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Editorial address

Institute of Urban and Tourism Geography, University of Łódź, Poland
Kopcińskiego 31, 90-142 Łódź
tel. 48 42 635 63 05, fax 48 42 635 45 50
e-mail: kwom@geo.uni.lodz.pl

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INTRODUCTION

For several years, the editors of the '*Turyzm/Tourism*' academic journal have been publishing specially prepared issues on the occasion of International Geographical Union (IGU) world congresses and regional conferences.

The first such issue (issue 1, vol. 2/1992) was prepared for the 27th IGU Congress, held in August 1992 in Washington. It was published in English only and concerned the tourism assets of settlements in Poland. It contained 10 articles written by Polish tourism geographers on Kraków, Łódź, Toruń and Wrocław, as well as Krynica Zdrój, pilgrimage and rural tourism centres.

The issue of *Turyzm* (issue 1, vol. 18/2008) was published to coincide with the 31st IGU Congress which was held in August 2008 in Tunis. There were nine articles, six of which were research-focused, and the other three giving information on tourism geography in Poland. Their authors presented research directions in tourism geography in Poland, a new methodological approach, a review of urban tourism, research issues in tourism geography, thanatourism, and the development of tourism geography in Kraków. In the second the authors presented Polish research centres, academic journals on tourism, and regularly organized academic conferences.

On the occasion of the IGU Regional Conference to be held in August 2014 in Kraków, the editors have prepared two issues of '*Turyzm/Tourism*': issue 2, vol. 23/2013 and issue 1, vol. 24/2014.

The former contains seven articles written by academics at the Institute of Urban and Tourism Geography, University of Łódź. The publication was prepared in order to present the research interests of and the results of research conducted by academics at the Institute, the largest Polish tourism research centre. The articles concern cultural tourism at various places and in different forms (museums, medieval castles of the Teutonic Order, folk culture, architecture and the arts), Polish domestic tourism, new spaces and forms of tourism, as well as the use of holiday biographies in research on tourism space.

The latter issue of '*Turyzm/Tourism*' (issue 1, vol. 24/2014) is dedicated to tourism space as a paradigm for its geographical study. The authors of the ten articles included in this issue represent the major research centres in Poland and the publication as a whole shows the development of both theoretical foundations and empirical studies in Polish tourism space. Apart from these articles, the issue contains reviews of four habilitation theses published in the last two years.

Both the earlier issues of our journal and the latest two comprise a overview of tourism research in Poland in the past 20 years.

The Editors

ARTICLES

Tourism 2014, 24/1

Andrzej Kowalczyk

University of Warsaw

Department of Tourism Geography and Recreation

akowalc1@uw.edu.pl

THE PHENOMENOLOGY OF TOURISM SPACE

Abstract: Although it is among the most frequently used notions in the study of tourism, the concept of tourism space is understood in a variety of ways. Similar to the term 'geographical space', it is often used intuitively, often in quite dissimilar contexts. This paper provides an analysis of the concept of 'tourism space' from the perspective of geography, based on a phenomenological approach.

Key words: space, tourism, tourism space, phenomenology.

1. INTRODUCTION

Space is often regarded as one of the crucial attributes of geography that singles it out from other natural and social sciences. Even though according to some scholars "the notion of geographical space is as ambiguous as most 'geographic' concepts, and similar to those concepts it mythologises the notion of geography" (RYKIEL & PIRVELI 2005, 134), for clarity of argument a definition of space used by geographers should be proposed. Since several publications discussing opinions on this subject have been recently published in Poland (LI-SOWSKI 2003, KACZMAREK 2005), in this paper geographical space will be used in the sense attributed to it by WŁODARCZYK (2009, p. 19), to whom "geographical space is a measurable space comprising the natural components of the earth, i.e. the atmosphere, hydrosphere, biosphere and lithosphere, as well as its permanent development generated by human activity".

2. TOURISM SPACE AS A COMPONENT OF GEOGRAPHICAL SPACE

According to J. STACHOWSKI (1993), tourism space can be treated as a derivative of real geographical space, as abstract space or as mental space. Although in geographical research tourism space should above all be considered as one of the subspaces of real geographical space (KOWALCZYK 2011, p. 31), other possible ways of understanding geographical space, especially as space

subjectively perceived, the anthropological space of M. MERLEAU-PONTY (2001, pp. 312, 318), should also be taken into account in order to get a better grasp of the processes making up tourism space.

In Poland, the issue of how tourism space should be defined has been extensively examined by B. Włodarczyk. According to him, "tourism space is the part of geographical space where the phenomenon of tourism occurs. Tourism regardless of its volume or nature is the necessary and sufficient prerequisite for a part of geographical space to be classified as tourism space. An additional precondition for its delimitation is the presence of tourism development, the size and nature of which make it possible to identify the type of tourism space" (WŁODARCZYK 2007, p. 149, 2009, pp. 74-75). This definition can also be found in later publications by this author, although in his paper from 2011 he emphasised even more strongly that tourism was the key feature of tourism space, adding (between second and third sentences) that "it can be claimed that tourism is its only attribute" (WŁODARCZYK 2011, p. 17).

The theory of tourism space proposed by B. Włodarczyk prominently discusses the issue of its perception. Drawing on the views expressed by J. STACHOWSKI (1993) and S. LISZEWSKI (2005), he distinguishes four ways in which the term 'tourism space' can be understood: as real (actual) space; as perceived-mental (experienced) space; as virtual (unreal); and as spiritual (symbolic) space (WŁODARCZYK 2009, pp. 82-85; 2011, pp. 23-24). The way tourism space is understood

by B. Włodarczyk means that he is among those authors who see in it a close relationship between geographical space and anthropological space as defined by M. Merleau-Ponty.

An interesting opinion on the study of tourism space was expressed by L. Mazurkiewicz who, initially stating that such space “reflects the world of real tourism phenomena on a macro scale” (MAZURKIEWICZ 2011, p. 107), later proposed an approach combining the concept of tourism space with the theory of van R. DER DUIM (2007); he proposed a concept of tourism space combined with network theory, which allows the process of tourism space development in micro-scale terms to be described.

To conclude this part of the paper, it should be noted that the concept of ‘tourist-scapes’ partly ties in with the concept of tourism space which in recent years has been discussed by an increasing number of researchers (EDENSOR 2007, JANSEN-VERBEKE 2008, 2009, 2010, METRO-ROLAND 2011, MANSFELDT 2013, YARDE *no date*). According to R. VAN DER DUIM (2007, 967), “tourist-scapes consist of relations between people and things dispersed in time-space-specific patterns”. R. van der Duim assumes that tourist-scapes can comprise different spaces (one of the subchapters is entitled: ‘The spaces of tourist-scapes’), whose essential attributes include different scales, sizes and constituents (VAN DER DUIM 2007, pp. 968-969). An interesting view on the mutual relationships between city-scape and tourist-scape¹ was proposed by Metro-Roland, who wrote that tourists are also interested “in the spaces between the ‘important’ must sees, the banal objects of the everyday play a larger role in the creation of a sense of place than has been surmised in the tourism literature” (METRO-ROLAND 2011, 40). It should be noted that such an opinion largely coincides with the views expressed by A. STASIAK (2011) and M. DURYDIWKA & K. DUDA-GROMADA (2011) who described a tourism trend whereby facilities and events, which were earlier regarded as insufficiently interesting, begin to be regarded as tourism attractions (an approach which draws on the concept of augmented reality).

The above considerations invite the conclusion that the traditional treatment of tourism space, as a component of geographical space different to its other components, is now becoming problematic, as in some cases it is not possible to draw the line between what is ‘tourism’ and ‘non-tourism’.

3. TOURISM SPACE IN A PHENOMENOLOGICAL APPROACH

The above reflections suggest that the term ‘tourism space’ has so many meanings in geography that it can be regarded as a kind of metaphor.

In the writer’s opinion, differences in defining the notion of ‘tourism space’ are partly (or maybe predominantly) due to differences in understanding the phenomenon of tourism. Although K. PRZECLAWSKI (1994, p. 9) defines tourism as “...all spatial mobility phenomena associated with voluntary, and temporary, change of place of residence, rhythm and environment of individual life, and entering into a personal encounter with the visited environment (be it natural, cultural or social)”, other authors propose other definitions. This means that the term ‘tourism’ can also be regarded as a kind of metaphor, a view which is expressed for example by M. MACCANNELL (2002) and J. URRY (2007). The perception of tourism as a metaphor is reflected in the views of many authors, who try to describe tourism using the simple metaphors such as ‘3S’, ‘4S’, ‘3E’, ‘4E’, ‘4H’, ‘4L’, or ‘5A’. It should be observed that these metaphors typically use expressions describing those components of tourism space that are of key importance for a given group of tourists. The diversity of these attributes describing tourism space is the best answer to the question why there is no single, universal definition of tourism space.

Therefore, it should not be found surprising that such a different understanding of the notion of ‘tourism’ is reflected in the dissimilar perceptions of the term ‘tourism space’. For this reason, due to such dissimilar views about what tourism is or is not, and also due to dissimilar definitions of the term ‘tourism space’, it may be expedient to look at tourism space using a phenomenological approach, as this method seems to be particularly well suited to analysing concepts and phenomena that are ambiguous in themselves and whose understanding varies not only from author to author but also from one discipline to another.

It should be noted at this point that the phenomenological approach is increasingly frequently used for studying tourism-related issues, not only by those representing sociology or cultural anthropology (ANDRIOTIS 2009), but also by those specialising in the spatial aspects of tourism, such as tourism in one Sydney district (HAYLLAR & GRIFFIN 2005). We should also quote the view of M. Merleau-Ponty (an author often cited) that “probably the chief gain from phenomenology is to have united extreme subjectivism and extreme objectivism in its notion of the world or of rationality. Rationality is precisely proportioned to the experiences in which it is disclosed. To say that there exists rationality is to say that perspectives blend, perceptions confirm each other, a meaning emerges.” (MERLEAU-PONTY 2005, p. xxii).

These considerations also suggest that it is possible to have doubts whether there exists one tourism space which objectively exists and is unambiguously defined, if only in the discipline of geography. Such doubts

would be fully justified as many studies show that during travel people (who are not always tourists) perceive the surrounding landscape or the residents of a visited area in different ways. This means that for people in general (including researchers), the tourism space that they perceive has different attributes. It should be noted that these differences arise not only from travellers' individual features, but also from many cultural determinants (WANG 2006). This in turn means that, when dealing with the issue of tourism space, at least four different forms, or aspects, can be identified:

- 1) individual tourist space (**tourist's space**);
- 2) collective tourist space (**tourists' space**);
- 3) space where tourists are the main component other than tourism assets (KOWALCZYK 2011, p. 30)², which – as B. Włodarczyk writes in his works – is identified by the occurrence of tourism or in some cases tourism development (**tourism space sensu stricto**);
- 4) space whose attributes include not only tourism assets, tourists and tourism development (understood as facilities and services), but also all phenomena that occur as a consequence of tourism (**tourism space sensu largo**).

The first two categories of tourism space are embedded in the ideas and experiences concerning the world surrounding the tourist (or the potential tourist). Therefore, they are mostly sensations and assume an immaterial form. The remaining two categories of tourism space are objective in nature as they are 'materialised' and form an integral part of geographical space.

Before moving on to other considerations, preliminary assumptions should be presented. Firstly, the notion of 'tourism assets' is understood in the way J. WARSZYŃSKA & A. JACKOWSKI see it (1978, p. 28), that is as "...a set of the components of the natural environment and other than natural components which, together or separately, are objects of tourist interest". They are the components of the triad: tourism assets → tourism value → tourism attractiveness (KOWALCZYK 2013, p. 38).

Secondly, in the phenomenological approach concerning what the subject literature calls tourism experience, an observation that, in the vein of Heidegger, is closely intertwined with intentionality and defined by Husserl as "...being object-oriented" (ZAHAVI 2012, p. 21, footnote 10), is of particular importance. Observation and intentionality, as well as awareness and perception, play a key role in the development of ideas harboured by tourists and of tourist behaviours (KOWALCZYK 2012). This is highlighted by de Botton, in whose opinion "the pleasure we derive from journeys is perhaps dependent more on the mindset with which we travel than on the destination we travel to" (DE BOTTON 2003, 246). In

contrast, M. Merleau-Ponty expressed a view (after Lagneau) that "perception is an interpretation of the primitive intuition, an interpretation apparently immediate, but in reality gained from habit corrected by reasoning" (MERLEAU-PONTY 2005, 39, footnote 20).

Thirdly, further discussion is informed by the assumption of the existence of the sequence: tourist's space → tourists' space → tourism space (*sensu stricto*) → tourism space (*sensu largo*).

4. TOURIST'S SPACE

According to J. URRY (2007, p. 14), "there is no single, model tourism experience. The way of looking at the world depends on the society, social group and historic era". In another fragment from his major work, J. Urry (referring to the views expressed by Walter) mentioned the "...subjective quality of the tourism experience" (URRY 2007, p. 77). If we confront these two positions, we should conclude that the way people perceive space with a view to undertaking tourism depends both on the social context in which they happen to live and on their personal traits.

Tourists' behaviour results from the motives that inspired them while choosing a form and place of leisure, and the latter in turn are consequences of their conceptions or ideas and earlier experiences. Since this topic has been discussed by eminent sociologists and cultural anthropologists specialising in tourism (COHEN 1979, MACCANNELL 2002, URRY 2007), including Polish (WINIARSKI & ZDEBSKI 2008, WIECZORKIEWICZ 2012), there is no need to develop it further. It should be noted, however, that the issue of authenticity or its absence is among the key topics tackled by these authors. One of the researchers who believes that authenticity is the basic factor for a tourism experience to be satisfactory is D. MACCANNELL (2002, pp. 3, 143-159), although E. COHEN (1988, p. 375), for instance, has doubts since in his opinion the notion of 'authenticity' has many meanings and is difficult to define. This view is shared by A. Wieczorkiewicz who, referring to Cohen, pointed out that "when we speak about the authenticity of tourism or travel experience, we should take into account the motivations and expectations related to embarking upon a journey, in addition to broader social and biographical contexts" (WIECZORKIEWICZ 2012, p. 79). In the Polish geographical literature, the issue of authenticity is tackled in the works of B. LISOCKA-JAEGERMANN (2011) and S. KULCZYK (2013) among others.

Another topic discussed in works on tourist's ideas, experiences and behaviours is the issue of their instability or volatility in time and space. According to Wieczorkiewicz "...at different moments of one's

biography specific travel patterns tend to be chosen. What is more, the way they are experienced may change during a single journey" (WIECZORKIEWICZ 2012, p. 83). The second statement is important from a geographical perspective as it means that when they travel, quite obviously, tourists will encounter (or will form a part of) the various 'spaces' (which could be considered landscapes). However, another problem indicated by that author seems to be of special significance. In the part analysing in depth a description of a tour of California published in an American magazine, A. Wiczorkiewicz noted that "Californian space is (...) a picturesque landscape, an area of aesthetic sensations and existential awe" (WIECZORKIEWICZ 2012, p. 85). Let us look at this sentence more thoroughly as it proves that the notion of 'space' may simultaneously have a strictly material meaning, as a landscape seen with the sense of sight, and an immaterial one, since it leads to experiencing specific aesthetic sensations and spiritual feelings. Such a view on this issue is concordant with the opinion expressed by A. de Botton, who wrote that "among all the places we go to but don't look at properly, which leave us indifferent, a few occasionally stand out with an impact that overwhelms us and forces us to take heed. They possess a quality that might clumsily be called beauty. This may not involve prettiness or any of the obvious features that guidebooks associate with beauty spots. Recourse to the word might just be another way of saying that we like a place" (de BOTTON 2003, p. 217). Further, he observed that "...beauty is fugitive, it is frequently found in places to which we may never return or else it results from a rare conjunction of season, light and weather" (DE BOTTON 2003, p. 218). This second statement by A. de Botton is particularly important because it implies that the way a given place is perceived may vary even in the case of one and the same person, depending on the circumstances when the act of perception takes place.

As mentioned above, tourists' behaviours are largely results of their experiences and the ideas they are based on. When considering this issue and using the term 'tourism imagination', A. WIECZORKIEWICZ (2012, p. 169) defined it as "...a propensity for a certain manner of visualising areas situated beyond the spaces of treadmill existence, for associating those visions with specific sets of meanings, and then relating them to one's own biography – the one currently experienced, a past one or one that is being projected".

The following conclusion should most likely be drawn from the above: tourists, or potential tourists, manifest different shades of 'tourism imagination', which in turn can significantly impact the final decisions that they make before embarking on what is known as tourism behaviour. The term 'tourism imagination', which is close to the approach re-

presented by cultural anthropology or psychology, when replaced by a more 'geographical' term, i.e. **tourist's space, implies an objectively existing part, or component, of geographical space which, due to its assets, is (subjectively) perceived as attractive in terms of tourism**³. A question could be posed here: what makes some components of geographical space become tourism assets? In line with M. MERLEAU-PONTY'S view (2005, pp. 4-5), it can be stated that a given item becomes an asset only when it is distinguished (or 'discerned') from among its surroundings. Why does that happen? In the phenomenological approach, the perception of a part of geographical space as an asset is influenced not only by the attributes of geographical space (features of tourism assets) and the attributes of the perceiving entity (human being), but above all by the act of perception itself (which is confirmed for instance in the position expressed by A. de Botton). Therefore, those tourism resources that tourists will perceive as being distinguished in particular from other resources, and which can satisfy their emotional needs felt in a given situation, can be regarded as tourism assets (KOWALCZYK 2012, p. 29).

5. TOURISTS' SPACE

It can be inferred from the above reflections that since the space in which phenomena defined as 'tourism' occur are perceived differently by those experiencing it, no universal 'tourist's space' can exist; only 'tourists' spaces' are possible. However, do these two differ significantly from each other? Or perhaps these individually perceived 'images' (like the landscapes, mentioned above, the ideas based on them have so many features in common that one can put forward a hypothesis that, in some contexts, it is justified to use the notion of 'tourists' space' as a consequence of a collective 'tourism imagination'.

The notion of 'tourists' space' is closely related to the term 'tourism attractiveness', which should be understood as the properties of an area or place arising from the set of features of the natural and cultural (anthropogenic) environment that arouse interest and attract tourists (KOWALCZYK 2013, p. 38). It is tourism assets that determine the attractiveness of a given place or area. The question of how they arise and what impact they have on the decisions made by tourists is discussed extensively by J. Urry, D. MacCannell, A. Wiczorkiewicz, and also A. de Botton who wrote that: "...so far as we travel in search of beauty, works of art may in small ways start to influence where we would like to travel" (DE BOTTON 2003, p. 187). However, not only works of art influence tourists'

behaviour. This indeed was the case in the 18th or 19th c. in the time of the *Grand Tour*. Currently, marketing campaigns prepared both by commercial companies and public institutions (including state and local government institutions) play a much greater role.

A. Wiczorkiewicz, in reference to D. MacCannell, argues that “bringing tourism attractions to life is done on a supra-individual plane. Tourists enter the ready-made world of semiotic relationships, i.e. linkages between attractions and their markers. Furnished with adequate information, they are supposed to **recognise**⁴ the views” (WIECZORKIEWICZ 2012, p. 136). D. MacCannell illustrated this issue with two dissimilar formulas which record the relationships taking place between four components: ‘tourists’, ‘views’, ‘markers’ and ‘attractions’. In the first case, he proposed the formula “... [tourist / view / marker] attraction...” (MACCANNELL 2002, p. 64), which can suggest that a tourism attraction appears when the element of reality perceived by tourists (tourism asset) is additionally reflected in the relevant excerpt of the guidebook, in the form of an information poster, etc. In the second case, D. MacCannell proposed the formula: “... [marker / view / tourism] attraction...” (MACCANNELL 2002, p. 172), which can be understood to mean that a given element of reality becomes an attraction because it has earlier been named as such. de Botton discussed this issue quite extensively. When describing his trip to Barbados, he recalled that “Nothing was as I had imagined – surprising only if one considers what I had imagined. In the preceding weeks, the thought of the island had circled exclusively around three immobile mental images, assembled during the reading of a brochure and an airline timetable. The first was of a beach with a palm tree against the setting sun. The second was of a hotel bungalow with a view through French doors into a room decorated with wooden floors and white bed-linen. And the third was of an azure sky. If pressed, I would naturally have recognized that the island had to include other elements, but I had not needed them in order to build an impression of it” (DE BOTTON 2003, p. 12). In this fragment, not without reason did he mention ‘a brochure and an airline timetable’ which he had consulted before setting off for Barbados, since promotional materials (brochures, press, TV and radio ads, billboards at the roads, internet cookies, etc.), as well as guidebooks, books and films are the main sources of information for tourists (and potential tourists) about the places and areas worth visiting for their tourism attractiveness. According to de Botton, “Where guidebooks praised a site, they pressured a visitor to match their authoritative enthusiasm, where they were silent, pleasure or interest seemed unwarranted” (DE BOTTON 2003, pp. 113–114). Nonetheless, not always did the information provided in

brochures or guidebooks have a ‘restricting’ impact on tourists visiting new places. Recalling his trip to Provence, de Botton wrote that “though the landscape was not ugly, I could not – after a few moments of scrutiny – detect the charm so often ascribed to it” (DE BOTTON 2003, p. 186). However, when confronting his initial impressions with the description of the Provençal landscape in the guidebooks, he wrote “we overlook certain places because nothing has ever prompted us to conceive them as worthy of appreciation, or because some unfortunate but stray association has turned us against them. Our relationship to olive trees [which, as he wrote earlier... looked stunted, more like bushes than trees... A.K.] can be improved by being directed towards the silver in their leaves or the structure of their branches” (DE BOTTON 2003, pp. 186–187). This example demonstrates the positive impact of promotional materials, books, guidebooks, etc., on the way tourists ‘take in’ the place that they visit. However, in the literature of the subject, one can also encounter views that indicate that, in many cases, the attractions often pointed out by tourism agents are a result of the phenomenon described by P. ALBERS & W. JAMES (1988), which they summarise as the process of homogenisation, de-contextualisation and mystification. Although these two authors, and also A. WIECZORKIEWICZ (2012, pp. 181–183), relate it to how representatives of other cultures are shown in photographs (intended for tourists), we can speak of homogenisation, decontextualisation and mystification for example in the context of tourism development, particularly in reference to the architecture of hotel facilities which, in very many cases, and regardless of whether they are found in Egypt, Tunisia or Morocco (or in Thailand, Indonesia, Malaysia or Vietnam; Dominican Republic, Cuba, Jamaica or Guadalupe – further examples could be given), have been designed in nearly the same manner so as to comply with the model of tourism encapsulated in the ‘3S’ or ‘4S’ metaphors.

