowledge, coming from observation. Despite certain relationships, or even similarities, empathy (*Einfühlung*) and understanding are two completely different stances. For instance, it is something quite different to understand a piece of art from a historical point of view (e.g. define its place of origin, significance and role played in history), and to feel its beauty as a piece of art.

[18] It must be remembered, however, that hermeneutics is not only a science, but in a sense also a practical art the understanding, providing clues and rules for interpretation.

[19] It is worth adding that this conception can also be used in analyses regarding research methodology and the mechanisms of forming knowledge in other disciplines. An example that can be quoted here is the work by Alejziak *Metodologia nauk prawnych a metodologia badań nad turystyką – w poszukiwaniu podobieństw oraz różnic w paradygmatach a podejściach badawczych* (2018), which is the source of some aspects presented in this article.

[20] Kurt Zadek Lewin – a distinguished psychologist and organization theoretician. He was born on 9 November 1890 and died on 12 February 1947 in the USA; for some time he lived in Wielkopolska. He was a professor at Humboldt University in Berlin, Iowa State University and Massachusetts Institute of Technology in Cambridge (founder and director of Research Centre for Group Dynamics at MIT). He was the creator of a specialty known as topological or field psychology, as well as the author of the Force-Field Theory, which inspired John Tribe.

[21] It is mainly used in management and coaching as a tool serving the purpose of assessing the influence of the surroundings on the changes which are to be introduced by a given entity or organization, in order to adjust to the changing conditions to their activity.

[22] For many years, John Tribe was the chief editor of the "Annals of Tourism Research", regarded as one of the best academic periodicals on tourism in the world.

[23] Lewin himself claimed that "he force-field theory cannot be called a theory in the common meaning, because it is hard to consider it either correct or incorrect, and it is best characterized as a method: i.e. a method of analysing causal relationships and building scientific constructs" (Lewin, 1943, p. 292).

[24] The description of these forces is quoted after the work mentioned earlier (Alejziak, 2018).

[25] John Tribe quotes specific examples of rarely considered factors determining academic research, such as ethnic and cultural, political, biological, or even psychological aspects and those connected with personal experience. For instance falling for a certain woman had a strong influence on the choice of topic of PhD research by one of the top academics of today dealing with tourism (Tribe, 2006, p. 363).

[26] For example one of the canons of tourism knowledge, which assumes that gender does not substantially differentiate the level of tourist activity. In societies where Islam dominates this does not reflect reality because according to the principles of this religion, a woman should travel only in the company of her husband, father or brother, while men do not face such restrictions.

[27] In this work, the authors refer to the conceptions of the tourism system and tourism knowledge system, presented in publications by Leiper (1979), Jafari, Brent, Ritchie (1980).

[28] It is noteworthy that these circles represent the world of tourism and the world of tourism knowledge not as independent elements, but as a part of broad, separate categories – the world and knowledge in general.

[29] For instance, an article regarding the application of intelligent systems in tourism, which analyses this issue from the point of view of social sciences (Gretzel, 2011), several articles on travel medicine, or an article about the role of tourism in 'biological exchange' (as globally perceived), an effect of migration, and a part of international tourism (Hall, 2015).

[30] The example of using Web 2.0 in tourism research, quoted by the authors, is the "Ecocean" program, whose purpose is to non-invasively examine and protect whale sharks, in which photos and films made by tourists are sent by them to a special website, and then analysed by a special team of researchers affiliated and co-operating with NASA (they use techniques and algorithms used in star mapping with the help of the Hubble telescope (Tribe, Liburd, 2016).

[31] A very important aspect of this issue is the question of epistemological authenticity when explaining various tourist and tourism-related phenomena, as well as the moral responsibility of the researcher for the course and results of research (including the possible extent of indigenous knowledge). Interesting discussion on this topic is presented in *Autentyczność epistemologiczna jako nakaz moralny wyjaśniania rzeczywistości turystycznych* (Kaczmarek, 2018).

[32] Representatives of the epistemological-hermeneutic direction in tourism research suggest that even such a basic category as space may be interpreted differently, depending on its subject. Due to the fact that in tourism (perhaps particularly) it is possible to ascribe many meanings to different categories (e.g. space, tourist attractions, economic and social phenomena, etc.), it is often disputed which meaning should be the leading one.

[33] First of all, they are difficult to enact. The difficulty requires properly accentuating diverse issues and a research approach that would enable interdisciplinary co-operation to strengthen and not weaken the integration of tourism research, taking the individual character of every discipline into account (Maik, 2002).

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THE SHARING ECONOMY AND MANAGEMENT OF A SUSTAINABLE ENVIRONMENT IN THE TOURISM SECTOR ON A GLOBAL SCALE

Abstract: The paper will discuss the impact of development of sharing economy on ecological sustainability for the tourism sector at global scale since the main focus in the literature is generally limited to economic and social impacts. It will provide a mathematical model in order to measure the impact of the sharing economy on the welfare of individuals who take part in particular tourism destinations as well as providing benefits for other individuals as a positive external outlook. The development of the model will be dependent on the findings obtained in this study. The results will show that the sharing economy together with collaborative consumption in the tourism sector is an increasing trend in global economy that contributes to ecological sustainability as well. By sharing the means of production, transportation, communication etc both tourists and service providers are capable of decreasing their ecological footprints. In conclusion the paper will contribute to the literature by filling a gap with respect to the lack of connection between environmental sustainability and sharing economy in tourism sector.

Keywords: sharing economy, sustainability, moral economy, alternative tourism.

1. INTRODUCTION

Sharing instead of owning has become a prominent trend in the economy at a global scale. The sharing economy refers to the peer-to-peer based activity of obtaining, giving or sharing access to goods and services that are coordinated through community-based services (Hamari, Sjöklint, Ukkonen, 2015). The sharing economy has become an appealing alternative for consumers parallel to the rising awareness for environmental problems such as sustainability, climate change and overconsumption, and interest in social inclusion by 'localness' as well as communal consumption (Albinsson, Yasanthi Perera, 2012; Hamari Sjöklint, Ukkonen, 2015). Based on a distinct and ancient consumer behavior, sharing has become an increasingly vital research topic in the literature (Belk, 2010). Alternatively, the term collaborative consumption can be used instead of the sharing economy. According to Botsman and Rogers (2010) collaborative consumption consists of both sharing and exchanging and these activities are found in different groups including friends, neighbors, civic groups, universities, etc. who organize sharing events in various forms (Albinsson, Yasanthi Perera, 2012).

In many areas from carpooling to accommodation and even food, people have started to share what they have with each other in return they get what they need. Along with economic and social impacts, environmental sustainability is a key benefit from these sharing activities. For instance, saving energy, recycling, walking instead of driving, eating healthily and do-it-yourself practices can be named as gains of a sharing economy (Scholl, Schulz, Süßbauer, Otto, 2010; Frick, Hauser, Gürtler, 2013; Schiel, 2015). Sharing leads to politically correct behaviors which express a conscious and smart urban way of living (Schiel, 2015). Moreover, reducing the individual environmental impact through adoption of healthier way of living and avoiding an unnecessary environmental burden is also the main motivation behind the sharing economy (van de Glind, 2013; Owyang, Samuel, Grenville, 2014). Since sharing decreases environmental impact, promotes a more efficient use of resources, it also functions as a facilitator for new social contacts (van de Glind, 2013; Dubois, Schor, Carfagna, 2014; Schor, 2016).

This paper will discuss the impact of development of sharing economy on ecological sustainability for the tourism sector at global scale, since the main focus in the literature is generally limited to economic and social impacts. The paper will provide a mathematical

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model in order to measure the impact of the sharing economy on the welfare of individuals who take part in particular tourism destinations as well as providing benefits for other individuals as a positive externality. The development of the model will be dependent on the findings obtained from this study.

The results will show that the sharing economy together with collaborative consumption in tourism sector is an increasing trend in the global economy that contributes to ecological sustainability. By sharing the means of production, transportation, communication etc both tourists and service providers are capable of decreasing their ecological footprints.

In conclusion, this paper will contribute to the literature by filling a gap with respect to lack of connection between environmental sustainability and sharing economy in tourism sector.

2. METHODOLOGY

As a method, this paper will use a literature review by comparing previous studies with consideration of tourism studies from different parts of world.

3. MORAL ECONOMY AND ALTERNATIVE TOURISM

The sharing economy is a challenge for the models of individual consumption which result in hyper-consumption and unsustainable outcomes whereas sharing is capable of lessening the environmental burden as well as increasing the general health within a community (Albinsson, Yasanthi Perera, 2012). This challenge includes a moral dimension, since economic activities of all kinds are influenced and structured by moral dispositions and norms which can be compromised, overridden or reinforced by economic pressures (Sayer, 2004). Therefore, while considering actions with respect to ensuring environmental sustainability, moral factors that take place in terms of Kantian philosophy can be taken into consideration.

According to Kant, the categorical imperative refers to a search for and establishment of a supreme principle of morality that acts as a universal law of nature (Kant, 2002). In other words, if an action is right, it can be implemented as a command for all other rational beings to follow as if it were a universal law; but it is wrong if this is not the case (Rentmeester, 2010). On the basis of Kant's categorical imperative and climate change, it has been argued that sustainable practices can be universalized within a general and naturally self-sustaining schema of action and therefore they are right, and unsustainable actions cannot be universalized hence they are wrong (Schönfeld, 2008).

Thus, when individuals decide to become responsible consumers who have specific concerns about environmental sustainability, they are involved in a morally right action. Moreover, moral consumers in the tourism sector, i.e. moral tourists, are generally more reflective about their influence on local destinations and economies (Butcher, 2003) and they see their own mobility, lifestyle, and consumption choices as a way of self-fulfilling experience as well as political agency (Haenfler, Johnson, Jones, 2012). Alternative tourism opportunities such as ecotourism, slow tourism and voluntourism offer more meaningful ways of connecting with the world compared to hegemonized hedonism engendered by mass tourism (Fullagar, Markwell, Wilson, 2012; Lyons, Hanley, Wearing, Neil, 2012; Molz, 2013).

4. ENVIRONMENTALLY SUSTAINABLE SHARING PRACTICES IN TOURISM SECTOR

New tourism practices have emerged while the moral qualities of mass tourism and the moral limits of alternative tourism are being considered within the scope of the tourism literature. The most recent cases in this type of ecologically sustainable alternative tourism are "slow tourism" as in the case of Cittaslow Movement (Pink, 2008; Fullagar, Markwell, Wilson, 2012), voluntourism that enhances alternative goodwill experiences and activities (Alexander, Bakir, 2010) and hospitality exchange networks including online (Molz, 2013).

Sustainability is one of the core topics in today's world. Companies have increased their efforts for sustainability, meanwhile consumer groups initiate sustainable solutions for possible energy crises, environmental degradation as well as global financial meltdown (Albinsson, Yasanthi Perera, 2012). Although there are several achievements of world-wide sustainability for instance, the development of environmental policy, institutionalization of environmental bureaucracy, the diffusion of environmental management in the private sector, the increased environmental awareness of citizens, an active civil society represented by NGOs, and the emergence of interdisciplinary environmental sciences and education (Jänicke, Kunig, Stitzel, 1999; McNeill, 2003; Heinrichs, 2013), sustainability problems have not been solved.

Nevertheless, shared consumption is one of the useful alternatives that targets decreasing the adverse impact on the environment through anti-consumption and sustainability-oriented practices including rejection, consumption reduction and reuse of available products. These efforts have been motivated by the individual needs and values of a newly emerging consumer groups who are concerned with the well-being of the environment (Black, Cherrier, 2010).

In general, sharing is neglected and despised in today's capitalistic societies since the global economic system of the current world relies on profits and individual ownership of the means of production. The private ownership system has created its own philosophy of living known as individualism which promotes self-centeredness among society despite the shared interests. However, sharing events foster sustainability practices and enhances benefits for the whole community on various platforms such as reduced environmental influence and sense of psychological well-being for customers (Albinsson, Yasanthi Perera, 2012).

Having discussed the impact of moral tourism as well as environmental sustainability, a model will be presented in the next section in order to show the possible mathematical relationship between these variables.

5. MODEL

There are four main factors that can be used for measuring the impact of the sharing economy First of all, tourism revenues reflect improvements in welfare in a particular destination regarding to sharing economy activities. Alternative tourism activities based on sharing practices is capable of increasing the financial well-being or participants who involve in this type of interaction by sharing what they need and saving money. Hence, economic gain is an important factor for environmentally sustainable sharing economy activities and the revenue received by stakeholders and distributed among service providers can be considered as an indicator for the impact of collaborative consumption.

Furthermore, alterations in the overall life quality of tourists as well as service providers can also become an indicator for measuring the impact of the sharing economy. Its practices in tourism positively affect the well-being of individuals who engage in tourist activities either as a service taker or as a service provider.

In addition to these aspects, environmental regeneration as an outcome of collaborative consumption can be added to the model while measuring the impact of a sharing economy. As long as responsible consumers prefer to use alternative ways of consumption such as sharing or exchanging instead of directly owning, environmental degradation will be reduced and nature will find an opportunity to recover.

Lastly, there is the additional pleasure that responsible consumers will have after they accomplish what they consider as a duty. For them, protecting the environment is one of their fundamental aims, therefore if the sharing economy helps them to contribute to environmental well-being; they will receive pleasure for completing this task.

Hence the model can be considered as:

$$\text{(1)}\quad SE = \beta_0 + \beta_1 TR + \beta_2 QL + ER^t + d + \varepsilon$$

where,
SE is the impact of Sharing Economy
TR is Tourism Revenues
QL is Quality of Life for Tourists and Service Providers
d is Pleasure due to Completing One's Duty regarding the Environment
t is Time
ER is Environmental Regeneration due to a Sharing Economy
β_0, β_1, and β_2 are coefficients, and
ε is residual (i.e. the effect of other variables).

In general, the impact of sharing is dependent on four variables, namely tourism revenues, the quality of life of tourists and service providers, environmental regeneration and the moral duty regarding environmental protection. Plus, there may be other variables that can explain variance in the level of social inclusion that this model has not captured. For that reason, a residual is presented in the model denoting the variance that cannot be explained by the three main variables.

6. CONCLUDING REMARKS

Although sharing practices have historical origins through the course of human evolution, capitalistic market conditions have forced customers to privately own their assets. However, globalization processes parallel with the rapid development of technology have paved the pathway for interaction, which, in turn provides the possibility for sharing activities to re-emerge in economic life.

Specifically, tourism is an important sector since it requires continuous interaction between service takers and service providers. Therefore, communication makes the sharing economy possible between suppliers who want to share their belongings. Those who are involved in sharing activities generally follow moral conduct as the Kantian perspective describes regarding the protection of the environment. All in all, nature is where we live, thus we need to be concerned about environmental sustainability even in the little practices of our daily lives.

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CONTROVERSIAL TYPES OF TRAVEL AND THE POSITION OF POLISH TOURISM SERVICE PROVIDERS: EXPERIENCE TOURISM

Abstract: The aim of this study is to investigate the potential of the Polish market for the development of the supply-side of controversial forms of tourism, based on the opinions and products offered by tour operators and retail travel agents. Analytical data were collected using desk research and CATI (N=107) methods. The most common controversial types of tourism include drug and sex tourism, followed by disaster tourism, medical tourism, slum tourism, fan tourism and poverty tourism. The expectations of customers regarding tourism offers usually focus on party tourism and extreme travel, and the providers highlight that this market segment will continue to develop.

Keywords: travel market controversies, experience tourism.

1. INTRODUCTION

The subject discussed in this paper is one the most complex related to the tourism industry. This complexity applies not only to the cognitive issues that stem from data collection procedures used in academic analysis and interpretation, but also to the multiplicity of factors that affect the consumption of tourism products. For obvious reasons, the entirety cannot be exhaustively discussed in a single paper.

The Polish academic community has already attempted to conduct research and prepare publications in the field of controversial tourism. Usually, they cover only a single selected type and seldom discuss the entire category, which after all is necessary to obtain a relatively full picture of the processes which determine the development of a given market sector. The gaps in the existing literature, which prevent an in-depth substantial discussion, demonstrate a vast research potential related to controversial forms of tourism, especially in the context of correlations between tourism phenomena, dysfunctional human behaviour and ethical issues.

The aim is to diagnose the market potential for the development of controversial forms of tourism in Poland based on opinions obtained from service providers: tour operators and retail travel agents.

The detailed objectives were as follows:

1. To identify whether respondents are familiar with the needs of their clients in the context of the frequency of their queries regarding controversial tourism offers;
2. To answer the question whether the tourism industry is moving towards treating controversial forms of tourism as an important component.

For the purpose of this study, it was assumed that this segment of the tourism market is strictly connected to the experiences which modern consumers look for in relation to dysfunctional types of travel.

2. EXPERIENCE IN TOURISM

The experience economy has its roots in the USA, dates back to the end of the 20th century and depicts the modern consumer as a person whose choices are based on emtions (Kacprzak, Dziewanowska, Skorek, 2015; Stasiak, 2013). In 1992, a German sociologist, Schulze, described the idea of an 'experiencing society' (*Erlebnisgesellschaft*). The term was taken up by Pine & Gilmore (1998) and since then has been commonly applied in academic discourse.

The factor that is the basis for creating experiences is the presence of a person (with knowledge, sensitivity) and resources, goods and services. However, it is the experiences that are the precondition for market exchange, as customers making purchase decisions evaluate whether

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consumption will provide them with expected (usually positive) experiences. Culture is also a strong incentive for the development of the experience economy. As it undergoes a 'carnivalisation' process, consumers are overwhelmed by an excess of material goods and look for new stimuli. This creates a self-perpetuating mechanism, making it the task of suppliers to create and provide fun and amusement (Barber, 2008; Bauman, 2007).

The tourism industry is strongly associated with changes occurring in the life of the traveller. Travelling provides new stimuli: new locations, people, products or experiences. Experience in tourism is often based on the authenticity of the offer and the accompanying experience. This concept was first proposed by MacCannell (1973, 1976) fifty years ago but there are also more recent publications (e.g. Åstrøm, 2017; Sigala, 2016; Weisheng, Ho, 2017; Zatori, Beardsley, 2017).

Experts admit that tourism is an important part of the industry, selling experiences anchored in human behaviour, which are very personal and subjective (Ooi, 2002; Prentice, Witt, Hamer, 1998). These multifaceted experiences are described in environmental and social contexts (Abrahams, 1986).

Tourist experiences are not reflected in the same way in different societies and their complexity has already been discussed in the subject literature (Lee, Shafer, 2002) and different methods have been developed to distinguish between them. Initially, researchers focused on cognitive psychology (Lee, Shafer, 2002; Stamboulis, Skayannis, 2003) studying the processes of experience perception by tourists (Waitt, 2000; Waller, Lea, 1999). Their imaginations and expectations determine the consumption and evaluation of a tourism product. Authors of other publications claim that tourist activity allows for gathering experiences, especially those that are considered most beneficial for the individual. They include improvement of well-being, providing a chance to express identity and allowing for in-depth contemplation of visited sites and cultures (Lee, Shafer, 2002; Prentice, Witt, Hamer, 1998). The drive towards consumption of tourist experiences becomes a means in reaching this goal (Ooi, 2003).

Empirical, strong sensations, felt in the case of optimum experiences, create a psychological state that is described by tourists as exceptional (Ellis, 1994; Walker, Hull, Roggenbuck, 1998). This type of experience is very engaging, emotionally intense, and sometimes bordering on the transcendent (Csíkszentmihályi, 1993).

Travel experiences may also reveal differences between the inhabitants of the regions visited and tourists. Urry (1990) highlights the fact that while experiencing new locations, tourists notice things which they would not notice in their everyday surroundings. They do not have sufficient knowledge to see reality in the same way native inhabitants do and apply a certain filter to the actual image of a place that is a reflection of their own environment (Ooi, 2002). Thus, tourists only get to know an approximation of the local culture whose availability to visitors is limited (Hannabuss, 1999; Ooi, 2002).

Extensive travel motivations increasingly often result in new typologies of travel, however their origins seem to correlate with traditions. When analysing the behaviour of rafting trip participants, Arnould & Price (1993) determined the following dimensions of experience: harmonious closeness to nature, sense of community, personal development and renewal.

When analysing tourism services, researchers developed other, more complex typologies. One such was proposed by Otto & Ritchie (1996) whose six dimensions, hedonism, interactivity, novelty/originality, comfort, safety and stimulation, provide a powerful compilation of experiences in tourism. It is difficult not to agree with such a claim, as almost every type of travel reflects this diversity, although some elements are more or less accentuated depending on the category of customer and the assumptions of the provider. The set of features listed above has been complemented by Rageh, Melewar & Woodside (2013) with education, relation-building, admiration and beauty, perfectly fitting in with heritage, adventure and active tourism. This also applies to the experiences related to personal relevance, novelty/originality, surprise, learning, and engagement proposed by Poulsson & Kale (2004).

Another interesting idea is the theatrical concept, according to which stimuli provided result in specific emotions of the recipients. This concept consists in adapting some elements of a theatrical metaphor to business practice and initiating a project resembling an actual theatrical play. The mechanisms are akin to those involved in art contemplation – products and services are transient in nature (similar to a play) and result in specific emotions present in human relations (also found in the theatre). The scope of application of the theatrical metaphor is very broad as it pertains to retail commerce (Harris, Harris, Baron, 2003; Deighton, 1999; Goodwin, 1996), health care and higher education institutions (John, 1996; Williams, Anderson, 2005).

Research on the travel market through the experience economy includes finding new destinations and creating tourism products. The present paper focuses on tourism with its wide spectrum of forms, especially those which are considered controversial. Their nature, although corresponding to terminological aspects of tourism, creates social doubts considering their economic aspects.

3. CONTROVERSIAL ASPECTS OF TOURISM

The Polish lexicographer Kopaliński (2014) defines 'controversy' as a doubt, a quarrel or a dispute, while the PWN Polish Language Dictionary further expands the definition, describing it as a difference of opinion resulting in discussions and disputes (Słownik języka polskiego, 2018). Another lexicographer adds that something is controversial when it expresses a negative view on a given subject (Bańko, 2007).

Despite definition-related doubts among tourism industry experts and researchers, it is possible to define controversial tourism as an activity provoking controversies and discussions, often presented in a negative light (Stasiak, 2015). Lubowiecki-Vikuk & Paczyńska-Jędrycka (2010) narrow the term down to activities with clear negative connotations, related to law violation (abortion, euthanasia, drug tourism). The subject literature however presents a broader understanding of controversy in the travel industry (Moufakkir, Burns, 2012).

Stasiak (2015) distinguished five major areas causing disputes and conflicts: tourist behaviour, travel destination, forms of tourism, tourism products and tourism effects. This means that travelling may cause numerous, multifaceted dysfunctions.

It is impossible to directly assign one controversy category to a given form of tourism and tourist behaviour. Usually, similar to tourist functions, the categories are inseparable from one another and every attempt at systematisation is bound to become subject to justified criticism.

The major differentiator in controversial tourism are the motives for participating in it, especially from the perspective of various tourism market segments. Panasiuk (2015) classifies them into potentially controversial, moderately controversial and commonly considered to be controversial. However, the boundaries between individual classes remain very subjective.

The supply structure in the tourism market focused around controversial travel seems to be even more complex. First of all, one should consider tourist offers created by entrepreneurs in the tourism industry with the purpose of influencing the motives and behaviour of tourists. When referring to a tourism product, the following controversies may be considered: partial tourism services (e.g. low-quality services), incomplete tourism packages (without compulsory insurance, sold at low prices, offered at an unsuitable time - in an off-season), prices (considerably higher or lower compared to the standard prices offered by competitors) and the quality parameters of the offer (Panasiuk, 2015).

Other controversial aspects may also pertain to tourist resources both natural and cultural: tourist attractions, tourist infrastructure, tourist services, offer comprehensiveness in tourist destinations, marketing activities and tourism image (Panasiuk, 2015).

Finally, it is also worth mentioning economic controversies arising in relation to modern tourism. Examples of such controversies are the economic exploitation of poor countries with weaker economies by the international tourism industry, tourist neo-colonialism expressed through the construction of ‘tourist ghettos’, and the transfer of almost all profits from investment abroad, resulting in a so-called ‘tourist monoculture’ through its large scale. Recession (reduction in inbound tourism) may lead to the destabilisation of a host country creating even deeper economic dependence (Jasiński, 2006).

Views on ‘who is to blame’ for the development of controversial types of tourism vary (Podemski, 2013). In their search, travellers often fall victim to the tourism industry (MacCannell, 2002), yet it is their fault as they have demanded products belonging to this category in the first place.

Table 1. Controversial types of travel

Type of tourism	Controversies
Abortion tourism	Performing abortions without medical indications in countries with liberal legal systems
Euthanasia tourism	Use of assisted death procedures
Drug tourism	Traveling to buy/sell narcotic drugs or traveling to use them
Poverty tourism	Use of difficult economic situation of societies in less-developed countries for tourist visits
Slum tourism	Use of difficult economic and housing situation of communities inhabiting poor districts in large agglomerations
Extreme tourism	Extreme behaviours that are a danger to one's life and health, taking unjustified risks
Disaster tourism	Taking dangerous actions in locations at which a natural or man-made disaster has occurred, entering areas or structures that are not available to visitors
Sex tourism	Sexual relations that are legally forbidden in the tourist's country of origin, taking advantage of the underage and women in the sex tourism industry
Party tourism	Excessive consumption of stimulants and alcohol, often resulting in crossing ethical, cultural and legal boundaries at the visited location
Stag/hen party tourism	Consumption of stimulants and alcohol, use of sexual/erotic services at the visited location
Thanatotourism	Excessive commercialisation of sites of death, combining the elements of the sacred and the profane by the visitors
Fan tourism	Brutalisation of support during sporting events, organised fights between supporters, vandalism, destruction of property

Source: own work, based on Stasiak (2015, pp. 53-69).

It is worth remembering that the search for extreme experiences in tourism often translates into putting one's life or health at risk, or causing damage to the environment and culture.

4. METHODOLOGY

The paper focuses on controversies in the Polish tourism market which have not been thoroughly analysed or sufficiently confirmed in academic publications to date. At the same time, the present study may provide valuable information for the tourism industry as it demonstrates directions of change in the tourism market.

The study material was collected using two methods:
- desk research i.e. the analysis of existing materials (so-called virtual ethnography) which allowed for a pre-diagnosis of the supply side of the market focusing on controversial tourism offers;
- Computer Assisted Telephone Interviews (CATI).

In the case of travel organisers, phone calls (in addition to mailing) are a natural mode of contact with customers. Additionally, despite its structured character resulting from using an interview questionnaire, a telephone conversation allows the interviewer to provide additional explanations and support in case of difficult or controversial issues or unclear questions. The interviewer reads the questions and notes down the answers using a computer script allowing for automatic scaling of data and creating the required statistical information. The CATI study scenario consisted of seven main questions whose answers were further expanded using conditional (filtering) questions. The average time for a single interview did not exceed four minutes.

Interviews were conducted with representatives of 107 companies operating in the tourism industry. The interviewees included travel organisers (67%), travel agencies (20%), travel intermediaries (8%) and other institutions including traveller societies (5%).

The study was conducted with the support of a market analysis company and the data used in preparing the paper were part of a larger research project conducted by the author in the years 2016–2019 focusing on controversies in the Polish tourism market.

tourism offers in their portfolios. According to members of this group, the expectations of customers are constantly growing and they usually apply to three factors: a higher standard of offer, better price and safety. Other items mentioned include a higher quality of service and new destinations which could become interesting places for tourists to visit.

The aspects mentioned above strongly correspond with the understanding of the notion 'controversial tourism', and this was also discussed with the entrepreneurs. They described 'controversial travel' as that which is related to a lack of safety and dangerous destinations (places where threats related to terrorist activity, conflicts or war are present), sex tourism and extreme tourism. The author listed types of tourism that were closest to controversial forms of travelling and asked the representatives of travel organisers to evaluate them using a scale from 1 to 10, where 1 denoted 'not controversial at all' and 10 – 'very controversial'.

Respondents identified drug tourism as the most controversial. The second was sex tourism, followed by disaster tourism, medical tourism, slum tourism, fan tourism and poverty tourism, which were classified as moderately controversial. Thanatotourism, extreme travel and hedonistic travel (clubbing, stag/hen parties) were considered slightly controversial (Fig. 1).

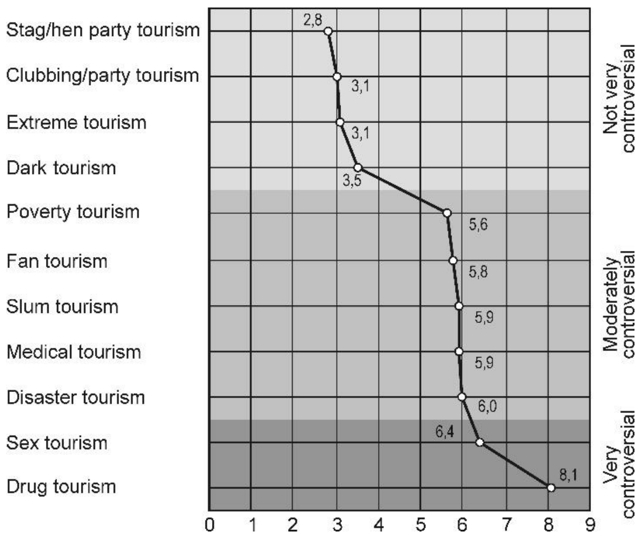

Figure 1. Degrees of controversy of different types of tourism according to the travel organisers interviewed
Source: author

5. ANALYSIS OF RESEARCH RESULTS

The first phase of the analysis involved the evaluation of changes regarding the expectations of customers in relation to the tourism offers that have occurred over the last five years in Poland. The majority of companies studied declared that such changes are noticeable (77%) and the largest percentage of positive answers was given by agents who act as intermediaries and have various

To better illustrate the problem, the highest values indicated – 8, 9, 10 – were put together which allowed for precisely establishing the percentage of respondents who selected scores in this range (cumulative percentage) (Fig. 2).

The frequency of inquiries and expectations of customers regarding the offer for controversial forms of travel (on a scale from 1 to 10, with 1 denoting 'we have never had these' and 10 – 'we have had very often') is different to the scores in the previous data set. In this case, the majority of the inquiries (still occasional) apply to party tourism and extreme travel. Less popular are inquiries related to stag/hen party tourism, thanatotourism and fan tourism (Fig. 3).

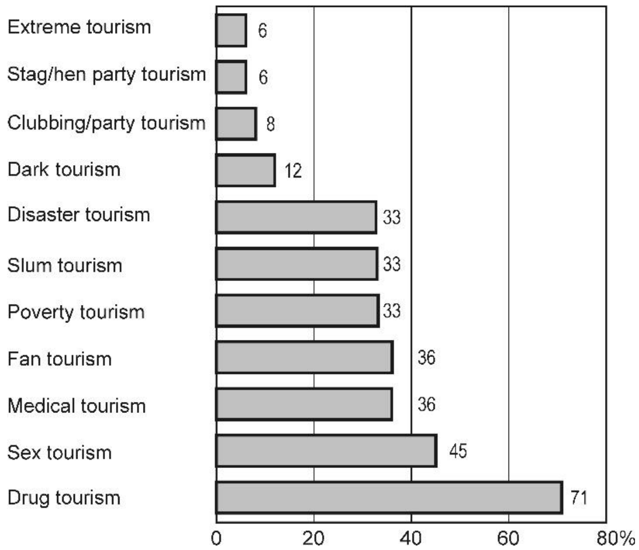

Figure 2. Degree of controversy of different types of tourism: cumulative values of highest scores
Source: author

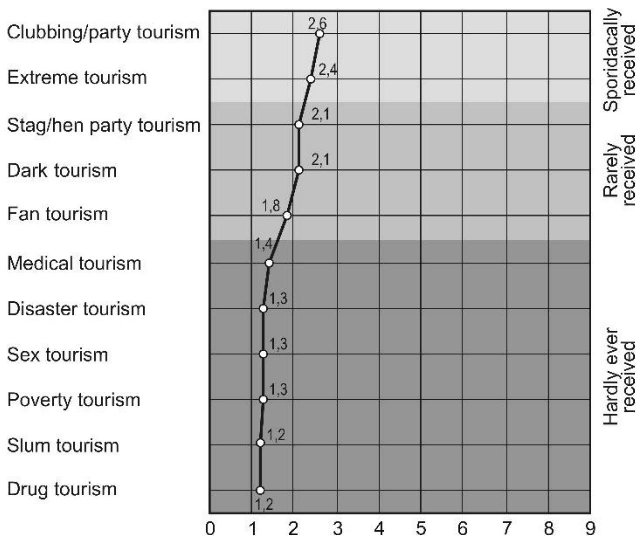

Figure 3. Frequency of customer inquiries related to controversial forms of travel
Source: author

According to the respondents, the interest of customers in forms of controversial tourism will increase in the years to come. Almost 75% of entrepreneurs believe that the travel market will develop in this direction, with tour operators being more convinced of this fact (74%) than travel agents (57%) (Fig. 4).

Over half of the respondents (56%) are of the opinion that the tourism industry in Poland will evolve towards treating controversial forms of tourism as a normal component of the tourism offer available in the market. An in-depth analysis of the cumulative values demonstrated that 8% of the respondents answered 'definitely agree', 16% 'agree' and while 32% 'somewhat agree'. In total, 32% of the respondents were of the opposite opinion, with 2% selecting 'strongly disagree', 8% 'disagree' and 22% 'somewhat disagree'.

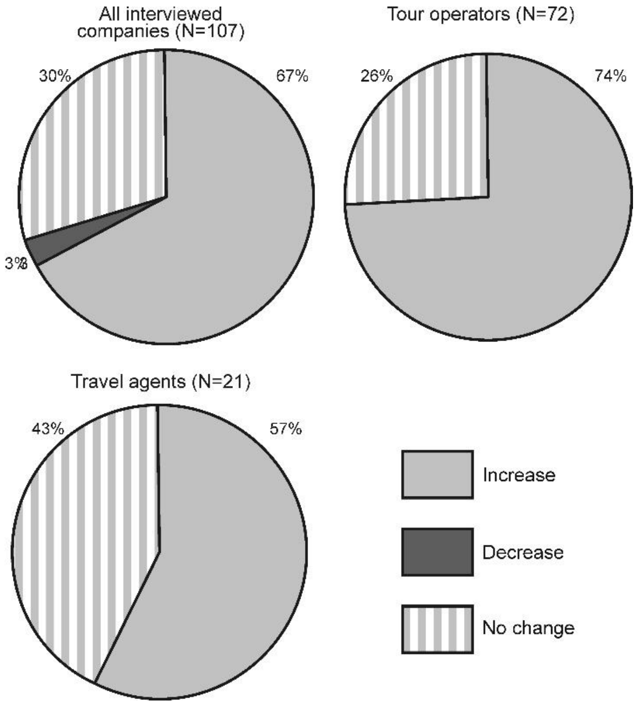

Figure 4. Interest in controversial tourism offers in the future
Source: author

6. DISCUSSION

The results indicate that the representatives of tourism service providers in Poland are aware of controversies related to the tourism industry. They believe that the market has a potential for growth but has yet to develop. The author is aware that an in-depth discussion of the findings is a challenge and it is difficult to find the necessary comparative analyses applicable to the matter in Polish specialist journals. Therefore, the discussion of this problem will not involve comparisons but rather offer a critical look at the phenomenon as a whole.

The fact that there are products on the market that are socially unacceptable but at the same time cheap and easily available, even though their production and distribution is prohibited by Polish law, is a testament to the strength of market mechanisms. The latter also reflect the nature of some forms of tourism (drug tourism, sex tourism, party tourism), especially in the context of products that deprive individuals of freedom and free choice in making purchasing decisions; consumers who are addicted to alcohol, sex or drugs. This shows that the market will provide any product, irrespective of its social cost and negative consequences of its use.

Thus, the question arises whether we are able to stop the mechanisms that govern market relations in tourism related to behaviour which the subject literature identifies as deviant. It is impossible to give a precise answer to a question and this has been corroborated in a conversation with a member of the academic community during a meeting organised in the course of the present study:

> […] controversial tourism is growing and it will continue to grow. This is the result of societies getting richer. At the same time, the difference in income between rich and poor countries is growing. […] in accordance with the well-known cascade effect, controversial tourism (and money) shifts from rich to poor countries.

This economic approach should be supplemented with analyses of the human psyche and the psychological processes which provoke the development of experience tourism in its controversial aspects.

It remains a fact that modern tourists can be seen as those who search, who wish to experience originality and authentic emotions, who want to engage their senses and live through personal experience. The originality of the destination, surprise, extravagance, even activities usually considered shocking often become elements of the everyday lives of travellers. Sometimes the experiences, excitement and psychological satisfaction of a tourist becomes more important than the tourism offer itself. Experiences formed in the visitors' consciousness create a mental space which is not a genuine reflection of real life and can be plastically shaped. According to Stasiak (2011), the resources of a real tourist space have physical limitations and their enhancement may eventually prove impossible. Conversely, it is possible to expand temporal and mental space. Thus, the future of the tourism market may no longer lie in areas whose value stems from their heritage but those which will allow tourists to fill this latter type of space.

7. CONCLUSIONS

Research on controversial aspects of the tourist market in Poland is still in its initial stages. Thus, any activities aiming at expanding its scope seem necessary and justified from both economic and social standpoints. Attempts to fill this cognitive gap are often limited by practical problems in conducting thorough studies and obtaining reliable results. This paper is an initial step towards an in-depth analysis of the tourist market, and in terms of its typology (the scope of needs fulfilled by travelling). The emergence of new categories of consumer entails their identification and grouping which has implications for tourism marketing. The creativity of providers in meeting needs will continue to evolve, with the only limiting factors being legal and, in some cases, ethical constraints.

Further studies on controversial tourism may reveal various fields for discussion starting from analyses of the tourism supply sector, through motives and willingness to cater for the needs of this specific market segment, to analyses of consumption processes based on deviant tourist behaviour. These should not only be quantitative studies evaluating its scope but also more in-depth qualitative analyses answering the question why the phenomenon investigated occurs more and more frequently and what drives the purchasing decisions of the customers. Contemporary studies already highlight their behavioural and cognitive scope.

Analyses which focus on the perception of risk when travelling, the safety of visitors, crime and terrorism as well as health aspects and in particular diseases that are a threat to tourists during their travel, are already a strong paradigm in studies on tourism (Baker, Page, Mayer, 2003; Rittichainuwat, Chakraborty, 2009). On the one hand, these factors are deterrents which have a negative impact on tourists' decisions to travel. On the other hand, knowing that such deterrents exist allows for creating preventive solutions. Manipulation of such events may have a positive impact on consumer reactions, including those related to the protection of the environment and culture, and support for areas threatened by disease, as well as sparking curiosity and interest both in the tourism offer and the destination itself.

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RETURNING LIFE TO THE CENTER OF TEHRAN: THE OUDLAJAN FOODSCAPE

Abstract: The Oudlajan revitalization project proposed in the article, relates to both its contemporary needs and its potential. In its idea, the project uses the Iranian tradition of 'hangout' and refers to current trends in spending leisure time as well as shaping (designing) inclusive urban space. In terms of purpose, the project presented is applied, and in terms of methods used, it is a descriptive and analytical (qualitative) study. The article is also a voice in the debate on tourism and urban regeneration. By displaying Persian conditions in shaping the foodscape *(tourism taste-space)*, it contributes to the dynamically-developing research on food tourism and urban culinary space.

Keywords: Urban Revitalization (Urban Regeneration), Exhausted Neighborhood, Urban Foodscape, Tourism, Tehran.

1. INTRODUCTION

The regeneration of historic parts of the city with the goal of giving them new functions, particularly tourism and recreational (leisure), is a common practice all over the world (Hoffman, Fainstein, Judd, 2003). Examples of the success of many cities (especially European) based on this scheme since the second half of the 20th century have strengthened belief in its effectiveness. It is the economic strength and benefits of developing tourism for the local economy have become most convincing, as well as the relatively easy implementation of tourism development strategies. 'Coupled system' tourismification as a tool for and aim of urban regeneration, shapes contemporary urban landscapes (often iconic cultural landscapes) from Kyoto to New Orleans, via Beijing, Mashhad, Venice and Kraków. Determined by the local context, it has different effects, although in the second decade of the 21st century many examples show its Janus face (see the examples of Venice, New Orleans or Mashhad – see for instance Gotham, 2005; Kowalczyk-Anioł, Afshar, 2018).

The experience of western cities in the field of revitalization and the creation of (new) tourist spaces (Włodarczyk, 2011; Kazimierczak, 2012), as well as the undesirable effects of tourism development and contemporary approach to the historical urban fabric and heritage (*urban cultural landscape* – Taylor, 2016) suggest taking into account the interests of the local community, and in face of an awareness of the threatening consequences associated with tourismification (Jansen-Verbeke, 1998; Kowalczyk-Anioł, 2019a, 2019b), in renewing historical space.

In the current discussion on urban regeneration there is a consensus that this process should always apply to an

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area, a fragment of urban space, a district, neighborhood or at least an urban quarter (Kaczmarek, 2019). As Kaczmarek and Kazimierczak point out (2019), the purpose of such activity is to revive an area to meet the needs (current and future) of the users of this space. Despite many repetitive mechanisms, this process is contextual because the causes, course and effects of the regeneration process are topographically conditioned, i.e. dependent on the place of implementation. In this article, the context defines one of the five oldest districts of Tehran (Iran) – Oudlajan.[1]

The contemporary approach to urban regeneration (revitalization) exposes the comprehensive nature of this process, which includes the morphological (i.e. spatial-functional and architectural-urban dimensions), economic, social, cultural and ecological dimensions (cf. Kaczmarek, 2019; Markowski, Stawasz, 2007; Kozłowski, Wojnarowska, 2011). The focus of the article is regeneration in the spatial, functional, architectural and urban dimensions. The area under consideration is an example of a 'problem area' whose 'malfunc-tion' is caused by social problems as well as the material and functional degradation. Therefore, the authors assume that the need for regeneration results not only from its current state of deterioration but also from its attractive location in a central space of the city. Attempts to renovate individual buildings in this district (Rezaei, Rasouli, Azhdari, 2019) have so far demonstrated the urgent need for careful planning of neighborhood change.

As Lotfi (2011) mentions, Tehran has a rich but unused historical and tourism potential (cultural and natural). Ziyaei, Abbasi, Kazemian & Karoobi (2016) indicate that the main challenge for planning and managing tourism is that the city's attractions (disappearing in the bustle, crowds and traffic) are not noticed by tourists (coming mainly for business and medical purposes). At the same time, Tehran is one of the biggest tourist destinations in Iran (about four million tourists in 2013 – Ziyaei, Abbasi, Kazemian, Karoobi, 2016). As the capital with two international airports, is visited by the majority of foreign tourists, Tehran is at the same time a dynamic metropolis of several million whose authorities (according to the vision of the Iranian authorities – see Kowalczyk-Anioł, Afshar, 2018) perceive tourism as a sector that can provide employment for the growing young population and improve overall living conditions.

However, as previously emphasized, despite the undeniable value of the oldest central parts of the city, their destruction continues. The accumulated neglect (of inhabitants and authorities) has resulted in the loss of urban life there and has led to their abandonment despite their worthy features (Habibi, 1999).

The research subject – the Oudlajan neighborhood – despite its potential, due to physical exhaustion is struggling with growing poverty in socio-cultural, economic and physical-spatial dimensions. The extreme exhaustion in the structure, and the lack of appropriate facilities and infrastructure, do not correspond with the current needs of the inhabitants. For this reason, residents living in this district are migrating to other areas of the city (more prosperous and comfortable) and other migrants, often from low-income groups, are replacing them. As a result, as indicated by Kalantari, Khalilabad & Derakhshani (2014), the process of undermining cultural convergence, deterioration in the quality of neighborhood, loss of identity and originality, a weakening of common social memory and sense of belonging is progressing, which ultimately is leading to a deepening degradation. Therefore, the revitalization of Oudlajan seems to be necessary to increase not only its attractiveness and urban vitality, but also sustainability and resilience.

Tourism is one of the ways to revive valuable historic urban fabric which has been considered in the master plan for Tehran as the future prospect of the neighborhood (Kordovani, Ghaffari, 2011). The transformation of historic city centers in the world based on the intensification of activities focused on consumer lifestyle, entertainment and culture (cf. Clark 2011), and recently increasingly strongly on gastronomy (Mand, Cilliers, 2013; Parham, 2013), is an attractive model for city authorities. This is also favored by the locally growing demand for this type of space among the very large and young population of Tehran (one quarter of residents are in their twenties – Nawracka, 2011). At the same time, the specificity of both the socio-cultural dimension (including how space is used) and the architecture of Iran (including a clear division into private, semi-private and public spaces) determines planning options, while reflection on urban regeneration processes confirms the importance of the local context.

The project proposed in this article is intended to help bring urban life and vitality back to this historic neighborhood. It refers to the shift in the position of gastronomy in the context of the emerging experience economy (Pine & Gilmore 1999) and culinary tourism (Kowalczyk, 2016; Stasiak, 2016) as well as dissemination of so-called urban *food quarters* (Parham, 2013), *food districts* (Kowalczyk 2014), *culinaryscapes* (Heryanto, Sastrawati, Patandianan, 2013; Kowalczyk, 2016), and creating a competitive *destination foodscape* (Richards, 2015; Björk, Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2019). Its core is 'Mazeh-Sara' – a new urban food (culinary) space – combining the features of classic tourist attractions and facilities with recreational (leisure) amenities. Those addressed by the proposed Oudlajan foodscape are both tourists increasingly coming to Tehran (including foreign and domestic tourists) as well as the inhabitants of the agglomeration itself (numbering over 16 million).

In terms of purpose, the project is applied-developmental, and in terms of the methods used, it is descriptive-analytical (qualitative).

In view of this, the purpose of the article is to present the idea behind the regeneration of the core of historical

Tehran focusing on creating a foodscape as a recreational and tourist cultural space rooted in Persian culinary tradition. Therefore, the main research question is how can defining a 'Mazeh-Sara' in the Oudlajan neighborhood to be effective in the regeneration of urban life in the historical core of Tehran?

Secondary questions are:
- What are the characteristics of a 'Mazeh-Sara' in Oudlajan neighborhood?
- What features should be provided in a 'Mazeh-Sara' to help to restore the historical core of Tehran to urban life?

The following methods will be used to answer the above questions:
- theoretical studies (documentary): analysis of academic literature and desk research analysis
- field studies (practical): observation and photography.

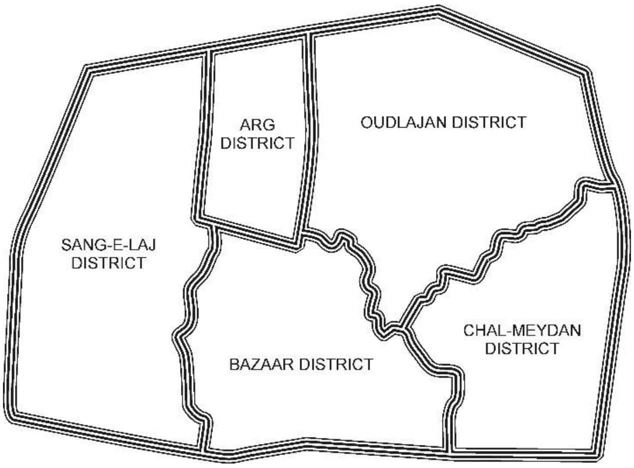

Figure 1. Old Tehran neighborhoods
Source: Abrishami (2010)

2. CHARACTERISTICS OF THE OUDLAJAN NEIGHBORHOOD

Oudlajan is the name of a neighborhood located in the central part of Tehran and is one of the five old neighborhoods of the city (Fig. 1). It has existed since the Safavi era (1501-1736) and in the reign of Nasir al-din-Shah (1848-1896), the number of its inhabitants were increased by often rich families (Habibi, Hourcade, 2005). It has become a wealthy district, with many new large houses. Around 1785, the first embassies were founded in the area and the nearby Tehran Old Bazaar – British, Ottoman, French, Russian and later also German and Austrian. They were later moved to the north of the city (Nawracka, 2011). As Rezaei, Rasouli & Azhdari (2019) stress 'until the early Pahlavi era of the 1930s, the Oudlajan neighborhood, located adjacent to the bazaar and the government center, was a very important residential area, and home to various social classes, especially the ruling class and nobility'. According to statistical surveys in 1905, the Oudlajan was one of the most populous (36,495 people) among the five neighborhoods of Tehran. As shown (Fig. 2) during the Qajar period (1794-1925), the area of the Oudla-jan neighborhood increased compared to the Safavi period (Abrishami, 2010).

As the city grew, many of the wealthy residents, migrated to the northern areas of Tehran. The area was abandoned and its residents were mostly replaced by incoming migrant groups, usually on low-incomes (Abrishami, 2010). After such changes, the Great Bazaar of Tehran, as a strong economic and political urban player, dominated the neighborhood. Many residential buildings were transformed into places for Bazaar-related activities, such as workshops, business units and warehouses (Bavand Consulting Engineers, 2011; Rezaei, Rasouli, Azhdari, 2019).

