

# tourism

21 | no. 1-2  
2011



ŁÓDŹ UNIVERSITY PRESS

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Printed directly from camera-ready materials provided to the Łódź University Press

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Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Łódzkiego  
90-131 Łódź, ul. Lindleya 8

Wydanie I. Nakład 150 + 31 egz. Ark. druk. 10,5.  
Zam. 5006/2012. Cena zł 30,- + 5% VAT

Druk: ESUS Agencja Reklamowo-Wydawnicza  
61-815 Poznań, ul. Ratajczaka 26/8

**ISSN 0867-5856**

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## PREFACE

The dynamic development of tourism studies observed in recent years has had a variety of results. The most spectacular symptom of this development in Poland has been the appearance of specialized courses with the word 'tourism' in their titles at many private institutions of higher education and several universities. As a consequence, a number of student textbooks with varying titles and contents have been written and published, but only some of the authors have written truly original works.

Another symptom of the growing interest in tourism is the publishing of works written by the lecturers on these new courses. These are often the first tourism-related works in their career, the standard is usually very low, and only some consider the theoretical issues of tourism.

In Poland, tourism education at universities is often 'amateur' in style rather than academic, owing to decisions concerning the contents of the courses being taken considerably faster than the preparation of teachers of appropriate status (Dr, Dr Hab., Prof) for the task of educating students at this level. Only well-educated academic teachers, who combine teaching with their own research, can provide stable methodological foundations of tourism and a true university education.

The editorial team of 'Tourism' wished therefore to present research by the younger generation (Dr Hab.) and invited them to publish their work in our journal. Eight of those from university geography and economics departments, as well as academies of physical education who have achieved habilitation in the last decade, have accepted our invitation.

By inviting them to take part in this edition of 'Tourism', the editors wanted to present the younger generation who will soon take over responsibility for the development of this interdisciplinary study from the retiring 'older' professors.

*The Editors*

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# ARTICLES

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Tourism 2011, 21/1–2

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## TOURIST ACTIVITY: INTERNATIONAL AND DOMESTIC DIVERSIFICATION AND THE PROBLEM OF SOCIAL EXCLUSION

**Abstract:** This article presents the international and domestic diversification of tourist activity. In the former case, it focuses on analyses of the general level of tourist activity, expressed in the 'tourist activity rate', while with regards to the inhabitants of Poland, analyses were conducted on the diversification of tourist activity across various socio-demographic categories. For international comparisons, the wide-ranging research conducted by *EUROSTAT* in 2011 on representative samples of the inhabitants of 32 European countries was used. The diversification of Polish tourist activity in the context of social exclusion, on the other hand, is presented on the basis of the author's research and calculations. Statistical analyses were employed: Kendall's Tau-b rank correlation coefficient and cluster analysis.

**Key words:** tourist activity, international comparisons, social diversification, social exclusion, cluster analysis.

### 1. THE CONCEPT AND SCOPE OF TOURIST ACTIVITY

Tourism is a phenomenon that possesses a large and constantly increasing economic and social significance that is recognized in developing countries as well as in highly developed nations. In developing countries tourism is regarded as one of the best development options since it can positively stimulate not just economic development but also social and cultural development. In developed countries tourism constitutes an important element of consumption and is a specific designator of modernity and prosperity. The phenomenon of tourism is well presented in the famous book 'The Tourist Gaze', where Urry states that "being a tourist is one of the indicators of being modern. Lack of travelling is like not having a car or owning a beautiful house. In modern society tourism has gained symbolic status and is regarded as a condition for maintaining health" (URRY 2007, p. 17).

By the concept of tourist activity we generally ought to understand the actions people take in conjunction with their involvement. Regarding particular trips, this is a process that begins long before the trip in question occurs, and generally lasts for a certain time after the return. Consequently, four basic stages can be identified in this process:

- the creation and recognition of defined needs which, when combined with motives, transform into the aims of journeys, thus generating tourism;

- the collection of information and the making of a decision to engage in tourism;
- participation in tourism (departure – arrival – return);
- certain tourism-related behaviour taking place after the return from a journey.

Here we ought to clearly emphasize that the basic aim of the present work is not to analyze tourism behaviour, only the social phenomenon of tourism itself. We are less investigating the journeys of specific tourists than the tourist activity of society as a whole. As such, we should introduce certain restrictions to our concept and definition, allowing us to identify its **broader and narrower meanings**.

In its first (i.e. **broader**) meaning, this concept pertains to people's general behaviour *vis-a-vis* their participation in various forms of tourism, i.e. voluntary and temporary journeys away from their places of permanent residence, as long as the main goal of these journeys is not financial activity to be remunerated in the location visited. This broader conception of tourism has crucial advantages for theoretical investigations which, unfortunately, are seldom based on empirical research. This springs, on the one hand, from the difficulties generated by the definition itself (particularly when using the rather imprecise term 'general behaviour'), and from the still-

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imperfect methodology of tourism research, especially when it comes to statistics. The use of this broader definition encounters particularly large problems when the aim of the research – based on various indicators of tourism participation – is to define the level of tourist activity and to explore social diversification.

From our perspective, the concept of tourism has an evaluative significance, and cannot be reduced merely to the fact of participation. After all, this requires the introduction of additional assumptions on the frequency and character of participation; these are generally disputable and must be decided in an arbitrary fashion. For example – can every person be counted as active in tourism after ‘marking off’ a single trip, or is it necessary that (s)he participate in a greater number of journeys? If so, will two suffice, or must there be more journeys (how many)? Or, to regard someone as active in tourism, need (s)he travel systematically? If so, can we speak of systematic tourism when a given person takes several journeys over the course of a year, or is it enough if (s)he travels once every few years? The duration of the journey could also be essential in how we apprehend tourist activity. Can we say a person is an active tourist if (s)he travels for only a single day (particularly without spending the night), or must (s)he spend longer including accommodation? If so, how long should the trip last? The aim of the journey might also be an important criterion (e.g. rest, exploration, business, family, etc.). We might list many other criteria for tourist activity (e.g. the possession of sport/tourism equipment or belonging to a tourism organization). The matter can be ever more complex if – in accordance with the broader sense of tourist activity – we should like to consider attitudes toward tourism, the depth of contact with the destination environment, behaviour before and after the journey, etc.<sup>1</sup>

For the reasons provided above, the present work deals with the **narrower** understanding of tourist activity, referring simply to participation in various forms of tourism. This notion will therefore concern those who in the defined (research) period participated in tourism, i.e. who took part in journeys outside their everyday surroundings for purposes not directly tied to wage-earning or residence. It would seem, considering the above-mentioned limitations in particular the methodology and scope of the statistical research, that only such an approach makes research possible and guarantees the work will reach its aim: an analysis of international and domestic diversification in levels of tourist activity and a discussion as to whether a lack of participation might be considered a sign of social exclusion. The basic measure of tourist activity thus conceived is the ‘rate of tourism

activity of the population’, understood as the percentage of those taking part in tourism in relation to the entire population studied (LABEAU 1968, p. 43).

## 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Tourist activity research, which provides diagnosis and partially forecasts the level and character of participation in tourism, constitutes a unique background that supports the functioning of the entire tourism industry (FRECHTLING 2001). Among the best national research into tourist activity, undertaken systematically (usual once a year), are the Spanish ‘*Familitur*’, the German ‘*Reiseanalyse RA*’, the Italian ‘*Le vacanze italiane*’, the Canadian ‘*Travel Activities & Motivation Survey*’, as well as the ‘*American Travel Survey*’ (ALEJZIAK 2008). The results obtained during the course of these studies can constitute a background for more thorough and in-depth analyses (for example: SCHMIDT 2002, PALERMO 2001, POU, ALEGRE 2002). However, for most of the time standard research undertaken by official institutions is often limited to simple analyses and the quantitative presentation of the processes.

Much greater value is attributed to independent studies which are carried out in smaller research centres or even by individual scholars. Such studies employ more advanced methods and research techniques, and provide more effective ways of determining tourist activity (i.e. HUAN, O’LEARY 1999). This especially concerns research which analyzes different processes over longer periods of time (TOIVONEN 2001, 2003), and focus on the selected and precisely determined problems (CORREIA *et al.* 2007, ALEJZIAK 2000). The most valuable research is that which attempts to elaborate various theories pertaining to tourism behaviour (PEARCE 2005, PIZAM, MANSFELD 1999, WOODSIDE, MACDONALD, BURFORD 2004), and creates consumer decision-making models as well as tourist typologies (DERCOP, SNELDERS 2005, LUNDGREN 2004). In summary, research on tourist activity (aside from measuring its level and structure) provides interesting information concerning the causes and scale of the social diversity of tourism, as well as the factors that generate the process of exclusion in tourism participation. Although the problem of disproportion in tourism participation has been studied by many academics, the issue concerning the reasons for a lack of tourism participation is carried out very seldom. This problem has been studied recently in detail by ALEJZIAK (2007), HAUKE-LAND (1990), JORDON (2000).



### 3. INTERNATIONAL DIVERSIFICATION OF TOURIST ACTIVITY: BASED ON RESEARCH INTO TOURISM PARTICIPATION IN 32 EUROPEAN COUNTRIES IN 2010

Contemporary tourism is a phenomenon in which millions of people around the world participate. It should be noted, however, that we still have a great diversity in participation in tourism, which includes the fact that in some social communities tourism is still inaccessible! Here we will take into account not only the inhabitants of underdeveloped countries, but also the more developed parts of the world, such as the European Union, in terms of their economy and development where the level of tourist activity is heavily diversified both on an international scale and within particular countries.

This is confirmed by a wealth of research including the recently conducted *Survey on the Attitudes of Europeans towards Tourism* (EUROSTAT, 2011). This survey was conducted by the Gallup Organization, and commissioned by the European Commission (the General Director of Corporate and Industry Affairs). Its aim was to collect information on European tourism trips in 2008, 2009, and 2010, and their plans for 2011, and to identify the current tendencies and trends on the tourism market. The research covered 30,000 randomly chosen respondents over 15 years of age, in all the 27 member states of the European Union, as well as in Croatia, Turkey, Macedonia, Norway and Iceland.

The research shows that in 2010 around 73% of the EU's inhabitants took at least one trip for private or business purposes, with accommodation somewhere away from their permanent address (in 2009 - 69%, and in 2008 - 71%). The diversification of participation in the investigated countries fluctuated from 89% in Finland to 37% in Turkey. With a value of 67%, Poland was slightly below the average of all the countries. The most important results concerning the diversification of the general level of tourist activity between countries are shown in Fig. 1.

From the point of view of the functioning of the tourism market, the duration and nature of the trip are of vital significance. Two basic types of journeys were identified in the research:

- 'short private' trips - journeys requiring 1-3 nights of accommodation, taken for private reasons (not business);

- holiday trips - with the aim of recreation, away from the place of permanent residence, consisting of at least four consecutive nights in paid accommodation or in second homes.

A total of 69% of subjects took part in these kinds of journey: 24% took part on holiday trips alone, 12%

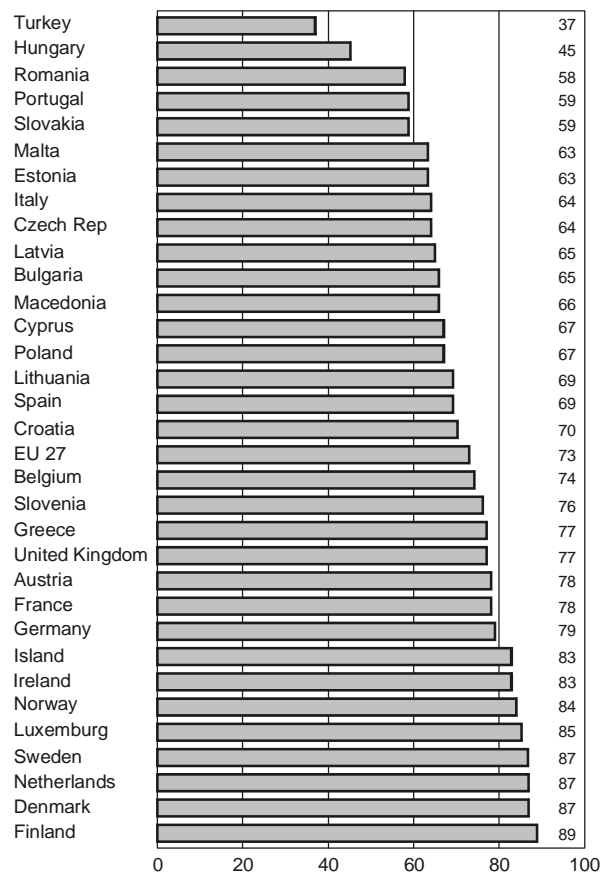


Fig. 1. Proportion of EU citizens who travelled in 2010  
Source: EUROSTAT (2011, p. 8)

in short private trips, and 32% in both. Meanwhile, in 2010, 29% took part in neither kind (in 2009 - 33%, and in 2008 - 32%). The largest figures for those who took no part in tourist activity were found in Turkey (68%), Hungary (60%) and Romania (46%). The smallest in Norway (9%), Finland (10%), Sweden (14%), and Luxembourg, Denmark, and Holland (15% each).

The research revealed a significant disproportion between the residents of the various countries in terms of their participation in various kinds of trip (Fig. 2).

The most active tourists were those who took part in both short private trips and long holidays. The largest percentages were found in the Scandinavian countries: Norway (52%), Finland (50%) and Sweden (44%). The highest participation rate in strictly holiday trips was found in such countries as Cyprus (38%), Denmark (37%), Luxembourg (35%), and Holland and Germany (over 32%). High international diversification was also found in participation in short-term private trips where the percentage participation fluctuated from 21% in Finland to 6% in Cyprus.

It is generally acknowledged that participation in holiday trips is the most decisive for the tourist activity of a society (at least when we consider its

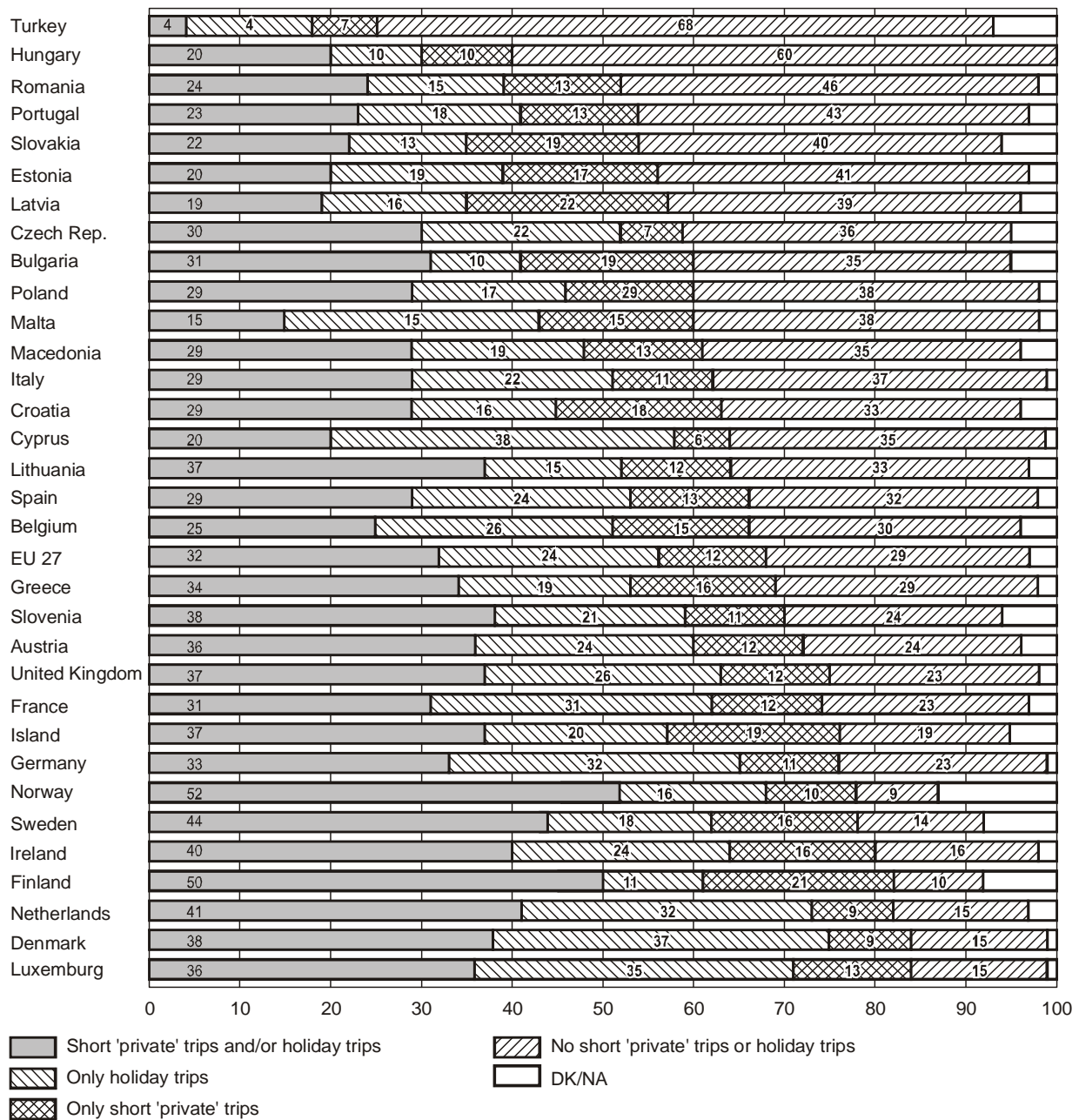


Fig. 2. Short 'private' trips and/or holiday trips in 2010  
Source: EUROSTAT (2011, p. 10)

significance for tourism policy). Among all those surveyed who participated in such trips in 2010, the majority travelled only once (46%). One in four (26%) travelled twice, and one in ten (11%) three times. Around 15% of holiday tourists participated in such trips four times or more. It should be noted, however, that this research demonstrated major disproportions between inhabitants of various countries in terms of frequency of travel, as illustrated by Fig. 3.

International diversification in the frequency of holiday trips, much like other data on tourist activity, is reflected extensively in the results of various

pieces of research on the wealth and quality of life in various European countries. Central-Eastern European countries tend to dominate among those who took only a single holiday trip, as did the countries which aspire to membership of the European Union, where the standard of living is lower than the average for the whole EU. In these countries (i.e. Central-Eastern European) the proportion exceeds or is close to 60% – twice as high as in the Scandinavian countries where multiple departures dominate.

Recapitulating, we should affirm that the research presented revealed substantial diversification between

nations in terms of tourist activity, confirmed the results of earlier research, and the general opinion that Northern and Western Europeans travel decidedly more often than those in the southern and eastern parts of the continent. It also indicates (though it was studied to a lesser degree) that, aside from international diversification, we have significant social disproportion in terms of tourism within the various countries. Significant differences are observable in the level of tourism activity, depending on socio-demographic variables. Unfortunately, the research cited

only takes into account the five basic variables: gender, age, education, occupation, and place of residence. The social diversification in tourist activity in this research essentially finds agreement with current knowledge on this subject. In the majority of cases there was a straight line relationship between the variables researched, and showed a growth of participation in tourism alongside growth (e.g. in education) or decrease (e.g. in age) in the values of particular variables. As such, this research essentially confirmed the 'tourist activity scale' developed by Middleton (1996).

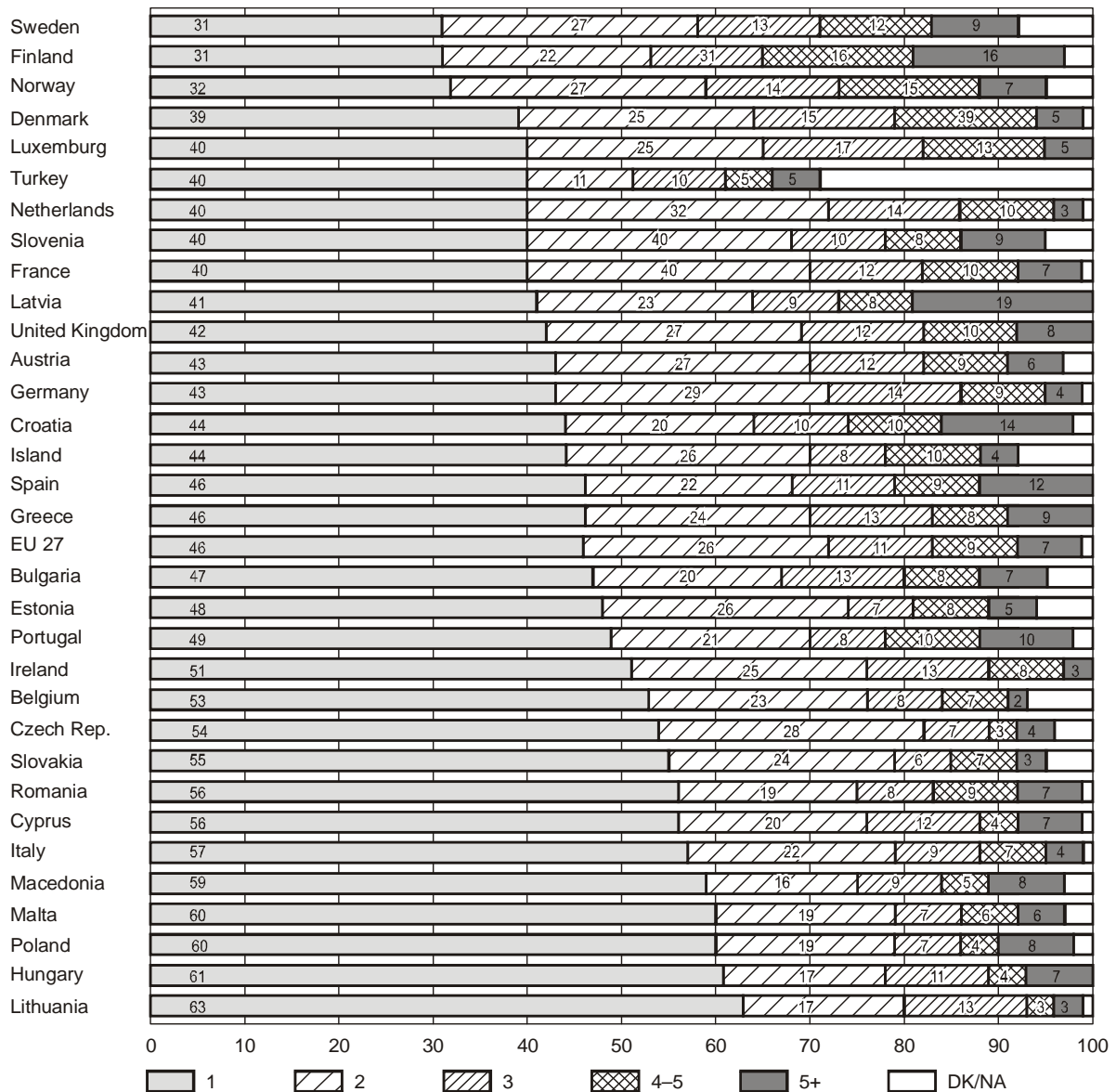


Fig. 3. Number of holiday trips in 2010  
Source: EUROSTAT (2011, p. 14)

#### 4. THE DETERMINANTS OF TOURIST ACTIVITY AND SOCIAL DIVERSIFICATION: RESEARCH ON POLISH PARTICIPATION IN LEISURE TRIPS IN 2005

The foregoing sections of this article present the results of research on tourist activity which not only show the scale of social diversification in this field, but also indicate the power with which various circumstances affect them. The research comes from the author's post-doctoral work entitled 'Social Determinants and Diversity in Tourist Activity' (ALEJZIAK 2009). The main goals of this study are as follows: to identify the most important factors which determine tourist activity as well as assess its strength and impact on 'social disproportion' in terms of participation. Two hypotheses have been posed: the first assumes that the majority of factors studied have a strong impact on the level of participation in terms of the analyzed leisure trips. The second states that there exists a process of inter-relation between the basic determinants of tourist activity and an overlapping of factors that have either positive or negative effects. As a result we find great 'social disproportion' in participation in tourism trips. The research was undertaken in 2005 and 2006 thanks to ongoing collaboration with the Social Opinion Research Centre (SORC). Periodic national studies have been used in this research and 'Actual problems and events (186)' is the part which pertained to participation in leisure trips. The research was based on the author's calculations. This was done because the author wanted to expand the range of analyses by including techniques which go beyond those employed by the Social Opinion Research Centre (earlier, similar studies were carried out in 2002 when SORC was commissioned to perform certain calculations). Analyses have been undertaken on the basis of a real-time dataset which was purchased by the author from SORC. In this study the author employed a set of selected techniques: independent ( $\chi^2$ ) test, Kendall rank correlation coefficient, and cluster analysis. The study was based on a randomly selected sample of 1026 from the overall Polish population aged 15 or more, fulfilling statistical requirements. In order to ensure that each analytical category will have a statistically valid population, the study results were exposed to a weighting procedure.

This study indicates that the majority of Poles did not participate in leisure trips (67%). Among those who did, 21% went on trips that lasted 7 or more days, and also on much shorter trips (2-4 days), 10% participated in longer lasting trips, and 11% participated only in daily excursions. The study indicates that participation in leisure trips varied greatly across different social categories. Unfortunately the official report from

these studies, posted on the internet (CBOS 2005), displays only an abridged analysis of the social diversity of participation, limited to the presentation of percentage breakdowns of the basic seven variables. The author, however, attempted to utilize all the data gathered from the SORC as well as undertaking his own analyses employing a real-time dataset. This option enabled the number of analyzed variables to be increased three times and also to include other variables, which had not been so far analyzed in tourist activity research (in Poland as well as abroad). These variables include political orientation and religion. The author also decided to use more advanced statistical techniques.

##### 4.1. IMPACT ANALYSIS OF SELECTED FACTORS IN TERMS OF PARTICIPATION IN LEISURE TRIPS: CHI<sup>2</sup> TEST AND KENDALL'S TAU-B RANK CORRELATION COEFFICIENT

The principle goal of the analyses undertaken in this part of the study was to discover which factors differentiate participation levels in leisure trips and the strength of their impact. In order to identify possible associations between variables, a chi<sup>2</sup> ( $\chi^2$ ) independent test was employed, while to determine its strength, Kendall's Tau-b ( $\tau_B$ ) rank correlation coefficient was utilized. This study looked to find a set of dependencies occurring among chosen variables, and participation in leisure trips that last at least one week. Out of 23 variables that have been analyzed, 16 indicate statistically significant dependence in terms of participation in trips that last at least one week. It should be noted that simultaneously they differentiate the level of tourist activity of a particular group. It should be added that the strength of the impact of particular factors varied considerably. Therefore, the author decided to precisely determine the impact of the remaining factors and to establish a specific ranking. In order to achieve this task he employed Kendall's Tau-b rank correlation coefficient.

Based on the analyses undertaken so far, we were able to verify only whether statistically significant dependencies between analyzed factors and trip participation exist. This is because a chi<sup>2</sup> test measures only the significance of the dependence and does not allow the strength nor the causative character of relations between the variables to be measured. Therefore, the author decided on a more precise examination of identified dependencies. He used a different statistical technique, namely Kendall's Tau-b rank correlation coefficient, which determines correlations between two studied variables. One of the qualities of this test (especially in the version used for this study –  $\tau_B$ ) is that it can be successfully used when we have

Table 1. Leisure trips which last more than a week or shorter (in 2005), including variables – Kendall's Tau-b rank correlation

Variables	Did a person participate in a trip lasting at least one week?			Did a person participate in a trip lasting shorter than a week?		
	Kendall's Tau-b <sup>c</sup>		N	Kendall's Tau-b <sup>c</sup>		N
	rank	value		rank	value	
Sex	13	-0.012	1053	13	-0.016	1053
Age - ↑	6	-0.140 <sup>a</sup>	1053	4	-0.170 <sup>a</sup>	1053
Education - ↑	2	0.232 <sup>a</sup>	1053	2	0.205 <sup>a</sup>	1053
Place of residence - ↑	4	0.179 <sup>a</sup>	1053	5	0.153 <sup>a</sup>	1053
Job (1-full time; 4-no job) - ↓	5	-0.149 <sup>a</sup>	1053	6	-0.120 <sup>a</sup>	1053
Size of economic household - ↑	12	-0.039	1053	11	-0.028	1053
Number of adults in household - ↑	11	-0.048	1053	12	-0.023	1053
Personal income - ↑	6	0.140 <sup>a</sup>	704	8	0.088 <sup>a</sup>	704
Income per one household member - ↑	3	0.210 <sup>a</sup>	725	3	0.175 <sup>a</sup>	725
Opinion on material condition - ↑	1	0.252 <sup>a</sup>	1052	1	0.209 <sup>a</sup>	1052
Opinion on change in material condition - ↑	9	0.073 <sup>b</sup>	1041	7	0.097 <sup>a</sup>	1041
Political orientation - ↓	10	-0.062 <sup>b</sup>	1050	9	-0.054	1050
Religion - ↓	8	0.083 <sup>a</sup>	1050	10	0.045	1050

<sup>a</sup> Correlation is significant bilaterally at the 0.01 level.

<sup>b</sup> Correlation is significant bilaterally at the 0.05 level.

<sup>c</sup> In some cases the table lists values that are higher than the number of people actually surveyed, which results from the aforementioned usage of the procedure for weighting study results.

Source: author including calculations.

a large number of associated ranks (BLALOCK 1997, pp. 357-362). This is true, especially when the number in each of the categories analyzed is at least five. In this study serial and dichotomous variables have been taken into account and their impact analyzed both in terms of longer trips (more than seven days) and shorter trips. The results are presented in Table 1.

The strength of correlation that occurs between analyzed variables is best described by its value, for example, correlation of the factor 'opinion on material conditions' (value: 252) with leisure trips is stronger than the factor 'income per one family member' (value: 210). This study revealed that 10 out of 13 analyzed variables indicate significant correlations with the following question: '**Did you participate in at least a 7-day leisure trip this year?**' It should be mentioned that eight of these variables had a 0.01 significance level and possessed a bilateral character. In the case of trips that lasted less than a week eight such types were identified. On the other hand the variables sex, size of economic household, and number of adults in this household, did not show any correlation with participation. In the case of short-term trips no correlation was detected in terms of political orientation or religion.

Kendall's Tau-b rank correlation coefficient enables the variables analyzed to be ranked according to strength of dependence. This is shown in the column titled 'rank'. The strongest impact on tourist activity (consequently in both types of leisure trips) is associated with education and economic situation.

There is an interesting situation when we look at factors that have not been previously used in tourist activity studies. This pertains to the 'political orientation' and 'religion' factors. They had a greater impact on trip participation (at least 7-day trips) than 'size of economic household' and 'number of adults per household'. The above-mentioned factors are perceived as an essential factor that determines tourist activity.