To sum up these reflections, it should be concluded that, in the Polish literature, a broader discussion of the presentation of space in promotional materials for tourists can be found in a study by A. WIECZORKIEWICZ (2012, pp. 244–252). Without going into much detail, let us just note that the author treats tourism advertisements as promoting a dream world that requires from would-be tourists “...a propensity for a certain mode of experiencing the world”. Here, the word certain is understood by A. Wiczorkiewicz to mean a drive towards ‘truthfulness’, ‘authenticity’, ‘originality’ and ‘naturalness’ (WIECZORKIEWICZ 2012, p. 252), since adjectives in this vein are frequently used in marketing campaigns, even though a given ‘tourism product’ (yet another term tirelessly over-used in tourism promotion), can be far from authentic, natural, etc.

It can be suggested by the above that what has been called 'tourists' space' is in many cases a result of the deliberate actions of companies offering tourism services, sometimes public institutions. Nevertheless – and luckily so (especially in the case of tourist behaviour known as mass tourism) – there are many exceptions to this rule, which means that tourism perceptions and the resultant tourism behaviour may be similar for different tourists, but on each occasion they result from personal experiences, and not only the socio-technical tricks employed by tourist agents, hotel systems or airlines. For this reason, without separating 'independent' tourism ideas and behaviours from 'non-independent' ones, it can be assumed that **tourists' space is an objectively existing part of geographical space, which – due to its assets – is (subjectively) perceived as attractive in terms of tourism.**

6. TOURISM SPACE (*SENSU STRICTO*)

The notion of 'tourism space' is not a new term in Polish literature on the subject. B. Włodarczyk is one of the authors who discussed the mutual relationships between the terms 'tourism space' (*sensu stricto*) and 'tourism space' (*sensu largo*); he defined tourism space (*sensu stricto*) on the basis of its functions and the prevalent nature of tourism (WŁODARCZYK 2011, p. 19). In the same work (Fig. 2 on the same page), he wrote that tourism space is defined on the basis of the features of the area where the phenomenon of tourism can be found. It can be said therefore, that in B. Włodarczyk's opinion, tourist space is associated with the motives that tourists are inspired by when undertaking a given activity, whilst tourism space refers to the geographical features of the area visited by tourists. Finally, it should be mentioned that B. Włodarczyk (drawing on S. Liszewski's views expressed in his publication from 1995) also commented on the term 'tourism activity space' which to him means *the way space is appropriated, managed and used*, and which is a process comprising five stages (exploration, penetration, assimilation, colonisation and urbanisation) (WŁODARCZYK 2011, p. 19).

The author of this paper agrees in principle with the view espoused by B. Włodarczyk regarding the essence of tourism space and is of the opinion that, in identifying such space, the motives of tourists visiting a given place (or area) should primarily be taken into account. For this reason, the definition proposed here is that **tourism space (*sensu stricto*) is the objectively existing part of geographical space which, due to its assets, is (subjectively) perceived by tourists as attractive and is used by them for tourism purposes.**

7. TOURISM SPACE (*SENSU LARGO*)

In view of what has been written above, it is necessary to define tourism space (*sensu largo*) in a way that allows it to be distinguished from tourist's space, tourists' space and tourism space (*sensu stricto*). As mentioned above, unlike tourism space (*sensu stricto*), whose main components other than tourism assets include tourists and tourism development, the attributes of tourism space (*sensu largo*) are not only its assets, development and tourists, but all phenomena that occur as a consequence of tourism, be they positive or negative, that can be observed in the natural environment and those related to the changes in the socio-economic context and in the sphere of culture, both temporary and more permanent in nature. This means that **tourism space (*sensu largo*) is an objectively existing part of geographical space and simultaneously a part of social space (as broadly understood comprising cultural, economic and political subspaces) which, due to its assets, is (subjectively) perceived by tourists and potential tourists as attractive and is used for tourism purposes, leading to changes in the natural and socio-economic (human) environments.**

8. CONCLUSIONS

The above reflections indicate that the notion of 'tourism space' (*sensu largo*) can be understood in a variety of ways, and most such definitions assume that tourism space is the result of the 'overlapping' of geographical space (in its most accepted definition) and anthropological space in the meaning used by Merleau-Ponty. This means that tourism space is at one and the same time an objective and a subjective category. Since this can give rise to certain doubts (as even Kant attempted to separate space as a form of external 'experience' from what was contained within internal experience), this paper set out to identify four aspects of tourism space as traditionally understood, namely: tourist's space, tourists' space, tourism space (*sensu stricto*) and tourism space (*sensu largo*).

FOOTNOTES

¹ In the Polish subject literature, the term 'tourist-scape' is also used by S. KULCZYK (2013), who however defines it differently than is the case in works inspired by cultural anthropology.

³ This definition differs from the one formulated by B. WŁODARCZYK (2011, 23), who by 'human tourism space' means

"...individual tourism space, a sum of the places/areas visited by a given tourist (or group of tourists)".

⁴ Put in bold after A. WIECZORKIEWICZ (2012).

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Marek Więckowski

Institute of Geography and Spatial Organization
Polish Academy of Sciences
marekw@twarda.pan.pl

TOURISM SPACE: AN ATTEMPT AT A FRESH LOOK

Abstract: In this article, the author is trying to answer the fundamental question: what is present-day tourism space like at a time of highly increasing flows of people or even a shift from the space of a 'place' to the space of a 'flow'? The article puts special stress on how to define the current unique multi-functional space. The author attempts to define tourism space as a new entity, founded on poly-functionality (i.e. different functions and use of the same space both at the same time and in different seasons), multi-scale (overlapping of tourism spaces depending on the scale concerned), multi-layer, as well as the multi-motivation of its creators and users, or even multi-relativity.

Keywords: tourism space, tourism, poly-functionality, multiple motivation, multi-relativity.

1. INTRODUCTION

The theoretical, conceptual and empirical aspects of tourism space have an important and well-deserved place in Polish geography. Present-day changes in tourism space require, on the one hand, the current definition to be checked, and on the other, new research methods to be applied. Adopting the concept of the social production of space as the point of departure (LEFEBVRE 1974), the author attempts to arrive at the essence of tourism space, a space differing from other types of space (especially in social and economic terms) – because, as is stressed by HARVEY (1973) – each form of activity defines its own space (HARVEY 1973). Based on previous works by Polish authors, in particular S. LISZEWSKI 1995, 1998 2005, B. WŁODARCZYK 2007, 2009, 2012, and A. KOWALCZYK 2011, the author tries to answer the fundamental questions: are the definitions of tourism space proposed by Polish authors still relevant in the light of the changing conditions underlying the development of the modern world?; are they needed?; and what is present-day tourism space like at a time of huge increases in flow or even a shift from a space of a 'place' to a space of a 'flow' (CASTELLS 1996), taking into consideration that tourism space changes and is shaped by multiple bodies? The creators and administrators of space also change, as do tourists (they are mobile), whereas 'territory' remains in the same place (it is immobile).

2. BASIS OF DISCUSSION

Discussion of tourism space has continued for many years in the Polish literature. The first definition, proposed by J. WARSZYŃSKA & A. JACKOWSKI (1978), seems to be comprehensive enough not to have lost its relevance, on condition that one of the terms, 'tourism phenomena', is defined. Of course the key question is: can we define tourism phenomena today in the same way as we did over 30 years ago?

In the geography of recreation and tourism, tourism space can be considered a 'mega-concept' (LISZEWSKI 1995). This component is also stressed by B. WŁODARCZYK (2009), who further specifies that in geography tourism space is the ultimate concept of the study of tourism and tourism phenomena. In this context, we should be able to define it and try to formulate concepts and theories taking account of current change.

3. TOURISM SPACE – DISCUSSION

Tourism has an important impact on the development of space and tourism space can be identified wherever it occurs. Each form of activity defines its own space (HARVEY 1973), as a result of which an infinite number of spaces and definitions may be established. Referring to the concept of the social production of space (LEFEBVRE 1974), it can be concluded that it is humans who create space and its elements. Consequently, social space may be defined as a set of elements taken

from many other spaces: topographic, biological, economic, demographic, cultural and racial (CHOMBART DE LAUWE 1952), but at the same time, social space consists of a set of emotions and the imaginary ideas of individuals about the spatial symbolism that surrounds them and the relations it evokes (HARVEY 1973). Tourism space is above all part of the geographical and socioeconomic spaces where tourism phenomena occur (WARSZYŃSKA & JACKOWSKI 1979, p. 31). The authors of the definition do not explain what 'tourism phenomena' actually are, and the understanding of the notion has become increasingly intuitive (thus differing from author to author). Tourism space is a subspace of general geographical space, i.e. made up of natural and social components (LISZEWSKI & BACHVAROV 1998). Tourism space is an overarching notion, covering all manifestations of tourism occurring within a given area (LISZEWSKI & BACHVAROV 1998). According to B. WŁODARCZYK (2007, 2009), tourism space is the part of geographical space where tourism activity occurs. Clearly, and quite rightly from the perspective of research, the definition creates a need to delineate the area where tourism occurs and to define it¹. Tourism space may be determined on the basis of tourism characteristics and may be understood as the area where tourism products and services are created, distributed and consumed. Depending on its use, it may be divided into destination (receptive) space, transit space, seasonal space, annual space, and specialised or multi-functional space (CAZELAIS *et al.* 2000). A broader definition of tourism space is proposed by B. MEYER (2008), who concludes that it is "identified using the criterion of function, which means that each area where tourism functions develop or other manifestations of tourism exist, is tourism space" (MEYER 2008, p. 42). As B. WŁODARCZYK (2007, 2009) concludes, the presence of tourists (tourism activity) is the necessary condition, while the presence of tourism facilities is an additional condition, the size and nature of which allows tourism space to be defined and delimited (WŁODARCZYK 2007, 2009).

It is debatable whether tourism phenomena should be taken into account and whether any phenomenon should be considered predominant, as tourism space is a place used by tourists, and tourism space can be identified wherever tourists appear. In these terms, on the one hand, tourism space is strictly connected with tourism activity, and this being given, its main characteristic is seasonality and spatial non-continuity. In almost any case, it is subject not only to multi-annual and annual cycles, but also weekly and daily, and seasonality as well. Tourism space is non-continuous because it is related to phenomena creating strong and extensive systems of interconnections, functioning in places distant from one another and characterised by seasonality and a cyclical nature.

According to Z. KUREK (2008) the characteristics of tourism space are lack of stability (resulting from change and cyclical development), high diversity and non-continuity (a set of functionally-linked, dispersed elements) (KUREK 2008). On the other hand, tourism activity is manifested or encouraged by tourism facilities. In such a case, tourism space may be defined as an area with tourism facilities (as a consequence tourism activity does not need to be taken into account). Tourism space is also the area of interaction between the individual 'tourism' elements created by tourism facilities and tourists. When such differentiation is adopted, tourism space has mainly a functional importance.

What is also important in defining tourism space is its separation from non-tourism space. According to B. WŁODARCZYK (2007), non-tourism space may be defined as that which tourists take no interest due to its inaccessibility. However, tourism activity itself does not seem to be a sufficient condition for tourism space to be delimited. Currently, even when occurring sporadically, tourism activity is present, with varying intensity, nearly everywhere. It would be difficult to find a tourism *anecumene*, understood as a place or area which has not been reached by anybody (tourists). Therefore it is crucial to determine whether a given activity is related to tourism or has some other nature and what its seasonality is, etc. This also provokes the question whether an area can be considered as tourism space at times when there are no tourists there (e.g. off season)?

Tourism means travel away from one's home environment (HUI 2008). As J. Urry adds, tourism means going away from your place of residence or "away from everyday life", to places geographically and ontologically distant from one's work or home which differ from places linked to everyday routine (URRY 2002). Consequently, tourism space will be understood as space located beyond one's daily rhythm.

Tourism space is also delimited on the basis of the functionality criterion which means that each area where the tourism function develops, or where there are other signs of tourism, may be considered a tourism space. In order to facilitate research, it can be assumed that tourism space is an element of reference. Tourism space is traditionally understood as a part of the surface of the Earth where tourism phenomena, activity and facilities occur and where tourists are served. Investigating tourism space involves analysing its appearance, functioning and change. What is relevant from the geographical point of view is the study of tourism within the physical space of the Earth, where the phenomena occur, and why there. Tourism space should be seen from four perspectives: a) physical (spatial) attributes, b) the user, c) functionality and d) perception.

a) Physical (Cartesian) space. After analysing a range of definitions of space, one can distinguish several important aspects which characterise (social and economic) space and which are important elements used to determine, describe and research it. These in particular include the location of features, and the distances and interrelations between features (spatial structure, networks, and hierarchies). By analogy, these characteristics can define tourism space.

b) User space requires the determination of who is a tourist and at what time and place. From the perspective of the user, tourism space is a space of consumption (of a view, experience, products or services), whereas from the perspective of a service it is a space of production. As such, tourism space is a system of features, services and events used by tourists and prepared for them.

c) Functional space, refers to tourism space considered from the perspective of 'territory': where, when and why does it fulfill tourism functions? It represents an area that fulfils tourism functions, and which is currently hard to clearly identify. With the growing diversity of the present world, it is easier to identify elements than to clearly identify a phenomenon or concept (this is discussed in more detail in the section devoted to 'multi-functionality').

d) Perceptual space, strongly related to marketing, the image created (symbols, branding, etc.) and described in specific terms (e.g. in guidebooks). To a growing extent, space is represented by symbols and ideas (more and more frequently differing from reality in the destination – but becoming stronger and more common).

4. CONDITIONS CHANGING TOURISM AND TOURISM SPACE

Tourism has a clear spatial dimension. Like many sectors of the economy, it tends to pick the best locations, concentrate strongly, and is very diverse in its methods of functioning. As in any sector, tourism uses elements (e.g. the natural environment, investment, historical heritage), contributes to the transformation of existing elements and the creation of new ones. Tourism is shaped by a number of aspects, including tourists' decisions regarding their place of destination, duration of stay and voluntary choices. The above elements keep changing. After an era of passive mass tourism, tourists increasingly cater for their individual needs, motivations and specific preferences for spending leisure time. The following changes lead to a divergence in popularity between individual locations (URRY 1990). Areas with poor

potential and no innovation lose customers, while those that develop dynamically and keep up with trends, attract them. Currently, as a result of social and economic changes, an active and individualised model of tourism tends to prevail in post-industrial societies (URRY 2002). As H. HUGHES (2003) observes, while the model of the industrial era was characterised by change, commercialisation and commodification, post-industrial tourism is oriented towards meaning, novelty and identity. The 4A attractiveness model also tends to prevail, (attractions, amenities, accommodation, access). Another important change is the declining role of the 3S model of tourism (sun, sea, and sand) and its replacement by the 3E model (entertainment, excitement, education). The changes are not sudden and do not occur to the same extent in all countries or in the entire society within a country. However, they have consequences for areas receiving tourists. What mattered most in traditional tourism were natural and cultural factors (as well as tourism infrastructure), currently, elements that are not representative of traditional tourism are gaining in importance. In simple terms, they can be defined by the non-material aspects of the product: attending an event, participating in community life, delighting in the atmosphere of a place (KOZAK 2009, p. 109). To an increasing extent, modern tourism inclines towards experiencing (something). More and more often it involves visiting places that are of low attractiveness from the perspective of traditional tourism. The tourist's commitment is gaining in significance, too. Modern life also has an impact on tourism, which is becoming increasingly inauthentic and superficial (MACCANNELL 1976, 2002). The demand, which grows from year to year, the ever greater variety of forms of leisure and the changing cross-section of tourists mean that tourism facilities undergo continuous transformations both in structural and in spatial terms. The related changes affect both tourism space understood in the traditional way, and the way it is perceived – and to some extent – defined.

To a certain degree tourism is a reflection of society. Changes in society cause changes in tourism and choices of destination. The prevailing motivation nowadays is people's desire to experience, participate or simply be somewhere away from home and day-to-day responsibilities. Commitment and education are also gaining in importance. Present-day tourists are becoming consumers: they buy souvenirs, experience things and go shopping. Visits to acquaintances, friends and family, which often take place outside traditional tourism space, are also gaining in significance. Sometimes, tourists do not visit any particular attraction and instead spend their time exclusively with their family and friends, often away from their own place of residence.

Transformations of tourism are influenced by a range of factors of which the following are pre-eminent: demographic and social factors (numbers of people, their age, leisure time available, life cycle position, style and fashion), increasing income, improvement in transport and communications, as well as political transformations (e.g. change in the function of borders, openness, integration) (WILLIAMS & HALL 2002). The following are considered to be the main drivers transforming tourism: globalisation, fast diffusion of innovation (technologies), and change to traditional tourism (distribution and functioning) (CACCOMO & SOLONANDRASANA 2001). The characteristics of the economy are also significant for the functioning of tourism. The following can be considered as crucial: global character of the economy, acceleration (shortening of product life cycle), increasing importance of the knowledge-based economy (growing significance of innovation, experience, emotion), and enhanced importance of network connections. Furthermore, increasingly mobile societies are growing in significance. As a consequence, tourism space is becoming both an ordinary place for recreation, but also part of the creative and cultural sector.

To sum up, the current changes which have an impact on the transformation of tourism space, its functioning, perception and definition include increasing mobility, new technologies, the individualism of users, the relativity of spatial relations, and the preferences (of tourists, other users and creators), increasing diversification (of regions, combined with growing competition between them), as well as the enhanced importance of marketing (including branding, symbolism, advertising – which foster perceptual tourism space).

5. THE DIVERSITY OF TOURISM SPACE

Tourism space is an entity that is ever more difficult to define, being poly-functional (different functions and uses of the same space at the same time and in different seasons), having multiple scales (the overlapping of tourism spaces depending on the scale under examination), being multi-layered and characterised by the multiple motivations of its creators and users, and even by multi-relativity.

A. Poly-functional space

Poly-functionality (multi-functionality) refers to the diversity of functions, as well as uses, of the same area both at the same time and in different seasons. At present, tourism is characterised by an unprecedented variety of forms and functions, although the same applies to the functions considered in economic terms. Tourism space is part of a wider (e.g. geographical)

space, but it is not fully isolated and delimited. It is interrelated hierarchically, functionally and in time. Tourism space does not exist without tourists, and consequently not without economic and social space. Economic space is made up of spatial-functional systems. Furthermore, different functional spaces (e.g. industrial space, agricultural space, etc.) clearly overlap. In the modern world, the variety of ways in which societies and the economy function may (and do) cause space to be used by many areas of socio-economic activity. In the current conditions of socio-economic development a tourism function is present in most places, having different intensity, importance and impact on socio-economic life. In the simplest terms, the impact of tourism and leisure on the economy may be subdivided into basic, supplementary or marginal. According to many authors, tourism space nowadays is relatively more frequently present within other human activities (LISZEWSKI 2005, WŁODARCZYK 2007, MEYER 2008). Undoubtedly, this happens within areas of high economic stability, for instance in metropolitan areas, as well as in areas undergoing functional transformation where tourism is considered to have the potential to replace existing (or previous) forms of economic activity that lie at the root of recession (e.g. post-agricultural, post-industrial, post-fisheries areas). In many instances, peripheral or border areas are examples of places where tourism space may currently develop as a fully natural space, as long as the function of nature conservation is not considered. It may also evolve as a re-naturalised space after the disappearance of any functions previously existing and before access to the area was restricted for political reasons, the redrawing of national borders, etc. (WIĘCKOWSKI 2010a).

Tourists are attracted to places that are fully natural ('primeval'), have a history of past human use (usually for a different function), are transformed historic sites or, finally, are constructed from scratch (e.g. amusement parks). Similarly, tourism businesses may spring up in different places. Using space, tourism may:

- explore undeveloped areas and become the primary function compared to other forms of human activity,
- co-use a space that has other functions (e.g. churches, city centres),
- push out (usually with the intention to dominate) previous functions (e.g. industrial, housing or agricultural functions, etc.) as a result of segregation processes,
- replace other functions after the latter's retreat (e.g. industrial plants, state border security facilities), and in specific conditions, use places that had a tourism function and lost it, but where the tourism function can be reintroduced (WIĘCKOWSKI 2010b).

B. Multi-layered (multi-level) space

Tourism space also occurs on many levels – in a vertical system – which renders the identification, analysis and mapping of the space difficult. In a sense, this differentiation is part of the multi-functionality, does not apply to the same degree, but rather to a place on different underground and above-ground levels. Generally, our world is functioning on multiple levels: over the Earth, on its surface and underneath (this applies to nearly all ‘spheres’, e.g. atmosphere, lithosphere and hydrosphere). Thus, multi-level facilities are formed which increasingly cater for different functions at different levels (e.g. housing, hotel, catering, shopping). Tourism and recreational functions (e.g. restaurants, swimming pools, wellness centres) are delivered both by underground levels and ‘aboveground’ levels (e.g. hotel and housing facilities), with some even using the roof surface (e.g. swimming pools, restaurants with a view). Examples of underground facilities include mines made fit for visiting, as well as modern museums which are interconnected with aboveground facilities performing other functions. Transport routes may have many layers, too.

C. Multi-scale space

Tourism space also depends on the scale under investigation, ranging from an individual (person) to the global. Actual imaginary tourism space is becoming diversified, depending on the scale on which it is examined. Tourism spaces overlap depending on the scale concerned, with the overlap not only applying to different areas, facilities, infrastructure or services, but also to the scales themselves. Scales may overlap so strongly that separating them may prove a challenge. On the scale of Poland, the Tatras represent a tourism space. However, on a local (micro) scale some areas may not be tourism space because there are no tourists or tourism facilities there (WIĘCKOWSKI 2010b). In particular, perceptual space depends on scale since, being a concept, its functioning depends on the area concerned and is strongly dependent on the knowledge of the individual. The same Tatras may be considered tourism space only as a given place – a symbol, e.g. Mt. Kasprowy Wierch (which will stand in for the mountains as a whole), either the Polish part or the area on both sides of the border.