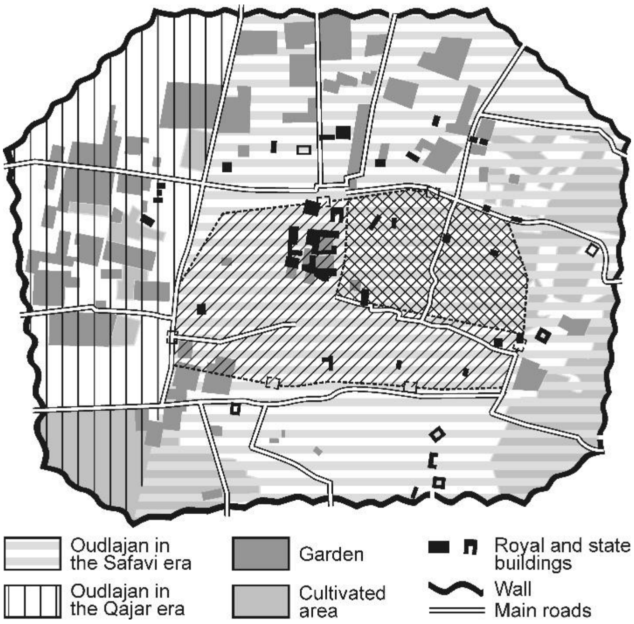

Figure 2. Oudlajan (dark) in the Safavi era;
Oudlajan (light) in the Qajar era
Source: Abrishami (2010)

As a result, social and cultural instability prevails in the neighborhood. This undermines cultural convergence, loss of identity and originality, diminution of common social memories and the sense of attachment and ultimately damages the neighborhood in a variety of ways.

Based on field work (observation and photography – Photos 1 and 2) carried out by the authors on April 2018, it can be concluded that the most important threats which Oudlajan is confronting nowadays are (Hakimian, 2018):
- decrease in social and personal security
- lack of appropriate local infrastructure
- lack of appropriate recreational facilities
- unstable residential buildings
- loss of historical and cultural value

Regarding these, rehabilitation and regeneration of the neighborhood (for participation in current urban life), is essential to increase its sustainability.

Photo 1. Weakened urban areas and lack of appropriate local infrastructure such as water, electricity, sewage etc.
Source: authors

Photo 2. Low quality and poor resistance of residential buildings to natural disasters
Source: authors

3. TOURISM AND THE EXHAUSTED HISTORICAL URBAN FABRIC

Historical urban spaces (valuable urban fabric), due to the presence of nostalgic attractions, architectural, cultural and valuable buildings and religious conditions of the period which they belong to, have the ability to increase the importance and attractiveness of the city (Dinari, 2005). They can also help the city to be considered as a tourist destination. The European model of using historical urban spaces by tourism has been discussed, for instance, by Jansen-Verbeke (1998), Ashworth & Tunbridge (1990), Orbasli (2002), Russo (2002), Faracik (2017), García-Hernández, de la Calle-Vaquero & Yubero (2017), Kowalczyk-Anioł (2017). Asian examples (except Iranian, referred to in the text) were analyzed, among others by Timothy & Wall (1995), Teo & Huang (1995) as well as Wang & Lee (2008).

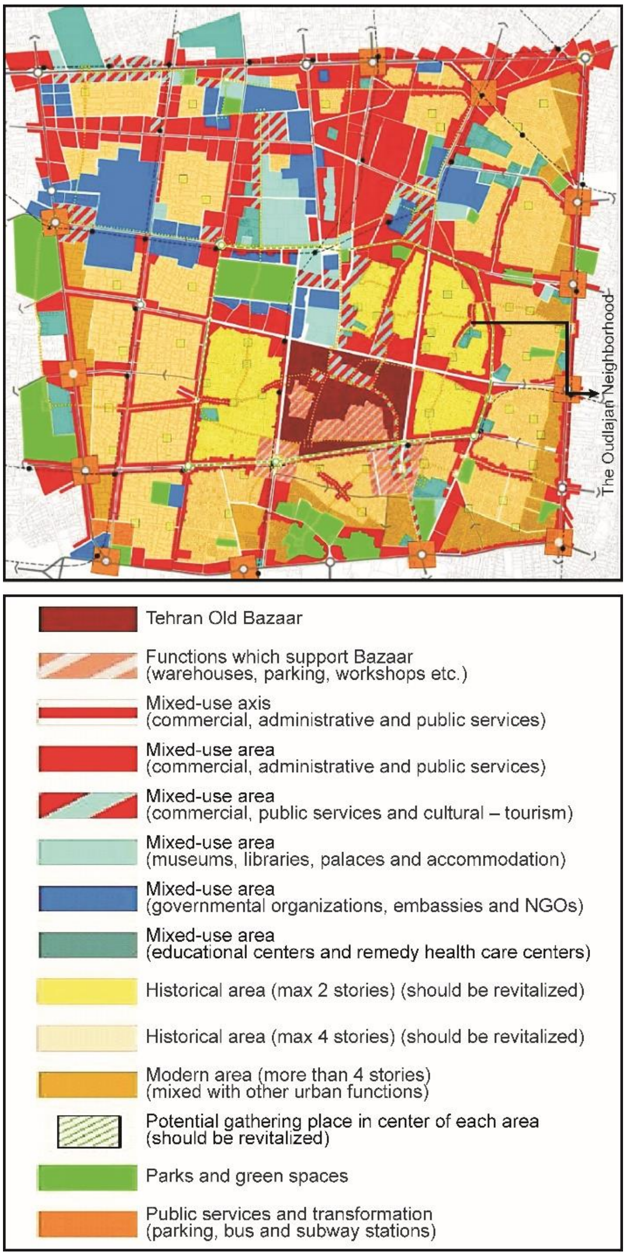

Figure 3. Investigating the district's functions
Source: authors

According to Dinari (2005) historic monuments represent a significant contribution and can be reused as a space suitable for new functions or for residential, commercial, retail, entertainment and cultural purposes. Tourism can especially be used to find new functions in abandoned monuments and improve the city's physical-spatial dimension (see also Lak, Gheitasi, Timothy, 2019).

Urban tourism, due to the opportunity to create spaces and opportunities for urban historic buildings, attractions and areas of cultural heritage, makes it possible for the neighborhood to get the benefit from the positive socio-cultural and economic impacts of tourism, bring vivacity to the half dead body of the neighborhood and help tom restore these valuable, exhausted areas to life. Therefore, the representation of attractions and tourism facilities can be seen as a potential for urban regeneration of historical and exhausted urban spaces and to use tourism as a regeneration tool in the modern age (Movahed, Mohammadi, 2002; see also Wise, 2016).

As a result, one of the strategies recently considered as an option for the regeneration of the old core of Tehran is the expansion of tourism in historical neighborhoods (Dinari, 2005). Although Oudlajan has the potential to become an attractive tourist area, so far the opportunities for the regeneration of its historical urban fabric have not been used (Kalantari, Khalilabad, Derakhshani, 2014). Adverse changes taking place in Oudlajan, require appropriate activity to restore life to this part of the city (Habibi, 1999), and at the same time supply the constantly growing demand in Tehran for attractive public spaces and meeting places corresponding to changing social needs (Sharepour, 2019; Nawracka, 2011). This constitutes an important context for the project proposed later in the article fitting into the framework considered in the master plan of the city in which tourism (tourism development and amenities) is the future prospect of the neighborhood (Kordovani, Ghaffari, 2011) – Fig. 3.

4. 'MAZEH-SARA' – THE REVIVAL OF A KIND OF 'HANGOUT' IN OLD TEHRAN

As previously mentioned, old Tehran has five neighborhoods which each contained the 'hangout'[2] (*paatogh* – a gathering place for the local residents) – Torkaman, Ghaed, Shemtoub (2018). Oudlajan has four 'hangouts', including Nayeb Sayyed Hassan, Nayeb Muhammad Sadiq, Nayeb Ismail and Nayeb Heydar. Each was divided into several passes and alleys. In the past, these 'meeting places' included coffeehouses *(ghahwe-khane)*, restaurants, baths (*hammam*), zurkhaneh,[3] mosques and tekyeh[4] (Photos 3 and 4) etc. Taqi Azadarmaki, a sociologist and professor at the University of Social Sciences at the University of Tehran, said (on Jan 2015): 'We have a lot of 'hangouts' in old and new Iran, which the most important and lasting of them are the coffeehouses that with their architectural, social and political environment, have been effective in shaping major events. Alongside eating, cultural interactions including painting and storytelling, social communications, exchanging political news, business deals, dispute resolution etc., have also taken place in coffeehouses. In addition to the presence of the lower classes of society, higher level individuals and social groups were also found, and each social group was a source of activity based on their taste and interest. One group listened to the Shahnameh[5] story teller, another came to exchange news and a third for commercial and economic dealings. But today, with the advent of modernism, its role has been gradually diminished in the lives of the people' (Hosseini, 2015) – Fig. 4 and Photos 3-7.

In Tehran nowadays the 'hangout' has lost its original function and it has faded especially in the historical core of the old parts of the city. They still contain the most original and oldest coffeehouses and restaurants which are very famous in terms of quality. The high quality of food, the traditional taste and antiquity of these restaurants attract many people from all corners of the city, so it can be a tourism attraction (Hosseini, 2015) – Photos 6 and 7.

Figure 4. Original restaurants concentrated around the bazaar and Oudlajan in old Tehran
Source: Maps Google (2018)

Photo 3. An old painting which shows a coffeehouse
Source: Aks.ir (2019)

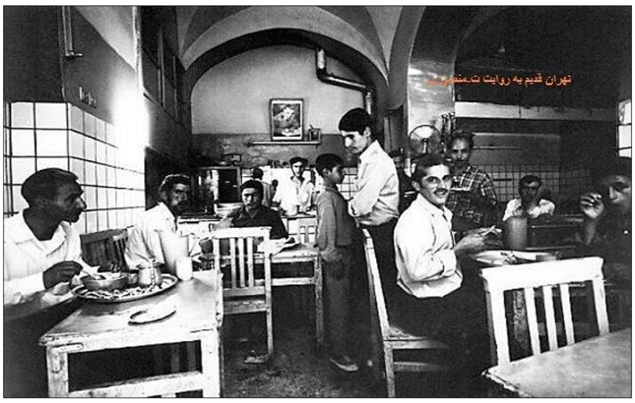

Photo 4. One of the old Tehran coffeehouses
Source: Hosseini (2015)

Photo 5. Everyday crowds in the Tehran bazaar
Source: Kajaro.com (2018)

Phto 6. Crowds in front of the Shamshiri restaurant
Source: Irantoorism.akaup.com (2018)

Photo 7. Akbar-mashti ice cream
(an original ice cream parlor in Tehran acts as an attraction)
Source: Qudsonline.ir (2019)

In Tehran nowadays the 'hangout' has lost its original function and it has faded especially in the historical core of the old parts of the city. They still contain the most original and oldest coffeehouses and restaurants which are very famous in terms of quality. The high quality of food, the traditional taste and antiquity of these restaurants attract many people from all corners of the city, so it can be a tourism attraction (Hosseini, 2015) – Photos 6 and 7.

Bearing in mind the above, 'hangouts' as effective elements in this neighborhood can be considered as a useful tool for the regeneration of Oudlajan. Based on this, a regenerated inclusive urban space called 'Mazeh-Sara' was designed in Oudlajan, which should be defined as a *foodscape*. A crucial aspect of the foodscape idea is that "it highlights the interaction among people, place, and food, weaving the individual into the surrounding environment, culture, and society" (Björk, Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2019, p. 468, after: Sage, 2010). Within tourism, as Björk & Kauppinen-Räisänen (2019, p. 468) claim, "a *destination foodscape* denotes the places that facilitate a wide range of food experiences, beyond just restaurants and bars". With regard to foodscape management and planning, these authors recommend, among others "focus not only on environments, which are staged for tourists, but also on the everyday lives of the locals as strong experience-enhancing actors"; and "create places where tourists can have more private food experiences" (Björk, Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2019, p. 473). The 'Mazeh-Sara' concept is a foodscape that meets these expectations. It is a contemporary sustainable attractive leisure and tourist space which is rooted in Iranian sentiment for 'hangouts', thus it is possible to revive this neighborhood and bring it back into the life of the city. The immediate vicinity of the Bazaar (as the commercial hub of Tehran) should also be considered as a locational advantage of 'Mazeh-Sara'.

As a summary, it should be clarified that 'Mazeh-Sara' is a proposed name for the Oudlajan foodscape. It is derived from 'Mazeh' which means taste and 'Sara' which means a very large house in Persian. Therefore, 'Mazeh-Sara' means an extensive building for different tastes.

4.1. THE FEATURES OF MAZEH-SARA

The necessary features of a successful 'Mazeh-Sara' which this paper proposes include location, architectural elements, spatial organization, and interior design:

Location:
- within the proposed land use (commercial-cultural and tourism) in the master plan of Tehran.
- based on the identification of target customers to determine its overall model.

Architectural elements:
- Distinct entrance: in crowded or overcrowded environments, the facade of the restaurant should be such that it looks distinct and appealing. The restaurant's signboard is one of the most important components in the restaurants exterior design and a distinguishing feature, as it attracts the attention of the customer

and remains in their minds. Those signboards which have a clear and at the same time very attractive message, are very influential. Old buildings in Oudlajan usually have remarkable main entrances.
- Using natural and architectural elements (derived from the architectural identity of the neighborhood), they make the space more enjoyable although the customer may not see these signs or ignore them (Mostaeddi, 2011).

Spatial organization:
- The environment of a restaurant should not be so small that the tables are too close to each other because customers feel insecure and cannot calmly eat their food.
- Viewable kitchen: the restaurants where the kitchen and its serving section are visible, and the customer can see all the work that is done for meals, are more appropriate, as restaurant staff should pay more attention to health and professional cookery (Mostaeddi, 2011).

Interior design:
- Identify target customers and define a concept, style and general theme: after identifying a general pattern, a concept and style must be identified as well as the decorative elements chosen to help bring the space closer to the desired theme.
- The foodscape should be well aware of its audience and consider factors such as age, income level, gender, marital status, and religion.
- Natural light: this element has great potential in attracting passers-by who at first do not decide to come in. In fact, it can spark the curiosity of pedestrians and encourage them to decide to come in
- Colors: colors are factors that have a very high mental impact and can create a good feeling for the customer
- Enough space for seats in busy times
- Environment and sanitation
- Comfortable furniture in an attractive and innovative design

4.2. PLAN FOR 'OUDLAJAN MAZEH-SARA'

According to this categorization the proposed plan for 'Oudlajan Mazeh-Sara' is as follows:
- the proposed tourism district is in the southwest of the neighborhood as a future vision in the master plan of Tehran – see Fig. 3.
- the target customers comprise tourists (international or even Iranian tourists) and residents of Oudlajan and surrounding areas.

These two groups show a different pattern of behavior in the context of the neghborhood.

Tourists spend most of their time in a range of protected historical buildings which are valuable (determined on the basis of the value of a building as a historical monument, its symbolic value and its location on attractive urban places), as well as buildings without any historical value (rows of shops). Local residents spend most of their time in those (residential, commercial, administrative, cultural and etc.). Therefore, in order to locate the complex in such a way that it is easily accessible for each of these groups, we chose a place which the majority of attractions are found near residential units, which in fact is almost at the center of the neighborhood (Fig. 5).

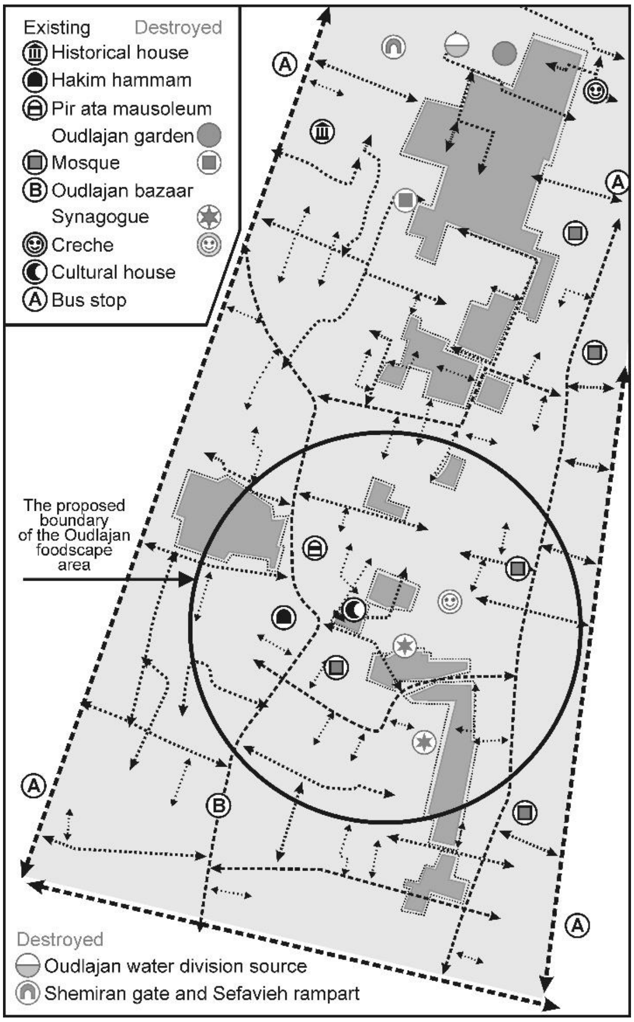

Figure 5. Buildings in the Oudlajan neighborhood
Source: authors

As a result, we have the two following models:
- inside a valuable historical building (paradigm 1) – Fig. 6
- inside a building without historical value (paradigm 2) – Fig. 7

The final boundary and plan for Oudlajan 'Mazeh-Sara' would be as shown in Fig. 8.

Figure 6. The final boundary of the Oudlajan Maze-Sara
Source: authors

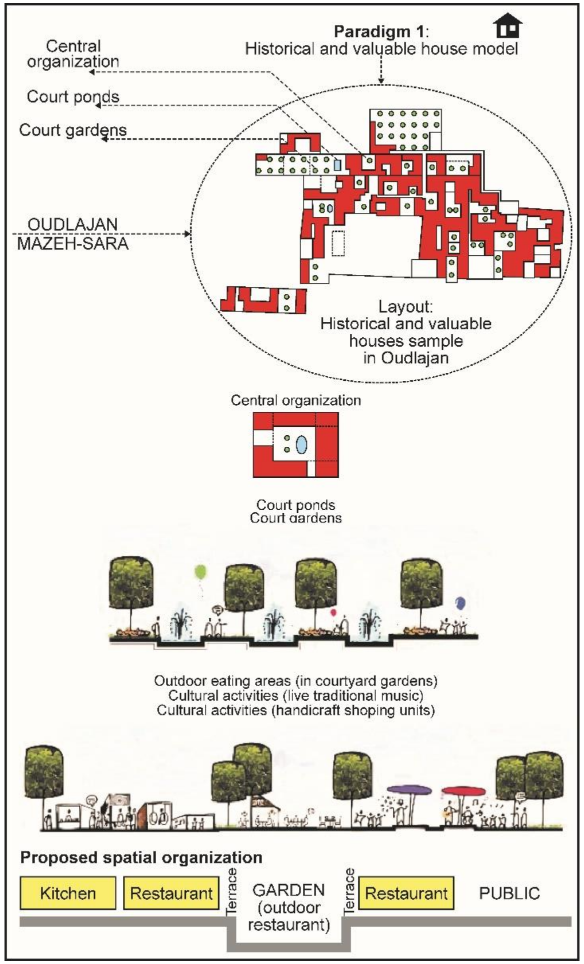

Figure 7. The first architectural proposal
for Oudlajan Mazeh-Sara
Source: authors

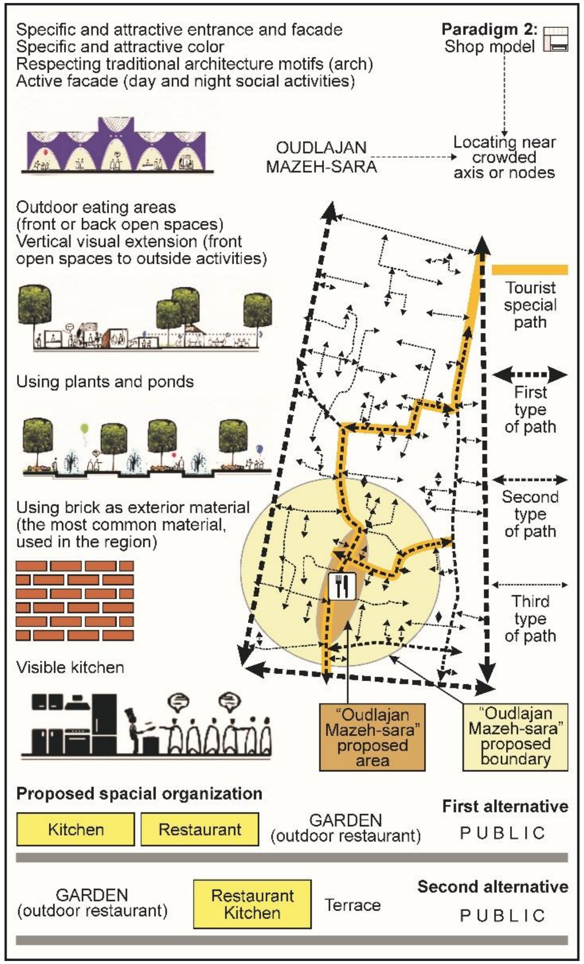

Figure 8. The second architectural proposal
for Oudlajan Mazeh-Sara
Source: authors

4.3. ARCHITECTURAL PROPOSALS (BASED ON LOCATION)

The architectural proposals for each model:

1. Paradigm 1 (historical and valuable house) – if the complex is placed inside a valuable historical protected building:
- use natural and architectural elements (derived from the architectural identity of the neighborhood), a kind of rehabilitation of abandoned potential in the heart of these houses, such as:
- a – central organization, b – courtyard, c – existence of water and plants in the courtyard
- mix the 'Mazeh-Sara' with cultural and artistic activities, in order to increase its spatial attractiveness and attract more people
- create an opportunity for outdoor service in order to create spatial diversity responses to different tastes and the usability of the space throughout the year

2. Paradigm 2 (commercial) – if placed in a range of buildings without historical value:
- distinct entrance
- use natural and architectural elements (derived from the architectural identity of the neighborhood), such as Iranian special tiling, brickwork, arched architectural motifs and the existence of water and plant elements in the courtyard
- mix functions, as explained before
- create an opportunity for outdoor service, as explained before
- the kitchen is visible
- use attractive and inviting colors (on the facade and in the interior design)
- use window (natural light) in order to create a visual extension between inside and outside using interior decorations (derived from the architectural identity of the neighborhood), as explained before.

5. CONCLUSIONS

Despite many restrictions, including international sanctions, tourism (and the tourism industry) has grown rapidly in Iran (Seyfi, Hall, Kuhzady, 2019). However, its development is still a new phenomenon, and as Alipour & Heydari claim (2005, p. 39) 'encouraging 'tourism' in Iran has become a hotly debated issue (see Seyfi, Hall, 2018).

The proposal presented in the article is a project to revive city life in one of the five historic districts of Tehran and relates to both the contemporary needs of this place and its potential. In the fundamental idea, the project uses the Iranian tradition of 'hangouts' and refers to current trends in spending free time in a city as well as shaping (designing) urban space. Contemporary urban tourism spaces are evolving into urban leisure spaces that are attractive to both tourists and residents (including residents of other city districts). Their inseparable component, closely related to growing consumerism and experience economy, is a proliferation of eating places (Parham, 2013; Heryanto, Sastrawati, Patandianan, 2013; Kowalczyk, 2014; Richards, 2015; Björk, Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2019). As in western cities, in urban space they are materialized in the form of food courts located in historical or post-industrial (which is typical in Western cities) revitalized urban fabric. The presented project is to help introduce the tourist function (based on culinary traditions and search for gastronomic experiences) in the non-tourist space of the city. Bearing in mind the experiences of many cities, the authors are aware of the opportunities and threats that such activity brings (see other Iranian cases – Yazd (Rezaei, 2017) and Masshad (Kowalczyk-Anioł, Afshar, 2018). At the initial stage of creating the idea, we assume a meeting space, inclusive for both Tehran residents and tourists, but also a culturally themed culinary space (Chaudhuri, Fowler, Sinha, 2018). This project is an attempt to halt the progressive degradation of the historical fabric of the district, to restore Oudlajan's life and also to restore its identity.

The article is a voice in the wide debate on tourism and regeneration aimed at creating an urban *tourism tastespace* (Everett, 2019). By displaying Persian conditions in shaping a foodscape, it contributes to food tourism research which itself is dynamically developing (Ellis, Park, Kim, Yeoman, 2018). At the same time, it indicates possibilities for further research, of which the functioning of a foodscape as a *travelling concept* (Bal, 2002) seems particularly attractive both to various academic disciplines as well as the cultural and political contexts of urban space.

ENDNOTES

[1] Tehran, although it has a long and complicated history (associated with the nearby ancient city of Rey located on the Silk Road) has gained its current form over the past three centuries. With the acquisition of capital city functions, from a small town of 15,000 residents it has developed into a large metropolis of several million – see more Nawracka (2011).

[2] 'Hangout' is also associated with the roots of Oldenburg's 'third place' concept (1989).

[3] A traditional system of athletics originally used to train warriors (*Pahlevani and zoorkhaneh rituals*, 2019).

[4] A place where Shiite Muslims gather to mourn Muharram, such places are in particular found in Iran. They are usually designed with elements of Persian architecture (*Tekyeh*, 2019).

[5] Is a long epic poem written by the Persian poet Ferdowsi between c. 977 and 1010 CE (*Shahnameh*, 2019).

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DEVELOPMENT DETERMINANTS OF HOLIDAY SETTLEMENT: CASE STUDY OF THE *GMINA* OF STĘŻYCA

Abstract: The article presents the results of research on a specific recreation space – holiday plots. It is an attempt to identify the conditions for the development of holiday settlements, using the example of the *gmina* of Stężyca situated in the centre of the Kashubian Lake District. The authors indicate the conditions related to the location of holiday plots, as well as the motivations and expectations of their owners. As a result of the study, it was concluded that natural and landscape assets, as well as temporal and spatial accessibility determined the development of the holiday settlement in the *gmina* of Stężyca. Equally significant factors are family ties and sentiment towards their place of birth.

Keywords: holiday settlement, holiday plots, *gmina* of Stężyca, Kashubian Lake District.

1. INTRODUCTION

Currently, a major tourism issue is recreation in the countryside surrounding a city, a special recreation zone used by inhabitants who temporarily leave it. Tourism locations in such zones sometimes become the foundation of larger urban settlements, or even new towns. Holiday villages visited by city dwellers are frequently situated near seaside destinations, winter sports or inland water recreation centres (Beaujeu-Garnier, Chabot, 1971).

Comprehensive research on the recreational function in the countryside surrounding a city has been conducted mainly with regard to large agglomerations (Dziegieć, Liszewski, 1984). An outstanding work was written by Liszewski (1987) who presented the origins and development of tourist settlement for this area of Łódź. Detailed empirical studies presenting the range, forms and development level of the recreational function in this zone of Łódź were conducted by Matczak (1985). The research also included suggestions concerning different measures of this function, i.e. the analysis of land use (Liszewski 1985; Matczak 1991), the scale of tourism (Matczak, 1987a), the morphology of its areas of housing (Makowska-Iskierka, 2004; Matczak 1984), as well as an analysis of summer house construction (Matczak, 1986a). Research conducted by Włodarczyk (1999), Szkup (2003) and Makowska-Iskierka (2011) identified the recreational space in selected areas of this zone for Łódź. As regards different aspects of the development of the recreational function, a major contribution was made by authors discussing the same zone for Warsaw who presented research on the location of second homes (Kowalczyk, 1990) as well as the impact of natural and social factors on the quality of time spent there (Kowalczyk, 1993). In-depth studies of the recreation areas in the zone around Kraków were conducted by Faracik (2006, 2011), whereas Grucza & Grucza (2007) presented factors concerning the impact of second home location around the Gdańsk agglomeration. A comparative analysis of selected aspects of the recreational function in the countryside surrounding Warsaw, Łodz and Cracow was presented by Jakóbczyk-Gryszkiewicz (1995).

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Similar research has been conducted with regard to cities in relation to housing (e.g. Liszewski, 1991; Matczak, 1987b), river valleys (Wiluś, 1997; Wojciechowska, 1998), administrative units (Adamiak, 2012; Jażewicz, Zienkiewicz, 2017; Matulewki, Tomczak, 2013), and natural regions (Dziegieć, 1989; Krukowska, Świeca, 2008). Less numerous have been works concerning individual recreation in Poland (Adamiak, Sokołowski, 2012; *Drugie domy…*, 2011; Durydiwka, 2012; Heffner, 2015; Kowalczyk, 1986, 1994; Wyrzykowski, 1985).

The authors of this paper have attempted to present the determinants of holiday settlement development in the Kashubian *gmina* of Stężyca, which is situated in the Kartuzy *powiat* close to the Gdańsk agglomeration. They have pointed both to the conditions related to the location of holiday plots, with particular consideration of natural, landscape and cultural assets, the close proximity of the owners' permanent residence, as well as accessibility by transport, and to their owners' motivations and expectations.

The source materials used in the article were based on secondary information found in the records and registers provided by the *Gmina* Office in Stężyca, the Surveying Department and the *Powiat Starostwo* Construction Department in Kartuzy, as well as the *Powiat* Inspectorate of Construction Supervision in Kartuzy. However, it was the primary data obtained from a survey and a field inventory that proved particularly important and useful. Basic field research was conducted during the summer months (July-August) of 2013 among the owners of holiday plots in the form of a survey (104 questionnaires).[1] The study included two districts, Niesiołowice and Sikorzyno, which had the majority of holiday plots and where the largest number of permits to build holiday houses were issued. The subject of the article is the *gmina* of Stężyca. According to the geographical regionalization by Augustowski (1970), the *gmina* is located within the Kashubian Lake District; administratively, it is a part of Kartuzy *powiat* (a medium level administrative unit) in the Pomeranian Province. An element which individualizes the *gmina* is its location in the area of ethnic Kashubia (Mordawski, 2008), with its own Kashubian dialect as well as folk art and material culture. In 2014, the *gmina* covered 160.5 km^2 and was inhabited by about 10,000 people. It consists of 14 districts (Borucino, Czaple, Gapowo, Gołubie, Łączyno, Łosienice, Niesiołowice, Pierszczewo, Potuły, Sikorzyno, Stężyca, Szymbark, Zgorzałe and Żuromino), which became the basic spatial units considered. This choice was determined by the availability of the statistical materials provided by the *Gmina* Office and the *Powiat Starostwo* in Kartuzy. A very important task was to define the time range and the work shows change over time and mostly concerning the period of 1989-2011.

2. THE NATURAL AND HUMAN RESOURCES OF THE *GMINA* OF STĘŻYCA

Today's natural landscape of the *gmina* of Stężyca is mostly the outcome of the land formation processes that took place during the last north Polish glaciation, and only partly of the processes that followed the ice sheet retreat. The effects of glacial activity in this area include substantial differences in height, up to 168.5 m (measured from the surface of Ostrzyckie Lake – 160.1 m, to the top of the Wieżyca – 328.6 m). Such large differences in height make the area of the *gmina* extremely attractive, especially as regards winter sports. The highest parts of the moraine belt are cut by the Szymbarskie Hills black tourist trail. On the hills, there are ski slopes and lifts, e.g. the 'Koszałkowo' Recreation Centre pistes, situated on the privately-owned land between Szymbark and Wieżyca. The pistes are very well prepared for winter skiing. The largest one is 300 m long and there are up to 50 m differences in height between individual downhill courses. The piste features three T-bar lifts. On the slopes, there are an additional three snow tubing courses, 70, 100 and 120 m in length. Another attraction of the *gmina* is the Kashubian Observation Tower, named after John Paul II, with three decks. From the top, you can admire the Szymbarskie Hills, the 'Radunia Circle' and the 'Kashubian Road' tourist trail.

A major natural asset of the area are its surface waters. The central and southern part of the *gmina* belongs to the Radunia River basin, its south-eastern part to the Wieżyca River basin, the north-western part to the Słupia River basin and the south-western part to the Wda River basin. The lakes in the *gmina* are very attractive for tourists, the area covered by lakes being about 15%. The majority are ribbon lakes, e.g. Stężyckie, Raduńskie Górne and Raduńskie Dolne, Lubawisko, Dąbrowskie, Ostrzyckie, Patulskie, Bukrzyno Duże and Bukrzyno Małe, as well as Zamkowisko Duże and Zamkowisko Małe Lakes. The longest (except Raduńskie Dolne) and at the same time the deepest in the *gmina* is Raduńskie Górne Lake which covers 387.2 hectares and is up to 43 m deep (Table 1). Apart from the landscape assets and the unusual concentration of lakes, tourists can also appreciate the forests which take up about 30.1% of the whole area. They include riparian woodlands, as well as beech, oak-beech, alder, birch and pine woods. The forest is an indispensable assemblage of plants which plays an important role in people's physical and mental regeneration. It has high positive qualities, such as clean air, tranquillity, natural landscape, lack of industrialized or urbanized areas, as well as a special micro-climate. Moreover, forested areas create an opportunity for aesthetic experience, have a positive effect on people's mental state

Table 1. The morphometry of the lakes in the *gmina* of Stężyca

No.	Lake	Altitude (m above sea level)	Area (hectares)	Maximum		Shoreline		Maximum depth (m)
				Length (m)	Width (m)	Length (m)	Development	
1	Stężyckie	162.7	61.5	2,250	460.0	5,400	1.95	11.70
2	Raduńskie Górne	162.0	386.5	5,900	900.7	15,500	1.18	43.00
3	Ostrzyckie	159.0	266.3	7,000	800.0	18,000	3.15	19.40
4	Bukrzyno Małe	161.0	17.8	850	300.0	2,000	1.34	4.10
5	Bukrzyno Duże	161.0	20.8	875	300.0	2,230	1.38	10.80
6	Patulskie	159.5	97.6	3,225	475.0	7,235	2.06	7.76
7	Dąbrowskie	166.2	67.3	2,442	450.0	5,502	1.89	20.70
8	Lubowisko	166.5	33.9	1,860	360.0	4,000	2.01	7.60
9	Zamkowisko Małe	177.4	2.7	280	145.0	800	1.37	7.40
10	Zamkowisko Duże	177.4	6.9	470	155.0	1,236	1.32	17.80
11	Kamionko	178.0	16.5	620	440.0	2,100	1.49	12.80

Source: Szukalski (1965), Sobolewski, Borowiak, Borowiak, Skowron (2014) – selected by the authors.

and lend themselves particularly well to tourism purposes in the late summer and autumn (Zyber, 1977).

The abundance of flora and fauna, as well as the beauty of the landscape was highlighted by establishing the Kashubian Landscape Park on 15 June 1983. The *gmina* of Stężyca also has two nature reserves. The first of them, Ostrzycki Forest, was created in 1960 over an area of 55.13 ha on the western shore of Ostrzyckie Lake. The other one, Wieżyca Peak, covering 33.59 ha was created in 1962 in the upper part of the morainic hills in the Pomerania region. The remaining protected areas and sites include monuments of animate and inanimate nature, the Gowidlino Protected Landscape Area (325 ha), the Nature and Landscape Complexes of the Łeba Valley (in the Kashubian Landscape Park), the Raduńska Trough and the Dąbrowsko-Ostrzycka Trough.

All the natural assets in the *gmina* make it an area which offers favourable conditions for a wide range of specialised tourism (hiking; water tourism – kayaking, motorboating, sailing, diving; skiing, biking, motor sports) which take advantage of the existing tourist trails such as:

– a water route called the 'Radunia Circle', 40 km long; it runs through the following lakes: Raduńskie Górne – Raduńskie Dolne – Kłodno – Białe – Małe Brodno – Wielkie Brodno – Ostrzyckie – Patulskie – Dąbrowskie – Lubawisko;
– a black hiking trail, about 23 km long; it runs through: Wieżyca – Szymbark – Potuły – Kniewo Lake – Gołubie – Uniradzkie Forest District – Zgorzałe – Raduńskie Lake – Łączno – Wygoda Łączyńska;
– the Kashubian Trail – a red hiking trail, 12 km long; it runs through: Krzeszna – Patulskie Lake – Pierszczewo – Zamkowisko Lake – Gołubie – Dąbrowskie Lake;
– the Stone Circles trail – a green hiking trail, about 5 km long; it runs from Długie Lake to the village of Niesiołowice.

Apart from the natural resources, there are numerous human attractions as well. One of the most famous and frequently visited sites in the *gmina* is the Education and Region Promotion Centre in Szymbark which has a collection of carpentry, wheelwrighting and farming tools, as well as medical and household utensils, dating back to the 18th century and up to the outbreak of World War II. Other attractions include 'Sybirak's House', the famous 'Upside-down House', and one of the longest wooden plank in the world, made by Kashubians, which is 36.93 m long and weighs 1,100 kg. If the Uniradze Forest District, a burial mound dating back to the times between the late Bronze Age and the Middle Ages can be visited. The *gmina* has four sites on the Gdańsk Provincial Office list of Protected Historical Monuments: the manor house and park complex (Wybicki family residence), Catherine of Alexandria church, the Evangelical church in Stężyca, and St Joseph parish church complex with its presbytery in Wygoda Łączyńska.

An important tourist site in the *gmina* is the Gołubie Botanical Gardens created in 1971 on the scarp of the upper terrace of the Patulskie Lake trough and on its sides. The Gardens spread over 3.68 ha, 2.27 ha of which have been planted with 5500 species in conditions similar to their ecosystems. 1.41 ha are covered with natural meadows with accumulated assemblages of vascular plants (170 species) and bryophytes (over 20 species). They include calciphytes which are boreal relics, as well as many protected species (191), which have been listed in the Polish Red Book of Plants (119) and the new red list of plants (10). Fourteen species are protected on the strength of the Berne convention.

The tourist attractiveness of the *gmina* of Stężyca is increasing due to the numerous cultural events held mostly in the summer season and starting every year in June. The opening ceremony includes the parade of horse-drawn carriages and carts. Other popular events include the Kupala Night (summer solstice night) rites, 'A Picnic with General Józef Wybicki', the 'The Tournament of *Solectwos* in the *gmina* of Stężyca', '*Gmina* Sobótki' and '*Gmina* Harvest Holiday'. In September, 'Sybirak's House', the Education and Region Promotion Centre in Szymbark hosts a patriotic event organized by the Polish Sybirak Association, called 'International Sybirak Day'. In December, tourists may enjoy an event known as 'Santa Invasion', addressed primarily to children.

The development of holiday settlements in the *gmina* is determined by many socio-demographic factors concerning the visitors, the geographical features of the natural environment, as well as the area's accessibility.

The social factors include, above all, the lifestyle of Tri-city inhabitants, which involves using countryside attractions at weekends, during holidays or on summer vacations. This is because 45.6% of the *gmina* area is situated in the Kashubian Landscape Park which protects the varied land relief, cut with a complicated system of ribbon lakes, best represented by the Ostrzyce-Radunia Trough. The choice of such a destination is also determined by the peace and quiet of a rural area, as well as other features of the natural environment, hard to find in a large city. Holiday villages in this zone often develop into larger settlements, sometimes even towns. Villages visited by city inhabitants during summer holidays are very often located near lake shore settlements and winter or in-land water sports resorts. Therefore, it seems that the *gmina* of Stężyca is ideal for holiday settlements.

Holiday settlements are also enhanced by the development of transport and the construction of new roads, as transport is a major element determining the attractiveness of a given area from the point of view of tourism development. As regards using holiday houses, it is also important whether it is possible to reach them quickly from home. The centre of the *gmina* of Stężyca is situated about 56 km from Gdansk, which means a journey of about one hour by road.

However, the development of holiday settlements, as well as a varied tourism infrastructure largely depends on the occurrence of a large number of lakes in the area with the ratio of lake surface to the overall area of the *gmina* of Stężyca being about 15%. The largest lake, fully contained within its borders, is Raduńskie Górne, covering an area of 386.6 ha (Table 1, Fig. 1). Due to their qualities, lakes are not only a tourist attraction, but also a barrier to settlement. Therefore, there are certain patterns to the distribution of holiday houses, which are built along the lakes, mainly in the central and northern part of the *gmina*.

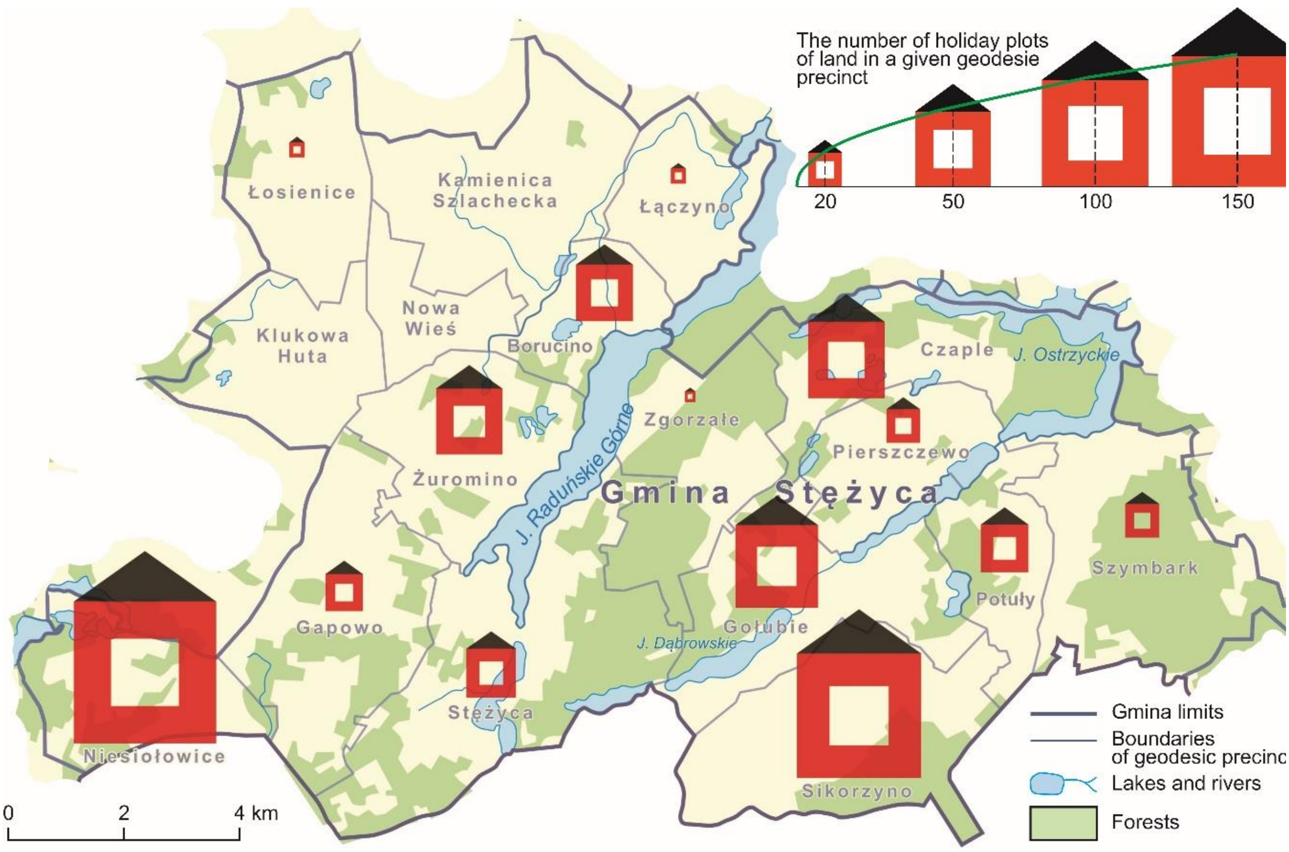

Figure 1. The number and distribution of holiday plots in the *gmina* of Stężyca, 2011
Source: Construction permits register for 1989-2011, *Powiat* Office in Kartuzy and the Municipal Office in Stężyca – prepared by the authors

The next important factor is the presence of forests. Forest is a vegetation complex which plays a tremendously significant role in the regeneration of mental and physical strength. It displays positive features, such as clean air, silence, natural landscape, lack of industrialized or urbanized areas, as well as a particular microclimate. Furthermore, forested areas are a source of aesthetic experience, have a beneficial effect on the human psyche and lend themselves particularly well to tourism purposes in late summer and autumn (Zyber, 1977). As regards forests, the *gmina* offers perfect conditions for the development of tourism and holiday settlement. Less forested areas occur only in the northern and north-western part of the *gmina*, with an afforestation rate of about 30.1%.

Conditions for holiday settlement also depend on the character of the land relief, soil moisture, the steepness and exposure of the slopes and vegetation. Research on the diversity of regional units in the Kashubian Lake District showed that the *gmina*, including the area of Central Highlands and Lake Hills, displays very strong geo-ecological differentiation (Gacki, Szukalski, 1979). Thus, it is an ideal location for building second homes due to the fact that when searching for tourist and recreational places, people subconsciously seek areas with varied landscapes (Krzymowska-Kostrowicka, 1995).

3. THE NUMBER, DISTRIBUTION AND SIZE OF HOLIDAY PLOTS

In 2011, in the *gmina* of Stężyca there were 566 holiday plots located within 14 out of 18 districts. As mentioned earlier, the largest number of holiday plots were found in the districts of Niesiołowice and Sikorzyno, where over 50% of the overall number were inventoried (54.9%). The Niesiołowice district is a highly attractive part of Kashubia, as it is situated in the direct vicinity of Długie and Czarne Lakes, as well as on the Stone Circles Trail. Czarne Lake, with its stocked fishery, and the 'Stone Circles' lakeside hostel offers particularly attractive conditions for recreation.

The district also features vast forest areas (39.6%), a varied land relief and early glacial land forms. The second largest number of holiday plots can be found in the Sikorzyno district, in the southern part of the *gmina*. The village of Sikorzyno, as well as the remaining rural destinations in the district, have a varied landscape, numerous lakes and huge forested areas (Zienkiewicz, 2016).

The differences in the number of plots in individual districts were relatively large: from 176 plots in Niesiołowice to one plot in Zgorzałe (Fig. 1, Table 2). The largest holiday plot in the *gmina* of Stężyca covered 5550 m², and the smallest 281 m², with the mean for the whole *gmina* at 1,357.32 m² and a median value of 983.36 m² (Table 3). As regards the distribution of holiday plots, they are more densely concentrated in the central and southern part of the *gmina*. Their location clearly corresponds to the natural conditions, mainly the pattern of ribbon lakes.

The lakes in the *gmina* represent a characteristic 'belt' arrangement, with two in the shape of arches, eastern and western, which converge on the village of Stężyca. The western arch includes Raduńskie, with Łączyno, Borucino and Zgorzałe while the eastern contains Ostrzyckie, Patulskie with Gołubie, Dąbrowskie and Lubowisko. Holiday plots are clustered mainly along those lakes; vast forested areas additionally favour the development of holiday settlement. In contrast, in the north-western part of the *gmina*, the number of holiday plots is small, because this area is typically agricultural.

Holiday plots in the *gmina*, understood as the location of 'second homes', represent various levels of development. Between 1989 and 2011, the number of construction permits for holiday houses issued in the *gmina* of Stężyca fluctuated widely (Fig. 2). The largest number (44) were issued in 1998, followed by 1992 (35) and 2002 (34). The fewest permits were issued in 1993 (11), 2004 (14) and 1991 (15).

Considering the number of construction permits, most holiday plots were developed in the district of Niesiołowice (176), which is a very attractive region of Kashubia. The second largest number were issued for the Sikorzyno district, in the southern part of the *gmina*. The development of holiday house building was not observed there until after 1997, with a rapid peak in 2010-2011, unlike other districts. The fewest holiday plots with recreational buildings were registered in the districts of Zgorzałe, Łączyno and Łosienice. It is noteworthy that the majority are situated near Dąbrowskie, Patulskie and Ostrzyckie Lakes, in the central part of the *gmina*, in the Gołubie and Czaple districts, as well as in the districts bordering directly on water (e.g. the district of Niesiołowice in its north-western part).

In order to define the geographical conditions for locating holiday houses in the *gmina*, the author used Kowalczyk's (1986, 1994) and Aldskogius' (1967) set of variables regarding natural environment assets as well as accessibility by transport (Table 2). Only those variables were presented which had been measured on the maps provided by the Central Surveying and Cartography Office.

Analysis of the averaged measurements of holiday plots in the *gmina* enabled the authors to establish that the mean area of a holiday plot was ca. 1,357 m², and that of a holiday house, nearly 80 m². An average plot was situated about 350.5 m from the lake, about six kms from a larger administrative unit centre (a *gmina*) and about one km from the nearest landscape park. Plot owners' permanent homes were usually about 52 km away.