#### 4.2. INTERDEPENDENCE AND OVERLAPPING ANALYSIS PERTAINING TO THE IMPACT OF INDIVIDUAL FACTORS: CLUSTER ANALYSIS

In the study, an hypothesis has been postulated about considerable interdependency and the specific overlapping of factors that have positive (stimuli) or negative (inhibitors) impact on tourist activity. This hypothesis was to be verified by using cluster analysis, undertaken by grouping k-averages and 'sorting distances' with a constant interval. The analysis included 621 responses and the information on all variables researched was available to them.

In the **first cluster** men were more frequent than women. This cluster affiliated those who were quite young and better educated. The percentage that were married as well as the number per family were close to the average. Those belonging to this cluster most frequently possessed a job, had the highest incomes, and had a very good material situation (were not concerned with risks to it). People in this cluster were

Table 2. Differences between clusters in terms of participating in 7-day (or longer) and shorter leisure trips in the year 2005

		Did a person participate in a trip lasting more than a week?				Total	
		yes		no			
		N	%	N	%	N	%
Cluster	1	80	32,1	169	67,9	249	40,2
	2	20	9,0	203	91,0	223	36,0
	3	14	9,5	134	90,5	148	23,8
Total		114	18,4	506	81,6	620	100,0
chi <sup>2</sup> = 52,38; df = 2; p < 0,001							
		Did a person participate in a trip lasting less than a week?				Total	
		yes		no			
		N	%	N	%	N	%
Cluster	1	78	31,3	171	68,7	249	40,2
	2	15	6,7	208	93,3	223	36,0
	3	16	10,8	132	89,2	148	23,8
Total		109	17,6	511	82,4	620	100,0
chi <sup>2</sup> = 55,30; df = 2; p < 0,001							

Source: author including calculations.

not very religious. The **second cluster** includes mostly men, older than in the first cluster, well educated, and most often married. These worked less often than those in cluster 1, but more often than those in cluster 3. People in this cluster had the highest number in a family and had average personal income among the three clusters, however, income per person was lowest. Those in this cluster had a low assessment of their material situation and were vulnerable to its changing. They were very religious. **Cluster three** consisted mainly of women, the elderly, people with poor education, very often not married and infrequently having a permanent job. People belonging to this cluster had the lowest number per family, and had very low income. The assessment of their material situation was the lowest and they mostly anticipated changes to it. They were rather religious. As can be seen, cluster analysis turned out to be an efficient tool because statistically significant differences between the clusters separated occurred in terms of all variables analyzed. The results are presented in Table 2.

## 5. SOCIAL DIVERSITY OF TOURIST ACTIVITY RELATIVE TO SOCIAL EXCLUSION

Tourist activity reflects the conditions and standard of living. According to Nowakowska, diversity in the level of tourist activity among various social groups is a natural phenomenon and it is unlikely that it could be eliminated (NOWAKOWSKA 1989, p. 41). Social

inequality has been imprinted in humankind from the dawn of time, and has turned out to be a more persistent factor than social diversity in tourism. It should be noted that ways of perceiving social inequalities, especially when we discuss their impact and causes, undergo constant change (FERREIRA 1999). At present social inequality is perceived as an important social problem which is often encountered in the material sphere (high income, living standards, and social and cultural opportunities). However, it should be understood that its consequences are more clearly visible in participation in social life, culture and politics, as well as in various means of spending leisure time. One of the characteristic features of social inequality is the fact that it can rapidly move from one sphere to the next, retaining in harmful consequences from each. Hence to struggle with one type of inequality is of very limited value. We can describe the following example: a person who lives in poverty, is usually unable to gain a proper education, without which he cannot obtain a decent job, which in consequence leads to new material difficulties.

Social inequalities are generated by various factors and subsequently assume different forms and manifestations (BYRNE 1999). Consequently researchers are compelled to assume certain principles that pertain to the definition of social inequality as well as to the means of studying its background. In general it is assumed that discussion of social inequality begins when we have something more than just diversity. It is a common fact that diversity must be accompanied by a hierarchal arrangement which can be explained in such a way that some people have better access to goods and services than others. This is manifested by material inequality, unequal access to power and social prestige as well as participation in various forms of social life.

According to Slaby, tourist activity being a form of consumption, reflects and conditions the level of needs satisfaction, and simultaneously determines the level, quality and dignity of life (SŁABY 2006, p. 180). When we discuss the problem of social inequality we have to remember two things. First, tourism needs are essentially higher-ranked needs. Therefore, tourism consumption, despite its broad access, is often assigned to the field of a so-called 'luxury'. Second, the majority of research analyzes tourism participation in a specifically defined period of time, usually the year prior to the study. On the contrary we are rarely interested in to what extent the lack of participation possesses a durable character. Based on these causes, it seems that recognition of a lack of tourism participation as a demonstration of social exclusion may cause confusion (WSFZ 2004, p. 237). Having said that, the definition of social exclusion in reference to tourist activity is rarely mentioned in the academic literature.



This process is common despite the fact, that the general scheme for analyzing social exclusion in EU countries mentions tourism trips (MEJER 2000, p. 2). In the light of the considerations presented in this work we can probably assume that tourist activity should be discussed in terms of the social diversity of participation in tourism rather than being a cause of social diversity. In other words, both character and level of tourist activity is more of an indicator of social diversity than its cause.

## 6. CONCLUSION

The problem of the diversification of tourist activity is visible worldwide at both national and international levels. The situation in each country shows socially diversified levels of tourist activity, basically caused by the same factors, meaning that a certain segment of society remains regularly or periodically passive in terms of tourism, which – in our era of widespread access to tourism – is regarded, sometimes (but not necessarily justly and correctly) as a sign of social exclusion. The analyses undertaken in this study have verified the hypotheses put forward concerning the impact of the great majority of the factors on participation in leisure trips, as well as social diversity in terms of the level and character of participation in tourism. This study has also confirmed an hypothesis about large interdependency and specific overlapping of the impact of individual determinants of tourist activity. This is one of the principle causes for the social diversity of participation in tourism.

Tourism is a peculiar phenomenon because from the start it has been accompanied by social diversity (AGARWAL, BRUNT 2006). The diversity of the character (i.e. forms and contents) of tourist activity is an obvious and coveted value because it results from individual needs, motives and tourism preferences. On the other hand, social diversity from tourism participation alone (tourism share vs. no participation) constitutes a very important social problem (ALEJZIAK 2007, MARCH, WOODSIDE 2005, WSFZ 2004). From the standpoint of tourism policy and the functioning of the tourism market, it is desirable that social participation in tourism is extensive. It should be mentioned at this point, that tourism, apart from economic functions which are extremely important nationally and for the tourism business, possesses a number of other important goals: leisure, health, educational, cognitive, political etc. Based on this, tourist activity in many countries has ceased to be a matter for individual citizens, and has become an important social issue and a crucial component of tourism policy.

## FOOTNOTE

<sup>1</sup> If so, we can start to put such high demands as J. A. Malinowski, when he states that "The state of authentic participation in tourist-reconnaissance activity appears when there is a personal involvement in the significance of the value arising from taking up the above-stated activity for one's own development, with an accompanying recognition that it partly constitutes one's, it is worth the exertion, albeit costly and risk-laden, the reward does not appear at once, and is often no more than the promise of one's own fulfilment and satisfaction that comes from accomplishing tasks that rise above the personal." (MALINOWSKI 1988, p. 31).

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## TOURISM – AN ACADEMIC DISCIPLINE (DISCURSIVE ARTICLE)

**Abstract:** The article discusses the main methodological dilemmas connected with tourism as a field of academic research. The first part presents tourism as an area of interest in various academic disciplines. The second is a critical discussion on multidisciplinary and interdisciplinary approaches to the study of tourism. The third features an analysis of the methodological standpoints concerning possibilities for the autonomy of tourism as an academic discipline. The summary proposes a model of development for tourism studies aimed at the autonomy of academic tourism.

**Key words:** tourism, academic discipline, paradigm, academic unity.

### 1. INTRODUCTION

The purpose of the author is to try to determine the direction of methodological progress in the academic study of tourism – in the context of the possibility of autonomy (on a theoretical basis) of academic tourism. This issue has been presented against discussion in both Polish and foreign academic literature that has been going on for many years (and is still far from finding final conclusions).

The article consists of three parts. The first, introductory one, points to tourism as an area of interest to various academic disciplines. To that end, it implements a research scheme which combines LISZEWSKI's analytic approach (2010) with the dominant academic aspects of tourism suggested by PRZECLAWSKI (2010). The result is a list of academic disciplines for which tourism is an important object of research. The second part undertakes a discussion of multidisciplinary and interdisciplinary studies of tourism. The author focuses attention on a critical description of the contribution of both approaches to creating a theoretical basis for tourism as an academic field. The third, the main part, provides an analysis of the methodological standpoints concerning possibilities for the separation of tourism as a distinct academic discipline. The discussion is enclosed between the paradigm approach (KUHN 1968) and an evolutionary one which recognizes the unity of all academic disciplines (BERNSTEIN 1991, ECHTER, JAMAL 1997).

The final part of the article is a summary. The analysis has given grounds to put forward two hypo-

thetical models of development (in the methodological sense) of tourism studies aimed at distinguishing of a new discipline.

### 2. TOURISM AS AN AREA OF INTEREST FOR VARIOUS ACADEMIC DISCIPLINES

The growth of interest in tourism among representatives from many academic disciplines, corresponding to particular aspects of tourism, has progressed together with the development of tourism as a multi-dimensional and complex phenomenon of psychological, social, economic, spatial and cultural character (PRZECLAWSKI 2010). From an historical point of view, the first to study tourism were geographers and economists, and later sociologists. It seems that these are still in the lead. At the same time, they are being increasingly complemented by others, including anthropology, ecology, physical culture, psychology and others.

The idea of a chronological development in the academic study of tourism was presented by JAFARI (1992). He distinguished four phases in sequence but each does not supplant the others. In the last phase, named by the author 'Knowledge-Based Platform', stress is put on the need for systematic research on tourism.

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Table 1. Tourism as an area of interest to various academic disciplines in the context of the subject of tourism research

The subject of tourism research	Dominating aspects	Fields of study	Main academic disciplines
The tourist as the subject and the originator of the tourism phenomenon	Psychological (psycho-physical), cultural	The economy	Economics
		Humanities	Philosophy
			Pedagogy
			Psychology
			Sociology
		The study of physical culture	Physical culture
		Medical sciences	Medicine
Legal studies	Law		
Theological studies	Theology		
Tourism movement	Economic, spatial	Economics	Economy Management studies
		Humanities	Sociology History
		Earth sciences	Geography
		Technical studies	Transport
		Theology	Theological studies
Tourism space - destinations and transit areas	Spatial (environmental), economical	Biological sciences	Ecology
		Economics	Economy Management studies
		Earth sciences	Geography
		Agricultural sciences	Environmental management
		Technical studies	Architecture and urban planning Building engineering
Tourism activity - ways and forms of cultivating tourism	Cultural, psychological (psycho-physical)	Economics	Economics Management studies
		Humanities	Cultural studies
			Pedagogics
			Psychology
			Sociology
		Management studies	
Medical studies	Medicine		
The study of physical culture	Physical culture		
Earth sciences	Geography		
Effects and consequences of tourism activity - for tourists, for organizers, for the community hosting tourists, for the natural and socio-cultural environment	Economic, cultural, spatial, social	Biological sciences	Ecology
		Economics	Economics Management studies
		Humanities	Ethnology
			Culture
			History
			Management studies
		Political studies	
		Sociology	
Legal studies	Administration studies Law		
Earth sciences	Geography		

Source: author based on LISZEWSKI (2010).

In the Polish literature of the past two decades numerous books devoted to the methodological basis of tourism studies conducted within various disciplines of academic can be found. Among them are monographs edited by WINIARSKI (1999, 2003), NOWAKOWSKI (2001), PRZYBYSZEWSKA-GUDELIS, GRABISZEWSKI (2002), GOŁEMBSKI (2003, 2008), KAZIMIERCZAK (2004), MAIK *et al.* (2005), WINIARSKI, ALEJZIAK (2005), NOWAKOWSKI, PRZYDZIAŁ (2006), KRUPA, BILIŃSKI (2006), WINIARSKI (2008). Among authors concerned with this issue (primarily from the perspective of particular disciplines) one should name from geography WARSZYŃSKA, JACKOWSKI (1978), KRZYMOWSKA-KOSTROWICKA (1997), KOWALCZYK (2001 and later editions), LISZEWSKI (2003, 2010); from economics NOWAKOWSKA (2003), BOSIACKI (2005), GOŁEMBSKI (2001), GAWORECKI (1994 and later editions); from sociology and other humanities, and from the study of physical culture: WOŹNIAK (1995, 2004), PRZECLAWSKI (1997, 2010), ŁOBOŻEWICZ (2001), ZDEBSKI (2003), PODEMSKI (2004), KAZIMIERCZAK (2005, 2010), MAZURKIEWICZ (2009).

In order to prepare a basis for further discussion the author has made an attempt to define the range of interest in tourism shown by various academic disciplines<sup>1</sup>. To this end, he implemented the scheme proposed by LISZEWSKI (2010) according to whom the phenomenon of tourism, treated as a system of elements (sets) consists of: 1) tourists - the subject of the phenomenon; 2) the process of movement (tourism 'migration'); 3) destinations and transit locations (tourism space); 4) tourism activity (its forms and how to cultivate them); 5) effects and consequences of the migration and staying of the tourist at each stage of the process. These elements have been juxtaposed with the dominating academic aspects (psychological, social, economic, spatial and cultural) named by PRZECLAWSKI (2010). Keeping in mind the fact that the results of the analysis are simplified (as a consequence of the complexity of the phenomenon of tourism itself as well as the 'stiffness' of the formal division into fields and academic disciplines<sup>2</sup>), they have been presented in Table 1.

### 3. THE STUDY OF TOURISM – MULTIDISCIPLINARY AND INTERDISCIPLINARY APPROACHES

Multidisciplinary and interdisciplinary approaches are often used to dealing with something that belongs to an area of interest of various disciplines. The former occurs when a common issue is researched within different disciplines producing separate results. The latter applies when a given issue is researched on the

basis of different disciplines, but the result is meant to be integrated (CHOJNICKI 2005). In such a context tourism appears to be especially predestined to be dealt with using both approaches. This was underlined by such as JAFARI, RITCHI (1981) who named economics, sociology, psychology, geography and anthropology as the main disciplines engaged in tourism studies. This list was extended by JAFARI, AASER (1988) to 15 disciplines on the basis of an analysis of PhD theses in the US. This statement is confirmed also by the number of doctoral and post-doctoral theses on tourism within various academic disciplines in Poland (Table 2).

Table 2. Doctoral and post-doctoral on tourism according to academic discipline in the period 2001-010

Academic fields	Academic discipline	Doctorates	Habilitation	Total	
Biological sciences	Biology	1	0	1	0.54%
Economics	Management studies	18	1	73	39.67%
	Economics	50	4		
Humanities	Political studies	2	1	17	9.24%
	Sociology	5	-		
	Linguistics	3	-		
	History	3	-		
	Culture	1	-		
	Pedagogics	2	-		
Studies of physical culture	Physical culture	22	2	24	13.04%
Forest science	Forestry	3	-	3	1.63%
Earth sciences	Geography	42	3	47	25.54%
	Geology	2	-		
Legal studies	Law	1	-	1	0.54%
Agricultural science	Environmental management	3	1	13	7.07%
	Agromony	7	-		
	Food technology and nutrition	1	-		
	Zootchnics	1	-		
Technical studies	Architecture and urban planning	2	1	5	2.72%
	Building engineering	1	-		
	Geodesy and cartography	1	-		
Total		171	13	184	100.00

Source: author - based on database [www.nauka-polska.pl](http://www.nauka-polska.pl).

At the same time, it seems that most academics support (or at least declare to do so) the interdisciplinary study of tourism. Among them are the

following who have placed their hopes on this type of study: THEUNS (1986), LEIPER (1990), GOŁEMBSKI (2003), ALEJZIAK (2003), VUKOVIĆ (2005). According to BOSIACKI (2005) the ground-breaking moment of the development of academic research into Polish tourism was the implementation of the interdisciplinary 'Central Research Programme' entitled 'Tourism as a factor in socio-economic development' in 1986-1990.

Taking into consideration the necessity of conducting interdisciplinary studies of tourism GRABURN, JAFARI (1991) among others, and in the Polish literature, MAIK (2002) and MAIK, PRZYBECKA-MAIK (2005), present a less optimistic evaluation. The latter believe that at present multidisciplinary research still dominates which results in a lack of integration in the research field, the lack of a coherent conception of research, and a low degree of issue integration. Simultaneously, the postulated interdisciplinary approach is still underdeveloped and faces numerous obstacles. This opinion seems to be confirmed by dispersion and the disappointing cooperation between those institutions concerned with tourism studies.

Agreeing that tourism arouses the interest of numerous academic disciplines (within the meaning of the 'material object'<sup>3</sup>), it can be seen that they simultaneously define the 'formal object' of their investigation according to different aspects. This leads to difficulties in the research integration especially in a multidisciplinary approach, but also in an interdisciplinary one. It seems that such a situation is one of the most significant barriers hindering methodological progress. One interesting way of overcoming that barrier is proposed on a theoretical basis by MACIOŁEK (2002). He postulates the creation of a so-called tourism studies 'boss' whose task would be to synthesize the partial results coming from different disciplines. Until such a state of affairs the real dominance of interdisciplinary studies over multidisciplinary studies will not be achieved. The same author underlines that such a science should be formed basing on the reflection on the tourism object of the *ex interno* type instead of the commonly applied *ex externo* type. In other words, it should be formed by adjusting its formal subject to those aspects of tourism that refer to its substance.

Considering the issue of the methodological and factual integration of interdisciplinary tourism studies (in the context of cooperation between theory and practice) the opposite opinion is represented by MAIK (2002). This author believes that interdisciplinary cooperation should take into consideration the individuality of every discipline and simultaneously reinforce the integrity of tourism studies. It should be acknowledged that this view is quite controversial since it contains two postulates which are difficult to reconcile.

To sum up this analysis of the issue of interdisciplinarity and multidisciplinary, it should be noted that most academics do not question the need for developing research of the interdisciplinary type. They stress the potential benefits that can be reaped thanks to this kind of academic activity. On the other hand, when analysing the current state of affairs, the real scope for implementing interdisciplinary research in tourism is to be doubted. It seems that, as far as tourism is concerned, the multidisciplinary approach still dominates.

Another issue is the contribution of interdisciplinary studies to the theoretical and methodological bases of tourism as a field of study. It seems that after the first, enthusiastic period when academics thought that such an approach would provide revolutionary progress in the theory of tourism, we are now dealing with more balanced evaluations. Advantage of methodological progress that occurred in other disciplines, which could have been expected from interdisciplinary research, failed to be taken. Many authors believe that tourism still lacks solid theory (DANN, NASH, PEARCE 1988, VUKONIC 2005, AIREY 2002<sup>4</sup>, 2005). Such opinions give foundation to the conclusion that expected progress has not occurred and it is doubtful that this could happen in the short term. At the same time, views are appearing that there is a need to form a discipline (for the time being rather meta-disciplinary) which, based on a precisely defined and agreed substance of tourism (the object of its studies), would be able to integrate, from a methodological and factual position, the contributions of academic disciplines dealing with this field at the moment.

#### 4. TOURISM AS AN ACADEMIC DISCIPLINE – METHODOLOGICAL DILEMMAS

Academics concerned with tourism often present totally different opinions upon the issue of the possibility of the autonomy of tourism as a separate academic discipline (ALEJZIAK 2003, p. 159–162). These differences are based on various methodological premises and often also on institutional ones (CHŁOPECKI 2005). Internationally, strong proponents of the autonomy of tourism as an academic discipline (being in a minority) include JOVICIĆ (1988), COMIC (1989) and LEIPER (2000). Among Polish academics, the group of authors gathered around the departments (institutes) of tourism functioning within universities of physical education (ŁOBOŻEWICZ 2001, SIKORA 2001, KAZIMIERCZAK 2005) are proponents. One of the arguments they bring up is the recognition of similar rights for

physical culture. In opposition is a relatively large group from traditional disciplines who think that there is no sufficient methodological basis to form tourism studies. At the same time they advocate conducting interdisciplinary research on tourism (DANN, NASH, PEARCE 1988, JAFARI 1989, TRIBE 1997, WITT, BROKE, BUCKLEY 1991, PEARCE, BUTLER 1993, SZUBERT-ZARZECZNY 2001, GOŁEMBSKI 2003). Among academics who strongly stress a need for the improvement of theory in tourism are those from the humanities (WOŹNIAK 1995, 2005, PODEMSKI 2004, ALEJZIAK 2008). They discern methodological weaknesses in this field but simultaneously point to the necessity of qualitative changes in previous approaches without which academic progress will not be possible. In this context the evolution of the standpoints of some academics is interesting (ROGOZIŃSKI 1975, 1985, LISZEWSKI 1994, 2010).

One of more fierce opponents of the recognition of tourism as a separate discipline is TRIBE (1997), the author of a well-known article entitled 'The Indiscipline of Tourism' in which he indicates the 'undisciplinarity' of tourism. Tribe's views met with the opposition of an Australian academic Leiper (2000) whose argument with Tribe was published in the *Annals of Tourism Research*. He tried to indicate (mostly on the basis of empirical premises) that tourism is on the right path to academic independence.

ALEJZIAK (2003, pp. 162–164) points out that one of the basic conditions of the development and autonomy of tourism studies is their theoretical, methodological and practical integration. Unfortunately, the gauntlet is still too rarely picked up, in particular by tourism academics. Thus, in the opinion of CHOJNICKI (2005), who conducted an analysis from the theoretical-methodological point of view, is particularly valuable. He recognized that studies on tourism (at the current stage of development) are at a proto-level which does not fulfil all the requirements expected. At the same time, he believes that it has an empirical character. It is mainly a social science, but of a complex type (it also includes the natural sciences) as well as an applied discipline. The same author, when analysing the object of academic interest in this field, sees it on two levels of complexity. He refers to 1) tourism as a specific phenomenon alongside other specific phenomena; and 2) tourism as an economic, social and spatial phenomenon. At the same time, he stresses that only the former approach can constitute a basis for the autonomy of tourism. The latter leads to a multidisciplinary conception. This view agrees with the opinion of MACIOŁEK (2002), who stresses that the autonomy of tourism studies (from the methodological point of view) will not be possible until the essence of tourism, and on this basis the 'formal object'

of studies expressing the constitutive (specific) features of this field, are defined.

If Chojnicki's opinion about the protoacademic character of tourism is to be agreed, it should also be agreed that tourism is at the pre-paradigmatic stage (PEARCE 1993). In this context one further fundamental condition should be added to the list for recognition of tourism as a discipline: the need for the implementation, probably by way of a Kuhnian academic revolution<sup>5</sup>, of a convincing paradigm – a defined academic model of tourism.

One who accepts this is SZUBERT-ZARZECZNY (2001), who believes that the implementation of a paradigm will enable integration of knowledge about tourism, presently dispersed, and thus it will facilitate defining its object<sup>6</sup>. ALEJZIAK (2008), in turn, conducted an analysis of general paradigms of social science in the context of the possibility for their implementation in tourism studies. To sum up, one can state that the paradigmatic approach contains logically and chronologically ordered stages of 1) multidisciplinary research; 2) interdisciplinary research; 3) qualitative changes (Kuhn's academic revolution) that lead to the implementation of a new paradigm; 4) the formation of new autonomous tourism studies. This process has been schematically presented in the Fig 1.

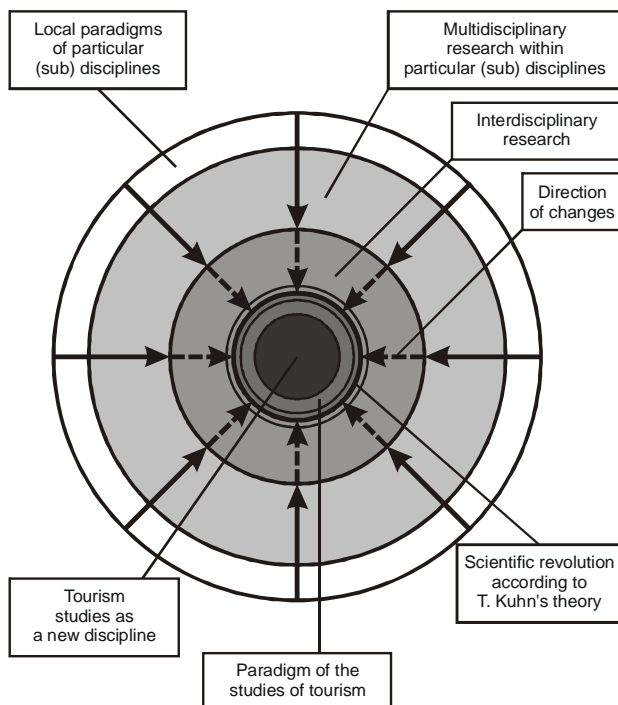


Fig. 1. Autonomy in the study of tourism according to the paradigmatic approach  
Source: author

Exactly the opposite view is represented by ECHTNER, JAMAL (1997). They argue that because of the

attachment of representatives of different disciplines (concerned with tourism) to their own paradigms it is very unlikely that a common academic model for this field will be adopted. At the same time, these authors incline to the model suggested by BERNSTEIN (1991) which assumes the unity of knowledge<sup>7</sup>. In this context the previous interdisciplinary barriers cease to be that significant and the complexity of tourism starts to appear an asset leading in a direct<sup>8</sup> way to the formation of an autonomous discipline. In conclusion they suggest five directions leading to the autonomy of tourism studies: 1) creating theoretical bases for the new discipline; 2) implementation of a holistic and integrated approach; 3) focusing on interdisciplinary research; 4) explaining theory and methodology; 5) taking advantage of various methodological traditions (positivist and interpretative).

A diagram of such an approach, called evolutionary, has been presented in Fig. 2.

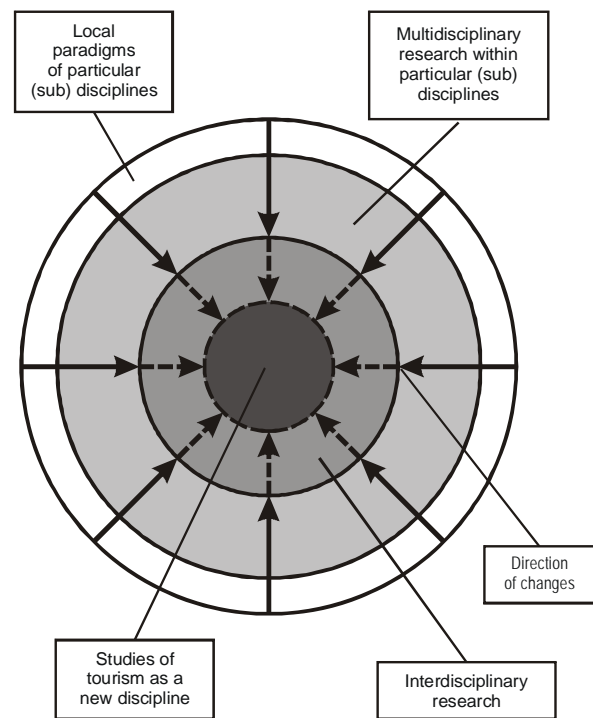


Fig. 2. Autonomy of the study of tourism according to the evolutionary approach  
Source: author

## 5. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Tourism, as a mass and global phenomenon, which at one and the same time is complex and multi-aspectual, is an area of interest of numerous academic disciplines. This field, due to its heterogeneity, appears to be particularly predestined to multi-disciplinary studies,

especially interdisciplinary research. On the other hand, it seems that the heterogeneity of the research object of tourism constitutes a basic obstacle for methodological and theoretical development. This makes the autonomy of tourism studies impossible and creates a barrier restraining further study and understanding of the phenomenon itself.

Despite the above-mentioned problems research into tourism will definitely continue to be carried out. The article puts forward the proposal that its development (in the methodological sense) leading to the autonomy of tourism studies, can proceed in one of two ways: according to the paradigmatic model or the evolutionary one (Fig. 3). It is difficult to decide which one will finally dominate. It seems that the paradigmatic model is more distinct. The condition that must be fulfilled in order for it to exist is a fundamental change in awareness; there must be agreement to apply a common model and forego attachment to the 'local paradigms' of particular disciplines. In turn, a chance for the evolutionary approach may lay in the development of interdisciplinary research. According to many this constitutes the best tool for understanding the complex processes occurring in the contemporary world.

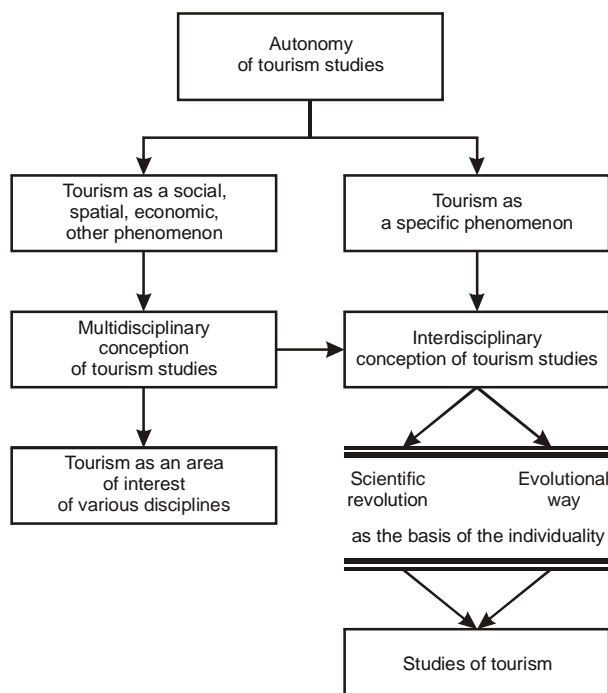


Fig. 3. Hypothetical process of the autonomy of tourism studies  
Source: author

A possible consequence (but unlikely in a long term perspective) is the intensification of multidisciplinary research (at the expense of the interdisciplinary approach), in which tourism will still be

considered the domain of particular disciplines. Surely, such an option would not contribute to the methodological development in the field of tourism studies as a specific phenomenon. It is also likely that it would not contribute much to research in those disciplines.

## FOOTNOTES

<sup>1</sup> Such attempts were made also by e.g. GOLEMBSKI (2003) and MARAK, WYRZYKOWSKI (2009).

<sup>2</sup> For order's sake and due to comparative-historical purposes (relevant later in the article) the author adopted the division into disciplines coherent with the Polish administrative classification.

<sup>3</sup> A 'material object' is what is being studied and a 'formal object' is the aspect of research on the 'material object'. This means that many disciplines have a common 'material object' but they differ in the 'formal object'. It can even be stated that a 'formal object' and not a 'material object' distinguishes a discipline in terms of 'objects' (MACIOLEK 2002, p. 22).