Scale, as it is investigated, also determines the possibility of defining the function fulfilled by a given area – as a solely tourism area or one with a dominance or minority share of tourism operations. When different scales of tourism space are taken into account this involves seasonality, a factor which does not apply with the same strength to all places. It is also related to the temporary closure of certain areas, e.g. legally protected natural areas in border zones (WIĘCKOWSKI 2013).

D. Poly-motivational space

Tourism space is multi-motivational, since it consists of individualised spaces and their ‘personalisations’. Differentiation needs to be made between the poly-motivation of space creators and that of the users who perceive space in different ways. To understand the essence of tourism space, the tourists’ perspective must be adopted, because it is tourists who use it and determine its shape (expansion, transformation). Naturally, creators change tourism space and they do it by using their own ideas and visions, and knowledge of the needs of the tourists targeted.

There are two types of motivators when it comes to travel: push factors and pull factors, mentioned in the Polish literature by L. MAZURKIEWICZ (2007) and others. The push factors refer to people’s own needs, whereas pull factors are related to external forces and refer to attributes associated with the destinations (GITELSON & KERSTETTER 1990, YUAN & McDONALD 1990). Regardless of the tourist’s motivation, the goal of tourism is “the use of tourism ‘goods’ located in areas distant from the place of residence” (MEYER 2008). This allows trips or elements of them (even poly-motivational ones) to be identified as tourism trips when such ‘goods’ are used. Literature proposes many typologies of motivation (*cf.* PRZEĆLAWSKI 1979), the main ones include those of education and culture, relaxation and pleasure, ethnic heritage and others (SMITH 2001, p. 57). Changes of tourism motives are significant, and elements that mattered decades ago are losing importance today, with new ones appearing. The theory of consumer behaviour, which deals with motivations representing individual drivers of action (SCHIFFMAN & KANUK 1978), contributes to the understanding that tourist motivations are determined by individual decisions and choices of destination (MOUTINHO 1987, SIRAKAYA, MCLELLAN & UYSAL 1996, KIM & LEE 2002), which in turn shape tourism space.

Leisure and cognition needs are at the root of tourism. This leads to space appropriation and development in order to satisfy them, a starting point for the formation of tourism space (MEYER 2008). Tourism space is an effect of the satisfaction of people’s needs and motivations, as well as the opportunities a specific area gives to them. Thus the functions of tourism space depend not only on the space itself, i.e. the qualities and the offer proposed, but also on the people (tourists) who use (or do not use) it. Depending on their nationality, social group, sex and age, etc, tourists have various needs and opportunities to use different places (URRY 1990). Furthermore, fashion, tastes, needs, and potential, all change. As a consequence everybody understands tourism space differently. Since tourism is a reflection of society, i.e. the people who use it, it may play the same role for tourism space.

E. Multi-relativity.

The typology of tourism spaces also gets complicated as a result of their relative nature. The following types of tourism space may and should be additionally differentiated: real, functional (expression of activity) and perceptual (virtual representation). The way a tourist imagines the tourism destination is gaining in importance when it comes to choices. Destinations have a capacity for evoking emotions and feelings. They facilitate learning processes and have a post-modern nature. All these properties may be created.

As tourists search for ever-newer experience, non-material values are gaining an ever greater importance as they reflect the individual's willingness to spend their leisure time in active pursuits regardless of the place (or at least the place is of secondary importance). Classic or traditional attractions (genuine historic heritage, works of art or natural features) tend to disappear, being replaced by substitutes. This is because the originals are subject to ever stricter protection (*cf.* COHEN 1995, MACCANELL 1976). Genuine attractions are being closed (e.g. national park centres, the Lascaux cave, precious relics in churches, mosques) and are replaced by substitutes which become part of the tourism space themselves.

In shaping tourism space, perception is of crucial importance, with people and their preferences coming to the fore. Space, or rather the way it is imagined, develops in accordance with tourism space perception theory, founded on the assumption that tourism activity is generated by city residents, and thus tourism behaviour depends predominantly on the way they perceive extra-urban surroundings. Currently, the development of tourism space is coming under growing pressure from tourists (their arrival, fashion and expectations, as well as choices of other destinations and the resultant loss of customers in a given place). The shaping of space is influenced both by individual human actions (i.e. an individual's personality system), society (the social system) and culture (the cultural system), both in areas of emission and reception. This also happens because of the growing importance of the perception of destinations by tourists. The perception of places by tourists is largely determined by expert opinions (URRY 2002), as a result, people perceive places in a subjective way and value them according to their own liking, needs and knowledge.

In addition to experts, the media and advertising, guidebooks also shape expectations and the image of tourism space, describing, praising or negating the attractiveness of places in a selective way. Guidebooks create knowledge and imaginary ideas about tourism space. If some areas are not covered by guidebooks, this limits knowledge of these areas and marginalises

them, as a result of which they often cease to function as tourism space.

Advertising and brands are among the most important factors in the development of space, including tourism space. There is de-differentiation of public information and private advertising, education and entertainment (hence 'learning by entertainment') and, most importantly, textual information and visual imaging. Perhaps virtual space exists in people's minds, with various perceptual interrelations, but it is also made up of ideas created by photos, films, advertisements, descriptions, etc. We live at a time of simultaneity, in an epoch of rankings, close and distant things next to one another, dispersed (FOUCAULT 2005, p. 117). In consequence, the actual elements and imaginary ideas of tourism spaces tend to intermix, causing the understanding of tourism space to become even more blurred.

6. SUMMARY AND FURTHER RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Tourism develops in places where there are attractions and where tourists may come or may want to come. Areas in which tourism activity occurs and tourism facilities are developed, have tourism functions. The functioning of tourism space depends on its qualities and on the offer prepared, but also on the tourists themselves who use the space – they have their own needs and potential for spending their leisure time. Thus tourists themselves decide about the development of tourism space by bringing the fashion trends and customs prevailing in emission areas into reception areas. This is because the choice of places where tourists go and the proximity of emission markets matter, as they determine the intensity of tourism activity required for areas delivering tourism functions. Social transformations change tourism space and there are still many questions to which answers are becoming ever more difficult. How can one define the uniquely multi-functional space of today? Can actual, functional and perceptual spaces still be delineated – especially when interfering relativity of assessment impedes precise definition? Finally, is the presence of the tourist as the main user of tourism space a sufficient element to distinguish such space from other types (i.e. non-tourism spaces)? If the tourist is of crucial importance, how should his/her presence within tourism space be defined? Clearly, a tourist's stay is temporary or even seasonal when considered in collective terms. What kind of tourism presence will allow us to delimit an area as a tourism space: permanent or seasonal?

Further changes in the way the world functions will create new needs for defining tourism space. J. URRY (2000) has already distinguished four types of travel: corporeal travel, physical movement of objects, imaginative travel and virtual travel. As long as we define tourism merely as corporeal, understanding of tourism space will be more specific in nature. When the other three types are added, then we can even speak of tourism cyberspace. As shown in this article, nowadays we deal with imaginary space that overlaps physical space, even to the point of erasing it. Tourism cyberspace will not only be a type of space in which – thanks to multi-tasking – staying in two or three places practically at the same time is something commonplace, but will also include virtual imagination and surfing via a ‘real’ internet network.

Undoubtedly, tourism space is something more than just a piece of the Earth’s surface that has a tourism function. It is a complex network of such elements as the presence of tourists, the infrastructure they use, the places they visit, the way such places are marked and the tourism service (service providers, owners, managers and creators), but also a network of imaginary ideas and experience.

Tourism space is increasingly mobile. It moves, is flexible, changeable, elusive and difficult to define. Tourism activity and tourism facilities, as well as tourism attractions and products, all represent traditional travel by a means of transport, e.g. rail, sea or even by coach. It is a moving ‘feature-place-space’ all at once. In the present day, tourism space can be identified in outer space.

Perhaps tourism space may be understood as a network or the space of a flow. What matters in such an understanding are the nodes of the network (e.g. tourism centres, specific and relatively located attractions), while the rest is just network and flows. There are no fixed interconnections, as they are variable, seasonal and created, served and used by various people (often once only). The elements discussed above will be of growing importance in tourism research.

FOOTNOTES

¹ What raises doubts is the question why locations within emission areas do not represent tourism space. After all tourism, tourism services and creation, etc., as well as the journey, occur there too. It is hard to define the place and moment when somebody becomes a tourist – for some the moment is when an individual leaves his or her own home (cf. HUI, 2008).

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Bogdan Włodarczyk
University of Łódź
Institute of Urban and Tourism Geography
bowlo@geo.uni.lodz.pl

SPACE IN TOURISM, TOURISM IN SPACE: ON THE NEED FOR DEFINITION, DELIMITATION AND CLASSIFICATION

Abstract: Tourism space has been considered by most researchers to be the central object of tourism geography studies. The author defines tourism space, indicating the features which distinguish it within geographical space, as well as those which describe its character. He also presents a discussion on the need (or necessity) to make internal divisions and classifications, as well as on selected criteria and ways of classifying tourism space.

Key words: geographical space, tourism space, non-tourism space, definition, delimitation, classification, tourism ecumene, tourism activity, tourism infrastructure.

1. INTRODUCTION

Geographical space, its components, processes and phenomena, as well as the people who inhabit it, are the central object of geographical research. Considering the statement that tourism space is a functionally distinctive part of general geographical space (LISZEWSKI 1995) to be a kind of axiom, we should assume *a priori* that it may be analysed and described in a similar way, treating the spheres presented in Fig. 1 and described in Table 1 as reference planes.

The discussion presented in the article is to demonstrate that tourism space, like geographical space, can be examined on all the cognitive planes mentioned above, and that defining and delimiting it precisely, as well as internally classifying will lead to a better understanding of the concept and of the activities observed in tourism space.

The cognitive planes of the research may be divided in yet another way (WŁODARCZYK 2011):

- 1) systemic plane – the most general (input and output elements are treated as information and tourism movements, elements of the system, relations among elements) (PREOBRAZENSKI, VEDENIN & ZORIN 1974, LEIPER 1979);
- 2) morphological plane – stressing the spatial structure and the relations resulting from the location of its constituents; this makes it possible to use research results for spatial modelling;

- 3) functional plane – identifying individual functions (cognitive, recreational, etc.), mainly by defining the character of tourism, and at the same time the character of the whole of tourism space;
- 4) metaphorical plane – largely referring to the intangible elements of space; it makes use of its symbolism, and refers to its perception through the books, paintings or films based on it (MC CANNEL 2002, URRY 2007);
- 5) landscape (literally – physiognomic) plane – it is a specific compilation of all the planes listed above, assuming that landscape is the result of the space forming elements, the relations among them and the symbols through which it is perceived (WŁODARCZYK 2009, 2011).

The complex structure of tourism space should be studied using two spheres which define its fundamental nature simultaneously. The first is a structural study (making use of the cognitive planes listed above), referring to tourism space constituents. We know of wide-ranging studies regarding tourism attractions and assets, tourism infrastructure and tourism itself, which make it possible to delimit it and define some of its features. However, only the study of the relations among the constituents makes it possible to fully define its character (the relational sphere).

Table 1. The cognitive spheres of geographical space, including tourism space

Sphere	Space in general terms – geographical space	Tourism space
Geosphere	Includes concentric layers of the Earth, of diversified chemical composition and state, e.g. lithosphere (Earth’s crust) hydrosphere (Earth’s waters), atmosphere (Earth’s volatile layer). A part of it is the biosphere , understood as space inhabited by living organisms, including humans	Natural tourism assets and attractions which are the basis for the development of many tourism activities
Anthroposphere	Technosphere The sphere of human interference with nature, involving the introduction of technical means into the natural environment (infrastructure, technologies). A part of it is the infosphere , i.e. the whole of registered, processed and stored information. The relations formed in this sphere among its elements are increasingly discussed (<i>Actor Network Theory ANT-non-human sociology</i>)	At base, it is formed due to tourism development and accessibility by transport. The elements of tourism infosphere are distribution and reservation systems, which may enter non-sociological relations with the elements of development or accessibility by transport (ANT)
	Sociosphere The sphere of interpersonal relations, human psychosocial environment. These relations may be variously characterised (e.g. economic, political, cultural, etc.)	Describes the relational approach to tourism space and landscape. Similar to space in general, these relations may be variously characterised, but in most cases they concern the relations of people with other components of tourism space
	Noosphere The sphere of thought, human mental activity, usually without formal limits.	Includes perceptual-mental and metaphorical approaches to tourism space (virtual space, spiritual space, etc.)

Source: author’s compilation based on various sources.

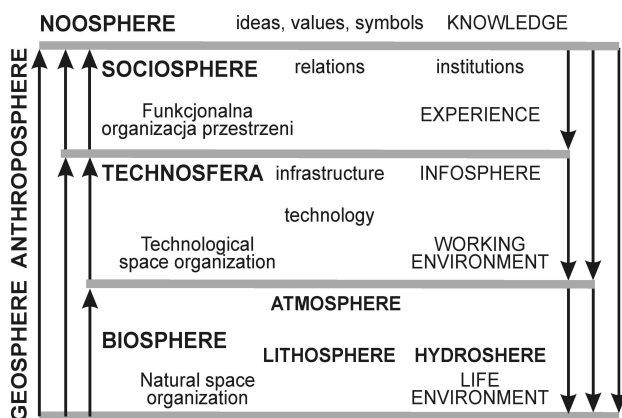


Fig. 1. Cognitive space planes in terms of interdisciplinary research
Key: arrows show correlations between spheres
Source: author’s compilation based on various sources

Regardless of which path is chosen in the analytical process, all divisions and classifications of tourism space should be preceded by defining the concept and delimiting its boundaries, i.e. defining its range (Fig. 2).

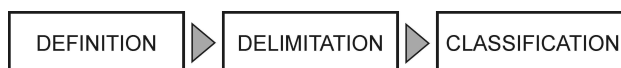


Fig. 2. Basic stages in tourism space analysis
Source: author’s compilation

It is important to maintain the suggested order, as only in this way it is possible to avoid certain casualness or intuitiveness of classification. Further in the article, the author will identify the stages and present examples of applications which result from adopting certain definitions, delimitations and classification criteria.

2. DEFINITIONS OF TOURISM SPACE

One of the major problems in most disciplines is the precise application of terms to facilitate identical or similar understanding of processes and phenomena. While this problem has been solved in the majority of sciences, the geographical literature contains multiple definitions to name and define the same concept or phenomenon. The problem is less acute in physical geography, and more in socio-economic geography, including tourism geography.

Despite the fact that the term ‘tourism space’ is widely used in the literature, as can be seen in the bibliography, its understanding is usually intuitive and few authors have attempted to formalize issues by constructing definitions. In this article, the author assumes, after *Słownik języka polskiego PWN* (2007), that a definition is a concise explanation of the meaning of a concept, specifying its content in order to

use it properly. It is an unambiguous description of a phenomenon or concept, presenting its characteristic features which identify and distinguish it from others

Such a description suggests that a definition should contain statements which will allow us not only to understand the concept, but also delimit it, which in the case of sciences dealing with space is extremely important.

Let us look more closely then at the definitions of tourism space most commonly quoted in the Polish literature, and answer the question: what is tourism space in the light of these definitions?

One of the earliest general definitions of tourism space was proposed by J. WARSZYŃSKA & A. JACKOWSKI (1978) in *Podstawy geografii turystyki*. They assumed that tourism space is:

a part of geographical and socio-economic space in which tourism phenomena occur.

Its modification from 1986 makes the concept slightly more precise, defining it as:

a part of geographical space (physical and socio-economic) in which tourism phenomena occur (WARSZYŃSKA 1986).

Regrettably, the authors did not define precisely what they understood by the quite general concept of 'tourism phenomena', leaving interpretation to the reader.

In 1995, in the *Turystyka* journal, S. Liszewski's definition was published:

Tourism space is a functionally distinctive subspace of geographical space, understood in a broad sense as space consisting of natural elements (natural environment), the permanent effects of human activity in this environment (cultural and economic environment), as well as human environment in the social sense (LISZEWSKI 1995).

This is the functional definition most commonly used in the Polish literature on the subject. Its universal character allows it to be widely used not only in geographical research, but also in economic, sociological and other disciplines. The necessary condition is that the permanent effects of human activity should at least partly result from tourism. However, the definition does not point to any clear-cut features (criteria), which would make it possible to delimit space defined in this way.

One of the latest definitions has been proposed by B. WŁODARCZYK (2009):

Tourism space is the part of geographical space where tourism is observed.

The objective attribute of this definition and delimitation is the statement that it is a part of geographical space, as generally understood, while the subjective attribute is the fact that the tourist,

a participant in tourism, must appear in this space. Not only does he/she make it possible its delimitation (the tourism space of an area), but also forms his/her own individual space of tourism activity by taking certain decisions and becomes the most important element (the subject) of this space.

3. TOURISM SPACE DELIMITATION

Further discussion is based on the idea that while we can imagine geographical space without humans, the delimitation of tourism space without people is impossible. Therefore, the only condition of delimitation is the tourist. However, such an approach does not answer the question asked at the beginning of Chapter 2 either, because in the light of the definitions presented, tourism space is secondary to such concepts as 'tourism' or 'tourist'. The delimitation of tourism space will depend on what definitions of these concepts will be adopted and who will be considered the tourist (LISZEWSKI 2013). According to *Słownik języka polskiego PWN* (2007), delimitation means defining and marking the boundaries of what is being delimited [and earlier defined – author's comment]. On the basis of a review of the literature, it can be said that, as well as the criteria and conditions of tourism space, the most frequent supplementations of delimitation assume that:

- the necessary condition sufficient to classify a part of geographical space as tourism space is tourism, regardless of its intensity or character (WŁODARCZYK 2009, 2011);
- the most important components of this space are tourism assets, which make it possible to undertake certain tourism activities (KOWALCZYK 2013);
- one of the features which make delimitation possible is the presence of tourism infrastructure, whose scale and character allow us to define the type of tourism space, as well as contribute to the development of certain tourism activities (WŁODARCZYK 2009, KOWALCZYK & DEREK 2010, KOWALCZYK 2011);
- the preferred (observed) forms of tourism or recreational activity (tourist behaviours) in this space make it possible to delimit and classify it (WŁODARCZYK 2009, STASIAK 2011);

All the assumptions presented above support the process of delimiting tourism space, which is sometimes very difficult to 'dissect' from general geographical space due to, for instance, the subjectivity of tourism valorization, seasonality of tourism, or lack of tourism infrastructure.

Table 2. Selected criteria for identifying tourism space in general geographical space

Delimitation based on	Categories of tourism subspace
The possibility of being used for tourism purposes	non-tourism space, potential tourism space, tourism space
The period of being used for tourism purposes	tourism ecumene , tourism sub-ecumene , tourism non-ecumene
Development stages	pre-tourism space, new tourism space , mature tourism space , old tourism space , post-tourism space
Free time management	recreation space, tourism space , space of activities which are unrelated to free time

Source: author’s compilation based on B. WŁODARCZYK (2009).

With leisure time behaviour as a criterion, geographical space may be divided into three basic subspaces, one of which is tourism space (Fig. 3). It seems justifiable then to call the sum of these partial spaces **leisure time space**, an important and easily identifiable part of general geographical space. We may assume then that leisure time space is the part of geographical space where all activities related to free time management (consumption) take place, with the exception of ‘home’ space, i.e. the place of permanent residence (an address).

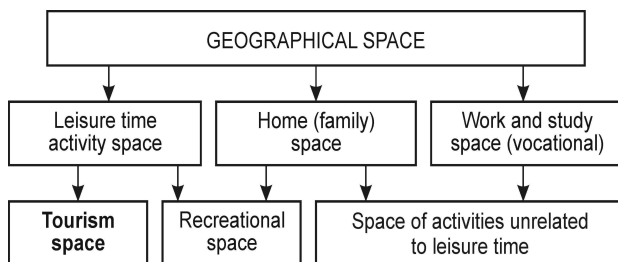


Fig. 3. Relation between geographical space, leisure time space and space unrelated to leisure time
Source: B. WŁODARCZYK (2009)

Assuming that tourism space is the part of geographical space used for tourism purposes, general geographical space may be divided according to the possibilities of undertaking various tourism activities (Fig. 4).

Following that assumption, individual elements of geographical space in the context of being used for tourism purposes can be described in the following way:

- **real tourism space** is the part of geographical space where tourism takes place (WARSZYŃSKA & JACKOWSKI 1978), tourism activity develops

(WŁODARCZYK 2009), and tourism infrastructure of varying intensity can be found (KOWALCZYK 2011);

- **potential tourism space** is the part of geographical space which meets the requirements of tourism attractiveness as broadly understood, but is not currently used for tourism activity purposes, e.g. due to the lack of tourism infrastructure or accessibility. However, it has the potential which may be revealed in certain conditions (geographical, political, economic, technological, etc.), or by doing suitable activities.
- **non-tourism space** is the part of geographical space which does not interest tourists (lack of tourism), due to complete tourism inaccessibility; they are usually areas which remain in the same state or maintain their functions, and for some formal and informal reasons cannot be areas of tourism activity (e.g. military practice fields and other military areas, premises of some industrial plants, contaminated land, landfills, etc.).

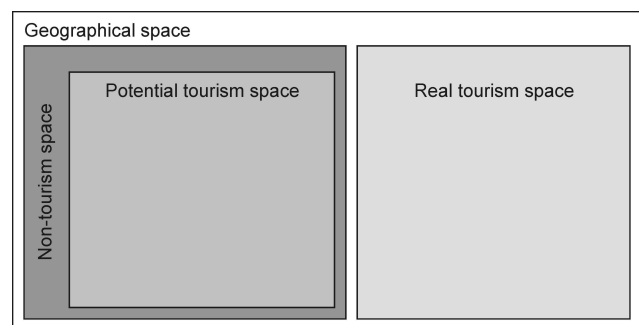


Fig. 4. Division of geographical space according to its possible use for tourism purposes

Source: author’s compilation based on B. Włodarczyk

While real tourism space is constantly expanding by occupying new areas for tourism purposes, mainly those showing suitable potential, non-tourism space is shrinking, because tourists are becoming interested in sites and areas which until recently had not been treated as even potentially suitable for tourism (TANAŚ 2013).

As in the case of geographical space, we may identify three basic types of space related to human tourism activity:

- **tourism ecumene** - the part of geographical (tourism) space which is used for tourism purposes throughout the year; its characteristic feature is the continuity of tourism ;
- **tourism sub-ecumene** - the part of geographical (tourism) space which, due to the nature of its assets or tourism infrastructure,

is used for tourism purposes seasonally or incidentally (tourism exploration); its characteristic features are seasonality, lack of continuity or occasional tourism;

- **tourism non-ecumene** – the part of geographical space which is not used for tourism purposes (non-tourism space); its characteristic feature is the lack of infrastructure and tourism.