Table 2. Characteristics of the holiday plots in the *gmina* of Stężyca

No.	Details	No of plots	Average area of a holiday house (m^2)	Average area of a plot (m^2)	Average distance from a lake (m)	Average distance from the investor's place of permanent residence (km)	Average distance from the plot to a higher level land unit (km)	Average distance from the plot to a landscape or national park (km)
Districts								
1	Borucino	28	67.22	1,100.71	387.42	64.38	5.74	–
2	Czaple	51	75.24	956.71	396.69	56.79	7.13	–
3	Gapowo	12	74.91	864.92	312.08	47.77	3.14	2.50
4	Gołubie	60	76.06	1,184.28	309.52	65.72	5.21	–
5	Łączyno	2	84.17	1,010.00	88.51	41.35	7.68	–
6	Łosienice	2	75.36	809.00	102.56	48.02	9.27	5.30
7	Niesiołowice	176	73.64	956.21	422.95	62.80	6.55	5.50
8	Pierszczewo	10	74.28	1,951.30	247.72	81.26	6.76	–
9	Potuły	20	68.38	762.95	319.56	41.29	9.10	–
10	Sikorzyno	135	69.56	1,163.22	860.57	42.20	5.45	1.50
11	Stężyca	21	80.73	862.14	541.81	48.99	0.00	–
12	Szymbark	10	64.69	806.30	586.13	35.78	11.56	–
13	Zgorzałe	1	166.00	5,550.00	9.12	46.97	4.00	–
14	Żuromino	38	68.11	1,024.74	321.66	47.05	2.75	–
Gmina of Stężyca		566	79.88	1,357.32	350.45	52.17	6.02	1.06

Source: area calculations were based on maps available on Geoportal Infrastruktury Informacji Przestrzennej; accessed October-December 2012) – compiled by the authors.

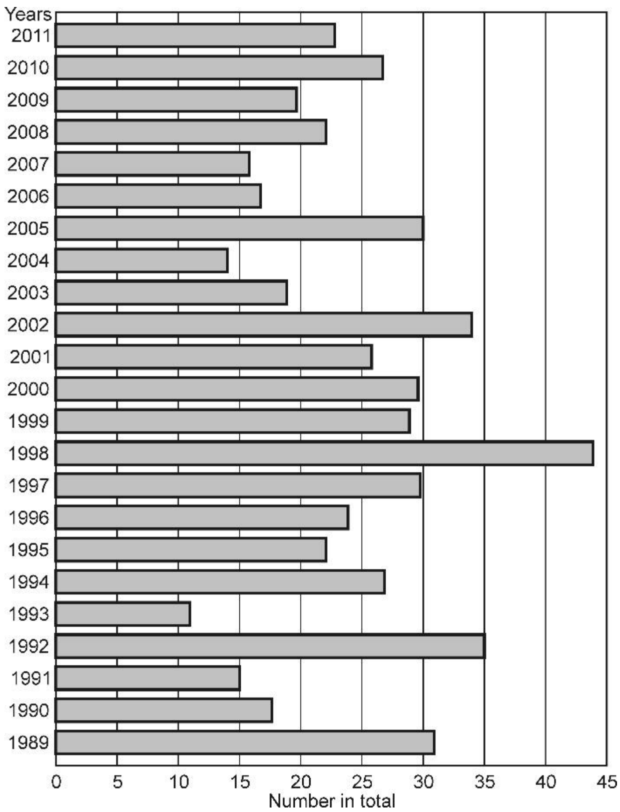

Figure 2. The number of construction permits for holiday houses in the *gmina* of Stężyca issued in 1989-2011
Source: construction permits register for 1989-2011, *Powiat* Office in Kartuzy and the Municipal Office in Stężyca – compiled by the authors

Table 3. Descriptive statistics for holiday plots in the *gmina* of Stężyca

Category	Value
No of plots	566
Median in m^2	983.36
Absolute minimum in m^2	281.00
Absolute maximum in m^2	5,550.00
Lower quartile in m^2	696.75
Upper quartile in m^2	1,108.50
Standard deviation in m^2	1,242.29
Kurtosis in m^2	54.52

Source: construction permits register for 1989-2011, *Powiat* Office in Kartuzy and the Municipal Office in Stężyca.

The largest holiday plots occupy the central part of the *gmina* of Stężyca and are in the district of Pierszczewo (average area – 1951.30 m^2) and Gołubie (1,184.28 m^2); the smallest plots are in the district of Potuły (762.95 m^2). The area of a holiday house also varies in individual districts with the largest in the districts of Łączyno (84.17 m^2) and Stężyca (80.73 m^2). The longest distance to a lake was recorded in the districts of Sikorzyno (ca. 860.6 m) and Szymbark (ca. 586 m) while those closest are in the districts of Zgorzałe (ca. 9 m), Łączyno (ca. 89 m) and Łosienice (102.6 m).

It should be stressed that the majority of the districts are contained within the borders of the Kashubian Lake District, and only the holiday plots in the districts of Gapowo, Łosienice, Niesiołowice and Sikorzyno are located up to a maximum of five km away from the nearest landscape park.

To sum up, the area of the largest holiday plot in the *gmina* was 5,550.0 m² (in the district of Zgorzałe), while the smallest was 281 m² (in Sikorzyno). The mean value for all sizes of holiday plot in the *gmina* was 983.4 m². The analysis shows that the *gmina* is substantially varied as regards the size of the plots indicated by the standard deviation value.

4. THE SUMMER HOLIDAY PLOT OWNERS' DEMOGRAPHIC AND SOCIAL FEATURES AS WELL AS THEIR ORIGINS

One of the main problems in most marketing studies is that of precisely defining market segments. It is solved on the assumption that people with similar features display similar consumption behaviour (Włodarczyk, 2012). The socio-demographic description was based on a survey conducted in July and August 2013 in the districts of Niesiołowice and Sikorzyno among 104 owners of holiday houses.

As indicated by the survey results, the majority of the owners (99.1% of respondents) came from the regional tourism market, i.e. from Pomerania Province. Within this, 84 (80.8%) came from Tri-city, mostly from Gdańsk (54.9%), followed by Gdynia (19.2%) and Sopot (6.7%) (Fig. 3). The remaining owners came from the Kartuzy *powiat* (13.5%), as well as other *powiats* in the Pomerania Province (Słupski, Tczewski and Gdański). Any owners from outside the region were inhabitants of Masovia Province.

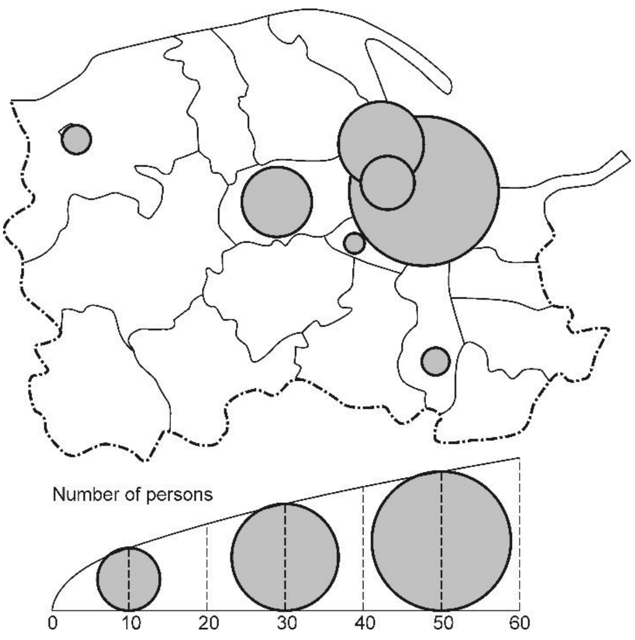

Figure 3. The origins of the holiday plot owners in the districts of Niesiołowice and Sikorzyno
Source: authors' survey

In terms of gender, the proportion was roughly even: 45 respondents were women (43.3%) and 59 were men (56.7%). The largest percentage were aged 26-35 (29.8%), followed by 56-65 (23.1%). The least numerous were aged 36-45 and under 25 (jointly, 8.7%; Fig. 4).

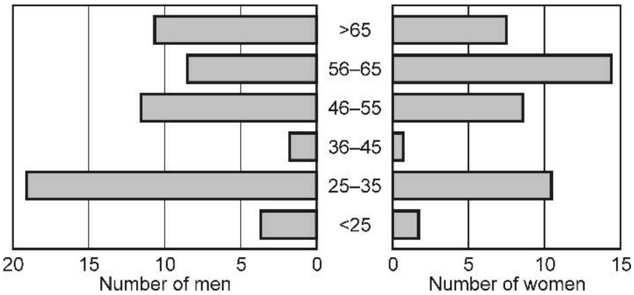

Figure 4. Sex and age of holiday house owners in 2011
Source: authors' survey

The respondents were in employment, representing a variety of jobs and having different levels of education. Most of them were farmers, gardeners, foresters or fishermen (25%), professionals (23.1%), personal service providers or shop assistants (21.2%). The smallest group included those doing 'simple' jobs or working in the military (1% each). The survey shows that the majority of respondents had completed university education (36.9%), and the smallest group included those with secondary education (6.8%). Respondents with university education made up 12.6%.

They usually formed households consisting of four (39.5%) or two members (34.6%). A smaller group having five or more (15.4%), and the smallest with three members (2.9%). The respondents usually travelled to their holiday plots in their own cars (86.5%) or by bicycle or motorbike (9.6%). They largely agreed that owning a holiday plot brings many benefits such as the proximity of lakes (78.8% of responses) as well as peace and quiet (14.4%). Friendly surroundings and the existing tourist infrastructure were appreciated less (1.9% and 2.9%, respectively). The disadvantages they mostly mentioned included the poor condition of roads (38.5%) and insufficient accessibility by public transport (36.5%).

5. DEVELOPMENT, REASONS FOR BUYING AND FORMS OF RECREATION ON HOLIDAY PLOTS

The field study shows that the area of the *gmina* of Stężyca features various architectonic types of holiday houses, e.g. second homes proper, folding houses, and

Figure 5. Selected types of holiday houses in the districts of Niesiołowice and Sikorzyno
Source: authors

static or mobile caravans. An interesting type of holiday house in Kashubia is an old country cottage, adapted to serve recreational purposes. In this way, not only are wooden buildings changed in order to perform recreational functions, but traditional rural architecture is preserved as well.

A characteristic feature of holiday houses is that they are more and more often adapted for use during the whole year. The newer ones are usually built of regular or hollow brick and have double-covered roofs. The owners of 'second homes' often build additional utility buildings and garages, which indicates their willingness to prolong their stay and spend time on the plot outside the summer season (Fig. 5).

The survey conducted among the owners of 'second homes' allowed the authors to present the circumstances of purchasing holiday plots, the differences in their size and state of development.

A thorough analysis of the research material shows that nearly 75% of the respondents purchased their plots in 1991-1995 and 2001-2005 (27.9%). People were less interested in buying plots of land in 2006-2010 (8.7%). The smallest number bought a plot to build a holiday house before 1980 (almost 0.0%). The majority bought the land from a private person (63.5%), inherited it, or received it as a gift (22.1%). The remaining respondents bought the plots from the *gmina* (14.4%) (Fig. 6).

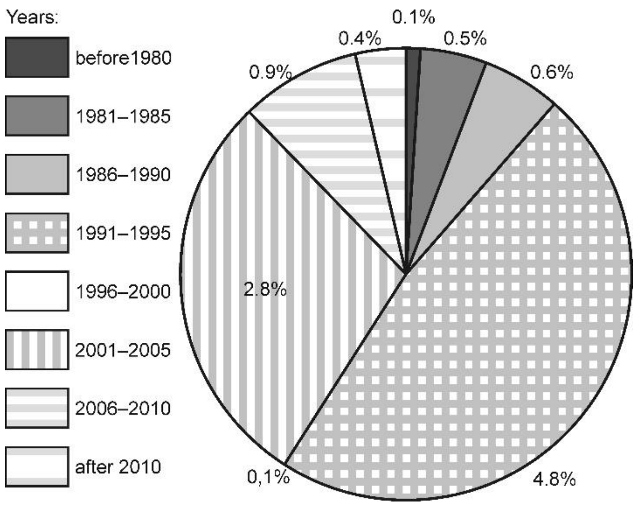

Figure 6. Date of holiday house construction
in the districts of Niesiołowice and Sikorzyno
Source: authors' survey in July and August 2013

According to the survey, most holiday plots in the *gmina* of Stężyca covered an average area of 500-1,000 m^2 (68.3% of all plots). People were less interested in large plots, over 1,000 m^2 (20.2%), and small plots, under 500 m^2 (11.5%). The size of the 'second homes' was not correlated with the area of the holiday plot. The area of the buildings was usually 100-150 m^2 (3.8%) and above 150 m^2 (2.9%).

The study enabled the authors to provide a detailed description of the plots, as regards their appearance and development. The majority of the holiday houses were individually designed (80.8%) but there were also buildings adapted to perform recreational functions (11.5%) or were ready-made products (7.7%).

It appeared that the holiday plots were relatively well equipped with technical infrastructure. All of them had a water supply, with 94.2% having a cesspool or connection to the sewage system. Some houses had central heating that could be used all year round (17.3%). A small percentage were connected to the gas network (1.9%).

In the light of the survey, an average holiday house is a single storey (31.7%) or a one-storey building with an attic (26%), built of hollow bricks (41.3%) or wood (39.4%). The roof is covered with a metal sheet (36.5%) or tiles (29.8%).

The plots often feature additional facilities (Fig. 7), such as garages or roofed shelters (28.6%). Nearly one quarter of the owners had arranged special barbecue places and sheds for DIY; 11.5% of the respondents had built horticultural structures, mostly greenhouses. The least popular were sports elements (5.8%).

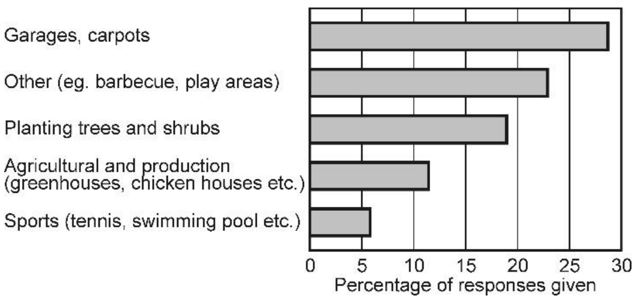

Figure 7. Elements of additional facilities on holiday plots in the districts of Niesiołowice and Sikorzyno
Source: authors' survey in July and August 2013

An equally important issue in the analysis of the buildings which serve individual recreation purposes are factors related to the 'spiritual' sphere. The tourists' perceptions, psychological factors and motivations are reflected in the very fact of owning a holiday plot and in their motivation to choose a particular location (Szkup, 2003).

The reasons for purchasing holiday plots can be compared to the general motivation for travel. At least nine can be distinguished: a desire to travel to a specific holiday destination, become familiar with a particular type of nature or local social life, temporarily leave home to spend some time with family, friends or partner. When choosing their activity, holiday plot owners may be also driven by a desire to meet new people. It is also believed that a relatively common reason, which is not easily admitted by plot owners, is plain snobbery, as they want to maintain or increase their social prestige. Other motivations include those which are connected with satisfying emotional, aesthetic and creative needs (Przecławski, 1996). Spending time on a holiday plot, close to a lake or forest, enables people to stay close to nature which benefits their artistic or academic activity outside their permanent place of residence. An important motivation to purchase plots, especially in Kashubia, is the wish to visit the area lived in in the past.

The motivations to buy holiday plots in individual districts turned out to be varied (Fig. 8). Most respondents quoted natural assets (from 29.2% in Sikorzyno to 30.4% in Niesiołowice) and close proximity to their permanent homes (from 18.8% in Sikorzyno to 42.9% in Niesiołowice). The remaining reasons were even more varied. In the Sikorzyno district, the next most popular were friends' persuasion and convenient transport (18.8%, respectively), while in the Niesiołowice district, it was a coincidence or a bargain (12.5%), and the need to invest savings (5.4%).

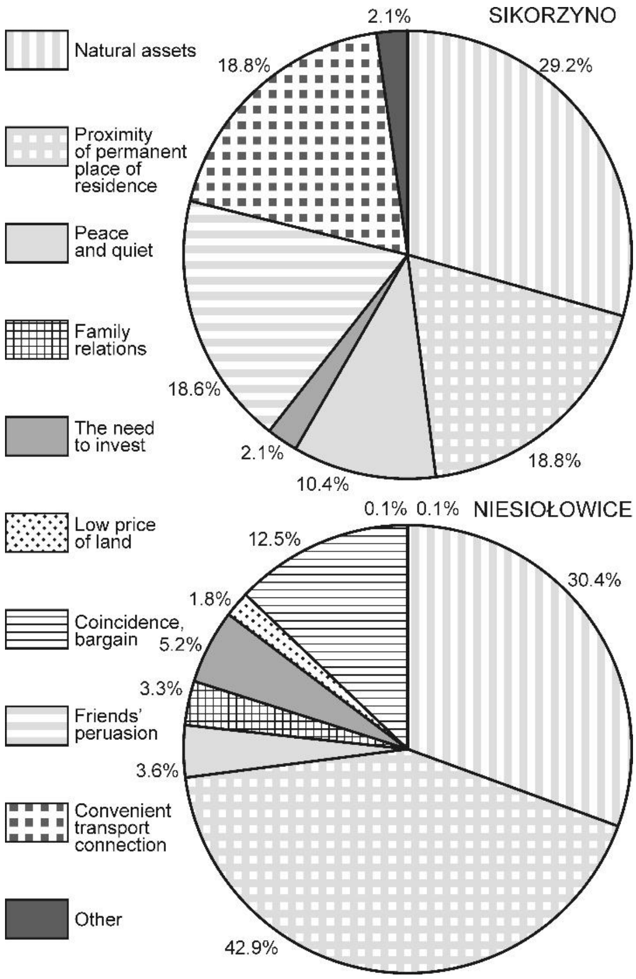

Figure 8. Motivations to purchase holiday plots in the districts of Niesiołowice and Sikorzyno
Source: authors' survey in July and August 2013

Generalized survey results indicate that the main reason for buying a holiday plot was close proximity to the investors' permanent place of residence (31.7%), followed by the presence of natural assets (29.8%), friends' persuasion and convenient transport connections (8.7% each).

The forms of spending leisure time on the holiday plots also varied (Fig. 9). The owners most often mentioned meetings with friends and family (21.2%), DIY (19.2%), small-scale fruit and vegetable growing and animal breeding (mostly poultry and rabbits), as well as care of their pets (18.3%).

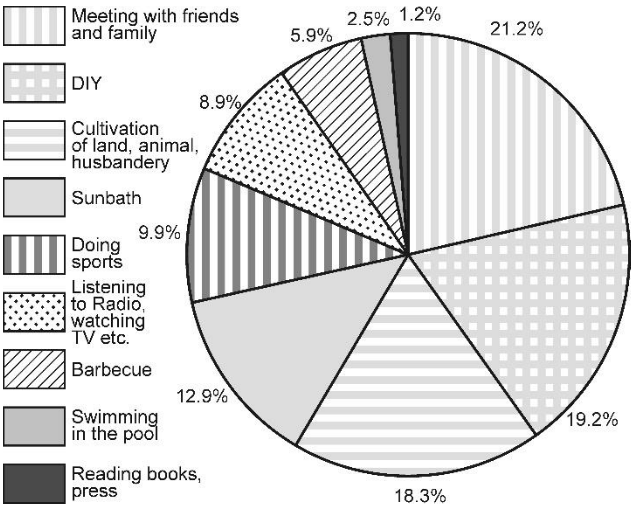

Figure 9. Forms of spending leisure time on holiday plots in the districts of Niesiołowice and Sikorzyno in July and August 2013
Source: authors' survey

Other forms of spending leisure time included sunbathing, doing sports, listening to the radio, watching TV, using the internet, barbecuing, swimming in the pool, as well as reading magazines and books.

6. FINAL REMARKS

The study shows that the *gmina* of Stężyca, situated in 'Kashubian Switzerland', is an attractive place to locate a 'second home'. It is the natural resources and assets that determine the development of holiday settlement there. They are, above all, the numerous post-glacial lake systems used as extremely attractive water trails on the Radunia River. Other attractive factors, including the Kashubian Landscape Park and vast woodlands, mostly with mixed forests, taking up nearly one third of the *gmina* area, enhance the development of the recreational function. Due to the fact that the area is located close to Tricity and that Gdańsk agglomeration inhabitants feel a strong need to regain their 'psychophysical' vitality and have time to do it, purchasing holiday plots has become increasingly popular.

The largest number of holiday plots were bought in the early 1990s, which was obviously a positive effect of the development of the tourism function during the transformation. The main motivation to purchase a plot was close proximity to the permanent place of residence and the high attractiveness of the *gmina*. The plots are clustered in its western and southern parts, which clearly relates to the presence of the largest lakes in the area. They are mostly plots containing holiday houses of different architectonic types, including old country cottages adapted for recreational purposes. The survey conducted in the districts of Niesiołowice and Sikorzyno showed that a typical holiday house is an individually designed building, a bungalow or a one-storey house with an attic, built from hollow bricks or wood and covered with a metal sheet or tiled roof. The respondents' plots also followed a particular pattern of development. Most of them included garages and roofed shelters as well as playgrounds for children and barbecue sites.

The socio-demographic structure of the plot owners varied; they were mostly 26-35 or 56-65 years of age and inhabitants of Tri-city who in fact had never broken an emotional bond with their birth place. It is a good example of the attachment to and the feeling of identity within the cultural region of Kashubia.

ENDNOTE

[1] The sample size for the survey was calculated for the 311 population, at the 0.95 confidence level, with an estimated 0.5 fraction, a maximum error of 3%, the sample size is 241. Due to factors independent of the authors, the study was conducted for a sample of 104 people. At a confidence level of 0.95, with an estimated fraction of 0.5, the maximum error is 8%.

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THE IMPLEMENTATION OF "THE ST. GALLEN MODEL FOR DESTINATION MANAGEMENT (SGDM)" IN THE POLISH CARPATHIANS: A CASE STUDY OF SIX BIESZCZADY COMMUNES

Abstract: The Bieszczady mountains are one of the ranges of the Polish Carpathians. Their natural and cultural amenities attract thousands of Polish and international tourists each year. Despite many protected zones existing in this area (e.g. Bieszczadzki National Park, UNESCO Biosphere Reserve and Nature 2000 areas), the Bieszczady mountains face various environmental and social problems which have arisen from their dynamic but often chaotic tourism development. The lack of a common vision of long-term tourism development (on communal and regional levels) is one of the main challenging issues which public and private bodies are confronted with. The paper presents the results of the implementation of an innovative approach, i.e. the St. Gallen Model for Destination Management (SGDM), in selected Bieszczady communes. This method offers a clear advantage for key destination actors by allowing them to enter a process of holistic destination management. The article is the first attempt at SGDM application in Poland.

Keywords: mountain destination, holistic tourism development, SGDM model.

1. INTRODUCTION

Mountains are one of the world's key tourism reception areas and it is assumed that they take second place in global popularity after coastal regions (Nestorosk, 2012). The proportion of tourists visiting mountain destinations each year is estimated at 15 to 20% of total tourist numbers (Debarbieux, Oiry Varacca, Rudaz, Maselli, Kohler, Jurek, 2014).

Globalization with its associated tendencies towards integration of services and concentration of capital has put pressure on nature-based tourism destinations to improve their tourist offers in a highly competitive market either by cost leadership or product differentiation (Baker, Cameron, 2008; Baggio, Scott, Cooper, 2010). In response to this development, holistic management of tourism reception areas and sustainable use of resources have become subjects of growing importance, especially for many European mountain tourist areas (Klimek, Doctor, 2018).

The Bieszczady mountains, situated at the extreme south-east of the Polish Carpathians, constitute one of the most beautiful and wild parts of Eastern Poland. Among many natural attractions (e.g. the varied topography, scenic beauty, and rare fauna and flora species) this mountain region offers visitors rich cultural and historical assets. In 2017 the Bieszczady was visited by 464,000 Polish and international tourists and visitor numbers are increasing each year (US, 2018). However, a rapid and sometimes uncontrolled tourism development in this destination has caused many environmental and social problems (Świgost, 2017). Moreover, the lack of a common vision of both public and private stakeholders regarding tourism development in the Bieszczady region leads to frequent conflicts and a fragmented supply chain (Czernek, 2012). Thus, the holistic and sustainable governance of this area have become key conditions for its long-term and sustainable development.

The fundamental objective of this paper is to present the result of the application of the St. Gallen Model for Destination Management (SGDM model) in six Bieszczady communes. The paper offers a detailed description of the whole approach which was implemented in the Polish mountains for the first time in November and December 2018.

Cover date: December 2019

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Defining a tourism destination is challenging as there is an absence of a common and shared vision on this issue. For this reason, scholars and academics have defined a tourism destination starting from different points of view. Destinations have been, for example, defined as geographically delimited, supply-dominated areas where tourists travel to or decide to stay in (Bieger, Freyer, 2005; Kim, Richardson, 2003; Pearce, 1995).

However, many authors emphasize the fact that a tourist destination is more than a geographical place (Bieger, Beritelli, Laeasser, 2009; Haugland, Ness, Grønseth, Aarstad, 2011). It is an amalgamation of direct and indirect amenities, e.g. accommodation, catering, public and private transport and roads, visitor information, recreation facilities, and a wide range of natural and cultural tourist attractions, e.g. landscape, monuments, atmosphere, which attract tourists to the chosen place (Buhalis, 2000; Crouch, 2011; Leiper, 1990; Richards, 2002; UNWTO, 2007).

Bornhorst, Ritchie & Sheehan (2010) stress that a tourism destination has two primary roles to fulfill. First and foremost, it must seek to ensure the social and economic well-being of the local community which lives within its boundaries. Secondly, to be considered as a tourist destination, it must offer a wide range of products and services to fulfill tourists' needs.

The reference to tourism needs, leads to another definition which is currently shared by most of researchers. A tourism destination is perceived as "a collection of experiences" acquired by travelers, where visitors numbers dynamically activate the supply network (Barnes, Mattsson, Sørensen, 2014; Gunn, 1972; Keller, 2000; Ritchie, Hudson, 2009). As a result of this tourism suppliers benefit from visitors by establishing a supply chain (Beritelli, 2011a; Pearce, 2014).

Yet, due to globalization pressures substitution especially among nature-based tourism destinations is becoming pervasive (Dwyer, Edwards, Mistilis, Roman, Scott, 2009). Thus, every host area should be better positioned and differentiate its products through a dynamic and innovative value chain in order to gain a competitive advantage (Gursoy Saayman, Sotiriadis, 2015; Fine, 2000; Klimek, Doctor, 2018; Vengesayi, 2003). Nevertheless, as stated by Padurean (2010), Laesser & Beritelli (2013) and other authors throughout the literature, mountain destinations are nowadays multifaceted. Their supply chain is often fragmented among several interest groups (Beritelli, 2011b). Since nature-based areas have become extremely dynamic and complex entities, top-down traditional approaches commonly used by the public sector have not always been consistent for different and often conflicting goals inside the destinations (Beriteli, Leasser, 2011; Byrd, 2007; Lai, Hsu, Wearing, 2016; Pechlaner, Tschurtschenthaler, 2003; Sheehan, Ritchie, 2005). Thus, already since the 1960s, Swiss and other Alpine destinations have evolved from a marketing and product-based focus to a more collaborative approach based on bottom-up, less bureaucratic and decentralized forms of destination governance, i.e. through destination management organizations (Bieger, 1998; Beritelli, Bieger, Laesser, 2007). The Destination Management Organization (DMO) is a model of governance based on a public-private partnership which refers to a coalition of many tourist organizations working together towards mutual goals (Elbe, Hallén, Axelsson, 2009; UNWTO, 2007). DMOs are mostly non-profit public-private organizations. Their main functions include strategic management of a destination, shaping its cohesive marketing and branding strategy, information and tourism activities, cooperation with local interest groups and lobbying in order to create and commercialize tourism products as well as protecting the interests of local communities (Gertzel, 2006; Presenza, Sheehan, Ritchie, 2005). Switzerland has become one of the first countries where DMOs were implemented on a local as well as regional level within the framework of the public-private partnership (Klimek, 2014). Apart from Switzerland, DMOs also function successfully in several European regions and throughout the world.

However, in many mountain destinations perceptions of holistic destination governance are still divergent among stakeholder groups (Benčič, 2006; Baggio, Scott, Cooper, 2010). Poland is a country with relatively poor solutions developed in the area of complex tourism management on all local, regional and nationwide levels (Fedyk, Meyer, Potocki, 2017). In spite of the fact that it is an increasingly common belief that the DMO model should be implemented to manage tourism destination areas, local and regional tourist organizations operating still do not possess such competences and qualifications (Borzyszkowski, 2013; Czernek, 2012; Klimek, 2013). This is also the case in the Bieszczady mountains.

According to Szulc-Dąbrowiecka & Żuławska (2015), there are two principal stages of tourism management in this area. The first phase was between 1952 and 1989 when the state played the dominant role in the management of tourism (the top-down approach). The second stage (from 1990 to the present) has been when regional governance has been handed over to different public-private entities and organizations. Hence, their roles and competences often overlap having an impact on the direction and effectiveness of their actions. Thus, despite many strategic documents elaborated for the development of this region in a bottom-up approach, there is still lack of the holistic management of tourist numbers in the Bieszczady moutains.

Masses of tourists coming each year to the most attractive zones, such as the Solina region or the Bieszczadzki National Park, cause many social and environmental problems (Myga-Piątek, Jankowski, 2009; Świgost, 2017; Wolski, 2007). At the same time, as tourists numbers in the Bieszczady mountains are mostly concentrated in the areas of their biggest attractions, many natural and cultural attractions situated in neighboring communes are not visited (e.g. the amenities of Lesko, Baligród or Ustrzyki Dolne). Moreover, tourist arrivals to the Bieszczady mountains are strongly seasonal and concentrated mainly in the summer (US, 2018). Therefore, this region needs examples of best practices from other destinations which have already introduced new standards based on a holistic concept of destination management. Hence, the idea to implement a new approach to holistic destination management based on the St. Gallen Model for Destination Management, SGDM in this area (Beritelli, Reinhold, Laesser, Bieger, 2015).

The SGDM model offers a demand-driven, realistic perspective for the development of tourist destinations and is based on the following main assumptions:

1. Tourism destination is shaped and defined by tourists.
2. The majority of tourists who arrive at a chosen reception area seek to satisfy similar needs, so they behave in a similar way and activate similar supply elements. Hence, the demand activates the supply chain and not vice versa.
3. Strategic visitor flows (SVFs) are the basic units for the strategic planning and holistic management of the destination.
4. The reconstruction of the way in which strategic segments (of SVFs) arrive at the destination permits better management of tourist numbers and a more adequate development of the destination offers which are adapted to satisfy real tourist needs.
5. The SGDM model is not based on quantitative data on tourist numbers, which are very often fragmented and not comparable, but it relies on the knowledge and service experience of public and private destination actors. Hence, the key local stakeholders, i.e. tourism entrepreneurs, informal interest groups, non-governmental organizations, tourism associations, and public entities – local authorities etc – play an essential role in the identification of SVFs and the successful implementation of the whole method.
6. Strategic planning and the division of tasks in this model are performed for each SVF and not for the entire destination in an *ad hoc* manner, which allows the optimization of marketing and promotion costs and better resource management thanks to more effective process management.

This market-driven and network-oriented approach has been created by Swiss academics from St. Gallen University and is built on their practical experience in more than forty destinations worldwide. In autumn 2018 this approach was implemented[1] in six Bieszczady communes, i.e. Baligród, Cisna, Lesko, Olszanica, Solina and Ustrzyki Dolne.[2]

3. METHODOLOGY AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The SGDM model which was applied in the six Bieszczady communes is a circular, bottom-up, six-step approach, which comprises the following activities:

- identification of the strategic visitor flows (SVFs) and their graphic visualization on destination maps,
- overlaying of the individual SVF and assessment of the SVF portfolio for each commune,
- analysis and reconstruction of the supply and demand network in each destination regarding the SVFs indicated,
- assessment of existing marketing activities per SVF and planning new strategic actions for existing and new ones,
- appraisal of SVFs and a constant updating of marketing and management activities by a sustainable use of resources and the common decision-making process of key stakeholders.

Moving from one stage to another is a process that allows key local stakeholders to comprehensively manage destinations through identification, planning activities and managment of strategic visitor flows (see. Figure 1).

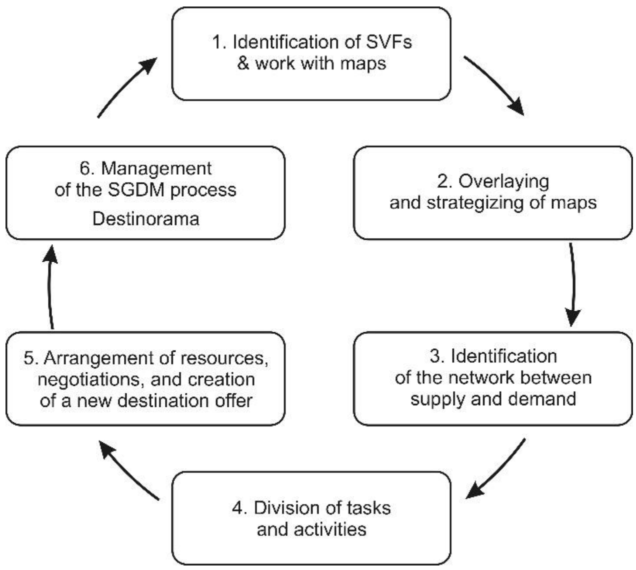

Figure 1. The SGDM model implemented in selected Bieszczady communes
Source: author based on: Beritelli, Reinhold, Leasser, Bieger (2015)

The identification of SVFs for each commune and the challenges related to their management took place during working meetings organised with key local stakeholders.

Taking into consideration all those challenging aspects of the SGDM model, and the issues stated in literature, the aim of the implementation of this approach in the Bieszczady region was to find the answers to the following research questions:

1. What strategic visitor flows (SVFs) can be identified in selected Bieszczady communes (SVF) and how they are developed (in terms of the number of visitors)? What kind of SVF can be developed in the future?
2. What are the supply-demand relationships and what kind of stakeholders are involved in tourism development in chosen destinations?
3. What are the main problems in the management of the existing SVFs and possible solutions to boost inter- and supra-communal cooperation and tourism product development?
4. Is the concept of the SGDM an effective tool to boost inter- and supra-communal cooperation in order to enhance the long-term tourism development of the six chosen communes?

4. DESCRIPTION OF THE RESEARCH SAMPLE AND THE PROCESS OF SGDM MODEL IMPLEMENTATION

The implementation required many months of preparation, above all related to the selection of key stakeholders and the preparation of materials (maps) constituting the basic element of meetings.

The choice of the research sample (public and private) was carried out on the basis of strictly determined criteria, i.e.

– the selected subjects at present play a key role in the development of tourism in particular communes as well as in the creation of their tourist product;
– there is a network of interconnections between them, although at present the degrees and ranges of cooperation vary, nevertheless, tourism constitutes an important sector of their economies and a source of income.[3]

Five groups of key stakeholders were chosen within the selection process:

1. Tourism service providers: representatives of accommodation, catering facilities and the tourism attractions sector.
2. Local organizers of tourism: travel agencies, tourist guides.
3. Forestry (State Forests).
4. Representatives of local authorities (commune, district).
5. Local Action Groups/associations/NGO representatives.

The meetings with the stakeholders, divided by sector, took place in Orelec and Ustrzyki Dolne in November and December 2018. Approximately 50 representatives of various sectors from the six communes took part in those meetings.[4]

In order to define and differentiate the strategic visitor flows (SVF) from other groups of visitors, at the beginning of each meeting the participants were provided with a description of the characteristic features for each strategic visitor flow.

Each SVF:

– is composed of a large number of tourists;
– is relatively stable and foreseeble in time;
– can be located on 2-3 types of map;
– has its own supply and demand mechanism;
– has its own dynamic and life cycle and has an opportunity to generate revenue;
– can be stimulated by supply, as well as analyzed, managed and commercialized.

Afterwards, the stakeholders marked numbers on the maps which had been prepared beforehand. Depending on the size of the commune, these were printed at two or three scales for each of the communes (see Figure 1, point 1). At the initial stage of work with the maps, the commune representatives selected the most suitable for a given SVF. Next, they drew the routes which tourists from each strategic flow take when they arrive in a given commune (see Figure 2, point 2), and they highlighted all the attractions and supply elements which are activated by SVF during a tourism visit (see Figure 1, point 3). Every SVF was marked and described separately on one type of map.

Apart from graphically situating all strategic visitor numbers (SVFs) on the maps, another important element was to precisely describe SVFs through completing the key under each map (see Figure 2 point 4).

The key consists of several fields that allow each SVF to be described in detail. Stakeholders characterize a key segment by finding answers to the following questions for every SVF:

– Who are our guests (SVFs)? What name can be given to the segment?
– Are they day or overnight visitors (D/N)?
– Where do the visitors forming the SVF come from? Where do they go and what do they do during their stay? What do they purchase and how much do they spend?
– Why do the tourists come to the destination?
– When do they come?
– What is the phase in the SVF life cycle?

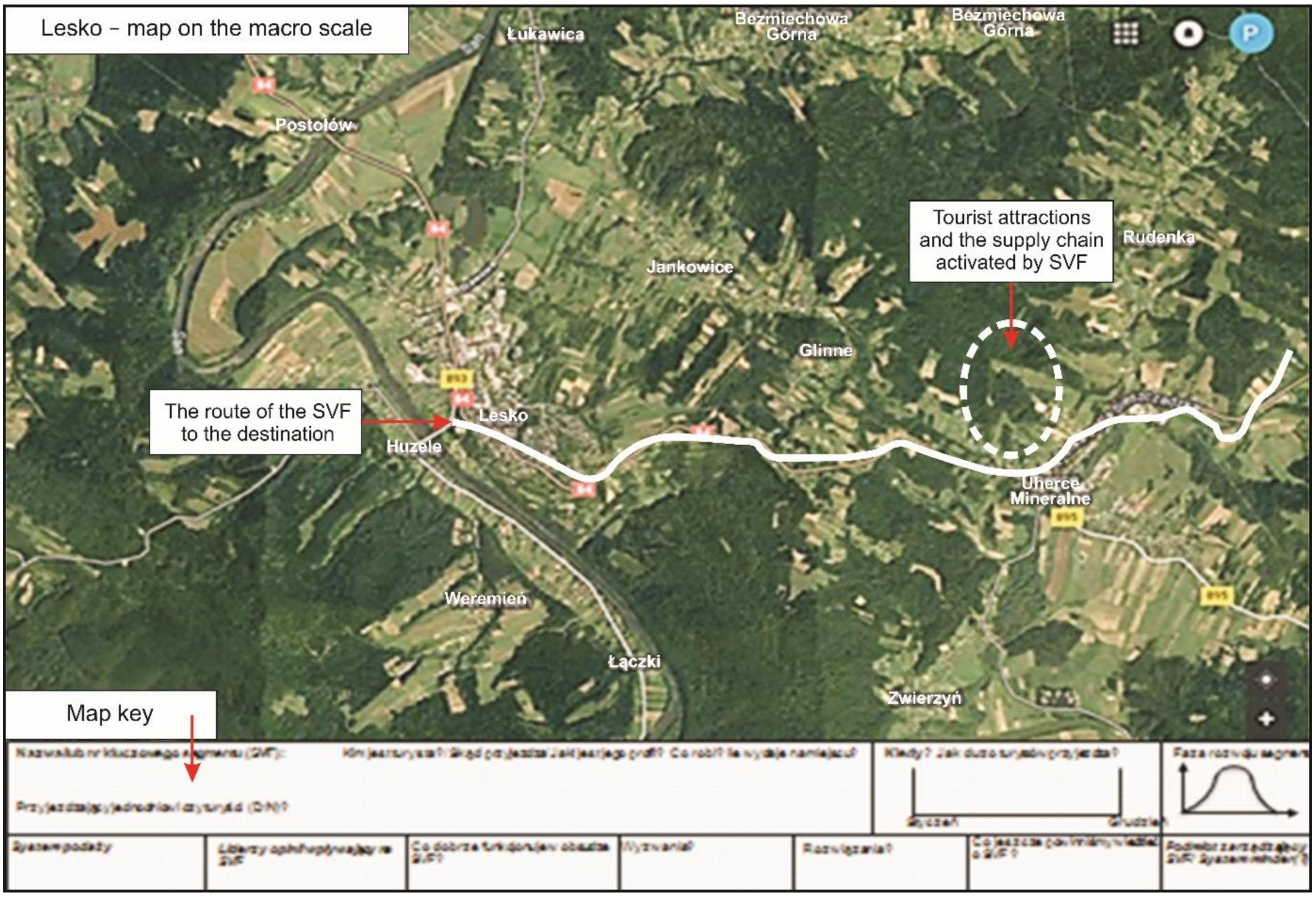

Figure 2. Example of the Lesko map at a macro scale
Source: author based on: Beritelli, Reinhold, Laesser, Bieger (2015)

The lower part of the key served the purpose of defining the key elements of the supply (*system head(s)*) and which opinion leaders (*market mavens*) exert an impact on each analyzed SVF.

The applied method also permitted functions to be determined in the service of the described segment, and what needs to be improved. Possible solutions constituted the basis for discussion between the stakeholders in order to plan specific activities intended to better adjust supply to the needs of the SVF. The discussion results and proposed activities are included in the following item related to the presentation of results.

5. THE RESEARCH RESULTS

The conducted meetings resulted in the completion of 52 maps and the identification of 32 existing SVFs in six Bieszczady communes as well as three potential segments whose development is planned in the future (see Table 1). After the overlaying of the maps and elimination of repetition, the work from the first meetings was presented to the stakeholders in the form of a so-called *destinorama* (an exhibition created from all printed maps) during the summarizing meeting which took place in December 2018 in Ustrzyki Dolne.

Table 1. Presentation of completed maps and identified key SVFs

Name of the commune	Number of completed maps	Number of identified strategic segments
Baligród	6	4 + 3 potential
Cisna	10	7
Olszanica	5	2
Lesko	18	7
Solina	6	7
Ustrzyki Dolne	7	4 + 1 potential
Together	52	34

Source: author on the basis of the meetings.

Below is a table of the characteristics of the SVFs in the six Bieszczady communes (see Table 2).

Table 2. Kinds and characteristics of the most important strategic visitors flows identified by the stakeholders in six Bieszczady communes

Kind of segment	Name of SVF	Name of the commune	Characteristics of the strategic segment	One-day visitors	Tourists
Existing SVFs	Nature lovers	Baligród, Cisna	Nature lovers, enthusiasts, families with children from all over Poland, physically active young people		x
	Families with children	Baligród, Cisna, Lesko, Solina,	Families with children of different ages, travelling by car (from all over Poland). In the communes of Baligród, Cisna and Lesko these are mainly transit tourists, and in the communes of Cisna and Solina these are tourists staying in guest houses from 3 days up to one week.	x	x
	Groups of friends and students	Baligród, Cisna	Students from higher education institutions (Kraków, Lublin, Rzeszów), couples or families	x	x
	School groups	Solina, Cisna, Ustrzyki Dolne	Pupils coming for residential school trips or other organized stays. They stay at the Solina lake for a few days during the spring or summer	x	
	Transit and sightseeing tourists	Baligród, Cisna, Lesko	Tourists arriving by car from all over Poland and abroad. Organized trips, seniors, juniors (school groups visiting attractions on the way to the Solina lake).	x	
	DINKS - Double Income no Kids	Cisna	Childless couples (older marriages), 80% from Warsaw, 20% from Lower Silesia and Pomerania. Stays from 3 to 7 days.	x	
	'Lone travelers'	Cisna, Lesko	Individual tourists, mainly men in work from all over Poland, 40 or more years old. These are mainly weekend tourists (Cisna) or one-day tourists (Lesko).	x	x
	Participants in corporate team building trips and in company-organized trips for employees	Cina, Solina	Employees (30-60 years old) from Małopolska (Kraków), the Mazovia region (Warsaw) and the Lublin region. Most frequently 3-day stays.		x
	Participants in the 'Bieg rzeźnika' ultramarathon event	Cisna	Sports people with families from all over Poland and abroad. They stay overnight at the Cisna communal tourism base for between 2 and 7 days, before during and after the event.		x
	'Edu-tourists' and cultural tourists	Olszanica, Ustrzyki Dolne	Individual tourists, organized groups from all over Poland and abroad, families with children and multi-generation families, youth groups, cyclists, bikers, groups of friends, one-day and longer stays. They visit 'bicycle trolleys', the Bieszczady School of Craft and the Ursa Maior brewery, the Eco-museum, the palace in Olszanica, the Museum of the Rural Life and Agriculture.	x	x
	Skiers	Lesko	Local skiers, families with children	x	
	International fishing groups	Lesko	Anglers (from all over Poland and abroad), all of Europe but mainly Italians, French and Czech. This is a segment of rich tourists. They stay in Lesko at least 3 days, spend from 200 PLN to 500 PLN per person per day.		x
	'Water sports lovers': river rafting	Lesko	Groups, adults and schools from all over Poland	x	
	Sailors	Solina	Local sailors from all over Poland, youth, students, parents with children. Visits lasting a few days during the summer.		x

Kind of segment	Name of SVF	Name of the commune	Characteristics of the strategic segment	One-day visitors	Tourists
Existing SVFs	Gliders and para-gliders	Lesko	Active tourists, sports people, tourists who would like to enjoy scenic flights. These are one-day tourists and guests staying for training for a few days.	x	x
	Runners and swimrunners	Solina	Sports people from Poland and all over Europe. Tourists spending approximately one week on their sports at the Solina lake		x
	Health resort patients	Solina	Health resort patients coming throughout the year for the sanatorium treatment to Polańczyk Zdrój from Małopolska, Silesia, Mazovian and Lublin regions		x
	Pilgrims	Ustrzyki Dolne	Adults from the Subcarpathian region visiting shrines		x
	Seniors	Ustrzyki Dolne	Enthusiasts of travelling and hiking, enjoying natural attractions		x
Potential segments	Herbalism and pastoralism	Baligród	Pupils from primary and secondary schools, families with children	x	
	Cultural tourist and pilgrims	Baligród, Ustrzyki Dolne	Enthusiasts of orthodox art and pilgrims	x	

Source: author on the basis of research results.

As a result of discussions taking place during the meetings while working with the maps, the most important problems and challenges in the area of SVF management were identified. This contributed towards the elaboration of proposed solutions which would engage both public and private stakeholders. The main problems and proposals are presented in Table 3.

The SGDM approach and the results of a post-meeting questionnaire[5] allowed a better understanding of the current situation regarding the level of cooperation between key public and private stakeholders and to determine their role in SVF management (see Figure 3).

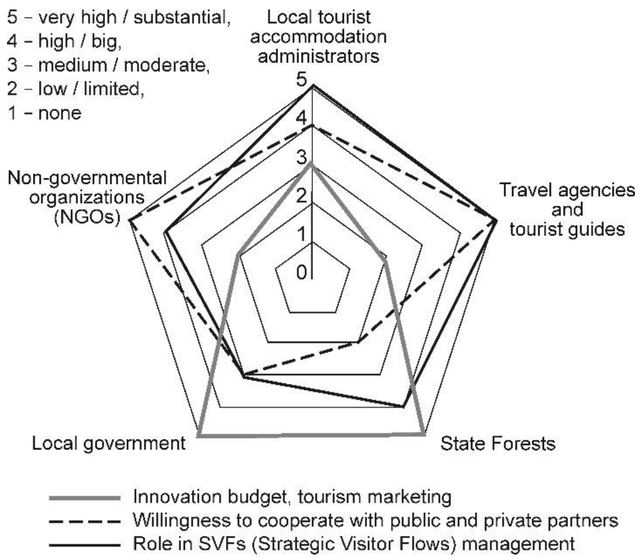

Figure 3. Level of cooperation and the role of the research sample in SVF management
Source: author based on the SGDM approach and the survey results

One of the key results of the implemented method consisted of enabling local stakeholders to see in which places of the supply chain there was a lack of effective cooperation. An analysis of the supply allows the basic characteristics of a system head in the supply network to be seen. The characteristics of key stakeholders are:

– Local tourism service providers seem to have the greatest willingness to cooperate to boost tourism in selected communes. Their activities and the spirit of innovation are crucial to attract new tourism segments to the area. However, they are mostly small entrepreneurs with limited sources of financing.
– Contrary to tourist guides, local travel agencies are entities which are very open to wide public and private cooperation.
– As forest areas constitute over 60% of the whole territory of the Bieszczady region, forestry remains a very important public stakeholder in tourism development. Working alone, forestry enters more frequently into cooperation with local governments than with private partners. But, as this entity disposes of large funds for development, it is actively involved in the creation of new tourist attractions or accommodation facilities, also maintaining tourist routes and other infrastructure on forestry territory.
– Due to financial resources, local governments play a very important role in boosting tourism in the selected area. Yet, they often have a different vision of tourism development than private interests. Moreover, they are often small communes and have inadequate human resources to manage local tourism.

– NGOs are close to the local community, very active in initiating various types of projects, tourist products and local attractions (e.g. eco-museum). But they are often faced with human and financial resource problems.

Moreover, the stakeholders recognised the necessity for common activities enhancing the market in order to, on the one side, intensify the arrivals of tourists from key SVFs and, on the other, promote natural and cultural attractions which, in spite of their tourism significance, are frequently not visited by tourists.

This issue seems to be of particular importance in the context of the dynamically developing mass tourism in the Solina commune. On account of the diverse tourism offer, this region attracts mass tourists especially in the period between May and November as well as, in the case of Polańczyk Zdrój, health resort patients for sanatorium treatment throughout the year. Nevertheless, the concentration of SVFs mainly in the area of this commune results in great transportation difficulties in the high season for both tourists and the local community.