<sup>4</sup> Airey brings up the idea of a tourism area life cycle by BUTLER (1980) as a rare example of the implementation of an interdisciplinary approach in order to build a theoretical model which is an important contribution to the theory of tourism. In addition the interdisciplinary idea of tourism attractiveness by Polish academic Prof. ROGALEWSKI (1974) can be mentioned here.

<sup>5</sup> Such an approach agrees with the paradigmatic model of science of KUHN (1968). However, it should be noted that the theory of science also accepts a so-called hypothetically-deductive (falsificational) model that stems from critical rationalism. It indicates the role of criticism in the development of science. According to this idea scientific theories (paradigms) should not in any way monopolize knowledge, but on the contrary they should enable continuous verification by means of empirical research (POPPER 1973, DETEL 1995).

<sup>6</sup> The author, in order to support her argument, gives an example of a local paradigm defined in terms of the economics of tourism.

<sup>7</sup> Bernstein questions the methodological division of sciences into natural science (*Naturwissenschaften*) and the humanities (*Geisteswissenschaften*).

<sup>8</sup> In this approach a reference can be seen to the linear model of science development by Popper.

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## TOURISM VERSUS SPATIAL ORDER: MUTUAL RELATIONS

**Abstract:** The relation between tourism and the spatial environment is characterized by mutual interaction. The proliferation of tourism and massive tourism development intensifies its impact on the spatial environment, yet the focus is usually placed on environmental degradation and the resulting distortion of spatial order. Concurrently, the significance of the spatial environment, and spatial order in particular, as one of the determinants of tourism development is understated. On a theoretical plane the relation seems obvious, yet once the practical dimension is considered, it becomes at least debatable.

**Key words:** tourism, spatial order, tourism development determinants.

### INTRODUCTION

Tourism is undeniably a spatial phenomenon and the spatial movements of tourists remain its key attribute, thus making the relation between tourism and the spatial environment obvious. This relation changes through time and nowadays, when tourism comes into focus mostly in terms of its massive volume and implicit rapid expansion in space, this relation is perceived through the impact tourism development has on the spatial environment. Since tourism shapes the spatial environment in all its dimensions, and these transformations are significant and distinctly noticeable, the other side of the relation is overlooked, i.e. the impact of the spatial environment on tourism. This relation is absolutely essential since spatial order, as one of the attributes of the environment affected, often determines the quality of the spatial environment (and spatial governance), and the ability to satisfy diverse human (also tourist) needs. The aim of this study is to identify the mutual relation between tourism and the spatial environment, with special consideration given to the significance of spatial order for the development of tourism.

#### 1. TOURISM VERSUS SPATIAL ORDER: HOW IT DEVELOPED

Tourism as one of the fastest growing branches of the world economy (accounting for 8.8% employment and

9.1% revenue) has become one of the chief factors in shaping the global spatial environment in quantitative and qualitative terms. A constant increase in the total number of tourists (over 935 million in 2010 and one billion projected in 2012) along with diversification of their needs, and growing expectations with regard to products, attractions and services offered, triggers dynamic changes in tourism space, classically interpreted as 'part of the geographic and socio-economic space in which tourism takes place' (WARSZYŃSKA, JACKOWSKI 1978)<sup>1</sup>.

Quantitative changes can perhaps be deemed positive as the process of the disappearance of tourism space (despite its intensification) is being unquestionably overshadowed by the appearance of new tourism space and the expansion of that existing. The expansion of tourism space may be analyzed in its geographical, time- and perception-related aspects (STASIAK 2011). The stretching of tourism space in these dimensions is not as easily noticeable as its geographical expansion. By far the most discernible is the creation of new tourism spaces in areas which hitherto have not evoked tourism interest which for a number of reasons have nowadays become attractive for mass tourism<sup>2</sup>. More and more frequently, the purposeful creation of tourism space is witnessed with its main (and virtually only) task being the fulfilment of tourist expectations. This is usually accompanied by the creation of new tourism attractions (or increasing the tourism appeal of existing ones), and the

standardization of services (DURYDIWKA, DUDA-GROMADA 2011). More and more new tourism-dedicated space is being created, often in the form of tourism scenery spots or tourism attractions and theme venues appealing to specific groups of tourists. The standardization of services usually entails the development of tourism and accompanying infrastructure to provide tourists with high levels of comfort (and a sense of security) while avoiding uniformity and preserving the individual character of a given area or facility.

Parallel to changes relating to the expansion of tourism space, its internal structure is undergoing a transformation as well. This is more significant in regions where tourism is the main (or the sole) sector of the economy, which implies the subjection of its socio-economic systems to the development goals set by regional governments. In such instances, tourism becomes the chief factor determining the character of land use development and the level of spatial governance. Spatial order, in broad terms, brings together all categories of order (environmental, social, economic, spatial) and stands for the spatial organization and functioning of the socio-economic system, implements the criteria of social rationality, enables the proper operation of the system, and sustains the environment as desired. Spatial order is then interpreted as a state of structured diversity of forms and functions which enable optimal operation of the economy and society in a spatial environment, while maintaining the lowest possible number of conflicts between various organisations, and demonstrating a non-degrading effect on the natural environment (MEYER 2008). Nowadays, the significance of spatial harmony with regard to landscape aesthetics is being emphasized more frequently and it is ascertained that the aesthetic aspects of spatial order (spatial legibility, attractiveness of surroundings) are as important as its functionality and appropriacy to the structure of spatial behaviour. It is also assumed that spatial order means functionality, logic, legibility and transparency of these structures, as well as attractive design, harmony with nature, fitness for purpose, and spatial efficiency (KARWIŃSKA 2008). Since changes in the spatial environment are fast-paced, it is difficult to analyze spatial order in a static way i.e. juxtaposed against an optimal arrangement of elements ensuring the satisfactory operation of all organisations and the protection of natural resources. It is a dynamic process aimed at a continuous pursuit of an optimal state, amidst constantly changing internal and external conditions, concurrent with an attitude to get as close as possible to the optimal state in current conditions.

In areas where tourism is the predominant spatial function, often eliminating other forms of activity, it becomes the main determinant of the shape, structure

and character of spatial governance and land use development, thus determining the level of spatial order. Tourists themselves play a key role in shaping the spatial order since their decisions about a holiday destination become a causative factor triggering the appearance of tourism, as broadly understood, in a given space. Moreover, tourist requirements with regard to services and type of leisure activity are of crucial significance to emerging structure and land use development plans, and determine the character of tourism space. The development of tourism, particularly the intensification of mass tourism, shapes the spatial environment in its economic, social and environmental dimensions.

The most identifiable are changes in the spatial environment occurring in the economic realm, as most often they stand for an increase of wealth in a given area which is reflected in noticeable economic growth and an improvement of living standards of the area's inhabitants. However, a simultaneous change occurs in the spatial structure which is the most visually conspicuous effect of tourism on the spatial environment. Activities relating to the creation of tourism products and services in a given area are becoming a causative factor of location processes which result in the creation of new elements in an existing spatial arrangement through the expansion (or construction from scratch) of technical and social infrastructure (MEYER 2009). Among location processes, stimulated processes are prevalent, which adjust the area's spatial structure to the needs and expectations of tourists. This category entails the development of an area's tourism infrastructure, investment enabling access to what is of tourism value and its protection (including environmental protection), as well as the creation of new tourism attractions as part of an area's tourism product. Other inductive and adaptive spatial processes are initiated concurrently, implied by the necessity to adapt the existing spatial and economic system to a new setting (with tourism of predominant significance) necessitates the reorganization of existing structures (often also their expansion) so as to enable operation of the emerging socio-economic system bringing together existing and newly-located elements. This mostly consists in adapting municipal infrastructure to tourism intensity during the high season, as the same infrastructure will be used by tourists and residents (water and sewage system, power grid, telecommunications network etc.). At a later stage, autonomous spatial processes take place, generated by an uneven distribution of tourism (and thus infrastructure). The processes are a long-term consequence of temporary actions undertaken in the spatial environment (e.g. comprising a number of activities with regard to land use designation and its consequences). Tourism activity, by inspiring new spatial

forms and transforming (liquidating or reconstructing) existing elements, significantly determines the region's spatial development, at the same subordinating it to tourism requirements.

In the social realm, tourism induces an array of positive phenomena associated with the occupations of local inhabitants (decreased unemployment rate, vocational diversification), improved living standards or benefits stemming from good contact with tourists. However, social polarization, related to the degree of involvement in tourism handling processes and differing attitudes towards tourists, is an equally frequent phenomenon, as well as the polarization of regional developmental priorities. The adverse impact of tourism on the socio-cultural environment in tourism-attractive areas refers to its negative impact on an 'intangible' environment: acculturation and commercialization of local culture, the disappearance of genuine regional culture, destruction of social structures and the wrecking of local communities, increased consumerism, a growing number of conflicts and pathological behaviour among locals, a deteriorated quality of life. In addition the 'tangible' environment is affected: the destruction of what is of anthropogenic tourism value, changes in landscape architecture, the disappearance of the cultural landscape, and infrastructural inefficiency particularly during tourism seasons.

When it comes to the environmental realm, one may point to the positive effects of tourism development (e.g. introduction of new ideas aimed at natural environment protection), yet its negative impact is definitely wider in scope and affects all spheres constituting the environment (MEYER 2008a). Considering the 'hydrosphere', tourism contributes to the distortion of the water balance by excessive water demand leading to increased sewage generation. The amount of water used in tourism gets increasingly close to the amount consumed by industry, this situation forced by the need to meet the individual needs of tourists and tourism services, as well as the need to maintain accompanying facilities (pools, golf courses or water parks). Sources of water pollution (in addition to accommodation, catering and accompanying facilities) is water transport (sea and inland), the main source of oil-related pollution, and the dumping of waste by individual tourists and service-providing organisations. Air pollution is mostly generated by tourism-related transport, heating equipment and the operation of power-consuming devices such as air conditioning or ski infrastructure (ZARĘBA 2006). This results in the emission of increasingly large amounts of harmful compounds to the atmosphere during trips to a holiday destination and during trips in and around the destination. The effects comprise local impacts, i.e. excessive air pollution, smog or acid rain,

as well as global impacts: global warming and ozone depletion. Although not well-identified as yet, the distortion of the lithosphere has consequences and is directly or indirectly linked to topography, soils and geological structure, changes in which usually arise during the construction of the tourism infrastructure: accommodation, catering, transport and accompanying facilities. It is often observed that during the process of adapting what is of tourism value to suit its needs, topography changes to facilitate transportation, underscore natural value or ensure maximum tourism attraction. The 'biosphere' is an environmental component sensitive to external influence as it responds to changes occurring in other spheres. Contamination and degradation of the latter threatens the existence of species, and in some cases leads to their extinction. Quite often a natural system damaged (or unattractive to tourists) is replaced by a new one, with more resistant species, but not necessarily indigenous to a given place.

The scope of the negative effects of tourism development, presented concisely above, being of crucial significance in many areas, clearly indicates that in regions where mass tourism is developing, one of the worst practical models of spatial governance is being implemented<sup>3</sup>. To use a metaphor, tourism can be perceived as a 'plunderer', driven by a desire to use existing spatial values to the maximum without giving consideration to the future that lies ahead. Elements of spatial development are usually used to their full capacity only during a tourism season, but the landscape and functional impact is permanent and often irreversible. Such a type of spatial governance is based on obtaining maximum instant gratification while resources are being excessively exploited, not adequately protected and elements are located in the spatial environment in a chaotic way. Concurrently, the common good that is spatial order, which is hard to quantify, is being completely overlooked though its distortion may be irreversible. Degradation of the 'tangible' environment (destruction of the natural environment, appearance of areas with chaotic land development, appearance of over-exploited areas) or the socio-cultural environment (invalidation of symbolic environments, loss of e.g. 'luxury' status) often take place as a result of various conflicts that emerge during times of rapid change. Distortion of spatial order usually occurs in the context of fast and one-sided development of an area, when spatial development becomes subordinated to only one sector of the economy (KARWIŃSKA 2008). The development of mass tourism is nowadays being compared to the development of industry, with natural resources (which not only economic sectors, but also branches within them, compete for) being the main factor generating spatial conflicts, and disrespect for land-

scape or historical values, which along with an absence of comprehensive conceptual frameworks, leads to spatial chaos. Distortion of spatial order may become the reason for losing some (or even the majority of) values which inspired tourism and initiated its development in a given region, and most certainly it constitutes a distinct obstacle to the process of sustainable development.

There are definitely very few regions where tourism performs the role of a *good host* acting in a long-term perspective, accepting deferred gratification and balancing its own benefits with what is good for the community and allows spatial order to be developed within a given area. This refers mostly to regions which do not attract mass tourism, but rather alternative or specialist tourism.

## 2. TOURISM VERSUS SPATIAL ORDER: DEVELOPMENT DETERMINANTS

The relation between tourism and the spatial environment is not one-sided, with either a positive or a negative impact of tourism activity on the environment, its elements and attributes, including spatial order. It is rather a system of mutual interactions in which the potential for tourism development largely depends on diverse factors and conditions related indirectly or directly to the spatial environment. This system has a cause-and-effect nature in the sense that change to one of its elements triggers a reaction in the others. This implies that as tourism transforms the spatial environment, it affects the conditions it operates in, and this in turn changes the nature of its operation. It is a continuous process, subject to dynamic change in space and time.

Considering tourism in a variety of contexts (tourism space, tourism product, tourism economy) one may assume that determinants stimulating its growth ('stimulants') or impeding its growth ('dis-stimulants') are common, and only the importance and nature of their impact varies in given contexts.

In the literature, despite the conformity of most authors' views on the quantity of tourism development determinants (very large and virtually eluding comprehensive presentation) and their significance in time, a uniform classification is missing. The divisions proposed distinguish economic and non-economic factors, subjective and objective factors, demand, supply and universal factors (GAWORECKI 2003). More comprehensive classifications categorize tourism development factors into external: socio-demographic, economic, technical, political and environmental conditions; and internal: supply and demand (KUREK ed. 2008).

Comparing the significance of the main conditions shaping tourism in the past (19<sup>th</sup> century) and in more modern times (20<sup>th</sup> and 21<sup>st</sup> centuries), one may ascertain that there are several basic conditions embracing the increased awareness and wealth of societies, development of modes of transport, increased total leisure time, and the operations of organisations dedicated to the management of tourism (MEYER 2009a). Their impact on tourism development changes over the course of time and nowadays the situation has become even more complex, as the variable nature of tourism itself also plays a significant role. In a historical perspective, changes in social awareness have made the holiday trip distinctly more important as a way of spending one's leisure time (necessary for wellbeing) and have changed their perception as something that is worth spending time and money on. Further changes in awareness have resulted from rising educational standards which have contributed to the need to explore the surrounding world and encouraged people to go on intellectually-stimulating trips, cultural enrichment and the broadening of horizons. Income level (contrary to received opinion) is constantly growing and in developed countries (partly also in developing ones) does not constitute a distinct threshold separating the part of society which can afford holiday trips from that which cannot. Diversification of prices and standards of services by tourism managers (and state social policy) enables participation in tourism for a majority of those who voice such needs. At the initial stages of tourism development, increase in leisure time was induced by legal regulations forcing employers to shorten the working day and reduce the number of working days in a week; this was the result of becoming aware of the correspondence between an employee's physical and mental condition and his work efficiency, involvement and dedication. Today's increase in leisure time, as well as the amount of time spent on holiday, largely stems from a new lifestyle model promoting intense professional activity combined with equally intense leisure, both during the week and during holidays. Technical advancement in modes of transport has brought about a revolution: they are not merely a way to cover distances (as they used to be) necessary to reach the destination, but are becoming a tourism attraction per se (cruises on board luxurious liners or ferries, historic elements of railway rolling stock). Moreover, other infrastructure used by tourism is undergoing change; it is becoming more common, more versatile and more surprising in terms of spatial form. These new elements are meant to attract as many tourists as possible and fully satisfy their needs. It often happens that these inventions or new ideas enable the exploitation of what is of value for tourism, which was formerly inaccessible. The setting up of

travel agencies in the 19<sup>th</sup> century enabled those who were not capable of arranging a trip on their own (i.e. the majority) to travel, and the now constantly growing number of tourism operators, along with fierce competition, makes demand soar, as well as improving the variety and quality of tourism services, while stimulating price diversity.

New factors, whose significance for present-day tourism cannot be overlooked, are state policies, the economic benefits generated by tourism, the progressive increase in urban population, access to information, international circulation of money and globalization<sup>4</sup>. State policy, in broad terms, affects the demand and supply aspect of tourism. Policies aimed at ensuring a stable political situation worldwide, the disappearance of political barriers and enhancement of international safety<sup>5</sup>, boosts the demand for tourism services. Tourism policy aims at creating conducive conditions for the operation of tourism enterprises (tax concessions, preferential loans) and therefore the tourism economy, enhances the potential demand for tourism services. For many regions and states tourism has become a crucial income generator, enabling growth and enhancing wellbeing. At the same time, the size of the urban population is constantly growing and faced with an increasingly degraded natural and anthropogenic environment, it is only natural that the need to spend time in another more inspiring and friendly environment arises, contributing to the formation of highly motivated tourism needs. These are easier to satisfy in the context of technological advancement, with a free flow of information and access to media which popularize tourism and facilitate access to tourism regions and services. Such conditions as progressive globalization should not be underestimated, as they result in the facilitation of travel, the unification of tourism needs and simplified money transactions during holiday trips, while at the same time contributing to growing tourism expenditure.

Assuming that the process of creating and promoting tourism products is fundamental to the development of present day tourism<sup>6</sup>, determinants crucial to that process may be indicated. In the creation process of the tourism product, irrespective of the type of organisation it is managed by (business enterprise or region), internal determinants linked directly to the organisation can be distinguished, and external determinants consisting of a set of general conditions shaping the environment in which organisations act, and a set of specific factors related to those directly affecting the tourism products created (MEYER 2010).

Internal determinants are directly linked to the resources of the organisation creating a tourism product and to the rules governing its market opera-

tions, which in turn initiate certain activities aimed to maintain or improve its market position. In the case of tourism enterprises, their resources consist of fixed and current assets, human resources and internal structure (GOŁEMBSKI ed. 2002). In the case of tourism regions, it may be assumed that the resources are equivalent to selected elements of their tourism potential, understood as all those elements of the geographical environment and human behaviour that can be used to perform or manage tourism activities (KACZMAREK, STASIAK, WŁODARCZYK 2002). Structural resources are directly linked to elements present in the region such as what is of tourism value and attractions, development of tourism facilities, accessibility, and other factors which may be conducive to tourism development (e.g. unused land for tourism-related investment). Among functional resources comprising elements directly linked to a given area, as well as those external to the area, the former can be included among factors affecting the tourism product creation process. Here the most significant are local economic factors (e.g. aid or support for tourism entrepreneurs in the region), demographic factors characterizing a given local community (available labour force, demographic structures, tourism activity to date), political and organizational conditions (comprising action undertaken by local government and other organizations to promote tourism products). As regional resources one may also consider the level of the 'co-opetition' process, that is the 'cooperative competition' of organisations responsible for the creation of a regional tourism product, as these organisations should collaborate in order to implement an attractive product (and use it properly), and at the same time compete with one another for a tourist who has decided to visit this region. The relation between organisations should be dominated by co-operation as only co-operation will allow them to put into life an attractive tourism product and ensure its long-term use (MEYER 2006).

Apart from external determinants, internal determinants affect the process of creating tourism products and these can be divided into specific and general conditions. Specific determinants consist of organisations which have a direct impact on the tourism product creation process, i.e. tourists (their number, structure, new behavioural trends or patterns etc.) and service providers (who create elements of tourism products). General determinants shape the environment in which the above-mentioned organisations operate and include such conditions as demographic (related to demographic situation, including population, biological and economic structures, household size, place of residence etc.), socio-economic (related to the level of economic growth and such indicators as gross national income, income structure

and income distribution, real wages, unemployment rate, balance of payments), legal and organizational (regulations on tourism and tourism-related sectors), political (tourism policy) and other (globalization processes, the political and environmental situation in Poland and worldwide, progressive urbanization etc). The principles of sustainable development remain an over-riding determinant as their observance in the modern world is necessary in all sectors of the economy, and particularly in the tourism sector.

When investigating tourism development determinants from different perspectives, the issue of spatial order comes naturally to focus as an obvious prerequisite of a satisfactory holiday. Aspects of spatial order related to, for example, the quality of natural tourism, spatial development and its character, or the necessity to implement principles of sustainable growth, diversified as they are, do affect tourism development, yet spatial governance, in the broad sense of the term, is not being perceived as a determinant of tourism development (or very rarely the case). In the process of mutual interaction, the relation tourism → spatial environment is definitely predominant and its effects are distinctly noticeable in the spatial environment (distortion of spatial order), with organisations rarely realizing the importance of the inverse relation determinant, i.e. spatial environment → tourism.

### 3. TOURISM AND SPATIAL ORDER: NEW TRENDS

In the face of rapid and in a sense impetuous growth of tourism during the last decade, identification of new trends cannot be exhaustive, but rather partial and intuitive and to a large extent, extemporary. Depending on the character of the research conducted, various sets of trends referring to different aspects of tourism are indicated, however rarely do they constitute a comprehensive classification. In most (WINIARSKI, ZDEBSKI 2008, KUREK ed. 2008, PANASIUK ed. 2011, MEYER ed. 2006) common elements can be tracked referring to such easily identifiable trends:

#### 1. Trends in tourism supply:

- substitution (or rather supplementation as it does not seem likely that a product of leisure tourism will become entirely marginalized) of a typical 3 x S tourism product (sun, sea, sand) by 3 x E (entertainment, excitement, education), which entails expansion of tourism space as well as the creation of new tourism attractions (e.g. theme parks, specialist and dedicated resorts) that are taking over a growing portion of tourism;

- constantly growing diversification of tourism needs, i.e. progressive diversification of needs reported when selecting a tourism trip, forcing in turn a greater diversification of tourism products, since the number of tourists demanding high comfort (development of business or incentive tourism) is rising as fast as the number who want to experience unique holidays and exotic cultures (specialist, adventure or extreme tourism).

2. Trends in tourism demand (changes in needs, preferences and motivations underlying tourism trips):

- constant increase in the number of tourists, resulting partly from the expansion of the so-called 'leisure democracy' in the sense that members of those social strata who previously did not participate in tourism (for various health-, technology- or psychology-related reasons) now participate freely (the elderly, families with very small children, the disabled);

- increase in the number of shorter tourism trips and an increase in the demand for services and their quality (even with the same number of tourists), and prioritizing safety;

- growing influence of trend-setting media (often seasonal trends) on the popularity of particular types of activities, destination regions or types of events (e.g. all-inclusive and 7/7);

- changes in preferred lifestyle, promoting a healthy and environmentally-friendly lifestyle which is reflected in the way leisure time is spent (active instead of passive leisure) and increased requirements when it comes to the quality of the environment at the destination.

#### 3. Universal trends:

- globalization contributing to the homogenization of tourism which may result in the acceleration of tourism development, as well as its standardization and unification;

- sustainable growth, the implementation of which is not easy in practice, though well-considered and structured principles constitute a necessary component of most of the documents setting directions for the development of tourism;

- progressive informationalization and the implementation of new technologies is becoming increasingly more significant in the process of managing tourism;

- increased market competitiveness (on every level: local, regional, global);

- strong dependence between preferred tourism destinations and the current political and economic situation (terrorist attacks, military conflicts), as well as the global environmental situation (natural disasters, climate changes, the condition of natural environment).

Among many new trends identifiable in contemporary tourism, no major premises are noticeable which would indicate that spatial order as a determinant of tourism development is gaining in importance. However, it can be assumed that trends related to the implementation of the principles of sustainable development (with its fundamental attribute being spatial order), and changes in preferred lifestyle (an environmentally-conscious attitude of tourists reflected in the demand for a high quality environment at a holiday destination) may stimulate a shift in attitudes. This is both among those in charge of creating a tourism product and among consumers of those products, and is towards realizing and emphasizing the part spatial harmony in the environment (equivalent to spatial order) plays in the overall tourism attractiveness of a given tourism venue. Such a mental shift could act as a catalyst by having respect for spatial order as a principle and promoting the attractiveness of spatial order as a kind of environment in which all human activities can be performed (in particular tourism activities) in a decidedly more effective way.

### SUMMARY

The aim of recapitulation is to inspire discussion rather than formulate specific conclusions. However the following conclusion seems unquestionable - spatial order, in the broad sense of the term, is not being perceived as a determinant of tourism development although some of its attributes largely define the tourism appeal of given areas. At the same time, the inverse relation carries many consequences, mostly negative. It may seem that spatial order, especially in terms of aesthetics and landscape, should be a significant determinant of choices made by tourists, favouring regions with a clear and transparent spatial arrangement. However, is it really so? Is this not just an unjustified opinion based on the assumption that systems respecting principles of spatial order are as a rule more attractive and more functional than others? As the spatial environment is perceived in a highly individual and subjective way, it eludes an objective and comprehensive evaluation, in particular with regard to the level of spatial order achieved. Choices made by mass tourists (usually determined by price, trends, and opinions of acquaintances/ family - but who nevertheless are satisfied with their choices) often involve travel to places which have been chaotically developed, overloaded in terms of tourism capacity, and often visually unattractive, distinctly indicate that this trend continually becomes stronger.

In turn, it de-motivates and discourages creators of tourism products from embarking on action that would ensure spatial order in a given region. What seems crucial is the recognition of the value of spatial order both by the creators and managers of tourism products, and tourists themselves. Accepting the fact that certain standards of order undergo transformation over time, though the core remains unchanged and has an enriching function (and in many cases an enabling function), a satisfactory holiday may become an incentive to include spatial order among tourism development determinants. This, however, may be difficult to implement in a society where over 80% of citizens (2010, CBOS, Survey Report BS/134/2010) positively evaluate the existing spatial order in their place of residence, which seems surprising for anyone familiar with the standards of spatial development in Poland, and thus may suggest a low sensitivity of respondents to this aspect of the environment.

### FOOTNOTES

<sup>1</sup> In comprehensive terms, it is 'a part (sub-space) of geographical space which functionally stands out and is understood in the wider sense, that is as sub-space consisting of natural elements of the Earth (natural environment), permanent effect of human activity on this (economic environment), as well as the human environment in the social sense" (LISZEWSKI 1995), and according to the new approach, it is the part of geographic space in which tourism takes place (WŁODARCZYK 2009).

<sup>2</sup> Apart from the expansion of the spatial environment in a technical sense (from the perspective of the area), we can also talk about the expansion of the spatial environment in a social sense (from the perspective of a tourist) when a given place is being discovered and experienced by a tourist for the first time (LISZEWSKI 2006).

<sup>3</sup> Three main patterns have been distinguished, named in metaphorically: *plunderer, good host, current administrator* (KARWIŃSKA 2008).

<sup>4</sup> An interesting idea on the determinants of contemporary tourism has been presented by Niezgoda & Zmysłony. They distinguished civilization-related premises, urbanization, mobility, leisure time, buying power and environment (NIEZGODA, ZMYŚLONY 2003).

<sup>5</sup> Especially after the events of 11 September 2001 which radically reordered priorities in tourism, and in particular in international travel.

<sup>6</sup> Such an assumption arises from the tendency of mass tourism to use ready-made products and that the increasing number of tourists at the same time is both the cause and the effect of the growing number and diversification of tourism products.

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## THE ROLE OF ENVIRONMENTAL KNOWLEDGE, ATTITUDES AND INITIATIVES IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF A TOURISM PRODUCT

**Abstract:** The article looks at environmental activities undertaken by the various stakeholders engaged in the development of a tourism product. Special attention is given to the impact of tourists' behaviour on tourist destination products and on future ecology-related actions of service providers. The meaning of environmental awareness is explained as well as its relationship with the concepts of sustainable tourism and eco-tourism. Some problems arising from demand for eco-products are discussed.

**Key words:** tourism product, environmental awareness, sustainable tourism.

### 1. INTRODUCTION

The tourism product is a complex proposition developed by multiple stakeholders who take advantage of the various tourist attractions of a destination to create a unique core of the product. This uniqueness decides about the product's attractiveness.

Progressive degradation of the environment has limited the number of valuable areas attractive for tourism. People can improve the quality of amenities and make a destination more accessible to tourists but they have only a limited ability to renew, enlarge or create new landscapes and natural tourist attractions. It is worthwhile, therefore, to examine the opportunities arising from environmental awareness on the part of both tourists and the stakeholders involved in the development of a tourism product.

The present article looks at environmentally responsible activities undertaken by the various stakeholders creating a tourism product. Special attention is given to the tourist whose behaviour impacts not only on the destination's existing product but also influences the character and quality of the product's components which will be used by future visitors, or even future generations of visitors.

We may put forward a thesis that environmental actions not only preserve the resources on which tourism development is based but also reinforce society's environmental awareness, a necessary precondition for the prevention of the environment's degradation. Ecological education is a two-way process: its purpose is to develop environmentally responsible attitudes but in turn provision of ecological education depends on the existence of such attitudes in the society.

### 2. NATURE AND DEFINITION OF ENVIRONMENTAL AWARENESS

In the late nineteen-sixties a growing awareness of the threats to the natural environment led to purposeful and organised actions aimed at preventing the process of environmental degradation. It is reflected in numerous initiatives undertaken at the time both internationally and on a local scale whose purpose was to recognise, control and curb further degradation of the natural environment. The efforts of the international community since then have resulted in legal regulations, political and economic decisions, technological solutions, and last but not least in the higher environmental awareness of societies.

A major landmark in environmental awareness was the publication in 1969 of the United Nations report on the Problems of Human Environment ('the U Thant Report') (BOHDANOWICZ 2008, p. 67). The report made the international community aware of the scarcity and fragility of natural resources, the growing degradation of the Earth's environment, and the existence of development barriers in the world.

An important event in environmental education was the Belgrade conference organised by UNESCO in 1975 which set out the goals for environmental instruction at different learning stages and in different educational systems. That programme was further developed by the Tbilisi Declaration issued by a joint conference of UNESCO and UNEP in 1977. The Declaration placed an obligation on UNESCO member states to include environmental education in school curricula and allocate adequate resources for this purpose (MICHAŁOWSKI 1994, pp. 22-23).

Environmental awareness is an integral part of social awareness, understood as an aggregate of ideas, concepts, convictions, opinions, and attitudes shared by entire social groups (such as nations, classes, and religious or professional groups), institutionalised and solidified in historically developed civilisations (BOHDANOWICZ 2008, p. 68).