One way of defining and delimiting tourism space is to point to its distinctive features or attributes.

A. KOWALCZYK (2011) lists the following as the attributes of tourism which define its character and delimit it: location, range, coherence, as well as variability and stability.

4. CLASSIFICATIONS OF TOURISM SPACE

The next stage in space analysis is its classification, the aim of which is not only to produce those of intrinsic value, but also, or perhaps most of all, to obtain a more precise description and to demonstrate the structure or stages of its development. A well prepared classification should be a systematic categorization in regard to a certain point of reference. Logical categorization involves the identification of the elements, which is divided in such a way that the sum of the identified elements gives the undivided whole, and their ranges are mutually exclusive. It is essential that classification criteria are defined; they should precisely express the features and rules of the categorization which the classification is based on.

The aim of the majority of classifications is to sort out (systematize) items. Depending on the adopted criteria, this involves putting elements in a given order (e.g. logical, hierarchical, chronological, etc.). The results may include:

- **typology**, which involves sorting and logical ordering of the elements of a given set, by comparing their features with the features of elements considered to be types (real or theoretical);
- **taxonomy**, which means sorting according to the adopted criteria and strict rules applied in systematics for description and terminology;
- **periodization**, which is a division into consecutive periods, phases, epochs or stages, often separated by important events which are the milestones in their development.

The selected criteria of tourism space classification presented in Table 3 are usually a part of the first or third type because taxonomy, which requires defining very particular rules and procedures, is more typical of biology than geography.

Table 3. Selected criteria of tourism space classification in general geographical space

Classification by	Categories of tourism subspaces
Subject of discussion (analytical approach)	Human tourism space (individual, group), tourism space of an area (site, region, country, continent, the globe)
Kinds / ways of perception	real perceptive-mental virtual spiritual
Stages of becoming interested in a given space	action space activity space
Stages of space recognition	exploration penetration segregation specialisation
Occupation of space, development and use	Tourism activity space: exploration penetration colonization urbanization assimilation
Landscape zone	Tourism space coastal lake lowland upland mountain other
Settlement character	urban urban/ rural rural other
Function and predominant character of tourism	Tourism space: recreational cognitive active cultural business other
Dominating sector of tourism economy	formal tourism space informal tourism space

Source: author's compilation based on H. ALDSKOGIUS (1977), OPPERMANN (1993), S. LISZEWSKI (1995), A. KOWALCZYK (2000), B. WŁODARCZYK (2009).

The criteria presented in Table 3 probably do not show the whole range of possibilities, as the author's intention was to present only those which are most frequently cited in the Polish literature on the subject. Further in the article, the author will present selected divisions and classifications, and their usefulness as regards better understanding of the essence of tourism space.

Tourism space is not a homogenous concept which has been noticed by many authors (MEYER 2004, LISZEWSKI & BACHVAROV 1998, LISZEWSKI 1995, 2005, STACHOWSKI 1993, OPPERMANN 1993, MIOSSEC 1976 *et al*). Generally, tourism space can be studied taking one of two basic approaches:

Firstly, space can be analysed and described in terms of the perception and psychology inherently related to the tourism. Choosing this way of reasoning, however, leads to a subjective picture, burdened with inaccuracies as regards the number of partial spaces. It is also impossible to overview the phenomenon in full, because when studying selected representatives of a given population, we cannot assume by generalization that the sum of the studied and described individual spaces is a complete representation of the whole space.

Secondly, when studying tourism space, we may treat it in terms of a site – an area – where tourism phenomena take place (tourism activity, activities for tourism). This approach is mostly objective, as an analysis of space understood in this way may be conducted and its description provided by an external observer (e.g. LATOSIŃSKA 1998, 2006, WŁODARCZYK 2009, KOWALCZYK 2011).

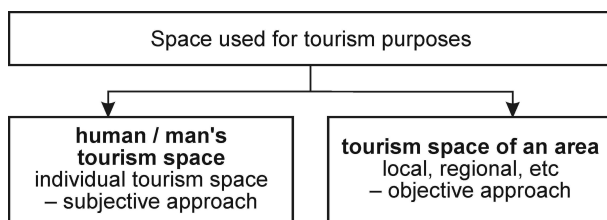


Fig. 5. One space, two aspects: research approaches to tourism space
Source: author



Fig. 6. Space character depending on the research approach
A - 'islet' structure, typical of individual tourism space
B - 'perforated' structure, typical of the tourism space of an area
Source: author's compilation

One of the basic classifications of tourism space found in the literature (Figs 5 & 6) is its division into:

- **human tourism space** – individual tourism space, the total of places/areas visited by a given tourist (or group of tourists); apart from containing transit corridors, this space often comes in the form of 'islets', as it is usually a set of dispersed sites/areas;

- **tourism space of an area** – a set of sites (areas) and processes, where various tourism activities are observed (including the tourism space of a region, city, etc.).

We may divide tourism space into:

- space used individually (objective, describable empirically);
- space perceived individually (subjective, a specific representation based on earlier experience).

Research shows that the individual tourism space (the subjective aspect) can be discussed with reference to an individual or to a group (e.g. social, vocational, informal), differentiated on the basis of various criteria depending on the aim of research. This is confirmed by studies conducted in Poland (e.g. LATOSIŃSKA 1998, KOWALCZYK-ANIOŁ 2007). Such classification does not refer only to the way tourism space is understood, but also defines the two basic research approaches.

The concepts presented above enable us to define the fundamental planes of understanding tourism space (spaces?), and its types (Fig. 7). The terminology and factual range of the main cognitive categories of tourism space were adopted following Liszewski (2006), but the types of space identified in them may be classified slightly differently.

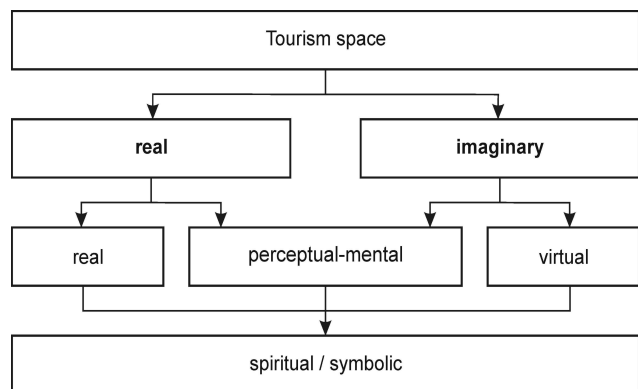


Fig. 7. Cognitive categories of tourism space according to S. LISZEWSKI (2006) and B. WŁODARCZYK (2009)

The author distinguishes the following levels of understanding (dimensions, types) of the term 'tourism space' (WŁODARCZYK 2009):

- **real** – tangible, experienced space – a set of sites/areas visited by the tourist (or group of tourists). Space defined in this way is usually discontinuous (islets), and its size and character are determined by the tourist's preferences and possibilities;
- **perceptual-mental** – conscious, experienced, remembered, internalized space. In comparison with real space, it is an incomplete set (due to

the presence of rejected, unremembered space), usually hierarchical as regards its significance (significant – less significant – insignificant) and value (useful – less useful – useless). It is also deformed after passing through a variety of perception filters (notions, expectations, preferred system of values, etc.). It is a set of notions based on previous experience;

- **virtual** – space which is unreal but can theoretically exist or already exists, though not at a given site or time with regard to the subject (in this case the tourist). It is a set of expectations regarding areas of potential tourism activity, based on secondary, external sources which are not the tourist's direct experience (e.g. guidebooks, the internet, tourism maps, etc.), often falsified as a result of dishonest marketing practices;
- **spiritual** – a creation of the mind, thoughts, feelings, referring to the tourist's inner life. It is a derivative of real, perceptual and virtual space, but devoid of formal limits. It is an expression of the system of preferred values related to tourism activity (in philosophical terms). In this case we may be dealing with a symbolic perception of tourism space (associating specific spaces with specific symbols), e.g. the Karkonosze (Sudety) Mountains – Śnieżka, Krakow – the Wawel, the Tatra Mountains – Giewont, Kasprowy Wierch – Zakopane. Spiritual space defined in this way does not have to be identified with sacred space understood in religious terms.

As mentioned earlier, the choice of tourism activity, and simultaneously the way of creating individual tourism space, is determined by many factors, including the socio-economic features/qualities of an individual and the family, history of place of residence, preferences concerning tourism activity, as well as individual perceptions of the destination based on the information available (ALDSKOGIOUS 1977). At the moment of taking a decision concerning preferred tourism activities, potential tourism space is limited to the **action space**. It is delimited by a set of potential sites/areas, in which it is possible to do the chosen (preferred) activity.

The choice of destination (sites, areas, territories), i.e. **activity space**, determines its accessibility to an individual, their family or social group. This accessibility is understood not only literally, i.e. in the sense of the physical distance from the place of residence (access to various means of transport), but also as accessibility in time (depending on the amount of free time), as well as economic (depending on the tourist's financial means), and perceptual-psychological accessibility.

Analysis of the literature on the subject enables us to make space classifications which are based on its changeability over time. A. KOWALCZYK (2000) gives an example of such a classification, based on the stages of tourism space recognition (Fig. 8).

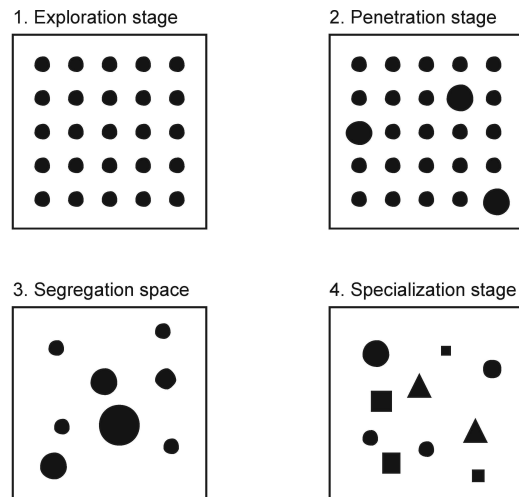


Fig. 8. Graphic illustration of tourism space recognition stages by A. KOWALCZYK (2000)

An extended and detailed typological classification was proposed by S. LISZEWSKI (1995), who claims that various kinds of tourism activity may lead to the formation of five types of tourism space. The character of tourism activity and the extent of geographical space transformed by it may be the basis for distinguishing the following space (sub)types:

- 1) **tourism exploration space** – the part of geographical space which is used in full coexistence of the tourist as the discoverer (small scale tourism) and the natural environment, the forms of tourism activity do not result in permanent tourism infrastructure;
- 2) **tourism penetration space** – the part of geographical space which the tourist (groups of tourists) visits mainly for cognitive or (rarely) recreational purposes. This particular subspace, both as regards its natural and cultural sphere, is developed touristically only to the extent which enables the tourism to obtain information or stay for a short period;
- 3) **tourism assimilation space** – formed by rural settlement areas, where recreation takes place in suitably adjusted or adapted farmsteads, and the tourists come into direct contact with the local community. It is the part of space where tourism activity adapts to the local environment the most, not creating new forms of tourism infrastructure, and very often adding to its cultural value. They are usually rural areas in

Table 4. Types of tourism space according to S. LISZEWSKI (1995)

Space type	Characteristic features			
	tourism intensity	tourism infrastructure	main tourism function	impact of tourism activity on natural environment
Exploration	minimal	none	cognitive	harmless
Penetration	ranging from small to massive	small	cognitive-recreational	burdensome
Assimilation	medium	medium	recreational-cognitive	neutral
Colonization	high	large	recreational	transformative (harmful)
Urbanization	medium	large	residential	degrading

Source: author.

the form of summer holiday or agritourism villages;

- 4) **tourism colonization space** – the part of geographical space with permanent tourism infrastructure, mainly in the form of ‘second homes’ and holiday recreation centres. It is usually a space of a different landscape and organization in comparison to the geographical regions where it is formed, and due to its scale it is usually ‘aggressive’ to surrounding areas. In the case of tourism colonization, we distinguish between that ‘by the tourists’ and that ‘for the tourists’;
- 5) **tourism urbanization space** – the part of geographical space, which starts to take shape in the final phase of tourism colonization; the city inhabitants, who formerly used it for tourism purposes, are now settling down permanently.

The space types presented above (with the exception of assimilation subspace) may be hierarchical with respect to the level of tourism infrastructure and the processes taking place in them, as a result of which they may occur consecutively, one after another (Table 4). Apart from assimilation space, the tourism space types distinguished may be treated as stages in its development (WŁODARCZYK 2009), referring to other periodization conceptions, such as the life cycle of the tourism area by R.W. BUTLER (1980) or A. KOWALCZYK’S (2000) stages of tourism area recognition.

Further analysis will be based on an attempt to define the mutual relations among the types of tourism space, which may be described on two planes. Considering only the degree/ level of space organization, whose element may be, for instance, the intensity of tourism infrastructure or the functions performed by the area, it can be assumed that the whole tourism space or a part may be divided and include all or some of its subtypes. Territories delimited in this way, usually cover different areas, they may border on

each other or form dispersed enclaves in general geographical space. One of the problems which may occur during delimitation is the impossibility of establishing clear borders between individual types of space.

That tourism space is not homogenous has been noticed by many authors (COHEN 1984, LISZEWSKI 1995, OPPERMANN 1993, KOWALCZYK 2011 *et al.*). In the functional-economic conception by the German geographer M. OPPERMANN (1993), tourism space was divided into two parts: **formal** – including all institutionalized elements of tourism infrastructure and symptoms of activity for the benefit of tourism; and **informal** – including all non-institutional (network, corporation, etc.) activities and forms of infrastructure. M. OPPERMANN (1993) believes that a change in the nature of these spaces (sectors), resulting from the changing tourism economy, may be dynamic and take the form of spatial development phases.

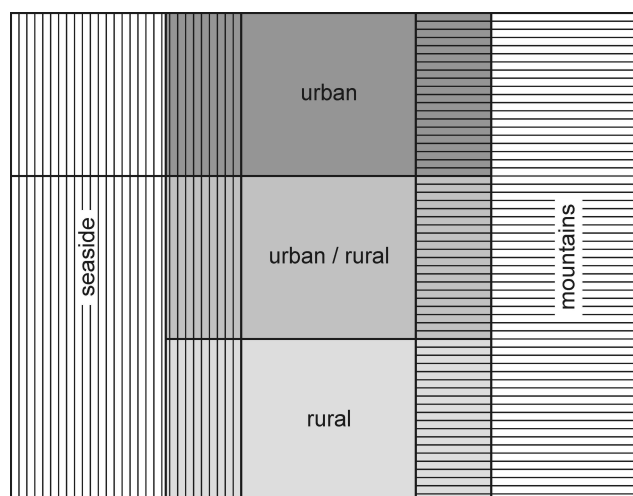


Fig. 9. Graphic illustration of tourism space classification with respect to the location (landscape zone) and character, according to J.M. DEVAILLY & E. FLAMENT (2000)

The examples quoted above were of a single-feature classification, but classifications taking into account two or more features are also possible. Such classifications (typologies) usually lead to a larger number of sets containing a smaller number of elements, and the borders between them may be blurred. An example here is the model presented by J.M. DEVAILLY & E. FLAMENT (2000), who simply divide a recreational (tourism) space, as broadly understood, according to clear criteria, connected on the one hand with the location of a given area, and on the other with the character of settlement units (Fig. 9). Due to its clarity, this classification (incomplete, as it does not include landscape zones other than seaside or mountains), distinguishing six different types of space, is of considerable didactic value and may be the basis for further classification. In the case of a larger number of landscape zones included in the classification, it is possible to obtain a respectively larger number of types.

		TOURISM SPACE		non-tourism space (pre-tourism or post-tourism)
		old	new	
TOURISM ACTIVITY (form of tourism)	new	old spaces, 'discovered' or 'revived' through new forms of tourism, or a new form within an old space	new spaces, 'discovered' through new forms of tourism or a new form in a new space	↓
	traditional	traditional, 'classical' tourism spaces or a traditional form in an old space	new spaces, 'discovered' through traditional forms of tourism or a traditional form within a new space	
	none	→		<i>Terra incognita turistica</i> spaces unknown to tourism (undiscovered for tourism), tourism non-ecumene

Fig. 10. Including two features in the classification of tourism space (a combined criterion) according to A. STASIAK (2011) – altered and supplemented

Another example is the use of dynamic (periodizing) features and forms of tourism activity, or possibly forms of tourism (or their absence) (Fig. 10). With such a combination of features as the basis for classification, we obtain an original category of spaces unknown to tourism or undiscovered for tourism (*terra incognita turistica*). Depending on particular needs, it is possible to create many such classifications considering two or more features. It must be remembered, however, that the more detailed the classification criteria are, the more thorough description the distinguished types will require.

5. CONCLUSIONS

The aim of the discussion was not to suggest a single suitable definition of tourism space, but to point to the need to define it precisely, because only then is it possible to accurately delimit and, later, make a detailed division and classification, as well as provide an appropriate description. The author believes the discussion gives grounds for the following conclusions:

- tourism space as a functionally distinctive part of geographical space should be researched on all cognitive planes;
- depending on the specific research problem, it is possible to accept different definitions simultaneously, on the condition that they preserve the essence of tourism space, which the authors believe to be tourism activity;
- definitions, delimitations, as well as divisions and classifications should not only be theoretical deliberations, but also contribute to a better understanding of the essence of the concept and a better management of tourism space;
- in most cases, the advantage of divisions and classification is their ordering quality;
- the multitude of features describing tourism space enables us to apply simple classification criteria, which will give us a sum of separable elements, as well as produce complex, typological, multi-feature classifications.

Taking into consideration the subjective aspect of tourism space delimitation (the necessary and sufficient condition for delimitation is the tourist), we may assume that divisions and classifications are not indispensable. However, in a detailed analysis, depending on need, definition and delimitation 'operationalization' is advisable, entailing divisions (classifications) which will lead to a better understanding of the whole of the tourism space concept.

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Translated by Ewa Mossakowska

Stanisław Liszewski

University of Łódź

Institute of Urban and Tourism Geography

URBAN TOURISM SPACE RESEARCH METHODS: EVOLUTION AND PATTERNS

Abstract: The author attempts to sum up research on urban tourism space conducted as a part of the tourism geography MA seminar at the University of Łódź. He checks and enhances the definition of tourism space and tests a method of analyzing the contents of guidebooks across time. He also defines the correlation between the range of forms of urban tourism space, changes to it as well as to population, and the past and the present functions of the city.

Key words: urban tourism space.

1. INTRODUCTION

Rapidly increasing tourism, which in the early 21st c. involved one billion people annually all over the world, encompasses more and more areas of the Earth. This tourism is largely to cities of various scales, functions and sizes, on all continents. It should be assumed that many tourists travel from their own city (place of permanent residence) to another (tourism destination).

The phenomenon corresponds to the growing process of urbanization and population concentration in large cities. In the first decade of the 21st c., about 50% of the world's population lived in cities, and over 18.5% lived in those inhabited by a million or more.

These processes (the increasing number of tourists, city inhabitants and the dynamically growing population of large cities) are sufficient reasons for the author's interest in urban tourism space, i.e. the part of geographical space delimited by city boundaries and within which substantial tourism occurs. It should be assumed that the increase in tourism is accompanied by urban tourism space expansion and evolution.

With reference to the growing number of academic publications concerning urban tourism (e.g. MATCZAK, ed. 2008, WŁODARCZYK, ed. 2011), the author formulates several questions on urban tourism space which will be responded to in the article:

- Are existing definitions of tourism space accurate enough to identify the phenomenon of urban tourism?
- Do we have suitable research methods which allow us to precisely define the size and types of urban tourism space?

- What is the direction of change in urban tourism space, both in time and type?

The work consists of two main parts, further subdivided: the theoretical-methodological part based on literature, and the empirical part, which presents the results of research on the evolution of urban tourism space for the purpose of the writing of a number of MA theses at the Institute of Urban and Tourism Geography, University of Łódź.¹

2. DEFINITION OF URBAN TOURISM SPACE

In order to understand the range of concepts related to urban tourism space, we must first define urban space, and then look for an answer to the question whether and to what extent the space of a contemporary city is tourism space.

However, the overarching concept here is geographical space, referred to as the Earth's surface or crust by geographers. A review of conceptions of space in human geography has been meticulously compiled by A. LISOWSKI (2003). It is worth mentioning here, however, that in his lectures devoted to the object of study in geography (1918/9), Eugeniusz Romer wrote: "Since meaning of geography involves mainly the understanding of space as differentially occupied, then examining this space in order to describe what occupies it, is the centre of geography" (ROMER 1969).

Generally speaking, treating geographical space (defined in different ways) as a research subject, geographers identify various sub-spaces within its general space, depending on research interests. In this way, we come to a definition of urban space, which S. LISZEWSKI (1997; with later revisions) describes as "a part (subspace, partial space) of geographical space of distinctive organization and landscape, dominated by human non-agricultural activity; the area has a formally established legal status. The space is inhabited by a local community displaying a number of characteristic features". Urban space is defined by its organization, non-agricultural economic function, legal status and 'urban community', i.e. by organizational, functional and social features.

Urban space defined in this way is often identified with urbanized space which is the result of multi-dimensional urbanization processes.

Many researchers working on tourism issues in recent years have been attempting to define tourism space (LISZEWSKI 1995, 2009, WŁODARCZYK 2008, 2009, 2011, 2011a, KOWALCZYK 2011, etc.).

According to S. LISZEWSKI (p. 195, 2009), "tourism space is a functionally distinct sub-space of the general geographical space as broadly understood, consisting of natural elements of the Earth's crust (natural environment), permanent effects of human activity in this environment (cultural and economic), as well as the social environment, which is a result of territorial activity (national, regional and local)".

The above definition, formulated nearly 20 years ago, should be enhanced by the statement that the 'wandering man', i.e. the tourist, is the main carrier of the tourism function, and at the same time the consumer or user of this space. With reference to the research conducted by B. WŁODARCZYK (2009, 2011), I agree that tourism space may be identified on the basis of tourism activity.

A similar definition is proposed by B. WŁODARCZYK (2009) who perceives tourism space as "a part of geographical space in which tourism occurs. A necessary and sufficient condition for a part of geographical space to be classified as tourism space is tourism, regardless of its intensity and character. An additional condition is the presence of tourism infrastructure, which defines the type of tourism space".