Therefore, the promotion of new attractions in neighbouring communes seems of key importance in order to better maage tourism in this region. The recently created tourist attractions in the Olszanica commune (i.e. 'draisine bikes', the Eco-museum, the Bieszczady School of Craft and the Ursa Maior brewery)[6] may constitute a positive example of cooperation between the local government and local entrepreneurs in this respect. Due to the proximity of the Bieszczadzki National Park, the Cisna and Ustrzyki Dolne communes also try to attract tourists and convince them to stay by creating offers from 3 to 7 days.

Table 3. Main challenges for communes in the area of SVF management as well as solutions to the problems proposed by key stakeholders

Name of commune and characteristics of tourism	Problem/challenge	Solutions proposed by stakeholders
Baligród commune The majority of tourists in this commune are one-day tourists coming mainly from May to September, average spending of 100-200 PLN per person, all SVFs in the growth phase.	– Difficulties related to transportation availability in the commune. At present the commune is accessible mainly for tourists arriving by car. However, the offer addressed to visitors preferring public means of transportation is very limited.	– Creating a system of incentives in the commune for people who would like to invest in group passenger transportation services.
	– The networks of catering and accommodation facilities as well as attractions for children (playgrounds, playing fields, places for active spending of time) are poorly developed.	– Intensifying the cooperation between the commune local government and the local community as well as entrepreneurs in order to expand the accommodation-catering offer (e.g. campsites and attractions for children). – Creating a system of incentives for new investors.
	– Poorly signposted attractions and the tourism offer in the commune.	– Introducing a unified system of marking tourist attractions as well as accommodation and catering facilities in order to persuade transit tourists to stay and increase tourism in the commune.
	– The short length and low number of cycling routes.	– Extending the cycling routes and connecting them to routes in Cisna commune is, according to stakeholders, of key importance in order to attract cyclists. To achieve that aim, it is necessary to develop a common project for cycling routes and intensify the cooperation between the Baligród and Cisna communes.
Cisna commune The majority of tourists in this commune stay in the commune for 3 days or longer, mainly from March to October. All SVFs are in the growth phase.	– Lack of mountain hostels (accommodation facilities along mountain trails). – Lack of local transportation systems. – Too few car parking spaces and cycling routes. – Poor transport accessibility of villages.	– Intensifying activities and cooperation between the local government, enterprises and associations in order to build 2-3 new moun-tain hostels as well as a system of incentives for the creation of a seasonal transportation offer by private entrepreneurs would decisively ex-tend the length of tourists' stay. – Strengthening the public-private partnership in the area of the commune was proposed in order to achieve this aim.

Name of commune and characteristics of tourism	Problem/challenge	Solutions proposed by stakeholders
	– Too limited an offer for children, with respect to both the infrastructure and the activity program addressed to the youngest.	– Creating an activity program for children in the summer season (both paid and free attractions) as well as extending the infrastructure in this area.
Olszanica commune The SVFs in the Olszanica commune include both tourists staying overnight and one-day tourists. The tourists spend on average between 350 PLN and 400 PLN. All segments are in the dynamic growth phase, mainly from April to November	– Absence of new investors in the tourism industry.	– Creation by local government of a system of incentives for new investors is necessary.
	– Lack of an exclusive offer for well-to-do families and tourists who arrive in bigger and bigger numbers in the Olszanica commune.	– Developing a new product offer which would allow an extension of stays in the commune, e.g. by organizing cyclical events and concerts, diversifying prices and preparing good advertising.
	– Creation of additional attractions in order to encourage tourists stay longer.	– Introducing markings on all tourist trails and improving waterfall management. – Intensifying cooperation between local guides, guest houses owners and local government. – Launching a new advertizing campaingn in the social media, financed from public-private resources.
Lesko commune The majority of tourists in this commune are one-day and transit tourists. The tourists include anglers and gliders, whereas one-day trippers are organized groups and skiers. School groups are in a declining phase, the remaining SVFs are in growth and maturity phases. Spending averages from 40 PLN to a several hundred PLN per person per day.	– The skiers segment is in the initial phase of development.	– Expanding the skiing infrastructure in order to attract a higher number of skiers from out-side of the commune.
	– Too short stays (most frequently one-day) of organized groups and school groups in Lesko and the commune. – There is a stereotype that Lesko is a transit town on the way to the Bieszczady mountains and Solina lake.	– Building parking spaces for coaches in the centre of the town. – Creating interesting attractions for children, modernizing the infrastructure, offering a modern approach to organized groups and offering them a better service. – Improving cooperation between the local government, local entrepreneurs and local guides is necessary to achieve this aim.
	– Apart from the swimming pool, there are few options which could be offered for individual tourists and groups during a period of bad weather.	– Developing a system of offers which would permit the combination of tourist attractions and additional services (e.g. catering), which would make it possible to spend time in an interesting way in the Lesko commune, regardless of weather conditions and season.
	– Poor accessibility of attractions and their poor promotion, leads to the fact that tourists are not aware of the existence of attractions of unique cultural and natural features, and do not visit them.	
	– Poor quality services offered to foreign tourists, such as anglers and gliders.	– It is necessary to organize language courses for the personnel directly engaged in the service of this SVF in the area of the commune. – Creating special offers for international groups of anglers, paragliders and gliders, who stay in the commune area for at least 3 days and generate high revenues, in order to persuade them to see the attractions which most frequently are never visited by them during their stay.
	– River rafting is gaining more and more popularity among groups of tourists, but there are no river havens and, in addition, there is a problem with unstable water levels in the San river.	– Building river havens, more effective promoting of water attractions. – Improving the safety level for tourists taking advantage of river rafting.

Table 3 (cont.)

Name of commune and characteristics of tourism	Problem/challenge	Solutions proposed by stakeholders
Solina commune On account of the picturesque lake, the Solina commune attracts the most tourists of all the six communes. These are tourists who stay from 3 days to a week, and even longer. The variety of segments and the length of their stays result in the fact that tourism is considerably expanded in comparison with the other communes (owing to sanatorium patients, tourism in Polańczyk takes place throughout the year). Tourists staying in the area also spend more money than tourists in the other communes, i.e. from 100 PLN to several hundred PLN per person per day.	– Too few life-guarded swimming areas and running routes. – Problems related to security as well as lack of attractions in case of unfavorable weather conditions.	– Intensifying the public-private partnership in order to: • improve the safety of the swimmers and sailors, • create a higher number of life-guarded swimming areas and havens which could receive boats with tourists and dinghies, • more secure swimming and running routes, • create new attractions not dependent on weather conditions, • increase the number of local guides, who would be able to persuade tourists to visit the area.
Ustrzyki Dolne commune In the Ustrzyki commune the majority of tourists are overnight stay tourists and groups, which is a positive indication as to the future development of tourism in the region.	– Convincing the tourist to stay longer than 3 days, both in the summer and in the winter.	– Extending the ski lift infrastructure. – Extending the offer of cultural events, festivals regarding Ustrzyki Dolne.
	– Extending the number of attractions, SPA resorts, tourist paths and cycling routes.	– Expanding the infrastructure and creating a border crossing permitting an increase tourism in the commune area. – Extending cycling routes and hiking trails. – Creating a program of large events of nationwide significance. – Intensifying cooperation between local government and local entrepreneurs is necessary to achieve this aim.
	– Lack of an offer aiming to enhance tourism out of season.	– Attracting to the commune seniors and visitors who do not have school age children by creating for them special pre-season and post-season packages.

Source: author on the basis of research results.

However, according to the map analysis, the Lesko and Baligród communes make the least use of their tourism potential. In spite of their transit location towards the Solina lake, their offer is by far the least attractive for tourists representing the key SVFs. The most important attractions are not signposted or promoted, which leads to the fact that tourists stop here only to take advantage of the catering offer or to go shopping. Therefore, in particular in these two communes, there arises the necessity to strengthen cooperation between local government and local entrepreneurs.

To summarize, it should be concluded that the implemented method has enabled the stakeholders to foster local and inter-communal cooperation. The discussions during working meetings inspired them to think beyond their borders, in order to plan collective actions which would permit them to maintain existing SVFs and to develop the new strategic segments.

6. CONCLUSIONS

The method of the St. Gallen Model for Destination Management applied in selected Bieszczady communes has made it possible to identify the strategic visitors numbers (SVFs) in all the six reception areas involved in the implementation of the model, allowing the first research question to be answered.

Moreover, with the help of the maps, the stakeholders specified which main elements of supply are activated by strategic segments of tourists, thus making it possible to identify these attractions and places which are of a particular value for tourists, and whose potential is still not fully utilized, (the second research question). It turns out that the majority of the places and attractions which are most frequently not visited by tourists are located in neighbouring communes on the way to Solina. This in particular refers to the Lesko and Baligród communes which function as transit places and in which tourists do not stop at all, or only for a very short time, e.g. in order to go shopping.

The completed map keys also made it possible to identify the main problems of particular communes with respect to the management of tourism as well as the division of competences and resources – the third research question.

It was pointed out that in the Baligród and Olszanica communes investors demonstrate no interest in the creation of new attractions or investment in the development of the tourism infrastructure. However, lack of financial resources for the development of tourism and tourism-related infrastructure does not seem to be the main problem of the communes which took part in the implementation of the SGDM model.

According to the stakeholders, the dominant challenge which is present in all the communes is, above all, the insufficient cooperation between local government, entrepreneurs and mountain guides as well as difficulties related to the division of competences and the coordination of activities between particular interests. A group of Bieszczady mountain guides who were present at the meetings also pointed out the lack of support for their services from both local government and local entrepreneurs, and in particular from tourist offices handling the arriving tourists or from points of tourist information.

It seems inter-communal cooperation is also rather limited, although it is of key importance for the creation of the common local tourist offer, e.g. for cyclists (cycling routes Baligród-Cisna) or skiers (integrated Lesko-Ustrzyki Dolne offer), as well as for foreign tourists (poor quality of service in foreign languages). In many communes there is a problem of the poor signposting of tourist attractions and trails which should be unified and not separately within every commune.

Apart from the all-year-round health resort developed in the Solina commune, the majority of the analyzed destinations do not possess an offer which would attract tourists throughout the year. The polarization of tourism is mainly from May to November. The intensified tourism in particular in the summer season leads to huge transportation problems on the roads leading towards particular communes as well as very long queues to particular attractions and catering facilities. These problems are intensified by the fact that access to particular communes is difficult and there is no integrated system of public transportation.

After the meetings, the stakeholders admitted in an anonymous post-meeting questionnaire that the implemented SGDM method has positively influenced the change of their perception of tourism as a system of connections between demand and supply.

Thanks to the method, their understanding of the necessity for cooperation has increased by making them aware that the long-term development of tourism is a common issue for them all (the fourth research question). This issue can be considered as being the greatest value of the implemented method. The Bieszczady case can be compared to many examples from other destinations described in "*The St. Gallen Model for Destination Management (SGDM)*" (Beritelli, Reinhold, Leasser, Bieger, 2015).

The identified problems and challenges in the area of SVF management which are faced by particular communes require one more step, i.e. planning and implementing the solutions which were prepared during the meetings, on both local and inter-communal levels. At present steps are being taken in order to obtain resources for the continuation of the implementation of the SGDM method in these communes.

The universal character of this model also makes it possible to implement the St. Gallen Model for Destination Management in other Polish tourism reception areas, especially in places where there are large disproportions in tourism intensity between particular destinations.

ENDNOTES

[1] The implementation of the method in Poland was possible thanks to the financial support of the Ministry of Sport and Tourism within the framework of the project entitled: "Innovative support tools for the territorial tourist brand of the Bieszczady Mountains".

[2] There were a number of reasons why Lutowiska – one of the biggest communes located in the Solina region – was not included in the project. As the large commune area is protected and covered by the National Park, it results in a lack of sufficient key private tourism stakeholders. Moreover, the representatives of the National Park were not particularly open to dialogue and cooperation. The communal authorities seemed also to show limited interest and openness to the tourism development in this area.

[3] The selection and invitation of stakeholders to the meetings were carried out by the personnel of the Pro Carpathia Association – a locally active entity which has been involved in the support of tourism in the Subcarpathian Region.

[4] Prof. Pietro Beritelli from St. Gallen University, a co-author of the method, and the author of this article took part in its implementation in the Bieszczady mountains.

[5] The questionnaire consisted of four questions: 1. What is the role of my company/organization in the management of current SVFs? 2. With what partners and on what scale my company/organization cooperates most willingly for the development of the key segments? 3. What part of the budget of my company/organization invest in marketing activities and product innovations? 4. What gave me the participation in working meetings using the SGDM approach?

[6] In spite of the lack of any previous tourist offer in this commune, thanks to the conducted investments the number of tourists in the commune at present amounts to approximately 100,000. Source: data obtained from the owners of the above-mentioned attractions.

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MOTIVATIONS FOR RUNNING IN MEN: A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF LOCAL RUNNERS AND SPORTS TOURISTS

Abstract: The aim of the study is to to examine the motivations for participating in a half-marathon among two groups of runners, local running in their place of residence and sports tourists, and to evaluate the differences between them. With the increase in the popularity of 'running tourism' the question becomes important as it encourages runners to engage in physical activity outside their everyday place of residence. Freyer and Gross's (2002) four types of motivation for participation in sports events was the basis for the development of the author's questionnaire. The empirical research (sample size=346) then recognized these motives for participation. The article also presents a review of the literature on such motivations in mass running events. Results indicate that both group of respondents, residents of the place where the half-marathon was organised and sports tourists, have different forms of motivation. The greatest relevance for sports tourists turned out to be motivation for sensation-seeking but for local runners it was the result, and this confirms that sports tourists travel generally in search for strong emotions and sensations.

Keywords: motives for running, mass sporting event, sports tourism.

1. INTRODUCTION

Sports tourism is an important part of the travel industry drawing thousands of travelers and fans to various competitions and championships. In the last 30 years (since the great successes of the Olympic Games in Los Angeles and Barcelona) many cities, regions, and countries have implemented strategies to systematically organize great sports occasions, and have allocated human and financial resources to attract elite mega-sports events. Countries compete to organize the largest and most expensive global events. As a result of the difficulty of this competition, many cities and regions are turning to smaller events in the field of non-elite sports like running (not requiring an expensive infrastructure). For several years there has been discussion that small- and medium-scale sports events (such as marathons and half-marathons) can successfully contribute to the sustainable economic development of tourist destinations (Chappelet, 2015; Gibson, Kaplanidou, Kang, 2012; Taks, 2013; Taks, Green, Misener, Chalip, 2014). Running events are sports tourism attractions that take place in many cities around the globe while marathons and half-marathons in Europe are now very popular attractions for tourists (Papanikos, 2015). Many running enthusiasts have the opportunity to travel to incredible places and run through picturesque locations full of interesting attractions such as the Athens Marathon, marathons in Lisbon, Goteborg and Oslo, the Warsaw Marathon, the International Marathon of Peace in Kosice, the Swiss City Marathon in Lucerne, the Volkswagen Marathon in Prague, the Crete Half-Marathon, half-marathons in Geneva, Bucharest, Copenhagen and Poznań, the Wizz Air Half-Marathon in Budapest and the BMW Berlin Marathon. It is important to study the socio-demographic profile of the participants of running events, their motivations and the factors which influence the popularity of running tourism and non-elite sports.

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One of these factors is the development of the ideology of healthism in western societies. Healthism, as one of the highest values of developed societies, involves the application of numerous ideas and practices that are aimed at strengthening or improving the health of the individual and encouraging others to do so. One such practice is the dissemination of physical activity. For those who adopt this ideology, (good) health is not only a means that enables continued life, but a goal in itself (Crawford, 1977, 1980). Such an understanding of health, influences changes in the role of medicine which not only cures, but also takes a preventive approach through education and testing. Crawford used it for the first time in 1980 to describe an ideology which was an important aspect of the new health awareness of American Society in the 1970s. The researcher believes that healthism is a lifestyle designed for health and fitness, and based on an individual pursuit and building motivation for the achievement of the health goals assumed (Crawford, 1994, 2004, 2006). Healthism also refers to the way in which social and moral values related to health are approached, while this process is closely related to the practices of everyday life, how people perceive themselves and their health within the social environment. That awareness has shaped American culture alongside the growth of the popularity of sports reflected by efforts to look after individual health, numerous health-promoting campaigns and the provision of health-related information in the media such as the advertisement of health products.

2. THE DEVELOPMENT OF MASS SPORTS AND SPORTS TOURISM IN POLAND

In the last few years, the ideology of healthism has been developing in Poland too, a trend particularly visible in the mass running events in which Poles eagerly participate. The scale of this social phenomenon is unusual on many levels and a number of interdisciplinary factors should be taken into account. The physical activity of Poles has increased dynamically in the last two decades with positive changes beginning to be observed after the political changes in 1989. Previously Polish society, unlike western countries, displayed a much lower level of physical activity. After Poland's accession to the European Union, it was at the bottom of the list of European countries in terms of physical activity; currently it is in the middle. This is rapid growth, and now the media and politicians are trying to consolidate this trend to encourage the elderly also to participate (Biernat, Piątkowska, 2012; *Report on the 'Physical activity of Poles TNS Poland'*, 2015).

Social, cultural and economic factors have influenced this increase of physical activity. Currently, Poles are better educated, wealthier, have more free time and their quality of life has increased. They have moved to cities in which sports infrastructure has developed dynamically e.g. swimming pools, fitness clubs and bicycle paths. They also started to work more in offices. Previously, during communism, many hours were devoted to physical labour or agricultural work so running or swimming were not thought about. The end of the 1990s in Poland was a time of intense and rapid transformation of a planned economy into a free-market capitalist one. The distance between western countries and Poland was then clearly visible on many lifestyle indicators, including not only sports and recreation, and health care but also, for example, diet. Polish society started to adapt western lifestyles and a more positive perception of sports was found. In the 21st century, Poles perceive sport as an important element of culture and social life. This increase in interest can also be explained by the organization of a sports mega-event: the European Football Championships in 2012 in Poland and Ukraine. In addition, how free time is spent allows social status to be emphasized. Sport and sports tourism have become a distinctive feature of the middle class and the fashion for running has become very visible, and not only at the place of residence (Domański, 2000; Lenartowicz, Dziubiński, Jankowski, 2017; Stempień, 2015, 2016).

Poles are still more similar, however, to the less active sporting inhabitants of southern European countries like Greece than, for example, to Scandinavia, in which the vast majority of residents are active (Biernat, Piątkowska, 2012). The favourite discipline is running (33% of physically active people), swimming (29%) and cycling (53%) (*Report on the 'Physical activity of Poles TNS Poland'*, 2015). On the other hand, the fashion for a healthy and active lifestyle has arrived, for example running events are organized even in smaller Polish towns. People want to look good and be attractive. Among physically active Poles, the mode of consumption and the forms of physical activity chosen are changing, in this respect they are heading towards western patterns. Mass sports and participation in mass sports events are developing dynamically. Increasingly, Poles are becoming sports tourists and participation in organized mass sports and recreation events has become a very attractive form of physical recreation. This can be seen primarily through the example of such events in which the turnout in recent years has increased by several hundred percentage points: Poznań Half-Marathon (increase since 2008 of 800%), Poznań Triathlon (increase from 2013 by 300%), Poznań Bike Challenge (increase from 2014 by 40%), Poznań Marathon (increase from 2000 by 900%) (own research based on data from event organizers, September 2018). In Poland, running and participation in mass events such as marathons and half-marathons has become very popular. The number of events organised and the competitors taking part in them has grown noticeably since 2000 and more than 15 large-scale marathons are held in Poland each year. These are only those events in which the participants are counted in thousands. Poznań is an example of a city with a population of over 500,000 with a very wide offer of sports events. More than 500 at various levels are organized annually both in the city and the Wielkopolska region, which puts Poznań among the leaders of running events nationally. This tendency raises the question of the motives behind marathon runners, particularly due to the fact that in the context of everyday life both training for and running a marathon is a kind of a luxury. It requires time and good health. Training is exhausting, and those involved in the sport go far beyond the level of physical fitness which, according to the WHO, a healthy person should reach.

3. MOTIVATION FOR RUNNING AS SPORTS TOURISM: A LITERATURE REVIEW

Although there are many studies on motivations among runners (including Ogles, Masters, 2003; Ogles, Masters, Richardson, 1995) there is little research on the differences between local runners and sports tourists. Ogles, Masters & Richardson (1995) has shown that men run for reasons such as a willingness to participate in competition, achieve success, and win against an opponent or themselves. It is also important for them to maintain health and physical fitness.

Learning about the motivation of runners and sports tourists is very important from an economic and marketing point of view. Aicher, Karadakis & Eddosary (2015) indicated no differences in motivation between sports tourists and residents, but it was an online questionnaire. This author claims that it is better to measure opinions, sensations and the level of emotions and satisfaction during a sporting event.

According to Schwark, sports tourism may provide more opportunities for a higher intensity of experiences at the sensual-vital, emotional and social levels (Schwark, 2006). This higher intensity may be influenced by finding yourself in unusual scenery and establishing cultural and social interactions with the inhabitants of the areas visited. Doing sports outside the place of residence can therefore create a new quality not found in familiar conditions providing a higher intensity of experience (Kazimierczak, Malchrowicz-Mośko, 2013). Sports tourism creates an added value expressing the synergistic effect which internalises the autotelic values of both. A sports tourist develops not only his body but also spiritually thanks to his relationship with new natural, cultural and social environments (Szczechowicz, 2015). All this can have an impact on motivation for taking a sports trip. Therefore, it is worth investigating whether running motives are the same among local runners and sports tourists. Perhaps a sports trip provides tourists, for example, with more opportunities to satisfy emotional experiences or other needs, and this affects their motivation. Based on a review of the literature (Kazimierczak, Malchrowicz-Mośko, 2013; Schwark, 2006; Szczechowicz, 2015), the hypothesis that tourists were more satisfied with participation in a half-marathon than residents, was accepted.

According to Zuckerman, the importance of experiencing strong emotions associated with participation in a sports event was described as sensation-seeking. To the researcher, experiencing strong emotions related to the mood of a given event, was considered one of the most important factors influencing the choice and effectiveness of various forms of sport and recreation activity (Zuckerman, 1994). People taking up sport and recreational activities more frequently feel the need to increase the effort put in and effectiveness, to participate in situations giving an opportunity to verify their own accomplishments, constantly checking and achieving a high level of stimulation. Such a phenomenon, which is defined as the search for sensation-seeking can nowadays be one of the most important factors influencing the choice and effectiveness of various forms of sport and recreational activity. According to changes towards excitement in contemporary sport and in tourism and recreation, participants are increasingly looking for extreme situations related to self-improvement, competition and, above all, experiencing intentionally controlled risk (Walczak, Tomczak, 2011; Zuckerman, 1994). Sports tourism can be seen as a product of the experience economy as contemporary tourists seek strong emotions during their travel. Nowadays, it is not enough to engage in sport and recreation activities only to enjoy their free time, but rather it is based on increasing the effort put in and the effectiveness of those activities. It is more attractive to participate in situations which provide an opportunity to verify one's own achievements, to constantly challenge oneself, and to achieve a high level of stimulation during leisure time. Today, this may be one of the most important factors influencing the choice and effectiveness of various forms of sport and recreation activity. This could explain the growing popularity of leisure activities such as marathon running. Such people are looking for forms of recreation that provide impressions and emotions connected with risk, preferring to struggle against the forces of nature, an opponent, themselves or their own weaknesses.

Many researchers are interested in the issue of human motivation and Self Determination Theory (SDT), one of the most important approaches, results from over 40 years of research. Its assumptions constitute a three-pronged core that is the foundation of human development, and consists of the psychological needs for autonomy, competence, and relationships (Deci, Ryan, 2000a, 2000b; Ryan, 1995; Ryan, Deci, 2000). The need for autonomy reflects the desire for human self-determination and the choices which a person experiences when he perceives his functioning is a result of his own decisions (Ryan, La Guardia, 2000). The need for competence refers to the tendency for effective interactions in situations that give experience and allow for presenting skills and capabilities. In turn, the need for relationships can be satisfied with those close or with a sense of belonging to a particular social context (Ryan, La Guardia, 2000). Deci & Ryan (2000b) mention the individual level of psychological needs and their non-hierarchical nature, emphasizing their importance for a sense of a high quality of life based on psychological development. The environment that provides stimuli to meet the needs discussed enables self-determination in an activity, the satisfaction derived from it, and internal motives for the activity which lead to a sense of pleasure and identification that is beyond the necessary (Vlachopoulos, Michailidou, 2006). Motivation is at the heart of many of sports most interesting issues, both as a developmental outcome of a social environment such as a competition or a coach's behavior, and as a developmental influence on behavioral variables such as persistence, learning and performance (Vallerand, Deci, Ryan, 1987). One perspective that has been found to be useful in this area suggests that behavior can be intrinsically motivated, extrinsically motivated, or amotivated (Deci, 1975; Deci, Ryan, 1985, 1991). This theoretical approach has generated new research pertinent to the field of sport, for example, a new measure of motivation toward sport was developed by Pelletier and his co-authors based on the tenets of Deci & Ryan's theory. They composed a scale that measures the different forms of motivation outlined in Deci & Ryan's theory and created a Sports Motivation Scale – SMS (Briere, Vallerand, Blais, Pelletier, 1995; Vallerand, 1997) a tool that examines the diversity of motivational processes related to participation in sport. They distinguished three dimensions: Intrinsic Motivation, Extrinsic Motivation and Amotivation in which there are seven subscales, three from Intrinsic Motivation[1] (IM to Know, IM to Accomplish Things, and IM to Experience Stimulation), three for Extrinsic Motivation[2] (Identified, Introjected, and External), and Amotivation,[3] the seventh (Briere, Vallerand, Blais, Pelletier, 1995). SMS is greatly valued in the litera-ture of sports psychology, is considered to be reliable and present a high level of internal consistency (Briere, Vallerand, Blais, Pelletier, 1995). It has been widely used not only in sports psychology, but also in mass studies into the conditioning of recreational activity in Greece and France (Alexandris, Carroll, 1997; Alexandris, Tsorbatzoudis, Grouios, 2002) and has been adopted for research in many countries (De Pero et al., 2009; Doganis, 2000). Another approach is that of Curtis & McTeer (1981) who, using the incomplete sentence method, and based on the answers given, determined that the main reasons for taking part in marathons were achieving one's own goals, influencing others and mental well-being. Summers, Sorgent, Levey & Murray (1982) using the same method, examined three reasons for marathon participation, determining their frequency of occurrence, grouped them into categories based on similarity of content, and found that the most frequently mentioned were achievement of self-goals, a test of self-esteem, physical fitness, and influencing others. Johnsgård (1985), using a questionnaire, surveyed the main motives for running and his respondents reported physical fitness, mood control and self-image. Clough, Sheper & Maugha (1989) also asked marathon runners about their reasons for running, and by means of factor analysis, identified six: challenge, physical form/ health, well-being, social, status and addiction. Tools for investigating the factors motivating people to run marathons have been introduced: Gill & Deeter (1988) used a Sports Orientation Questionnaire (SOQ) which measures achievement in sport; Crowne & Marlowe (1960) created the Marlow-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (MCSd) which is a scale for seeking social approval; Carmack & Martens (1979) used the Attentional Focussing Questionnaire (AFQ) which measures associative/ dissociative attention in sports; Masters & Lambert (1989) and Masters, Ogles & Jolton (1993) developed the questionnaire 'Motivations of Marathoners Scale (MoMS)', measuring motives for running marathons while Freyer and Gross have distinguished four main types of motivation for participation in sports events: a) social orientation, focused on the relationships to each other; b) emo-tion/sensation-seeking orientation, most often concerning positive experiences, in the form of relaxation, for example, which is a kind of compensation for the hardships of everyday life; c) 'factual' orientation, referring to the sports events themselves and to their specificity; in this case to running; d) result orientation, triggered by the need to identify with success, and in the case of failure, by the need to show sympathy and solidarity. The classification developed by Freyer & Gross (2002) was the basis for the development of this writer's questionnaire on motives for participation in a running event. The questionnaire was used during the 6th Poznań Half-Marathon.

4. MATERIAL AND METHODS

According to Ross's research (Ross, 2001), young men with higher education who are professionally active, are the most active participants of running events in the USA. Roberts also indicates that sports tourists are most often well-off educated men. This is due to the greater participation of men in sports in general, and the need to incur high financial costs to participate in some sports events (Roberts, 2011). In Poland men form a majority of half-marathon runners, based on data received from the organizers of previous half-marathons in Poznań. The aim was to examine the motivations of those who participate in a half-marathon among two groups of men: local runners (residents of Poznań) and sports tourists, and to evaluate their different motivations.

Participant data was collected during the 6th Poznań Half-Marathon (*Pol. 6. Poznań Półmaraton*) which is one of the most important mass sport events in Poland, and in which both amateur and professional runners participate. The division of motives developed by Freyer and Gross (outlined above) was the basis for developing the author's questionnaire for studying motives for participation. The results amount to more than 100% because, for each group of motives, participants could tick more than one answer (maximum 3). Descriptive statistics (percentages, means and standard deviations) were calculated for all variables. For the differences between responses of residents and sports tourists, a chi-square test was used and statistical significance was set at $p \leq 0.05$. All statistical analyses were conducted using Statistica Software 10.0 (StatSoft Inc., 2011) while pilot studies had been carried out during a previous event, the 5th Poznań Half-Marathon.

The research, a diagnostic face-to-face survey using a standardized interview technique, was conducted among N=346 male runners in 6th Poznań Half-Marathon. These comprised 139 residents (N1=139) and 207 sports tourists (N2=207) who completed a questionnaire and all of whom participated in the event voluntarily. All the sports tourists came to Poznań in order to participate and lived more than 30 km from the city.[4] The sample was selected to ensure a good representativeness for the results. A simple random sample without replacement was used and information was obtained from the organizers on the expected number of participants. In the calculations the formula for sample size for a finite population was used with the assumption that the maximum error of estimate (e) at 95% confidence level should not exceed 4%.

5. RESULTS

5.1. SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE RESPONDENTS: THE PROFILE OF A RUNNER

Most respondents were aged 26-35 (40.8%) or 19-25 (39.3%); 13.3% were 36-50, while only 4.6% were 51-70. Participants represented different educational levels, the majority had higher education (46.8%), 29.8% had only a secondary education with another 19.4% an incomplete higher education; 4% had just a basic education. Most of the participants came from urban areas: cities above 500,000 residents (41.3%) and from towns with 10-100,000 residents (40,5%) but 18.2% were from rural areas. The majority of respondents are professionally active (58.4%) or students (30.3%) but 4.0% were retired, 3.5% were students in secondary eduaction and 3.8% unemployed.

Table 1. Social, emotion/sensation-seeking, 'factual' and result orientations of men running a half-marathon motives (n=346)

Groups of motives	Men running in a half-marathon (n=346)	
	n	%
Group A Motives for social orientation		
Desire to feel unity and integration with other people	**171**	**49.40**
Desire to feel equality during the race	67	19.40
Prevailing fashion – participation in sports events is fashionable	32	9.20
Desire to gain recognition in the eyes of others	70	20.20
Participation in the subculture of runners	97	28,40
Group B Motives for sensation-seeking orientation		
Desire to experience strong emotions associated with participation	**223**	**64.50**
Desire to feel the extraordinary mood of the whole event	164	47.40
Desire to have fun	180	52.00
Desire to have enjoyable leisure time / entertainment	93	26.90
Desire to express happiness, e.g. resulting from winning/success	62	17.90
Desire to get away from everyday life	6	17.60
The attractiveness of the city in which the event takes place	19	5.50
Group C Motives for 'factual' (specific sports discipline) orientation		
Desire to develop passion	**247**	**71.40**
Drawn by the attractiveness of the sports part of the half-marathon	101	22.00
Drawn to the attractiveness of the extensive program of accompanying events	37	10.70
Group D Motives for the result orientation		
Desire to test myself	**254**	**73.40**
Desire to achieve the goal	212	61.30
Desire to participate in sports competition	142	41.03
Desire to win	8	2.30
High (international) rank of this sports event	14	4.00
None mentioned in this group	15	4.30
Group E Other motives		
Desire to maintain good physical / health fitness	**287**	**82.9**

Source: own development based on research, n=346.

Table 1 presents the most often indicated motives according to four groups: social, emotional/sensation-seeking, factual and result orientations for the total sample (n=346). This allows the motives of a man running a half-marathon to be recognised. The most often indicated motive from the first group (A) *was a desire to feel unity and integration with other people* – 171 respondents indicated this (49.4%). In the second group (B) the most important proved to be: *desire to experience strong emotions associated with participation* – 223 indicated this (64.5%), *along with desire to have fun* – 180 respondents (52%). The third group (C) shows that for men who participate in a half-marathon the most important aspect is a desire to develop passion connected with running – 247 indicated this (71.4%); while the results of the last group (D) shows that the most important thing is *a desire to test myself* indicated by 254 respondents (73.4%) and was the most important motive among all groups (Table 1). The next motive in group D, was *a desire to achieve the goal* – 212 (61.2%) of respondents. In group E: *Other motives* – the *Desire to maintain good physical / health fitness* was indicated by the largest number of respondents (287) 82.9%.

5.2. THE MOTIVATIONS TO PARTICIPATE IN A HALF-MARATHON AMONG TWO GROUPS OF MEN: RESIDENTS OF POZNAŃ AND SPORTS TOURISTS: RECOGNITION OF THE DIFFERENCES

Table 2 presents Group A, social orientation, and Group B, emotion/experience orientation. The most important motive both for residents and sports tourists was *a desire to feel unity and integration with other people* (48.9% and 49.8% respectively). The second ($p \leq 0.05$) *participation in the subculture of runners* was more important for sports tourists than for residents (19.4% and 33.8% respectively). Affiliation to a subculture is important for only one in five of local runners but maybe they do not travel. Sports tourists who took part in the event in Poznań may have a strong need to belong to a subculture and for this reason have participated in many events outside their place of residence.

In Group B, for both the most important and statistically significant response was *a desire to experience strong emotions* (49.6% for residents and 74.4% for sports tourists). This shows that this motive was more important for sports tourists confirming that they travel in search of strong impressions and emotions. The next most important motive was *a desire to have fun* (56.1% for residents and 49.3% for sports tourists).

Based on a review of the literature (Kazimierczak, Malchrowicz-Mośko, 2013; Schwark, 2006; Szczechowicz, 2015), empirical research shows that sports tourists are more satisfied with participation than local runners. Participants were asked to express their level of satisfaction using the Likert scale from 1 (very dissatisfied) to 10 (very satisfied). Comparisons are proportionally graded among local and visiting runners (Table 3).

The conducted analysis (Mann-Whitney U Test) showed the existence of statistically significant differences between the level of satisfaction of local runners and sports tourists (Z=9.3, p=0.0000). Comparison of arithmetic means and medians for both shows that the lev-

Table 2. Social orientation and sensation-seeking orientation motives

Groups of motives	Residents of Poznań (n=139)		Sports tourists (n=207)		*p*
	n	%	n	%	
Group A Motives for social orientation					
Desire to feel unity and integration with other people	68	48.9	103	49.8	0.8786
Desire to feel equality during the race	26	18.7	41	19.8	0.7993
Prevailing fashion – participation in sports events is fashionable	12	8.6	20	9.7	0.7461
Desire to gain recognition in the eyes of others	25	18.0	45	21.7	0.3942
Participation in the subculture of runners	27	19.4	70	33.8	**0.0035**
Group B Motives for sensation-seeking orientation					
Desire to experience strong emotions associated with participation	69	49.6	154	74.4	**0.0000**
Desire to feel the extraordinary mood of the whole event	64	46.0	100	48,3	0.6790
Desire to have fun	78	56.1	102	49.3	0.2119
Desire to have enjoyable leisure time / entertainment	39	28.1	54	26.1	0.6852
Desire to express happiness, e.g. resulting from winning/success	32	23.0	30	14.5	**0.0426**
Desire to get away from everyday life	21	15.1	40	19.3	0.3131
The attractiveness of the city in which the event takes place	3	2.2	16	7.7	**0.0257**

Source: own development based on research, n=346.

Table 3. Satisfaction in the event: local and visiting runners

Local runners n=139			Sports tourists n=207			*Z*	*p*
Average	*Median*	*Standard deviation*	*Average*	*Median*	*Standard deviation*		
8.0	8.0	1.4	9.0	9.0	1.2	9.3	0.0000

Source: own development based on research, n=346.

el of satisfaction of visitors was higher than that of local runners. Among local runners, the mean and median were 8, for sports tourists, they were one point higher.

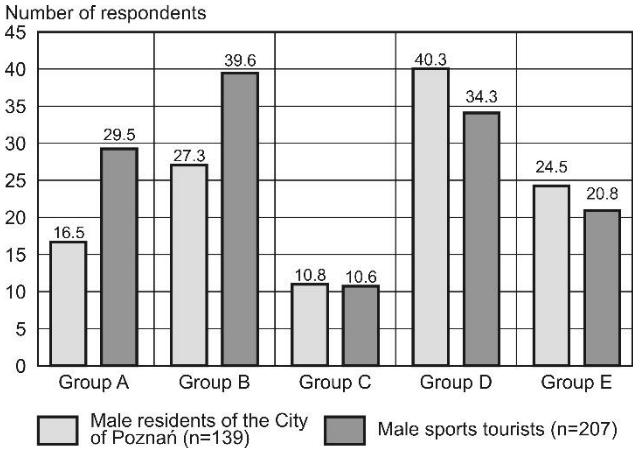
In addition, sports tourists were asked whether in their opinion sports activity taken away from home provides them with stronger and more positive emotions. The results showed this for 86% of sports tourists. This may suggest that sports tourism provides more opportunities for intensity of emotional experiences than familiar settings. Respondents who answered *yes* to this question (N = 179) were also asked about the extent to which activity outside their place of residence intensified emotions. The response scale was 10 – very high, 1 – very low and the average was 9.0. It should be added that this was not according to a *desire to achieve the goal* as local runners more often responded positively (74.3%) compared to sports tourists (64%).

Table 4 presents 'factual' orientation (referring to the sports events themselves and their specificity) (Group C), for result orientation (Group D) and for other motives (Group E). The most frequently indicated response in Group C, was *a desire to develop passion* connected with running – for residents of Poznań (71.9%) and for sports tourists (71.0%). In this group no statistically-significant differences were found. The most important motive from Group D for both was *a desire to test myself* (for residents – 77.7%, for sports tourists – 70.5%) followed by a *desire to achieve the goal* (58.3% residents, 63.3% sports tourists) and *a desire to participate in sports competition* (41.0% for residents, 41.1% for sports tourists). A statistically significant difference was found in group D for the *high (international) rank of this sports event* ($p<0.05$). The desire to win was not so important.

In the last group of motives (Group E), the most important was *a desire to maintain good physical/health fitness* for residents (82.0%) and for sports tourists (83.6%). No significant difference between responses was found.

The respondents were asked which motivational group was the most important for them. Figure 1 presents the motivational group percentages for respondents. Group B turned out to be the most significant for sports tourists: *sensation-seeking motives* (39.6%), which confirms that sports tourists travel in search of strong sensations and emotions; for local residents it was: *result motives* (40.3%) – group D, as the importance of taking part in competition or checking yourself. The desire to maintain good physical/health fitness was not the most important for runners.

Figure 1. The most important motivational group for respondents



Source: own development based on research, n=346

Table 4. 'Factual' orientation (referring to the sports events themselves and to their specificity), for result orientation and other motives

Groups of motives	Residents of Poznań (n=139)		Sports tourists (n=207)		*p*
	n	%	N	%	
Group C Motives for 'factual' (specific sports discipline) orientation					
Desire to develop passion	100	71.9	147	71.0	0.8515
I'm drawn by the attractiveness of the sports part of the half-marathon	38	27.3	63	30.4	0.5345
I'm drawn to the attractiveness of the extensive program of accompanying events	13	9.4	24	11.6	0.5083
Group D Motives for the result orientation					
Desire to test myself	108	77.7	146	70.5	0.1391
Desire to achieve the goal	81	58.3	131	63.3	0.3482
Desire to participate in sports competition	57	41.0	85	41.1	0.9918
Desire to win	1	7.0	7	3.4	0.1062
High (international) rank of this sports event	1	7.0	13	6.3	**0.0101**
Group E Other motives					
Desire to maintain good physical / health fitness	114	82.0	173	83.6	0.7052

Source: own development based on research, n=346.

The least important motivational group for both residents and sports tourists was Group C – *specific sports discipline motives* (10.8% for the residents and 10.6% for sports tourists). However, the results of the research have shown something surprising – the fact that all other motives are more important than the run itself and its organization. After all, the event is primarily for running but this is not only connected with a passion for it and with health and physical fitness. This result constitutes a conceptualisation of the sporting event tourism in terms of social and psychological interactions which reveal and demonstrate its creative layers and contemporary meaning which has already gone deeply beyond functions of only meeting a need of running or care for health and physical fitness.

6. DISCUSSION AND FINAL CONCLUSIONS

The profile of a man running in half-marathons shows that he is young and well-educated, aged 19-35, with higher education. Most of the participants came from urban areas and they are professionally active. The profile turned out to be in accordance with the findings of Ross (2001). Ogles, Masters, Richardson (1995) showed that men usually run for reasons such as their willingness to participate in rivalry, achieve success, win against an opponent or themselves. The results of this study are similar. The most frequently reported motive was the desire to care for *health and physical fitness* (82.9%) and to *check myself* (73.4%). The result orientation was the most important group of motives (D) for local runners 40.3%. But other motives were graded highly as well.

The most often indicated motive for all the runners from Group A was *a desire to feel unity and integration with other people*, in Group B the most important proved to be: *desire to experience strong emotions associated with participation*. Group C shows that for men who participate in a half-marathon competition the most important is *to desire to develop passion* connected with running. The results of Group D show that the most important is *a desire to test themselves* and it was the most important motive among all groups. The next motive in group D was a *desire to achieve the goal*. In group E: *desire to maintain good physical / health fitness* was indicated by the largest number of respondents (287). However, the motive *to win against others* was not that important like the motive *to fight against one's weaknesses*.

To evaluate the different motivations that lead to participation in a half-marathon, between residents and sports tourists, research shows that the most important from Group A, both for residents and sports tourists, was *a desire to feel unity and integration with other people*. While the second statistically significant ($p \leq 0.05$) *participation in the subculture of runners* was more important for sports tourists than for residents.

In Group B, for all respondents, the most important and statistically-significant response was *a desire to experience strong emotions*, followed by *a desire to have fun*. This shows that the motive of strong emotions was more important for sports tourists which confirms that sports tourists travel in search of strong impressions and emotions.

These results clearly show that sports lovers travel to mass running events in search of strong emotions and build social relationships. The popularity of sports tourism, in this case marathon tourism, can be explained by the fact that it is a manifestation of a society that is focused on experiencing strong emotions (Schulze, 1992), including during travel. In addition, mass sports events have become a postmodern form of participation in social life, allowing a feeling of being part of a community of runners. The need for affiliation is now very important in western societies which currently do not create opportunities for collective behavior, unlike eastern societies. In the face of the weakening of traditional social environments in western cultures and the progressive individualization of society, the individual, not wanting to be self-reliant, actively seeks new social structures. People are looking for contact with others who lead a similar lifestyle with similar interests and views. Their physical presence, the ability to visually and tangibly realise their existence, at the same time makes sure that an individually chosen lifestyle works. Social occasions for such meetings are created by sports events.

Taking part in a sporting event usually involves a strong sense of community with other participants, it allows emotions to be shared with those around. In the postmodern world, of an atomized society, full of loneliness and loss, and full of problems with establishing and maintaining interpersonal relationships, sports events create opportunities for building social relationships and social identity. Zduniak (2010) supposes, however, that events are usually short-lived, fleeting. They offer lonely individuals an immediate sense of closeness with others, but after the end of the event the community exists no longer. Therefore, there is a need to participate in subsequent events, which may be one of the factors of the development of sports event tourism. Another important aspect is the fact that practically everyone can participate in such events as they do not put too many demands on the participants. Therefore, the human need for affiliation is satisfied virtually effortlessly, you do not have to strive for these relations. The only question is, to what extent do the events really create this desired community, and to what extent are they just meetings of lonely individuals. Perhaps they are, however, only a postmodern ritual of collective loneliness (Cudowska, 2010; Zduniak, 2010).

The most often indicated response in Group C was *a desire to develop passion,* for both residents and for sports tourists but without any statistical significance between groups.

The most important from Group D for all respondents (residents and sports tourists) was *a desire to test myself*, *a desire to achieve the goal* and *a desire to participate in sports competition*. A statistically-significant difference between these two groups of respondents was found in response to the *high (international) rank of this sports event* ($p<0.05$). In Group E, the most important was *a desire to maintain good physical/health fitness* for both residents and sports tourists. No significant differences were found.

The most significant for the sports tourists turned out to be group B: *sensation-seeking motives,* which confirms that sports tourists travel in search for strong impressions and emotions. For residents group D it was: *result motives,* the importance of taking part in competition or *checking myself*. The least important for both residents and sports tourists was Group C – *specific sports discipline motives*.

This result shows that while local runners focus on sports-related themes such as rivalry, sports tourism provides tourist-runners with strong impressions and emotions, and this need encourages them to travel.

The article provides data which may be useful for supporting marketing in events like half-marathons. The results give information to the organizers about the profile of runners, the needs of local runners and whether sports tourists can be attracted. High importance has been assigned, for example, to building social relations. Perhaps the program of the event should be extended to other attractions so that runners can spend more time together.

From the academic point of view, the results show the difference between a local runner and the sports tourist. The research finds an answer to the question why people go on a trip to participate in a sporting event. While for sports tourists the most important were sensation-seeking motives, especially the desire to experience the strong emotions associated with participation, for residents they were result motives. According to this, sports-tourism provides more opportunities to gain emotional experiences than familiar spaces. Residents are focused on the result more than tourists. Definitely, these results can provide some guidelines for sports managers to set and arrange future running events.

These results confirm the theory of Zuckerman (1994), in which he emphasizes the importance of experiencing strong emotions associated with participation in a sports event, describing them as sensation-seeking. To the researcher, experiencing strong emotions related to the mood of a given event, was considered one of the most important factors influencing the choice and effectiveness of various forms of sport and recreation. Especially for sports tourists, the strong sensations and emotions provided by sporting event participation are important. They are seeking opportunities to establish social relations as well. In this place, the search for strong emotions and experiences may be highlighted (as we live in an experience-centered society, see Schulze's theory) which are brought to us through sporting rivalry and the possibility of making social relationships (the need to feel unity during such events) in a period of time where we live in a society of individuals. These aspects were not only a willingness to stay fit, healthy and slim, but also to build social relationships and to look for experiences and emotions that come with recreational sports, the level of satisfaction or of psychological needs to test physical fitness. Some motives like social relations have similar meaning for all runners, but other aspects such as strong emotions encourage people to travel and practice sports outside their place of residence. The research also shows that for sports tourists social relations were more important than physical activity. The popularization of running and participating in running events have a direct impact on the development of sports tourism because travelling to different places to take part in a marathon or half-marathon, gives more opportunities to gain emotional experiences and the possibility of making social relations than sport in familiar spaces.

The research results show that the dynamic growth of sports tourism is a result of different factors. It turns out that prestige and affiliation to runners' subculture is important for sports tourists and they travel primarily in search of excitement and emotions, while residents run in a half-marathon because they want to check their level of physical activity and themselves. This is more important for residents than strong emotions connected with participation in a mass event and establishing social relations.

The article constitutes a conceptualisation of the sporting event tourism in the dimension of social and psychological interactions which reveal and demonstrate its creative layers and contemporary meaning which has already gone deeply beyond functions of only meeting a need of running or care for health and physical condition. While local runners focus on sports-related themes, such as rivalry, sports tourism provides tourist-runners with strong impressions and emotions, and this need encourages them to travel. Moreover, sports tourism provides more opportunities for intense experiences at an emotional level than sport in familiar settings.

The strength of the research is the sample investigated, while a limitation is the self-reporting nature of the surveys. Definitely, these results can provide some guidelines for sports managers who will set and arrange future running events. But most importantly, to understand the motives among men who participate in non-elite sports. It is also important to know the motivations among women, the young and the elderly. In the future the country of origin which may influence motivation among runners could be evaluated – it would be interesting to conduct similar surveys in other countries and to make a comparative analysis of motivation against a background of socio-cultural trends characteristic for a given region.

ENDNOTES

[1] *Intrinsic Motivation* explains the behaviour of athletes who go to practice because they find it interesting and satisfying to learn more about their sports, or athletes who practice their sports for the pleasure of constantly trying to surpass themselves are considered intrinsically motivated toward their sports. *Intrinsic Motivation to Know* concerns athletes who are intrinsically motivated to know when they try to discover new training techniques for the sheer pleasure they experience while learning something new. *Intrinsic Motivation Toward Accomplishments* – defined as engaging in an activity for the pleasure and satisfaction experienced when one attempts to accomplish or create something. *Intrinsic Motivation to Experience Stimulation* clarify behaviour of athletes who participate in their sports in order to live exciting experiences are intrinsically motivated to experience stimulation.