The notion of environmental awareness can be explored from both descriptive (what it is) and prescriptive (what it should be) perspectives. A popular approach encountered in the literature is to define a broad and narrow meaning of the notion (GÓRKA, POSKROBKO, RADECKI 2001). In a broader sense environmental awareness is defined as a set of ideas, values and opinions about the natural environment as a living place for humans (societies), shared by specific groups in a given historic period. In a narrower sense environmental awareness is construed as the state of knowledge, concepts and views on the role of the environment in human life, the impact of man on the environment, the extent of environmental degradation and depletion of natural resources, existing and potential threats, and protection of the environment including the state of knowledge about the ways and instruments for controlling the use of environmental resources. The latter approach is considered more practical. BURGER (1996) proposes another practical definition describing environmental awareness as a set of facts and convictions about the natural environment and the recognition of a relationship between the state of the natural environment and human quality of life.

A higher level of environmental awareness is needed to curb wasteful exploitation of resources in many parts of the world. As KASPRZYK (2006) reports, irresponsible exploitation of the environment is common in places where communities do not participate in the development of local policy. Local communities, their representative bodies, non-governmental organisations and expert groups should all have a say in the setting of local priorities, allocation of resources and spatial planning.

Leaving aside definitions we may conclude that environmental awareness is:

- a subjective phenomenon that should be evaluated from the individual's perspective;
- a complex process which depends on the degree of social acceptance of ideas and moral standards, and on the knowledge of impacts of various forms of economic and social activity on the environment.

We should note that moral norms are the effect of traditional attitudes towards the environment whereas knowledge is the effect of education and direct observations. Education is needed to promote responsible use of the nature's resources based on:

- understanding of and sensitivity to the natural environment;
- respect for the natural environment and motivation to improve or preserve its quality;
- ability to recognise ecological problems and participate in their solution.

Citing MICHAŁOWSKI (1994, p. 37) we may say that '[...] protection and development of the environment relates to the activities and attitudes of man in the areas of politics, economy and social life; it also concerns interpersonal relations, and attitudes towards the older people, the weak and vulnerable. This process of educating the society aims at creating conscious civic attitudes but it also depends on the existence of such attitudes'.

The development of pro-ecology attitudes is a two-stage process: first a system of values is created and afterwards such a system of values, accepted by societies and individuals, influences people's behaviour. The environmental awareness and the resulting proactive behaviour concern many aspects of human life, including leisure activities and tourism. Inappropriate behaviour of tourists and tourism stakeholders towards the environment, be it due to lack of environmental awareness or pure neglect, leads to its degradation. Often the differences in rational behaviour of groups and individuals arise from differences in priorities set by those groups and individuals as in the short term the cost of environmental protection requires societies to forfeit some of their material welfare.

Environmental awareness is an issue requiring a broad humanistic understanding of the role of man in the natural environment rather than a purely pragmatic and technocratic approach. A humanistic approach assumes the central role of man not only by virtue of his needs but above all because of the consequences of his actions and his responsibility for the state of the environment. A direct consequence of such approach is the extension of planning time horizons: a long-term perspective towards the environment takes precedence over short-term objectives.

Literature identifies two kinds of environmental movements (MICHAŁOWSKI 1994, p. 40). The first one represents a traditional conservational approach, focusing on the issues of environmental degradation and related threats to human existence. The other movement perceives the human surroundings through the prism of cultural, humanistic and civilisation values.

### 3. PRINCIPLES OF TOURISM PRODUCT DEVELOPMENT IN THE LIGHT OF SUSTAINABLE TOURISM AND ECOTOURISM CONCEPTS

The fundamental premise of sustainable development and the related concept of sustainable tourism is the preservation of natural resources for future generations. The Federation of National Parks and Protected Areas of Europe defines sustainable tourism as 'any form of tourism development, tourism activity and tourism management that maintains the ecological, social and economic integrity of areas, and preserves in unaltered state the natural and cultural resources of these areas' (ZARĘBA 2000, p. 43). The ultimate goal of the sustainable tourism concept is, therefore, the achievement of harmony between the needs of tourists, the natural environment and local communities.

The objectives of sustainable tourism at destination level can be sorted into three groups, analogous to the aims of sustainable development:

- **environmental objectives:** preservation of natural resources for tourist purposes; reduction of environmental pollution and degradation caused by tourism;
- **economic objectives:** host communities material welfare; the maintenance and optimal usage of tourism infrastructure;
- **social objectives:** opportunities for gainful employment in the tourism sector; recreation opportunities for both visitors and host communities; protection of cultural identity of local communities; increased community participation in local tourism policy.

The three types of objectives are interrelated, with sustainable development of a destination being the ultimate goal. It would be wrong, therefore, to analyse the objectives separately without showing how they complement each other. However, interactions and conflicts between particular objectives can be considered in detail only when specific case studies are analysed.

A concept related to sustainable tourism is ecotourism, understood as a form of active exploration of areas characterised by outstanding natural and cultural qualities, a form of tourism which has no negative impact on natural ecosystems or cultural identities of local communities, and finally generates financial resources for the protection and preservation of tourism areas (ZARĘBA 2000, p. 47, NIEZGODA 2006, p. 35). Ecotourism is regarded as the 'purest' form of environmentally-friendly travelling (WEAVER 2001, p. 15). A development imperative of ecotourism is the existence of the highest quality natural areas. In the literature ecotourism is sometimes considered synonymous with sustainable tourism, although such an approach is imprecise since ecotourism can only be

regarded as the 'hard core' of sustainable tourism (NIEZGODA 2006).

Sustainable tourism development requires that all stakeholders involved in the development of a tourism product realise the impacts of tourism on the environment and know how to control these impacts by implementing the necessary changes and improvements. In practice, the environmental awareness of stakeholders should be translated into pro-ecology policies, i.e. policies consistent with the objectives of environmental protection. In the process of tourism product development this consistency should be reflected in:

- rational use of resources (saving of water, energy, etc);
- knowledge and observance of environmental protection principles laid down in acts of law;
- readiness to participate in environmental initiatives undertaken by other stakeholders and organisations;
- projection of responsibility and care about the state of the natural environment.

All such actions require the involvement and collaboration of the stakeholders. The tourism product is a perfect example of a situation where failure to act on the part of one actor (service provider) can foil the efforts of other stakeholders. For instance, by segregating waste both the hotel operator and the tourist undertake an environmentally-friendly action. But if the local authority fails to put in place a waste recycling scheme then such action is rendered ineffective.

### 4. ECOLOGICAL DETERMINANTS OF TOURIST PURCHASING BEHAVIOUR

Tourist purchasing behaviour is part of a complex multi-phase process resulting in the needs and desires of the tourist being concretised in specific characteristics and qualities of a purchased product or service. With a composite product, such as the tourism product, the buyer may look for different qualities in the various elements of the purchased good or service. An unsatisfied need triggers the consumer decision-making process involving multiple considerations such as disposable income of the consumer, availability of information about the product or the value-for-money issue.

Many commentators argue that the average consumer does not regard environmental issues as the most important criterion in planning a holiday. Even ardent proponents of nature tourism, the most environmentally-aware group of travellers, are first of all consumers and their desire to get as close as possible to the place of interest may often take pre-

cedence over environmental considerations (MAJEWSKI 2008, p. 193). Nevertheless, the problems of environmental protection are increasingly coming to the fore. Tourist-consumers begin to understand that their conscious actions (or conscious failure to act) affect other spheres of social and economic life (NIEMCZYK 2008, p 193).

In the purchase decision-making process, environmental issues may collide with other selection criteria applied by the tourist-consumer. Such conflicts of interest, or 'collisions' (JEDLIŃSKA 2004, p. 38), are common in the process of satisfying needs. So if a tourist were to buy an ecology friendly product or service his or her environmental awareness would have to take precedence over other considerations such as routine, comfort or ease of access to goods and services.

Market research by PONDEL (2007) cites a number of 'green consumer' typologies. By personality-type consumers can be divided into:

- traditionally-oriented - the least caring about environmental issues, proponents of private property, economic growth and material welfare;
- outward-oriented - concerned about the future of society;
- inward-oriented - concerned mainly about the impact of the environment on human health.

Each of the three types of consumers may have a motivation for eco-friendly behaviour. 'Traditional' consumers, pursuing and attaining the goal of higher living standards, are ultimately motivated by higher-order needs. According to Maslow's hierarchy of needs, once a lower need has been satisfied a higher order need becomes a motivator, therefore having satisfied their material ambitions traditional consumers may look for esteem and self-actualisation in the pursuit of social and environmental goals.

The outward-oriented tourist-consumer is concerned about tourism impacts on destinations. Such a traveller might be an advocate of KRIPENDORF'S (1982) 'soft tourism', a form of tourism which builds close ties between visitors and local communities. The outward-oriented tourist may prefer to purchase local produce over globally sourced imports, and may want to have a positive influence on local people.

Inward-oriented consumers attach great importance to the effect of the environment on their health. Such self-centred consumers are likely to choose attractive, unspoilt destinations but it does not mean that they overly care about the social or environmental issues of the visited places.

It is somewhat disturbing that while people seem to appreciate the effects of environmental initiatives they are frequently not inclined to change their own ways and make small sacrifices for the good of the environment.

The above considerations have led us to propose the following determinants of environmentally-motivated tourist purchasing decisions:

1. Personal motivations - focusing on health concerns, and the quality and safety of vacationing.
2. Conformist motivations - adhering to contemporary eco-fashions and eco-trends, accepting and observing existing legal regulations.
3. Ideological motivations - arising from genuine understanding and concern about the present and future condition of natural and social environments, and expressing readiness to act preventively to forestall further environmental degradation.

Tourists whose purchasing decisions are environmentally motivated have to realise that their choices may compromise other objectives and benefits, for example:

- staying at an eco-lodge or purchasing local products and services can be more expensive than choosing conventional accommodation and mass-produced goods;
- eco-products and eco-services can have inferior utility and be less convenient (e.g. using public transport to get to a holiday destination can be more troublesome than using one's own car);
- eco-products can be less attractive than their conventional equivalents, e.g. bathrooms at eco-lodgings may be more modestly arranged compared with those provided in alternative accommodation facilities;
- environmentally motivated behaviour can be seen as odd by those who prefer ostentatious consumption, e.g. a person using public transport, not indulging in shopping sprees, or buying only local produce may be looked upon by others as someone who cannot afford a 'better holiday'.

In order to overcome such dilemmas, environmentally motivated tourists must have strong convictions about the rightness of their decisions and should not succumb to inner doubts that their actions might be marginal and ineffective.

Awareness about the impact of the environment on human health and quality of life, although not sufficient without actions, could become a starting point for further exploration of the issue and ultimate translation of the knowledge into environmentally-friendly behaviour. Consumer environmental awareness can thus become a factor in:

- routine activities at home and at work;
- buying decisions;
- leisure time activities;
- holiday and travel choices.

With a society's advanced level of environmental awareness a new type of consumer emerges. This new consumer is prepared to change his or her lifestyle and consumption model to protect the environment. Such a consumer/tourist segregates household waste, saves

energy and water, buys eco-friendly products, uses public transport leaving the private car at home or at a car park, and walks or rides only along designated tourist trails. The environmentally motivated tourist shows his or her authentic concern about the environment by applying the same standards at home and on holiday, saving water and energy on vacation just as they would at home even though such behaviour might not translate into immediate financial savings. The environmentally motivated tourist will encourage other holiday-makers to behave in an environmentally-friendly manner and will suggest to service providers that they meet environmental requirements in their offers. In a competitive, free market economy consumer needs and requirements should be taken as a starting point for developing sales offers. Market-oriented producers and service providers may have no choice but to take account of suggestions put forward by environmentally motivated consumers.

## 5. ENVIRONMENTAL CONSIDERATIONS IN TOURISM PRODUCT DEVELOPMENT

As has been stated, the complex tourism product needs a collaboration of many stakeholders. At a destination level these might be tourism firms (hotel operators, restaurateurs, and travel agencies), local authorities, tourism organisations, promotion agencies, and the local community which provides the workforce for the tourism industry and – through its culture and attitudes towards visitors – creates the unique atmosphere of the place. To make the collaboration effective in providing an eco-friendly product the level of environmental knowledge and awareness among all stakeholders should be equally high (BYRD 2007, p. 8).

Tourism firms can introduce and adhere to a variety of eco-friendly practices, such as efficient use of office supplies or avoidance of food wastage. They can also encourage their customers and suppliers to do the same. Other examples of environmentally-friendly practices include:

- using eco-friendly equipment and cooperating with environmentally responsible suppliers;
- training and motivating employees to adopt an environmentally responsible behaviour;
- employing environmentalists to develop and implement ecological programmes for tourists.

To prevent congestion and make sure that a destination's carrying capacity is not exceeded, travel agencies can collaborate on 'splitting' the tourist 'traffic' to less crowded destinations.

A special group of service providers are hotel companies. More and more tourists attach importance

to environmental issues and expect the same from hotel operators. Such tourists are likely to choose accommodation that meets strict environmental standards (MAJEWSKI 2003, p. 95). A survey conducted on a sample of 5000 tourists across Europe has shown that more than half the respondents believe that hotels should use sustainable energy sources (wind, solar or hydro) ([www.dziennikturystyczny.pl](http://www.dziennikturystyczny.pl)). Almost one-third (29%) of the Europeans would book an eco-friendly hotel if they had a choice. Interestingly, more than three-quarters of respondents (76%) are more concerned about their impact on the environment while they are on holiday than when they are at home: 88% of respondents turn the light off when leaving a hotel room, 63% use a hotel towel more than once. Almost half the respondents (48%) believe that hotel bathrooms should install low flush toilets to save water.

Eco-friendly practices and environmental initiatives undertaken by tourism firms have become important instruments of public relations and promotion. The environmentally friendly image of tourism suppliers may attract tourists to a destination and contributes to the destination's competitive advantage in the market. In many cases the eco-friendly message is genuine and indeed companies apply policies and practices aimed at minimising the negative impacts of tourism on the environment. Alas, there are operators who only pay lip service to environmental issues in order to gain advantage over their competitors (CZERWIŃSKA 2009, p. 201).

Local authorities, as initiators and coordinators of actions, play a very important role in the development of tourism products. Regional and local councils provide and operate environmental facilities, manage protected areas, and run educational and promotional programmes to raise the level of environmental awareness in the society.

Local government environmental management operations include:

- providing and operating waste and water treatments facilities;
- controlling noise pollution;
- designating and managing protected areas: beauty spots, nature reserves, country parks, national parks, and spas;
- protecting outstanding monuments of nature, and species of fauna and flora.

Local government environmental initiatives in the management of tourism include:

- monitoring the impacts of tourism on the environment;
- monitoring and controlling tourism flows to prevent overcrowding and breach of carrying capacities;
- providing or supporting eco-friendly means of transport in areas of heavy traffic;

- developing environmental infrastructures and services in protected areas and their immediate surroundings;
- supporting green forms of tourism;
- providing educational programmes for residents, tourists and entrepreneurs.

Green projects undertaken by local authorities contribute to the preservation of attractive areas and thus support the competitiveness of entire regions.

Environmental education schemes will advance awareness, knowledge and skills among all stakeholders involved in the development of a tourism product. Instruction should be addressed to both professionals and the community and it should make clear that:

- problems of natural and social environments are among the most important issues of the contemporary world;
- tourists, tourism organisers, and service providers should develop appropriate attitudes towards problems of the environment;
- tourism has both positive and negative impacts (direct or indirect) on the environment and community;
- environmental awareness should be translated into proactive policies and initiatives.

Local authorities can set environmental standards for enterprises, including tourism firms (e.g. by setting guidelines for the segregation of solid waste and reduction of harmful emissions), and control development of tourism accommodation, services and transport infrastructures through spatial planning and tax incentives. Environmental education can be provided in the form of training courses, competitions, conferences, public messages (notice boards, local newspapers, bulletins), and provision of educational walkways.

In addition, promotional agencies can play a role in environmental education through campaigns addressed to tourists, local communities, service providers and tourism organisers. For example, promotional messages addressed to foreign visitors to Poland might highlight the uniqueness of the ecosystems of many Polish regions.

An environmentally aware and knowledgeable local community plays a vital role in the protection and preservation of natural attractions that constitute a source of a destination's competitive advantage. In turn a high-quality, sustainable environment has a positive effect on the communities' quality of life, making people stay in the locality and put their energy into local development. Ultimately this has a positive impact on the quality and attractiveness of the destination's tourism product, as satisfied residents create the atmosphere of the place, so much appreciated by visitors (NIEZGODA 2006). We may therefore agree with PENDER and SHARPLEY (2008) that

'The local community should be viewed not as [...] disadvantageous to environmental management but as architects of their own development. A local community's cultural attitudes towards the environment should be recognised and harnessed'.

This view finds support in a study conducted by GRÖNHOLM (2010). It compared the attitudes of permanent and seasonal residents of the Turku Archipelago (Finland) towards government policies. Among the examined issues were environmental policies. It transpired that both permanent and seasonal residents resisted economic development in their area and preferred the preservation of their 'little paradise' for rest and recreation purposes. WILLET (2010) in her study of the environmental attitudes of tourists and residents in Cornwall obtained somewhat different results: tourists preferred the preservation of the idyllic landscape whereas the residents would like a more dynamic economic development of the area.

An important issue is the motivation behind environmentally-friendly behaviour. While it is easier to act in an environmentally-friendly manner if such actions bring some immediate tangible benefits (such as lower power and water bills), environmental actions which do not guarantee such benefits require a genuine environmental awareness, a broad humanistic approach, and a true concern about the effects of environmental degradation for future generations (NIEZGODA 2011). Ultimately, the proactive environmental attitudes of host communities will contribute to:

- a clean environment rendering the destination more attractive to tourists
- a better quality of life for the local population, in turn reflected in the 'atmosphere of the place' which attracts new tourists and/or makes visitors return to the destination in the future.

## 6. SUMMARY

With increased knowledge about threats to the environment, and given an urgent need for broad measures to protect ecosystems, environmental awareness has become an important issue in global, national and local policies. Protection of the environment concerns governments at all levels, industry, and individuals equally. The discussion in this article has shown that there are several environmentally related issues specific to the tourism product:

1. All stakeholders collaborating on the development of a complex, multidisciplinary tourism product need to display an equally high level of environmental knowledge and awareness.

2. Environmentally proactive attitudes shown by tourism area stakeholders are not only essential to preserve the valuable core of the tourism product but also engender a high level of environmental awareness in other tourism market participants.

In discussing environmental consciousness we should be aware that not all eco-friendly attitudes and actions are genuine, selfless or even effective. A common problem is the misuse and abuse of eco-labels on the part of dishonest producers exploiting environmentally related health concerns and the resulting demand for green products. The popularity of eco-friendly products often leads to misconceptions in the ideas of environmental awareness and proactive behaviour. Many consumers believe that by purchasing eco-products they show their environmental responsibility. They may not be aware, however, that in Poland many firms 'award' themselves eco-labels without adhering to any green manufacturing criteria (BOHDANOWICZ 2008, p. 67).

Therefore in developing a truly eco-friendly tourist offer we should take account of the following problems:

- there is widespread abuse in the market of eco-friendly product names and promotional slogans
- some consumers may be guided by stereotypes, biases or negative associations related to eco-friendly products (e.g. they may think that such products are plain or more expensive)
- there is 'information noise' in the market caused by a multiplicity of 'eco-labels' and unclear criteria for awarding such labels
- the ubiquitous eco-labels and eco-slogans in tourism may confuse consumers who base their purchasing decisions on genuine environmental criteria.

Despite the many problems and misconceptions we should recognise and appreciate the growing popularity of environmental issues in society and specifically in the tourism market. Developing eco-friendly products and informing the market about their environmentally responsible characteristics in many ways raises the level of ecological awareness in potential buyers and other market participants.

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## THE SPATIAL DISTRIBUTION OF HIGH-SEASON TOURISM IN POLAND: BASED ON THE RECORDS OF THE 2010 PRESIDENTIAL ELECTION

**Abstract:** The 2010 presidential election in Poland was held during the summer season when many voters were away from their place of residence. Data showing the numbers of visitors voting in particular districts were used to identify areas with high tourism intensity. Subsequent analysis showed a very strong concentration and polarization of tourism on the northern and southern margins of Poland and in several big cities.

**Key words:** tourism, tourism regions, elections.

### 1. INTRODUCTION

The increasing economic significance of tourism observed in recent decades has caused a growing research interest in the development of the tourism function in particular towns or regions. Researchers concentrate on the potential for tourism growth on the one hand, and the development of the tourism function, on the other. Among tourism-related research issues, tourism regionalization plays an important part as, according to GOŁEMBSKI (2003), identifying tourism regions (seen as areas where investments in the tourism industry will be effective), is the preliminary stage for designing tourism policies. In recent decades, tourism regionalization of Poland has been the subject of numerous studies which were reviewed by LISZEWSKI (2009). The author observed that similarities between different concepts of tourism regionalization of Poland are due to similar methodological approaches, typically based on landscape features. Liszewski suggested changing this by putting the functionality criterion first. This suggestion is particularly noteworthy, as the relevance of environmental values as the basis for tourism development has been increasingly questioned. It is interesting to quote KOZAK (2009) who says that while natural and cultural resources 'are neither necessary nor sufficient factors for tourism growth', the key factor is human capital.

In a former publication, Liszewski (2003) proposed defining a tourism region as an area where tourism is concentrated. However, as DURYDIWKA, KOWALCZYK (2003) noted, the definition of a tourism region based

on its functions can be problematic since a ranking of different reception areas can vary depending on differing forms of tourism and its seasonal character.

Accepting these premises results in a departure from the universal concept of a tourism region. Following this argument, MAZURSKI (2009) proposed distinguishing three types of tourism region:

- tourism management regions,
- tourism regions,
- tourism attractiveness regions.

Drawing on similar assumptions, LISZEWSKI (2009) formulated a slightly different proposal and suggested distinguishing:

- metropolitan tourism regions: large cities and their recreational hinterlands,
- leisure and recreational regions,
- regions of cognitive, educational and religious tourism.

What is important in both proposals (although Mazurski did not put it clearly) is that the categories suggested are not mutually exclusive – particular types of tourism regions can coincide or overlap.

However, shifting the main stress in tourism regionalisation from evaluation to analysis of tourism intensity entails a number of problems. Official tourism statistics released by the Main Statistical Office are far from complete, while conducting one's own assessment covering a large area is enormously time-consuming and costly. Indirect methods could be helpful here, e.g. the well-known method of estimating the number of visitors based on the size of flour or

bread sales (WARSZYŃSKA, JACKOWSKI 1979), or using data concerning water consumption or the amount of waste water received by treatment plants (HOUDEK 2004, SZWICHTENBERG 2006). In practice, however, using such data is only possible in studies on a local scale. In 2010, an emergency political situation in Poland enabled research which made it possible to determine the spatial distribution of tourism in the summer season.

## 2. THE 2010 PRESIDENTIAL ELECTION AND TOURISM

According to Polish electoral law, two elections were planned for 2010: presidential and local. Both were due to take place in autumn. However, the tragic death of President Lech Kaczyński in a plane crash near Smolensk on April 10<sup>th</sup> 2010, made it necessary to hold an early presidential election, and the electoral regulations enforced setting the date of voting for the beginning of the summer holiday season (June 20<sup>th</sup>). As none of the candidates won an absolute majority of votes, it was necessary to hold a second round which took place in the middle of this season on July 4<sup>th</sup>. The timing did not affect the turnout which was no different from the average for Polish presidential elections. In the first round, 54.94% of eligible voters cast their votes. Before the second round, many who were leaving on holiday collected their voter registration documents, enabling them to vote away from their place of permanent residence, and during the election the media repeatedly reported long queues waiting in front of polling stations in holiday resorts. Journalists' attention was particularly drawn to the coastal district of Rewal, where over 12,000 people cast their vote, while the number of permanent residents is barely 3,600. The turnout in the whole country on July 4<sup>th</sup> 2010 was 55.31%.

Generally, in all the electoral districts on Polish territory (not counting those voting abroad, including those on ships), 16,850,841 votes were cast on July 4<sup>th</sup> 2010, including 758,747 away from place of permanent residence, using the voter registration documents issued by the appropriate authorities<sup>1</sup>. This means that an average of 4.5027% voters used the documents<sup>2</sup>.

The fact that it was tourism that influenced the proportion of those voting away from home is proved by the list of districts with the highest percentage of voters using those documents (Table 1).

All the districts where the proportion of voters with documents was higher than 50% (there were 15 of them) are those with a well-developed tourism function, and all of them (except Cisna) are situated on the Baltic Sea.

Table 1. Districts with over 50% of voters using voter registration documents in the presidential election on July 4<sup>th</sup> 2010

Gmina (District)	Powiat (County)	% non-resident voters
Rewal	Gryficki	87.1
Krynica Morska	Nowodworski	83.6
Mielno	Koszaliński	77.9
Dziwnów	Kamieński	75.9
Jastarnia	Pucki	75.4
Łeba	Łęborski	72.4
Ustronie Morskie	Kołobrzeski	69.9
Władysławowo	Pucki	68.9
Postomino	Sławiński	57.9
Międzyzdroje	Kamieński	56.9
Ustka (rural district)	Słupski	56.3
Cisna	Leski	55.1
Kołobrzeg (rural district)	Kołobrzeski	51.8
Sztutowo	Nowodworski	50.2
Stegna	Nowodworski	50.1

Source: author – based on National Electoral Office data.

## 3. IDENTIFYING TOURISM DISTRICTS

Identifying particular districts as tourism destinations was based on the earlier statement that tourism was the decisive factor for voting away from place of permanent residence. The initial stage of the research procedure was to single out the districts where the proportion of voters using documents was higher than the average index for the whole country, i.e. 4.5027%. There were 597 such districts out of a total 2479<sup>3</sup>.

In the second stage, the surplus of non-resident votes over the national average, i.e. 4.5027%, was calculated for each pre-selected district. An assumption was made that the surplus of those votes over the calculated average level in particular districts had been generated by voting tourists<sup>4</sup> (further referred to as 'tourist votes'). The next step was to select the districts where the surplus of non-resident votes (tourist votes) over the national average was higher than 100. There were 258 such districts, and the total number of votes cast by visitors there was calculated to be 229,721.

The next stage of the research procedure was to analyse the distribution of districts defined as 'tourism' ones. As a result, the following three types were distinguished:

1. Large cities.
2. Districts lying in holiday destination areas.
3. Isolated tourism districts.

The first group contains six cities (Table 2) with permanent populations of over 200 000.

Gdynia and Gdańsk, as large urban centres attracting tourists, are also (together with Sopot) part of

a seaside recreational area. Warsaw has two recreational areas in its close neighbourhood, which – according to LISZEWSKI's proposal (2009) – enable the whole complex to be seen as a metropolitan tourism region. The remaining large cities, i.e. Kraków, Wrocław and Poznań, are enclaves surrounded by areas which do not play an important part from concerning overnight stays. To complete the picture of large cities, one should add that in all the remaining cities with populations over 200,000, the percentage of non-resident voters was lower than the national average, which suggests a low significance for summer overnight tourism<sup>5</sup>.

Table 2. Large cities as tourism centres based on the 2010 presidential election turnout data

City	Number of tourists voting
Warsaw	12,662
Gdynia	11,591
Gdańsk	5,183
Kraków	4,659
Wrocław	2,168
Poznań	1,571

Source: author – based on National Electoral Office data.

The majority of tourism districts (214) were classified as smaller or larger recreational areas. Twenty such were identified by combining at least two neighbouring tourism districts (two were additionally divided into sub-areas). An exception was made in three cases: two pairs of neighbouring districts, Wilga and Magnuszew, and Mielnik and Sarnaki were not combined due to being separated by large rivers. The third case is that of Busko-Zdrój and Solec-Zdrój, where the tourism function is not found in the whole district but only in individual towns.

Those remaining (44) are isolated tourism districts, not contained in any larger areas. This group, except for the abovementioned large cities, contains health resorts in particular (Busko-Zdrój, Ciechocinek, Nałęczów, Solec-Zdrój, Horyniec-Zdrój, Krasnobród and Połczyn-Zdrój). Moreover, it comprises individual districts located in places that are attractive for tourists but not connected with larger areas. Examples of such districts include Zbiczno (Brodnicza Lake District), Otmuchów (a large dammed lake on the Nysa Kłodzka accessible for recreation), a few districts lying on the Pilica, and the lakes of the Kujawy Lake District.

#### 4. CHARACTERISTICS OF RECREATIONAL AREAS

**1. The coast** – containing a narrow strip of districts on the Baltic shore and some individual districts behind the coast (Fig. 1 – numbers on the map correspond to those in the text). This area, in which was concentrated almost 54% of all tourism (see Table 3), due to its internal diversity has been divided into three sub-areas:

1a (Western) containing the districts of Świnoujście, Międzyzdroje, Wolin, Dziwnów, Kamień Pomorski, Świerżno, Rewal, Trzebiatów, Kołobrzeg (two districts – urban and rural), Dygowo, Ustronie Morskie, Mielno and Będzino. The main characteristic of this sub-area is intensive investment in the coastal zone. Apart from two areas excluded from development (the Wolin National Park and a military training ground near Mrzeżyno), the tourism function is very intensive and is present in practically all coastal towns. Sections of coast situated between towns visited less by tourists are relatively short.

1b (Central), which contains the districts of Sianów, Darłowo (urban and rural districts), Postomino, Ustka (urban and rural districts), Smołdzino, Łeba, Wicko, Choczewo and Gniewino. This sub-area, though also with a strongly developing tourism function, is characterized by a smaller concentration of busy resorts and has slightly more coastal sections visited less by tourists.

1c (Eastern), comprising the districts of Krokowa (except the eastern edge near Białogóra, which should be included in sub-area b), Władysławowo, Jastarnia, Hel, Puck (urban and rural districts), Kosakowo, Gdynia, Sopot, Gdańsk, Stegna, Sztutowo and Krynica Morska. This sub-area covers the whole of the coast belonging to Poland or the Free City of Gdańsk before World War II. It was at that time when the very intensive development of tourism function started here. This sub-area contains the only large Polish conurbation situated directly by the sea. The intensity of coastline investment justifies treating a large part of this sub-area as a tourism urbanization space.

**2. Mazurian** – the biggest recreational area, comprising most of the Mazurian Lake District and attracting about 7% of summer tourists. It has also been divided into sub-areas.