The definitions quoted above are based on two assumptions: the first is that tourism space is a part (sub-space, partial space) of general geographical space, while the other is the functional character of this space, which is only briefly mentioned by S. LISZEWSKI (1995) ('a functionally distinctive sub-space'). On the other hand, B. WŁODARCZYK (2009) stresses that tourism and tourism infrastructure classify a space as tourism space.

S. LISZEWSKI'S (1995) cautiousness when identifying the tourism function, as well as B. WŁODARCZYK'S (2008) categorically pointing to tourism as a necessary condition for this function to occur, are not contradictory or controversial, but show a different focus in the definition.

Coming to the end of this short review of definitions of urban and tourism spaces, it is worth realizing that both are a social product resulting from specific stages in global development. While urban space has been developing since the beginning of human life on Earth, tourism space in cities (as it is today) is mainly the product of post-industrial civilization, with its longer leisure time, relative affluence and greater mobility.

The identification of tourism space within urban space requires defining the scale and types of tourism within cities. A helpful clue may be public spaces (JAŹDŹEWSKA, ed. 2011), as well as the city's assets and tourism infrastructure.

Tourism space (including urban tourism space) is not homogenous. Its diversity results from different tourism behaviours both as regards individual tourists and participants of organized (mass) tourism. Based on the variety of tourism activity and the influence it has on geographical space, S. LISZEWSKI (1995) distinguishes five types of tourism space: exploration, penetration, assimilation, colonization and urbanization. In S. LISZEWSKI'S work (1999) the presence of the same types of tourism space in both cities and in non-urban areas is confirmed. It is also confirmed in the maps of the tourism space of Łódź, prepared by S. LISZEWSKI (2002) and B. WŁODARCZYK (2012) and placed in *Atlas miasta Łodzi*. A. KOWALCZYK (2011) created 'a model of geographical tourism space transformation' within tourism urbanization space and he refers to 'tourism domination space' as the last stage in its evolution.

On the basis of tourism space types (LISZEWSKI 1995), B. WŁODARCZYK (2009) formulated a tourism space development cycle, assuming that spatial evolution may be presented as a sequence of phases which can be identified with types of tourism space. The cycle begins with Stage I (pre-tourism - non-tourism space). Stage II includes tourism space, which goes through four phases: phase I - exploration, phase II - penetration, phase III - colonization, and phase IV - urbanization. According to Włodarczyk, the tourism assimilation space distinguished by S. LISZEWSKI (1995) is characteristic of all four phases of tourism space. Stage III, presented here, is post-tourism (non-tourism) space.

When presenting B. Włodarczyk's concept of the tourism space development cycle (2009), I would like to express my reservations concerning the universality

of this cycle. I believe that the course of tourism space evolution depends on the subject which it concerns or which creates this space. It may occur in the case of a general or individual transformation of geographical space into tourism space. The process of 'taking possession' of geographical space by an individual tourist is quite special. For each tourist, their individual tourism space may be found at a different phase. The same type of tourism space (the same phase) may be the exploration space for one tourist and the penetration space for another. Individual tourism space requires separate research, as well as a separate definition of urban tourism space.

Coming to the end of the discussion of tourism space definitions (the part of urban space with a tourism function), its types, development cycle and transformations, we should be looking for appropriate methods allowing its empirical identification.

3. METHODS OF RESEARCH AND SOURCE MATERIAL COLLECTION ON URBAN TOURISM SPACE

It is not easy to identify urban tourism space, understood as urban space functionally standing out from general geographical space due to tourism (LISZEWSKI 1999). Practically speaking, establishing this space empirically, e.g. in a large city, would require constant monitoring of tourism within the urban space of the studied city. How difficult such research would be can be seen from the fact that every large city in Poland is visited by hundreds of thousands of tourists annually, and Warsaw and Kraków even by several million(!) (WYRZYKOWSKI 2011). In general, the availability of reliable source materials concerning urban space depends on the size of the city, as well as the number and mobility of tourists.

The difficulty in conducting direct research throughout the year points to the need to look for various, and especially indirect, methods of collecting convincing source materials. The methods may be divided into two groups: field and library.

Field studies of urban tourism space include:

- running field inventories of the tourism infrastructure of the city and its use by tourists;
- measuring tourism, especially at places where admission tickets must be bought, at accommodation facilities, as well as in 'open' spaces;
- conducting surveys among different groups (local authorities, inhabitants, guides, tourists) on the perception and choices of urban areas visited by tourists).

Library studies involve:

- an analysis of specialist city maps (especially tourism ones);
- an analysis of guidebooks concerning the city (and the region), as well as the whole country, published both in Poland and abroad; the contents of guidebooks may be considered here as 'expert opinion';
- search through archive materials, e.g. postcards, films, etc. (WIECZORKIEWICZ 2012).

The methods listed above do not include all ways of collecting materials concerning urban tourism space (e.g. satellite photos, direct measurements, press opinion polls, etc.), especially those more sophisticated. However, they show how time-consuming this procedure is and how difficult it is to obtain reliable source materials.

Further on, the author will describe in detail just one, relatively rare, method – guidebook analysis. He believes that it is the most useful method in the study of urban tourism space, and especially its changes over a given period of time. The method has been successfully used by A. MATCZAK (1995) with reference to a region, and by R. WILUŚ (1998) to a city. A discussion concerning this method can also be found in a book by A. WIECZORKIEWICZ (2012).

4. GUIDEBOOK ANALYSIS AS A METHOD OF IDENTIFYING URBAN TOURISM SPACE

Among the many definitions of 'guidebook', we may find one in *Słownik języka polskiego*, edited by M. SZYM-CZAK (1979), which says that "it is a book providing information about the history and geography of a given region, containing maps, giving practical advice regarding travel, accommodation, etc." This is a general definition, which may be further developed for the purpose of tourism studies. A guidebook is a collection of information about tourism assets and attractions within a given space (city, region, country, continent, etc.), as well as practical information regarding a stay in an unknown area. This type of information is also provided by tourism brochures, lists of interesting tourism sites, tourism dictionaries and other publications. Although each has its special character, all serve the purpose of familiarizing the tourist (but not only) with the most attractive sites and spaces, as well as 'showing them round' a given area.

Guidebooks have been a part of tourism development for hundreds of years. J. WARSZYŃSKA & A. JAC-KOWSKI (1978, p. 130) write in the first Polish students' tourism geography textbook that one of the best guidebooks in the 16th c. was by Leonardo Alberti entitled *Description of whole Italy* (published 1550). The oldest guidebook to Warsaw is by Adam Jarzębski

from 1643, entitled *Gościniec albo krótkie opisanie Warszawy i okolic*.

The aim of this short introduction is to convince the reader that the guidebook has a long tradition of documenting and providing information about the main tourism assets or attractions of the area it describes, as well as this information undergoing practical verification by travellers (tourists).

In the author's opinion, the content of guidebooks may be treated as source material in research on urban tourism space, provided some conditions are met:

- the authors of the guidebooks must be experts on the cities they describe (historians, geographers, architects, etc.), their opinions are individualized and may be considered expert opinion;
- the guidebooks contain up-to-date information, based on the authors' personal experience or reliable sources;
- the tourism information concerns the whole area of the city, and not only one part;
- the publication is not promotional or commercial material prepared to order,
- in the case of research on the transformation (evolution) of the tourism space of Polish cities, there must be a series of guidebooks which cover a period of several decades at least (100 years optimum). They should present the state of knowledge about the tourism assets in the city in at least four historical periods: before 1939 (Second Republic of Poland), in 1945-70 (Polish People's Republic 1st stage), 1970-90 (Polish People's Republic 2nd stage), and after 1990 (Third Republic). If possible, each period should be represented by at least two guidebooks, showing the situation at its beginning and end).

When a guidebook is used in the analysis of urban tourism space, the procedure includes:

1. gathering information about the guidebook, its author, bibliographical data/publishing details: year of publication, number of pages, number of figures, maps, photographs, bibliography/references, etc.
2. counting the number of characters constituting the descriptive part of the guidebook (excluding photographs, figures, maps, etc., included in the text). The calculated number makes up 100% of the written part of the content.
3. counting the number of character in the description of every tourism form in the guidebook. Calculating the ratio of a given form description to the whole content of the guidebook (number of characters);

4. dividing individual sites into urban tourism space groups and counting the number of characters and the percentage of the description of the whole. Putting forms of urban tourism space into groups is rather subjective and depends on the size of the city, its history, affluence, the activity of its local authorities and many other factors, including the author of the guidebook. This article will mention forms most frequently created for the purpose of research in large Polish cities: religious sites and cemeteries, residences (palaces, villas, manor houses) and 'townhouses', public buildings, green areas (parks, gardens, etc.), urban design (housing estates, squares, streets, avenues, etc.), museums and galleries, monuments and fountains, industrial sites (historical monuments of technology), fortifications, etc. Both the number of forms making up urban tourism space and their capacity depend on the purpose of study. It should be remembered, however, that from the point of view of tourism space analysis, they should be three dimensional (buildings) or two dimensional (e.g. parks, gardens), excluding other tourism assets (such as commemorative plaques embedded in the wall of a residential building, museum exhibitions, etc.).
5. running a spatial analysis of the sites described in the guidebook. They have to be marked on the plan of the studied city (at an appropriate scale), in the right administrative district, morphological unit or on a lattice of squares, hexagons or other geometrical figures laid out on a plan.

The source material derived from guidebooks may be used for instance for a detailed analysis of urban tourism space, concerning:

- the changes and evolution of the size, structure and spatial system of the city (based on several guidebooks);
- concentration of buildings and forms of tourism space within the city space (spatial structure);
- the degree of popularity of every item creating urban tourism space;
- the attractiveness of every tourism site and its changes.

The source material derived from guidebooks can be enlarged by information concerning the tourism infrastructure of the city (e.g. accommodation and gastronomic facilities) and used to delimit functional types of urban tourism space (LISZEWSKI 1999).

5. TRANSFORMATIONS OF URBAN TOURISM SPACE CASE STUDIES

The MA theses devoted to the tourism space of six large Polish cities, written at the Institute of Urban and Tourism Geography, University of Łódź in 1996-2013, made it possible to test different study methods, including analysis of guidebook texts. They resulted in interesting monographs. In order to sum up these studies and to analyse the transformations of the urban tourism space in large Polish cities, the author used materials obtained from an analysis of texts of selected guidebooks written by authors of works concerning Łódź (ŻEBROWSKA 1996), Kraków (SZCZEPANIAK 2004), Warsaw (MROZIŃSKA 2006) and Bydgoszcz (KARASEK 2013). The analysis of the content of the chosen guidebooks concerned Warsaw (10: 1921-2005), Kraków (8: 1931-2002), Łódź (7: 1933-1992) and Bydgoszcz (10: 1920-2011).

The choice of the cities was intentional, as they represent various types of large cities (over 300 000 inhabitants) in Poland, both as regards their origins, economic function and history. In addition, Kraków and Warsaw are among the cities which are most frequently visited by tourists. In contrast, Łódź and Bydgoszcz are rarely visited, considering their population.

The basic source material, in that research was the analysis of guidebook texts, and which made it possible to run a comparative study of Warsaw, Kraków, Łódź and Bydgoszcz with respect to:

- the change in the number of forms of urban tourism space during the studied period;
- changes in percentages of urban tourism space forms described in tourism guidebooks;
- changes in the proportions of urban tourism space forms.

Due to the limit on article length, this one does not include analysis of the changes in the distribution of urban tourism space within the space of each city.

The aim of the analyses was to observe the directions and extent of the changes which have taken place in urban tourism space of large cities in Poland in the 20th c. and early 21st c.

Attempting an empirical analysis, the author has made two assumptions. The first one concerns time periods in which the research was conducted in all cities, and the other was based on an arbitrary (based on the author's research experience) choice of the main groups of urban tourism space forms.

Taking into consideration the 20th c. history of Poland, which had an obvious impact on tourism development in our country including urban tourism, the research period was divided into four sub-periods, with a main guidebook (guidebooks) ascribed to each of them: A (Second Republic of Poland before 1939); B

(first period of the Polish People's Republic 1945-69); C (second period of the Polish People's Republic 1970-90); and D (Third Republic of Poland after 1990).

In order to run a detailed analysis of the number of urban tourism space forms and their length / volume, all those mentioned in guidebooks were put into eight groups: 1 - religious sites and cemeteries, 2 - residential buildings and 'townhouses', 3 - public buildings, 4 - green areas (parks, gardens and other forms), 5 - technology-related historical monuments (industry), 6 - museums, monuments, fountains, etc., 7 - urban design (housing estates, streets, squares, etc., e.g. Wawel), 8 - others.

The number in each group was regarded as a symptom of the city's attractiveness, and the length of description - as its position in tourism space.

5.1. CHANGES IN THE NUMBER OF URBAN TOURISM SPACE FORMS IN THE STUDIED CITIES

The division of the study period into four sub-periods enables us to observe ongoing changes. It must be remembered, however, that in the period of the Second Republic of Poland, after 123 years of occupation, enormous efforts were made to reunite the Polish lands and build economic foundations. At that time, tourism in Europe was an exclusive phenomenon, and cities (except for spas, capital and historical cities) were not exploited by tourists. The characteristic features of the Polish People's Republic period were the ideologization of life, centralization of power and the planned economy, and it was not until the Third Republic that political-administrative barriers disappeared, and each city started to run its own policies, including tourism.

The study of Table 1 leads to several interesting conclusions. The first regards the relation between the number of forms and the size of the city, measured by its population. Such a relation is confirmed only in the case of Warsaw, which at the time under study had the largest population and number of tourism space forms among Polish cities. The remaining three cities do not show such a correlation.

Table 1. The number of urban tourism space forms in selected cities

Period	Warsaw	Krakow	Łódź	Bydgoszcz
A - before 1939 r. (II RP)	895	121	30	37
B - 1945-1970 (Polish People's Republic)	655	191	69	141
C - 1970-1990 (Polish People's Republic)	1 103	137	118	202
D - after 1990 (III RP)	1 379	144	101	94

Source: tourism guidebooks referred to in MA theses: J. MROZIŃSKA (2006), A. SZCZEPANIAK (2004), A. ŻEBROWSKA (1996), K. KARASEK (2013).

The second regularity concerns the correlation between the number of forms and the function of the city, confirmed in Warsaw and Kraków – cities with capital traditions, centres of culture, higher education and international contacts – which clearly outdistance cities of industrial origin and with poorly developed tertiary and quaternary sectors (Łódź, Bydgoszcz).

The third regular pattern illustrated in Table 1 concerns changes to the number of forms. The studied cities may be divided into three types. One is represented by Warsaw, which was the capital of Poland throughout the studied period and was developing its urban tourism space. An exception was the Second World War, when many historical sites were destroyed and rebuilding them took many years after the war (period B in the table).

The second example is Kraków, which as a former capital of Poland has always had a large and stable number of urban tourism space forms making the city the most attractive tourism city in the country. A totally different type is represented by Łódź and Bydgoszcz, where tourism space started to develop only after the Second World War, especially in the 1970s, leaving these two cities far behind Warsaw and Kraków.

To sum up, the analysis of the changes in the number of urban tourism space forms may become a good measure to define the tourism attractiveness of a city, and the scale and significance of the tourism function in urban space. The results of these observations may be used in a comparative study of these cities.

5.2. CHANGES IN THE NUMBER AND TYPE OF TOURISM SPACE FORMS IN CITIES (OVER TIME)

Conclusions concerning changes in urban tourism space forms are based on Figure 1, showing changes in the percentages of types of urban tourism space forms in the studied cities. The figures present the percentage of each of the eight studied forms in four time periods, coded as A, B, C, D.

Warsaw. In each of the discussed time periods we find all forms. Among them in the urban tourism space of Warsaw, two have the largest percentage: ‘residential buildings and townhouses’ and ‘public buildings’. They make up from 63.4% of all forms in the first time period (A) and 50.4% in period C. A characteristic feature of Warsaw is the high percentage of ‘urban design’ (from 12.6 to 19.4%), and a relatively small percentage of urban areas related to religious sites (from 7.2 to 8.9%). Urban tourism space is quite stable (one major deviation concerns

‘museums, monuments, etc’, which in period C made up 22.1%) and is characteristic of large cities with permanent, well developed capital functions.

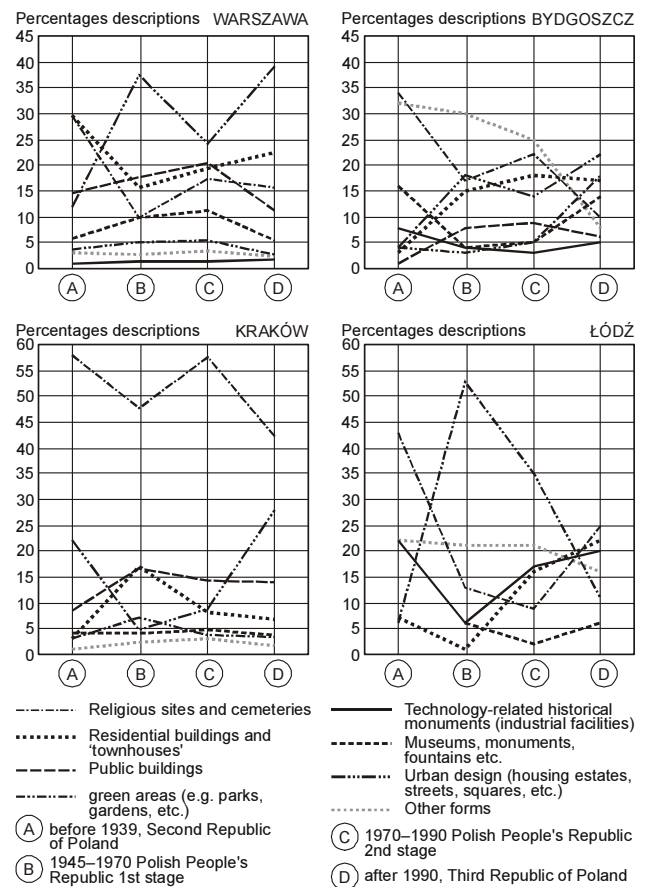


Fig. 1. Percentage of urban tourism space forms across time (selected cities): guidebooks used in Master's theses: J. MROZIŃSKA (2006), A. SZCZEPANIAK (2004), A. ŻEBROWSKA (1996), K. KARASEK (2013)

Kraków. Urban tourism space in this city is partially different from Warsaw. In Kraków, the two largest groups are ‘religious sites’ and ‘residential buildings’, which made up 56.4% in period C and 66.7% in period D. The third large group consists of ‘public buildings’ (13.2 - 9.4%), which together with the first two make up about 80% of all tourism space in Kraków. In Kraków, like Warsaw, the ‘museums and monuments’ group constitutes a considerable percentage, while ‘industrial areas and technology-related historical monuments’ are missing completely.

Urban tourism space in Kraków, like Warsaw, has been stable for several decades, and the clear domination of religious centres and residential buildings is typical of large cities with long historical traditions and well-developed past political functions.

Łódź. Urban tourism in Łódź is completely different. Łódź is an example of an industrial city without any administrative past (it gained regional

functions only in the 20th c.). There are three dominant forms: 'religious areas', 'residential buildings' and 'green areas' (Fig. 1). A large part is also taken by 'industrial plants and technology-related historical monuments' (10-17%), which is a particular feature of Łódź. Two groups are not included: 'public buildings' and 'urban design'. In contrast to Warsaw and Kraków, it takes three forms to make up about 50%: 'religious sites', 'residential buildings' and 'green areas'. Tourism areas in Łódź are typical of a large industrial city built 'from scratch'. Throughout the 20th c., the tourism assets of Łódź included places of worship (various faiths), as well as villas, palaces, parks and gardens owned by rich industrialists. We may add here historical industrial complexes, which have recently been put on the list of urban assets and tourism attractions.

Bydgoszcz. Urban tourism space in Bydgoszcz (the city with the smallest population) is different again. There is no clear dominating group, though the most important one in the three studied time periods was 'residential buildings'. A significant role in this city is played by 'urban design', 'museums and monuments' and 'industrial facilities', connected with the city's functions. The lack of a clearly dominant element is confirmed because until recently (after 1990), three main forms (residences, museums, and urban design) made up over half (58.5%), and in the remaining period, it has taken four to reach 50%. Comparing Bydgoszcz to the other cities, we may conclude that it is most similar to Łódź (a large percentage of green areas and technology-related historical monuments).

The comparative analysis of four cities seems to confirm that urban tourism space in large cities (in Poland) depends on the size of the city (population), its historical past, and functions (both past and present). This correlation is best confirmed by the lack of public buildings and urban design in Łódź, or technology-related historical monuments in Kraków. In the studied cities, the most important role in creating urban tourism space was played by residential buildings, green areas and religious sites, the greater part in all cities.

The research confirmed the appearance of a new urban tourism space, i.e. technology-related historical monuments and industrial plants. They are found in Warsaw, not to mention Łódź and Bydgoszcz.

5.3. CHANGES IN THE LENGTH OF DESCRIPTION OF URBAN TOURISM SPACE FORMS

The analysis of these changes is presented in Fig. 2, which comprising Warsaw, Kraków, Łódź, and Bydgoszcz, as well as the eight urban tourism space forms.

The figure presents the percentages included in guidebooks, for each form, at a given period, in each city. The length of the description may be regarded as a measure of its significance in the tourism space of the city.