[2] *Extrinsic Motivation* – contrary to intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation (EM) pertains to a wide variety of behaviours that are engaged in as a means to an end and not for their own sake. *Identification* – concerns athletes who participate in sports because they feel their involvement contributes to a part of their growth and development as a person represent an example of identified motivation. for why they continue to train. *Introjection* – athletes who participate in sportss because they feel pressure to be in good shape for aesthetic reasons, and feel embarrassed or ashamed when they are not in best form. *External Regulation* describes athletes who participate in sports in order to receive praise from their coach or because they feel urged to do so by their parents are motivated by external regulation.

[3] *Amotivation* – motivate individuals do not perceive contingencies between their actions and the outcomes of their actions. They experience feelings of incompetence and lack of control. They are neither intrinsically motivated nor extrinsically motivated. When athletes are in such a state, they no longer identify any good reasons for why they continue to train. Eventually they may even decide to stop practicing their sports.

[4] We didn't check if they were domestic or foreign tourists. It should be ckecked in the future because the country of origin may influence on motivations. The designed questionnaire did not take into account any specific conditions of Poland.

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CHANGES IN THE STRUCTURE OF THE TOURIST FUNCTION IN KUJAWY SPAS (BASED ON THE VOLUME AND STRUCTURE OF TOURIST TRAFFIC)

Abstract: The purpose of the paper is to identify changes in the structure of the tourism function in Kujawy spas which have led to their transformation into tourism and health resorts. The study was based on tourist traffic statistics referring to the period 2000-2017 and included defining the relationship between curative and other forms of tourist traffic. The author has used a wide range of statistical data, as well as information provided by surveys to determine and analyze the statistical indicators of tourist traffic pace, intensity and structure. The analysis reveals a significant transformation of the spas in Kujawy. This is confirmed by the indicators of curative and non-curative tourist traffic and by the reasons for visiting health resorts. The pace of changes in the tourism function in individual spas is varied. It is fastest in Ciechocinek, accelerating in Wieniec-Zdrój and slowest in Inowrocław. The changes occurring in the spas are causing their gradual transformation into tourism and health resorts.

Keywords: changes, structure of the tourist function, tourist traffic, Kujawy spas, Poland.

1. INTRODUCTION

Poland's return from a centrally planned to a market economy after 1989 has changed the tourism function in Polish spas, gradually increasing the range of services they provide. Traditional medicinal services have been systematically supplemented with recreation, entertainment, sport and other services. In this way, Polish spas are becoming multifunctional tourism resorts. This process has been indicated by many authors (Durydiwka, 2005; Groch, 1991; Jagusiewicz, 1998, 2006; Kowalczyk, 2001, 2005; Krasiński, 2004; Łęcka, 2005; Madeyski, 1997; Mika, 2005; Mika, Ptaszycka-Jackowska, 2007; Mościbroda, 2005; Ptaszycka-Jackowska, 1999; Rydz, 2005, 2012; Rzeńca, 1997; Szromek, 2010, 2012, 2018; Widawski, 2017, etc.). Although it is similar to a process observed in other countries as well (Buzsik, Jónás-Berki, Köbli, Pálfi, 2015; Joppe, 2010; Kasagranda, Gurňák, 2017; Mainil, Eijgelaar, Klijs, Nawijn, Peeters, 2017; Vystoupul, Šauer, Bobková, 2017, etc.), it is difficult to verify in an academic way as such verification is often based on a description of the relations between the curative and the other tourism functions of spas. Many European health resorts (e.g. English resorts along the English Channel) continued to prosper on the market because, in addition to health, they developed other tourism functions as well (according to Butler's approach from 1980 – they renewed their tourism life cycle). Descriptive analyses of spas being transformed into multifunctional tourism centres have been usually based on the information available about the developing accommodation and, more rarely, on tourist volumes. Therefore, it seems appropriate to attempt to verify the value of information on tourism changes, as well as the motivations and activity of tourists visiting Polish spas, in order to determine how advanced the process of transformation is. The verification is based on a case study of the Kujawy health resorts.

Spas in Kujawy are relatively new. In all the destinations where they are located, it has led to socio-economic, cultural and spatial development. In Ciechocinek, it led to the creation of a town (1916), in Inowrocław to substantially enhance one's development (since 1875), and in Wieniec-Zdrój, it initiated and fostered the development of a residential district (since 1923). Thus, it may be assumed that the transformation of Kujawy health resorts into multifunctional tourism centres is currently at different stages for each.

Tourism is defined as a social phenomenon which involves physical, temporary movement from places of permanent residence to other locations which possess appropriate assets and tourism infrastructure (Mariot, 1983; Matczak, 1992; Ostrowski, 1972). It has been assumed that

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tourism (a collective concept) as a social phenomenon results from an interaction between deliberately acting human subjects (tourists). At the collective level, tourism defined in this way can be treated as a form of 'migration', i.e. temporary journeys away from place of permanent residence for tourism motivations. Aspects of tourism 'migrations' include scale, type, seasonality, spatial distribution, etc. (Kurek, 2007). At the level of an individual, it is defined by the tourist's motivation to travel and their behaviour.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

The issues of the ongoing transformation of spas into multifunctional tourism resorts, identified on the basis of data regarding tourists and their motivations, indicate that it has become a fairly advanced process, widely acknowledged in the academic literature. When discussing the transformation of Mariánské Lázně (Marienbad) (in the Czech Republic) into a multifunctional tourist resort, Kowalczyk (2005) referred to the research made by Uzlik (2004), indicating that visiting both Mariánské Lázně and Karlovy Vary is associated with entertainment (23.1%), participation in cultural life (21.5%), recreation (18.8%) and, finally, with caring for one's health (17.2%). These findings show that those two destinations, until recently associated mostly with a purely curative function, are in fact multifunctional tourism resorts. Rettinger (2012) points to a similar process in Truskawiec where the proportion of spa patients has been decreasing and numbers arriving for recreational and tourist motivations has been increasing. When discussing the medicinal and tourism functions of spa resorts in Beskid Niski, Malarz (2012) ascertains that although their main function involves medical treatment, as a result of new investments in accommodation (hotels, guest-houses), and gastronomic, sports and recreation facilities, etc., the proportion of recreation- and tourism-oriented visits is growing. He remarks that visits combining health care and recreation motivations are becoming increasingly fashionable. Rajman & Kwiatek-Sołtys (2011) write that although tourists arriving in Iwonicz-Zdrój (30,000 annually) outnumbered spa patients (25,000), their proportion of accommodation was still less (1,500 to 818 places). After 1989, business tourism entered West-Pomeranian health resorts (Sawińska, 2012). In the opinion of Szajnowska-Wysocka (2011), Polish spas, following European trends, should turn into multifunctional centres of health care, tourism and recreation. She quotes statistics for the first decade of the 21st century, which show that in 2007 the proportion taking up accommodation, compared to overall figures for Polish spa resorts, increased from 21.8% in 2002 to 28.4%. That, however, made up only about one quarter of the overall total. Thus, the process of transformation of Polish spas was very advanced. Having the status of a health resort, has an impact on the use of accommodation at a spa which, consequently, substantially increases the overall number of people staying at collective accommodation facilities (Środa-Murawska, 2012). From the economic point of view, spas benefit from possessing a diversified tourist function, the spa being only a part of it. Mika & Ptaszycka-Jackowska (2007) emphasize that current socio-economic and cultural changes contribute to the transformation of traditional health resorts into multifunctional tourism resorts. The diversification of the tourism function in spas as they develop, is then most often a result of changes in tourism itself and its wider context (Kowalczyk, 2005). The nature of these changes is easily noticeable in the nature of tourism itself, as well as in the motivations and behaviour of tourists visiting spa resorts.

Tourism in Kujawy health resorts has rarely been discussed as a separate issue, but rather as a part of wider research and in popular academic work. A lot of information regarding the scale, type and motivations noted among spa patients and tourists in different periods (especially in Ciechocinek and Inowrocław), can be found in guidebooks and geographical literature, as well as in individual works (Matczak, 2019). A number of academic articles are devoted solely to the study of spa patients' perceptions and how they see Inowrocław and Ciechocinek health resorts (Cieślewicz, Jankowiak, 2012; Grzeszczak, 2014; Szymańska, Grzelak-Kostulska, Hołowiecka, Michniewicz, 2005, etc.), but usually these are discussed as a part of larger works (Brudnicki, 2005; Matczak, 2012, 2013; Zajączkowski, Cegliński, 2018, etc.). In the MA theses written at the geography centres in Łódź, Bygoszcz and Toruń, tourism issues (scale, type, range, purpose, tourist behaviour) always constitute a significant part (Matczak, 2019). Surveys regarding tourism, sponsored by the Kujawy-Pomeranian Tourism Organization, provide a large amount of market data (Anszperger, Radkiewicz, 2011; Brudnicki, Barczak, Nowicki, Markiewicz, 2016), including information on types of tourism, the purpose of tourists' visits to Ciechocinek and Inowrocław, etc.

3. DATA AND RESEARCH METHODS

The study of tourism in Kujawy spas was based on the following:

1. Statistical data provided by the Local Data Bank (LDB) at the Central Statistical Office (GUS), the figures published by the Statistical Office in Bydgoszcz, on the websites of relevant ministries, and the Kujawy-Pomeranian Province local governments and the health resorts included in the study;
2. The results of surveys conducted among tourists ordered by the Kujawy-Pomeranian Tourism Organi-

zation, as well as some MA theses which the author had access to;
3. The author's own literature analysis and field observations.

Despite its wide range, the source material collected by the author has certain limitations which makes it difficult to conduct quantitative research on the scale and types of tourism, or tourists' motivations and behaviour in Kujawy health resorts. This is mainly due to the incompleteness of national,[1] sector-specific and local statistics, as well as the lack of homogeneity of the survey materials (limited comparability and representativeness). The hypothesis formulated was verified in terms of changes in tourism (the users, accommodation provided, average length of stay, seasonality), mostly on the basis of data provided by the Central Statistical Office and information about types of tourists, the purpose of their visits, their behaviour in spa resorts and the areas from which they arrived (range), provided by surveys to which the author had access. The collected materials indicate general trends in the changes that are taking place in Kujawy health resorts.

4. THE BASIS FOR TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN KUJAWY HEALTH RESORTS[2]

The scale and type of tourism, especially curative/medicinal tourism, observed in Kujawy spas, depends on the geographical location, tourism assets (mineral waters, climate, etc.), the presence of spa facilities (graduation towers, mineral water pump rooms, etc.), as well as conditions (accommodation, gastronomic facilities and the auxiliary infrastructure).

From the market/economic point of view, the geographical location of Kujawy spas is favourable. A particular advantage is their location at the centre of a 200-kilometre radius. On the edge, the huge urban agglomerations of Warsaw, Łódź, Poznań and Gdańsk–Gdynia can be found, and inside, at a regional scale, a number of cities such as Bydgoszcz, Toruń, Włocławek, etc. Provided that efficient road and rail transport is available, such a location gives Kujawy spas considerable potential as regards demand for medicinal and tourist services in general.

The spas in Kujawy are located within the existing settlement network, in a small town (Ciechocinek), a medium-sized town (Inowrocław) and in the direct neighbourhood of Włocławek (Wieniec-Zdrój). Location has a strong influence on the functioning and tourism attractiveness of spas. The infrastructure of a nearby urban centre provides a wide range of services, including basic ones and entertainment. The close proximity of an urban centre is a significant additional asset, as it makes the stay at the health resort much more pleasant. Numerous economic organisations and municipal institutions are involved in providing services to spa patients, organizing a variety of entertainment events, as well as making local historical, architectural, cultural and tourist heritage available. This significantly improves the attractiveness of spas and reduces the cost of investments in the spa itself.

The medicinal resources of Kujawy spas include saline mineral waters, mild climatic conditions, forest walking areas and spa greenery, as well as medicinal muds used for therapeutic baths, drinking mineral waters, aerosols produced from graduation towers (natural inhalations) and medicinal mud compresses. They make it possible to treat many chronic diseases and ailments such as orthopaedic traumas, rheumatism, heart diseases, hypertension, problems with respiratory and digestive system, diabetes, obesity, etc. (*Lecznistwo uzdrowiskowe…*, 2011).

The infrastructure which allowed more tourists to stay in Kujawy spas appeared in the 19th century (Ciechocinek – 1836, Inowrocław – 1875) and the first half of the 20th (Wieniec-Zdrój – 1923). However, basic investments in accommodation facilities, especially sanatoria, were made in the times of social tourism (1945-1989).

In the early years following the change of the political system in 1989, new sanatoria were not built. Instead, investment was spent on the modernization of the existing accommodation, health facilities and the auxiliary infrastructure (e.g. modernizing the graduation towers in Ciechocinek, building a new one in Inowrocław, modernization of Wieniec-Zdrój in 2003-6). Some money was invested in tidying and developing spa parks, walks, etc. The overall appearance of the spa zones also improved. New private owners of spa infrastructure invested in recreating and modernizing the facilities they had taken over (e.g. in Ciechocinek, those that used to belong to the Workers' Holidays Fund). New investments were made in hotel accommodation (hotels, guest houses, villas, etc.), guest rooms and private lodgings. After 1989, a large number of state-owned accommodation facilities were privatised, particularly hotels which had formerly been the property of factories and the Workers' Holidays Fund. Privatisation occurred in practically the whole of Wieniec-Zdrój and was managed by limited liability companies, private enterprises, foundations, public organizations, trade union federations and individual private owners.

The return to the market economy after 1989 caused temporary problems in the functioning of Kujawy spas. The capacity of registered accommodation in spa and tourist-recreational facilities decreased by two thirds. It was not until 2000 that Kujawy spas recorded a substantial increase in the capacity of accommodation and some changes in its pattern. In 2000, the capacity of registered accommodation in tourist-recreational and spa facilities in Ciechocinek and Inowrocław was similar (44.5% and 45.2%, respectively), while in Wieniec-Zdrój it was only one tenth of the capacity recorded in the other two spas. In 2018, together they offered 9,200 beds which made up 28.4% of all the accommodation available in Kujawy-Pomeranian Province and over one third of the number of beds offered throughout the year. Three quarters of registered accommodation belonged to medicinal facilities, with the largest number of beds available in Ciechocinek (4,200), and smaller numbers in Inowrocław (1,800) and Wieniec-Zdrój (1,100). The capacity of other registered accommodation was largest in Ciechocinek (1,700 beds – 28%), smaller in Inowrocław (300 – 14.3%) and especially in Wieniec-Zdrój (50 beds – 4.3%). In all Kujawy spas, there were also a lot of accommodation facilities unregistered in official statistics or by other state institutions. It is difficult to estimate their capacity (e.g. in Ciechocinek alone, it may reach several thousand beds). New investments, as well as those aimed at recreating and modernising the old infrastructure, were focused primarily on facilities which could function all year round; the proportion of the latter was systematically increasing, virtually eliminating seasonal facilities.

Kujawy spas are well equipped in gastronomic and auxiliary infrastructure. The gastronomic infrastructure included food facilities situated in sanatoria, in and on the edges of spa parks, as well as in other parts of the health resorts. Spa patients valued gastronomic facilities located directly in the sanatoria (canteens) the most. All large sanatoria had their own catering infrastructure. It is estimated that in Ciechocinek, in the summer season, this included over 7,100 places. In the spa zone of Inowrocław, it was about 1,000 and in Wieniec-Zdrój fewer. Gastronomic facilities varied and were prepared to satisfy consumers' differing needs. Facilities such as restaurants, cafes and some canteens were also prepared to organize dance evenings, get-to-know-you evenings (mixers) and other events of this kind. Tourists could also take advantage of a wide variety of gastronomic establishments situated in other parts of Inowrocław and Ciechocinek.

Kujawy spas can boast of a well-developed supplementary infrastructure. This includes a wide range of amenities supporting treatment and recreation such as graduation towers, indoor saline swimming pools, tennis courts, mini-golf, bowling alleys, board game rooms, billiards, table tennis, library activities, etc., available at both spa and tourism facilities. In Ciechocinek and Inowrocław, residents as well as spa patients and tourists can take advantage of stadiums, sports halls, sports and recreation centres, bike rentals, excursion organization centres, cinemas, outdoor theatres, band stands and a wide range of urban services. Drivers can use several parking lots. The supporting infrastructure plays a major part in organizing events such as social meetings, dance parties, festivals and concerts, meetings with the folklore of Kujawy and Dobrzyńska *Land*, and many others. Some sanatoria offer additional services such as sun-beds, beauty parlours, saunas, community rooms, Tibetan hot stone therapy, inhalations in a salt grotto, etc., as well as organizing lectures promoting healthy lifestyles given by qualified psychologists and doctors competent as regards the causes of the diseases of civilization. Spa facilities offered 58 conference rooms with 4,500 seats, equipped with modern audio-visual devices (sound systems, microphones, projectors, screens, computers, etc.). The largest could be found in Ciechocinek, followed by Inowrocław and Wieniec-Zdrój.

The scale and type of supply in Kujawy health resorts, ensures an attractive stay not only to spa patients but also participants of many other forms of tourism.

5. STUDY RESULTS

Analysis of the dynamics of both forms of tourism (curative and non-curative) allowed the author to define the relationship between them which was fundamental to establishing the changes occurring in the tourism function in Kujawy spas. Similar information was provided by the results of a survey concerning the demographic structure, motivations for visits, behaviour and origins of the visitors to these health resorts. Jointly, the findings show how advanced the changes in tourism function have become.

5.1. THE SCALE AND TYPES OF TOURISM IN REGISTERED ACCOMMODATION FACILITIES

Tourists stay at different types of accommodation. Until the end of 2014, the only source of information regarding the number of guests and overnight stays had been the Local Data Bank at the Central Statistical Office. The scale and types of tourism were based on this data. Spa patients are mostly accommodated at spa facilities and the registers kept there should be regarded as reliable and complete. However, a number (usually small) who use accommodation at spa facilities are not spa patients. On the other hand, a number of spa patients use accommodation at tourist-recreational facilities (hotels, holiday centres, private lodgings, etc.). Registration at these facilities (except categorized hotels) is not complete, therefore the number of users and overnight stays is not fully credible and allows only a general description of current trends. After 2014, it became possible to provide information about the number of users and overnight stays in individual *powiats*. Confirming such numbers in individual health resorts requires collecting and comparing numerous statistical reports and using personal estimates. Thus, establishing the proportion of spa patients to the number of other types of tourist is limited to just indicating a general trend.

People using registered accommodation. At the beginning of the 21[st] century, the number of guests using registered accommodation facilities in Kujawy spas visibly increased. This trend was maintained for nearly two decades (Table 1). In 1988, accommodation facilities in Kujawy spas were used by 56,500 guests, in 2014 – nearly 160,000, and towards the end of 2018 – about 150,000 (Urząd Statystyczny w Bydgoszczy, 2019). These spas recorded a significant and systematically growing proportion of guests using registered accommodation facilities in Kujawy-Pomeranian Province. In 1998-2018, this percentage increased from 8.1% to 11.6%. At the beginning of the 21[st] century, most guests staying at registered accommodation facilities were at Inowrocław (36,800), followed by Ciechocinek (31,700) and Wieniec-Zdrój (4,300). In the following years, the number of guests using registered accommodation increased in all three health resorts, mainly due to the systematically recovered capacity of spa facilities and their growing usability. However, the rate of increase varied: it was highest in Ciechocinek (the number of users increased to about 112,000 in 2014) and Wieniec-Zdrój (6,800), and lowest in Inowrocław (40,800). In 1998, more guests arriving in Kujawy spas stayed at tourist-recreational (56.7%) and not spa facilities (43.3%). However, in 2000, the percentage of spa facilities had increased to 60.2% and it grew in the years that followed to reach 75.7% in 2014. The proportion of guests using spa facilities to those using other registered accommodation was different in individual spas. In 2000, the smallest percentage of spa patients was recorded in Inowrocław (52%) followed by Ciechocinek (65%) and the highest in Wieniec-Zdrój (93%). In 2014, Ciechocinek and Wieniec-Zdrój maintained the same proportions, while in Inowrocław, it had risen to 86%. After 2015, a large spa accommodation facility was opened leading to a five-fold increase in the number of spa patients using accommodation in this health resort. As a result, in 2018, the proportion of Ciechocinek and Inowrocław decreased (to two thirds and one quarter, respectively) and that of Wieniec-Zdrój increased (to nearly one tenth) in the overall number of accommodation users.

In 2000-2018, accommodation in Kujawy health resorts was used by only a small number of foreigners (2,200-8,200 annually). Despite the increase in the number of foreign tourists, their percentage in the overall number of accommodation users in Kujawy spas was low and varied from around 3.1% in 2000 to about 3.3% in 2018. Initially, the majority of foreigners were recorded in Inowrocław (about three quarters), mostly staying at tourist-recreational facilities. With time, the number of foreign visitors accommodated in Inowrocław decreased and significantly increased in Ciechocinek. In 2017, 57.4% of the foreigners using accommodation in Kujawy health resorts stayed in Ciechocinek, 39% in Inowrocław, and 3.6% in Wieniec-Zdrój.

Table 1. Accommodation in Kujawy health resorts: 2000-2017

Year	Number of guests using accommodation facilities (in thousands)									
	Kujawy-Pomeranian Province		Total for Kujawy health resorts		Ciechocinek		Inowrocław		Wieniec-Zdrój	
	total	foreign	total	foreign	total	foreign	total	foreign	total	foreign
Total for tourist-recreational and spa facilities										
2000	576.3	66.9	72.8	2.3	31.7	0.5	36.8	1.7	4.3	0.1
2005	662.7	86.7	100.8	2.9	58.9	1.5	37.1	1.4	4.8	0
2010	793.9	79.5	129.4	2.7	88.1	1.5	35.8	1.2	5.5	0
2014	929.4	89.9	159.4	2.4	111.8	1.2	40.8	0.7	6.8	0
2017[a]	1 294.0	120.7	246.7	8.2	166.4	4.7	61.0	3.2	19.3	0.3
Tourist-recreational facilities										
2000	529.8	66.6	26.3	2.0	11.1	0.4	17.6	1.6	0.3	0
2005	596.3	86.4	34.4	2.6	26.0	1.4	8.0	1.2	0.4	0
2010	700.5	78.4	36.0	1.6	26.6	0.5	8.7	1.0	0.7	0
2014	807.2	88.7	37.2	1.2	30.0	0.1	6.1	0.6	1.1	0
2017[a]	1 158.0	118.9	110.7	6.3	81.8	n.d.	25.7	n.d.	3.3	n.d.
Spa facilities										
2000	46.5	0.3	46.5	0.3	20.6	0.1	19.2	0.1	4.0	0.1
2005	66.4	0.3	66.4	0.3	32.9	0.1	29.1	0.2	4.4	0
2010	93.4	1.1	93.4	1.1	61.5	1.0	27.1	0.2	4.8	0
2014	122.2	1.2	122.2	1.2	81.8	1.1	34.7	0.1	5.7	0
2017[a]	136.0	1.8	136.0	1.9	84.6	n.d.	35.3	n.d.	16.0	n.d.

[a] Data for *powiats* in which the spa resorts included in the study are located.

Source: based on LDB at the Central Statistical Office data, *Turystyka w latach 2001-2018* (2019), Urząd Statystyczny w Bydgoszczy (2019).

Overnight stays. A different picture of the changes in tourism in Kujawy spas in the 21st century emerges from the number of overnight stays (Table 2, Figure 1). In Kujawy-Pomeranian Province, in 2000-2017, there was a significant increase in the number of overnight stays by guests at accommodation facilities, from 2.3 to 4.3 million. Nearly the whole increase occurred in Kujawy spas where the number of overnight stays rose from 0.9 to 2.3 million, mainly in Ciechocinek (from 0.36 to 1.44 million). The increase was found mostly in spa facilities (from 0.8 to 2.0 million), particularly in Ciechocinek (from 0.32 to 1.2 million). This caused a significant increase in the share of overnight stays in Kujawy spas and in overnight stays for the whole region (from 38.2% to 54%). The most substantial increase occurred in spa facilities where the proportion of overnight stays in Kujawy-Pomeranian Province went up from 34.8% to 48.1%. Ciechocinek played a particularly important part in this increase, as its proportion of overnight stays in the region rose from 15.8% to 33.8% (and the proportion for spa facilities from 14.1% to 28.6%). Ciechocinek became the most important spa centre in Kujawy-Pomeranian Province despite the fact that in 2000 Inowrocław health resort had provided about 100,000 more overnight stays.

Despite an increase from 8,000 to nearly 16,000, the number of foreigners' overnight stays in Kujawy spas still indicates that they are not real international resorts. The percentage of Kujawy spas in the number of nights spent in the region by foreigners was marginal.

Average length of stay. The average length of stay in health resorts shows the level their transformation process has reached. The longer the average stay, the more significant the curative function, and vice versa: shorter stays indicate the growing role of non-curative functions. The influence of spas is visible in the average number of tourists' overnight stays at accommodation facilities in the whole Kujawy-Pomeranian Province (from 4 nights in 2000 to 3.3 nights in 2017). The average number of overnight stays per guest in Kujawy spas varied, depending on the kind of accommodation that was used. In 2000-2017, a guest spent, on average, 2.6 nights in tourist-recreational facilities (this value varied between 2.3 and 3 nights). This was a much higher value than the average for the whole Kujawy-Pomeranian Province for the same type of accommodation and in the same period. The latter dropped from 2.9 to 1.8 nights. Long stays in health resorts occurred first of all in spa facilities where the guests usually spent 2-3 weeks. Over the period under study, the average number of overnight stays by individual guests at spa facilities tended to fall, going from 17.1 in 2000 to 15.1 in 2017. This was most visible in Wieniec-Zdrój (a drop from 21.8 to 16.4 nights) and Inowrocław (from 20.1 to 15.2 nights), while in Ciechocinek, the decrease was considerably smaller (from 15.7 to 14.4 nights).

Foreigners' stays in Kujawy health resorts were generally shorter than those of domestic guests (at tourist-recreational facilities – 2.3-3.0 nights; at spa facilities – 10.0-13.3 nights).

Seasonality. Fluctuation in the number of tourists during the year is defined as seasonality. In tourism, this occurs with varying intensity. It is a global phenomenon which depends on natural conditions, the form of tourism, the place where it occurs, traditions of tourist trips, etc. (Butler, 1994). The analysis of seasonality in the relation between medicinal and other forms of tourism in spas shows how advanced the process of their transformation

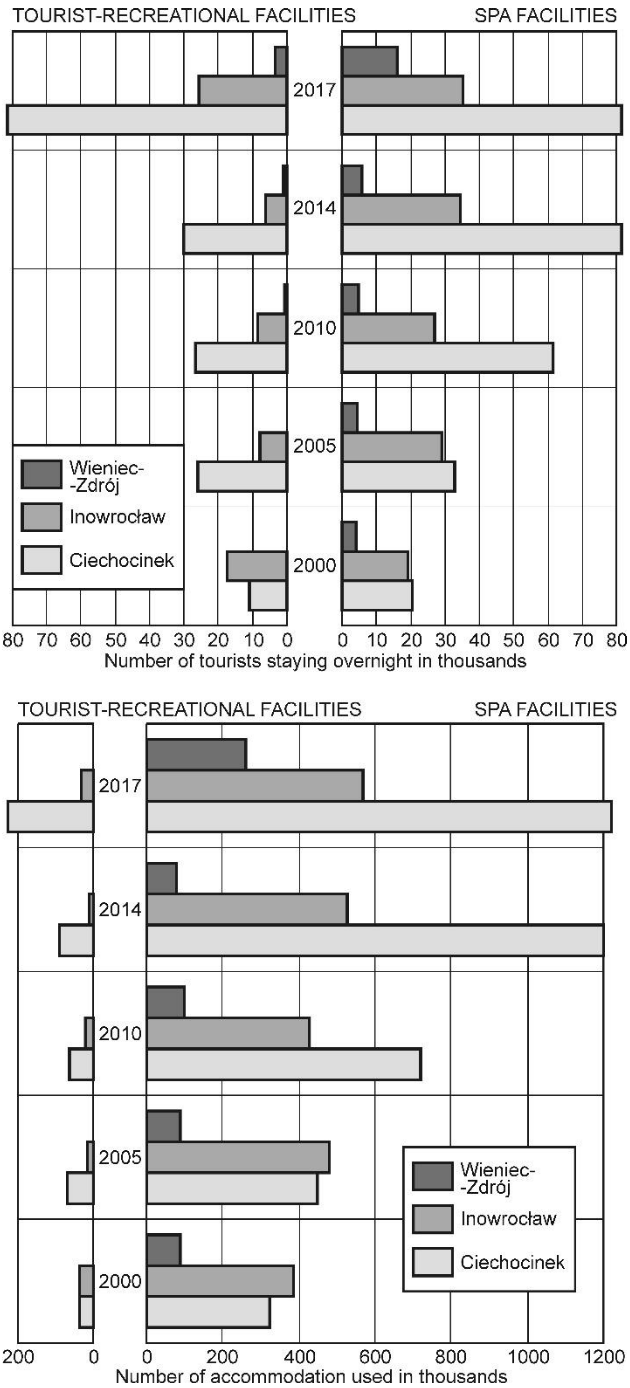

Figure 1. Tourists staying overnight and the accommodation used in Kujawy health resorts: 2000-2017
Source: author

Table 2. Number of overnight stays in Kujawy spas: 2000-2017

Year	Number of overnight stays (in thousands)									
	Kujawy-Pomeranian Province		total for Kujawy health resorts		Ciechocinek		Inowrocław		Wieniec-Zdrój	
	total	foreign	total	foreign	total	foreign	total	foreign	total	foreign
Total for tourist-recreational and spa facilities										
2000	2 286.7	125.0	873.9	8.1	361.4	3.0	421.7	5.0	90.8	0.1
2005	2 395.4	159.0	1 107.2	11.9	518.6	6.9	496.4	5.0	92.2	0.0
2010	2 668.7	176.9	1 339.6	18.5	785.7	13.8	449.0	4.6	104.9	0.0
2014	3 290.6	190.1	1 906.1	15.5	1 288.4	12.6	538.0	2.9	79.7	0.0
2017[a]	4 271.4	290.6	2 313.2	28.8	1 443.0	20.0	600.4	7.5	269.8	1.3
Tourist-recreational facilities										
2000	1 491.4	121.6	78.6	4.7	38.7	0.8	36.4	3.9	3.5	0.0
2005	1 377.3	155.0	89.1	7.9	69.5	5.1	17.8	2.8	1.8	0.0
2010	1 416.9	163.7	87.8	5.3	64.5	2.3	18.9	2.9	4.4	0.0
2014	1 486.0	178.1	101.5	3.5	88.2	1.9	11.9	1.6	1.4	0.0
2017[a]	2 216.6	274.9	258.4	13.1	221.8	9.1	29.3	3.4	7.3	0.6
Spa facilities										
2000	795.3	3.4	795.3	3.4	322.7	2.2	385.3	1.1	87.3	0.1
2005	1 018.1	4.0	1 018.1	4.0	449.1	1.8	478.6	2.2	90.4	0.0
2010	1 251.8	13.2	1 251.8	13.2	721.2	11.5	430.1	1.7	100.5	0.0
2014	1 804.6	12.0	1 804.6	12.0	1 200.2	10.7	526.1	1.3	78.3	0.0
2017[a]	2 054.8	15.7	2 054.8	15.7	1 221.2	10.9	571.1	4.1	262.5	0.7

[a] Data for *powiats* in which the spa resorts included in the study are located.
Source: based on LDB at the Central Statistical Office data, *Turystyka w latach 2001-2018* (2019), Urząd Statystyczny w Bydgoszczy (2019).

is. In Polish conditions, tourism shows clear seasonality, culminating during the summer holiday season (July and August). Curative tourism is distributed relatively evenly throughout the year. Thus, distinctive seasonality is in other types of tourism relative to therapeutic stays. The reverse, a lack of distinctive seasonality points to the predominance of therapeutic stays.

The data obtained from the Central Statistical Office presents the phenomenon of seasonality (accommodation users, number of overnight stays) by province and accommodation type. This makes it impossible to analyse seasonality in individual spas. Seasonality analysis is possible at the level of all Kujawy spas, with respect to accommodation users and overnight stays at spa facilities. In contrast, seasonality analysis with respect to users of other accommodation is possible at the level of Kujawy-Pomeranian Province (Table 3). A comparison of the seasonality of therapeutic stays with other forms of tourism, based on GUS data, indicates only general trends. At spa facilities (2000-2017), the curative season lasted from April to November (in those months, the seasonality index was over 100). In the other accommodation facilities in Kujawy-Pomeranian Province, the tourist season was shorter lasting from May to September inclusively (a seasonality index over 100). The insignificant seasonal variations in tourist volumes at spa facilities had a positive effect of decreasing the seasonality in the other accommodation facilities in the province.

Acquiring information about tourism seasonality directly at individual accommodation facilities in Kujawy spas turned out to be very difficult. It was available only with regard to several facilities in Ciechocinek for the period of 2001-2004 (Jędrzejewska, 2002; Świder, 2005). Based on the information provided by the Central Statistical Office, there is a significant similarity between the seasonality index of accommodation users in Ciechocinek during the year, and the seasonality index calculated for the whole province (Table 3). In Ciechocinek the season lasted from May to October (a seasonality index over 100) though it was more evenly distributed during the year in spa facilities than in other types of accommodation. The presence of spa patients decreased the seasonality of the accommodation infrastructure of Ciechocinek.

Changes in development indices for the tourism function: 2000-2017. The tourism function indices shown in Table 4, based on the intensity of tourism in Kujawy spas, were calculated in relation to their area (Ciechocinek – 15.6 km², Inowrocław – 30.4 km², Wieniec-Zalesie *solectwo* including the Wieniec-Zdrój district – 16.4 km²) and the number of residents living within the administrative borders of Ciechocinek (in 2000 – 11,300 and in 2017 – 10,600), Inowrocław (79,400 and 73,600, respectively) as well as Wieniec-Zalesie *solectwo* (500). Taking GUS inaccuracies into account, the values of these indices should be interpreted in the context of the emerging trend.

Table 3. Tourism seasonality indices in Kujawy-Pomeranian Province: 2000-2017

Months	Kujawy-Pomeranian Province (2000-2017)				Ciechocinek (2001-2004)	
	accommodation users		overnight stays		accommodation users	
	in spa facilities	in other accom-modation	in spa facilities	in other accom-modation	in spa facilities	in other accom-modation
Jan	95.7	61.3	76.9	52.1	82.1	28.5
Feb	85.6	63.0	88.0	54.1	83.4	63.2
March	98.1	72.0	101.9	58.6	83.4	43.7
April	102.7	79.5	98.6	67.0	95.4	65.3
May	101.0	124.5	106.2	104.9	100.7	118.7
June	111.9	136.9	104.4	125.8	109.9	149.3
July	107.3	143.3	111.1	206.8	129.8	174.3
August	109.4	143.1	111.6	194.5	131.1	191.0
Sep	100.7	121.5	106.3	108.7	117.9	139.6
Oct	110.7	99.7	108.8	88.0	100.7	116.7
Nov	104.1	86.1	102.3	79.6	87.4	59.7
Dec	71.2	69.2	83.9	59.8	78.1	50.0

Source: calculations based on *Turystyka w latach 2001-2018* (2019), Jędrzejewska (2002), Świder (2005). For Kujawy-Pomeranian Province – the mean seasonality index in 2000-2017, for Ciechocinek – 2001-2002.

Table 4. Changes in development indices for the tourism function in Kujawy spas, in 2000-2017, based on the Schneider index (the number of guests x 100/number of residents), Charvat index (the number of person-nights x 100/number of residents), accommodation users per km^2 (users/area in km^2), overnight stays per km^2 (overnight stays/area in km^2)

Health resort	Total		Curative function		Other tourist functions	
	2000	2017	2000	2017	2000	2017
Schneider index						
Ciechocinek	280.5	1,569.8	182.3	798.1	98.2	771.7
Inowrocław	46.3	82.9	24.2	48.0	22.2	34.9
Wieniec-Zdrój	1,004.7	3,468.7	934.6	3,738.3	70.1	660.0
Charvat index						
Ciechocinek	3 198.2	13,613.2	2,855.7	11,520.7	342.5	2,092.4
Inowrocław	531.1	815.8	485.3	775.9	45.8	39.8
Wieniec-Zdrój	21,214.9	63,037.4	20,397.2	61,331.8	817.7	1,705.6
Accommodation user index						
Ciechocinek	2,032.0	10,666.7	1,320.5	5,423.1	711.5	5,243.6
Inowrocław	1,210.5	2,006.6	631.6	1,161.2	578.9	845.4
Wieniec-Zdrój	262.2	1,176.8	243.9	975.6	18.3	201.2
Overnight stay index						
Ciechocinek	23,166.7	92,500.0	20,685.9	78,282.0	2,480.8	14,217.9
Inowrocław	13,871.7	19,750.0	12,674.3	18,786.2	1,197.4	963.8
Wieniec-Zdrój	5,536.6	16,451.2	5,323.2	16,006.1	213.4	445.1

Source: based on information provided by the Local Data Bank at the Central Statistical Office, *Turystyka w latach 2001-2018* (2019), Urząd Statystyczny w Bydgoszczy (2019), *Działalność lecznicza…* (2018).

The indices that were calculated generally show that the tourism function in Kujawy spas had developed. There are differences in this respect between individual spas. The growth of the tourism function was most significant in Ciechocinek (a 4 – 5.6-fold increase) and Wieniec-Zdrój (a 3 – 4.5-fold increase) – according to the indices they both had a fully developed tourism function. In Inowrocław, the index values changed rather insignificantly (a 1.4 – 1.8-fold increase). In Ciechocinek, despite the dynamic development of the curative function (3.8 – 4.4-fold increase), the non-curative tourist function was developing faster (a 5.7 – 7.9-fold increase). In both cases, the index values indicate a fully developed curative as well as non-curative tourism function. In Wieniec-Zdrój, growth in the curative function was also high (a 3 – 4-fold increase). As regards the non-curative tourist function, the indices rose significantly in relation to the number of users (9.4 – 11-fold increase). In relation to the number of overnight stays, the index values rose only slightly (a 2.1-fold increase). This means a larger number of visits but shorter stays. The curative and non-curative indices calculated for Wieniec-Zdrój clearly show that both functions are well developed there, with the non-curative function growing faster. In Inowrocław, the growth of the curative function was slow (a 1.6 – 2-fold increase), but still faster than that of the non-curative function. The indices referring to the number of users showed a small increase (1.5 – 1.6-fold), while those referring to the number of overnight stays showed a decline (by 10-20%). Inowrocław was at an early stage of the development of both curative and non-curative functions. The faster growth of the non-curative function indices in Ciechocinek and Wieniec-Zdrój is evidence of their transformation into tourism and health resorts. Considering tourism function growth indices in Inowrocław, this process has not occurred.

5.2. THE TYPE AND ACTIVITY OF SPA PATIENTS AND OTHER TOURISTS BASED ON SURVEYS

The results of surveys conducted in Kujawy spas (Anszparger, Radkiewicz, 2011; Brudnicki, Barczak, Nowicki, Markiewicz, 2016; Caban, 2017; Glaza, 2008; Skonieczna, 2011, etc.) are difficult to compare. They were based partly on different sets of questions and conducted at different times, and on samples of different sizes (from ca. 200 to 735 respondents). They show that visitors to Kujawy spas were mostly the elderly (Table 5) with over half of them aged over 50. Nearly two thirds were women. A significant majority were old-age-pensioners and retired (over 50%). Nearly half of the respondents arrived alone, and others with their families and/or friends. Guests at Kujawy spas were well educated, nearly half of them with secondary or further education and one third with university education. To travel to Kujawy spas, respondents mostly used road transport, over two thirds of them travelled by private car, and slightly below 15% by bus/minibus or coach. The rail connections between Inowrocław and numerous areas of Poland encouraged about one fifth of respondents to travel by train but in the other Kujawy spas this particular means of transport has clearly lost popularity in recent years. The spa in Ciechocinek largely functioned based on regular visitors. In the survey, only about one third of respondents said it was their first visit. The other two thirds had already visited spas several (2-4) or many times before (5 or more). As for Wieniec-Zdrój, over four fifths of respondents were visiting it for the first time and this spa does not have a large number of regular guests. The respondents expressed positive opinions about their stays in Kujawy spas. They believed that the greatest assets included the graduation towers in Ciechocinek and Inowrocław, a wide range of treatments and spa parks in all three health resorts. Most respondents claimed that Kujawy spas did not have major disadvantages but a lot of assets. Above all they pointed to a good and friendly atmosphere as well as the cleanliness and level of security at the health resorts, good access, a wide range of cultural and entertainment events, as well as historical monuments and attractions in the spas themselves and in nearby destinations.

Kujawy spas were visited primarily for health and recreational reasons in similar proportions in Ciechocinek, mostly for health reasons in Inowrocław and especially so in Wieniec-Zdrój (Table 5). Ciechocinek was indicated as a medicinal destination by 37.9% of the respondents, Inowrocław by 48.4% and Wieniec-Zdrój by 66.8%. A recreational motivation in connection with Ciechocinek was mentioned by 36.7%, Inowrocław by 34.7% and Wieniec-Zdrój by only 18%. Other motivations for visits quoted (tourism, visiting relatives, business, etc.) were declared by less than 15% of the respondents.

People visiting Kujawy spas for curative and non-curative reasons formed two separate groups, differing with respect to their demographic and socio-economic status, the purpose of the visit and their activity in the spas. Skonieczna (2011) in her MA thesis described only non-curative tourism participants in Ciechocinek (n=196 respondents). The research showed that the visitors were visibly younger (the age median – 42 years), two thirds of them working (among the non-working group, 13.3% were OAPs and retired people), with university (49%) and secondary (44.9%) education. Two thirds of them travelled by their own car, with family (28.6%), partner (30.6%), friends (20.4%) or colleagues (14.3%). They stayed for a short time: without an overnight stay (9.2%) and with 1-3 overnight stays (45.9%). Longer stays were declared by 44.9% of respondents. Their stay in Ciechocinek had many motivations with reasons related to recreation (79.6%), entertainment (58.2%), cognition (41.8%), disease prevention (22.6%), business (15.5%), gastronomy (10.2%) and visiting relatives and friends (9.2%). They mostly used accommodation in guest rooms (22.4%) and private lodgings (10.2%), hotels (18.4%), villas (16.3%) and pensions (11.2%), as well as at holiday recreation facilities (9.2%) and training centres (2%). They ate in restaurants away from their place of accommodation (88.8%) and prepared meals themselves where they were staying (50%). They also used small-scale catering services (26.5%). Only 34.5% of the respondents used the restaurants at their accommodation facilities. The forms of accommodation and catering that the tourists are provided with has economic significance for the inhabitants of Ciechocinek. Tourists staying in Ciechocinek also used preventive treatments offered outside the sanatoria (31.4%), at the sanatoria (27.5%), and recreation facilities (e.g. the swimming pool) outside their accommodation. They also took regular walks near the saline graduation towers (93.9%).

The respondents' (spa patients' and tourists') most frequent activity included strolling in spa parks and other parts of the health resorts (especially service centres), going to cafes and restaurants, to dancing parties, and participating in cultural events organized locally. The reasons why the guests travelled to spas largely determined the

Table 5. Description of respondents and their stay in Kujawy spas (%)

The characteristics of respondents and their stay	Ciechocinek (n = 735)	Inowrocław (n = 415)	Wieniec-Zdrój (n = 205)
Age:			
– age median in years	60.0	62.0	61.0
– at post-productive age	32.7	37.0	40.2
Occupational activity:			
– working	47.4	35.4	42.0
– not working:	52.6	64.6	58.0
– including OAPs and retired people	46.2	57.6	53.4
Aim of trip:			
– health	37.9	48.4	66.8
– recreation	36.8	34.7	18.0
– tourism	15.5	6.6	–
– weekend rest	–	–	15.2
– visiting relatives/friends	4.3	6.5	–
– business, etc.	5.5	3.8	–
Accompanying persons:			
– alone	31.4	49.3	61.0
– family/partner	44.5	30.8	26.3
– friends	21.1	17.5	12.7
– other	3.0	2.4	–
Transport:			
– car	79.4	65.9	89.8
– bus / coach	14.2	11.4	9.3
– train	4.9	22.5	0.9
Accommodation			
– not staying overnight	27.5	16.7	4.4
– staying overnight:	72.5	83.3	95.6
– at the same sanatorium (spa facility)	48.3	–	87.3
Frequency of visits:			
– first time	36.7	–	82.9
– subsequent time	63.3	–	17.1
Wish to revisit:			
– yes	97.8	85.9	94.1
– no	2.2	14.1	5.6
Area of residence:			
– own region	27.3	28.3	40.0
– neighbouring regions	48.2	46.0	58.0
– farther (other) regions	24.5	25.7	2.0

Source: based on Brudnicki, Barczak, Nowicki, Markiewicz (2016), Caban (2017).

way they moved around. Spa patients usually concentrated near the spa hotels, sanatoria and balneology facilities or nearby (usually along the promenades). Spa patients were busy with a variety of compulsory classes and treatments which gravely limited their movement around the spa. On the other hand, those who came to the spa in search of recreation were not limited in this way. Thus, they were more mobile and scattered within the spa space, and their walking routes were longer. This can be illustrated by the behaviour of spa patients and other tourists in Ciechocinek (Table 6). A substantial proportion of the visitors (about one quarter) went on excursions to nearby destinations such as Toruń, Licheń, Włocławek, Kruszwica, Chełmno, Biskupin, Nieszawa, Raciążek, etc. In Ciechocinek, it was observed that participation in excursions grew until about the fourth visit to the spa, but later the guests' interest in sightseeing visibly decreased (Glaza, 2008).

Table 6. The distance of daily walks by spa patients and other tourists in Ciechocinek in 2007

	Spa patients	Other tourists
Number of respondents	111	89
Average distance of walks in metres	2 490.8	2 975.2
Minimal declared distance of walks in metres	391.2	769.0
Maximum declared distance of walks in metres	5 016.4	6 357.4

Source: Glaza (2008).

Polish guests arriving in Kujawy spas came mostly from cities (ca. 95%). Large cities with over 0.5 million

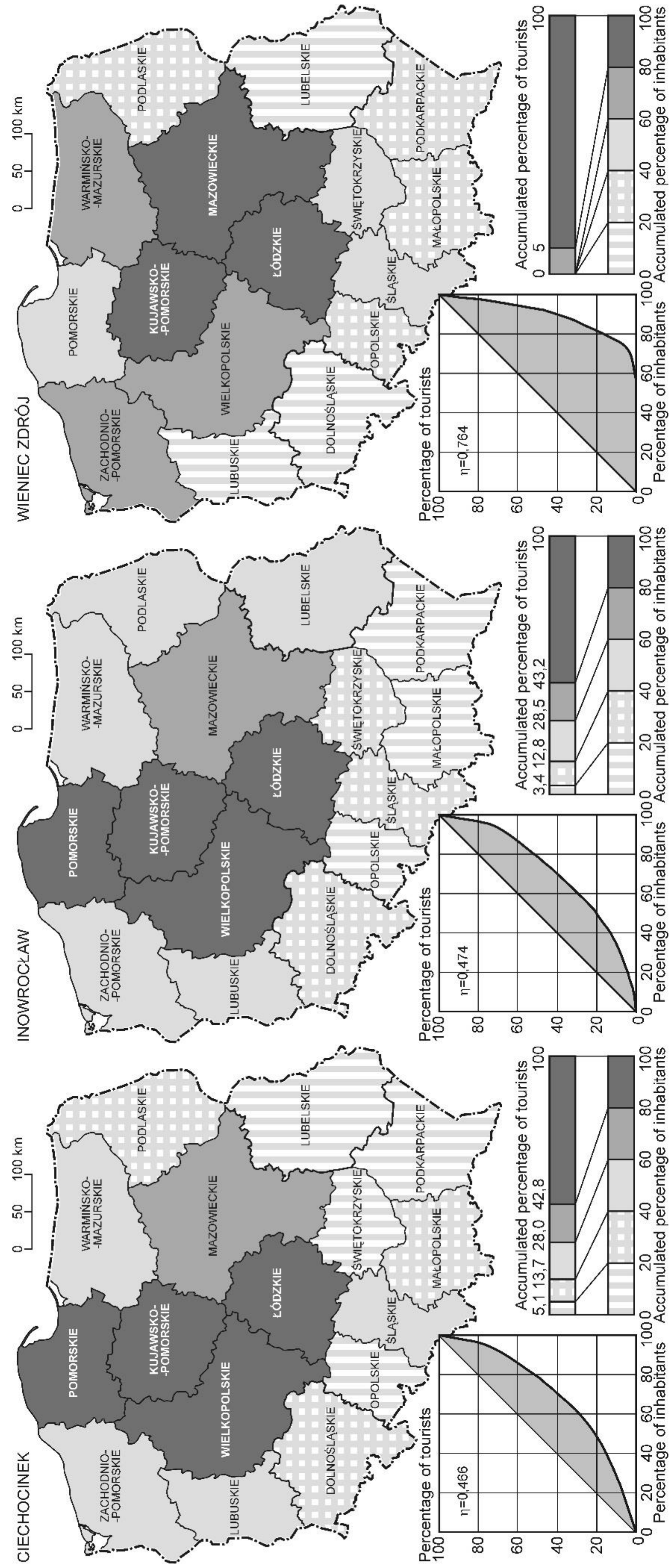

Figure 2. Market areas of Kujawy spas delimited on the basis of the Lorenz concentration coefficient
Source: Brudnicki, Barczak, Nowicki, Markiewicz (2016), Caban (2017)

inhabitants, provided them with slightly over one third of the guests, medium-sized cities with 100-500,000 inhabitants a further third. The last third came from towns inhabited by less than 100,000 people. The proportion of guests from rural areas was marginal (not more than 5%). Generally speaking, it could be observed that the bigger the city (the more populated), the larger the proportion of its inhabitants among the guests of Kujawy spas. They mainly served the local and regional market, within a distance of 250-300 km with over three quarters of visitors coming from that area. The proportion of areas located further away was rather insignificant on the Kujawy spa market. Respondents from places located closer to the spas (from the Kujawy-Pomeranian Province) more often came for recreational than curative reasons. On the other hand, respondents from provinces directly surrounding the Kujawy-Pomeranian region (Masovia, Łódź, Wielkopolskie, Pomeranian) as well as from those situated further from it (Silesian, Małopolskie) more often arrived for curative than other tourist reasons. A small number of visitors arriving from other provinces, located peripherally from the spas, more often declared tourist motivations than purely curative ones.