2a (Eastern) containing the districts of Ruciane-Nida, Mikołajki, Giżycko (urban and rural districts), Węgorzewo, Pozezdrze, Kruklanki, Miłki, Orzysz, Stare Juchy, Świętajno (*powiat Olecki*), Wydminy, Pisz, Ryn, Mrągowo, Piecki, Sorkwity and Świętajno (*powiat Szczęciński*). Tourism is centred around the Great Mazurian Lakes where it is particularly intensive in

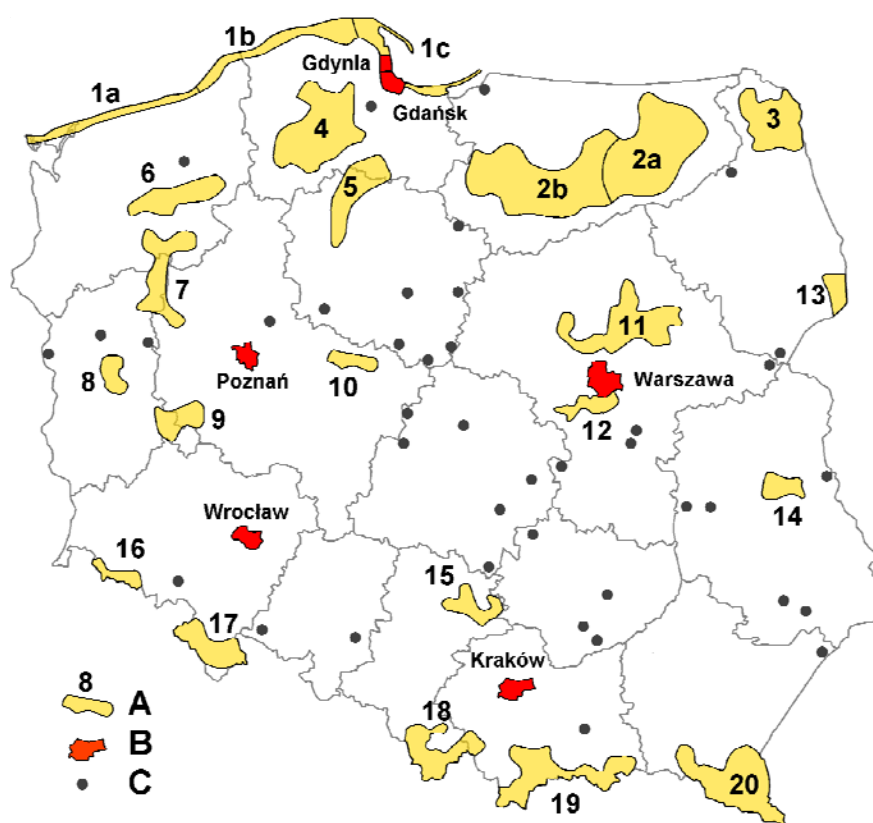


Fig. 1. Spatial distribution of tourism on July 4<sup>th</sup> 2010  
 A - areas of holiday recreation; B - large cities attracting tourism ; C - other tourism districts.  
 Numbers of regions explained in the text  
 Source: author

the region's major communities. Its intensity decreases with distance from the great lakes.

2b (Western), comprising the Iława and Olsztyn Lake Districts, covers a larger area but is characterised by less intensive tourism. It contains the districts of Iława, Zalewo, Miłomłyn, Łukta, Morąg, Ostróda, Dąbrówno, Olsztynek, Nidzica, Giętrzwald, Purda, Pasym, Jedwabno, Stawiguda, Szczytno (urban and rural districts), Dźwierzuty, Reszel and Biskupiec.

**3. Suwałki-Augustów** - areas lying to the north of Augustów. Its biggest tourism centre is Augustów itself which combines a health-resort with a recreational function. The area covers the districts of Augustów (urban district), Płaska, Nowinka, Suwałki (rural district, in fact its eastern part near Lake Wigry), Krasnopol, Giby, Sejny (urban and rural districts) and Jeleniewo. Tourism is not very intensive here apart from the southern part of the area (Augustów and the Czarna Hańcza Trail).

**4. Kaszubian Lake District** - encompasses areas lying south-west of Gdańsk in the districts of Kościerzyna, Stężyca, Chmielno, Sulęczyno, Czarna Dąbrówka, Studzienice, Dziemiany, Lipnica, Przechlewo, Brusy,

Chojnice (rural district, precisely the part north of the town of Chojnice), Karsin and Stara Kiszewa. More intensive tourism is centred around lakes to the north-east of Kościerzyna and north of Chojnice (near Charzykowskie Lake).

**5. Tuchola** - the area stretching between Bydgoszcz and Starogard Gdański, characterised by the presence of lakes and a fair amount of forest (central part of the Tuchola Forest). Tourism is not intensive and widely scattered. This area comprises the districts of Koronowo, Lubiewo, Cekcyn, Śliwice, Osie, Osiek and Lubichowo.

**6. Drawa** - stretches from Borne-Sulinowo in the east to Ińsko in the west. This area has very picturesque scenery and numerous lakes with very complicated shorelines, but used by tourists only to a small extent. It comprises the areas of the following districts: Borne-Sulinowo, Czaplinek, Złocieniec, Drawsko Pomorskie and Ińsko. Nearby lies Połczyn-Zdrój, but it has been classified as an individual tourism town as, except for Połczyn itself, the district does not practically speaking fulfil any tourism functions.

Table 3. Tourist votes in the presidential election on July 4<sup>th</sup> 2010

Area - number on map	Number of districts	Number of votes	Percentage
Coastal, western part - 1a	14	46,045	20.0
Coastal, central part - 1b	11	20,603	9.0
Coastal, eastern part - 1c	13	56,579	24.6
Masurian, eastern part - 2a	18	11,381	5.0
Masurian, western part - 2b	19	5,651	2.5
Suwałki-Augustów - 3	9	3,298	1.4
Kaszubian Lake District - 4	13	4,668	2.0
Tuchola - 5	7	1,490	0.6
Drawa - 6	5	1,329	0.6
Drawno-Sieraków - 7	5	873	0.4
Lubusz - 8	3	606	0.3
Leszno-Sława - 9	5	1,682	0.7
Konin - 10	3	1,682	0.7
North Mazovian - 11	19	4,073	1.8
South Mazovian - 12	7	1,634	0.7
Białowieża - 13	2	343	0.1
Polesie - 14	3	455	0.2
Jura - 15	5	898	0.4
Karkonosze-Izera - 16	4	2,896	1.3
Kłodzko - 17	7	3,381	1.5
Bielsko-Zywiec - 18	15	6,607	2.9
Tatra-Nowy Sącz - 19	17	17,092	7.4
Bieszczady - 20	10	4,110	1.8
other districts	44	32,345	14.1
Total	258	229,721	100.0

Source: author - based on National Electoral Office data.

**7. Drawno-Sieraków** - the least distinct and poorly integrated recreational area. It was identified by combining five districts (Drawno, Tuczno, Dobiegiew, Drezdenko and Sieraków) forming an uninterrupted line on the border of three *województwos*: Zachodniopomorskie, Lubuskie and Wielkopolskie. This area combines water tourism (lakes and the Drawa canoeing trail) as well as extensive forests (the Drawa Forest and the Noteć Forest). It is an open question whether it will develop as a whole or if its particular sections will become integrated with other areas (Drawa and Lubusz).

**8. Lubusz** - currently a small area comprising three districts: Łągów, Skąpe and Lubrza. However, with regard to environmental conditions, those of tourism value can be found in a much bigger area. Nearby are two isolated tourism districts - Lubniewice and Pszczew. Tourism integration of the whole Lubusz Lake District is not helped by the large military training ground of Wędrzyn in the very centre of the region.

**9. Leszno-Sława** - a relatively small but popular recreational area situated on the border between Silesia and Greater Poland. Five districts have been included in it: Sława and Kolsko in Lubuskie *Województwo* and Przemęt, Włoszakowice and Wijewo in

Wielkopolskie *Województwo*. An asset of this area is its location in the southernmost part of western Poland's lake districts. Thanks to this, it is a popular recreational area, especially for the residents of Lower Silesia.

**10. Konin** - a small recreational area situated in eastern Wielkopolska, on the border between Gniezno and the Kujawy Lake District. It comprises the districts of Powidz, Ostrowite and Ślesin. The tourism function of this area is determined, among other factors, by groups of holiday cottages (e.g. on Powidzkie Lake). Also, the sanctuary of 'Our Lady of Licheń' is an important tourism destination.

**11. North Mazovian** - a unique recreational area situated to the north of Warsaw. Its tourism function is based especially on numerous groups of holiday cottages owned by the residents of the Warsaw conurbation. They are concentrated mainly in the valleys of the Bug, the Narew (and the surroundings of Zegrzyńskie Lake) and the Wkra rivers. This area comprises the districts of Serock, Pomiechówek, Radzymiń, Dąbrówka, Somianka, Wyszaków, Brańszczyk, Rząśnik, Jadów, Obryte, Zatory, Łochów, Sadowne, Brok, Różan, Rzewnie, Wieliszew, Joniec and Nowe Miasto.

**12. South Mazovian** - comprising the districts of Konstancin-Jeziorna (health-resort), Piaseczno, Lesznowola, Podkowa Leśna, Nadarzyn, Radziejowice and Żabia Wola. Like the previous one, this recreational area lies outside Warsaw, but even closer to the borders of the capital, hence at least a part (the districts of Piaseczno, Konstancin-Jeziorna or Podkowa Leśna) could be classified as typical tourism urbanisation areas.

**13. Białowieża** - a small area, composed of but two districts (Białowieża and Narewka) whose characteristic feature is its location within Białowieża Forest, considered the most natural forest complex in central and western Europe.

**14. Polesie** - a small recreational area, lying near to Polesie National Park, to the north east of Lublin. It comprises three districts: Urszulin, Uścimów and Ludwin. The Łęczyńsko-Włodawskie Lake District contains another small area with concentrated holiday tourism, not integrated with Polesie, lying in the southern part of the rural district of Włodawa.

**15. Jura** - lies in the central part of Kraków-Częstochowa Upland, and comprises the districts of Poraj, Żarki, Kroczyce, Janów and Szczekociny. It is a holiday recreation area for the residents of the Upper-Silesian Industrial Region.

**16. Karkonosze-Izera** – comprises part of the Western Sudety Mountains, considered one of the most important tourism areas in Poland. In this context, it came as a bit of a surprise that only four districts were identified as tourism ones (Karpacz, Szklarska Poręba, Podgórzyn and Świeradów-Zdrój), and this region's share in total summer tourism was just 1.3%.

**17. Kłodzko** – dominated by four large health resorts, surrounded by areas with developing mountain tourism. This area comprises the districts of Kudowa-Zdrój, Duszniki-Zdrój, Polanica-Zdrój, Radków, Bystrzyca Kłodzka, Łądek-Zdrój and Stronie Śląskie.

**18. Bielsko-Żywiec** – a relatively large area within the Silesian, Żywiec and Little Beskids, comprising the districts of Ustroń, Wisła, Brenna, Szczyrk, Jaworze, Wilkowice, Czernichów, Istebna, Rajcza, Ujsoły, Miłówka, Węgierska Górką, Jeleśnia, Stryszawa and Zawoja. This area combines the functions of a health-resort (Ustroń), a recreational hinterland for the Upper-Silesian industrial region and an important mountain tourism area.

**19. Tatry-Nowy Sącz** – the most important mountain recreational area, with regard to summer tourism, which attracts a little over 7% of summer tourists.

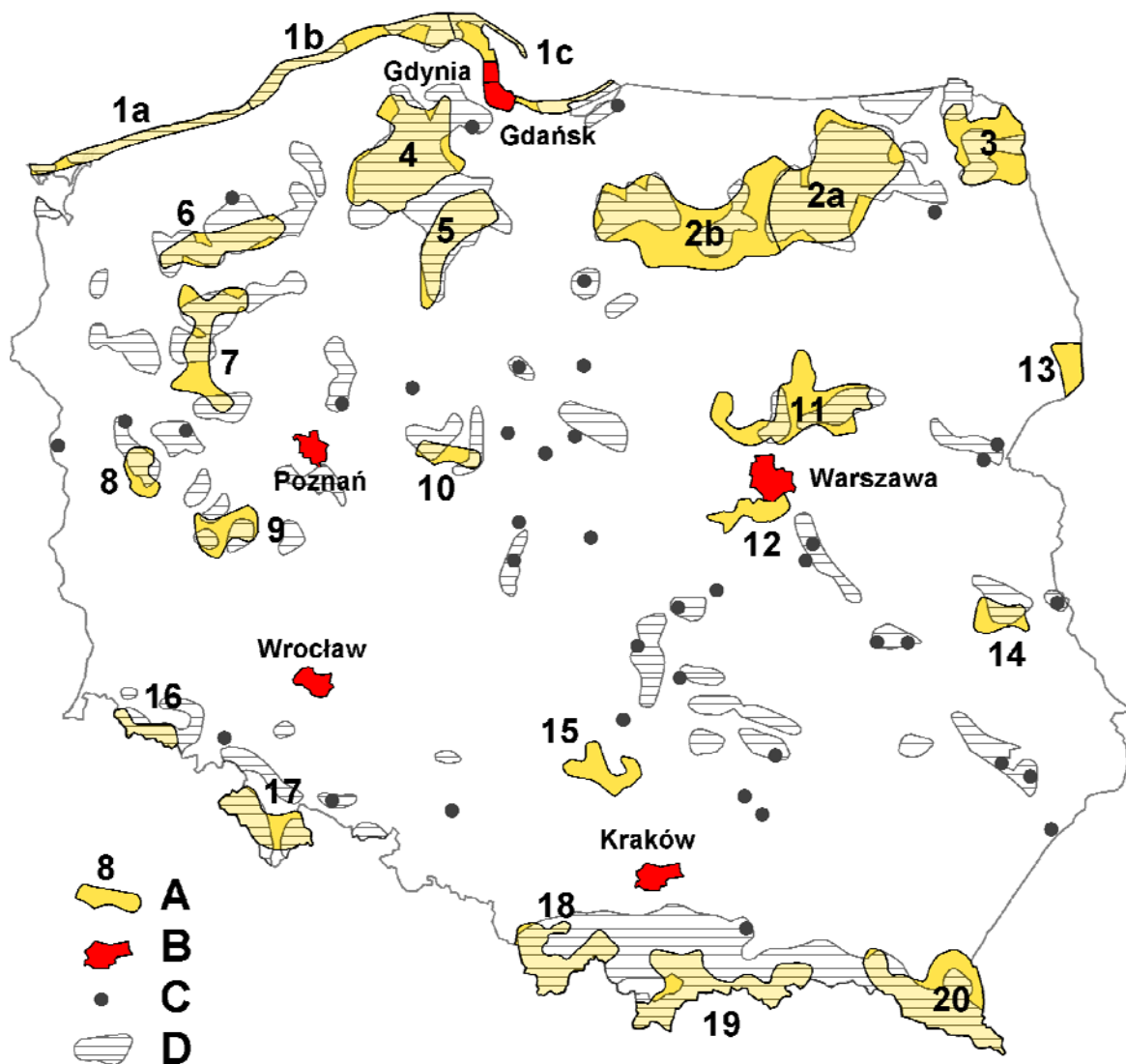


Fig. 2. Spatial distribution of tourism on July 4<sup>th</sup> 2010 against the evaluation of space for the needs of holiday recreational tourism  
 A – holiday recreation areas; B – large urban centres attracting tourism; C – other tourism districts;  
 D – areas predisposed to develop holiday recreation tourism according to Wyrzykowski (1986).

Numbers of regions explained in the text.

Source: author

It comprises the districts of Zakopane, Kościelisko, Bukowina Tatrzańska, Poronin, Biały Dunajec, Łapsze Niżne, Ochotnica Dolna, Kamienica, Rabka-Zdrój, Niedźwiedź, Czorsztyn, Krościenko nad Dunajcem, Szczawnica, Piwniczna-Zdrój, Muszyna, Krynica-Zdrój and Uście Gorlickie.

**20. Bieszczady** – an area on the south-eastern tip of Poland, comprising parts of the Bieszczady Mountains attractive for mountain tourism, as well as health resorts. It comprises the districts of Cisna, Lutowska, Komańcza, Baligród, Czarna, Lesko, Ustrzyki Dolne, Solina, Iwonicz-Zdrój and Rymanów. A special position here is that of Solina district, which combines the functions of a health-resort (Polańczyk) and an overnight tourism area. In turn, the presence of the man-made Lake Solina gives this district an uncommon combination of values linked both to water and mountains.

Except for the above recreational areas, 44 individual tourism districts were identified (listed by *województwo*):

- Dolnośląskie: Wrocław, Szczawno-Zdrój;
- Kujawsko-pomorskie: Baruchowo, Gaśawa, Chodecz, Ciechocinek, Skępe, Topólka, Zbiczno;
- Lubelskie: Kazimierz Dolny, Krasnobród, Nałęczów, Włodawa (rural district), Zwierzyniec;
- Lubuskie: Lubniewice, Pszczew, Słubice;
- Łódzkie: Inowłódz, Pęczniew, Sulejów, Uniejów, Zgierz (rural district), Żytno;
- Podlaskie: Mielnik, Rajgród;
- Pomorskie: Przywidz;
- Małopolskie: Kraków, Gródek nad Dunajcem;
- Warmińskie-Mazuskie: Frombork;
- Opolskie: Leśnica, Otmuchów;
- Wielkopolskie: Poznań, Skoki;
- Podkarpackie: Horyniec-Zdrój;
- Świętokrzyskie: Busko-Zdrój, Raków, Ruda Małenicka, Solec-Zdrój;
- Mazowskie: Warszawa, Magnuszew, Nowe Miasto nad Pilicą, Sarnaki, Wilga;
- Zachodniopomorskie: Połczyn-Zdrój.

## 5. RECREATIONAL AREAS AND NATURAL VALUE

As mentioned before, natural and cultural values have been traditionally regarded as the basis for tourism development, as well as being the usual criteria for delimiting tourism regions. However, their importance has recently often been questioned. Identifying tourism districts and delimiting holiday recreation areas, based on the intensity of tourism,

enables results obtained while using different criteria to be confronted. The results of this study were compared with those described by Wyrzykowski (1986) who used natural value as the main criterion with regard to factors influencing the development of tourism. The locations of tourism districts distinguished in this study were compared with those of the areas predisposed to develop tourism defined by Wyrzykowski. The results of the comparison are shown in Fig. 2.

Almost all the areas identified in this study at least partly coincide with Wyrzykowski's suggestions (differences might result from a different method of generalisation). The only exceptions are the Jura area (which was under a strong pressure from air pollution flowing from the Upper-Silesian industrial region in the 1980s which could be the reason why it was not considered attractive), the south Mazovian area and, surprisingly, Białowieża. A great number of individual tourism districts lie in the areas described by Wyrzykowski as valuable for tourism. Therefore, regardless of the fact that tourism promotion of areas lacking natural value is possible, natural value should be still treated as a key factor when it comes to tourism.

## 6. CONCLUSIONS

In view of the above discussion, one could say that summer tourism in Poland shows a very strong concentration. It is centred especially on the Baltic coast, and is also quite intensive in the mountain areas of Małopolska and Upper Silesia, as well as in the area of the Great Mazurian Lakes. Twenty areas can be identified in different parts of the country, but the intensity of tourism is not high in the vast majority of them. Apart from these areas, intensive tourism was observed in the largest health resorts and four big cities.

A distinct correlation between the spatial distribution of districts playing an important role in tourism and that of areas of outstanding natural value shows that the evaluation of space for the needs of tourism, conducted by Wyrzykowski 25 years ago, is still valid. Therefore, natural values are still playing a key role in developing tourism and therefore their protection should be considered necessary.

## FOOTNOTES

<sup>1</sup> The author thanks Mirosław Bogdanowicz from the National Electoral Office for providing the data concerning the number of voters using documents in particular districts.

<sup>2</sup> The same index in parliamentary election on October 9<sup>th</sup> 2011 was just 1,1265%.

<sup>3</sup> The capital city of Warsaw was treated as a single district – disregarding its legal status in 2010, but in line with common sense.

<sup>4</sup> For instance: in Rewal, 11,547 people voted including 10,059 visitors. The number of votes cast in this district by non-resident voters equalled the national average of 4.5027% out of 11,547, i.e. 520. Therefore, it was concluded that of the non-resident voters 10,059 – 520 = 9,539 were tourists.

<sup>5</sup> This indicator increased for Toruń (3,9%), Szczecin (3,4%), Lublin (2,9%), Łódź and Katowice (2,7%), Bydgoszcz and Częstochowa (2,6%), Kielce (2,5%), Białystok (2,2%), Radom and Sosnowiec (2%).

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## THE SANCTUARY AS A MEANS OF ORGANIZING URBAN SPACE: ACASE STUDY OF SELECTED SANCTUARIES IN POLAND

**Abstract:** This paper attempts to show that a sanctuary can alter urban space. A sanctuary is a very special place because of its religious nature and attracts both pilgrims and tourists. The spatial structure of a sanctuary is determined largely by changes in the volume and nature of pilgrim 'traffic'. Modern pilgrimage centres are becoming more open to visitors who wish to take part in the life of a sanctuary, even if this involves non-religious activities. The sanctuary's religious offering is supplemented with typical tourism attractions. The establishment of a sanctuary affects the development and spatial organization of a city in a variety of ways. Large sanctuaries favour the development of sanctuary service zones that cater for pilgrims. This is also true in Poland. There are, however, some large and midsize sanctuaries that have no additional facilities designed for pilgrims and this is almost always true of regional and national sanctuaries in Poland.

**Key words:** sanctuary, city/town, pilgrimages, Poland.

### 1. INTRODUCTION

Sanctuaries are places of religious devotion with a special purpose. What makes sanctuaries different from other sacred places is their ability to attract pilgrims who will flock to a given sanctuary to see a special object of devotion such as a relic or to experience a blessing effected by a sacred picture. *The Dictionary of the Polish Language* (SZYMCZAK, ed. 1983) and *The Dictionary of Religion* (PONIATOWSKI, ed. 1969) define a sanctuary as a sacred place with special cultural meaning. The Catholic Church defined a sanctuary in 1983 as a "church or another sacred place permitted to be used by its director as a place of pilgrimage due to a special object of devotion" (*Canon Law*, DUDZIAK 1983). This definition is interpreted to mean a church, chapel, cemetery, altar or a grave (DUDZIAK 1983). In reality, a sanctuary can be a much larger complex of buildings and special sites which serve the needs of pilgrims and the general needs of the given sanctuary.

A sanctuary may affect its surroundings in a number of ways. From a purely academic point of view, a sanctuary raises the value of a given area from 'common space' to 'holy space'. ELIADE (1993) calls this a separation of *sacrum* from *profanum*.

The geography of religion treats sanctuaries as a means of organizing and managing religion-oriented space as well as a driver of change organizing urban space (PARK 1994, RINSCHADE 1995).

The establishment of a sanctuary creates sacred space within a given city that can be used by pilgrims

and regular tourists alike. Pilgrimages are treated as a part of tourism (JACKOWSKI 1998). In this sense, a sanctuary is a tourism attraction visited by both tourists and religious pilgrims. Pilgrims visit to see religious sites and buildings without paying special attention to the architectural or cultural meaning of the place they are visiting. However, in terms of general tourism value, sanctuaries are more interesting because of their architecture and cultural value.

Sanctuaries have helped cities grow since ancient times. Some of these cities became known as 'holy cities' including Rome, Varanasi, Jerusalem and Mecca. The sacred places of each major religion can have a significant impact on the establishment and functioning of a city (JACKOWSKI, SOLJAN 2008). The best example of this is Mecca – a city off limits to non-believers. There are other cities where only the faithful of a particular religion may enter its temples. This is true of the Shiva Temple in Varanasi and mosques in Qom and Karbala. These sacred places create strictly religious enclaves within each given city. Catholic sanctuaries, on the other hand, are open to all pilgrims and all tourists.

The effect of a sanctuary on the management of urban space depends on a number of factors including:

- history of the sanctuary,
- history of the settlement,
- importance of the sanctuary,
- spatial impact of the sanctuary,

Table 1. Location and origin of selected sanctuaries in Poland

City	Population	Sanctuary	Origin	Impact	City foundation date	Sanctuary foundation date	Location in the city
Bardo Śląskie	2,758	Our Lady of Lower Silesia the Guardian of Faith	Devotion to the miraculous figure of the Mother of God	regional	10 <sup>th</sup> -12 <sup>th</sup> century approx. 1300	11 <sup>th</sup> century	center
Białystok	294,153	Our Lady of Mercy (cathedral)	Picture of Our Lady of Ostra Brama	regional	15 <sup>th</sup> century / 1749	2 <sup>nd</sup> half of 20 <sup>th</sup> century	center
Białystok	294,153	God's Mercy	Picture of the Merciful Christ, grave of the blessed Michał Sopoćko	supra-regional	15 <sup>th</sup> century / 1749	1993	urban built-up zone
Bochnia	29,605	Our Lady of the Rosary	Devotion to picture of Our Lady of the Rosary	regional	12 <sup>th</sup> century / 1253	17 <sup>th</sup> century	center
Częstochowa	242,300	Our Lady of Częstochowa	Devotion to picture of Our Lady of Częstochowa	international	13 <sup>th</sup> century / 1377 Stara Częstochowa, 1717 Częstochówka	1382-1384	urban area
Dukla	2,126	St. John from Dukla	relics of St. John from Dukla	regional	14 <sup>th</sup> century / approx. 1403	17 <sup>th</sup> century	urban area
Gniezno	67,737	St. Adalbert	Grave of St. Adalbert	national	8-9 <sup>th</sup> century / 1243	998	near of historic center
Gostyń	20,512	Holy Rose of Święta Góra	Picture of the Mother of God	regional	13 <sup>th</sup> century / 1278	16 <sup>th</sup> century	peripheral
Kalisz	107,140	St. Joseph	Picture of the Holy Family	supra-regional	2 <sup>nd</sup> century, 9-10 <sup>th</sup> century / 1253	17 <sup>th</sup> century	near of historic center from 14 <sup>th</sup> century
Kalwaria Zebrzydowska	4,493	Passion-Marian	Way of the Cross, Picture of Our Lady of the Calvary	international	1617 / 1617	1602	peripheral
Kraków - Łagiewniki	756,183	God's Mercy	Devotion to Picture of the Merciful Christ, Devotion to St. Faustina	international	10 <sup>th</sup> century / 1257	1970s	urban area
Kraków-Mogiła	756,183	The Holy Cross	Devotion to the Miraculous Crucifix	supra-regional	10 <sup>th</sup> century / 1257	15 <sup>th</sup> century	peripheral
Leżajsk	14,166	Our Lady of Consolation	Picture of Our Lady of Consolation	supra-regional	13 <sup>th</sup> -14 <sup>th</sup> century / 1397	approx. 16 <sup>th</sup> century	peripheral
Limanowa	14,781	Our Lady of Sorrow	Figure of Our Lady of Sorrow	regional	beginning of 16 <sup>th</sup> century / 1565	17 <sup>th</sup> century	center
Nowy Sącz	84,475	Our Lady of the Transfiguration	The Veraicon Picture	regional	11 <sup>th</sup> century / 1292	16 <sup>th</sup> century	center
Piekary Śląskie	58,832	Our Lady of Piekary	Picture of Our Lady of Piekary	national	13 <sup>th</sup> -14 <sup>th</sup> century / 1948	17 <sup>th</sup> century	urban area
Szczyrk	5,500	Our Lady the Queen of Poland	Picture of the Mother of God	regional	17 <sup>th</sup> century / 1973	1990s	peripheral
Trzebinia	20,102	Our Lady of Fatima	Figure of Our Lady of Fatima	supra-regional	14 <sup>th</sup> -15 <sup>th</sup> century / 2 <sup>nd</sup> half of 18 <sup>th</sup> century	2 <sup>nd</sup> half of 20 <sup>th</sup> century	peripheral
Tuchów	6,528	Our Lady of Tuchów	Picture of the Mother of God	supra-regional	12 <sup>th</sup> century / 1340	approx. 16 <sup>th</sup> century	peripheral
Wadowice	19,288	Our Lady of Perpetual Help, Devotion to the Bless. John Paul II	The icon of Our Lady of Perpetual Help	supra-regional	14 <sup>th</sup> century / 14 <sup>th</sup> century	approx. 19 <sup>th</sup> century	center
Wejherowo	46,579	Our Lady of Wejherowo, Calvary	Picture of Our Lady of Wejherowo, Calvary	supra-regional	1643 / 1650	1643	peripheral
Zakopane	26,846	Our Lady of Fatima	Copy of the figure of Our Lady of Fatima	national	16 <sup>th</sup> -17 <sup>th</sup> century / 1933	2 <sup>nd</sup> half of 20 <sup>th</sup> century	peripheral

Source: author's own work based on *Miasta polskie...* (1965), *Miejsca święte* (1998), as well as the web pages of selected sanctuaries.

– size and function of the settlement.

The paper focuses on the evolution of sanctuaries in Poland and their impact on their surroundings. Tables 1 and 2 show the twenty Catholic sanctuaries selected for analysis. The sanctuaries selected differ in terms of spatial impact: some are regional in nature, some international. The paper does not focus on sanctuaries exerting only a local impact.

## 2. THE ISSUE OF LOCATION

The location of a given sanctuary is the product of historical factors including issues associated with the establishment of its parent settlement. Political considerations often played a key role in the past. This was especially true of the Middle Ages when religion was inextricably linked to politics. Having a famous

sanctuary within one's borders increased the political prestige of the government and the local Church authorities. In Poland, the city of Gniezno and the city of Kraków were good examples of this. Gniezno Cathedral and Wawel Cathedral in Kraków were designated sanctuaries primarily for political reasons. The relationship between the church and the state helped these sanctuaries grow and prosper. Each sanctuary was established in the most important part of the city – close to the seat of power. When the city of Kraków became the new capital of Poland, the former capital (Gniezno) began to experience fewer pilgrims and the Sanctuary of St. Wojciech lost some of its importance. In modern times, political considerations are no longer that important, with the possible exception of the communist period in Poland's history from 1945 to 1989.

The presence of church authorities in a given city has a generally positive effect on the establishment of a sanctuary. From a religious perspective, sanctuaries are still treated as privileged places which attract the faithful in large numbers. For this reason, sanctuaries are often established in cities designated as seats of diocesan and metropolitan church authorities. In this case, sanctuaries are often established in the central part of the city.

The Elk Diocese was established in 1992. Two years later, the local bishop designated the Elk Cathedral of St. Wojciech as the Diocesan Sanctuary of Our Lady of Fatima. The seat of the Archdiocese of Wilno was moved to Białystok following World War II. This event initiated the development of a devotion to Our Lady of Ostra Brama in the city of Białystok. Białystok Cathedral became designated the Sanctuary of Our Lady of Mercy. The Białystok Diocese became an archdiocese in 1992 and the Bishop of Białystok (Edward Kisiel) pronounced Our Lady of Ostra Brama to be the patron saint of the new archdiocese.

The above-mentioned examples suggest that the location of a sanctuary is often associated with the location of an existing church building which became designated a sanctuary at a certain point of time. The conversion of regular churches into sanctuaries became quite popular during the Baroque during a time when devotion to miraculous pictures became commonplace in Poland. The same trend was not observed in Catholic countries in Western Europe. When a religious picture became known as a miraculous picture, or when a miraculous picture was permanently displayed in a given church, that given church became known as a sanctuary. Examples of this include the sanctuaries in Bochnia, Tuchów and Limanowa – small towns with just one church in their centre.