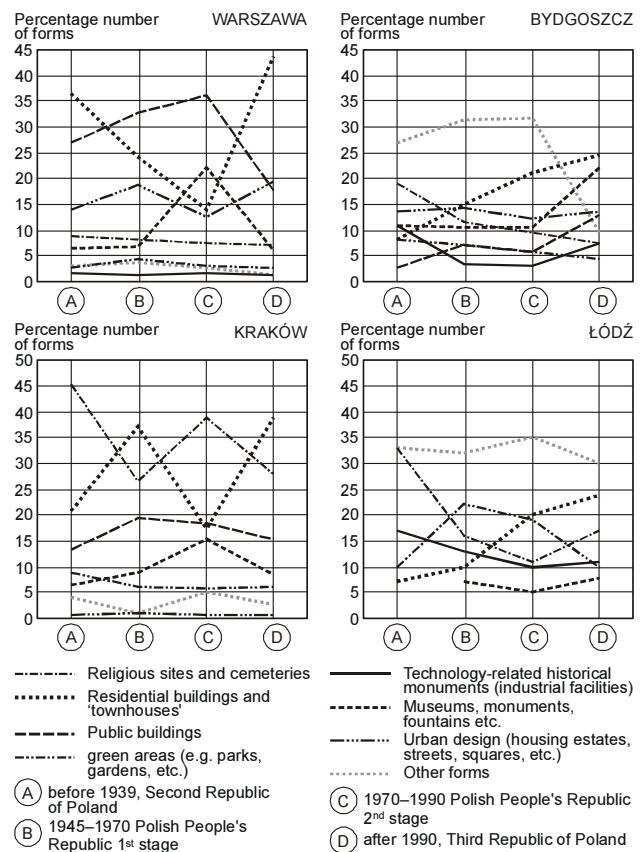


Fig. 2. Percentages descriptions of urban tourism space forms - across time (selected cities)

Source: guidebooks used in MA theses: J. MROZIŃSKA (2006), A. SZCZEPANIAK (2004), A. ŻEBROWSKA (1996), K. KARASEK (2013)

Warsaw. The lengths of description in Warsaw vary in different periods. In the Second Republic of Poland (A), the longest description was provided for 'religious sites' and 'residential buildings' (jointly 59.6%). In the next period (B), it was 'urban design' and 'public buildings' (55.2%). The same groups, only smaller, occurred in period C (44.4%). Contemporary description (period D) mainly concerns 'urban design' and 'residential buildings' (61.7%). Despite the changes in the length of description in Warsaw guidebooks, the predominant groups are public buildings and urban design.

Kraków. Assuming the same analysis, we may conclude that in Kraków in all time periods the longest descriptions have been provided for 'religious sites', followed by: in period A - 'urban design' (jointly 80.0%); in period B - 'residential buildings' (65.0%); in

period C – ‘public buildings’ (71.9%); and currently (D) – ‘urban design’ (70.4%). Regardless of the time written, the descriptions in Kraków guidebooks mostly concern ‘religious sites’ (nearly always about 50% of the whole text) and ‘urban design’.

Łódź. In Łódź, guidebook descriptions show considerable variation, depending on the time period. In the Second Republic (A) most descriptions concerned ‘religious sites’ and ‘technology-related historical monuments’ (jointly 65%). In the next (B), it was ‘green areas’ and ‘religious sites’ (66%), in period C – ‘green areas’ and ‘technological historical monuments’ (52%), and in the last period (D) – ‘religious sites’ and ‘residential buildings’ (47%). Generally speaking, as regards the content of Łódź guidebooks, three forms dominate in different periods: ‘green areas’, ‘religious sites’ and ‘technology-related historical monuments’.

Bydgoszcz. The descriptions in Bydgoszcz guidebooks are the least diversified, as shown by the smallest percentages concerning the two main groups. In period A, they were ‘religious sites’ and ‘museums and monuments’ (jointly 50%). In period B, it was ‘urban design’ and ‘religious sites’ (jointly 35%), in period C, ‘religious sites’ and ‘residential buildings’ (40%), and in the last period (D), ‘urban design’ and ‘green areas’ (jointly 40%). To sum up, two main groups dominate in Bydgoszcz guidebooks: ‘religious sites’ (10-34%) and ‘urban design’ (4-22%).

Analysis of tourism space forms (Fig. 1) and their length of description (Fig. 2) in the four cities, in four time periods, allows us to make comparisons and draw general conclusions (Table 2).

Table 2. Comparison of the position occupied by forms of urban tourism areas, as regards number and length of description (percentage)

No of forms	Length of description (rank)
– Religious sites: K1, Ł1	– Religious sites: K1, B1, Ł2
– residential buildings: W1, B1, K2, Ł3	– urban design: W2, K2, B2
– public buildings: W2	– public buildings: W1
– green areas: Ł3	– green areas: Ł1
– urban design: B2	– technology-related historical monuments: Ł3

Key: capital letters – names of cities: Warsaw (W), Kraków (K), Łódź (Ł), Bydgoszcz (B); W1, K2, Ł3, B2, etc. – the rank of a form in each city. The rank is established on the basis of summing and comparing the percentages of a given group in all studied periods. Names of forms – see Figs 1 and 2.

Source: author’s compilation.

The comparison shows the differences between the rank (importance) of individual tourism space forms in the studied cities and their rank (the length of description) in guidebooks. The ‘religious sites’ group is the most important for Kraków and partly for Łódź

and Bydgoszcz (length of description). The ‘residential buildings’ group is frequently mentioned in guidebooks on all cities (twice first), but the length of its description and, consequently, its rank as a tourism asset is considerably lower and is not included in Table 2.

As regards lengths of description in Warsaw, Kraków and Bydgoszcz guidebooks, ‘urban design’ has a high position. A much lower one is taken in terms of number, as it only reaches second position in Bydgoszcz.

Only in Warsaw are ‘Public buildings’ found in first position as regards length of description, and second as regards number. This situation may be explained by the city’s capital function over several centuries, the main ‘creator’ of such buildings.

The remaining two forms are included due to Łódź, which for several decades has been presenting ‘green areas’ as a significant urban tourism form. Recently, ‘technology-related historical monuments and industrial facilities’ have become an extremely important asset of its new urban tourism space.

The analysis confirms the usefulness of examining both number of forms and length of description for defining tourism space within urban space and showing its importance in the functions of a city. The collected material, obtained from guidebooks, may also be used for more statistically sophisticated comparative analyses of the number and rank of studied groups, as well as for observing the development of urban tourism space within urban space.

6. CONCLUSIONS

The analysis of guidebooks describing four large cities in Poland, as well as the conceptual and terminological discussion preceding the analysis of empirical material enables us to respond to the questions posed in the introductory part of the article.

Answering the first question, we may say that the Polish literature contains satisfactorily precise definitions of urban tourism space as a subspace of geographical space. They are mostly operational in character, which facilitates searching for empirical methods to delimit this space.

The answer to the question on the methods of identifying urban tourism space is found in the analyses presented in this work, and based on guidebook content. Far from closing the methodological discussion, I believe that the method described above (with all its imperfections) has one major advantage – it makes it possible to conduct research over time, which in the case of the development of urban tourism space is very important. The method allows analysis

of urban tourism space on three planes: quantitative (the number and type of tourism space forms), qualitative (the rank and function of tourism space forms) and spatial (the system of tourism space forms within urban space). The third of the planes has not been discussed in this article.

Naturally, the method has a number of subjective elements; it also requires strict observation of research rules. It is difficult to say today what influence this subjectivity may have had on the final results of the study, as it requires further tests and analyses.

The answer to the next question is in the fourth section and the conclusions that can be drawn from it. Beyond any doubt, both the quantitative structure of urban areas and their ranks are directly influenced by the size of the city (population), the historical past, especially as regards administrative functions, as well as leading economic functions past and present.

The research has showed that, for instance in Kraków, the quantitatively and qualitatively predominant forms are those related to religious sites and residential buildings (due to its former capital function), and in Warsaw – forms related to residential, public buildings, as well as urban design (a capital city for hundreds of years). In the light of the research, the profile of the tourism space of Łódź looks very interesting. An important role is played by religious sites (multicultural), residential buildings (industrialists' palaces and villas), green areas (former industrialists' gardens and parks), as well as areas with technology- and industry-related historical monuments (industrial function dominant for many years). Public buildings in Łódź occupy a less important position, which may be explained by the short period of having administrative functions.

The least defined city in this analysis is Bydgoszcz, which due to its geographical location, historical past and function, is devoid of specialized forms of urban tourism space. As regards the number of forms, 'residential buildings' and 'urban design' predominate, and as regards length of description (rank) – 'urban design'.

The discussion presented in this article closes several years of research conducted as a part of MA thesis writing. The results are sufficiently interesting to be published, and in this way become available to other urban tourism researchers in the hope that they will initiate further discussion, especially of a methodological character.

FOOTNOTE

¹ In 1996-2013, at the MA seminar on tourism geography at the Institute of Urban and Tourism Geography, University of Łódź, conducted by Prof. Liszewski, seven MA theses were

written, which concerned the tourism space of Łódź, Kraków, Lublin, Heidelberg, Warsaw, Wrocław and Bydgoszcz, in which methods of identifying and delimiting tourism space in cities were tested. The article is an attempt to sum up this research based on Polish cities.

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Translated by Ewa Mossakowska

Alina Zajadacz

Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznań
Faculty of Geographical and Geological Science
Department of Tourism and Recreation
alina@amu.edu.pl

ACCESSIBILITY OF TOURISM SPACE FROM A GEOGRAPHICAL PERSPECTIVE

Abstract: The accessibility of tourism space is becoming an increasingly significant issue in geographical research due to, amongst other things, demographic changes (an ageing population, growing numbers of people with disabilities) alongside guaranteeing a universal right of access to tourism. The nature of geographical research (physical, socio-economic) allows this issue to be viewed systemically. Drawing on the fields of geography and accessible tourism, this article presents the assumptions of a model which makes a systemic analysis of the factors conditioning the accessibility of tourism space possible. It also highlights the need for further research into the optimal level of detail in universal design principles which can be applied in tourism.

Key words: accessibility, accessible tourism, tourism space, tourism geography, universal design, social model of disability, geographical model of disability.

1. INTRODUCTION – THE ESSENCE OF TOURISM SPACE

Space has been considered the fundamental domain of the geographical sciences since their very beginning. However, if we accept that in a lexical sense space is an infinite and undefined 3-dimensional area (*Słownik współczesnego języka polskiego* 1996) then we can conclude that treating space as the object of geographical research is quite metaphorical. For in reality, such studies refer not to space itself, but rather to the objects and subjects contained therein (LISOWSKI 2003) as well as the interaction which occurs between them. The use of terms such as “space” or “spatial” mainly exposes the location of certain phenomena or objects, and furthermore, it is often connected to an analytical separation of space and time (KOSTROWICKI 1997) which are treated as two separate entities. In the context of research into tourism geography **tourism space** has frequently been defined as part of geographical space:

1) “and socio-economic, in which tourism phenomena occur” (WARSZYŃSKA, JACKOWSKI 1978, p. 31);

2) “which fulfils a function in tourism as it possesses characteristics (either in terms of the natural environment or appropriate infrastructure) which are useful for tourism service providers and for tourists. These include elements of the earth's surface (natural

environment), permanent effects of human activity in the specific environment (economic environment) and also the human environment in a social understanding” (LISZEWSKI 1995, p. 94);

3) “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” (WŁODARCZYK 2009, pp. 74-75, 2011a, p. 59).

Definition (1) distinguishes two basic types of space: physical (natural) and non-physical (cultural, social, economic). This reflects the opinions held by human geographers (LISOWSKI 2003, KOWALCZYK 2011) who, distinguish between autotelic space (physical) in the objective approach, and heterotelic space (non-physical) in the subjective approach. The second of the definitions presented above, provides a more detailed anthropocentric division of the geographical environment into natural, economic and social. It has been the starting point for many studies treating tourism space both statically and dynamically, thus permitting an analysis of how it has changed and evolved (KOWALCZYK 2011). In turn, definition (3) is “centred” on the very core of the tourism system which is “human – tourist”. In this case the basic features of tourism space include its relative nature. Once acknowledged as relative space, it cannot exist without a subject, in this case: human (WŁODARCZYK 2011b).

On the basis of the definitions of tourism space given above two paradigms can be noted, focusing on: 1) **features of geographical space fulfilling tourism functions** (WARSZYŃSKA & JACKOWSKI 1978, LISZEWSKI 1995), 2) an object determining the significance and function of this space – **the tourist** (WŁODARCZYK 2009).

The concept of tourism space is also treated in a wider perspective both as part of geographical space and as abstract or mental space (STACHOWSKI 1993, KRZYMOWSKA-KOSTROWICKA 1997, ZAJADACZ 2011a). However, the second and third ways to interpret tourism space also arise in other disciplines dealing with tourism, therefore the most “geographical” seems to be the view of tourism space as part of real space, in accordance with the term “Geography” which refers to the location of different phenomena in 3-dimensional space (RELPH 1976, KOWALCZYK 2011). In his description of the basic features of tourism space KOWALCZYK (2011) took the following into account: position (location), size (scale), cohesion (content) and permanence (continuity). The first three of these are static by nature whereas the last concerns the dynamics of change with time. The list of characteristics inherently connected with tourism space should also include its accessibility. And here the question of accessibility should be considered both from the point of view of the realities of tourism space and also its user (i.e., the socio-economic position and psychosomatic state of the tourist).

The question “what sort of conditions should accessible tourism space fulfil?” leads to an automatic response that each tourism space (if in accordance with definition (3) its determinant is the presence of tourists) is assumed to be accessible. However, it is also possible to observe that it is not so for everybody nor to the same extent. The starting point in an analysis of tourism space should therefore be the characteristics of the potential tourist, their individual abilities and limitations in regard to being able to penetrate a particular type of tourism space. These are important aspects to consider in the context of human rights, related to universal access to recreation and tourism (Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities 2006, ratified in Poland in 2012). They are especially significant in the case of those who encounter numerous difficulties when travelling for purposes of tourism (including those with disabilities, the elderly, or those facing socio-economic problems).

In order to present the conditions determining accessibility of tourism space, the first part of the article attempts to explain key notions such as *accessibility*, *accessible tourism* and related concepts (*universal design*, *the social and geographical disability models*). With this in mind, the basic conditions of tourism space accessibility are presented, assuming that the **core of tourism space is the tourist**. However, the character-

istics of geographical space, which fulfil a role in tourism, include components such as the physical (natural), economic and social environments. Accessibility of tourism space is considered from a geographical (real) perspective and a static perspective (i.e. without examining changes over time).

2. ACCESSIBILITY, ACCESSIBLE TOURISM

Accessibility as a condition which must be fulfilled is a fundamental factor for all tourists, if the tourism space is to be penetrated. The term *accessible* means: convenient, achievable, at one's disposal. It is also connected with characteristics such as usability, functionality and versatility. It refers to a place (location) – as it is possible to get to somewhere; information – something that is understandable, clear; social relations – when someone is communicative, open to other people; the activity aim – which can be relatively easily achieved, gained (e.g. thanks to price, level of difficulty, effort involved). In literature, as in the tourism economy the term *accessible tourism* is applied (BUHALIS & DARCY ed. 2011, BUHALIS, DARCY & AMBROSE ed. 2012), and it has replaced the concept of *tourism for all*, which was popular in the 1990s and 2000s.

Accessible tourism is a form of tourism that involves collaborative processes between stakeholders that enable people with access requirements, including mobility, vision, hearing and cognitive dimensions of access, to function independently and with equity and dignity through the delivery of universally designed tourism products, services and environments (BUHALIS & DARCY ed. 2011, p. 10).

Stakeholders are all the persons or groups who have interests in the planning, process(es), delivery and/or outcomes of the tourism service (SAUTTER & LEISEN 1999, p. 315, MICHOPLOULOU & BUHALIS 2011, p. 261).

When defined in this way, *accessible tourism* takes into account the full human life cycle and the fact that anyone, depending on their physical condition (which can change) and the particular stage of family life they are in, can benefit from certain types of facilities. Problems of restricted access to tourism space (due to physical, technical, social, information-based, economic barriers) affect many social groups which include: people with a temporary or permanent disability, the elderly, families with young children, those at risk of social exclusion (e.g., immigrant families, the poor, ethnic or religious minorities). In the case of technical and information barriers which hinder the accessibility of tourism space it is noticeable that this problem especially affects those with disabilities and the elderly. Referring to the needs of people with disabilities

accessibility is defined as meaning that people with disabilities have access, on an equal basis with others, to the physical environment, transportation, information and communications technologies and systems (ICT) and other facilities and services (*Europejska strategia w sprawie...* 2010, p. 5).

Konwencja ONZ praw osób... (2006) – The Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006), and subsequent legal acts states “that persons with disabilities are entitled to the enjoyment of the full range of civil, cultural, economic, political and social rights embodied in international human rights instruments on an equal basis with other persons” (OHCHR, 2010, quoted from FOGGIN 2011, p. 99). The needs of persons with disabilities are not currently treated as “special”, but as one of many which occur in today’s society. Any response to them should respect the principles of **universal design** which is:

the design of products and environments to be usable by all people to the greatest extent possible, without the need for adaptation or specialized design (*Universal design...* 2007, p. 6).

It is worth highlighting that infrastructure which is accessible to people with disabilities is considered a symbol of modernity (PEARN 2011).

Likewise, the starting point in the analysis of accessible tourism for the elderly is the identification of factors determining tourism demand (Fig. 1), to which the nature of supply in the target destination/region as well as areas en-route, should be adapted.

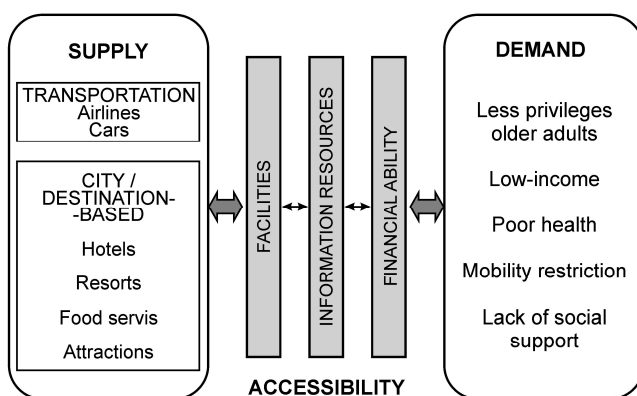


Fig. 1. A description of supply and demand of the ageing travel market regarding accessibility requirements
Source: Y. WANG 2011, p. 195

This adaptation of the characteristics of tourism space to the needs, expectations and limitations of people with disabilities or the elderly reflects the social model of disability (SM) of 1976 (Union of the Physically Impaired Against Segregation, after PEARN 2011) which defines disability as the result of the existence of restricting factors in the environment as well as social and mental barriers which compound the dysfunction

of a given person and make participation in society difficult or impossible (OLIVER 1996, DARCY 2010, DARCY & PEGG 2011).

The removal of barriers limiting people with specific dysfunctions raises the quality of life and equal opportunities in relation to the fully-abled section of society. The strength of the social model of disability lies in the assumption that it is not the person with a disability who should adapt to the environment but that changes should be made to social conditions by which the inclusion of the particular individual in society becomes possible. However, some researchers believe that society’s view of disability ignores the fact that not everything is a matter of social perspective “as people have bodies and thus also bodily (physical) problems” (BEST 2010, p. 98). This is why many people with disabilities experience psychological problems which would exist even if society did everything possible to include them in the mainstream of social life.

Geographers today, based on experience so far, use the results of studies into the “person with disability – geographical space” relation in the conceptualisation of a *geographical model of disability* (GM). Geographers have long been interested in issues of disability, even as far back as the 1930s (FARIS & DUNHAM 1939). They connect the factors causing disability (*disabling nature*) with social and spatial aspects of human life. Furthermore, the notion of more “inclusive” solutions which facilitate access to space as well as the full scope of life in society for people with various types of disability is promoted. The proposed model of disability (CHOUINARD, HALL & WILTON 2010) aims to eliminate tensions regarding the social model which treats disability as a process of social exclusion. In the GM, it is assumed that the causes of limited ability are individual circumstances connected to a specific type of dysfunction as well as the surrounding physical and social conditions determining the difficulties which arise in the “person with disabilities – environment (social, physical)” equation. Needs connected to various types and degrees of disability, as just some of many occurring in contemporary society, should be taken into account in the creation of accessible buildings, services and sites through the application of the principles of universal design amongst others (IMRIE 2012, ZAJADACZ 2010a, 2010b, 2012).

3. ACCESSIBLE TOURISM SPACE

The accessibility of tourism space from the geographical perspective was once understood in terms of accessible transportation, as the possibility of getting to the destination via a means of transport, and also as

the transportation links, hiking trails and ski lifts enabling a tourist to go on excursions within the selected tourist region to specific places (WARSZYŃSKA & JACKOWSKI 1978; KOWALCZYK 2001). Geographers also noted the meaning of accessibility represented by the concept of *hospitable space* (KACZMAREK, STASIAK & WŁODARCZYK 2008), identifying hospitable tourism space as that which is attractive, accessible, safe and friendly. The role of accessibility in relation to sites to visit from the viewpoint of tourists with disabilities was emphasised (KOŁODZIEJCZAK & ZAJADACZ 2008). Many geographical papers have been dedicated to the significance of the tourism information system in making tourism space accessible for people with disabilities, in particular, the deaf (ZAJADACZ 2007, 2010a, 2010b, 2012). The issue of the social integration of the able-bodied and those with disabilities as a factor enabling the creation of a tourism offer accessible to all has also been analysed from a geographical perspective (ZAJADACZ 2011b).

Today, particularly in papers related to the tourism of people with disabilities, the notion of accessibility of tourism space is considered in relation to all its components connected to the interaction network (ZAJADACZ 2012). Such a systemic approach to tourism space is significant for practice, especially for the development of universal design principles in tourism infrastructure, both in terms of sites and in open spaces.

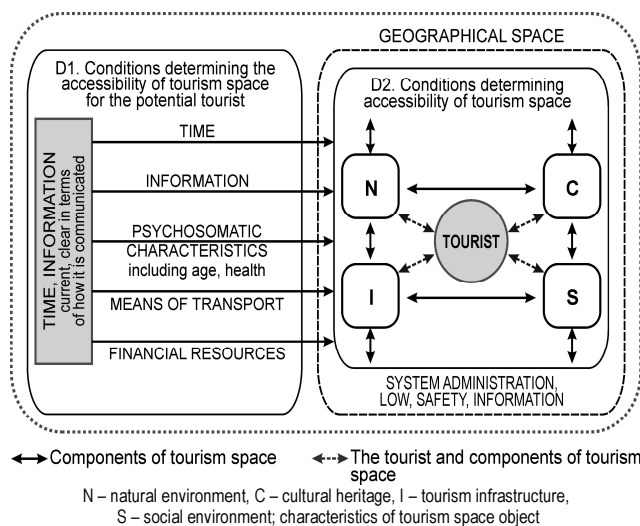


Fig. 2. Accessibility of tourism space - the geographical perspective
Source: A. Zajadacz

The starting point for the development of the accessibility of tourism space model (Fig. 2) was the assumption that it is dependent on two basic groups of conditions. The first group (D1) of elementary variables includes characteristics referring to the situation of the potential tourist (PT), which mean that getting

to the chosen space is actually possible. They include basic conditions such as the time which a given individual has at their disposal (either free time or set as in business or conference tourism) and the financial resources which can be allocated for the trip. Both of these factors condition the possibility of getting to/ and penetrating the given tourism space. The psychosomatic state of the potential tourist, connected to, amongst other factors, age, health, degree and type of disability, susceptibility to fears, phobias (e.g., agoraphobia, socio-phobia) and the skill and ability to acclimatise in an environment different to the place of residence is also of key significance (compare KRZYMOWSKA-KOSTROWICKA 1997).