The market areas of Kujawy spas (Figure 2) were accumulated in their own and neighbouring provinces. In the case of Ciechocinek (Lorenz coefficient η=0.466) and Inowrocław (η=0.474), the area populated by nearly one third of the Polish population provided over two thirds of the spa patients and other tourists. In Wieniec-Zdrój (η=0.764), this area provided nearly all visitors. The market area analysis conducted for Ciechocinek, with visitors divided into spa-patients and other tourists, reveals small differences. The spa-patients came from a slightly larger area of Poland (η=0.41) than other tourists (η=0.47). Curative stays in Ciechocinek were less frequently used by the inhabitants of Wielkopolskie and Pomeranian Provinces, compared to other tourists who visited this spa in slightly larger numbers than spa patients.

6. DISCUSSION

The changes occurring in the tourism function in Polish spas are difficult to measure precisely. The currently available statistics lack continuity and completeness of data. Tourism statistics are based on the data concerning the use of accommodation facilities which includes those staying overnight but completely ignores one-day visitors. Statistics providing information about the capacity and use of spa facilities and categorized hotels should be treated as complete and credible, while for other tourist accommodation facilities, the data are seriously inadequate. Since 2014, data on the use of tourist accommodation has been accessible at the level of a *powiat* which excludes a study of tourism in individual spas. Compilations and estimates produced out of necessity have limited value as regards the precision of drawing conclusions regarding the scale and type of tourism. This makes it difficult to use statistical methods based on the measurement of the scale of tourism and its types and conclusions must be indirect based on indices showing positive changes taking place. The surveys conducted at different times, based partly on different sets of questions, with samples of different sizes, provide only an approximate picture of the reasons for visits to health resorts. Currently, conducting full field research at the level of individual spas is also, for various reasons, impossible. The difficulties encountered while studying changes to the tourism function in Polish spas are well illustrated by the analyses conducted in Kujawy spas.

A question arises concerning the accuracy and credibility of the conclusions presented in this article. Considering current trends (according to the indices), an apparent increase can be found in the number of spa patients as well as other tourists, with higher indices for the latter. This clearly shows that the Kujawy health resorts are turning into tourism centres. This has also been confirmed by Matczak (2019) based on an analysis of the increasing scale and variety of accommodation, in these spas. The analysis of changes to the curative and non-curative forms of tourism confirmed that the process of change varies among individual spas. It was most advanced in Ciechocinek and Wieniec-Zdrój, while in Inowrocław it began slightly later. This trend was partly confirmed in the survey which provided information about the growing advantages of the non-curative forms of tourism in Ciechocinek and Inowrocław, while in Wieniec-Zdrój spa patients still predominated. Thus, it is justified to conclude that Kujawy spas are being transformed into multifunctional tourism centres. The process is hard to measure, but the indices point to its rapid rate and intensity. Consequently, it is necessary to monitor this process because its spontaneity may lead to a growing conflict between the curative and other tourism functions, particularly in Ciechocinek.

7. CONCLUSIONS

Analyses of changes to the tourism function in Kujawy spas in 2000-2017 were carried out on the basis of existing academic publications and existing statistical data as well as surveys, point to the following: 1) the predominance of descriptive analyses of spas transforming into multifunctional tourism centres which use data regarding registered accommodation facilities and tourism; 2) the impossibility to directly measure the relationship between curative and other forms of tourism, due to incomplete data. Replacing this with indices provides information about the trends (direction, rate/pace) of the changes occurring in the tourism function; 3) the number of people staying overnight at spa facilities and outside them points more clearly to changes occurring in the tourist function than the number of overnight stays; 4) taking full field measurements of both types of accommodation and types of tourism in health resorts, in the present socio-economic, legal and other conditions is very difficult (if it is possible at all); 5) it is necessary to continuously monitor the changes taking place in the tourism function in spas due to the possibility of conflict between the curative and other tourism functions, as well as between residential (permanent inhabitants) and tourism functions (the rapid inflow of a large number of tourists penetrating the residential areas of spas increasingly being interested in permanent settlement, e.g. in Ciechocinek). Systematically following changes to the spas' market areas improves their efficiency; 6) at present, Kujawy spas are undergoing a transformation aimed at changing them into multifunctional tourism centres. The scale of this process varies among Kujawy spas (it is most advanced in Ciechocinek and Wieniec-Zdrój, and much weaker in Inowrocław). The scale and pace of this process is determined exclusively by Polish visitors (the international character of Kujawy spas is at present virtually unnoticeable), mostly coming from their own or the neighbouring regions; 7) the number of spa patients and other tourists in Kujawy spas is increasing further, due to their exceptionally favourable market location, the continuing lack of real competition in neighbouring regions, the growing standard of living, the ageing society, etc., which will provoke a gradually increasing need for rehabilitation, recreation, entertainment and other services.

ENDNOTES

[1] The statistics present the number of accommodation users and their overnight stays at registered accommodation facilities that offered 10 or more beds. One-day stays as well as tourists staying at unregistered accommodation facilities are not included in GUS statistics. After 2014, there is no data available from the Local Data Bank, regarding Polish tourists staying at accommodation facilities in individual *gminas* (districts) and towns.

[2] Based on Matczak (2019).

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CHANGES IN RELIGIOUS TOURISM IN POLAND AT THE BEGINNING OF THE 21ST CENTURY

Abstract: This study presents changes in religious tourism in Poland at the beginning of the 21st century. These include the development of a network of pilgrimage centers, the renaissance of medieval pilgrim routes, the unflagging popularity of pilgrimages on foot as well as new forms using bicycles, canoes, skis, scooters, rollerblades and trailskates; along with riding, Nordic walking, running and so on. Related to pilgrimages, there is a growing interest in so-called 'holidays' in monasteries, hermitages and retreat homes, as well as a steady increase in weekend religious tourism. Religious tourists and pilgrims are attracted to shrines by mysteries, church fairs and religious festivals, in addition to regular religious services and ceremonies.

Keywords: religious tourism, pilgrimages, shrine, pilgrim routes, *Camino de Santiago* (Way of St James).

1. INTRODUCTION

Religious tourism is one of the most rapidly developing types in the world. According to data from the World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) from 2004, during that year approx. 330 million people took trips with a religious or religious-cognitive aim by visiting major world pilgrimage centers (*Tourism can protect and promote religious heritage*, 2014). The clear development of religious tourism in the last thirty years has been caused by many factors including religious, historical, economic, geographical, socio-cultural and political. This development is influenced by the promotion of shrines, the renaissance of medieval pilgrim routes and the creation of new ones, the availability of transport, as well as the expansion of the tourist infrastructure in pilgrimage centers. Its growing popularity has not been weakened by the intensified secularisation of public life (Jackowski, 2003).

Poland is a country with great pilgrimage and religious tourism potential. This is the result of a constantly growing network of pilgrim routes and shrines, a centuries-old tradition, along with activities (wardens, groups, associations, religious congregations) caring for a given shrine, enriching and promoting its pastoral program, its historical, cultural and architectural value, improving its accessibility, developing transport links and expanding the tourist and pilgrimage infrastructure.

This article reviews the main trends and changes in religious tourism and pilgrimage in Poland at the beginning of the 21st century. It is worth noting that in the analyzed period a number of events took place which have left a mark on the pilgrimage movement and religious tourism in Poland: the last pilgrimage of John Paul II to Poland (16-19.08.2002), Poland's entry into the European Union (1.05.2004), the death of Pope John Paul II (2.04.2005), the pilgrimage of Pope Benedict XVI to Poland (25-28.05.2008), Poland's accession to the Schengen area (21.12.2007), the beatifications and canonizations of Polish figures, the Extraordinary Jubilee of Mercy (8.12.2015-20.11.2016), celebrations of the 1050th anniversary of Poland's conversion to Christianity ('Baptism of Poland'), as well as the World Youth Days in Kraków (26-31.07.2016) with the participation of Pope Francis and 2.5 million young people from 187 countries (Pokojska, Pudełko, 2016). This work considers only changes in religious tourism related to the pilgrimage centers and routes of the Catholic Church.

The presented study is the result of personal participation and field studies conducted since 1995 on pilgrimage in Poland. The field research was conducted in 400 shrines and on 22 sections of the *Camino de Santiago*, over a dozen sections of the 'Trail of the Pope' and on the cross-border 'Light from the East' (*Światło ze Wschodu)*

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Marian Way. As part of the field research, observations were made, in-depth interviews with shrine wardens were held, while archives and shrine libraries were investigated (analysing books on pilgrimage among others). In the elaboration of the research results descriptive-analytical, dynamic-comparative and cartographic methods were used.

2. CHANGES IN THE NETWORK OF PILGRIMAGE CENTERS AND ROUTES IN POLAND AT THE BEGINNING OF THE 21ST CENTURY

The contemporary network of shrines in Poland is the heritage of centuries-old tradition and an expression of the folk piety of generations of believers. The shrines include those of the Latin Catholic, Ukrainian (Greek) Catholic, Armenian Catholic and Catholic Byzantine-Slavic rites, as well as pilgrimage centers of Judaism (among others at Kraków, Leżajsk, Bobowa and Nowy Sącz) and Islam (Bohoniki and Kruszyniany). Currently (as of 1 June 2019) more than 800 shrines and pilgrimage centers are registered in Poland with those of the Catholic Church definitely dominating (Fig. 1).

Here, it is necessary to draw attention to an important aspect regarding the number of shrines operating in Poland. The author has been conducting detailed research in this area (mainly in relation to those of the Catholic Church) and investigating plans and diocesan magazines for over twenty years. The list of shrines was verified in 2018 on the basis of consultations with diocesan chancellors and on the basis of lists in specific dioceses which the author received from each Metropolitan and Diocesan Curia. As a result of those consultations and investigations, and on the basis of current lists, it can be concluded that currently more than 790 shrines of the Catholic Church are registered in Poland. These are shrines that (as of June 1, 2019) have been established by episcopal decree, as well as centers which in the official lists of individual dioceses and in the documents of the local ordinary were named as a 'shrine'.[1] An important problem is the fact that over half of the pilgrimage centers which are called 'shrine', do not have an appropriate decree defined by the provisions of the Code of Canon Law (*Kodeks Prawa Kanonicznego*, 1984, *can.* 1230), however, due to the centuries-long tradition of pilgrimages, church fairs and the significant number of pilgrims who have visited them, they have become known as shrines and are considered so on official diocesan lists (Baginski, Kamiński, Opaliński, 2012). The list of pilgrimage centers in the Diocese of Drohiczyn includes 14 shrines and 7 'churches of special worship' although very often such centers perform the same functions as shrines with the official approval of ecclesiastical authority. The *Directory on popular piety and liturgy* emphasizes that such centers "form part of the 'geography' of faith and piety of the people of God, a community that lives in a specific territory and which, in the spirit of faith, pilgrims to heavenly Jerusalem" (*Dyrektorium o pobożności ludowej i liturgii*, 2003, p. 187).

Among Catholic shrines, over 520 centers (i.e. approx. 70% of the total) are Marian, of which 239 centers pride themselves on having an image of Our Lady crowned under papal law, i.e. "in the name and seriousness of the Pope" after receiving the appropriate permission from the Congregation for Divine Worship. Other Catholic shrines are associated with the cult of Jesus Christ and the Holy Trinity (shrines of Our Lord – 104 centers) and the cults of saints and the beatified (over 150 shrines) (see Datko, 2014; Mróz, 2016).

It is also worth emphasizing that from the beginning of 2001 to June 1, 2019, according to the provision of canon 1230 of the *Code of Canon Law*, by decree of a local Ordinary over 250 new shrines of the Catholic Church were established (see Mróz, Mróz, 2018). If only for this reason, the latest publications in the subject literature referring to the number of shrines in Poland at the beginning of the 21st century, unfortunately, should be considered obsolete (see Jackowski, Bilska-Wodecka, Sołjan, 2014). The largest percentage increase of new shrines has been for those of the saints and the beatified, and shrines of Our Lord. In the analyzed period, as a result of decrees from a local Ordinary, up to 90 shrines of saints and the beatified have been created (i.e. almost 60% of all such shrines in Poland) and 32 shrines of Our Lord (over 30% of all Our Lord shrines). The establishment of 'new' shrines of saints and the beatified should be connected above all with the renaissance of the cults of saints seen in many centers which enjoyed great reverence among believers during the Middle Ages and in the period of post-Tridentine renewal. These include St Joseph (shrines in Bolesławów, Częstochowa, Kielce, Nisko, Prudnik, Ruda Śląska, Siedlce, Słupsk and Wadowice), St James (shrines in Brzesko, Santiagoów, Lębork, Małujowice, Szczyrk and Więcławice Stare), St Francis of Assisi (Jutrzyna), St Anthony (Chełm, Ostrołęka, Ratowo, Susz, Warsaw), St. Florian (Chorzów), St Stanislaus, Bishop & Martyr (Piotrawin), St Barbara (Strumień), St Casimir (Kraków), St Kinga (Nowy Korczyn), St Hyacinth (Legnica), Bl. Salomea (Grodzisko near Skała), St Giles (Wyszków), St Hubertus (Żołędowo) and St Roch (Mikstat, Osiek) (see Mróz, Mróz, 2018). The emergence of new shrines of saints and the beatified is also a consequence of the canonization and beatification of a large group of Polish women and men, as well as church devotion to 'popular' saints e.g. St Pio of Pietrelcina (shrines in Terliczka, Przeprośna Górka and Warsaw), St Rita (shrine in Nowy Sącz), and Francis and Jacinta Marto – the St Fatima Children – (shrines in Szczecin and Pajęczno).

The most numerous among 'Our Lord' shrines established after 2000, are Shrines of the Divine Mercy (18 in total: Gdańsk-Wrzeszcz, Łódź, Poznań, Kielce, Sosnowiec, Ostrowiec Świętokrzyski, Toruń, Biała Podlaska, Ełk, Świdnica, Świebodzin, Sokołów Podlaski, Olsztyn-Nagórki, Olsztyn-Zator, Zawiercie-Blanowice, Ostrów Wielkopolski, Suwałki and Bielsk Podlaski), as well as Shrines of Christ's Passion (shrines of the relics of the

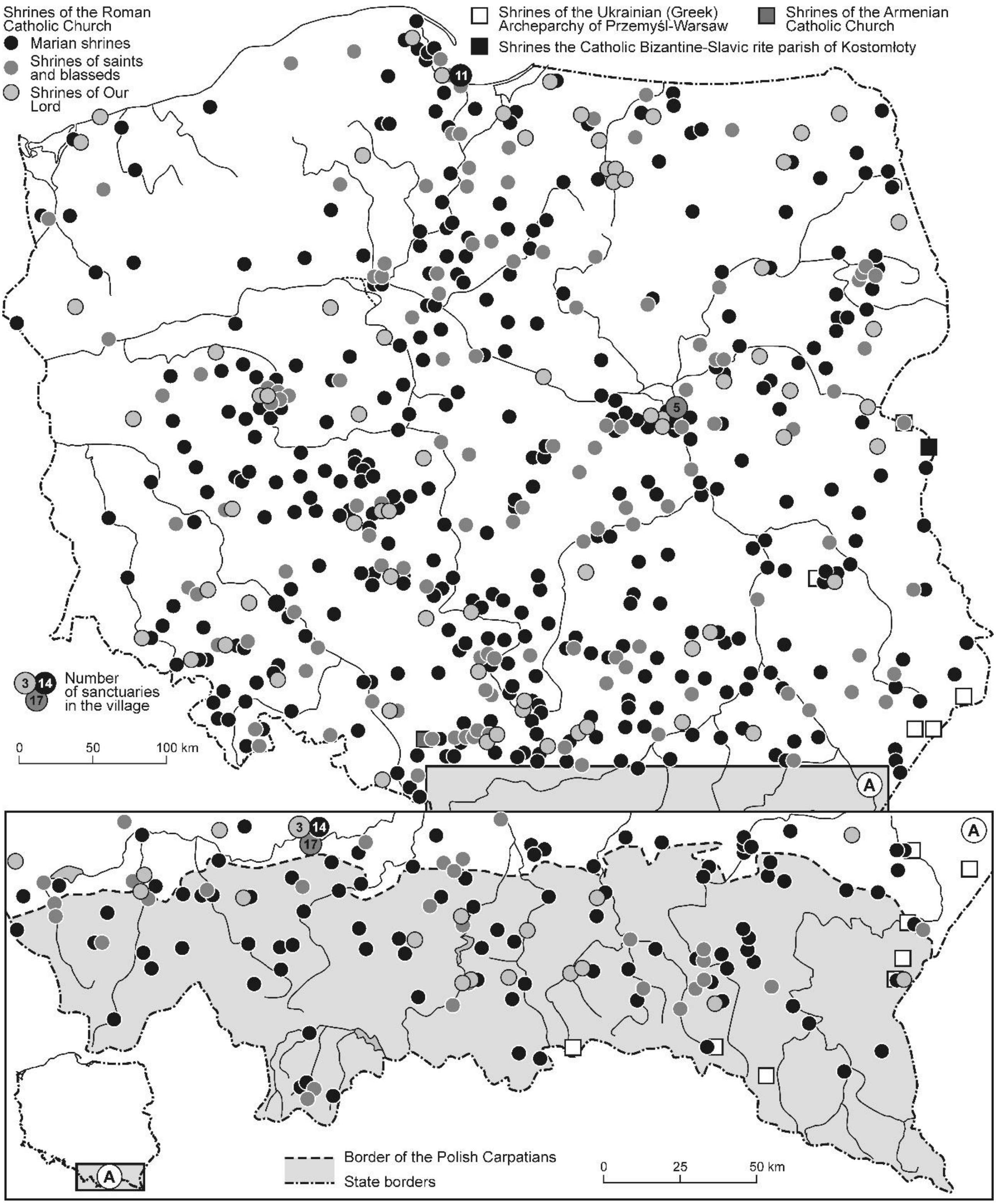

Figure 1. Shrines of the Catholic Church in Poland (as of 1 June 2019)
Source: author

Holy Cross in Jelenia Góra, Klebark Wielki, Rększowice and Wałbrzych, the Shrine of the Holy Cross in Pustków, and the Shrines of the Passion in Praszka, Serpelice, Tyniec Legnicki and Ziębice). In the 21st century, there have also been two Shrines of the Sacred Heart of Jesus, in Dąbrowa Górnicza Strzemieszyce and in Warsaw, and the well-known Shrine of the Blessed Sacrament in Sokółka, in north-eastern Poland.

In the 21st century more than 130 Marian shrines have been established. However, it should be emphasized that from the beginning of 2001 to June 1, 2019, 39 canonical coronations and more than 90 episcopal coronations of the Mother of God have been performed. Considering these Marian holy places from 2001, the most numerous are Shrines of Our Lady of Consolation, Our Lady of Fatima, Our Lady of Perpetual Help, Our Lady of the Scapular and Our Lady of Sorrows.

Currently, there are ten Christian pilgrimage centers with an international rank in Poland. In this group, nine are shrines of the Catholic Church (the Shrine of Our Lady of Czestochowa at Jasna Góra, the Passion and the Marian Shrine in Kalwaria Zebrzydowska, the Shrine of the Divine Mercy in Kraków-Łagiewniki, the Shrine of St. John Paul II in Białe Morza in Kraków, the Shrine of St. Maxi-milian Kolbe in Niepokalanów, the Shrine of St. Anne on Święto Góra, the Shrine of bl. Jerzy Popiełuszko in Warsaw, the Shrine of Our Lady of Fatima in Zakopane-Krzeptówki, Wadowice – the birth place of St. John Paul II), and one Orthodox at Święto Góra, Grabarka. In 2018, these shrines were visited by a total of approx. 12 million people: the largest number of pilgrims visited Jasna Góra (4.5 million), Kraków-Łagiewniki (approx. 2 million) and Kalwaria Zebrzydowska (1.8 million). It should be noted that in the 21st century, two new pilgrimage sites whose current status is international, have emerged in the pilgrimage space of Poland: the Basilica of the Divine Mercy in Kraków-Łagiewniki (consecrated and proclaimed in 2002 by St. John Paul II, the "capital of the Divine Mercy devotion") and the Sanctuary of John Paul II at Białe Morza in Kraków.

3. THE RENAISSANCE OF PILGRIMAGES: WALKING THE MEDIEVAL PILGRIM ROUTES

In the last two decades in Europe, there has been a renaissance of the medieval routes of *peregrinationes maiores*: religious journeys to the three major Christian holy places: the Shrine of the Holy Sepulchre in Jerusalem, the tombs of Apostles St. Peter and St. Paul in Rome, and the tomb of St James the Greater, the first martyr of the Apostles, in Santiago de Compostela (Manikowska, 2002; Onorato, Rizzi, 2017). The pilgrimage route to the tomb of St James at Santiago de Compostela, the *Camino de Santiago*, has become the most well-known. The *Camino*, often called 'the most beautiful pilgrimage trail in the world' and the 'main pilgrimage trail of Europe', was recognized by the Council of Europe in 1987 as its first European Cultural Route, in 1993 (on the territory of Spain) and in 1998 (in France) and in 2015 was inscribed on the UNESCO list of world cultural and natural heritage.

In 2003, the Western European *Camino de Santiago* network reached the German-Polish border at Görlitz – Zgorzelec, giving an impulse to mark its route in Poland. The first Polish section of the *Camino de Santiago* – Lower Silesian – was opened on July 24, 2005 (Mróz, 2015). Currently (as of July 1, 2019) 38 Polish sections of the *Camino de Santiago* network, with a total length of 6,908 km, form the longest pilgrimage and cultural trails in Poland. They are linked to the European network leading to the tomb of St James at Santiago de Compostela. The network in Poland is connected with sections of the *Camino de Santiago* in Russia (in the Kaliningrad region), in Lithuania, Ukraine, Slovakia, the Czech Republic and Germany (Fig. 2).

On the basis of the research it is possible to estimate that around 2,000 pilgrims walk Polish sections of the *Camino de Santiago* during a year. A growing trend of group pilgrimages has been recorded, especially as part of initiatives called 'Sunday pilgrimage along the *Camino de Santiago*' or 'weekend on the *Camino de Santiago*'. The initiators of these are, above all *caminowicze* including members of the Brotherhood of St James, 'lovers and friends' of the *Camino de Santiago*, members of associations connected to it, students and scouts (Mróz, 2018b).[2] On Polish sections of the *Camino de Santiago* there are not only pilgrims who go on foot, on bicycle and on horseback, but also on skis (Pilgrimage of the Beskid Mountains) and by kayak (Kayak Pilgrimage on the River Nyska).

It is worth paying attention to the mutual relationship between the growing number of *caminowicze* from Poland who received a '*Compostela*' (i.e. a document confirming the pilgrimage to Santiago de Compostela by walking at least the last 100 km or on horseback, or 200 km by bike) in the last decade, and the growing number of new sections of the *Camino de Santiago* in Poland (Fig. 3). In 2018, 4,785 Poles registered their arrival at the Pilgrimage Office of the Archbishopric of Santiago de Compostela (*Estadísticas*, 2019). For comparison, in 2004, 357 were from Poland (*Estadísticas*, 2019). From the beginning of the 21st century, each year on average, more than 20 people have set off from Poland itself to Santiago de Compostela in accordance with the medieval custom, that is from the threshold of their own homes, on foot or by bike, for at least 3,000 km (Krogmann, Šolcova, Mróz, Mróz, 2013).

In October 2018 in Poland, a study was begun to determine and mark the Polish section of the 'Jerusalem Camino', the world's longest cultural 'peace trail' which

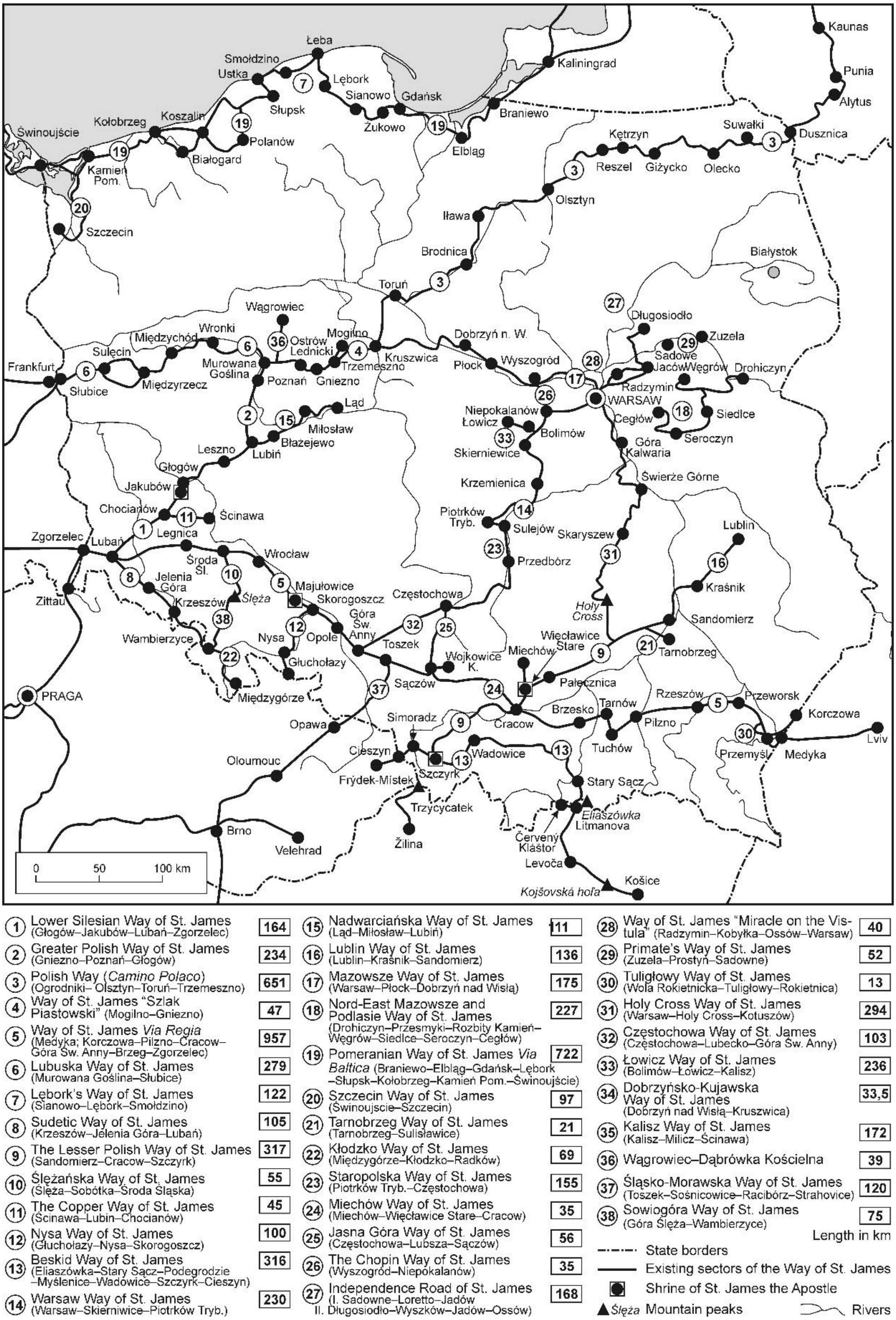

Figure 2. Routes of the *Camino de Santiago* in Poland (as of 01.07.2019)
Source: Mróz, Mróz (2019)

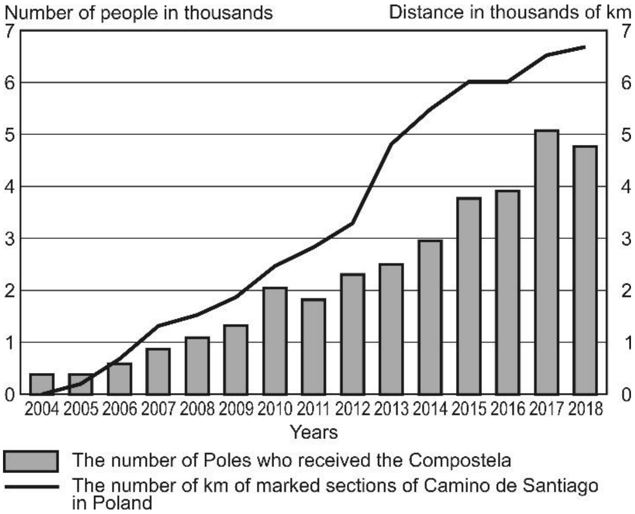

Figure 3. Pilgrimages to Santiago de Compostela from Poland (and the development of the network within Poland): 2004–2018
Source: author

runs through 15 countries. Its length from Finisterre in Galicia to Jerusalem is approximately 7,500 km. In turn, in March 2019, the Pedagogical University of Kraków, Nicolaus Copernicus University in Toruń and the Municipality of Wadowice were admitted to the '*Associazione Europea Romea Strata*' whose task is to recreate and mark the medieval pilgrimage '*Romea Strata*' leading from the countries of Central and Eastern Europe, i.e. Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania through the countries of Central Europe (Poland, Czech Republic, Slovakia, Austria, Slovenia) to Venice and then to Rome.

4. NEW PILGRIM TRAILS IN POLAND

The impressive development of the *Camino de Santiago* and the growing popularity of walking it, started a process called 'caminonization' by Peter Margry, i.e. the 'worldwide development of sacred or spiritual trails, stimulated above all by the success and appropriation of the 'Camino' concept. This process involves spreading the idea of a spiritual path that stimulates people all over the world to embark on a spiritual journey or a reflective search for a meaning of life' (Margry, 2015, p. 186). In the last two decades, the process of creating and developing new pilgrimage and religious trails has been seen in Poland. In addition to the already mentioned *peregrinationes maiores* trails, the following international routes deserve special attention (*Via Misericordia* – the Camino of Mercy, the European Cemeteries Trail, the Jewish Heritage Trail, the Mariazell to Częstochowa international pilgrimage trail, the *Via Sacra* Route, the 'Trail of the Pope', and the cross-border 'Marian Trail – Light from the East') along with the routes of saints and the beatified canonized by St. John Paul II, Pope Benedict XVI and Pope Francis (Mróz, 2014).

The 'Trail of the Pope' includes a network of hiking (mainly mountain), canoe and bicycle trails in Poland, on which Fr Karol Wojtyła, later Pope John Paul II, used. Currently, the 'Trail of the Pope' network covers over a dozen sections in the Polish Carpathians, the Sudetens, the Kraków-Częstochowa Upland, and the Pojezierze region (Matuszczyk, Własiuk, 2002; *Szlaki Papieskie w Polsce*, 2019).

The idea of delimiting and marking the *Internationale Pilgerstraße – Marienweg* connecting Częstochowa with Mariazell was established in the 1990s in Austria. Work on marking the Polish section of this trail from Częstochowa to Zakopane started in 2006. Currently, the International Pilgrimage Route connects national Marian shrines: Jasna Góra in Poland, Levoča in Slovakia, Mariazell in Austria and Marija Bistrica in Croatia.

The cross-border Marian Trail, 'Light from the East', ('*Svätomariánskapúť – Svetlo z východu*') forms part of the network of pilgrimage and cultural routes in Poland, created as part of the Cross-Border Cooperation Program *Interreg V-A* Poland-Slovakia 2014–2020, co-financed by the European Union from the European Regional Development Fund. There are 28 pilgrimage centers on the route, including 21 in Poland and 7 shrines in the Prešov region in Slovakia (Mróz, 2018a).

In 2019, the Knights of Columbus will mark the Polish section of the *Via Misericordia* – the Camino of Mercy, from Oświęcim to the shrine of the Divine Mercy in Kraków-Łagiewniki. The *Via Misericordia* was established in 2016, starting in Rome from where it leads through Assisi, Florence, Padua, Mariazell and Vienna to Kraków.

5. NEW FORMS OF PILGRIMAGES AND RELIGIOUS TOURISM

The renaissance of pilgrimage routes in Poland has affected the popularity of walking traditional Marian routes and the *Camino de Santiago* as well as new routes associated with the cults of saints and the beatified. Walking pilgrimages in organized groups to the National Shrine of Our Lady of Częstochowa at Jasna Góra are still a phenomenon in the Christian pilgrimage space in Poland. In recent years, more than 120,000 people have annually come to the Jasna Góra shrine on foot (in 2018, it was 124,000 in 255 organized groups) (Jasna Góra, 2019). A new initiative in this area combined with the "internal journey that allows you to look deep inside yourself and that teaches humility" is the 'Extreme Camino of the Cross' (Ekstremalna Droga Krzyżowa, 2019). This is an individual religious practice, walking alone along one of several hundred routes from 40 up to 133 km at night (usually on the last Friday of Lent), during which the participant considers individual Stations of the Cross.

The first Extreme Camino was organized on the route from Kraków to Kalwaria Zebrzydowska in 2009. The success of this religious initiative is best evidenced by attendance figures: in 2014, 6,000 participants took part; in 2015 – 12,000; in 2016 – 40,000; in 2017 – 60,000, and in 2018, 80,000 (Ekstremalna Droga Krzyżowa, 2019). In the fashion of the 'Extreme Camino of the Cross', the 'Extreme Camino to Bethlehem' is organized in Lublin and Alwernia before Christmas. In turn, since 2015, Jesuits have organized the so-called 'Camino of Abraham' – an extreme pilgrimage for men. The idea was based on a Jesuit pilgrim trial, known as the 'beggar trial', which is why participants in the 'Camino of Abraham' set off on one of several proposed routes without money, credit cards, phones and booked accommodation (*Droga Abrahama – pielgrzymka tylko dla mężczyzn*, 2019). In many regions of Poland, night pilgrimages to shrines are also organized during the year (e.g. from Przemyśl to Kalwaria Pacławska, from Miedniewice to Niepokalanów, from Suwałki to Studzieniczna). Along with the development of a network of cycling routes and paths in Poland, the growing popularity of cycling and pilgrimage can be seen. Pilgrimages of this type have been organized for many years; however, in the last two decades, a noticeable development with religious or religious and cognitive motives has been registered, for example, in 2018, 133 cycling groups came to Jasna Góra; in 2001 there were 32 pilgrimages (*Szlaki pielgrzymkowe*, 2019). Polish pilgrimage space also includes a skiing pilgrimage (along the Beskid *Camino de Santiago*), kayaking pilgrimages (e.g. from Gródek to Supraśl, a water procession on the River Supraśl from Nowodworc to Wasilków, a water procession with the statue of Our Lady of Łąkowka on the River Drwęca from Nowe Miasto Lubawskie to Łąki Bratiańskie) and pilgrimages by boat on lakes and rivers (including from the parish of St. Zygmunt in Słomczyn to the cathedral in Płock, and from Nadola to Lubków through Lake Żarnowiec to St. Anne's Festivities in Żarnowiec). Horse riding pilgrimages have been known for centuries (e.g. to the shrines in Kalwaria Zebrzydowska and Jasna Góra) as well as the Maritime Pilgrimage of Fishermen to the Festivities of the Apostles St. Peter and St. Paul in Puck – which has been organized continuously since 1981 but dates back to 1217 – still enjoy popularity (Micun-Gusman, 2017).

New initiatives include caravaning, nordic walking, scooter, rollerblade and roller ski pilgrimages. More and more often, pilgrimage routes in Poland are a space for both prayer and competition among individual and relay runners (including a pilgrimage to Jasna Góra, the Małopolski Run along the *Camino de Santiago*, Santiago Half Marathon in Olsztyn). The number of sports and religious events of this type increases rapidly each year, for example in 2001, seven cross-country pilgrimages comprising 150 people arrived at Jasna Góra whereas in 2018, there were 16 groups with 440 participants. Motorcycle pilgrimages are also very popular, especially for the beginning and end of the motorcycle season (including Dębowiec, Gietrzwałd, Jasna Góra, Jodłówka, Licheń, Lutogniew, Kalwaria Pacławska, Markowice, Mikstat, Święty Krzyż, Wambierzyce). For example, the 16th *Zlocie Gwiaździstym* Motorcycle Rally to Jasna Góra, inaugurating the motorcycle season, took place on 6-7th April 2019 with over 50,000 bikers from all over the country arriving at the shrine of Our Lady of Częstochowa (Mototour.pl, 2019).

It should also be emphasized that due to the increasing number of low-cost flights from Poland, the number of pilgrimage travellers increases each year. For this reason, among other things, Poles are one of the foreign nations most frequently visiting major shrines in Europe; for example, in 2018, 11,928 went to the Shrine of Our Lady of Fatima, ranking Poles second behind Spaniards among foreign pilgrims (Santuário de Fátima, 2019).

6. CHANGES IN THOSE VISITING PILGRIMAGE CENTRES IN POLAND

In the last two decades, changes have also been seen in pilgrimage and tourist groups visiting pilgrimage centres in Poland. In numerous centres, in place of the traditional pilgrimages of professionals such as those of health care professionals, teachers, farmers or factory workers, new pilgrim groups have emerged: motorcyclists, firefighters, first communion children, the deaf, members of the „Amazonki" Association (an association of women after mastectomy), alcoholics anonymous, the homeless, the elderly and so on. In most shrines of at least diocesan rank, there is a steady increase in the individual pilgrimage movement and weekend religious tourism. In the pilgrimage season, in good weather on weekends and public holidays, hundreds of individual pilgrims come to these shrines. These are most often families with children who participate in a mass and then stay in the surrounding region. This development with religious and recreational or religious and cognitive motives is primarily fostered by the expansion of tourist infrastructure (catering and accommodation facilities) in pilgrimage centres, improvement of transport accessibility and the aforementioned development of new religious and cultural routes (e.g. the Wooden Architecture Route, the Cistercian Route, the Piast Route) as well as specialised tourism trails (a very good example in this case is the *Green Velo* route which passes through many shrines of regional and local rank).

Religious tourists and pilgrims are attracted to shrines, apart from regular services and ceremonies, mysteries, festivities and religious holidays are organized there, such as the 'Mystery of the Passion of Christ' organized in the shrines in Kalwaria Zebrzydowska, Kalwaria Pacławska, Piekary Śląskie, Wejherowo and Górka Klasztorna, the 'Craft Competition for Easter palms' in Lipnica Murowana, the 'Shepherds' Festival' (the spring and autumn movements of sheep) in the Shrine of the Shepherds (*Gaździna*) of Podhale in Ludźmierz, as well as the 'Jerusalem Mystery and the Burial of Jesus' in the Shrine of St. Kazimierz in Kraków.

7. 'VACATIONS' IN MONASTERIES AND HERMITAGES

One new trend that has emerged in religious tourism in Poland are vacation stays in monasteries, hermitages and retreat houses. This offer to travel and spend free time is dedicated to those who are looking for tranquillity and rest from daily duties and workload, as well as those entangled in the addictions of civilization. In Western European countries, 'vacations' in monasteries include a diverse package: prayer silence, culinary courses that allow you to explore the secrets of monastic cooking, participation in the routines of monks'/nuns' lives: early rising, prayer, work, sleep in a monastic cell and modest meals (Mróz, Mróz, 2013). In Poland, this type of rest and retreat offer in religious facilities is diverse and expanding. The constant item in the agenda is 'silence', the *Salus per silentium* ('health through silence') therapy. People who choose to spend holidays in a monastery can join the rhythm of the religious community

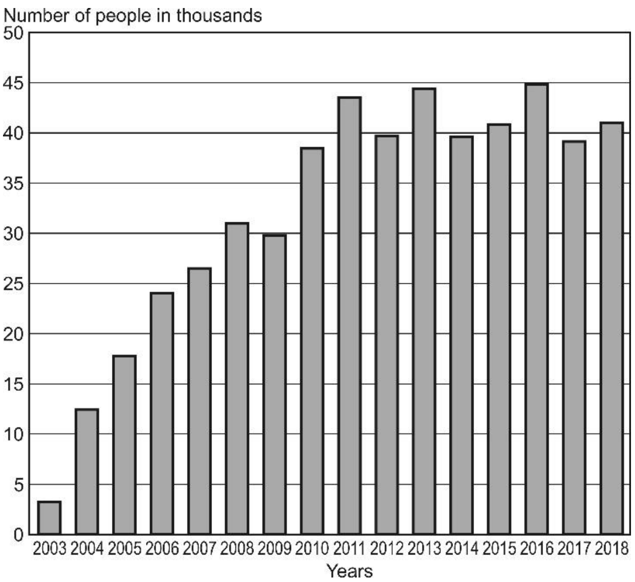

Figure 4. Recorded number of tourists at the *Pustelnia Złotego Lasu* (Golden Forest Hermitage) in Rytwiany in 2003-2018
Source: author

deepen their prayer experience, talk to a priest, walk through monastery gardens, and read works in the monastery library. The list of centres that offer such holidays increases every year. Currently, the most popular include *Pustelnia Złotego Lasu* (Golden Forest Hermitage) in Rytwiany (Fig. 4), the former Camaldolese Monastery in Wigry, Camaldolese Monastery in Bielany Kraków, Benedictine Abbey in Tyniec, Monastery of Marian Fathers of the Immaculate Conception in Stoczek Klasztorny, Pilgrim House in Czerna, Carmelite Prayer House of the Holy Trinity in Piotrkowice, 'Cenacle' Retreat House of Pallottines in Święta Katarzyna in the Świętokrzyskie Mountains, Dominican Retreat House in Korbielów, Pauline Pilgrim House in Leśna Podlaska, and Camaldolese Convent in Złoczew (cf. Mróz, Mróz, 2013). It should also be emphasized that in recent years, numerous religious congregations in Poland have prepared a rich offer of retreats and recollection days organized throughout the year in monastic retreat houses.

8. SUMMARY

The discussion in the paper has allowed the author to state that at the beginning of the 21st century, over the last twenty years there has been a noticeable development of religious tourism and new forms of pilgrimage in Poland. This is a result of many religious, economic, socio-cultural and historical factors. Over the last 18 years, the phenomenon of the renaissance of medieval pilgrimage routes (the *Camino de Santiago*, the Jerusalem Camino), the creation of new pilgrimage or joint pilgrimage and cultural trails, the development of new forms of pilgrimage and religious tourism, changes in those who visit pilgrimage centres in Poland as well as the growing popularity of vacations in monasteries, hermitages and retreat houses, has been found.

The growing popularity of travel with religious or religious and cognitive motives in Poland has not been weakened by the intensified secularization of public life and the growing process of secularization in Polish society (according to the Institute of Church Statistics, in 2017, 38.3% of obligated Catholics participated in a Sunday mass, while in 2001 the rate was 46.8% – Instytut Statystyki Kościoła Katolickiego SAC, 2019).

If we add to this, the recorded increase in the number of pilgrims and tourists from abroad visiting Polish shrines, then it can be stated that Poland will strengthen its position as one of the leading countries in Europe in terms of pilgrimage and religious tourism. This will probably be facilitated by the approaching jubilees, such as the 100th anniversary of the birth of Karol Wojtyła and, above all, the Holy Year which falls in 2025.

ENDNOTES

[1] In the final verification of the list of Our Lord shrines in Poland, apart from the source materials (mainly diocese yearbooks, directories and diocesan and provincial magazines), the lists of shrines in particular dioceses, which the author received from all Metropolitan and Diocesan Curias, turned out to be very helpful.

[2] *Caminowicz* – a term already accepted in the Polish literature on the subject meaning "a person traveling (on foot, by bicycle, on horseback, in a kayak or in any other way), individually or in a group, along the *Camino de Santiago*, and distinguished by the attributes of the *Camino de Santiago*, such as a shell, pilgrim's stick, hat, or pilgrim's passport (*credencial del peregrino*)" (Mróz, 2018, p. 36).

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USE OF INFORMATION AND COMMUNICATION TECHNOLOGY TO ACCESS TOURIST INFORMATION AND SERVICES: THE RESULTS OF RESEARCH CONDUCTED AMONG POLISH TOURISTS IN MAŁOPOLSKA VOIVODESHIP[1]

Abstract: Information and communication technology (ICT) is widely used to access tourist information and services, and as a result using digital tools and sources influences tourist behaviour. The main goal of this paper, based on research, is to describe the behaviours and opinions of tourists who used ICT before travelling. The results include the evaluation of the usefulness of digital tools from a tourist's point of view, and indicates that tourists are interested in using ICT. Respondents aged over 35, who are living in cities and have had at least secondary education or a university degree, are more active users of digital tools. Websites, mobile applications and other ICT uses have been treated by respondents primarily as a source of tourist information in its widest sense, and a tool which facilitates the process of planning travel routes and purchasing travel-related services. Social media, which facilitate sharing travel-related content, also have a major significance.

Keywords: information and communication technology, tourist information and services, surveys, focus group research.

1. INTRODUCTION

In recent years, the role of information and communication technology (ICT) has increased and allowed access to information and online services, and this is related to the development of the information society (Giddens, 2008). This growth concerns the tourist information and services which can be accessed using various digital sources and tools. One of the results of technological development is the development of e-tourism (Buhalis, 2003) and smart tourism, both of which are related to 'big data' and the 'internet of things' (Gretzel, Sigala, Xiang, Koo, 2015).

A stage in the search for information and the use of such information is an essential part of tourist behaviour concerning both the model of tourist behaviour in geographical space (Hall, 2006; Kowalczyk, 2000; Mika, 2014; Richards, 2002) and consumer behaviour on the tourism market (Kotler, Bowen, Makens, 2006). From the perspective of the consumer, access to ICT may increase the usability of space and time related to tourist information and services of various types as well as decreasing the costs of these activities (Kachniewska, 2011). Through digital sources and devices, consumers can gain knowledge, reduce purchase risk and shape their perception of travel (Kotler, Bowen, Makens 2006). The key significance for the use of digital devices is their perception as useful for various travel activities (Amaro, Duarte, 2015; Kim, Park, Morrison, 2008; di Pietro, di Virgiglio, Pantano, 2012). To descibe relations between a tourist and the geographical space, Mika (2014) emphasized that the cognition and valuation of geographical space, related to the search and the use of information about tourist attractions and facilities, precedes the use of geographical space to realize needs. Travel is described as an activity requiring time, funds and the emotional involvement of individuals. That is why access to accurate, verified and reliable information is of major significance (Marciszewska, 2010). However, Horner & Swarbrooke (2016) turned their attention to emotional motivators. On the one hand, such motivators may decrease an individual's involvement in searching for information before the decision to make a travel-related purchase, and on the other hand, they may result in a search for more detailed information (Horner, Swarbrooke, 2016).

Apart from perceptions of usability, the results of research focused on the digital tools used by tourists, while

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the creation of tourist experience is also emphasized. Contemporary consumers are characterised as being increasingly independent, self-reliant and exacting when they search for information before deciding on a purchase related to travel (Niininen, Buhalis, March, 2007). Consumers search for information and products or services that suit their needs as optimally as possible (Niemczyk, 2017a) to have authentic and unique experiences as well as providing good value for their time and money (Gaworecki, 2007). The main goal for the consumers is to find a satisfying compromise between quality, price (Buhalis, O'Connor, 2005) and tourist experience (Zehrer, Pechlaner, Hölzl, 2005). In this context, ICT is significant for purchasing, consuming and recalling the tourist experience (Horner, Swarbrooke, 2016). Using digital sources and tools may empower purchase decisions (Buhalis, O'Connor, 2005; Buhalis, Law, 2008; Niininen, Buhalis, March, 2007;) and co-create pre-tourism experience, on-site tourism experience, and post-tourism experience (Neuhofer, Buhalis, Ladkin, 2012, 2014).

Neuhofer, Buhalis & Ladkin (2014) described three levels of tourism experience depending on the scope of the use of digital tools. According to this model, ICT co-creates the tourism experience. The levels include the use of various aspects such as reservations systems, virtual travel agencies, social media, mobile technology and devices, as well as location-based services and augmented reality (Neuhofer, Buhalis, Ladkin, 2014). Panasiuk (2015) described the behaviours of e-tourists and noticed a diversity in the ways these consumers use sources and tools on the internet to make purchase decisions related to services and destinations. Consumers can use digital sources and tools to support their decisions, use both digital and analogue, or use digital only to make reservations and purchase decisions. This choice depends on perceived benefits (Panasiuk, 2015).