Religious orders in Poland also played a key role in the establishment of sanctuaries. The monastic nature of many religious orders in the Middle Ages

required that their convents and monasteries be built outside cities or at their very edge. This changed in the 13<sup>th</sup> c. when mendicant orders began to settle in the centres of cities, which was the case with the Dominicans and the Franciscans in the city of Kraków (KŁOCZOWSKI 1987). Members of religious orders were generally more active than the local clergy, which made sanctuaries located next to monasteries more popular with pilgrims. Some cities developed in a way that left some sanctuaries outside their borders until modern times. The Sanctuary of Jasna Góra was initially located on a limestone hill quite far from the village of Częstochowa. One reason for this was the ascetic nature of the Order of St. Paul the First Hermit.

The village of Częstochówka grew up around Jasna Góra and merged with Old Częstochowa in the early 19<sup>th</sup> c. Today the Sanctuary of Jasna Góra is located near the 19<sup>th</sup> c. centre of the city of Częstochowa. Some sanctuaries managed to maintain their peripheral location. These include Gostyń, Kalwaria Zebrzydowska and Leżajsk (Table 1). In the case of Kalwaria Zebrzydowska, one part of the sanctuary is located in the town and another outside. This is especially true of sanctuaries dedicated to the crucifixion of Christ.

The city of Kraków annexed the village of Mogiła in 1948 along with its sanctuary. The Shrine of Łagiewniki, which became the site of the Sanctuary of God's Mercy, was also built in a village that had been annexed by the city of Kraków in 1941.

When a sanctuary is located in the centre of a city, it can help the city grow. This was especially true in the Middle Ages. Today this is rarely the case but with notable exceptions such as Fatima – a major shrine in Portugal. A good example from the Middle Ages is the Shrine of Bard Śląski, which was taken over by the Cistercians in 1299. The town next to the shrine began to grow rapidly and became officially recognized in 1300. It then grew dynamically thanks to pilgrims until the 19<sup>th</sup> c. when the Cistercian Order was abolished. The establishment of monasteries dedicated to the crucifixion of Christ gave rise to small towns such as Góra Kalwaria (BOGUĆKA, SAMSONOWICZ 1986). However, many sanctuaries remain outside municipal limits despite their prominent role in the development of their 'daughter' settlements, for instance Kalwaria Zebrzydowska and Wejherowo.

The diverse array of factors behind the establishment of a sanctuary is dominated by the issue of religion. A religious event in itself may determine the location of a sanctuary – a location that may or may not be favourable to its future development.

The organization of urban space is affected both by the location of a sanctuary and the manner in which it came into existence. Three basic sanctuary development mechanisms have been identified that determine

the degree to which urban space is altered by the establishment of a sanctuary:

a) a sanctuary is established at an existing sacred site, which does not meaningfully alter local land use – only the inside of the building undergoes changes. In such cases, only the function of the site changes in that it becomes a sanctuary (e.g. Białystok Cathedral).

b) a sanctuary is established at an existing sacred site, however, the site begins to expand thanks to the construction of new churches and pilgrim facilities (e.g. Częstochowa, Kraków-Łagiewniki, Tuchów, Trzebinia).

c) a sanctuary is established at a site not related to religion and creates a new type of sacred space within a city (e.g. Białystok, Sanctuary of God's Mercy, Kalwaria Zebrzydowska, Szczyrk).

### 3. STRUCTURE OF THE SANCTUARY – ORGANIZATION OF SACRED SPACE

From the perspective of religion, the most important part of the sanctuary is the core – also known as the sacred centre. This is the site of the object of devotion or the location of the event that prompted the establishment of the sanctuary. Other parts of a sanctuary may include:

- other sacred sites dedicated to religious devotion such as churches, chapels, field altars, stations of the cross;
- religious sites not related to religious devotion (e.g. convents);
- cultural sites such as museums and observation decks;
- facilities serving pilgrims such as stores selling religious items, hostels and information desks.

In summary, a sanctuary may be described as a sacred establishment centred around a sacred core and featuring other buildings and sites designed for pilgrims as well as general sanctuary operations.

Table 2 shows examples of sanctuary structure. The significance of a sanctuary is usually reflected in its size, and those of national and international standing tend to have large buildings and well-developed grounds. Local and regional sanctuaries tend to be regular parish churches. This is an oversimplification, as sanctuaries tend to develop dynamically and their status can change, not always reflected by observable changes in the organization of their sacred space. The physical size of a sacred establishment is sometimes determined by the nature of the sanctuary involved. Sanctuaries dedicated to the crucifixion of Christ tend to be very large (hundreds of hectares) due to the distribution of sacred sites over large areas (Fig. 1).

The passage of time also plays a meaningful role in the ways that sacred sites are organized and managed. Contemporary sanctuaries tend to be more open to pilgrims and tourists and their non-religious needs as well. Social progress has also affected the ways pilgrims make their pilgrimage. Modern pilgrims demand higher quality accommodation and other features of modern life. While pilgrimages used to be focused within, this is no longer the case, true at both new sanctuaries and very old ones. Older sanctuaries often convert old buildings or parts of old buildings into accommodation for pilgrims. A part of Bard Monastery is now a hostel for pilgrims. Previously restricted buildings at Jasna Góra now serve as museums. The newest sanctuaries and those experiencing rapid growth usually take the form of large sacred complexes focused on both religion and the natural landscape. One possible way to describe them is using the term *pilgrimage park*. This term is used by MITKOWSKA (2001) to describe some sacred establishments dedicated to the crucifixion of Christ and appears to be most appropriate. This form of sanctuary development not only applies to sanctuaries in Poland but is even more pronounced at the largest sanctuaries that have evolved in Western Europe since the middle of the 19<sup>th</sup> c. (Lourdes, San Giovanni Rotondo, Knock, to some extent Fatima). Another key change in the organization of sacred space is a new type of sanctuary which has become popular in the last 30 years. A characteristic feature of the new sanctuary type is a two-storey building with chapels on the ground floor, making it possible to offer different masses to different groups of pilgrims at the same time. There are three sanctuaries of this type in Poland: Kraków-Łagiewniki, Licheń, Sanctuary of God's Mercy in Białystok.

In addition to organizing urban space in a particular way, sanctuaries also offer a variety of activities to both pilgrims and tourists. This offering, in itself, helps cities grow and prosper. In addition to offering religious activities, modern sanctuaries also tend to offer non-religious ones which contribute to their overall development and the overall development of their parent settlements. This includes the opening of pilgrim hostels, museums, permanent and temporary exhibitions that serve to draw pilgrims and tourists to sanctuary grounds.

The following types of sanctuaries (Table 2) have been identified based on spatial organization and the types of activities offered to pilgrims and tourists:

- original sanctuary – pilgrim activity limited to the sanctuary core;
- basic sanctuary – pilgrim activity beyond the sanctuary core limited to a giftshop or hotel;
- developed sanctuary – consists of the sanctuary core and several (2 to 5) additional buildings or sites for pilgrims – increased variety of attractions;

Table 2. Structure of sacred places at selected sanctuaries in Poland

City	Sanctuary	Sacred core	Other buildings used for devotional purposes	Other religious and cultural sites	Infrastructure for pilgrims	Other functions of the sanctuary	Type of sanctuary	Sanctuary zone or nearby facilities for pilgrims
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Bardo Śląskie	Our Lady of Lower Silesia the Guardian of Faith	The Visitation of the Mother of God Church – for 5,000 faithful	Votive chapel in a convent	Redemptorist convent, Museum of Sacred Art, mobile Nativity scene	Pilgrims' hotel in a part of the convent (55 beds), religious items for sale	convent, parish	developed	none
Białystok	Our Lady of Mercy	Cathedral with a chapel of Our Lady of Ostra Brama	none	none	Religious items for sale	cathedral, parish	original	none
Białystok	God's Mercy	Upper Church with chapels of Our Lady of Mercy and Bless. M. Sopoćko. Lower Church with chapels of Our Lady the Queen of Peace and St. Faustina	Papal altar, chapel in parish building	none	Meeting hall, hotel rooms in parish building, gift shop in the church	parish	developed	none
Bochnia	Our Lady of the Rosary	St. Nicolas Basilica with a Chapel of the Mother of God	Rosary Square (construction started in 1986)	none	Religious items for sale	parish	basic	Pilgrims' hotel
Częstochowa	Our Lady of Częstochowa	Chapel with a miraculous painting of the Mother of God	Basilica, the Way of the Cross, Stations of the Rosary, Replica of the Room of the Last Supper	Convent, Pauline Fathers, Treasury, Knights' Hall, National Historical Museum, John Paul II Hall, Kordecki Hall, tower, walls	Jasna Góra Information Center, store with religious items, baggage lockers	convent	complex	Sanctuary zone, Pilgrims' Hotel, several religious gift shops, vendors on St. Barbara Street, 11 restaurants/cafes, Pilgrimage Museum, 2 hotels, hotel rooms in local convents
Dukla	St. John from Dukla	St. John from Dukla Church	Church of St. John in the Jungle, chapel on Góra Cergowa	Convent of the Bernardine Fathers	Religious items for sale, Franciscan Hotel (50 beds)	parish., convent	developed	none
Gniezno	St. Adalbert	Cathedral of the Mother of God and St. Adalbert	field altar, church	Archdiocesan Museum	none	Basilica of the Head of Poland's Catholic Church, parish	developed	Small sanctuary zone: bookstore, hotel, Palace of the Head of Poland's Catholic Church
Gostyń	Our Lady - of the Holy Rose	Basilica of the Immaculate Conception and St. Philip Neri	retreat chapel for 200 persons	The Way of the Cross (2006), convent, chapel by a miraculous spring	Retreat House (120 persons) with conference room and coffee bar	parish, convent	developed	none
Kalisz	St. Joseph	Church of the Assumption with a chapel with a miraculous picture of St. Joseph	none	none	Religious items for sale	parish	basic	Pilgrims' hotel
Kalwaria Zebrzydowska	Passion-Marian	Basilica with a miraculous picture of Our Lady of the Calvary	Stations of the Cross, Bernardine monastery	mobile Nativity Scene	Pilgrims' hotel, restaurant, shop with religious items	convent	complex	Private rooms
Kraków-Łagiewniki	Convent chapel with a picture of the Merciful Christ	Basilica of God's Mercy, Adoration Chapel, Way of the Cross, Rosary Stations, Chapel of the Suffering Christ, field altars	Convent of the Sisters of Our Lady of Mercy, convent cemetery	Faustinum Society building, John Paul II Hall	Observation tower, information desk	convent, education center	complex	Sanctuary zone: shopping area, Pilgrims' Hotel, coffee bar, bar, conference room, family counseling, vendors selling religious items, convent headquarters, private rooms

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Kraków-Mogila	Holy Cross	Church of the Assumption and St. Waclaw with a chapel of the Miraculous Crucifix	Stations of the Way of the Cross, field altar	convent	shop	abbey, parish	developed	none
Leżajsk	Our Lady of Consolation	Basilica of the Visitation	Leżajsk Way of the Cross, chapel in the Pilgrims' Hotel	Convent, Museum of the Bernardine Fathers' Province	Pilgrims' Hotel built in 2002 with 117 beds, a conference hall and a cafeteria	convent, parish	developed	none
Limanowa	Our Lady of Sorrow	Basilica of Our Lady of Sorrow	Short Way of the Cross, field altar	none	Pilgrims' Hotel (85 beds)	parish	developed	none
Nowy Sącz	The Lord's Transfiguration	St. Margaret's Basilica	none	none	none	parish	basic	none
Piekary Śląskie	Sanctuary of Our Lady of Piekary	Basilica of the Mother of God with a miraculous picture of Our Lady of Piekary	Stations of the Cross, 23 Rosary chapels, Way of the Cross at Rajski Square	Parish Museum	Pilgrims' Hotel, Pilgrims' Center, coffee bar	parish	complex	Hotel Górnik, shop with religious items
Szczyrk	Sanctuary of Our Lady the Queen of Poland	Church of Our Lady the Queen of Poland	Chapel of Revelation	Salesian convent, Chapel of the Mother of God	Youth Hostel, restaurant	convent	developed	none
Trzebinia	Our Lady of Fatima	Church of the Holy Heart of Jesus Christ with a chapel dedicated to Our Lady of Fatima	The Way of the Cross	Monastery of the Salvatorians, Chapel of Our Lady of Lourdes	Retreat House	convent, parish	developed	none
Tuchów	Our Lady of Tuchów	Basilica with miraculous painting of Mother of God	none	convent, Mission Museum (1975), Sanctuary Museum (1993), Ethnographic Museum (1997)	Shop with religious items	parish	developed	Pilgrims' Hotel
Wadowice	Sanctuary of Our Lady of Perpetual Help	Basilica with an icon of Our Lady of Perpetual Help	none	none	none	parish	basic	none
Wejherowo	Dedicated to the Mother of God	Church with a miraculous picture of Our Lady of Wejherowo	26 Way of the Cross chapels	Church cellars	Shop with religious items	Parish, convent	complex	none
Zakopane	Our Lady of Fatima	Church of Our Lady of Fatima with a figure of Our Lady of Fatima	Chapel of the Immaculate Heart of Mary, Papal altar	Prayer park with Marian chapels, Home of the Pallottine Fathers	Shop with religious items	parish	developed	none

Source: author's own work based on fieldwork, research at sanctuaries, and BOZNAŃSKI *et al.* (2000), web pages of sanctuaries.

- complex sanctuary - consists of the sanctuary core and a complex of many buildings and sites (more than 5) designed to serve pilgrims - substantial numbers of non-religious activities.

In light of the above criteria, the following trends have been observed in a group of twenty national and international sanctuaries in Poland:

All international-class sanctuaries located in Polish cities are classified as complex sanctuaries. This includes Częstochowa, Kraków-Łagiewniki and Kalwaria Zebrzydowska. Hence, the greater the reach of a sanctuary, the more complex its organizational structure and the larger its pilgrim offering. Sanct-

uaries dedicated to the crucifixion of Christ used to be the only complex sanctuaries, based on the criteria in this paper, due to their large number of chapels. Today the number of sites and attractions for pilgrims continues to increase and their variety is increasing as well. The trend towards the establishment of new types of sanctuaries and a richer pastoral programme is a general European trend. The Kraków-Łagiewniki Sanctuary is a part of this trend, as are a few other sanctuaries in Poland.

a) The Sanctuary of Jasna Góra is a particularly interesting case. It is a mediaeval sanctuary, which has been able to adapt its organizational structure to the

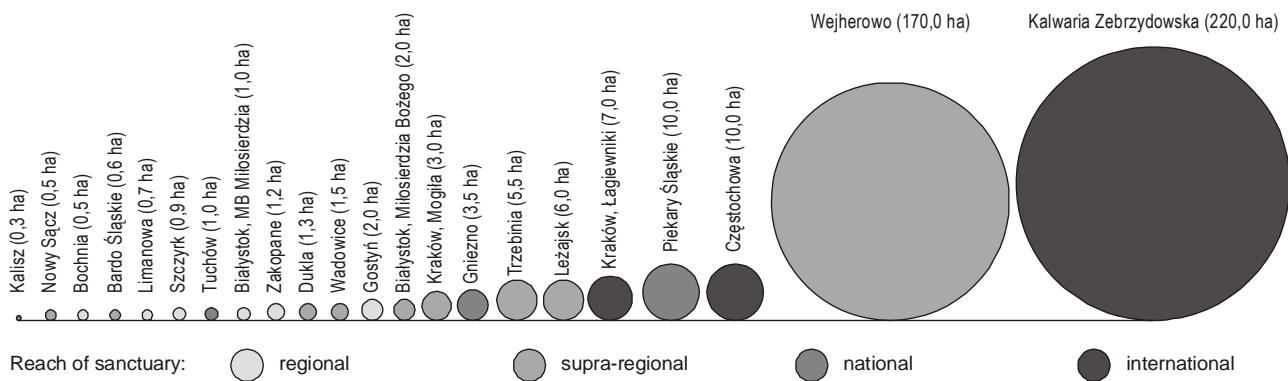


Fig. 1. Area of selected sanctuaries in Poland in 2010  
Source: author's own work

needs of modern pilgrims in terms of cultural facilities (museums), religious features (Stations of the Cross next to the Monastery, Communion Hall, rosary stations) and educational facilities (audiovisual rooms).

b) Many regional and national sanctuaries are either original or basic sanctuaries. There are historical reasons for this. In times past, even large sanctuaries used to be just a single building without any special accommodation or attractions for pilgrims.

This paper is just a short summary of the various aspects of the organization of sacred space and focuses on the most important structural features of sanctuaries and their differences. A complex study of this subject would also involve an analysis of the cultural aspects of sanctuaries in order to show their tourism value and overall significance to the tourism industry in their parent settlements.

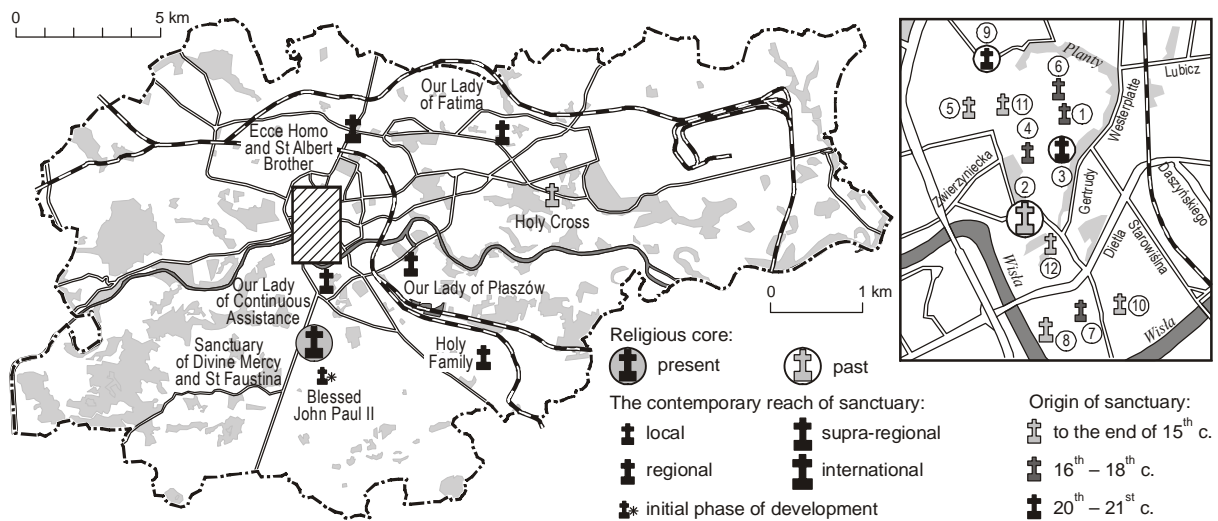
#### 4. EFFECT OF THE SANCTUARY ON THE ORGANIZATION OF URBAN SPACE

A sanctuary's effect on its parent settlement may go beyond its own walls. The most important effect – which we will call a macro-effect – is the establishment of new residential communities around the sanctuary, changes in existing residential communities, as well as adjacent communities gaining municipal status. Changes of this type occur over time and a relevant issue here is the rate of change. The Sanctuary of Jasna Góra has certainly had an impact on the development of the city of Częstochowa starting from the village of Częstochówka. Polish sanctuaries dedicated to the crucifixion of Christ were also instrumental in the development of some settlements in Poland (JACKOWSKI 2005). The Polish research literature even has a term for this phenomenon being known as Calvary

settlements. This term applies to small towns founded primarily in the 17<sup>th</sup> c. and the 18<sup>th</sup> c. along with a sanctuary dedicated to the crucifixion of Christ. This includes Kalwaria Zebrzydowska, Góra Kalwaria, Pakość and Wejherowo. This type of settlement-sanctuary evolution is unique to Poland.

A close relationship between a sanctuary and a settlement may benefit both. In addition to the development of Old Częstochowa being aided by the Jasna Góra Sanctuary, another example of this type of beneficial relationship is that of Bardo Śląskie, whose development had been aided for centuries by pilgrims. However, it is important to remember that the founding of new settlements, and rapid urban growth driven by the presence of a sanctuary are not frequent occurrences and are generally associated with large pilgrimage centres.

The effect of a sanctuary on the organization of urban space is most readily visible in areas immediately adjacent to the sanctuary. This area is called a sanctuary zone and it is designed to meet the physical needs of pilgrims. This is an area of high pilgrim intensity and may include certain religious sites or institutions functioning in a complementary manner to the sanctuary itself. This zone is generally found only around the largest of sanctuaries due to the nature and magnitude of pilgrim 'traffic'. More than one million pilgrims are needed per year for a sanctuary zone to emerge. Other conditions include a fairly steady flow of pilgrims throughout the year, and pilgrims who choose to venture outside the sanctuary proper. Table 2 shows that only international-class sanctuaries possess tourism-type infrastructure in areas close to the sanctuary proper. Other sanctuaries feature only one or two additional buildings such as a hostel or giftshop. Even in the city of Gniezno – one of the earliest pilgrimage centres in Poland – there is only a small service zone near the Gniezno Sanctuary.



1 – MB Częstochowskiej, 2 – św. Stanisława bpa i św. Jadwigi, 3 – MB Różańcowej i św. Jacka, 4 – MB Bolesnej, 5 – Domek Loretański, 6 – MB od Wykupu Niewolników, 7 – MB Pocieszenia, 8 – św. Stanisława, 9 – MB Piaskowej, 10 – Sw. Stanisława Kazimierczyka, 11 – św. Jana Kantego, 12 – Szymona z Lipnicy

Fig. 2. Sanctuaries in Kraków  
 Source: author's own work

The sanctuary zones in Częstochowa and Kraków-Łagiewniki are the best developed in Poland. Even so, they are much less developed than the sanctuary zones of those comparable in Western Europe (e.g. Lourdes, Fatima and Santiago de Compostela). Prior to the expansion of the Sanctuary of God's Mercy in Kraków, the only services available near the sanctuary were mini-stores and stalls along St. Faustyna Street. Today the sanctuary owns a hostel for pilgrims and a pastoral services centre which includes a restaurant, conference room, small stores and a parking area. The hostel is also home to the Catholic Family Life Centre (<http://www.milosierdzie.pl/>). In recent years, stalls with religious items and food items have appeared near the second entrance to the sanctuary - Motarskiego Street (JACKOWSKI, SOŁJAN 2010).

In Częstochowa, the sanctuary zone rings the sanctuary itself (about 500 m). The largest concentration of vendors and facilities serving pilgrims can be found along nearby Klasztorna Street. The sanctuary zone near Jasna Góra largely owes its existence to the initiative of the Pauline Fathers. Many of the facilities that serve pilgrims are located on Pauline-owned land and are run by the Pauline Fathers themselves. The Catholic Church operates about 80% of the hostel rooms in the sanctuary zone, the result of many religious orders renting out rooms to pilgrims wishing to stay close to the sanctuary.

The relationship between different sanctuaries located in the same city is also interesting from the perspective of urban space organization. Many large

cities have more than one sanctuary. This is especially true of the city of Kraków, with more than a dozen sanctuaries since the Middle Ages. The importance of each sanctuary in Kraków has changed over the centuries. Wawel Cathedral was the religious core of the city between the 13<sup>th</sup> and the 15<sup>th</sup> c. and then again during the 19<sup>th</sup> c. The Sanctuary of Our Lady of the Rosary and the Sanctuary of St. Hyacinth run by the Dominican Fathers constituted the religious core of the city between the 15<sup>th</sup> and the 17<sup>th</sup> c. The same was true of the Sanctuary of Our Lady of Piasek between the 17<sup>th</sup> and 19<sup>th</sup> c. Today the new Sanctuary of God's Mercy in Łagiewniki is becoming a new religious core outside the historic centre of Kraków (Fig. 2).

## 5. CONCLUSION

This article has attempted to show that a sanctuary can help alter urban space. A sanctuary is a very special place because of its religious nature and attracts both pilgrims and tourists. The spatial structure of a sanctuary is determined largely by changes in the number and nature of pilgrims. Modern pilgrimage centres are becoming more open to visitors who wish to take part in the life of a sanctuary, even if this involves non-religious activities. A sanctuary's religious offering is supplemented with typical tourism attractions while its establishment affects the development and spatial organization of a city in a variety



of ways. Large sanctuaries favour the development of sanctuary service zones that cater to pilgrims and this is found in Poland. There are, however, some supra-regional and regional sanctuaries that have few or no additional facilities designed for pilgrims.

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## PROCESSES OF TOURISM SPACE FORMATION

**Abstract:** The article is an attempt to name and define the processes which transform geographical space and result in the appearance or disappearance of tourism space as broadly understood. The processes include restructurization (modernization and revitalization) and degradation. All of them have been discussed in the context of their actual stage of tourism space development. More attention is devoted to degradation, which has only recently been seen as a process which may lead to the creation of spaces attractive to tourists.

**Key words:** tourism space, tourism space attributes, tourism space 'actors', restructurization, modernization, revitalization, degradation

### 1. INTRODUCTION

Despite the fact that the terms 'tourism space' or 'tourism spaces' are widely used in the literature (cf. SHAW, WILLIAMS 2004, LISZEWSKI 2006), they are usually understood intuitively. Only a few authors (e.g. MIOSSEC 1976, WARSZYNSKA, JACKOWSKI 1978, HUSBANDS 1983) have attempted to formalize them in a definition. One of the most successful was made by LISZEWSKI (1995, pp. 87-103) who formulated the definition most frequently quoted in the Polish literature:

**Tourism space** is a functionally distinct part of geographical space (subspace), understood as a space consisting of the natural elements of the Earth's crust (natural environment), the long-term effects of human activity in this environment (economic environment), as well as the human environment in a social sense.

An analysis of the definitions found in the Polish literature, presented by WŁODARCZYK (2009), makes it possible to formulate a universal definition of tourism space, taking into account both its objective and subjective understanding. In the author's opinion, it can be assumed that:

**Tourism space** is that part of geographical space where tourism occurs. The necessary and sufficient condition for classifying a part of geographical space as tourism space is tourism, regardless of its volume and character. An additional condition for delimiting tourism space is the occurrence of tourism infrastructure whose volume and character allow us to define the type of tourism space. (WŁODARCZYK 2009, pp. 74-75).

An objective attribute of this definition is the statement that tourism space is a part of geographical space as understood in a general sense, while a subjective one is that it requires a tourist, a participator who not only defines it but, through his decisions also creates his own, individual space of tourism activity, its core element. From the academic point of view, a definition formulated this way is a functional definition.

The importance of issues regarding tourism space is proved by the large and growing number of academic publications (e.g. DURYDIWKA, DUDA-GROMADA 2011, KACZMAREK, KACZMAREK 2011, KOWALCZYK 2011, STASIAK 2011, WŁODARCZYK 2011a, b).

Typical components of tourism space include natural and cultural heritage, infrastructure (including tourism infrastructure) and human activity. The relative proportions of the first three components, within a given space, may vary considerably (they may occupy the majority of this space or not at all). The only objective attribute is man (the tourist). Even if we can imagine tourism space without cultural heritage or infrastructure (rarely without natural heritage), it is not possible to delimit it without the actual effects of tourism, however small it may be. In other words, tourism space without the person who makes use of it does not exist (LISZEWSKI 2005, WŁODARCZYK 2009).

Tourism space, and the phenomena which occur within it, is the primary object of study in tourism geography. The majority of researchers in this field agree with this. However, the notion itself and its semantic range still cause discussion, and some

researchers (cf. KOWALCZYK 2011) suggest that tourism space should be redefined. Nevertheless, in the author's opinion, focusing on the tourism assets (a very subjective category) or tourism infrastructure (which does not determine the function of the space if unused) seems unjustified. The author believes that the 'potentiality' of tourism space resulting from the existing assets or tourism infrastructure does not allow its delimitation, because if something is 'potential' it means that it does not yet exist at a given time and place, and there is only the possibility that it will exist in the future, provided certain conditions are met or through tourism activity (*Słownik języka polskiego* [Polish Language Dictionary] 1979).

Tourism space, as mentioned above, is a dynamic structure. However, the dynamism does not show merely in the relations between its individual components or 'actors' (inhabitants, users-tourists), but also in the development (transformations) of the space itself from the moment it is discovered by the tourist, through consecutive stages, until it ceases to exist when its functions weaken or disappear and the tourists leave. Transformations take place as a result of different processes which produce both structural and functional changes.

According to *Słownik języka polskiego* (1979), a continuum is an uninterrupted, well-ordered set of elements (infinite number), transforming one into another. In this article, **continuum** will be understood as a sequence, a consecutiveness of elements (stages, phases, etc.), not always clear-cut, very often rooted in one another (transforming one into another), connected with the **development (transformations) of tourism space**. However, it must be stressed that tourism space in this process is treated as a stage in the development of general geographic space (Fig. 1). The author also assumes that the continuum of tourism space development may be cyclical, that is individual stages not only follow one another, but may reappear after one cycle ends.

In order to describe the continuum of tourism space more accurately, the author will define and discuss such notions as 'new', 'mature' and 'old' tourism space, the tourism space development cycle, and stages (phases) of tourism space development.

## 2. NEW AND OLD TOURISM SPACES

The new, mature, as well as the old (or rather ageing) tourism spaces have been described many times in many monographs. However, not many authors have made the effort to define these notions which has made it difficult to understand and see the differences between them. One of the attempts to describe the

relation between old and new tourism spaces was made by LISZEWSKI (2006a) who states that these notions should be considered in two contexts: technical and social. The problem of the new tourism space is different depending on a given area and the elements forming it, where the space may not only be a newly-created one, but also an old tourism space which the tourist discovers for the first time.

These notions will be treated as stages in tourism space development and discussed from the perspective of the area and not the tourist. As regards tourism space development (in the context of transformations in general geographic space) when we analyse a kind of functional consecutiveness, we may speak of pre-tourism, tourism and post-tourism spaces (Fig. 1). These three basic categories are consecutive stages of space development in the context of its functions (WŁODARCZYK 2009).

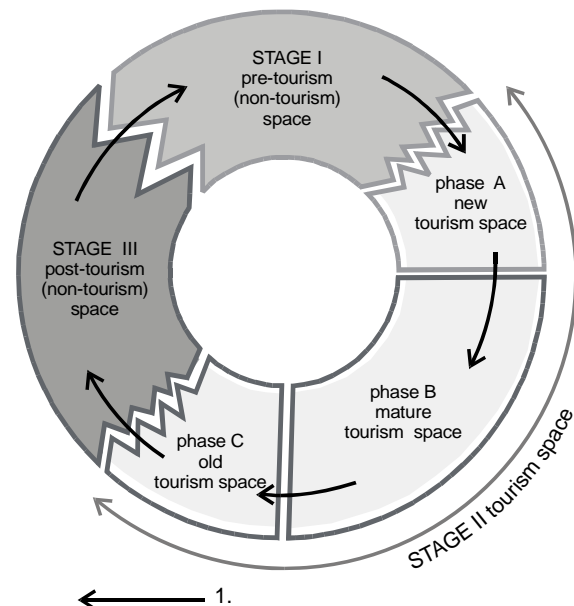


Fig. 1. From pre-tourism to post-tourism space  
Source: Author, based on WŁODARCZYK (2009)

Let us assume that the three stages in the functioning of tourism space are at the same time a full (complete) cycle of geographical space development.