The actual accessibility of tourism space is also determined by how well means of transport, including the location of car parks, in relation to the tourism space visited, and are adapted to the requirements of the PT. Tourist information is of equal importance. If it is up-to date, reliable and detailed, whether it takes into account the diverse needs of potential tourists and is communicated in a way suited to the various needs of the target audience (including the blind and deaf), planning a tourist trip becomes possible, whether via a travel agent or individually.

The second group of conditions determining accessibility of tourism space (D2) concerns all its components as well as the interaction between them. The basic components include the natural environment (N) and all of its characteristics such as topography (slopes); type of surface (soils); speed of river current, shallows, range of water level fluctuation (on water routes); climate and weather conditions affecting the season and length of time that the tourism space is used, the state of the natural environment and natural catastrophes. Further components are cultural heritage (C) and tourism infrastructure (I), the accessibility of which is conditioned by technical aspects enabling the site to be reached and its exploitation. The skills of the personnel who deal with the tourists are significant, how open and flexible staff are to searching for optimal solutions. Accessibility of the social environment (S) created by the inhabitants of a given tourism space is connected mainly to the political-economic situation which determines whether or not it is possible to stay at a given site. The attitude of the locals towards tourists, in the context of the theory of tourism as an "event" or "dialogue" between cultures, is of fundamental significance (KOWALCZYK 2001). Additionally, social factors include the fact that "humans organise tourism space and also manage it, they likewise undertake business activity within it" (WŁODARCZYK 2011b, p. 17). The attitude of individual entrepreneurs in the tourism industry towards supporting the creation of accessible tourism depends on how this concept is put into practice.

If we acknowledge that the core of tourism space is the user (**T**) this implies that the analysis of the accessibility of tourism space takes individual conditions of behaviour into account. These are connected with all the variables described in group **D1**, as well as the adaptation of specific components of tourism space to individual needs during a stay and getting around within an area.

The presented components of tourism space, as well as its subject (**T**), create a feedback network (interaction) determining the dynamics of this system (e.g. areas a given person can access such as mountain trails which, when physical problems arise, may become inaccessible; surface waters polluted by the local population become unsuitable for swimming, and the use of downhill ski runs can lead to mudslides cutting off accommodation zones or transport routes).

Of significant importance to the accessibility of tourism space is the management of administration, safety and information. This requires the numerous stakeholders to work together in a coherent and consistent way.

The accessibility of tourism space in geographical terms refers above all to physical-functional characteristics. It may therefore be defined as follows:

accessibility refers to how easy it is for everybody to approach, enter and use buildings, outdoor areas and other facilities, independently, without the need for special arrangements (WESTCOTT 2004, p. 7).

Increasing accessibility and providing information on it can benefit many people, both those who wish to travel (but encounter a wide range of difficulties) as well as those working in the tourism industry. By applying universal design to the accessibility of transportation, buildings and spaces used by the public, the local inhabitants also benefit and this has a positive affect on the quality of everyday life.

4. CONCLUSION

The geographical perspective in studies on the accessibility of tourism space carried out in order to create theoretical models and find practical solutions, enables the application of a systemic approach, which permits a holistic view of all the components of this space as well as the interaction between them. This is possible thanks to the complex nature of the geographical sciences, incorporating physical geography (research into the natural environment) and also socio-economic geography. This is of fundamental significance for increasing the accessibility of tourism space due to the need for action – mainly systemic – which guarantees

movement in the tourism space itself, and transit through it, is “fluid”. This fluidity and the related issue of ease of travel is governed by many characteristics of geographical space which fulfil a tourism function, the interested tourist, and also feedback between the subjects and objects which “fill” the tourism space.

Observed trends in the tourism market, connected to increasing the individualisation of tourists' needs, demographic changes (an ageing population, higher numbers of people with disabilities), legal requirements – guaranteeing equal opportunities in terms of access to tourism and leisure, mean the accessibility of tourism space is becoming increasingly important. This increase is founded on accepting that humans – tourists are at the core of tourism space. Any action should therefore take into account the individual tourist's personal situation (psychosomatic, socio-economic). For geographers, this course of action poses current research challenges into the relation between humans and tourism space taking diverse types of tourists and space into account. Moreover, a key issue in practical solutions is finding an answer to the issue of the particulars of amenities introduced in accordance with the principles of universal design. The question as to what solutions exist and the extent to which tourism space should be accessible remains to be answered.

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Leszek Butowski

Warsaw School of Tourism and Hospitality Management
leszek.butowski@wp.pl

MARITIME TOURISM SPACE

Abstract: The aim of this article is to provide a description of the processes which take place within offshore and coastal areas treated as contemporary tourism space. The article presents the evolution of maritime space towards the formation of maritime tourism space. It also offers a classification of maritime tourism space types according to types of sailing tourism (investigated on a global scale). The analysis has covered the main geographical-structural conditions and forms of adaptation (with particular focus on coastal areas). The analysis covered seaside areas as well, but only in the context of their functional relation with sea areas. The entire investigation was conducted from the perspective of maritime sailing tourism (yachts and other recreational crafts).

Keywords: maritime tourism space; evolution, stages of adaptation; sailing tourism.

1. INTRODUCTION

This article offers an analysis of maritime areas and areas directly adjacent to them as areas of contemporary tourism space. The term 'tourism space' is used here in the sense of a real geographical space which receives tourists and which has a certain functional and behavioural character (*cf.* DRZEWIECKI 1992, KOWALCZYK 2001, MIOSSEC 1977, STACHOWSKI 1993, STALSKI 1984, WARSZYŃSKA & JACKOWSKI 1978). According to S. LISZEWSKI (1995) and B. WŁODARCZYK (2009) an area can be considered a tourism space only when it is visited by tourists (regardless of their number). Obviously, this condition has been fulfilled by many sea areas; therefore, we have to recognize them (and seaside areas which are functionally tied to them) as tourism space.

Taking these assumptions into account, let us assume for the length of this article that maritime tourism space is a real geographical space which is visited by tourists because of certain sea-related attractions that it possesses. It may encompass sea areas and the land areas that are functionally bound to them. This space (especially land and coastal areas) can be deeply transformed and adapted to fulfil the needs of tourists.

The article focuses mainly on: 1) conditions which influence the formation of maritime tourism space; 2) evolution of maritime space towards maritime tourism space; 3) distinguishable types of maritime tourism space; 4) forms of adaptation to the needs of

sailing tourism. As mentioned before, the analysis covers also seaside areas, but only in the context of their functional ties to particular sea areas. The analysis is conducted from the perspective of sea sailing tourism (yachts and other recreational crafts) disregarding other forms of nautical tourism (e.g. cruising), which have already been described in numerous literary sources (*cf.* LUKOVIĆ 2012, LUKOVIĆ 2013, LÜCK 2007, LÜCK 2008).

2. CONDITIONS INFLUENCING THE FORMATION OF MARITIME TOURISM SPACE

When we look at the structure of maritime tourism space, we see that it can be divided into two basic constituents (which in the context of sailing tourism are functionally tied to each other): sea area and the seaside area that is directly adjacent to it. The main conditions (factors) which have an influence on the formation of maritime tourism space (encompassing both constituents) are:

1. Geographical location and resulting dominance of certain weather conditions which influence prospects for the development of sailing tourism in a given area. These weather conditions include (dominant) wind direction and strength, frequency of

occurrence of strong winds and storms, occurrence of gales, likeliness of sudden weather changes.

2. Topographical conditions (type of coastline), including in particular the presence of islands, peninsulas, bays, fiords, straits, etc. which influence conditions for sailing tourism. They may constitute natural shelters, for example for yachts, especially during bad weather.

3. Hydrographical conditions, such as depth, presence of dangerous shoals, height and type of waves, occurrence of wind currents, tidal streams and tides (vertical fluctuations of the level of water). These factors have an influence mainly on the safety of sailing on small vessels.

4. The sightseeing and recreational attractiveness of sea and seaside areas is determined by for instance 'traditional' sightseeing attractions (e.g. occurrence of particular species of fauna and flora, sailing and nautical traditions). Moreover, the formation of maritime tourism space can be influenced by other typical environmental attractions, such as water quality, transparency and temperature, and air temperature in a given season of the year, the number of sunny and rainy days, likeliness of fair weather, etc.

5. Specific sailing and nautical attractions of the sea – apart from the above-mentioned structural factors – include the formation of certain types of maritime tourism space and depend on some more subjective sailing and nautical conditions characterising a given sea area. These attractions depend on the peculiar 'sailing needs' of different groups of sailing tourists. Due to this the same area may be seen by different groups of tourists as more or less attractive. Two European water areas can be used as examples of such diverse evaluations namely: the Dalmatian Coast in Croatia and the waters of Northern Scotland. The former is considered a paradise for those seeking calm, easy and safe sailing in good weather conditions and nights spent in harbours and marinas. On the other hand, the waters of Croatia are much less appealing to those who seek a sailing challenge. They will prefer the archipelagos of Northern Scotland (the Shetland Islands, the Orkneys or the Hebrides) where navigation is much more challenging and where even in summer unfavourable hydrometeorological conditions are not uncommon.

6. The adaptation of sea areas to the needs of sailing tourism is connected primarily with sailing safety and the fulfilment of basic provisional needs of sailors. A more detailed description of various forms of maritime tourism space adaptation is included in a separate part of the article.

7. Accessibility of a sea area is largely determined by its geographical location. It is much more difficult to ensure access to areas which are located peripherally (in particular islands) in relation to the main

countries and/or regions from which sailing tourists come. The problem can be solved relatively easily in regions of high tourism potential, e.g. Balearic Islands or the Canary Islands, by setting up special flight connections. It can be, however, a serious obstacle for other regions which are equally attractive but have smaller potential, e.g. Malta, or which are located peripherally in relation to main source markets (e.g. South Pacific, Seychelles, Cape Verde Islands).

8. Location of a maritime tourism space in relation to other sea areas used by sailors – this criterion allows an assessment of a given area in the context of its relation to other areas used by sailing tourism; in this way it can be determined whether a given sea area is considered by sailing tourism a destination area or just an intermediate area (passage). Two (or more) neighbouring sea areas can attract more sailing tourists than either of them would on its own, e.g. Swedish South East coast (near Stockholm) and the Åland Islands, Scottish sea areas around the Shetland Islands, the Orkneys and the Hebrides.

9. Competition from other regions – an important factor which influences the possibility of the formation of a maritime tourism space – is the location of the area in question in relation to other areas with a developed function for providing services for sailing tourism. Various features can be taken into account, e.g. physical-geographical conditions, accessibility, prices and others.

Table 1. Factors influencing maritime tourism space and criteria for the evaluation of the needs of sailing tourism

Criteria for the evaluation of maritime tourism space	Factors influencing the formation of maritime tourism space	
	anthropogenic	natural
Sailing safety; Sailing and nautical attractions of sea areas	– sheltered harbours for sailing yachts	Natural (topographical) conditions in waterfront zone influencing the opportunity to build yachts, harbours and marinas
	– navigational signs; – search and rescue systems, navigational warnings and weather forecasts; – specialist sailing publications (charts, pilot books)	Natural conditions in sea area, including climatic-weather and hydrographical conditions influencing sailing safety and sailing attractiveness (nautical values)
	– use of a sea area by other vessels; – organization of traffic in a sea area; – presence of restricted areas and navigational obstacles	

Criteria for the evaluation of maritime tourism space	Factors influencing the formation of maritime tourism space	
	anthropogenic	natural
Sightseeing and recreational attractiveness of the sea area and seaside area	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – presence, rank and management of anthropogenic attractions; – adaptation of natural attractions 	Presence and rank of natural environment attractions
Adaptation of sea area and seaside area to the needs of sailing tourism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – functioning of marinas, harbours and other places of mooring 	Natural conditions influencing the possibility of creating a coastal infrastructure (bays, fiords, peninsulas, river mouths, others)
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – national and local regulations concerning sailing in a given sea area 	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – yacht charter offer 	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – level of prices of sailing and other basic services in marinas and harbours; – prices and availability of yacht charter 	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – promotion of the sailing tourism qualities of a region 	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – attitude of local communities towards tourism 	
Geographical location of sea area and seaside area		Geographical location of a given sea area in relation to other sea areas used by sailors
Accessibility of sea area and seaside area	Organization of passenger transport determining accessibility of given sea area	Distance from source markets and accessibility to sailors from these markets
Competition from other water areas	Marketing activities promoting sea area as attractive for sailors	Presence of competing sea areas

Source: personal findings based on BUTOWSKI (2010, p. 110).

3. EVOLUTION OF MARITIME SPACE TOWARDS THE FORMATION OF MARITIME TOURISM SPACE

When speaking about the development of the function of sea sailing tourism in relation to sea and seaside areas in which it is realised two main (in the genetic sense) stages of evolution can be distinguished: 1) sailing tourism as a primary function in a given area; 2) sailing tourism as a secondary function which replaces other functions present in a given area.

Sailing tourism as a primary function is usually developed on a so-called 'raw root', i.e. areas which have not been previously used by tourism and which do not currently have any other economic function. Introducing the new function of sailing tourism services to such areas is usually a result of deliberate spatial planning and following investment. In practice it can be realised on a small or on a large scale. In the first case it involves building (often spatially isolated) elements of sailing infrastructure in areas which at present do not have any economic function (e.g. building yacht harbours in Łeba and Puck). The second type involves managing larger areas (which have not previously had any significant economic function) by supplying them with a network of functionally tied objects and facilities to provide services for sailing tourism. An example of an activity on a large scale is the Dalmatian Coast of Croatia, where a network of ACI marinas providing services for sailing tourism was mostly created on previously unused land (e.g. Kornati National Park).

Sailing tourism as a secondary function involves replacing other functions in a given area. In recent decades, the economic functions of many areas (in particular some sea areas) are changing. Changes of this type can be clearly seen on European waters where previous functions (mainly fishery) have been to a large extent replaced by new types of activity, in particular sailing tourism (KULIŃSKI 2002, 2007, 2008, 2009). Such changes have occurred in Poland (e.g. Puck, Jastarnia, Gdańsk – Górkki Zachodnie, Kołobrzeg, Darłowo, Władysławowo), Denmark, France, Germany and Sweden. Wide-scale transformation of former fishing ports into marinas and yacht harbours in these countries confirms this general tendency.

An interesting situation can be seen on oceanic waters (intercontinental routes), where after the twilight of passenger ships sea yacht sailors have become the most numerous and in practice the only tourism users of these sea areas. In this sense, sea sailing tourism on oceanic waters is secondary in relation to previous forms of usage.

4. TYPES OF MARITIME TOURISM SPACE

From the perspective of sailing tourism, maritime tourism space (with connected seaside areas) can be divided into groups based on various criteria, such as distance from the coast, number of sailors, intensity and ways of adaptation. According to these criteria the following types of maritime tourism space can be distinguished:

1. Seaside tourism space (functionally connected with sailing tourism services): contains dwellings and

other parts of a settlement functionally tied to sailing tourism (accommodation in marinas, holiday homes, suites, condominiums near yacht harbours). Tourism space of this type often overlaps with space used by other types of seaside tourism and other non-tourism functions. In the genetic sense seaside tourism space can be either primary or secondary.

2. Waterfront tourism space: characterised by a concentration of various forms of sailing tourism infrastructure and services (marinas, yacht harbours, other accompanying services, e.g. yacht charters, boatbuilders, etc.). Tourism space of this type often overlaps with space used by other types of seaside tourism and other economic functions. In the genetic sense waterfront tourism space can be either primary or secondary.

3. Coastal tourism space (inshore): encompasses sea areas located in the vicinity of land (by convention up to 20 nautical miles from the coastline). It is intensely used by sailors and other 'tourism' and 'non-tourism' users (including ferry lines, cruising ships, fishing boats, cargo ships, naval ships).

4. Offshore tourism space: this constitutes an extension of the coastal zone towards open sea. It encompasses offshore sea areas (by convention up to 150 nautical miles from the coastline or shelter) which are used mainly by sailors and to a lesser extent by other users (ferry lines, cruising ships, fishery, cargo ships, naval ships).

5. Ocean tourism space: encompasses ocean areas (intercontinental), apart from sailors used also by cargo ships and deep sea fisheries. In terms of surface area, it constitutes the biggest part of maritime tourism space, but in practice it encompasses mainly certain characteristic parts of the oceans where conditions for sailing are favourable e.g. trade winds routes.

5. ADAPTATION OF MARITIME SPACE TO SAILING TOURISM

Maritime space is adapted to sailing tourism in order to fulfil all the functions that are typically ascribed to tourism infrastructure of a given area (*cf.* KOWALCZYK & DEREK 2010, ROGALEWSKI 1979, STYPEREK 2002). Tourism adaptation enables fulfilling the specific needs of sailors, in particular those connected with sailing safety (especially regarding small recreational vessels); at the same time it facilitates a specific perception of sea and land tourism attractions, promotes the preservation of tourism resources in a given area and allows for commercialization of these attractions. Moreover, adaptation of maritime space by sailing tourism contributes to an improvement of internal and external accessibility. It is beyond doubt that particular

structural elements of adaptation shape tourism space, in this case maritime space, both in terms of structure and function.

Elements of adaptation of maritime space which have an influence on the safety of sailing on small vessels are shelters (harbours; important are location and accessibility during bad weather); navigational signs, operating search and rescue systems, availability of weather forecasts and warnings, navigational warnings, availability of specialist sailing publications (charts, pilot books, guide books for sailors); organization of traffic on a given sea area (traffic regulations, coastal sailing zones).

The remaining needs of sailors as well as the perception and preservation of sea and land tourism attractions are realised by such adaptation as marinas, harbours and other places of mooring for small recreational crafts; specific sailing services; yacht charter offer; minimalization of barriers caused by national and local regulations concerning sailing on a given sea area (also for foreign sailors); marine and terrestrial national parks and other forms of preservation and promotion of natural resources. The perception of specific sailing attractions is ensured by the above-mentioned elements of adaptation connected with sailing safety. Commercialization of the sailing tourism resources of a given area is possible thanks to the services offered by marinas and harbours – services that are necessary for sailing tourism, e.g. yacht charter, shops selling specialist equipment, food, navigational instruments, boatbuilding services.

When analysing the intensity of the adaptation of maritime tourism space in relation to distance from coastline we may observe that the farther away from the coastline the less intense the adaptation. This rule is general and valid regardless of the real level of adaptation of a given space (Fig. 1).

Moreover, by applying this model and using *per analogiam* S. LISZEWSKI's (1995) conception concerning stages of the formation of tourism space, we can distinguish zones of maritime tourism space. For the sake of simplicity, the names of the zones have been borrowed from Liszewski without change and they are ascribed to the previously distinguished types of maritime tourism space. Thus, particular zones are as follows:

- exploration zone – corresponds to physical oceanic space; it does not contain any material elements of adaptation to sailing tourism. The intensity of sailing tourism is lowest (as a consequence of the size of the zone and distance from land).
- penetration zone – is located offshore, it (as a rule) does not have any material elements of adaptation to sailing tourism, although sporadically it may contain certain elements

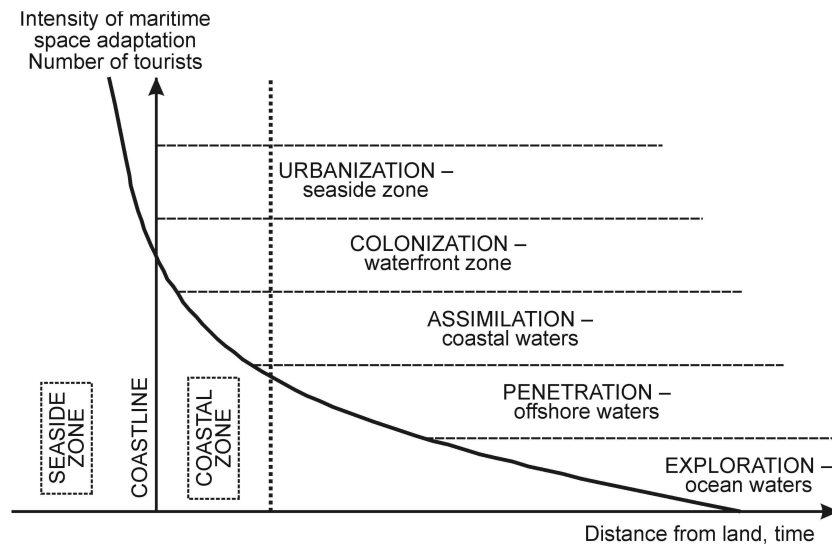


Fig. 1. Intensity of adaptation of maritime tourism space and number of tourists as a function of time and distance from coastline

Source: personal findings

- connected with sailing safety. The intensity of sailing tourism is low (the zone is vast and the distance from coastline is large).
- assimilation zone - encompasses coastal waters; because sailing tourism is intense within this zone, there are numerous and various forms of adaptation, which concern mainly sailing safety and protection of water and land.
- colonization zone - refers to water and land areas located directly at the coastline. In this zone numerous facilities which enable sailing tourism, such as marinas, harbours and accompanying services are located.
- urbanization zone - refers to land areas; it is characterized by the presence of dwellings and tourism accommodation in the immediate vicinity of marinas and ports (or even constituting an integral part of them). It is important to note that these dwellings appeared because of the functioning of the afore-mentioned sailing infrastructure¹.

It must be mentioned, however, that despite similarities to the model of S. Liszewski, maritime tourism space has different origins. In the process of the formation of maritime tourism space the first stages, in the chronological sense, are colonization and urbanization. As described earlier, both stages occur on areas (seaside and land respectively) which are located in the immediate vicinity of a coastline. At the same time they constitute the first stage of the transformation of maritime (sea and land) tourism zone - the first condition which needs to be fulfilled for other stages (concerning sea areas only), i.e. assimilation,

penetration and exploration² to appear. As we can see, the process is different from S. Liszewski's model of the transformation of tourism space, where the order of stages is reversed, from exploration to colonization.