Social media have gained particular significance in tourism during recent years. As a result of two features, interactivity and user-generated content, users tend to view these sources as credible and useful, as well as quick and easy availability (Law, Buhalis, Cobanoglu, 2014). This kind of content is opinion-forming and as a result can create opinions and trends influencing the needs and behaviours of users, including those related to tourism (Buhalis, Leung, Law, 2011; Meyer, 2015; Xiang, Gretzel, 2010; Zeng, Gerritsen, 2014). What is more, sharing tourism experiences on the internet is treated as an activity providing content useful for other users and tourists (Munar, Jacobsen, 2014).

Xiang, Magnini & Fesenmaier (2015) noticed a characteristic bifurcation in consumer behaviour related to the use of online sources and tools for planning journeys. This stage can be based on the use of well-known set of sources and tools as a result of habit or on the use of increasingly varied and numerous sources and tools such as social media, mobile applications and online travel agencies for planning as optimal a tourism experience as possible. It is important that the use of digital sources and tools can be combined with analogue. Additionally, access to the internet is a cause of a major changes in planning and can be postponed by tourists until after they arrive at a destination (Xiang, Magnini, Fesenmaier, 2015).

Currently, the use of ICT is indicated in tourism reports as one of the trends shaping this economic sector in the medium and long term, as Rudnicki (2017) described in detail in his paper. The digital channels of tourist information and service distribution, including e-agents, will develop and consumer behaviours will be exhibited on the internet more widely. This kind of consumer activity allows analysis and then application of 'big data' about behaviour in business processes. Social media are related to the increased significance of the content provided by online creators and influencers such as bloggers and vloggers, as well as content reviews by users. As a result, this kind of content will shape not only consumer behaviour but also the marketing of a place or a destination. It is anticipated that mobile technology, virtual reality and semantic searching will find wider applications (Rudnicki, 2017).

2. REVIEW OF CURRENT RESEARCH RESULTS CONCERNING TOURISTS IN POLAND

The growing availability, variety and popularity of digital sources of tourist information and tools allowing access to services created with ICT has caused increased interest in tourists focused on using digital solutions. As Jaremen, Michalska-Dudek & Rapacz (2016) noticed, on the tourism market the phenomenon of virtualisation of consumer behaviour exists because currently tourists use the internet to realise their information needs for successive stages of travel. From a broader point of view, the development of ICT has allowed the digitalization of information (Kachniewska, 2017) and the use of digital sources and devices creates tourism experience (Berbeka, 2017).

Interest in using the internet, increasingly treated as the main information source about tourist attractions (60%), is related to not purchasing printed thematic publications (54.8%), but customers still rarely abandon travel agencies (9.9%) (Jaremen, Michalska-Dudek, Rapacz, 2016). This part of consumer behaviour is related to the characteristics of the e-consumer presented by Panasiuk (2015). At the decision stage for a preferred tourism destination, not only access to sources of information is important, but also the way this information is visualized (Kachniewska, 2017). The content of various social media, including photographs, is indicated as one of the most important factors influencing consumer behaviours related to tourism (Poczta, Mariianchuk, 2013).

The results of a survey conducted by Jaremen, Michalska-Dudek & Rapacz (2016) in the Lower Silesia Voivodeship (n=343) indicate a high interest of respondents in searching for information on the internet (see Smul, 2013), both before travel (90%) and while travelling (83%). Similar results have been obtained in a survey in Kraków (n=1175) as presented by Berbeka (2017). Before travelling, respondents used various information sources such as thematic websites (59.55%), official websites of local or regional government or tourism organizations (42.21%), and social media including Facebook and blogs (ca. 40%). The internet has gained significance as a tool to purchase tourist services (81%), mostly accommodation (71.46%) (mainly Booking.com), and tickets for different means of transport, mostly train or bus (63.21%), and plane (54.02%). The respondents rarely bought tickets for public transport in cities (24.95%) (Berbeka, 2017).

Among Polish tourists there is a growing interest in using social media for the purpose of their own travel, both in information searching, such as querying user-generated content, and in sharing information related to their journeys (Berbeka, 2017; Jaremen, Michalska-Dudek, Rapacz, 2016; Niemczyk, 2017b; Seweryn, 2015). This kind of information, in turn, may be analysed from different perspectives. Zajadacz (2017) provided an example of research on dissatisfaction with tourist attractions on the basis of content from TripAdvisor.

Interest in using social media concerns not only various kinds of social network but also (and mainly) online creators and influencers. Jakubowska (2018), on the basis of a content analysis of Polish blogs related to travel (n=41), noticed that bloggers popularized selected types of tourism. The analysis listed leisure tourism (100%), sightseeing (98%) and sports-based tourism (55%), in cities (93%), seaside resorts (61%), and mountainous areas (54%). These types mainly concerned domestic tourism (66%) (Jakubowska, 2018). In turn, Lisowska & Wieszaczewska (2017) emphasized the role of this content and narration as a medium influencing tourists' needs and perceptions (see Morozova 2016). Even though Lisowska & Wieszaczewska (2017) analysed entries devoted to pilgrimages to Santiago de Compostela (n=5) retrieved from travel blogs, it can be said that this influence may also concern other types of tourism. Morozova (2016), on the basis of content analysis of travel blogs (n=23) as well, noticed the influence of bloggers' advice for planning journeys. The advice included broadly-defined tips, rankings and test results. Readers of the blogs who are potential tourists may treat this information as recommendations for places or equipment, useful in planning (Morozova, 2016). Blogs can be a tool of promotion for certain patterns (Morozova, 2016) and alternative ways of travelling (Jednoralska, 2016). From this perspective, tourists' opinions and behaviours related to user-generated content in social media may be a worthwhile area of study.

Access to tourist information and services has become increasingly popular due to the use of mobile applications. Kubiak (2015) conducted a survey (n=103) using the example of applications dedicated to the cities of Toruń and Poznań and described their usefulness. The respondents used smartphones to obtain tourist information in two ways: directly from mobile applications (25%) and from the internet (ca. 30%). The most important features were usefulness (34%) and available content (21%). On the basis of these two features tourists evaluated mobile applications as useful and satisfying their need for information. A compilation of user ratings from online stores presented by Zawadzki (2018) allows more to be learned about the interest of tourists in using mobile applications dedicated to selected Polish cities (ratings from 3.0 to 4.6) and regions (ratings from 3.9 to 4.8).

The method and scope of the use of digital tools by Polish tourists is influenced by demographic and social characteristics. The 'younger' age groups are more interested in the use of these tools, and this phenomenon is related to traits of X, Y and Z generations. These generations are more active in travelling and using ICT, including the planning stage (Zajadacz, 2014). Respondents below 35 more often use digital tools to plan and arrange travel (Jaremen, Michalska-Dudek, Rapacz, 2016; see Berbeka, 2017). Apart from age, other demographic and social characteristics also influence the use of digital sources of tourist information such as place of residence, education, and professional status. While decisions connected to electronic payments for tourist services are affected by their financial situation (Berbeka, 2017). Concerning age, similar relationships were observable in the results of surveys conducted in Kraków (n=3651) presented by Seweryn (2015) which focused on searching for tourist information in the social media. The more active respondents were younger than 40 and living in major cities (Seweryn, 2015). The results of a survey conducted by Rasińska & Siwiński (2015) in Poznań showed that according to respondents in higher education (97%), mobile applications combining multiple functions can replace printed travel guides, cameras, and GPS tracking devices.

The use of ICT by Polish tourists is often the main goal of a survey. However, the 'big data' generated during this use can be analysed, for example demographic, on purchase decisions, opinions and impressions (Kachniewska, 2014). Majewska, Napierała & Adamiak (2016) noticed, using the example of an analysis of photographs taken in Kraków Metropolitan Area and then shared on Wikimedia Commons, that this type of content may be considered useful to evaluate the attractiveness of selected places and areas for tourist activities and tourism development in a wide sense. Kachniewska (2014) presented the results of an expert panel and listed the advantages of 'big data' analysis, such as forecasting and analysing consumer trends that allow new products to be created on the basis of the results. From a broader perspective, the use of 'big data' concerns the design of individual and comprehensive tourist experience. As a result, these activities may provide a competitive advantage for businesses and tourism destinations (Kachniewska, 2014).

3. AIM AND METHODS OF RESEARCH

The main goal of this paper is to describe the behaviours and opinions of tourists related to using ICT before travel on the basis of research results (cf. Pawłowska, 2015 2016a, b). To research the level and the range of activity of tourists focused on the use of digital tools, two methods were applied, a survey and focus group research, with the second supplementing the results of the first. The paper focuses on the presentation of the use of a range of digital tools and an evaluation of their usefulness.

The survey was conducted from 2014 to 2016 in tourism destinations in Małopolska Voivodeship (n=1053) and was based on a random selection. These destinations were Kraków (n=400), Krynica-Zdrój (n=100), Nowy Targ (n=300), Szczawnica (n=100), Wieliczka (n=53) and Zakopane (n=100). The survey was divided into three stages: September 2014 through December 2014, March 2015 through September 2015, February 2016 through June 2016. A standardised questionnaire of 25 questions was used and the interviewer completed it during a conversation with a respondent. The questionnaire contained 24 closed questions and one open. The respondents in this survey were domestic tourists with or without accommodation.

In the statistical analysis, answers from n=973 respondents were taken into account: 51% were women and 49% were men. As to age, 30% were aged from 19 to 25, 31% from 26 to 35, while 36% were over 35. The percentage from the youngest age group (15-18) was 4%. The majority of respondents lived in cities (87%), with one third in cities of over 500,000 inhabitants (34%). Half of the respondents had a university degree and higher education, 39% with high school or secondary, 7% vocational, and 3% elementary. 91% had been students of high or secondary schools.

The focus group research was conducted in 2016 on the basis of sampling after the survey was finished. The results showed that tourists from 15 to 35 used ICT more often and more actively in the context of travelling, so focus group research was conducted with respondents from this age group recognising the investigated issues from their point of view in detail.

Open questions were asked according to a scenario. The interviews were registered on a digital device and then a transcript was prepared. In the paper, the results of the interviews are presented. Respondents from 15 to 35 took part (n=45), 60% were women and 40% men. The participants were divided into five focus groups. Interviews with 'younger' respondents (from 15 to 18) who had completed elementary education, lasted from 45 to 60 minutes, while interviews with 'older' respondents (from 19 to 35) after secondary education plus higher education, lasted from 60 to 90 minutes. The 'younger' respondents were divided into two groups of 15 each, and the 'older' into three groups of 5 each. The respondents were urban residents with 66% of them living in cities with population of over 500,000.

4. RESEARCH RESULTS

4.1. USING ICT BEFORE TRAVELLING

Nearly 70% of respondents always used the internet (31%) or used it often (35%) when they were planning and arranging a journey. While 12% used the internet rarely, and 4% never. This question was the introductory one and issues related to using digital tools were investigated in detail with further questions.

On the basis of respondents' answers and their demographic and social characteristics it was possible to observe some distinctive features, similar to many other questions. Taking into account age groups, the more active users were among respondents under the age of 35 (Kruskal-Wallis test: H=53.13, p=0.000) (Table 1). Another showed that the more active were those with higher education and a university degree (Kruskal-Wallis test: H=100.96, p=0.000). The participants who answered that they 'always' or 'often' used the internet amounted to 76%, similar to those with elementary education (72%). Fewer of those with secondary education provided the same answers (59%), and the proportion with vocational education was the lowest (26%). About 30% of respondents with vocational education did not use the internet. Those living in cities with a population of over 500,000 provided more 'always' and 'often' answers than those from smaller cities and towns or from rural regions (Kruskal-Wallis test: H=156.27, p=0.000). Over half of respondents always used the internet (56%) and over a quarter used the internet often (28%).

Respondents when asked about the goals of using the internet for travel purposes (Fig. 1) answered that they most frequently searched for tourist information (85%). They primarily used the website of the visited place or destination (56%), for example an official local government website. The second digital source mentioned was a thematic nationwide web portal with a tab dedicated to travelling (42%). Less frequent answers indicated the-

Table 1. Frequency of internet use before travelling according to age group (%)

Frequency of using the internet	Response rate according to age group (%)						Kruskal-Wallis test[a]
	15-18	19-25	26-35	36-45	46-55	>55	
Always	41	35	31	27	28	18	*H*=53.13, *p*=0.000
Often	28	44	40	28	16	18	
Sometimes	21	16	23	33	24	8	
Rarely	7	2	5	11	22	10	
Never	3	3	1	1	10	46	
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	

[a] Statistically significant differences $p<0.05$.
Source: author.

matic travel websites (36%), for example created by local government too. The respondents were interested in content reviews, for example, about accommodation, indicated by 36% (Fig. 1). They rarely used social media other than rating systems and online forums (42%), for example blogs and videoblogs (35%), Facebook (30%) or online encyclopaedias (30%). These kinds of digital sources of tourist information were used by respondents younger than 35. The rating systems and online forums were chosen by ca. 50% of respondents, Facebook by ca. 35%, and blogs and videoblog by ca. 30%. These answers were indicated by one in five respondents or one in six respondents older than 35.

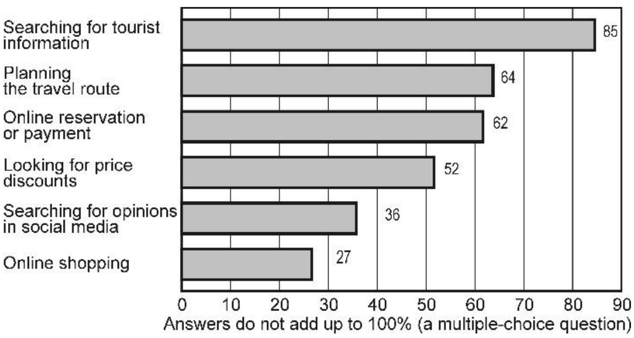

Figure 1. Reasons for using the internet before travelling (%)
Source: author

Sharing information about one's own journey on social media was declared by 44% of respondents and they were the most active while travelling. Before a journey they mainly added check-in information (3%) or shorter (3%) and longer postings (2%). Respondents under 35 were more active on social media and mainly from the group between 15 and 18. This activity was related to the frequency of using the internet before travelling (χ^2 Pearson test =98.33, p=0.000).

Because nearly 30% of respondents searched for opinions on social media (36%) during focus group interviews, they were asked about their interest in the activity of social media influencers, for example bloggers and vloggers, in the context of their own journey. This interest was observable among both 'younger' and 'older' respondents however the reasons were different (Fig. 2). The

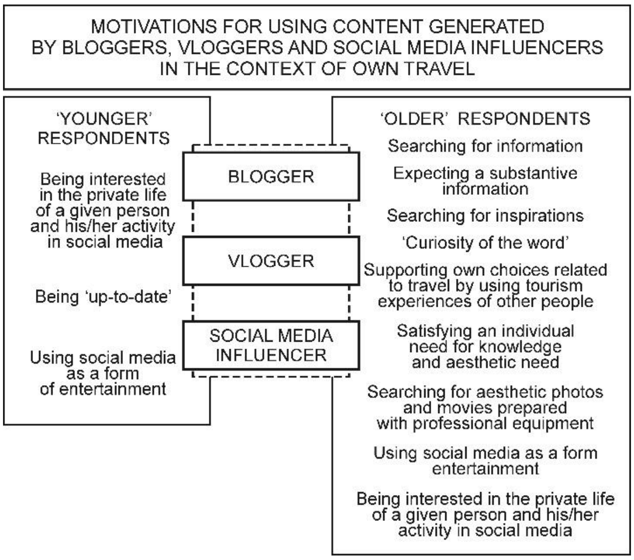

Figure 2. Motivations for using content provided by social media influencers in the context of travel
Source: author

opinions of 'older' respondents were focused on the influence of social media content on their own decisions related to travel, because of some features such as substantive information, narration and storytelling, aesthetics, and the professional preparation of posts, videos and photographs. This was done for example using a GoPro sport video camera dedicated for use when performing extreme sports, or a drone. The 'older' respondents were aware that the shared content may be a product of commercial cooperation and marketing communication, and because of this, the majority treated such content as less credible. The 'younger' respondents were interested in the private life of their favourite influencers related to travel, but their primary interest was in fashion, beauty and computer games.

Two answers were most frequently chosen on the question about reasons for using the internet. The first was the search for tourist information (chosen by 85%) and the second was planning the travel route (by car, by bike, or on foot) which was given by 64% (Fig. 1). Nearly 90% of those under 35 and ca. 75% of older respondents looked for tourist information, and ca. 60% of them planned a route of travel. In the group of over 55 years of age, this amounted to ca. 33%.

Numerous respondents also mentioned online payments (Fig. 1). Over 60% made an online reservation or payment (62%), for example for accommodation or a ticket, and over 50% of them looked for price discounts (52%), for example on flight search sites. A smaller number of answers concerned online shopping (27%), for example for tourist equipment. The more active users were those under 35 and ca. 70% of them made an online reservation or payment, ca. 60% looked for price discounts, and ca. 30% chose online shopping. Of the 'older' respondents ca. 50% made an online reservation or payment, ca. 30% looked for discounts, and ca. 20% shopped online. In turn, those living in cities with a population of over 500,000 preferred to look for price discounts on the internet (63%), whereas respondents from smaller cities more frequently shopped online (34%).

The majority of respondents had purchased tourist services on the internet at least once (76%), and 33% of them had made group purchases. This group more frequently looked for tourist information before travelling (88%). Over 80% of evaluated online payment as safe (85%), however around a quarter considered online payments as an unsafe activity (23%) after making an online purchase. Online shopping was most frequently done by respondents between 26 and 35 (89%), and in the case of group purchases (46%). Statistically significantly, women most frequently made group purchases (71%; χ^2 Pearson test, p=0.018). The age group between 26 and 35 had high confidence in the security of online payments (94%). Respondents living in cities more frequently purchased on the internet (ca. 80%) than those from rural areas (ca. 50%), but additionally, those from smaller cities and towns made group purchases twice as often (43%).

4.2. EVALUATION OF DIGITAL TOOLS

The respondents were asked to choose between analogue and digital tools to indicate which was more useful at the stage of searching for tourist information and services, and purchasing. Most frequently they chose digital tools (Table 2), but there were two exceptions: the opinions of family or friends (71%) and printed brochures (55%).

Over 50% of respondents between 15 and 35 would rather use digital tools (aside from the opinion of family or friends). While those over 35 used analogue tools more frequently, similar to those who had completed vocational education. Respondents living in rural areas preferred purchasing at a travel agency (over 50% of respondents). However, those from cities with a population of over 500,000 preferred printed sources of information: maps (52%) and brochures (64%) and those from smaller cities chose online maps (68%) and mobile applications (53%).

In the opinion of the majority of respondents who took part in the focus groups, users of ICT were tourists under 40 years of age. However, the growing popularity and availability of selected digital tools, such as smartphones, and changes in the commercial offer provided by mobile networks influence consumer buying behaviour, including consumers from older generations. This in a sense forces an individual to learn how to use digital tools and sources.

On a five-point scale, the respondents evaluated the digital tools that facilitate mobility as the most useful with examples such as GPS navigation (4.43), online maps (4.25) and online public transport timetables (4.21). Online reservation and payment tools were also evaluated as relatively useful (4.12). The respondents preferred websites of visited destinations (4.12) and of accommodation facilities (4.01), rather than mobile applications (3.72) and social media such as blogs and vlogs (3.71), rating systems and online forums (3.51), and Facebook (3.29).

In the individual age groups, respondents' answers were close to average, with the exception of those over 55 (lowest rates). Moderate correlations were observable in two cases. Those who used the internet to search for tourist information before travelling, evaluated the websites mentioned above as more useful (Spearman rank correlation=0.31 and 0.33). Whereas those who were users of social media in the context of travel, evaluated social media as more useful (Spearman rank correlation=0.31).

For the 'younger' respondents, the use of digital tools was not always related to facilitating travel planning and arrangements. They rather treated digital tools as 'accompanying' a journey, for example when sharing photographs of a school trip on social media or playing games on smartphones when they were travelling in a coach to a destination. The influence of trends and peer groups on needs related to using digital tools was also emphasized in this age group, for example using particular smartphone models or particular mobile applications. The 'older' respondents also noticed this kind of motivation for the use of digital tools, however for them facilitating travel planning and arrangements had major significance. Above all, they emphasized the usefulness of information resources on the internet, in contrast to 'younger' respondents who emphasized the entertainment aspect. This does not mean that online entertainment had no significance at all for 'older' participants (Fig. 2). Examples of the most important aspects of digital tools given by the 'older' respondents were access to information on the internet, GPS navigation and online maps, and online reservation or payments. Their knowledge range and level, as well as skills in using the functions of digital tools, were higher than the younger age group, as their age allowed them to make purchases in online stores and use online payments more frequently.

Table 2. Choice between tools allowing access to tourist information and services (%)

Tools allowing access to tourist information and services			
analogue tools	percentage of answers (%)	digital tools	percentage of answers (%)
Guidebook	41	Website	59
Printed map	41	Online map	59
Leaflet	55	Mobile application	45
Tourist information bureau	31	Website	69
Purchasing service at travel agency	45	Purchasing service on the internet	55
Opinion of family or friend	71	Online review	29
Photo album	40	Virtual tours	60

Source: author.

5. SUMMARY

The development of ICT has extended access to tourist information and services through digital channels of distribution such as the internet and portable devices, mainly smartphones. Tourists used ICT before travelling. The greatest interest and the highest rates of digital tool usefulness were observable in those that provided access to tourist information in the widest sense, and facilitating travel arrangements mainly with regard to planning, transport and tourist attractions. On the basis of these results, using the example of respondents from the Małopolska Voivodeship, it can be stated that ICT has a major influence on tourist experience. This area may be interesting for further research.

On the basis of respondents' answers, we can establish the group of tourists who are more active in the use of ICT. They are aged between 20 and 40 (which corresponds to generation Y) use digital tools not only as an information source and access tool related to tourist information and services, but also to social media activity in the context of travel.

However, despite a relatively high public interest in using ICT on the tourism market in Poland numerous tourists still prefer to use traditional tools. That is why marketing communication and information policy should be realised 'bi-directionally' by actors in the tourist economy.

ENDNOTE

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TOURISM IN THE SOVIET CARPATHIANS: ACCOMMODATION FACILITIES FOR QUALIFIED TOURISM IN THE EASTERN CARPATHIANS (LVIV AND IVANO-FRANKIVSK OBLAST) IN THE 1970s AND 1980s[1]

Abstract: The research issue is to describe the tourist accommodation used for specialised tourism, including its types, distribution and scale, in the northern part of the Eastern Carpathians in the former Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Republic. The authors focused on the 1970s and 1980s which were the 'golden age' in the development of tourism in the Soviet Union. As a result of the analysis, 51 accommodation facilities were identified offering nearly 7,300 beds in the mid-1980s. It was the time when the development of that area reached its peak.

Keywords: accommodation facilities, tourist hostels, specialised tourism, Eastern Carpathians, Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Republic.

1. INTRODUCTION

The authors are interested in the elements of accommodation intended, above all, for specialised hiking and ski tourism participants. They considered accommodation facilities from the 1970s and 1980s which were owned by the state or belonged to tourism organizations, a period considered to be the 'golden age' of tourism, which was developing then on a mass scale (Fedorchenko, Dorova, 2002; Savchuk, Kotenko, 2012; Ziuzin, Rozhko, 2019). This article looks at the northern part of Eastern Carpathians (as classified by Kondracki, 1978) within the borders of the then Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Republic (further on referred to as the Ukrainian SSR), embracing the whole or sections of the following mountain ranges: Brzeżne Beskids, Pokuttya-Bucovina Beskids, Eastern Bieszczady, Chornohora, Gorgany Mountains, Chyvchyny Mountains, Sanok-Turka Mountains and Hrynyavy Mountains. Administratively, at that time, this territory was contained within the Lviv and Ivano-Frankivsk *Oblasts*. The article is based on library and archive searches, a spatial planning inventory and photographic documentation compiled in 2007-2010 – updated in 2018.

So far, the quantification of the accommodation infrastructure for specialised tourism and its development in the area of the Eastern Carpathians in the times of the Ukrainian SSR has not been comprehensively studied by Ukrainian or Polish researchers. The aim of this work

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is to fill in, at least in part, this particular research gap. The 1970s and 1980s brought some cartographic publications and guidebooks which are today an important source of information (Burnashov, Hafniak, Hoshovskyi, Drukman, 1973; Chazov, 1983; Sossa, 1987). Later, a number of contributory works were published by some Polish (Dyląg, 2008; Gudowski, 1997; Olszański, Rymarowicz, 1993) and Ukrainian researchers (Fedorchenko, Dorova, 2002; Hamkało, Kudła. 2011; Karashec'kyj, Rochnjak, 2010; Kiptenko et al., 2017). In contrast, the development of the accommodation infrastructure in the Polish Carpathians and the Sudetens has been widely recognized in academic and popular literature (Biesik, 2010, 2013; Bogdziewicz, 2012; Konieczniak, 2015; Krygowski, 1973, 1988; Mazurski, 2012; Moskała, 1976, 1980; Staffa, 1994; Potocki, 2005, 2009).

In the late 1930s, in the area referred to in the article, there were 141 tourist hostels, shelters and accommodation bases with, in 1939, nearly 4,200 beds. The development of this area for specialised tourism purposes could be then considered adequate (Quirini-Popławski, 2018). Nearly all mountain tourist hostels were destroyed during World War II while in the valleys, the majority of facilities had been destroyed, others were reconstructed or taken over by other functions, mainly residential.

2. OUTLINE OF TOURISM ORGANIZATION

During the interwar period, the activity of tourist destinations was based on the Spa Act, passed in March 1922 (amended in 1928). Tourism matters fell under the Ministries of Transport, Public Works, Internal Affairs and Public Health. In those times, the organization of tourism was the responsibility of state and local authorities (at different levels), as well as various institutions and federations. The ownership structure of tourist accommodation facilities was diversified, ranging from state authorities, through associations, entrepreneurs, to private owners.

As a consequence of World War II, the nationality of the Eastern Carpathians changed resulting in a transformation of the tourism organization model. In accordance with the politics of that time, this particular sector became the domain of the state, as it was to play an important role in Soviet social and educational policy. In the new approach, tourism was to change its character from exclusive and individual to organized and available to all social strata. The move towards mass tourism served the purpose of creating specific social attitudes and in the new system, the focus was on elements of both mental and physical regeneration along with the formation of ideology. Tourism infrastructure was nationalized and under the Central Council of Trade Unions, with the exception of some holiday facilities which were the property of individual institutions or factories (Chazov, 1983; Gorsuch, 2003; Jackowski, 1979; Maurer, 2006; Orlov, 2014; Palmer, 2011; Quirini-Popławski, 2015).

Noticeable changes started in the 1960s (e.g. in 1965, in Lviv and Ivano-Frankivsk *Oblasts*, tourism councils were established). However, it was the ordinance of the USSR Ministerial Council (1969), regarding 'means for further development of tourism and excursions in the country' that was of key importance. It provided a formal basis to organize, recreation, tourism and sports zones for city inhabitants and a plan for building suitable infrastructure for 1971-75 including hotels, *turbazas* (tourist 'bases'), camp sites and so-called 'auto-pensions'). It also referred to the production of promotional materials and the selection of plots of land for tourism investments by the authorities. The execution of the plan was to be coordinated by the Ukrainian Central Council for Tourist Excursions, as well as its local and regional divisions, responsible for the development of mass tourism. The next plan was drawn up for the period 1986-1990, but its provisions were not put into operation (DALO Fond 3105, description 1, case 61, 1; Doljenko, Putrik, 2010; Fedorchenko, Dorova, 2002; Kotenko, 2015).

In Austro-Hungarian times moving around the Eastern Beskids was not restricted in any way. During the interwar period, it required obtaining a pass at the *starostwo* (after 1925) or being a member of a tourism organization. Despite the change of borders after 1945, the part of the Carpathian chain discussed herein did not become a single unit but was divided by an *oblast* border rather than a state one. Throughout the Soviet era, tourist penetration was limited by regulations regarding travel between *oblasts* and the security zones along oil (*Friendship*) and gas pipelines (*Brotherhood* and *Sojuz*) (Nedashkovskaia, 1983). In addition, due to the close proximity of the border with Romania, the southern part of the Hrynyavy Mountains and Chyvchyny Mountains (south of the Pip Ivan) was a restricted border zone closed to tourism. The state border itself was guarded by a double line of fences (*sistemy*). In the Soviet era, specialised tourism was classified as a sports discipline and above the floors of the Carpathian valleys, it had to be organized. Groups led by guides along specific trails were obliged to report daily at designated check points (Gudowski, 1997).

3. ACCOMMODATION INFRASTRUCTURE

3.1. TYPES OF ACCOMMODATION FACILITIES

Services for the participants of different forms of specialised tourism were provided in various types of facilities. The most common element of the infrastructure was a ***turbaza***, which can be classified as accommodation with board, used for a wide range of recreational purposes, tailored to serve the needs of organized tourism participants, usually travelling by coach. They were mostly people who had been issued special 'recommendations' at their workplace including parents with children, but also individual tourists. Popular types of mass event that were organized included treks, competitions and excursions. There were open and restricted facilities, the latter being available to the members of specific associations, clubs or the employees of a particular workplace. A model *turbaza* included the accommodation for several hundred people, a catering section, a common room and a tourist and sports equipment store. *Turbaza* were often arranged in more inaccessible areas (e.g. at higher altitudes). Depending on their profile, they were equipped with additional elements of infrastructure such as parking lots, sports areas, camp sites, tourist trails or ski lifts. Due to the natural conditions, the mountains were often the place where sports centres were located, mainly those dedicated to winter sports (Chazov, 1983).

A separate element of the infrastructure, independent of the *turbazas*, were the *prijuty*. They were a type of **tourist hostel**, above all for participants of organized hiking excursions, though they were often offered to individual tourists as well. They were situated away from the main Carpathian routes, usually in mountain river valleys and along tourist trails. They were small buildings, less sophisticated than a *turbaza*, and capable of holding up to 100 tourists.

The third type of accommodation was the **camp** *(laheria).* This can be defined as a form of recreation, usually summer recreation, for children and young people, organized in specially prepared buildings or tents. There were sports, recreational, medicinal and tourist camps but the most popular were the recreational-medicinal facilities, where a 'sanatorium-resort card' was required. The organizers were Komsomol associations, as well as Pioneer clubs and scouts. The camp site consisted of temporary seasonal facilities, cabins or tents, so they were frequently located near resort hotels whose infrastructure could be used. The participants followed a strict plan for a day which included physical activities (sports games, hiking, working on farms), as well as cultural (film screenings, lectures) and mental activities (educational and tourism-related activities, learning new skills). Pioneer camps (the first one was organized in 1925) were a particular type of accommodation which played a significant role in the national education system and the formation of social attitudes among children and young people in the Soviet Union. In this case, the program included attending ideology classes such as meetings with heroes of the Great Patriotic War, participating in demonstrations, press and magazine readings (Chazov, 1983; De Witt, 1961; Katel, 1968; Korzhev, 1963; Peacock, 2014; Resnick, 1985; Rudenko, 1985; Sossa, 1987).

It is worth mentioning that specialised tourism participants used recreation facilities as well. They were buildings intended for the employees of a given workplace and their families, at the disposal of trade unions, and were available only to holders of special recommendation certificates. In the Eastern Beskids, three places can be distinguished with such centres: the Opir River valley below Verkhnie Synovydne, the Skhidnytsia region and the Prut River valley between Yaremcha and Vorokhta (Quirini-Popławski, 2015).

3.2. DEVELOPMENT OF INFRASTRUCTURE

In the 1940s and 1950s, no investments were made in Eastern Beskids with specialised tourism participants in mind. One of the first that appeared after the war was the *Hutsul turbaza*, built in 1961-63 (and developed in the years that followed) in the 'Drummer's Stone' (*Kamin Dovbusha*) district of Yaremcha, on the Prut River. It consisted of a large main building (with the catering section, common room, library, cinema, tourist equipment rental and sauna), three 3-storey accommodation units (offering 2-4 person rooms), as well as several summer holiday buildings for youth camps. Nearby, in a stylish building, was the *Hutsul* restaurant. It was one of the exemplary investments, which received groups arriving as part of international exchanges organized by the '*Turist*' agency. The site also included a assembly area, a sports field, a camp site for 100 people, a park, a parking lot and some technical infrastructure. It offered a variety of services, including international telephone connections and train and plane ticket reservations. The maximum capacity in the summer season was 600 beds (420 in winter), and it was the largest base in the Ukrainian Carpathians. It was intended for organized groups and families, though unoccupied accommodation places were also available to individual tourists. A branch of the Yaremcha *turbaza* was a complex of accommodation pavilions (partly seasonal), called *Chornohora*, for 120 people in Zawojela near Vorokhta in the Prut River valley (Burnashov, Hafniak, Hoshovskyi, Drukman, 1973; Chazov, 1983; Czubiński. 2008, 2014; Krasyi, 1976; Sossa, 1987; Zavalyi, Yonkyn, 1967).

From the mid-1970s, the infrastructure was visibly changing. A number of large well-arranged *turbazas*, easily accessible by transport and providing services to organized groups, as well as to families with children or individual tourists (when free places were available). Most of them were built in destinations which were conve-nient points to set out for Chornohora and the Pokuttya-Bucovina Beskids. In Kosiv, a 4-storey building was erected (*Karpatskaya zorya*), consisting of accommodation and the catering-recreational sections which offered 300 beds all year round and had its own ski lift. An equally wide range of accompanying services were offered by the *Gornaja turbaza* situated in the centre of Yablunytsia. In five stylish, wooden and brick buildings there were 150 places for tourists, as well as a restaurant and the technical section. Near to a pre-war tourist hostel in the Yablunytsia Pass (Tatar Pass), a new hotel standard facility, called *Berkut*, was erected. It offered several dozen rooms, a large, stylish restaurant, roofed parking places and some ski lifts. In the very centre of Vorokhta, opposite the railway station, a 2-storey building was erected, called *Karpaty*, for 44 people, offering only basic services. In the village of Sheshory, there is a popular seasonal base (*Srebrne Wodospady*), which can accommodate up to 410 people in summer lodges (Fig. 1). Slightly later (1982), a sizeable *turbaza*, named *Verchovyna*, was opened in Verchovyna (formerly Żabie) which consisted of two several-storey accommodation units (300 places) and a building with a large sports hall and cinema room. There were also sports areas and pitches nearby (Burnashov, Hafniak, Hoshovskyi, Drukman, 1973; Chazov, 1983; Khvostenko, 1976; Krasyi, 1976; Nedashkovskaia, 1983; Sossa, 1987).

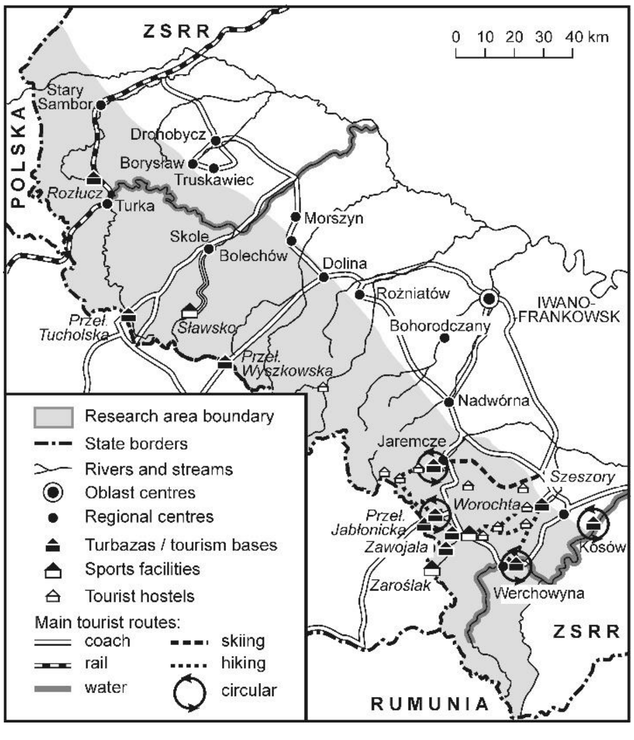

Figure 1. Distribution of accommodation facilities for specialised tourism and tourist trails in the Eastern Beskids in the 1980s
Source: authors, based on field work and Burnashov (1986), Horbunov (1969), Khvostenko (1976), Krasyi (1976), Rudenko (1985), Sossa (1987)

The infrastructure in the western part of the Eastern Beskids was more limited. In the first half of the 1970s, a relatively small facility was built (about 100 places), picturesquely located in the region of Tucholska (*Veretsky*) Pass. The specialised tourism facility situated furthest to the west was Джерело Карпат in the northern part of Rozluch, in the Sanok-Turka Mountains. It comprised four 2- and 3-storey buildings with developed recreational facilities and could accommodate 140 people. Despite the fact that it was solidly built, the facility was used only seasonally, from May to October (Rutynskyi, 2012; Sossa, 1987).

The next group of facilities included sports centres which were generally unavailable to individual tourists. With a view to organizing the Winter Olympic Games in the Ukrainian Carpathians, a winter sports centre was to be built in Vorokhta. Accordingly, a large training centre was created there, including accommodation and catering facilities, as well as a boarding house in buildings called *Skocznia* and *Ukraina*, for a total of 750 people. Moreover, at Zaroslak (1,278 m above sea level) in Chornohora, after pulling down the ruins of a former shelter, a large Soviet national team sports complex was opened in 1974, preparing sportsmen and women for the Olympics. It was the highest accommodation facility in the Eastern Beskids. The two-wing building had about 40 bedrooms, a dining room, recreational facilities, a gym hall and a number of smaller rooms for guests and personnel. The centre could function all year round and received groups of Soviet, Ukrainian. Georgian and Belarusian athletes. At the same time in Slavske in the Bieszczady Mountains, in the place of a wooden building used before, the *Dynamo* centre was built, offering hotel standards. It included rooms for over 150 guests, a sauna, a sports hall and its own ski station. The next investment, mainly for groups of athletes, was the *Cheremosh* base in Verchovyna (100 places), with a football stadium, an athletics stadium and several ski jumps. There was also a training centre there (Burnashov, 1986; Nabytovych, Protsailo, 2006; Rudenko, 1985; Shulha, Onufriv, 2013).

Clusters of tourist hostels (*prijuty*) could be found in Pokuttya-Bucovina Beskids (6) and in the eastern part of the Gorgany Mountains (3), mostly in the first half of the 1970s. Their spatial distribution allowed the organization of circular hiking and skiing trips and they included check points, where the excursionists reported, as well as a mountain rescue station. For instance, the all-year-round tourist hostel *Doboshanka*, west of Yaremcha, was a wooden house with a high roof, suited for group accommodation. It included a kitchen, a tourist equipment store and a camp site. Moreover, in the 1970s, a *prijut* was organized in an adapted building in Osmoloda. The joint capacity of the 10 tourist hostels in the Eastern Beskids was around 1000 places.

Separate tourist bases were organized for children and young people. A lot of such infrastructure could be found in the Opir River valley: the first facility, established in 1955 in Dubyna near Skole (*Karpaty*), was for tents later transformed into a row of buildings providing accommodation. Their maximum capacity during

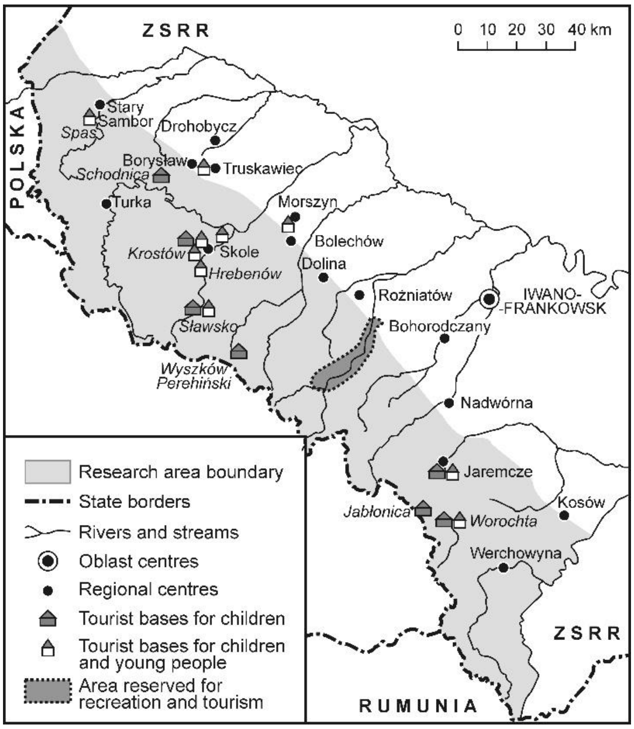

Figure 2. Distribution of accommodation facilities for specialised tourism among children and young people in the Eastern Beskids, in the 1980s
Source: authors, based on field work and Krasyi (1976), Sossa (1987), *Sovetskoe…* (1989)

the season was 180 places, including 80 in the summer-lodges. The largest complex of this type, called *Huculka*, was built in 1970 in Skhidnytsia, in the Brzeżne Beskids (Fig. 2). It was a recreational-medicinal facility, consisting of eight residential buildings (ca. 300 beds), two dining rooms and a common room. In the eastern part of the Eastern Beskids, three year-round bases were built, located centrally in Yablunytsia (*Karpaty*), Yaremcha (*Prut*) and Vorokhta (*Hoverla*). Together, they could accommodate nearly 250 people. Next, probably in the 1980s, a small accommodation facility was opened at Vyskov in the Gorgany Mountains, called *Krokus*. It was the property of the *Sputnik* organization and intended for international youth groups from socialist countries (Zinchenko, 2004). Other tourist bases for children and young people functioned in Slavske (*Polonina*) and Skole (*Verchovyna*).

As said before, camps were a particular type of infrastructure for organized groups of children and young people, including Pioneer camps. In the Eastern Beskids, the majority of them functioned in the Opir and Prut valleys and in the large health resorts of Truskavets and Morshyn (Fig. 2). Regions of particular concentration were the southern districts of Yaremcha, and Hrebeniv in the Hrebenowiec valley where they formed specific districts for a particular purpose. The camps were usually located on the peripheries of tourist destinations, at the edge of a forest, often on watercourses. A model facility consisted of the main building and a number of lightweight houses, or a group of tents, each for several people. Their characteristic feature was a concentric arrangement with the central assembly area. They covered an average area of several 'ares', though *Trembita* in Slavske and *Watra* in Hrebeniv occupied over one hectare. Camp houses were typically built of perishable construction materials, without foundations. Due to the high cost of exploitation, the provisional buildings were not very durable and relatively quickly underwent degradation, especially without maintenance for the winter. In the late 1980s, in the Eastern Beskids, there were at least 17 camps with permanent infrastructure, but most probably summer holidays were often organized at provisional locations and temporary facilities (Rudenko, 1985; Sossa, 1987; Stotska, 1997).

4. OVERNIGHT ACCOMMODATION

Starting in the late 1960s, Soviet researchers conducted intensive studies on spatial development for tourism and recreation purposes. Tourism destinations flourished and the location of individual infrastructure elements in the Eastern Beskids was chosen based on the development plans made at different spatial scales. It must be noted, however, that the planning documents concerning tourism in those times were kinds of feasibility study, focusing primarily on social needs. Planners adopted the principle of clustering infrastructure at specific destinations, leaving forested areas between them where construction was not allowed, as they were a natural 'reservoir' for recreational activities (e.g. in the Gorgany Mountains in the Perehinsk region). The high demand for new facilities resulted from a considerable increase in the employment rate in industry in the nearby large urban centres of Lviv and Ivano-Frankivsk. A positive example of planning practice is the scheme implemented in the 1980s in the territory of the Carpathian National Park. It specified some functional zones: a legally protected one where mainly scientific and research activity was conducted (8000 hectares), and a recreational one providing services for mass tourism participants and individual holiday makers. At the same time, a number of destinations in the Prut River valley were included in a spatial development plan (Dolyshnyi, 1988; Nefedova, Smyrnova, Chyzhova, Shvydchenko, 1980).

Many of the tourist facilities presented here were equipped with modern (as for that time) elements of technical and supplementary infrastructure (Table 1). This mainly concerns large *turbazas*, e.g. those in Yaremcha, Verchovyna and Sheshory. Some buildings had amenities such as international telephone connections, a sauna, cinema or gym. Others were very well

Table 1. Elements of infrastructure at selected accommodation facilities in Eastern Carpathians

Facility location	Element of infrastructure							
	central heating	telephone	ski lift	sports equipment rental	cinema	transport ticket booking	parking	rail
Yablunytsia	+	+	+	+	+	–	+	–
Yaremcha	+	+	–	+	+	+	+	+
Kosiv	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	–
Rozluch	–	–	–	+	–	–	–	+
Sheshory	–	+	–	+	+	+	+	–
Verchovyna	+	+	–	+	+	+	+	–
Zaroslak	+	No data	–	–	+	–	+	–

Key: '+' – access; '–' – no access.
Source: authors based on Sossa (1987) and field work.

Table 2. Accommodation infrastructure for specialised tourism in the Eastern Carpathians, in the 1980s

Mountain ranges	Number of accommodation facilities by type						Number of beds
	turbazas	sports centres	tourist hostels (*prijuty*)	centres for children and young people	camps for children and young people	total number of facilities	
Sanok-Turka Mountains	1	0	0	0	0	1	140
Eastern Bieszczady	2	1	0	3	4	10	1,070
Brzeżne Beskids	0	0	0	1	7	8	1,000
Gorgany	3	0	4	3	5	15	2,080
Chornohora	2	3	0	1	1	7	1,229
Pokuttya-Bucovina Beskids	3	1	6	0	0	10	1,720
Eastern Carpathians	**11**	**5**	**10**	**8**	**17**	**51**	**7,239**

In cases when there was no data regarding the number of beds, 100 was assumed.
Source: authors, based on Krasyi (1976), Nedashkovskaia (1983), Rudenko (1985), Sossa (1987).

prepared to provide services for motorized tourists (Yaremcha, Yablunytsia Pass) and equipped with advanced infrastructure for vehicle maintenance. On the other hand, many seasonal camps had only basic amenities; they lacked warm water, drinking water and a sewage system, the construction of buildings was very frail and there was no hard-surfaced access road.

All *turbazas* were designed to operate for the whole year, except those in Sheshory and Rozluche. A model complex in the Eastern Beskids consisted of 2-3 buildings, a restaurant or canteen, a parking lot and a camping area. They had different capacities, with the smallest ones operating in the Wyshkov Pass and Yaremcha (*Karpaty*) offering places for less than 50 people. The largest base was in Yaremcha (*Hutsul*), accommodating 600 tourists. As regards the number of *turbazas* in the Ukrainian SSR in those times, those located in Eastern Beskids made up 8% and the overall number of beds in the second half of the 1980s came to about 2,400-2,500. It must be added, however, that the other side was developed at a similar level with 12 *turbazas*, more scattered but of a smaller overall capacity, ca. 1,700 places (Burnashov, Hafniak, Hoshovskyi, Drukman, 1973; Chazov, 1983; Khvostenko, 1976; Krasyi, 1976; Nedashkovskaia, 1983; Sossa, 1987).

The analysis included 51 facilities offering nearly 7,300 overnight places in the mid-1980s (Table 2) as development at that time had reached its peak. The largest part of the accommodation infrastructure were seasonal camps for children and young people (17 facilities, 1,675 beds), but one third of all beds (2,384) were to be found at 11 tourist bases. The average capacity of a *turbaza* was 142 beds, with sports bases offering nearly 250 beds, and tourist hostels under 100. Generally speaking, Pokuttya-Bucovina Beskids, the Prut and Opir Rivers valleys were well developed from a tourism perspective. Investments were intentionally excluded from the Chyvchyny Mountains and Hrynyavy Mountains (due to the close distance to the Romanian border), as well as the middle and western parts of the Gorgany Mountains. According to Nedashovskaia (1983), other investments were planned for the future: ski centres in Yaremcha (150 places), Vorokhta (100) and Rozluch (500), tourist hostels in Bistrica (formerly Rafailova), Tucholka, Skole and Skhidnytsia.

It seems that in the Soviet era, due to the peripheral, border location and historical affiliations of the Carpathian Mountains, there wase not much interest in investing despite the richness of the natural and human assets. In the first years after the war, tourism practically came to a halt, except for spas where it was limited to curative stays. Until the mid-1950s, due to fighting between Soviet security forces and troops of the Ukrainian Insurgent Army, the area above the valley floors was excluded from tourism. The following decades brought a change and from then came a rapid development of tourism, while in the following years the beginnings of tourism as a common and mass phenomenon arrived. It is easy to calculate that those processes took place 10-20 years later than in other Carpathian regions.