Stage I – **pre-tourism space**: at this stage of development, space does not perform any tourism functions and tourism is not observed. It must be assumed, however, that the resources of this space are (or will be) conducive to tourism space development. How soon this type of space will transform itself into tourism space depends on a number of factors and conditions, such as fashion for certain areas or kinds of tourism activity, access to information, investment opportunities, or availability of time, economic accessibility, etc.

Stage II – **tourism space**: according to the adopted definition, it is the area where we observe tourism (regardless of the size and character of the area). In general, the functioning of tourism space can be divided into three basic phases, creating development continuum:

Phase A – **new tourism space**: it had tourism functions only for a short time and this is just the beginning of its development. The ‘newness’ may show in the new infrastructure, as well as the relation between the space and the tourists who have just ‘discovered’ it and undertaking different tourism activities.

Phase B – **mature tourism space**: the phase of optimum development and the use of tourism resources (from the point of view of the natural environment, reception possibilities and the local community, meeting the needs of visitors-tourists)

Phase C – **old tourism space**: has had tourism functions for a longer time, and exploited (tourism assets) or gradually degraded as regards tourism infrastructure. Possible directions of change include modernization in order to maintain the original character, or revitalization introducing new functions (possibly, replacing old ones). The symptoms pointing to the ageing of tourism space may be the changes in tourism intensity, the extent to which infrastructure is being used, the number of new investments, or the types and character of modernization activities.

Stage III – **post-tourism space**: it no longer has tourism functions and tourists have stopped visiting it for various reasons. In this case we cannot exclude the possibility that after going through consecutive non-tourism phases, as a result of the processes described below, this space will become a pre-tourism space and, consequently, tourism space again (WŁODARCZYK 2009).

### 3. TYPES OF SPACE FORMING PROCESSES

Below, the author presents the processes transforming geographical space and leading to the emergence of new tourism spaces and the ageing of existing ones.

**Process** – a sequence of consecutive changes resulting from one other, which are the stages or phases in the development of something, the development and transformation of something, e.g. a development process, a historical process, a social, evolutionary, creative process, etc. (*Słownik języka polskiego*, 1979).

In general, two basic types of process creating tourism space can be discussed: **restructurization**, which is usually supposed to lead to some expected and desired changes (e.g. functional) and increase the quality or value of the space; as well as **degradation**, which causes a decline, decreases both value and quality, and brings about a change or disappearance of some functions.

**Restructurization** – is a general term referring to restructuring and transforming in a general sense (industrial, economic, regional restructurization, etc.). It may refer to one or several areas of activity. As a wide-ranging concept, it refers to general transformations, therefore it is necessary to specify what exactly restructurization concerns and what falls into its range. (KACZMAREK 2001, p. 22).

According to the definition provided by KACZMAREK (2001), the context of activities is extremely important in space restructurization. In this article they will be understood as activities whose aims are an improvement of quality and an increase in the value of restructured space.

In old, mature and the new tourism spaces we may observe different kinds of restructurization process which change its character and functions (Fig. 2).

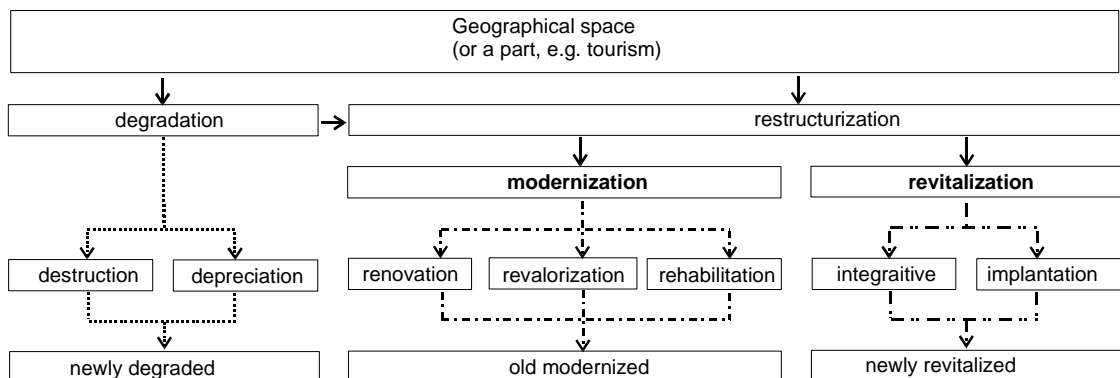


Fig. 2. Space (e.g. tourism space) restructuring possibilities  
 Source: author based on KACZMAREK (2001) WŁODARCZYK (2009 – modified)

### 3.1. MODERNIZATION OF OLD TOURISM SPACES

According to *Słownik języka polskiego* (1979), modernization means making something modern, contemporizing something. The modernization of old tourism spaces does not lead to creating functionally new ones, but only to some positive changes in the space already existing (a 'better', more valuable and more modern space is created, which meets the tourists' expectations). As shown in Fig. 2, modernized spaces (not only tourism ones) may appear as a result of different types of modernization (renovation, revalorization or rehabilitation), meticulously described by KACZMAREK (2001). Despite the fact that these types were identified in studies of urban industrial space, their universality makes them useful in reference to spaces performing other functions (including tourism). It is worth pointing out here that modernization usually begins at a certain stage of tourism space development. A very good example of tourism micro-spaces, whose quality and value increased as a result of modernization, are the historical hotels of Łódź. In the Polonia Palast Hotel, modernization meant both the renovation of the building and historical interiors and 'rehabilitation' – an 'overnight stay facility' was replaced with a 'hotel' again, regaining the stars which it had lost because it had not met the required norms before.

### 3.2. REVITALIZATION OF OLD NON-TOURISM SPACES

Revitalization is a relatively recent term in the Polish academic literature, but contrary to others which waited a long time to be included in dictionaries, it has made a quick and spectacular 'career'. In the geographical literature it is most often used in the context of structural and functional changes in urban and industrial areas (e.g. KACZMAREK 2001, MARKOWSKI, KACZMAREK, OLENDEREK 2010, KOZŁOWSKI, WOJNAROWSKA 2011). Urban tourism space is also an interesting object of study discussed in numerous publications (LISZEWSKI 1999, JANSEN-VERBEKE 2011, WŁODARCZYK 2011a). Therefore, we may safely quote some definitions, assuming that they can be applied not only to urban areas, but also to space as developed in general.

**Revitalization** – is a sequence of planned activities which are to revive the economy and change the spatial and functional structure of degraded urban areas. It is a process which may affect urban areas performing different functions, e.g. industrial, military or transport. (KACZMAREK 2001, p. 16).

**Revitalization** – a long-term and multifaceted process, integrating reparative activities in the spatial, social and economic spheres, applied to degraded urban areas which have lost self-recuperative abilities, in order to include these areas

into the urban system. (KOZŁOWSKI, WOJNAROWSKA 2011, p. 16).

From the two definitions quoted above, the former seems to be more suitable in this article, because apart from the improvement in space quality, it also mentions a change in its functions which clearly makes this process different from modernization, described earlier.

Space revitalization may run in two directions (Fig. 2), but tourism space is always one of the transformed or created spaces. The first way leads to creating new, theoretically 'better' (quality, infrastructure) non-tourism spaces as a result of tourism space revitalization. An example is the area of the former recreation centre in Taras on the Pilica River (*gmina* of Przedbórz, Łódź *Województwo*), which was turned into a family care home after tourism finished and after a thorough renovation (WŁODARCZYK 2009). In the other case, we deal with non-tourism space revitalization which leads to the creation of functionally new tourism spaces. An example here is the *Manufaktura* complex in Łódź (BIŃCZYK 2006, KOSTECKA 2007). The revitalization of historical residential and industrial complexes for tourism purposes has been recently discussed by many researchers (CYBULSKA 2011, POPOW 2011).

Revitalization as a transformation process may have a dual character. Following KACZMAREK (2001), we may talk about both **implantation** and **integrative revitalization**:

**Implantation revitalization** is the introduction of new functions and spatial forms into a selected and defined fragment of the city (space) whose former function has been degraded. This is usually an area which was heavily built-up and exploited, densely populated and its position in the urban space hierarchy was insignificant. The decisions regarding revitalization are taken outside the area itself, at higher levels of spatial management (regional or national). This is also where it is decided what the 'quality improvement' of the degraded space will regard and what form it will take. An important feature of implantation revitalization is the assumption that the users of the 'new' improved space will also be new, visitors, while the local inhabitants will take an indirect advantage, using new services or enjoying a more attractive and more interesting urban landscape. The result of such policy is a new organization of urban space. (KACZMAREK 2001, p. 27).

The procedure in **integrative revitalization** is the same as in implantation revitalization. The basic difference is that local communities are involved in the process of functional and spatial transformations, due to the activities which directly improve

their standard of living. Introducing new functions and investments should create new jobs, including for the inhabitants and enable them to gain new qualifications and find good jobs. Also spatially, new structures should form a spatial-architectural continuum, which would blur the sharp lines highlighting the barriers between the old and the new. In this sense, revitalization is a complex process, both spatial and economic. (KACZMAREK 2001, p. 27).

In integrative revitalization, which results in new tourism spaces, the benefits and their social significance are visibly larger than in implantation revitalization, where we face the risk of emerging tourism ghettos, hardly accessible or even totally inaccessible to the local population (e.g. in developing countries) (DIELMANS 2011). Numerous examples of successful space revitalizations, which at the final stage are used also by tourists, are presented by KACZMAREK (2001) and WOJNAROWSKA (2011).

### 3.3. DEGRADATION OF TOURISM AND NON-TOURISM SPACES

The creation of new tourism spaces is usually associated with positive processes which change the space function and give the space a new (better) quality and higher value: revitalization and modernization.

In recent years there have been many examples of un-revitalized and un-modernized spaces which are becoming interesting to a growing number of tourists. According to *Słownik języka polskiego* (1979) and *Słownik wyrazów obcych* (2007) (see Fig. 2):

**degradation** means less significance, lower position, declining value. The process of degradation may take place on two planes: physical, where the effects of **destruction** are structural changes (destroying elements of space), and psychological, where the value (significance) of space is downgraded through **depreciation**.

Regardless of the plane, the degradation of tourism spaces leads to negative changes in the existing space and may cause its ageing (partial degradation with maintained functions – emergence of negatively perceived, ‘worse’ tourism spaces) or create functionally new non-tourism spaces (Fig. 3). The result of complete degradation is some kind of abandoned space (fallow – transitory stage), which may be the starting point (in a short or long run) for introducing new functions and creating new types of space or recreating another type of tourism space. Until recently it seemed impossible for a tourism space to be created as a result of the degradation of other, non-tourism spaces. Its creation was associated rather with

the elevation of the area, not the degradation process. Similarly, the abandonment or disappearance of tourism functions in a given space as a result of degradation does not have to coincide with its decreasing quality (e.g. understood as its inhabitants’ standard of living).

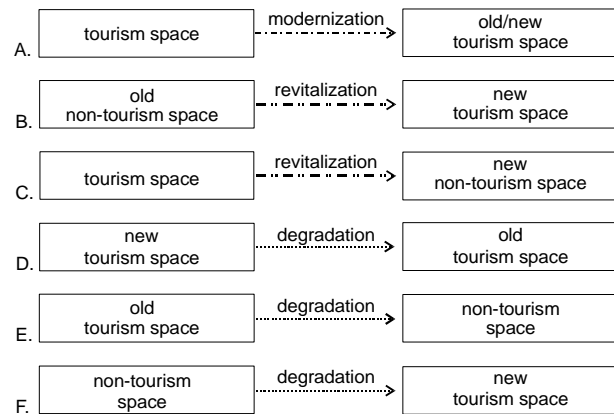


Fig. 3. Possible directions of changes in tourism space, depending on the type of causal process  
Source: Włodarczyk (2009 – modified)

In the cases described above, it could be intuitively assumed that a given process or phenomenon should lead to a transformation of tourism space, and in consequence to a functionally new or modernized, but always better quality, tourism space.

In the case of space degradation, such intuitive conclusions are not always plausible, because this process always leads to a decreased quality (and consequently value) of the space, morphological and functional changes, and as a result to a limited interest in the space or its complete abandoning on the part of its primary users or ‘consumers’.

There is a possibility, however, that together with decreasing space quality and value for one group of users, its significance is increasing for another. This may be true for tourism space which appears when as a result of some degrading process (gradual or rapid) the former space (non-tourism or tourism but performing other tourism functions) becomes useless or unwanted by its original users. In other words, the result of degradation may be new or functionally different tourism spaces.

We can quote here examples of spaces connected with ‘dark’ tourism, where tourists are interested in areas of natural and man-made disasters (TANAŚ 2007, 2008). The phenomenon itself may occur on different scales, as:

– individual objects (micro-scale) – e.g. ‘Wistom’ – former Chemical Fibre Factory in Tomaszów Mazowiecki, which after collapsing in the 1990s is currently

used for organizing strategic field games, paintball battles, etc.;

- towns and localities (meso-scale) - e.g. the Czech town of Most, which as a result of mining disasters resembles a ruined post-war town and is currently used as a film set and an area where cultural tourism trips are organized;

- regions (macro-scale) - e.g. the officially isolated Chernobyl area, degraded as a result of a nuclear disaster (reactor vessel rupture) and currently visited by tourists from all over the world (SHYTS 2011).

A very good example of where all the processes described above overlap, is the centrally located area called *Łódź. Nowe Centrum*, where we can observe the processes of modernization and revitalization taking place within degraded urban fabric and which may result in the creation of functionally new spaces, also used for tourism purposes (WIŚNIEWSKA 2009, BUDZISZEWSKI 2011).

#### 4. CONCLUSIONS

Geographical space, and especially its functionally distinct part, i.e. tourism space, is formed by numerous processes which can be divided into two groups. The first one includes restructurization processes as broadly understood, leading to the creation of improved, more valuable spaces (modernization) or functionally different spaces (revitalization). The other group includes degrading processes (destruction and/or depreciation), which result in the creation of objectively 'worse' spaces, but it does not mean that they are useless as regards particular or specialist forms of tourism activity. The study and analysis show that the majority of attractive tourism spaces are created as a result of modernization or revitalization, but we must not forget the degraded areas which are becoming increasingly attractive to quite large groups of tourists. They will certainly not replace the traditionally attractive tourism areas but they are becoming more and more significant in general tourism space.

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# SCIENTIFIC NOTE

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Tourism 2011, 21/1–2

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## TWENTY YEARS OF POLISH AGRITOURISM: THE PAST AND THE FUTURE

### 1. INTRODUCTION

In April 2011, an international conference entitled 'Rural tourist product - experiences and challenges', organized in Kielce part of the 3<sup>rd</sup> *Agrotravel* Rural and Agritourism International Fair, celebrated the twentieth anniversary of agritourism in Poland<sup>1</sup>. The event which symbolically marked the beginning of agritourism in our country was the founding of Chamber of Agritourism and Tourism in 1991 which started the tradition of Polish agritourism symposia and became one of the first agritourism local authorities<sup>2</sup>. The speakers (officials, practitioners and researchers) looked back at 20 years of agritourism development and presented challenges for the future, concerning especially agritourism consultancy and the idea of rural area tourism product development. The conclusions of the presentations and discussions encouraged the author of this article to look closer at the problem of agritourism in Poland.

In her book *Procesy i uwarunkowania rozwoju agroturystyki w Polsce (The Processes and Conditions of Agritourism Development in Poland)* (WOJCIECHOWSKA 2009), the author organizes and defines the phenomena, transformation and patterns in Polish agritourism from a supply perspective. It was found that until now development has been following two patterns<sup>3</sup>. The first dominated in the 1990's and is referred to as exogenic, while the other appeared in the second half of the 2000's and is referred to as endogenic. The discussion held during the jubilee conference confirmed that there is no other way for agritourism but to seek new development patterns.

The aim of the article is to discuss the most important practical and theoretical achievements and the problems of agritourism development in Poland, as well as to present the new challenges.

### 2. MAJOR ACHIEVEMENTS

The analysis will be conducted on practical and theoretical planes and based on the assumption that one serves the other, taking into account the institutional<sup>4</sup> birth of agritourism in Poland. Certain institutions (e.g. agricultural consultancy centres, *gmina* offices) initiated the development of agritourism in their areas and soon researchers took an interest in it which shows how practice may inspire theory and create research areas. Practical requirements and procedures, however, are usually different from theoretical ones. Practitioners are mainly interested in finding effective methods which would be easy to apply. Researchers, on the other hand, look for an objective truth, study the causes and results of various phenomena and discover patterns<sup>5</sup>.

There has been a wide range of practical achievements in agritourism. However, our intention is not to list them in detail, but to look at them as a whole (Table 1).

Generally, they can be analysed from a supply and demand perspective. As regards demand, one achievement is the creation of a new form of recreation for tourists through the offer of accommodation at a farming homestead and a programme based on the agricultural assets, natural and anthropogenic resources nearby, as well as on the cultural capital of a rural family. However, in order to achieve this success, it was necessary to encourage the villagers to gain a new source of income and, with time, become involved in a new occupation in a situation when farming had been marginalized. It was not easy, either for those activating or for the activated. The basic success factor was innovativeness which, however, came from the outside<sup>6</sup>. In order to meet the challenge, both parties had to become familiar with the rules of agritourism.

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The acceptance of innovation made agritourism a professional alternative for some inhabitants, especially those who possessed human capital, i.e. the cultural, psychological and social foundation (knowledge, skills, competence, innovative skills), in addition to material resources (a farm, available free rooms).

Table 1. Major achievements in Polish agritourism

Achievements	
practice	theory
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- encouraging inhabitants of rural areas to obtain a <b>new source of income</b>, as well as <b>occupation</b>;</li> <li>- creating a <b>new form of tourism</b>;</li> <li>- <b>creating</b> development generating <b>organisations</b>;</li> <li>- creating legal, administrative and organizational <b>mechanisms</b> which support development;</li> <li>- defining the clearly positive <b>role</b> of the multifunctional development of the countryside and farming homesteads.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- conducting <b>numerous studies and analyses</b>, the quantity is hard to define;</li> <li>- creating a <b>vast research area</b> which refers to different disciplines (e.g. agriculture, economy, sociology, geography and pedagogy);</li> <li>- <b>establishing patterns</b> of cognitive processes and <b>creating</b> theoretical <b>models</b> within different disciplines.</li> </ul>

Source: author.

The primary achievement of Polish agritourism is then the creation of organisations which generate and have an effect on its development. They include not only the owners of agritourism homesteads, but also associations, organizations and institutions promoting development, such as agricultural consultancy centres, *gmina* offices or *starostwos*. Tourists are also included in this group, because their interest in a given agritourism product determines the direction of development.

As regards supply, significant achievements include the creation of the self-government of agritourism branch (*samorząd branżowy*), categorization of rural accommodation facilities, promotion on the [www.agroturystyka.pl](http://www.agroturystyka.pl) social network, as well as the regulation of some legal matters, like the right to tax exemption when the number of rented rooms does not exceed five. The quantitative effects may be expressed in the size of the existing tourism accommodation. Over 80,000 beds in agritourism homesteads ensure tourism for about five million overnight stays during the summer holidays and provide direct income for about 9,000 families (8,900 accommodation facilities)<sup>7</sup>. These figures are not too impressive on a national scale; quite the contrary – they show that during the 20 years of agritourism development in Poland only a few homesteads have brought in noticeable

profits. In the author's opinion, this does not diminish the significance of agritourism in the multifunctional development of individual villages and farming homesteads<sup>8</sup>. On the contrary, a moderate increase in the number of agritourism homesteads is conducive to the urbanization of the countryside which is treated as a positive phenomenon. Sensible infiltration of agritourism into the rural space causes many positive changes both in its appearance and in the mentality of the local community.

The theoretical achievements in agritourism are also both quantitative and qualitative. Quantitative achievements show in the continuously growing number of academic publications, conferences, seminars, research programmes, and centres or institutions with the word 'agritourism' in their name<sup>9</sup>. This certainly reflects the broad research area of agritourism where researchers representing different academic disciplines look for answers to questions regarding agritourism from the point of view of the science which they represent. As a result, agritourism problems are viewed from the perspective of different sciences, such as agriculture, economy, sociology or tourism geography.

As for the research activity, a quantitative effect in agritourism is the growing number of publications, where the authors point to the mechanisms of its development and a detailed methodology of agritourism studies. This process, however, occurs in different sciences. It should be stressed that for many years academic circles have been involved in a discussion on the autonomy of tourism as a science (e.g. TRAVIS 1983, PRZECLAWSKI 1984, LISZEWSKI 1994, ALEJZIAK 1998, 2003, WINIARSKI 2008, 5<sup>th</sup> Tourism Experts Committee 2010<sup>10</sup>).

Ideas on agritourism and its theoretical models created in different academic disciplines include the following:

- a model of the rural tourism market – example of the Zachodnio-Pomorskie (West Pomeranian) *Województwo* – developed by BOTT-ALAMA (2004), an economist;
- a model of the effects of agritourism development, devised by WOJCIECHOWSKA (2006), a geographer;
- an idea for agritourism homestead economics and the relations between agricultural production and agritourism, SZNAJDER & PRZEBÓRSKA (2006), agriculturalists.

It must be stressed that in both practice and in theory, agritourism has appeared as a new phenomenon. Therefore, after twenty years it is extremely difficult to assess the effects of its development objectively. It is a relatively new phenomenon for research, but in practice we already have the next generation interested in its further development.

### 3. THE MAIN DEVELOPMENT PROBLEMS

Development problems may be divided into different categories. For instance, in terms of time, we may talk about continuous problems, current or new. Following this way of thinking, the author has presented them in Table 2 on both practical and theoretical planes as before. Let us first discuss problems on the theoretical plane.

Table 2. The main issues in Polish agritourism development

Problems	
practice	theory
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- briefness or vagueness of activity among organisations generating and shaping the development, insufficient understanding of innovativeness as a continuous challenge;</li> <li>- overlapping activities and competences of institutions supporting the development; disintegration and weakening of the self-government of agritourism branch (<i>samorząd branżowy</i>);</li> <li>- weakness and inconsequence in the legal, administrative and organizational mechanisms, supporting the development.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- poor methodological integration;</li> <li>- progress in research is mostly quantitative;</li> <li>- difficulties in comparing the study results and repeating the research;</li> <li>- continuous terminological discussion, which works against theoretical integration;</li> <li>- ineffective integration of theory and practice.</li> </ul>

Source: author.

The study of literature shows that researchers representing different academic disciplines conduct agritourism research independently of one another, using the language of their own individual disciplines. As a result, knowledge about agritourism collected in different disciplines is presently poorly integrated. Some conferences devoted to agritourism gather representatives of different disciplines in order to work out an interdisciplinary approach and Polish agritourism symposia invite practitioners to join the discussion. Despite this, such an approach is still rare. There is a shortage of publications in which specialists in different fields are jointly trying to provide answers to the same research problems. An interdisciplinary approach makes it possible to obtain a common platform for discussion among representatives of different disciplines involved in the study of agritourism (PRZECLAWSKI 1984, p. 57). It must be admitted that over the twenty years of agritourism development such a platform has not been built.

The next theoretical issue is the fact that progress in agritourism research is clearly quantitative. There are

many studies and expert evaluations but the studies have a limited scope, are often not representative, and very rarely conducted on a national scale (also due to the lack of regular statistical data). This leads to another problem, i.e. the difficulty in comparing research results both in time and space. On top of that, the continuous terminological discussion regarding the notion of agritourism works against theoretical integration and, consequently, effective integration of theory and practice. Seemingly the integration is large, if we consider the scale of activities, but it seems small in terms of effects. This is confirmed by the fact that science has poor recognition of the differences in demand in different parts of Poland, as regards the quantity demanded, structure, features and trends – information which is crucial for practitioners.

Practical issues may be put into three categories: the involvement of organisations; the activity of the self-government of agritourism branch (*samorząd branżowy*); and the structure of agritourism development mechanisms (Table 2). In the first category, a very important issue is the ephemeral character of the activities (on the part of both the owners of agritourism homesteads and the associations), their vagueness on the tourism market, and insufficient understanding of innovativeness as a continuous challenge. The author confirms her own statement, contained in the publication from 2009, regarding the high quantitative fluctuations among agritourism homesteads (WOJCIECHOWSKA 2009). Officially, their number is worryingly decreasing, but at the same time there are also a lot of new ones which have not been registered or are advertised only on the Internet.

Another issue is the overlapping of activities and competences of the organisations directly involved or supporting agritourism development. The first symptoms of this phenomenon occurred after 2000 as a result of the reorganization of the tourism system in Poland<sup>11</sup>. The Regional and Local Tourist Organizations founded at that time were glad to take advantage of the popularity of agritourism homesteads in their own promotion, offering very little in return. After 2004, Local Activity Groups (LAG) appeared, competing with the self-government of agritourism branch (*samorząd branżowy*) at local, regional and national levels, but the competition was hardly ever positive; the LAG's are rather a threat to the these branches<sup>12</sup>. The weakness and inconsequence of legal, administrative and organizational mechanisms is conducive to an unnecessary division of activity among different organisations, especially outside the tourism business<sup>13</sup>.

The issues discussed above are clearly interdependent; each enhances another. Solving them requires a wide-ranging approach, i.e. first of all

the strengthening of the central organisation<sup>14</sup> in order for it to coordinate agritourism development in a planned way, and not 'from project to project'. Its most important role should be changing the image of Polish agritourism, deciding how to diversify the agritourism offer – strategically or spontaneously – as well as establishing clear rules for agritourism activity as an additional source of income for a farming family and the main source of income (business) for those living in a rural area. It is time we loosened the legal-organizational straightjacket to allow development in Polish agritourism.

#### 4. PRO FUTURO

The problems discussed above should be treated as a challenge for the immediate future because the quality of ideas will determine the potential of agritourism in Poland. It is also worth mentioning those problems which may result from social trends, especially those connected with the economic, social and spatial reconstruction of rural areas.

In the light of various forecasts for the Polish countryside for the next twenty years, it appears that we may expect deep changes affecting all the basic areas in which it functions: agriculture, population, sources of farmers' income, rural culture, social life, as well as the state and European rural policy (KUPIDURA *et al.* 2011). Many of these changes will have a direct effect on future agritourism, so some are worth taking a closer look at.

It is expected that the rural population will increase, especially in the villages situated within 50 km of larger towns, more people not involved in farming will move to the countryside, housing enclaves will be built for them and as a result the rural landscape will change (KUPIDURA *et al.* 2011). These predictions raise the following questions: what should the agritourism offer include, what should it offer on the outskirts of large cities, and what 'deep in the country' or in the tourism zones of rural areas?

The agritourism offer may include different types of homesteads in the future. Perhaps initially this diversification will be oriented towards the functionality of a farming homestead for tourists, as is the case in agritourism in Western European countries today<sup>15</sup>.

Implementing the idea of the multifunctional development of rural areas is related to the introduction of new non-farming functions, including tourism-recreational ones. This may aggravate spatial, environmentally-related and social conflicts in the future, even more so in that one suggestion for development is that spatial planning should include taking responsibility

for planning and administering the space inhabited by local communities (KUPIDURA *et al.* 2011). Another question comes to mind: what should be taken into account in spatial planning as regards agritourism development?

Going deeper into this problem, we should also ask the following:

1. To what extent can the local community decide the scale of agritourism development in individual farming homesteads, or tourism facilities in their village, so that its homesteads, spatial layout, architectural landscape, etc are not deformed?

2. How can this community prevent the danger of 'becoming a part of the tourism attraction on offer'<sup>16</sup>, the source of many internal and external conflicts?

3. Are agritourism homesteads an element of public space and how should their functioning be inscribed in the vision of the development of this space?

4. Can the local community itself set limitations on the spatial and social development of agritourism?

In the face of the above questions it seems important to provide local communities<sup>17</sup> with knowledge of the optimum and incontrovertible indicators of agritourism development, possibly in many aspects. The suggestion seems reasonable in the context of the spatial development of every village in a given region. Such an idea was put forward by KOWICKI (2005) under the slogan 'the countryside for the farmers'.

Giving agritourism its place in the postulated vision of spatial rural development, including an element of socio-economic development, makes sense. The possibility of presenting the scale of agritourism development effects (its benefits and costs) should be very important for local communities. They will be able to avoid disappointment caused by excessive hopes connected with the development of tourist services in their area. It also becomes possible to define the optimum number of agritourism homesteads for a given locality which will enable the community to choose the form of development, e.g. as an agritourism village or individual homesteads belonging to a national network. By defining the limits of agritourism development, it will be possible to prevent its excessive growth in a given village. Uncontrolled and spontaneous development over a period of time is not favourable from the perspective of tourists or inhabitants. Geographical space is a strictly limited resource, in agritourism as well<sup>18</sup>.

The theoretical task is to define the rules of measuring and evaluating the effects of agritourism activity in order to recommend its optimum development and to be able to manage rural space. Other theoretical aspects include choice of evaluation criteria, the indicators and the evaluation itself. Therefore, it is worth discussing the method of evaluating the

effectiveness of agritourism and establishing its physical absorbency and capacity in given areas, as well as the perception capacity (URRY 2007), i.e. the subjective quality of tourist experience. There are many examples of such studies in Western Europe, for instance in Great Britain and France<sup>19</sup>.

## 5. CONCLUSIONS

Over the period of the past 20 years, both in practice and theory, the main focus has been the promotion of agritourism. The next period should be techniques of planned development. The task of research is to assist in planning it so that it responds to the symptoms and forecasts of the tourism market and the socio-economic development of the rural areas.

### FOOTNOTES

<sup>1</sup> The conference was organized on 15-16<sup>th</sup> April 2001 by the Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development, the Ministry of Sport and Tourism, the provincial council of the Świętokrzyskie Województwo and the Regional Tourism Organization of the Świętokrzyskie Województwo.

<sup>2</sup> The earliest included the Tourism Union of Świętokrzyskie Rural District Councils (founded in 1991), the Gdansk Agritourism Association (1993) and the Warminsko-Mazurskie Agritourism Association (1993) (WOJCIECHOWSKA 2010).

<sup>3</sup> This book contains the expression 'agritourism development paradigms'. It must be explained that 'paradigm' was not used as a theoretical category (formulated by the philosopher and academic historian KUHN, 2001), but to represent different ways of organizing agritourism.

<sup>4</sup> More information about the institutional origins of Polish agritourism can be found in the book by WOJCIECHOWSKA (2009).

<sup>5</sup> The difference between theory and practice is captured in a statement on medicine which states that the aim of medicine is to deal with the illness while the aim of medical practice is to take care of the sick (after: ALEJZIAK 2003, p. 240). In Polish agritourism terminology we find two works: *agroturystyka* and *agrotourism*, it can be said that *agroturystyka* is a term closer to practice, and *agrotourizm* to theory (more about the definitions of terms in the book by WOJCIECHOWSKA 2009).

<sup>6</sup> More about the exogenous development of Polish agritourism in WOJCIECHOWSKA (2009)

<sup>7</sup> Statistical data presented at the conference in Kielce.

<sup>8</sup> In the literature devoted to Polish rural areas, we find three categories of multi-functionality: agriculture, the village and the farming homestead (e.g. ZEGAR 2008, WILKIN 2009). In the first category, agritourism plays the least important role.

<sup>9</sup> For example, the bibliographic list of works on agritourism compiled by Kożuchowska, published in 2000, included 224 entries, and that by Drzewiecki from 2001 – 258 entries. In 2009, for the purpose of writing her book, the author studied a collection of over 400 publications (WOJCIECHOWSKA 2009).

<sup>10</sup> This suggestion was officially submitted at the round-up session of the 5<sup>th</sup> Tourism Specialists Commission, held on 23-25<sup>th</sup> November 2010 in Warsaw, and formulated in the resolutions to the conference.

<sup>11</sup> The author pointed to this issue in 2005 (WOJCIECHOWSKA 2005).

<sup>12</sup> More and more often at different conferences (also that at Kielce) the following question is raised: what is (if it exists at all) the future of Local Activity Groups after the termination of the EU programme 'Leader +', supervised by the provincial councils? It is commonly known that advisory and financial support triggers inventiveness, and is a promising tool, but it does not guarantee success. Without subsidies, the success of an idea may be threatened, which has often been the case in agritourism. If there is no direction for Local Activity Groups, tourism may be in a double danger – not only because it will be weaker, but above all because the activity of agritourist associations (local and regional) will end, thus disorganizing the functioning of the Polish Federation for Rural Tourism „Hospitable Farms” (*Gospodarstwa Gościnne*).

<sup>13</sup> In his works, Raciborski (since the 1990's) has pointed to the formal forms of relief for agritourism, guaranteed by current legal regulations. He also draws attention to the weakness of these regulations, and even their limiting nature (RACIBORSKI 2011). It must be stressed that these are even greater due to the changes in administration and law, ordered by the EU and interpreted differently in different regions.

<sup>14</sup> The author believes that the central organisation is the Polish Federation for Rural Tourism „Hospitable Farms” (*Gospodarstwa Gościnne*) founded in 1996. In order for the Federation to perform the function of autonomous coordinator of agritourism in Poland, it should have an office with fully employed professional personnel. The office should be controlled by the Federation board of directors. Unfortunately, the Federation is unable to cope with such a task alone. This is why, among other reasons, its position is gradually weakening. In other countries, e.g. Austria, continuous and visible financial support, for instance by appropriate ministries, enables such an organization to function in a stable way ([www.farmholidays.com](http://www.farmholidays.com)). The lack of a proper office and other problems of the Federation were described by the author in 2005 (WOJCIECHOWSKA 2005).

<sup>15</sup> The typology of agritourism based on this criterion was presented in 2010 by the British researchers PHILLIP, HUNTER & BLACKSTOCK (2010). They identified six types of agritourism based on a farm and having tourist contact with agriculture: 1) non working farm agritourism – e.g. accommodation in ex-farmhouse property; 2) working farm, passive contact agritourism – e.g. accommodation in farmhouse; 3) working farm, indirect contact agritourism – e.g. farm produce served in tourist meals; 4) working farm, direct contact, staged agritourism – e.g. farming demonstrations; 5) working farm, direct contact, authentic agritourism – e.g. participation in farm tasks. Perhaps Polish agriculture will pursue this direction.

<sup>16</sup> Many examples of such phenomena can be found in foreign (e.g. DIELEMANS 2011) and the Polish literature e.g. POŁOMSKI (2010) who describes the life of the inhabitants of the Bieszczady National Park area. In order to present the results of the sociological research conducted there, he uses the metaphor of 'the monkey and the open-air museum'. The two elements of this metaphor refer to the inhabitants of the villages situated in protected areas and which are advertised among tourists. According to the author, this metaphor shows that such villages lose their importance as places where food is produced and also their agricultural function, for the benefit of the entertainment services. This makes the local community a part of the tourism attraction (tourists look at the locals as if they were monkeys in an open-air museum, p. 129). Not all inhabitants want that or think that such activity is suitable for them. The lack of other activities forces them to migrate, while staying in the village and not getting involved in tourism services often results in being pushed to the brink of social life. The author explicitly presents a conflict within a local community, but we must not forget the conflicts resulting from how such communities are perceived by others, especially those neighbouring. At the 14<sup>th</sup> Polish Agritourist Symposium (13-15<sup>th</sup> September 2011), during a workshop session entitled 'Social management of the rural tourist product', Maria Idziak discussed the phenomenon of neighbouring villages ridiculing the way the inhabitants of Sieraków Sławieński in Zachodnio-

pomorskie *Województwo* earn money (their tourism product is the 'Hobbits' Village').

<sup>17</sup> The local community was defined by WACIĘGA (2011) as a space where citizens, non-governmental organizations, public institutions and enterprises pursue common values and interests.

<sup>18</sup> This statement may be confirmed by the case of Śladków Mały near Kielce, announced as an 'agritourism village' in the 1990's. In 1999 it had 25 agritourism homesteads, while in 2010 – only 10 (based on Beata Szwaczko's research for her MA thesis, entitled 'Opportunities and obstacles in the development of agritourism in the agritourism village of Śladków Mały', written under the supervision of Wojciechowska at the Institute of Urban Geography and Tourism, University of Łódź, in 2011). The large number of agritourism homesteads in a village devoid of any significant tourism assets was shown as a cause of social conflict.

<sup>19</sup> One of the many researchers is Claire Delfose, who discussed raising the value of rural area assets and their significance for local development during her lectures given in April 2010 at the University of Łódź, as part of the ERASMUS program. Her works are published in the journal *Ruralia. Sciences sociales & mondes ruraux contemporains*, published by Institut des Sciences de l'Homme in Lyon.

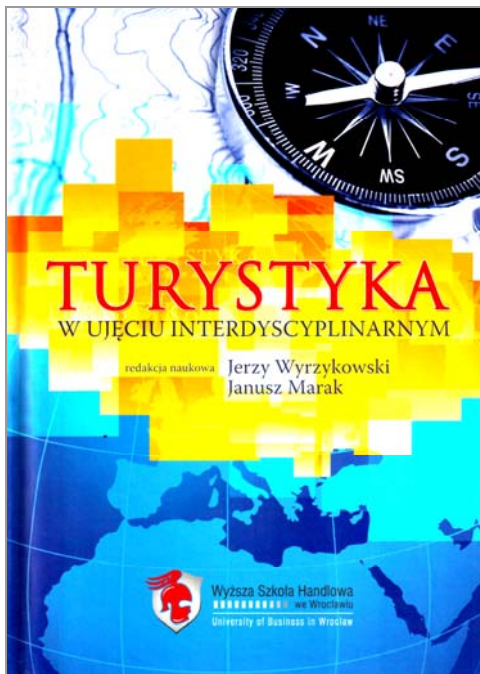
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# REVIEW

Tourism 2011, 21/1–2



JERZY WYRZYKOWSKI, JANUSZ MARAK (EDS)  
*TURYSTYKA W UJĘCIU INTERDYSCYPLINARNYM*  
(An Interdisciplinary Approach to Tourism)  
WYŻSZA SZKOŁA HANDLOWA WE WROCŁAWIU  
WROCŁAW 2010, 592 pp.

The book entitled *Turystyka w ujęciu interdyscyplinarnym* (*An Interdisciplinary Approach to Tourism*) is a collective work by 22 authors representing different disciplines and edited by a geographer J. Wyrzykowski and an economist J. Marak. The very fact that the team of authors consists of geographers, economists, representatives of physical culture, sociologists, psychologists, art historians, spatial planners and lawyers points to the multidisciplinary character of the publication. The editors explain it in the Introduction: 'The title implies the interdisciplinary character of tourism, and individual chapters devoted to important aspects of tourism have been written by representatives of the disciplines to which they are related.'

Apart from a short introduction, the book consists of six large chapters forming independent parts of the work. The element which connects them is tourism as broadly understood, discussed here from different perspectives, as well as the bibliography at the end of the book.

Chapter I, entitled 'Introduction to tourism', was prepared by Wyrzykowski, Marak & Dudy-Seifert. It is a compendium of tourism where the authors discuss the following issues: the object of tourism studies, the

classification of tourism, the history of tourism (an outline), the scale and distribution of tourism, and the income generated by international tourism throughout the world. The chapter closes with digressions on trends in tourism and forecasts for its development in the contemporary world.

The title of this chapter reflects its content, which introduces the reader to the issues of tourism. An interesting feature is Table 1 in which the authors refer to the Accreditation Commission resolution adopted on 2 July 2007, listing the disciplines which partake in the education process at the 'tourism and recreation' university course. Both, the name of the course and the disciplines ascribed to it have a bureaucratic-administrative, formal character, not a factual one, but the fact is that they actually exist, and so may be referred to in discussion(?).

Chapter II is entitled 'Bio-physiological aspects of tourism'. It contains 47 pages and was written by Toczek-Werner and Sołtysik, representing physical culture disciplines. The authors believe that tourism is a human activity oriented towards needs satisfaction, e.g. by travelling to other places and conscious mobility. By discussing the physiological basis of the tourism activity, the authors deal with the physical

capacity, body metabolism during physical effort, oxygen supply to the organism, energy usage, as well as tiredness and relaxation. A very interesting section is the sub-chapter entitled 'Safety factors and conditions in tourism activity', in which the authors discuss the physiological consequences of tourism activity in different natural environments - humid, hot, cold, high altitude and under water.

Further in this chapter the authors discuss the role of tourism activity in maintaining good health and psychological well-being, as well as human activity while taking part in various forms of specialist and health tourism (spa, wellness).

Presenting problems of human physiology is very interesting and most probably extremely useful, because every time they refer to individual people and activities. However, to my mind there are few references to tourism (especially mass tourism) and a lot of references to recreation, which goes beyond the definition of tourism, or is only partly an element of tourism (according to the controversial proposals by Kurek 2007, p. 13).

Chapter III, entitled 'Sociological and psychological aspects of tourism', consists of 25 pages and was written by Klementowski, Sawicki & Zdebski. Defining the object of tourism sociology, the authors stress that it is 'tourism as a social phenomenon'. There are detailed studies of the bonds created during the tourism process, the formation of social groups, the emergence of new social processes ('touristification'), as well as the creation of a tourist identity (the educational aspect of tourism).

Polish sociologists became involved in tourism studies relatively late - only in 1958, when the first article on the topic by Ziemilski appeared. Sociological research in Poland mainly concerns leisure time and how it is used in different social groups. On pages 99-101, the authors present the results of a study of the leisure time spent by the inhabitants of Wrocław, conducted in the first years of the new millennium.

The second part of this chapter is devoted to tourism psychology, which according to the authors 'deals with man as the object of study'. Psychologists often treat sport, recreational and tourism activity jointly, thus making tourist psychology an area of physical culture (p. 105).

A significant research trend in tourism psychology regards the issues of motivation and difficulty in tourism activity, tourism careers and the classification of tourists.

Similar to sociology, psychology has become involved in tourism relatively recently. According to the authors, the first lecture on tourism psychology was given in 1968, at the International Centre of Tourism Studies in Turin.

The largest chapter in the book (203 pages, 38% of the whole text) is Chapter IV, entitled 'Tourism as an economic phenomenon'. In fact it could be an independent course book on tourism economics. The chapter was divided into four parts.

Part 1 - 'The tourism economy' - contains discussions on the range of some terminology (tourism economy or tourism industry?), information about the tourism satellite account for Poland, the multiplier effect in tourism, tourism market and its mechanisms, tourism services and marketing in tourism.

In the second part of Chapter IV, 'The tourism economy on international and national scales', the authors discuss the tourism economy in the European Union, the influence of international organizations on the tourism economy (WTO, WTTC, IATA, etc.) and other issues.

The third part, entitled 'Regional and local tourism economies', is devoted to the tourism economy within a region and a district, and presents tourism organizations which are involved in this activity, e.g. ROT, LOT, PIT, RIJT, PART, PTTK, PTSM, etc.

In the last, fourth part, 'Enterprise as a tourism economic organisation', the authors discuss the features and classifications of tourism enterprises, personnel management, the finances and strategies of tourism enterprises, and finally present selected travel agencies as fundamental tourism enterprises and the hotel as an element of tourism service supply.

The authors of this extremely interesting chapter are Bąkowska-Morawska, Heliak, Jaworska, Jaworski, Konopka-Struś, & Zajązkowski.

The second largest chapter (146 pages) is Chapter V, entitled 'Tourism as a spatial phenomenon'. It was written by geographers: Dudy-Seifert, Mikołajczak, Werner, Wyrzykowska & Wyrzykowski. Tourism is mostly studied by tourism geographers and the authors discussed the basic terminology referring to tourism geography (I do not understand why it was called 'spatial economy in tourism'), the methods of assessing the tourism attractiveness of the geographical environment, research methods used for studying tourism and tourism development coefficients, tourism infrastructure, the tourist use and development of different types of geographical environment, the basic types of tourism destinations, as well as adjusting geographical assets to the needs of tourism. The chapter lacks discussion of urban tourism (just like the whole work), which currently plays a significant role in tourism, at least in Europe.

The last, sixth, chapter is entitled 'The legal aspects of tourism'. Its author, Marak, wonders whether the term 'tourism law' is appropriate and suggests that the participation of lawyers in tourism studies should be called 'law in tourism', meaning a set of legal norms regulating social relations connected with tourism.

The author discusses Polish tourism legislation, community laws and the legal basis of the functioning of a travel agency, organizing a tourism event, providing an individual tourism service, the cooperation of tourist guides, couriers and travel agencies. The last part of this chapter is devoted to the legal grounds of hotel services.

This chapter is a set of pieces of 'legal advice' on tourism activity as broadly understood and especially tourism economics. It lacks an analysis of the legal regulations concerning tourism space, e.g. the 'Snow Law', discussed in Poland for many years.

The book finishes with a bibliography containing hundreds of titles (17 pages), referred to in the text, a list of laws (3.5 pages) and websites. There are also lists of tables (55), figures (50), photographs (95), as well as several attachments (tables, figures, questionnaires). The last five pages contain an alphabetical index. The book was carefully edited and published in a hard cover. It was reviewed by Professors Krzysztof Mazurski and Aleksander Panasiuk.

The book can be evaluated from several points of view. Firstly, it is a successful attempt to present tourism studies as conducted in several different disciplines. The authors present the theoretical basis, research methods, as well as examples of works by representatives of physical culture disciplines (naturalists and physicians), sociology, psychology, economics, geography and law. It is regrettable that the editors did not establish the size of individual chapters, perhaps on the basis of the research achievements in a given area. Considering this criterion, the greatest achievements in Poland, both as regards the history of research (80 years) and the number of publications, were made by geographers (Jackowski 2010), followed by economists, sociologists (since 1958), psychologists (1968), physicians and lawyers. I am mentioning only the areas presented in the book. It is worth remembering, however, that at the turn of the 21<sup>st</sup> c. a book edited by Winiarski (1999, 2004) presented a much larger number of disciplines dealing with tourism.

Secondly, the book is a very good compendium of tourism in individual disciplines. This mainly concerns economics and partly geography (I do not understand why geographers hide their achievements under the cover of spatial phenomena – after all, geography is still the most important discipline dealing with space). The chapter on the legal aspects of tourism certainly plays a practical role. Therefore, it is a book which can be recommended to students of tourism and recreation, as well as others interested in the study of tourism.

Thirdly, the book may be important for the long on-going discussion of whether tourism can be regarded as an independent discipline, or whether it is a conglomeration of disciplines about tourism (Liszewski 2010). It should be concluded that the expression 'interdisciplinary approach' in the title points to the fact that the authors tend to support the idea of 'tourism disciplines'. However, I have an impression that the book has a multidisciplinary character rather than interdisciplinary, because at the beginning of each chapter, the authors define the subject and object of study, as if it was different for different disciplines, which in this case are dealing with the same phenomenon – tourism. This only confirms that opinions on the object and subject of study still vary considerably.

Finally, I would like to refer to the 'tourism and recreation' university course, mentioned by the editors in the introduction. Both the name of this specialization and the syllabus are an example of a bad compromise between the representatives of physical education academies and the universities and economics universities in Poland. In practice, tourism and recreation have different objects of study, different aims and different educational possibilities. While physical education academies can and should deal with recreation, which is a part of physical culture, universities have the research potential and interdisciplinary achievements, which allow them to educate future tourism workers. This is confirmed by the fact that the University of Economics in Poznań has opened a new specialization, called 'tourism economics'.

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*Translated by Ewa Mossakowska*

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# REPORT

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Tourism 2011, 21/1-2

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## THE 27<sup>TH</sup> FIELD SEMINAR: *RESEARCH WORKSHOPS ON THE GEOGRAPHY OF TOURISM*, TUSZYN, 22-24<sup>TH</sup> SEPTEMBER 2011

The 27th Field Seminar *Research Workshops on the Geography of Tourism* took place from September 22-24, 2011 in Tuszyn, on the rural-urban fringe of Łódź. According to tradition, it was organized by the Geography of Tourism Department, University of Łódź with the original title: 'Tourism - a fashion for success?' The organizers' intention was to look for an answer to the question of whether contemporary tourism is, or may become, one of the major solutions to economic, social and spatial development problems. The other aim of the conference was to present the latest results of tourism research conducted at different academic institutions prior to publication, as well as doctoral and post-doctoral theses completed in 2011. The conference venue was the Grzegorzewski Hotel in Tuszyn, located in the western part of Tuszyn Las. It is worth mentioning that the hotel was chosen as the venue of this year's seminar because it is an interesting example of a new investment in overnight accommodation on the rural-urban fringe of Łódź. It was also a good example of the continuance of the recreation tradition in this area.

The *Research Workshops* began with Professor Bogdan Włodarczyk, the head of the Geography of Tourism Department, University of Łódź, greeting the participants. He briefly mentioned the main aims of the conference and presented the reasons for choosing Tuszyn Las and the hotel as the venue. The second speaker was Witold Małecki, the Mayor of the Town and District of Tuszyn, who welcomed the participants and briefly presented the socio-economic situation and the development prospects for the town and *gmina* of Tuszyn. Next, Zdzisław Stasiak from the local *Wolbórka* Society spoke about the tourism assets in the *gmina*, an interesting introduction to the study tour planned for the next day. The next presentation was on the Grzegorzewski Hotel itself. Piotr

Grzegorzewski, the owner spoke mainly about the reasons for investing in a new hotel and about the construction procedure. In the next presentation *Traditional holiday areas in the rural-urban fringe of Łódź*, Prof. Włodarczyk talked about the *gmina* of Tuszyn, which is a well-known, traditional area of summer recreation used by the inhabitants of Łódź. The speaker presented the development of the rural-urban fringe holiday areas of Łódź and their typical tourism infrastructure. In the last presentation, Jolanta Śledzińska from PTTK (Polish Tourist and Sightseeing Society) in Warsaw discussed the effects of the nationwide campaign organized by PTTK, entitled 'Wędruj z nami' (Come hiking with us). The first session was led by Prof. Włodarczyk.

The second day included three workshop sessions ending with a study tour. The first session was opened by Dr Jacek Potocki (*Wrocław University of Economics*) who presented interesting results of research into the 'holiday spaces' of Poles, established on the basis of attendance data during the last presidential elections. The second presentation, by Czesław Adamiak (*Mikołaj Kopernik University in Toruń*), was on the conditions (both housing and economic) which control ownership of second homes in Poland. Next, Dr Alina Zajadacz (*Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznań*) spoke about the problems of social integration in terms of the management of leisure time by the deaf in contrast to the hearing. The session was led by Prof. Andrzej Kowalczyk (*University of Warsaw*).

The next session on the second day started from a presentation by Prof. Agnieszka Niezgoda (*Poznań University of Economics*) on the role of ecological awareness in shaping the tourism product. The speaker paid particular attention to pro-ecological tourism behaviour. In the next presentation, Prof. Kowalczyk discussed the role of city waterfronts in the

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development of tourism focusing on the tourism infrastructure and attractiveness of on-the-water areas in Hong Kong. In the third workshop, Dr Witold Półtorak (University of Rzeszów) gave a presentation, which he had prepared jointly with Dr Grzegorz Bielec, about regional cooking and its role in forming the tourism product in the Carpathian region. The session was led by Dr Potocki.

The last session on the second day included three presentations. First, Dr Marta Derek, (*University of Warsaw*), spoke about leisure space connected with former industrial facilities in the Warsaw district of Praga. By describing how such spaces were used for recreational purposes, the author attempted to assess their attractiveness as areas where people can spend leisure time. Then, Maciej Adamiak (*University of Łódź*) presented the problems of the climbing equipment market in Łódź. He discussed the results of a survey conducted among the users of such equipment and the places where it is sold. At the end of this session, Dr Katarzyna Podhorecka (*University of Warsaw*) talked about the development of a new tourist attraction – ‘Tropical Island’ near Berlin. The author wondered to what extent the fashion for tropical holidays influences tourists’ interest in the new attraction. The session was led by Dr Zajadacz.

After the lunch break, the participants took part in a study tour which lasted for some hours to see the tourism assets of the town and the district of Tuszyn. The tour was guided by Zdzisław Stasiak from the *Wolbórka* Society and by a representative of the State Forests. It included the most attractive natural tourism sites (e.g. Molenda Nature Reserve, Żeromińskie Ponds, Młynek reservoir, Wolbórka valley), cultural heritage sites (e.g. the manor house in Kruszowa), and summer holiday facilities (e.g. the summer holiday villages of Zofiówka, Rydzynki and Tuszyn Las).

The second day of the conference finished with an elegant supper. It was an opportunity to publicly declare willingness to develop cooperation between the representatives of higher education, local government and private business in the field of tourism.

The last day of the conference included one workshop session featuring four presentations. The first presenter was Dr Półtorak, who this time spoke about the possibilities of using tragic historical events in tourism. The author used the example of the village of Markowa in the *Podkarpacki Województwo*, where the Ulm family tragically died during the Second World War. The co-author of the presentation was Dr Bielec, (also *University of Rzeszów*). Dr Sławoj Tanaś (*University of Łódź*) in a way continued the theme; his presentation was entitled *Relations between the death space and the tourism space*. The author focused on the perception of death as a cultural and, consequently, tourism phenomenon. Next, Sławomir Kula (*University of Wincenty Pol in Lublin*) spoke about using the tourism assets of Lubelszczyzna (Lublin region) by tourism organizers. The author presented the preliminary results of the survey conducted among those representing the tourism business. The last presentation, by Bartosz Bończak (*University of Łódź*), was entitled *The use of the modified SERVQUAL method in the evaluation of a new tourist product: the example of the Battle of Łódź*, referred to methodological issues. The author presented suggestions for changes to the popular method of evaluating the quality of tourism services (e.g. hotel services), which could then be used for assessing the attractiveness of other tourism products.

The 27<sup>th</sup> Field Seminar *Research Workshops on the Geography of Tourism* hosted 27 participants from eight research institutions in Poland, represented by six Polish Universities (University of Łódź, University of Warsaw, Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznań, Maria Curie-Skłodowska in Lublin, Mikołaj Kopernik University in Toruń and the University of Rzeszów), two universities of economics (Poznań and Jelenia Góra), and one private university (*University of Wincenty Pol* in Lublin). The seminar was divided into five sessions comprising 17 presentations. It was supervised by Professor Bogdan Włodarczyk, and the secretary was Dr Robert Wiluś.

# OBITUARY

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PROFESSOR  
JADWIGA WARSZYŃSKA  
(18<sup>TH</sup> JULY 1925 – 19<sup>TH</sup> AUGUST 2011)



Polish academic life suffered an exceptionally painful and irreparable loss on the day Professor Jadwiga Warszyńska passed away. She was a retired full professor at the Institute of Geography and Spatial Management at the Jagiellonian University, Kraków; the vice-director of the Institute of Geography, and the head of its Tourism Geography Department; a member of the IGU Tourism Geography Commission, the Geographical Sciences Committee at the Polish Academy of Science in Kraków, and the Polish Geographical Society.

Jadwiga Warszyńska was born in Tarnów into a family of teachers. In 1947-52 she studied at the Mathematics and Natural Science Department, at the Jagiellonian University. She was granted a MPhil degree for her thesis entitled *Socio-Spatial Ties in Kraków*. In 1961 she was granted a PhD degree by the Biology and Earth Sciences Department at the Jagiellonian University for her doctoral thesis entitled

*The development of the transport network in Kraków Województwo*. She received her post-doctoral degree in 1983, and became a full professor in 1989.

In 1951-4 Jadwiga Warszyńska worked as a teacher at the Pedagogical Liceum in Tarnów, but from 1958 she had been inextricably linked with the Institute of Geography at the Jagiellonian University where she was employed after completing post-graduate studies at both this institution and the University of Warsaw (1954-8).

Her publications, including six original books, several others which she edited as well as over 100 articles, are the outcome of over 50 years of hard work as an academic, known for her exceptional meticulousness and erudition. Her research output also includes many unpublished works (studies, analyses, methodology papers), written for different research institutions and the state administration.

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Initially, Prof. Warszyńska conducted research in the field of transport and service geography. She discussed these issues in a series of analytical regional studies, including her doctoral thesis, as well as in a number of works in which she attempted to build a spatial typology.

In the second half of the 1960's she became interested primarily in tourism geography. Her works in this field include methodological and theoretical studies, those dealing with quantitative methods in natural environment assessment for tourism purposes, as well as monographs of different areas in Poland, especially Kraków and the Carpathian Mountains. Jadwiga Warszyńska's theoretical-methodological studies deserve particular attention as they refer to tourism geography as a young geographical discipline and present some methodological ideas. The latter usually on the quantitative evaluation of the natural environment for tourism purposes. They also include her post-doctoral thesis in which she presented a method for using a mathematical model in the evaluation of the attractiveness of individual elements of the natural environment in a specific locality. A synthesis of her methodological and theoretical output is the book entitled *Podstawy geografii turystyki (The Rudiments of Tourism Geography)*, written jointly with Antoni Jackowski. Presented in the 1980's, her modified conception of tourism geography interested foreign academic centres who commissioned a report on this issue from the IGU Tourism Geography Commission (published in 'Geojournal'). A large part of Prof. Warszyńska's work includes comprehensive regional studies with a methodological study where she discussed the tourism function in the Polish Carpathians. Jadwiga Warszyńska was also the originator of many terms related to transport and tourism, included in dictionaries (WSP 1982, PWN 1983), and maps of some *województwos* (Krakowskie 1979, Bielskie 1981, Tarnowskie 1988) and the city of Kraków (1988).

A separate area of research activity was initiating and organizing research, as well as encouraging and supervising collective works, both in the form of monographs and student textbooks. We should mention here an extensive monographic study entitled *Województwo tarnowskie (Tarnów Voivodeship)* (Ossolineum, 1988), of which she was the editor and co-author, as well as a two-volume textbook, entitled *Geografia turystyczna świata (Global Tourism Geography)* (PWN 1994, 1995, 1997, 2000) – the first publication of this type covering such a wide range of issues in the world. Its writing was inspired by Prof. Warszyńska and she was its editor. She also supervised the writing of *Monografia turystyczna Karpat (Tourist Monograph of the Carpathian Mountains)*, the first part of which

concerned the Romanian Carpathians and was published in 1988. The first very large monograph on the Carpathian Mountains, entitled *Karpaty Polskie – przyroda, człowiek i jego działalność (Polish Carpathians – Nature, Man and His Activity)*, appeared in mid-1995. She also conceived the idea for this publication. It was undoubtedly the most important comprehensive study of the Carpathian Mountains published in the 20<sup>th</sup> century.

To complete the list of Prof. Warszyńska's achievements as an editor, we should mention *Atlas turystyki Polski (Atlas of Polish Tourism)* (a project abandoned due to financial reasons). She edited the periodical entitled *Zeszyty Naukowe UJ – Prace Geograficzne (seria Geografia Ekonomiczna)*. She took part in the editorial work of many publications, such as *Folia Geographica, Series Geographica-Oeconomica* (Geographical Sciences Committee of the Polish Academy of Science in Kraków), *Turyzm*<sup>1</sup> (University of Łódź) and *Problemy Turystyki* (Institute of Tourism at the Jagiellonian University).

Prof. Warszyńska was a pioneer of tourism geography in Poland. The significance of her works, often quoted by other authors, has been recognized in other countries as well. She was the founder of the Kraków school of tourism geography and the first teaching specialization in Poland. She began her teaching career, which spanned more than 50 years, as a school teacher and finished it as a university professor, treating it not so much as an obligation but as a privilege and calling. She educated generations of undergraduates (about 300 master's theses) and postgraduates who wrote their PhD's under her supervision and kind care.

For ten years (1974-84) she was the vice-director of the Institute of Geography at the Jagiellonian University, including seven years (1974-81) when she was responsible for teaching. In 1979-94 she was also the head of the Tourism Geography Department.

She was a member of the Geographical Sciences Committee at the Polish Academy of Science in Kraków, of the Institute of Tourism Academic Council, as well as the advisory team at this Institute. She was also a member of advisory teams at the *Województwo* Statistical Office in Kraków, the Kraków Development Office and the *Województwo* Office in Nowy Sącz. She did voluntary work at the Polish Geographical Society as the leader of the Tourism Geography Commission (1977-93).

Four ministerial prizes and multiple Rector's awards (Jagiellonian University) were conferred on her for her research. She was honoured with the Order of Polonia Restituta (1984) and the Gold Cross of Merit (1976), while she received the Golden Badge for her merits at the Polish Geographical Association (1985).



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Prof. Warszyńska was hard-working, extremely active, full of initiative, a good organizer who easily made academic contacts, and the author and animator of many research projects and collective undertakings. She was a commonly respected moral authority in academic circles.

We have lost an outstanding researcher and academic teacher, a wise, kind and noble person who was at the same time modest, friendly to others while demanding a lot from herself. We respected her, looked up to her and loved her. She will always be remembered by those who knew her.

## FOOTNOTE

<sup>1</sup> Professor Jadwiga Warszyńska was an active member of the *Turyzm* Editorial Board from 1994 to 2008, and a reviewer of many articles published in this periodical. In 1995 the *Turyzm* editors dedicated a special issue (vol. 5, issue 2) to Prof. Warszyńska in recognition of her great merits in the development of tourism geography. The issue included her biography and the bibliography of her research up to 1995 [ed.].

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