Based on the spatial distribution of accommodation facilities, major (ranked as national) excursion trails in the Eastern Beskids were established particularly for hiking and skiing. The average duration of such an excursion was about 20 days and included river-rafting (in winter – cross-country skiing) and stays at a tourist base. In fact, only short sections of the trails were marked (e.g. in Chornohora and Pokuttya-Bukovina Beskids), and sometimes they were completely missing even close to the facilities located in the Prut valley. As in Poland, a network of tourist trails was planned along the whole Carpathian chain (Nedashkovskaia, 1983). The most popular were group coach trips, hence the rapid increase in the number of routes for motor tourists. The most important ones include the summer *Karpaty* trail from Lviv through Yaremcha to Rakhiv and Mukachevo, *Podkarpackie wodospady* – a mountain trail linking Sheshory, Yaremcha and Yablunytsia, *Do kraju karpackich mistrzów* around Yaremcha and Kosiv, as well as a number of winter trails: *Karpackie Gwiazdy* in Pokuttya-Bucovina Beskids, and *Winter Hutsul* and *Around Hutsul* (skiing trails) in the region of Yaremcha (Fig. 1). The huge popularity of such excursions was confirmed by the fact that 40 million people in the Soviet Union took part in them in 1971. Excursions were also organized along thematic trails e.g. historical or geographical. Marking the trails and describing them in guidebooks triggered the development of water tourism with the most popular rivers included the Dniester above Turka, and the Chornyi Cheremosh from Burkut. However, there was no infrastructure, such as riverside hostels, moorings and bases. It can be assumed that individual tourism existed, but was quite limited (Chazov, 1983; Horbunov, 1969; Jackowski, 1979). Tourist penetration of the Eastern Beskids at the level of *oblasts* and regions was of the linear-nodal type (due to the accommodation infrastructure, tourist trails and routes), while in spas it was typically centred.

In the times of the Soviet Union, skiing was part of defence and physical fitness training. Slavske and Vorokhta became important winter sports resorts in the Ukrainian SSR (Struk, 1993) and the accommodation infrastructure and skiing facilities were relatively well developed. In 1962, a large ski jump was built (with artificial covering) and in the 1970s seven ski lifts, as well as a number of winter mountain trails and biathlon paths, were set up. Due to those investments, annual championships of republic and national sports associations were held in Slavske and Vorokhta (Burnashov, Hafniak, Hoshovskyi, Drukman, 1973; Fyrsel, 1976; Nabytovych, Protsailo, 2006).

The political dimension of tourism was visible when trails for organized excursions were established. The tourists were nearly always led along permanent trails, which typically included sites related to national heroes, World War II events (battlefields, monuments commemorating Soviet soldiers and partisans) or the achievements of collectivization and industrialization. In this way, tourism organizers developed a selective memory of the past 'based on current needs'. Guidebooks to the Eastern Beskids published before the 1970s rarely included information useful for individual tourists, such as a detailed description of the accommodation and catering infrastructure, transport time tables or the exact location of shops (Katel, 1968; Peacock, 2014; Qualls, 2006). At this point, we must agree with Orlov (2014) who indicates that it was the political and ideological factors that determined the scale and geography of excursions, as well as the personnel and type of tourist group.

While in the first years after the war, tourism was oriented mainly towards spas (medicinal and recreational stays), in the 1970s geographical excursions and hikes started to gain in popularity. They were organized by the Central Council for Tourist Excursions in Lviv and coordinated by local clubs (e.g. *Berkut* from Sambor – the Borislav urban club, the *Cyklop* cycling club from Lviv). Other organizers included youth associations and their press (e.g. *Lenin's Youth*). The content and purpose of these events were often of an ideological and political nature which was reflected in their naming and the occasions honoured e.g. 'Lenin's 100th birthday', 'the 54th anniversary of the October Revolution', 'the 24th convention of the Ukrainian and Soviet Communist Party', or 'the 25th anniversary of Ukraine's liberation from Nazi occupation'. The description of the excursions implies that the main tourist interest was in natural features, especially the landscapes of the Eastern Beskids. From the early 1960s, annual group climbs of Mount Hoverla in Chornohora and Mount Pikui in the Bieszczady Mountains were organized. They were very popular; for instance, in 1969, the 6th climb to Mount Hoverla was joined by 1856 people, and in 1970, 3000 climbed to the top of Pikui. The climbers came from the south-western part of the Ukrainian SSR, i.e. from Chernivtsi, Ivano-Frankivsk, Lviv, Poltava, Volyn and Zakarpattya *Oblasts*. Political elements were also easily detectable in other forms of spending leisure time on tourism conventions and competitions which integrated young people aged 16-25 from socialist countries. Regular events of this type were held in the Prut valley (Yaremcha, Yablunytsia, She-shory, Mykulychyn and Vorokhta) and Opir valley (Kropivnik, Hrebeniv and Skole). Divided into large teams, the participants competed in numerous categories

Table 3. The number of children staying at summer Pioneer camps in the countryside, Lviv *oblast*, in 1950-1985 (excluding town camps)

Year	1950	1960	1965	1970	1975	1980	1984	1985
Number of people [thousands]	14.1	21.9	29.9	35.4	40.7	35.8	36.3	38.6

Source: authors, based on *Lvivshchyna…* (1982), *Lvivska…* (1986).

(specialised tourist techniques, orienteering, historical and geographical knowledge). In 1969, the nationalities of those participating in *Vesnianka* the 9th convention in the village of Topolnytsia (Staryi Sambir *oblast*) included Belarusians, Bulgarians, Czechs, Estonians, Georgians, Poles, Russians, Tatars and Hungarians. It can be estimated that about 250-300,000 people took part in the excursions and conventions organized by the Central Council for Tourist Excursions in Lviv, in the 1970s with 80% of them choosing the particularly popular one-day excursions. On the other hand, organized groups of foreign tourists (mainly from socialist countries) were sent by the *Intourist* agency to selected accommodation facilities which offered the highest standards. In the Eastern Beskids, they included places like the bases in Yaremcha (*Hutsul*) and the Yablunytsia Pass (*Berkut*) (DALO Fond 3105, description 1, case 37, 20; Fond 3105, description 1, case 59, 5; Fond 3105, description 8, case 35, 30-156, 222, 259; Jackowski 1979; Qualls 2006).

The lack of materials presenting the scale of participation of specialised tourism during the Soviet period seriously hampers the quantitative analysis of this issue. Based on fragmentary data on the number of children staying at Pioneer summer camps in Lviv *oblast* over several decades, it is possible to conduct an analysis. However, it can be confirmed with a large degree of certainty that this type of accommodation infrastructure was very popular in the 1970s and 1980s (Table 3).

5. SUMMARY

In the Eastern Carpathians region, tourism during the Soviet period was planned. The change of the formal and organizational conditions of tourism in the late 1960s made it possible to rapidly develop the accommodation infrastructure in the decades that followed. The 1970s and 1980s were the time of the most spectacular growth of tourist accommodation and tourism itself in the Eastern Carpathians and 51 facilities were planned to accommodate about 7300 people. They were located mostly in the easily accessible valleys of the Opir and Prut Rivers and the surrounding area. It is worth mentioning at this point that before World War II, the area in question featured 141 tourist hostels, shelters and overnight bases, offering nearly 4200 beds in 1939. In both periods, the Opir and Prut River Valleys were still a significantarea for organizing camps for children and young people. Vorokhta and Slavske maintained and developed their function as winter sports centres. Thus, we can talk about a continuation of the pre-war tradition in this respect.

After the 1991 turn and the crisis of state tourism financing, three main trends in the development of accommodation infrastructure for specialised tourism can be seen. The largest group includes unused, abandoned or ruined facilities – numerous shelters and bases such as *Pereval* in the Verecke (Tucholska) Pass, *Źródło Karpat* in Rozluch and *Serebryane vodopady* in Sheshory. Following ownership transformations and modernization, there are still fully working facilities in Vorokhta, Verchovyna, Kasiv, Yablunytsia Pass, as well as partly working ones in Skole and Slavske. Due to their attractive location, some buildings were pulled down and replaced with new ones which performed a different function, e.g. the *Hutsul* base in Yaremcha. Contemporary facilities situated above river valley floors include the shelter *Na Płyściach* in the Gorgany Mountains, the property of the Carpathian Paths Foundation and opened in 2008, as well as several unfurnished shelters.

ENDNOTE

[1] This paper is a continuation of the authors' discussion on tourist accommodation infrastructure in the area in question. The interwar period was described in articles by Quirini-Popławski (2011, 2018).

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IDENTIFICATION AND EVALUATION OF FACTORS INFLUENCING SPORTS FAN ATTENDANCE AT INTERNATIONAL EVENTS: VOLLEYBALL CASE STUDY

Abstract: The article presents unpublished results of research conducted among fans at the 2014 FIVB Volleyball Men's World Championship (1618 respondents to a direct questionnaire survey). Its aim is to describe selected motives and barriers to attendance at international sports events. The analysis attempts to obtain information about the importance of particular factors and barriers for respondents, their relative importance and to derive a model from the correlation between these variables to explain the attendance of fans at international sports events.

Keywords: sport and tourism demand, motives and barriers, sports tourism, international sporting events, sports fans.

1. INTRODUCTION

Sports tourism is one of the most dynamically developing types of travel, especially in the form of trips to international sporting events (Kazimierczak, Malchrowicz-Mośko, 2013; Standeven, DeKnop, 1999). Hadzik (2014) points to the need to explain the theoretical background as it seems to be lagging behind the development of practice in this field.

An important issue is knowledge of demand conditions[1] as this determines the effectiveness of those managing the offer for consumers. It is particularly desirable to conduct a survey of consumer needs and preferences (Kaczmarek, Stasiak, Włodarczyk, 2010; Kramer, 1997).

This trend includes getting to know the conditions for attendance at international sporting events for consumers. The aim of the article is to present unpublished results of exploratory research conducted among fans of the men's World Volleyball Championships in 2014 (1618 respondents to a direct questionnaire survey) and investigate the hierarchy of importance and internal correlations between factors influencing attendance in the form of motives and barriers, and to search for significant correlations between particular factors and the demographic variables of the studied fans.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

The factors influencing sports tourism are complex. In the literature there are many lists of the factors influencing attendance at major sporting events. Klisiński (2011) distinguishes environmental and personal factors analogous to external and internal conditions (Pilarczyk, Mruk, 2006). Internal (personal) factors include needs, motives, perception, attitudes, personality and learning. On the other hand, external (environmental) conditions include economic factors (income, prices) and socio-cultural (family, reference groups, opinion leaders, social group, culture).

Pitts & Stotlar (2002) describing the motives of those attending sporting events distinguish several factors:

– socio-demographic (gender, age, education, income, distance from venue),
– economic (ticket price, TV broadcasts, other available leisure activities),
– sport (participation of 'stars', team's style of play (offensive or defensive), the level of competition, the stake, promotion, announcements),
– perceptual (day of the week, weather conditions, number of spectators, violence during games).

There is a current of research in the literature, based on Maslow's model of human needs, aimed at finding

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Table 1. Models of sports event attendance factors

Authors	Factors	Psychometric scale
Sloan (1989)	Health effects, eustress and stimulation, catharsis and aggression, entertainment and achievements	–
Milne, McDonald (1999) in: Won, Kitamura (2007)	Stress release, skill mastery, aesthetics, self-esteem, self-actualization, value development, social facilitation, affiliation, achievement, risk-taking, aggression, and competition	MSC – Motivations of the Sport Consumer)
Wann, Schrader, Wilson (1999) in: Hadzik (2016)	(1) Motive related to the need to spend free time with family and relatives, (2) theme based on the stimulation of the so-called positive stress (eustress) – cheering stimulates action and is a source of entertainment and pleasure, (3) motive associated with the need to belong - cheering is the space for social contacts, (4) motive based on 'escape' – passive attendance at sport allows to 'escape' from stress, life problems, boredom and the monotony of everyday life, (5) motive related to the need to raise the self-esteem of fans when the team or a sportsman wins, (6) motive based on the need for the entertainment during leisure time, (7) a theme linked to the need for 'spectacularity' which can be achieved through attendance at many modern sporting events, particularly those with a global reach, (8) an economic motive based on the need for betting at bookmaker for profit	SFMS – Sport Fan Motivation Scale
Trail, James (2001)	Achievement, acquisition of knowledge, aesthetics, drama/eustress, escape, family, physical attractiveness of participants, the quality of the physical skill of the participants and social interaction	MSSC – Motivation Scale for Sport Consumption
Neale, Funk (2006)	Vicarious achievement, player interest, entertainment value, drama and socialisation	Sport Interest Inventory
Funk, Filo, Beaton, Pritchard (2009)	Socialisation, performance (effectiveness level), excitement, (stimulation/enthusiasm level), esteem (sense of achievement level), diversion (level of positive change/escape from the nuisance of everyday life)	SPEED Model, Socialization, Performance, Excitement, Esteem and Diversion
Kim, Trail (2010)	Scale consists of many dimensions: – internal motivators (escape, affiliation, achievements, identification with the team: its community, coach, level, players, discipline) – external motivators (aesthetics and dramaturgy, media, advertising) – internal constraints (lack of knowledge, lack of success, lack of someone to watch the event with, lack of interest from the others) – external constraints (parking, location, nuisance, financial costs, alternative forms of recreation, alternative forms of attendance)	Scale for Motivators and Constraints of Sport Consumption (SMCSC)

Source: author's compilation.

the best model of sports fan motivation (Waśkowski, 2007, in: Hadzik, Ryśnik, Tomik, 2015) (Table 1).

However, it is pointed out that the usefulness of many of these models is limited due to the difficulty of applying results (Funk, Filo, Beaton, Pritchard, 2009). An analysis of motives explains the core of the marketing product but is less indicative of the desired elements of other levels.

Research approaches such as the SPEED scale (Funk, Filo, Beaton, Pritchard, 2009) or the approach proposed by Kim & Trail (2010) meet these expectations (Table 1). They combine studies of fan motivation with other behavioural factors. Examples include team identification (Robinson, Trail 2005), buying mementoes (Trail, Anderson, Fink, 2002), attending sports events (Kruger, Saayman, 2012; Trail, Fink, Anderson, 2003), future attendance and loyalty to a team (Fink, Trail, Anderson, 2002), demand for match tickets affecting ticket prices (Kemper, Breuer, 2015; Shapiro, Drayer, 2014).

Travel is an extremely important activity for a fan and it involves a number of incentives for attendance at sporting events. Szczechowicz postulates the explanation of a specific 'common space' formed at the junction of sport and tourism and indicates shortcomings in explaining from a theoretical point of view the relations existing between tourism and sport (Szczechowicz, 2015). For example, the question is asked whether tourism and sport generate certain unique values which manifest themselves in a specific synergistic effect (Weed, 2008, in: Szczechowicz, 2015). This is confirmed, amongst others, by the observations of Weed & Bull (2004), Smith & Stewart (2007) and Ryśnik, Żylak & Tomik (2018) who claim that sport and tourism have a lot in common.

Hadzik (2016) states that attendance at sporting events is also determined by the specific conditions of the tourist attractiveness of the event and the venue. For sports fans, the following elements may be important: the possibility of sightseeing while travelling (e.g. natural attractions, cultural monuments, museums, cultural attractions of a sport and recreational nature), the use of sports and recreation facilities, accessibility to night life, the entertainment offer and attendance at non-sport events (Hadzik, Ryśnik, Tomik, 2015).

Attendance at sporting events also depends on barriers. Economic obstacles are significant (Hadzik, Bartík, 2012; Wojdakowski, 2008) and depend on the necessity of

Table 2. Models of travel factors influencing attendance at sporting events

Authors	Factors/barriers
Yu (2010)	Cost and ease of arranging travel plans, interest in professional sports, different cultural experience, interest in travel, experience of watching live sporting events, and the chance to see Asian players or famous US players in the games
Mohan, Thomas (2012)	Travel decisions are influenced by: – distance – the scheduling of matches (e.g., weekends or weekdays) – time spent travelling – cost of accommodation – the cost of transport – mode of transport
Fairley (2009)	Means of transport as a way of building group identity
Ahn, Lee (2014)	The home team's record, outcome uncertainty, size, and quality of the stadium, playing styles
Surdam (2009)	Non-price determinants of demand for individual games: the day of the week, quality of the opposition, and special events
Simmons, Popp, McEvoy, Howell (2018)	Attendance constraints: prior commitments to school and work, beverage costs, poor team performance, and watching the game on television, time commitment necessary to attend, lack of interest in football
Nishio (2014)	The International Sports Fan Constraints Scale: alternative leisure options, security, the lack of tourist attractiveness, different culture, companions and distance.
Anthony, Kahn, Madison, Paul,Weinbach (2014)	Winning percentage, weather conditions, local income and population, and individual game promotion such as fireworks

Source: author's compilation.

paying for admission, transport, accommodation, meals, as well as additional services such as entertainment. Another obstacle may be the lack of flexibility in managing other resources, such as free time, caused by unfavourable dates (Wojdakowski, 2011).

Examples of research into factors influencing travel for the purpose of sport tourism are presented in Table 2.

The set of variables used in the research described in the article was selected from the presented literature on the basis of three premises: (1) comprehensive study of the impact of combined spaces of sport and tourism, (2) barriers, (3) study of aspects close to the operational level of sports and tourism product managers.

3. METHOD AND ORGANISATION OF THE SURVEY

The research was conducted by using the anonymous diagnostic survey method. The research was conducted on fans who were present at the matches of the 2014 men's volleyball World Championships (August and September 2014) at the 'Spodek' sports arena in Katowice.[2] The research was carried out at the time when the fans gathered in the arena prior to the matches and involved the fans filling in the questionnaire by themselves.

The variables used in the study included following features measured on a six-degree scale ('no important factor/important barrier' (0) to 'very important factor/ important barrier' (5)):

– the importance of barriers to attendance at volleyball matches of the national volleyball team
– the importance of the factors of attendance at the volleyball matches of the national team
– the importance of additional recreational and tourist services accompanying the volleyball matches of the national team.

The survey also asked about the demographic, social and economic variables of the respondents, i.e. gender, size of place of residence, age, education, professional status and income. The survey also made it possible to distinguish between domestic and foreign fans (origin).

The following research hypotheses were formulated in order to proceed with the research:

Hypothesis 1: Assessment of the importance of particular factors of attendance in sporting events varies depending on the characteristics of respondents, such as:
– gender
– origin (Poland/foreign).

Hypothesis 2: Assessment of the importance of different factors influencing attendance at sporting events.

Hypothesis 3: Particular assessments of factors influencing attendance at sporting events are correlated with demographic characteristics of respondents, such as age, education, professional status, income, marital status and origin (Polish/foreign).

Hypothesis 4: In analysing multidimensional correlations among the variables constituting the factors influencing attendance at sports events, it is possible to distinguish hidden factors using exploratory factor analysis as a method of analysis.

The calculations were performed mainly with the help of SAS Enterprise Guide 6.1., MS Excel 2010 and STATISTICA 13.1.

4. CHARACTERISTICS OF THE TEST SAMPLE

The database that was created as a result of the survey includes information from 1618 respondents. This number is greater than the estimated minimum sample size considering the population (with an error of 5% for a population of about 50,000 fans of this event[3] and a confidence level of 0.95, the minimum sample size is 381 respondents) (Steczkowski, 1995).

The majority of the respondents were from Poland (1478/91.34%). The majority were men (55.98%) (Table 3)

Table 3. Gender and origin of respondents

		Gender			Total
		No answer	Women	Men	
		Quantity	Quantity	Quantity	Quantity
Origin	Poland	17	642	819	1,478
	Abroad	4	61	75	140
Total		21	703	894	1,618

Source: author using the SAS package.

Table 4. Number of inhabitants in the place of residence, age, education

Size of domicile	Supporters	
	number	percentage (%)
Up to 10,000 inhabitants	327	20.85
11-49,000	367	23.41
50-99,000	499	31.82
100-499,000	286	18.24
500-999,000	69	4.40
>1 000 000	20	1.28
missing data = 50		
Age	number	percentage (%)
Less than 18	219	13.82
From 19 to 25	652	41.14
From 26 to 35	405	25.55
From 36 to 45	185	11.67
From 46 to 55	89	5.62
From 56 to 65	28	1.77
More than 66	7	0.44
missing data = 33		
Education	number	percentage (%)
Primary	136	8.62
Vocational	146	9.25
Secondary	481	30.48
Higher incomplete	238	15.08
Higher	577	36.57
missing data = 40		

Source: author using the SAS package.

and fans living in cities with 50-99,000 inhabitants (Table 3). The most numerous age group are those aged 19-25 and 26-35 (Table 4).

The majority of the respondents had higher education (Table 4). A large number were employed or students (Table 5). The majority were unmarried (Table 5).

Table 5. Occupational and marital status of respondents

	Employed	Unemployed	Retired	Pensioner	Student
Quantity	918	233	33	13	509
(%)	56.74	14.40	2.04	0.80	31.46
	Single		Married	Divorced	Widow/ widower
Quantity	1031		490	32	8
(%)	63.72		30.28	1.98	0.49

Source: author using the SAS package.

5. RESULTS (STRUCTURAL ANALYSIS)

The distribution of barriers (Table 6) indicates that cost associated with travelling to an international event and the need to find free time are the most burdensome obstacles. The least important barriers were safety considerations during the trip, the event and the match itself.

By examining the significance of the difference between the mean values for particular barriers, it is possible to rank them in order of importance (Table 7).

Similarly, the importance of a group of variable factors (stimulants) for the attendance of fans in sports events was measured (Table 8) and their obtained hierarchy of importance was analysed (Table 9).

The most important factor within these variables is the willingness to attend the event. The least important factor was prestige.

With regard to the factors determining the importance of an additional tourist offer, the surveyed fans valued especially the chance to attend an additional event (e.g. a concert) as well (Tables 10, 11).

6. RESULTS – ANALYSIS OF GENDER AND ORIGIN-RELATED DIFFERENCES IN IMPORTANCE ASSESSMENTS

Table 12 presents the results of an analysis of the significance of difference between the average figures characterizing the distribution of responses by gender.

Table 13 presents the results of an analysis of the significance of differences between figures characterizing the distribution of responses by origin of respondents.

Table 6. Distribution of responses concerning the importance of barriers

Variable	Description	Mean	Sd. Dev.	Mode	N	N omission	Median
3.1. Date	The match timeframe constrains fans	2.287	1.613	3	1604	14	3
3.2. Cost	Travel expenses for volleyball matches	**3.016**	1.490	3	1606	12	3
3.3. Safety	Safety concerns during travel and match	1.547	1.557	0	1595	23	1
3.4. Promotion	Inappropriate promotion of national team matches	2.031	1.693	0	1598	20	2
3.5. Acquisition	Buying tickets for matches	**2.776**	1.644	3	1596	22	3
3.6. Offer	Offer at the matches alone	2.195	1.597	3	1581	37	2
3.7. Time	Lack of free time	**2.801**	1.651	4	1594	24	3
3.8. Other	Other	1.364	1.948	0	165	1453	0

Source: author using the SAS package.

Table 7. Importance of barriers

	3.2. Cost	3.7. Time	3.5. Aquisition	3.1. Date	3.6. Offer	3.4. Promotion	3.3. Safety
Average assesment	3.02	2.80	2.78	2.29	2.20	2.03	1.55
Position	**1**	**2**		**3**		**4**	**5**

Source: author using the Statistica package.

Table 8. Distribution of responses concerning attendance factors

Variable	Description	Mean	Std. Dev.	Moda	N	N omissions	Median
7.1.type	Type of competition (e.g. European Championship)	**3.892**	1.340	5	1,593	25	4
7.2. rivalry	Possibility of a close-knit match	**3.875**	1.179	5	1,605	13	4
7.3. brand	Fame of rival teams	3.637	1.324	4	1,597	21	4
7.4. relax	Relaxation, entertainment	**3.898**	1.205	5	1,603	15	4
7.5. live	Willingness to watch the match live	**4.139**	1.085	5	1,604	14	4
7.6. prestige	Prestige of being a fan of the national team	2.988	1.687	5	1,602	16	3
7.7. stake	Match stake	3.305	1.440	3	1,601	17	3
7.8. level	Anticipated sports level	3.636	1.162	4	1,602	16	4
7.9. star	Live view of a volleyball star	3.802	1.261	5	1,599	19	4
7.10. family	Opportunity to go to a match with family	3.788	1.228	5	1,603	15	4
7.11. place	Place of competition	3.557	1.355	5	1,597	21	4
7.12. other	Other	1.440	1.939	0	116	1502	0

Source: author using the SAS package.

Table 9. Importance of attendance factors

	7.5. live	7.1. type	7.2. rivalry	7.4. relax	7.9.star	7.10. family	7.3. brand	7.8. level	7.11. place	7.7. stake	7.6. prestige
Average assessment	4.14	3.89	3.87	3.90	3.80	3.79	3.64	3.64	3.56	3.30	2.99
Position	**1**	**2**					**3**	**4**		**5**	**6**

Source: author using the Statistica package.

Table 10. Distribution of variables indicating the importance of an additional tourist offer

Variable	Description	Mean	Std. Dev.	Moda	N	N omissions	Median
8.1. Recreation, sport	Physical recreation, sport	2.160	1.655	0	1,521	97	2
8.2. Nature	Natural attractions	2.067	1.521	3	1,601	17	2
8.3. Entertainment	Entertainment offer	**2.354**	1.608	3	1,592	26	3
8.4. Culture	Cultural attractions	**2.420**	1.541	3	1,605	13	3
8.5. Parties	Additional events	**2.591**	1.525	3	1,605	13	3
8.6. Other	Other	1.349	1.918	0	146	1,472	0

Source: author using the SAS package.

Table 11. Importance of factors concerning the additional tourist offer

	8.5. Parties	8.3. Entertainment	8.4. Culture	8.1. Recreation, sport	8.2. Nature
Average assessment	2.59	2.35	2.42	2.16	2.07
The position in the hierarchy	**1**	**2**		**3**	**4**

Source: author using the STATISTICA package.

Table 12. Assessment of significant differences in relation to gender

Variable	Differentiation based on gender			
	Mean for women	Mean for men	p^a	Interpretation Barrier/factor more important for
3.1. Date	2.178	2.382	0.012[a]	Men
3.2. Cost	3.109	2.960	0.040[a]	Women
3.3. Safety	1.492	1.596	0.154	No significant difference
3.4. Promotion	1.912	2.135	0.009[a]	Men
3.5. Acquisition	2.722	2.834	0.180	No significant difference
3.6. Offer	2.052	2.309	0.001[a]	Men
3.7. Time	2.617	2.948	0.000[a]	Men
3.8. Other	1.107	1.558	0.188	No significant difference
7.1. Type	3.783	3.979	0.028[a]	Men
7.2. Rivalry	3.790	3.938	0.045[a]	Men
7.3. Brand	3.458	3.789	1.3214534E-6[a]	Men
7.4. Relax	3.987	3.832	0.007[a]	Women
7.5. Live	4.264	4.037	0.000032[a]	Women
7.6. Prestige	2.810	3.129	0.00059[a]	Women
7.7. Stake	3.110	3.461	5.113981E-6[a]	Men
7.8. Level	3.529	3.722	0.004[a]	Men
7.9. Star	3.831	3.775	0.291	No significant difference
7.10. Family	3.784	3.791	0.757	No significant difference
7.11. Place	3.503	3.611	0.095[a]	Men
7.12. Other	1.208	1.525	0.253	No significant difference
8.1. Recreation, sport	2.027	2.268	0.004[a]	Men
8.2. Nature	2.044	2.095	0.505	No significant difference
8.3. Entertainment	2.267	2.431	0.041[a]	Men
8.4. Culture	2.469	2.390	0.276	No significant difference
8.5. Parties	2.723	2.490	0.001[a]	women
8.6. Other	1.471	1.219	0.514	No significant difference

[a] p calculated for Wilcoxon's test of mean differences, significant when $p<0.05$
Source: author using the SAS package.

Table 13. Assessment of significant differences in relation to origin of respondents

Variable	Differentiation based on origin			
	Mean for fan from PL	Mean for fan from abroad	p^a	Interpretation Barrier/factor more important for
3.1. Date	2.292	2.237	0.803	No significant difference
3.2. Cost	3.084	2.297	2.9500759E-8	Polish fan
3.3. Safety	1.502	2.022	0.001	Fan from abroad
3.4. Promotion	2.001	2.356	0.012	Fan from abroad
3.5. Acquisition	2.828	2.215	0.000066	Polish fan
3.6. Offer	2.201	2.131	0.695	No significant difference
3.7. Time	2.796	2.848	0.958	No significant difference
3.8. Other	1.329	1.560	0.376	No significant difference
7.1. Type	3.890	3.914	0.241	No significant difference
7.2. Rivalry	3.899	3.620	0.0006	Polish fan
7.3. Brand	3.684	3.146	2.7934413E-8	Polish fan
7.4. Relax	3.963	3.216	4.078027E-12	Polish fan

Variable	Differentiation based on origin			
	Mean for fan from PL	Mean for fan from abroad	p^a	Interpretation Barrier/factor more important for
7.5. Live	4.169	3.827	0.00002	Polish fan
7.6. Prestige	2.977	3.095	0.985	No significant difference
7.7. Stake	3.336	2.971	0.001	Polish fan
7.8. Level	3.674	3.228	1.0761468E-6	Polish fan
7.9. Star	3.845	3.343	3.246329E-7	Polish fan
7.10. Family	3.811	3.543	0.003	Polish fan
7.11. Place	3.582	3.292	0.012	Polish fan
7.12. Other	1.392	1.684	0.668	No significant difference
8.1. Recreation, sport	2.128	2.534	0.006	Fan from abroad
8.2. Nature	2.019	2.584	0.00002	Fan from abroad
8.3. Entertainment	2.341	2.504	0.231	No significant difference
8.4. Culture	2.364	3.007	2.4180173E-6	Fan from abroad
8.5. Parties	2.592	2.580	0.794	No significant difference
8.6. Other	1.283	1.789	0.242	No significant difference

[a] *p* calculated for Wilcoxon's test of mean differences, significant when $p<0.05$
Source: author using the SAS package.

Among the barriers, Polish fans were more aware of the problem of the cost of a trip to a sports event (trip + ticket). For foreign visitors the sense of security and appropriate promotion of the event were more important.

In terms of factors, Polish fans considered virtually all the factors examined in the research as more important than foreign fans. Only in the area of access to additional recreational, sports and cultural offer did foreign fans indicate higher importance.

7. RESULTS – ANALYSIS OF CORRELATIONS OF THE ANALYSED VARIABLES

Using the one-dimensional correlation analysis, significant correlations within the data set were analyzed. Relations with a correlation coefficient greater than 0.2 or less than –0.2 were interpreted (see Table 14).

Within demographic variables, detected relationships are intuitive and confirm obvious patterns present in society. The age of the respondents correlates positively with the such features as income of respondents, professional status and education level. A higher level of education positively correlates with having employment. Professional status is related to age, education and income of the respondents.

An interesting positive relationship exists between income level and the importance of the 'inconvenient match date' barrier (0.205) as well as between the age of the respondents and the importance of the 'lack of free time' barrier (0.202).

8. RESULTS – EXPLORATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS OF THE DATA SET

Exploratory factor analysis was used to identify multidimensional relationships between individual variables (importance of barriers, factors and additional factors in tourism) of the model describing the 'predisposition of the respondents to attend sports events'.

The input data set meets the necessary prerequisites for factorial analysis methodology. The sample in the data set is larger than the minimum recommended in the literature, which is 100 (Barret, Kline, 1981, in: Zakrzewska,

Table 14. Correlation detected with a Rho Spearman coefficient less than –0.2 or greater than 0.2 at a significance level of 0.05

	Age	Education	Employed	Income pl	Income euro	3.1. date	3.7. time
Age	1	0.315	0.382	0.472	0.399		0.202
Education		1	0.262				
Employed			1	0.235			
Income pl				1			
Income euro					1	0.205	
3.1.Date						1	
3.7. Time							1

Source: author using the SAS package.

1994) or 200 (Comrey, 1978, in: Zakrzewska, 1994). Cronbach's alpha coefficient at a high level (0.824) indicates the reliability of the scale used. The KMO measure shows a level indicating that correlations between pairs of variables can be explained by other variables (MSA = 0.85709256).[4] Bartlett's test (Table 15) result suggests that one can reject the hypothesis that the correlation matrix is a unit matrix at a significance level of less than 0.05, which means that variables are not independent from each other and there are common factors in the data set (Zakrzewska, 1994).

Table 15. Value of coefficients in Bartlett's sphericity test

	Bartlett's sphericity test		
	Chi square	Degrees of freedom	*p* value
1	8869.850	253	0.0000

Source: author using the STATISTICA package.

In the analysis, five common factors were obtained with a value greater than one with 16 input variables (5/16), which meets the criterion of Kaiser concerning the number of common factors necessary and sufficient to explain the interrelationship within the group of variables.[5]

Due to the excessive number of distinguished components that would explain 75% of the variance recommended in the literature (Zakrzewska, 1994), in order to avoid interpretation problems of the factorial structure, the criterion of 50% variance was applied and five common factors were distinguished (Table 16). The distinguishing of five common factors is justified by the scree test for the eigenvalues characterizing the individual components (Figure 1). With a certain degree of caution, they can be used to deduce from the population surveyed.

Table 16. Eigenvalues of the correlation matrix

Components	Correlation matrix eigenvalues: total = 23, mean = 1			
	Eigenvalue	Difference	Share	Cumulative
1	**4.897**	**2.442**	**0.213**	**0.213**
2	**2.455**	**0.389**	**0.107**	**0.320**
3	**2.066**	**0.815**	**0.090**	**0.410**
4	**1.251**	**0.225**	**0.054**	**0.464**
5	**1.026**	**0.060**	**0.045**	**0.509**
6	0.966	0.110	0.042	0.551
7	0.856	0.039	0.037	0.588
8	0.817	0.010	0.036	0.623
9	0.807	0.060	0.035	0.658
10	0.746	0.028	0.032	0.691
(…)	…	…	…	…
23	0.312		0.014	1.000

Source: author using the SAS package.

In the analysis of the saturation of the distinguished factors by particular raw variables (Table 17), the values of loadings higher than or very close to 0.5 were treated as significant (Zakrzewska, 1994).

The obtained common factors were interpreted and ordered from the most to the least differentiating group (Table 18). A five-element factorial model determining the motivation of the respondents to participate in sports events was achieved.

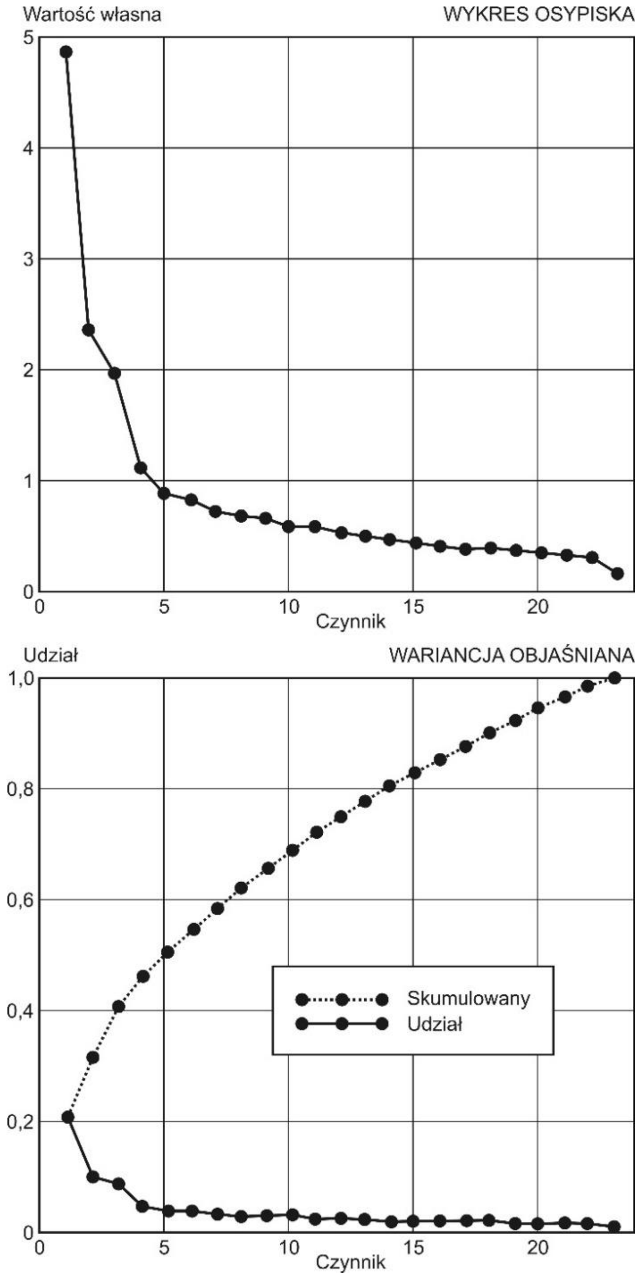

Figure 1. Scree test
Source: author using the SAS package

Table 17. Factor loadings: system of factors rotated using the 'orthogonal varimax' method
[bold values of correlation coefficients greater or very close to 0.5]

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5
stnd_8.2. Nature	**0.797**	0.170	0.078	0.037	–0.016
stnd_8.4. Culture	**0.782**	0.067	0.087	0.170	–0.118
stnd_8.5. Parties	**0.775**	0.095	0.046	0.129	0.045
stnd_8.3. Entertainment	**0.736**	0.105	0.040	0.026	0.154
stnd_8.1. Recreation, sport	**0.645**	0.164	0.016	–0.007	0.223
stnd_3.3. Safety	0.135	**0.710**	–0.013	0.039	0.153
stnd_3.4. Promotion	0.149	**0.682**	0.014	–0.021	0.088
stnd_3.6. Offer	0.182	**0.665**	0.046	–0.019	0.249
stnd_3.1.Date	0.132	**0.650**	0.173	–0.036	–0.005
stnd_3.7. Ttime	–0.018	**0.582**	0.205	0.024	–0.201
stnd_3.2. Cost	0.080	**0.538**	0.041	0.153	–0.145
stnd_3.5. Acquisition	0.013	**0.496**	0.058	0.032	0.280
stnd_7.1. Type	0.077	0.079	**0.732**	0.056	0.008
stnd_7.3. Brand	0.005	0.124	**0.683**	0.064	0.102
stnd_7.2. Rivalry	0.054	0.034	**0.661**	0.233	–0.040
stnd_7.8. Level	0.024	0.040	**0.626**	0.083	0.300
stnd_7.7. Stake	0.050	0.115	**0.570**	–0.030	0.442
stnd_7.11. Place	0.124	0.169	0.363	0.290	–0.083
stnd_7.4. Relax	0.081	0.100	0.130	**0.710**	0.036
stnd_7.5. Live	0.028	–0.116	0.140	**0.704**	0.058
stnd_7.10. Family	0.131	0.101	0.077	**0.684**	0.206
stnd_7.6. Prestige	0.152	0.174	0.132	0.164	**0.700**
stnd_7.9. Star	0.093	–0.036	0.329	0.323	**0.494**

Source: author using the SAS package.

Table 18. Interpretation of the layout of common factors

Factor	Items in the Factor	Decription	Interpretation
1	*8.1. Rekreacja, sport* *8.2. Przyroda* *8.3. Rozrywka* *8.4. Kultura* *8.5. Imprezy*	Physical recreation, sport Natural attractions Entertainment offer Cultural attractions Additional events	Availability of additional services (tourist attractions) accompanying the event
2	*3.1. Termin* *3.2. Koszty* *3.3. Bhp* *3.4. Promocja* *3.5. Zakup* *3.6. Oferta* *3.7. Czas*	The match timeframe constrains fans Travel expenses for volleyball matches Safety concerns during travel and match Inappropriate promotion of national team matches Buying tickets for matches Offer at the matches alone Lack of free time	Barriers
3	*7.1. Rodzaj* *7.2. Walka* *7.3. Marka* *7.7. Stawka* *7.8. Poziom*	Type of competition (e.g. European Championship) Possibility of a close-knit sports match Brand (fame) of rival teams Match stake Anticipated sports level	Attractiveness of a sporting event in terms of its sport level
4	*7.4. Relax* *7.5. Na żywo* *7.10. Rodzina*	Relaxation, entertainment The willingness to watch the match live Opportunity to go to a match with beloved ones	Recreational function of the show – free time spent with the family in an attractive way
5	*7.6. Prestiż* *7.9. Gwiazda*	Prestige of being a fan of the national team Live view of a volleyball star	Prestige – feeling the prestige of an event

Source: author.

9. CONCLUSION

On the basis of the presented research results it is possible to check the verification of the hypotheses formulated in the research process (Table 19).

The conclusions of the verification of the hypotheses can be considered as the theoretical contribution. It can be compared to the results obtained by authors using the MSSC scale (Table 20).

The comparison of the obtained results with selected cases using the popular MSSC scale or its modification shows several similarities. The high position of the motives of Dramaturgy and Achievements, as well as the position of family motives seem to be consistent with other studies. The escape motive is always visible in the middle. The place of social meetings in the hierarchy, which can be both at the end and at the beginning, is unclear. Differences in the obtained results may be caused by differences between the studied groups, as well as on the applied research scale.

The obtained five factor model of attendance in sports events is also a contribution to the theory (Fig. 2, Table 18).

Due to the reliability merits of the model obtained, the measurement scale used in the research questionnaire may be considered an alternative way of analysing the willingness to attend major sports events. In comparison to the approaches already used in Poland and abroad for fan research, one should pay attention to the innovation in the construction of this scale. This approach is an attempt to combine a classic set of factors used to study the motivation of fans – Funk, Filo, Beaton, Pritchard (2009); Kim, Trail (2010); Milne, McDonald (1999), in: Won, Kitamura (2007); Neale, Funk (2006); Sloan (1989); Trail, James (2001); Wann (1999),

Table 19. Verification of hypotheses

Hypothesis	Verification of hypotheses
1	Significant differences in the perception of importance of particular barriers/factors were identified between women and men, as well as between Polish fans and foreigners (Tables 11,12).
2	Average assessments of the importance of individual factors differ, which makes it possible to create lists of factors ordered by importance (Tables 6, 8, 10).
3	The assessment of the importance of attendance factors in sports events is partly correlated with the variables describing the demographic profile of the respondents (Table 13).
4	The studied barriers and factors allow five hidden factors to be identified (Table 16).

Source: author.

Table 20. Comparison of the obtained hierarchy of factors in the author's research with the measured importance of motives on an MSSC scale in selected studies

	Own research [see also table 8]	MSSC modified (research results) N=222 (Ryśnik, Żylak, Tomik, 2018)	MSSC Korean fans N=511 (Won, Kitamura 2007)	MSSC Japan jans; N=593 (Won, Kitamura, 2007)	MSSC (when the favorite player is playing) N=142 (Fink, Parker, 2009)	MSSC (when the favorite player is not playing) N=142 (Fink, Parker, 2009)
Factors in order of importance (measured average value of factors or subscale)	1. The willingness to watch the match live 2. Type of competition (e.g. European Championship), Possibility of a close-knit sports fight, Relaxation, Live view of a volleyball star, Opportunity to go to a match with family 3. Fame of rival teams 4. Anticipated sports level, Place of competition (match) 5. Match stake 6. Prestige of being a fan	1. Aesthetics, Drama. 2. Achievements and Knowledge 3. Escape 4. Social meeting 5. Family	1. Drama 2. Achievements 3. Entertainment 4. Escape 5. Pride in being in a group 6. Family 7. Skills 8. Social Meetings 9. Attractiveness of players	1. Achievements 2. Entertainment 3. Drama 4. Skills 5. Escape 6. Pride in being in a group 7. Family 8. Social Meetings 9. Attractiveness of players	1. Skills 2. Drama 3. Meetings 4. Achievements 5. Escape 6. Aesthetics 7. Family 8. Knowledge 9. Physical Attractiveness	1. Drama 2. Skills 3. Meetings 4. Escape 5. Aesthetics 6. Family 7. Knowledge 8. Achievements 9. Physical Attractiveness

Source: author's compilation based on the sources in the table.

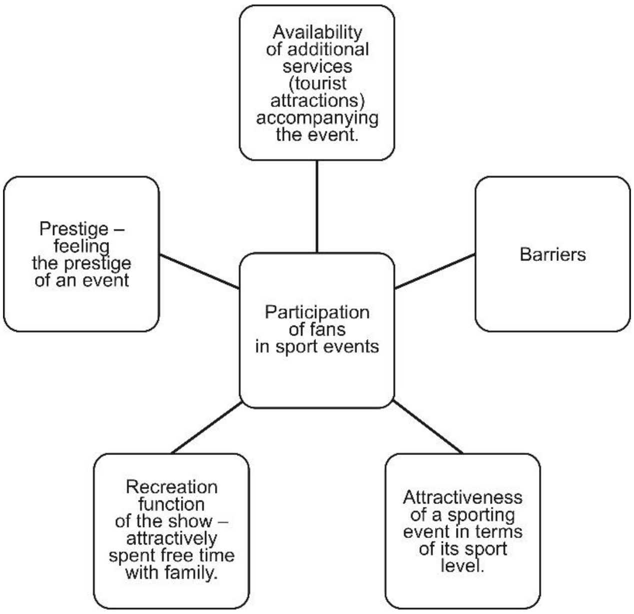

Figure 2. Factors influencing attendance by fans at a sporting event
Source: author

in: Hadzik (2016); with barriers to attendance – Anthony, Kahn, Madison, Paul, Weinbach (2014); Mohan, Thomas (2012); Nishio (2014); Simmons, Popp, McEvoy, Howell (2018); Yu (2010); making the author's approach conceptually similar to the synthetic approach used by Kim & Trail (2010). At the same time it is an attempt to search for a specific 'common space' created at the junction of sports and tourism (Szczechowicz, 2015) by attaching to the model a broader context of the event in the form of entertainment events or tourist products, for instance.

The results obtained confirm that tourism and sport are phenomena that can and should be studied together.

10. INDICATIONS FOR PRACTITIONERS

Conclusions from the verification of hypotheses can be considered from the point of view of usefulness for managers of entities responsible for the development of products in sports tourism. A set of postulates was formulated for the management practice of major sporting events in order to meet the preferences of travelling fans (Table 21).

The use of the recommendations and suggestions in Table 19 should foster the attendance of fans in major sporting events.

Table 21. Practical conclusions based on the verification of the hypotheses

Hipotesis	Verification of the hypothesis	Practical conclusions
1	Significant differences in the perception of importance of particular barriers/factors were identified between women and men, as well as between Polish fans and foreigners (Tables 11, 12)	The design of the offer and the distribution of accents in the message promoting the event should be differentiated according to the target group (gender, origin). 1) The offer and promotional message aimed at men should be more focused on highlighting: – the convenience of the dates and accessibility of the venue of the event – the rank of the event and its sporting level – availability of additional entertainment events 2) The offer and promotional message aimed at women should emphasise to a greater extent: – the price of the event's attractiveness – the potential level of relaxation associated with the event – the prestigious nature of the event – availability in a package of other additional events involving fans in the field of physical recreation and sport 3) The offer and promotion aimed at people from abroad should be particularly focused on: – high safety standards at the event – high quality information about the event – access to additional services at the venue itself – easily accessible cultural and natural attractions 4) The offer and promotion addressing persons in the country should emphasize: – cost-attractiveness – sporting level – watching live, interacting with sports stars – possibility of relaxation with the family
2	Average assessments of the importance of individual factors differ, which makes it possible to create lists of factors ordered by importance – the hierarchy of factors (Tables 6, 8, 10)	1) Taking under consideration the two most important barriers for fans, while developing the offer and formulating the promotional message it is recommended first of all to focus at reduction the cost and time inconveniences of attendance in a sport event (Table 9).

Table 21 (cont.)

Hipotesis	Verification of the hypothesis	Practical conclusions
		2) Factors assessed as the most important (Table 11, 13) indicate the need for special treatment of the following issues: – the value of watching the event live (authenticity and uniqueness of the event and the possibility of dealing with celebrities) – the sporting level of the event – the qualities contributing to relaxation in the family circle
3	The assessment of the importance of attendance factors in sports events is partly correlated with the variables describing the demographic profile of the respondents (Table 13)	Event organisers should be aware of the fact that attracting an older and wealthier sports fan requires addressing time constraints and the problem of setting a convenient date for an event. It is therefore necessary to choose the best time for the target group or to introduce various time-saving improvements to optimise the use of their time.
4	The studied barriers and factors allow five hidden factors to be identified (Table 16)	The derived model is a guideline for managers on the issue of how the individual characteristics of an event are processed in the perception process of a sport fan. 1. There is a substitution between the variables making up a given common factor and therefore they may be treated interchangeably. 2. However, substitution does not occur between variables forming different common factors. Managers should consider separately the efforts/effects of actions aimed at five different elements of the model (there is no substitution in the range of variables of different factors). For example, it is not possible to compensate the poor quality of sport level of the event with the elimination of some barriers. Managers should make equally strong, parallel efforts in terms of: – availability of additional services, events, attractions, – levelling of barriers – increasing the attractiveness of the sporting event with regard to the sporting level – increasing the attractiveness of the spectacle for those who seek relaxation and pleasant time spent with their families – building the prestige of fans at a given sporting event and the involvement of sporting stars in the event

Source: author.

ENDNOTES

[1] "Tourism demand can be understood as the sum of the services and goods that tourists are willing to purchase at a given price level and over a given period of time" (Niezgoda, Zmyślony, 2006, in: Kachniewska, Nawrocka, Niezgoda, Pawlicz, 2012, p. 31).

[2] Some results based on an incomplete sample (N=434) were published in Hadzik, Ryśnik, Tomik (2015).

[3] Total estimated attendance of fans at matches from phases I, II, III at the "Spodek" arena in Katowice, where research was conducted on the basis of data from the Polish Volleyball Federation (PZPS).

[4] "KMO lower than 0.5 – very low (unacceptable)" (Zakrzewska, 1994).

[5] This number should be within the range from ⅙ to ⅓ of the total number of examined variables (Zakrzewska,1994).

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