It seems that this reverse order may be explained by the following premises: 1) the transformation of space towards tourism space is often in chronological terms, secondary, i.e. it concerns space which has been previously colonized and urbanized by other types of activity (functions), e.g. by a fishery; 2) if sailing tourism is to operate on a larger scale, it needs a base on land, therefore land needs to be properly adapted for the new functions, which means colonization and often urbanization; 3) the specific character of maritime space, in particular offshore and ocean, prevents stages other than exploration and penetration from occurring; exploration and penetration should be considered in this case secondary in relation to earlier stages (assimilation, colonization, urbanization) which appear on coastal waters and areas in the immediate vicinity of coastline.

A specific form of adaptation of maritime tourism space to sailing tourism, which concerns oceanic and offshore waters too, is the publishing of specialist charts, nautical publications, guidebooks and pilot books for sailors. In Europe, for example, the biggest number of such publications is offered by British publishers (Imray, Adlard Coles Nautical); their publications cover not only the waters of Great Britain and Ireland, but also other sea areas which are often visited by sailors³. Publications covering selected sea areas (Baltic, North Sea, the Mediterranean) by the German publishing house Delius Klasing are also

popular. These publications, depending on what areas they cover, employ various divisions which are based mainly on geographical and nautical criteria.

Table 2. Division of sea areas in selected pilot books covering European waters

Pilot book	Sea areas
Greek Waters Pilot	Northern Ionian. Corfu to Zákintos, Southern Ionian. Killini to Kithera, Gulf of Patras and the Gulf of Corinth, Saronic and Eastern Peloponnisos, Cyclades, Evia and the Northern Sporades, Northern Greece, Eastern Sporades, Dodecanese, Crete
Adriatic Pilot	Albania, Montenegro: Ulcinj to Boka Kotorska, Croatia: Molunat to Podgora, Croatia: Tucepi to Tribunj, Croatia: Murter to Rab, Croatia: Senj to the border with Slovenia, Slovenia, Italy: from Slovenia to Ancona, Italy: Numana to Manfredonia, Italy: Barletta to Santa Maria di Leuca
Corsica and North Sardinia	Bastia to Saint Florent, Saint Florent to Calvi, Calvi to Cargese, Cargese to Ajaccio, Ajaccio to Propriano, Propriano to Bonifacio, Bonifacio to Porto Vecchio, Porto Vecchio to Bastia, Alghero to Porto Torres, Porto Torres to Capo Testa, Capo Testa to Porto Cervo, Porto Cervo to Olbia, Olbia to Capo Comino
Italian Waters Pilot	Ligurian Coast, Tuscan Islands and adjacent mainland coast, Tyrrhenian Sea, Sardinia, Sicily, Ionian, Southern Adriatic, Malta
Cruising Guide to Germany and Denmark	German Bight, German Frisian coast and the Elbe, Scheswig-Holstein and Jutland west coast, Nord-Ostsee Kanal and the Eider river, Jutland east coast and Lille Bælt, Limfjord, South Fyn and Store Bælt, South Sjaelland and the Sound, Germanic Baltic coast and Bornholm (Denmark)
North Sea Passage Pilot	Cromer to Orfordness, Orfordness to the Naze, the Naze to Foulness, Thames Estuary, Straits of Dover, French and Belgian coast, Schelde delta, Noord and Zuid Holland

Source: personal findings.

Another 'virtual' form of the adaptation of offshore and oceanic waters to the needs of sailing tourism are weather forecasts and the navigational warnings broadcast for particular sea areas by radio, including for instance NAVTEX system, and by search and rescue systems using satellites.

FOOTNOTES

1. According to a definition by B. MAZURKIEWICZ (2004) a marina is a yacht harbour together with complementary settlement which includes hotels and suites, shops, bars, cafeterias, restaurants and all other functions that are required by temporary and permanent inhabitants; a yacht harbour is a complex of mooring berths, hydrotechnical port buildings, land buildings and technical units which provide a safe stay and service for recreational vessels; other places for mooring such as mooring berths (and anchorages) for recreational vessels which provide basic services for sailors.

2. In some areas, in particular those which are protected because of natural resources, the entire process consists of four stages: rudimentary colonization, assimilation, penetration and exploration. The stage of urbanization is not permitted. This is the case with for instance the Galápagos Islands or the Kornati in Croatia.

3. Among several dozen British publications covering European sea areas diverse in terms of location and size are: *Reeds Nautical Almanac*, *Shetland Islands Pilot*, *South and West Coasts of Ireland*, *The Yachtsmans Pilot to North and East Scotland*, *The Channel Islands*, *North Sea Passage Pilot*, *Cruising Guide to the Netherlands*, *Cruising Guide to Germany and Denmark*, *Atlantic Spain and Portugal*, *Mediterranean Cruising Handbook*, *Corsica and North Sardinia*, *Italian Waters Pilot*, *Adriatic Pilot*, *Greek Waters Pilot*.

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Małgorzata Durydiwka
mdurydiw@uw.edu.pl
Katarzyna Duda-Gromada
kduda@uw.edu.pl
University of Warsaw
Department of Tourism Geography and Recreation

INFLUENCE OF TOURISM ON THE SPATIAL DEVELOPMENT OF SEASIDE RESORTS: SELECTED ASPECTS

Abstract: The paper presents the main trends in the development of seaside resorts worldwide and in Poland. Particular attention is called to the spatial aspects of this development. Based on their morphological differentiation, two forms of seaside resort in Poland can be distinguished: locations with a clearly heterogeneous spatial-functional structure, in which areas used for tourism are adjacent to others; and locations with a heterogeneous spatial-functional structure in which the tourism function is, to a certain extent, spatially isolated.

Keywords: seaside resorts, spatial development, tourism function, development of tourism facilities.

1. INTRODUCTION

The Baltic seashore is undoubtedly one of the most attractive tourism regions in Poland. Thanks to its wide sandy beaches, coastal dunes and forests stretching behind the dunes, the region was already visited by tourists in the late 19th c. As a result of the development of tourism in seaside towns, not only their socio-economic function changed, but spatial development occurred as well. Numerous research studies show that the development of seaside towns undergoes several stages resulting in the development of areas farther removed from the seashore. In recent years, on the other hand, one can observe that some elements of tourism development, mainly large accommodation facilities, are being constructed next to the shore itself. Therefore, tourism development is entering areas valuable for the natural environment: stabilised dunes and dune sands. The purpose of this study is to present the main directions of the tourism development of seaside resorts in Poland (based on selected examples), with particular emphasis on contemporary processes which influence the formation of tourism space in these resorts.

2. CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SPATIAL DEVELOPMENT OF SEASIDE RESORTS WORLDWIDE

Tourism is a complex and multi-faceted phenomenon, causing various natural, economic, social and cultural as well as spatial consequences. The main factor in spatial change is the process of the development of tourism facilities whose purpose is to adapt space for the needs of tourism. The intensive process of tourism development in specific areas globally since the 1950s for mass tourism, has contributed to spatial change in many places (MIKA 2007, p. 458). These changes are particularly apparent in seaside towns, especially small ones which are more prone to all kinds of change, due to their density of tourism facilities (WARSZYŃSKA & JACKOWSKI 1978).

In general, seaside resorts have been established in places which were previously fishing villages or small ports, and their main tourism facilities were a pier and a beach with sea bathing. In their vicinity, usually along a promenade, hotels, pensions and catering facilities were built. Near the accommodation facilities, parks with numerous gazebos and fountains were established. In the late 19th c., on the other hand, sport and recreational facilities were created more often (for instance tennis courts), and in larger towns, racetracks, golf courses, concert halls and theatres

(KOWALCZYK & DEREK 2010). In the 19th c. the largest number of seaside towns transformed into resorts were in such countries as Great Britain (e.g., Brighton, Blackpool, Scarborough), France (e.g. Cannes, Menton, Trouville), Germany (Heiligendamm, Kühlungsborn, Heringsdorf), and Italy (e.g. Rimini, San Remo). The characteristic features of 19th c. seaside resorts were, according to A. KOWALCZYK & DEREK (2010), a similar spatial-functional layout and a similar architectural style of private residences, hotels, and public buildings.

But the most intensive process of tourism development, and therefore of spatial transformation, was observed in 1950-80, mostly as a result of leisure time increase and the development of the use of the car. It was the Mediterranean basin, in particular the coasts of France, Italy, and Spain, that was then the fastest growing tourism region in the world (KUREK 2007); the typical resorts created at that time were Port-Camargue, La Grande-Motte and La Cap d'Agde in France; Benidorm, Torremolinos and Marbella in Spain; and Positano and Bibione in Italy. It was also a time of very intensive development of tourism facilities in other world regions, in particular Hawaii and the Caribbean (often in the form of so-called vacation villages). In some countries, newly created centres took on the character of tourism enclaves (e.g. Hurghada and Al Gouna in Egypt).

As regards the tourism development of seaside areas, this period is often marked by the creation of urbanized areas stretching in a narrow strip along the shore and by chaos in the development (Cazes *et al.* 1993, after KOWALCZYK & DEREK 2010), which is exemplified in the linear development of almost 100 km of the Costa del Sol in Andalusia or in Languedoc-Roussillon.

The main criterion determining tourism development was land rent. This is evidenced by the results of an analysis of the spatial development of an individual seaside resort. Usually, several stages are distinguished characterised by the development of areas located increasingly farther away from the shore. A good example is Benidorm (Fig. 1) where accommodation facilities were first created in the mid-1950s, and the investment boom occurred in 1967-73 when high-rise hotels and apartment complexes, often more than 10 storeys tall, were built in the immediate neighbourhood of the beach (KOWALCZYK & DEREK 2010).

According to A. KOWALCZYK & DEREK (2010), the majority of seaside resorts created in the 1950s and 1960s, were developed without an earlier spatial development plan. This had an important impact on the transformation of the seaside landscape, which was evident in the gradual development of coastal zones at the expense of forested areas. Moreover, the

development of tourism facilities in the seaside zone brought in many cases an almost complete isolation of the sea from areas for which the sea was previously a characteristic landscape feature (WARSZYŃSKA & JACKOWSKI 1978). Thus were created urbanised seaside resorts with their characteristic high-rise buildings (e.g. Benidorm and Torremolinos in Spain), which in the literature are picturesquely described as 'coastal walls' (French: *murailles littorales*) or 'Manhattan resort' (French: *Manhattan balnéaire*).

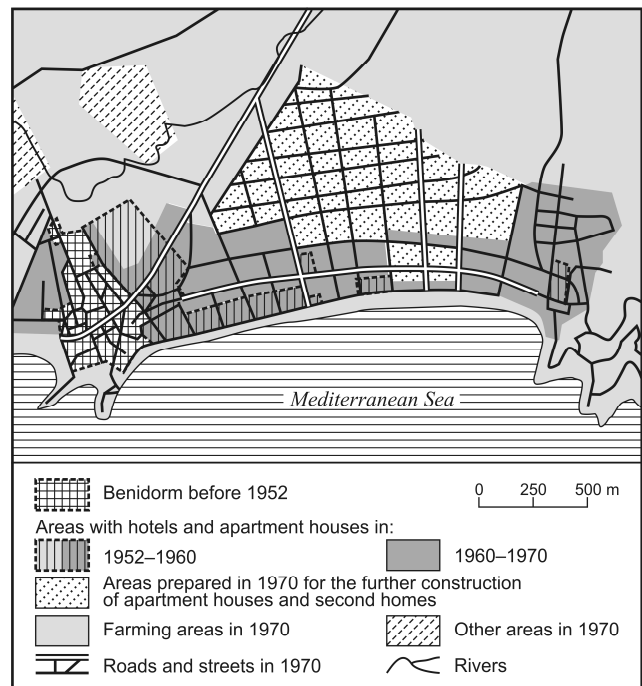


Fig. 1. Tourism development in Benidorm (Spain) in 1970
Source: A. KOWALCZYK, M. DEREK (2010, p. 74)



Photo 1. A hotel in the Corralejo Dunes National Park
(Fuerteventura, Spain)

Source: www.riu.com/es/Paises/espana/fuerteventura/clubhotel-riu-oliva-beach-resort/index.jsp (25.03.2012)

The intensive development of tourism in coastal areas in the 1990s and the early years of the 21st c. was

the cause of the further expansion. Often, this proceeded onto environmentally valuable areas, especially onto dunes and sands, an example of which is the construction of two large hotels on the dunes of Corralejo in Fuertaventura (Photo 1).

3. SELECTED ASPECTS OF THE SPATIAL DEVELOPMENT OF SEASIDE RESORTS IN POLAND

Seaside resorts have played a very important role in the development of tourism in Poland and the Baltic seashore is one of its most attractive tourism regions. At the same time, it is a region characterised by a very high intensity of land use for recreational purposes and the largest density of visitors per unit area. This is particularly true for the beach strip, where – according to T. LIJEWSKI, B. MIKUŁOWSKI, J. WYRZYKOWSKI (2002, p. 273) – on a sunny day, the density of visitors often exceeds 1000 per hectare (Photo 2). This density is thus comparable to that of the population in large, high-rise housing estates. This is confirmed by direct measurement of holidaymakers on the beach in Rowy on 11 and 13 July 2005 by JAŻEWICZ (2006). On those days, around 3500 were recorded.

The popularity of seaside regions is evidenced also by the values of the Baretje & Defert and Schneider indices. In 2012, they were, for the gmina¹ of Władysławowo, 738.7 beds per 1000 inhabitants and 9375.4 overnight visitors per 1000 inhabitants, while for the Jastarnia community, 1238.4 and 17462.2, respectively (www.stat.gov.pl).



Photo 2. Crowded beach in Władysławowo during the so-called 'long weekend' in June 2006
Source: photo M. Durydiwka

The first seaside resorts began to be created in Poland fairly early. Already by the late 16th c. development had begun in Sopot, in the 18th c. in Kołobrzeg,

and in the 19th c. in Świnoujście, Międzyzdroje, Krynica Morska and Dziwnów. But in the majority of seaside towns, tourism was developed during the period between the two world wars, in form of so-called holiday centres or spas (e.g. Jastarnia, Władysławowo, Chałupy, Rewal), and in some others, as late as after World War II (e.g., Mielno, Rowy, Dąbki). We can therefore distinguish, depending on the time when tourism began, three groups of seaside tourism centres (DZIEGIEĆ 1991):

- centres which have existed for a long time (over 150 years);
- centres in which tourism began in the inter-war period, thus having a tradition of over 70 years;
- new centres following World War II.

Three fundamental factors influenced the development of the tourism function in seaside localities in Poland. First, an attractive sandy seashore with its characteristic coastal dunes and a strip of forest behind them. This type of seashore along such a long stretch can be found in only a few European countries (LIJEWSKI *et al.* 2002). The second, a stimulating climate, often moderated by compact forest areas, which strengthens the human body and has a beneficial influence on the action of the respiratory and circulatory systems. An additional asset is the high level of iodine and ozone in the air. Third, the occurrence of mineral springs (mostly sodium chloride, bromine, iodide) and of peat pulp and peloids, the discovery of which significantly influenced the development of the spa function in such towns as Kołobrzeg, Dziwnów and Ustka.

Seaside towns in Poland have been formed mostly as a result of evolutionary transformations of previously existing settlements. According to S. LISZEWSKI (2002), the development of these towns consists of three phases. The first one is related to the influx of those arriving for the purpose of recreation; the local economy is still dominated by traditional activities (fishing, farming). It means that at this stage of development, there is practically no investment in the development of tourism facilities whatsoever. The second phase is related to a change in the economic basis, which – as a result of the growing influx of tourists – is transformed from a fishing or farming village into a resort where tourism-related services become a more important factor in the employment structure and the income of the local population. In this phase, the first tourism-related investments occur; they mark the presence of the tourism function in the town morphology. The third phase is related to the growing affluence of the local population who gradually invest more in the construction of tourism facilities. This process often attracts outside investors as well. More and more often, large tourism facilities are built, resulting in a permanent transformation of the town morphology. An example is the village of

Rowy where development began soon after WWII, but the process of developing tourism facilities has accelerated in the last two decades. Nowadays, this locality is one of the most dynamically growing seaside gminas in Central Pomerania, evidenced by the fact that in 1991-2007, 189 building permits were issued there for the construction of holiday homes and other housing (RYDZ & JAŻEWICZ 2009).

The development of the tourism function in seaside resorts has therefore an important impact on their spatial development. E. DZIEGIEĆ (1995) points out several fundamental aspects of spatial change. First, it is related to changes in the capacity and appearance of housing adapted for tourists. This process was particularly evident on the Hel Peninsula where the traditional countryside settlements are preserved, but new accommodation facilities, stylised and often of rather 'foreign' appearance were being built (LISZEWSKI 2002). A characteristic feature of the tourism development of seaside resorts in Poland was the creation of holiday centres (in particular 1960-80) owned by FWP (Employees' Vacation Fund, a state-owned institution organizing subsidised vacations for state employees)². Usually, these were large-capacity facilities or campsites, often located at a distance from the central district of the town, and forming a kind of enclave.

Second, spatial transformations related to the development of tourism settlements are often connected with the expansion of the existing spatial system or with the creation of new districts or areas with characteristic spatial layouts. As shown by analyses of pre-war maps, most of the villages from that time were fishing and farming settlements, while there were few typical tourism resorts (ŁABUZ 2002). For instance, in 1915 in Mielno there were practically no facilities for tourists. Nowadays, it is one of the best known seaside resorts in Poland. Another example is Ustka. According to W. SZYMAŃSKA (2012), tourism-related areas have been very important for the development of this town. Investments into permanent tourism developments there are very varied spatially, in 2010, there were 40 accommodation facilities for tourists (not counting rooms in private houses), of which the most numerous were holiday centres (15) and hotels (14). Tourism facilities are concentrated mostly in *Ustka Wczasowa Wschodnia* and *Stara Ustka*. Next to the development of tourism facilities and the building progressing there, worth noting is the share of areas with tourism-related services (Fig. 2), since they are derived from the tourism function of the town (SZYMAŃSKA 2012). In 1998, service areas had an insular character and were strictly connected with the tourism located directly behind the beaches, mostly in the eastern part of the town. In the following years, the expansion of service

areas took place: their scope expanded, but the layout remained similar. In the areas primarily for tourism,

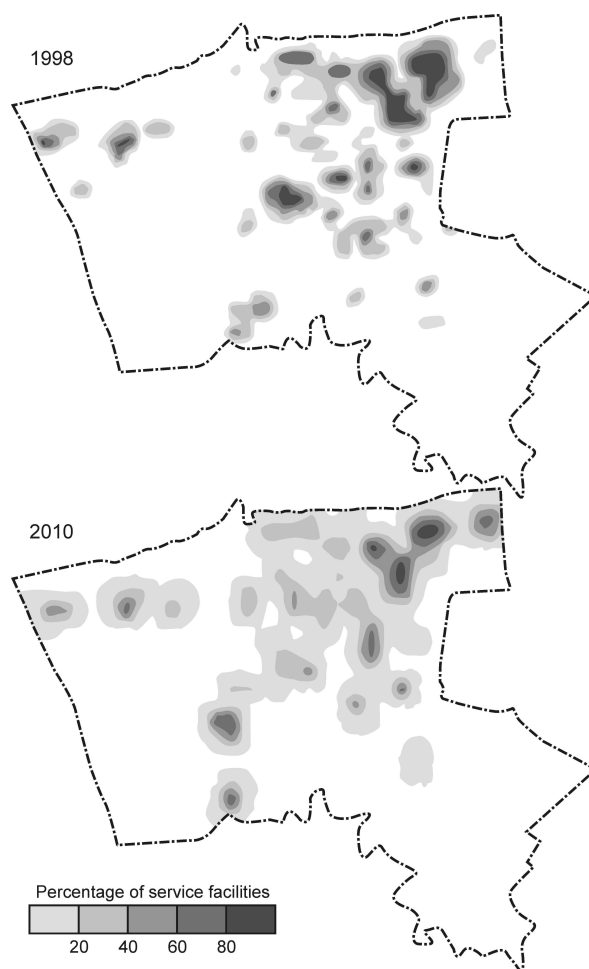


Fig. 2. Layout of service facilities in Ustka in 1998 and 2010
Source: W. SZYMAŃSKA (2012, p. 227)

service areas consist mostly of accommodation and catering facilities. This situation occurs in *Ustka Wczasowa Wschodnia* and *Ustka Wczasowa Zachodnia*.

Third, spatial transformations of seaside resorts are related to the creation of a new, tourism- and recreation-related form of land use. The clearly tourism-oriented districts of seaside towns, such as *Hallerowo* in *Władysławowo*, are an example of this. They are often created as a result of building over forest or farmland. Nowadays, in many seaside areas (e.g. on the Hel Peninsula, on the Vistula Spit, or in *Władysławowo gmina*), the surface area of investments significantly exceeds the allowed capacity; as a result elements of tourism facilities are located on dunes and flat areas on the Bay of Puck side of the peninsula (KISTOWSKI & KORWEL-LEJKOWSKA 2005). An example is the construction of the apartment-hotel complex '*Gwiazda Morza*'³ in *Władysławowo* (*Hallerowo*) (Fig. 5A), *Dom Zdrojowy Jastarnia* (Fig. 5B), the apartment



Photo 3. Location of the apartment and hotel complex 'Gwiazda Morza' in Władysławowo (A) and of Dom Zdrojowy Jastarnia in Jastarnia (B)
Source: www.twojdomnadbaltykiem.pl, www.zdrojowy.com.pl



Photo 4. Location of Villa Ibiza (A) and Jeanette Apartments (B) in Rowy
Source: www.noclegi.pewniaki.pl, www.apartamentyjeanette.pl



Photo 5. Illegal dumping of sand on the Polaris campsite in 2007 (A) and an artificially created beach on the Solar campsite in 2009 (B) in Chałupy
Source: J.M. WĘŚLAWSKI *et al.* (2011, pp. 18 i 26)



Photo 6. Expansion of the campsite area by dumping of sand on the Solar campsite in Chałupy
Source: J.M. WĘŚLAWSKI *et al.* (2011, p. 42)

complex *Playa Baltis* in Międzyzdroje, and the Baltic Park complex in Świnoujście consisting of 12 buildings. These facilities are all large and high quality, located on a strip of stabilised dunes and in the direct neighbourhood of a forest complex.

In smaller towns, accommodation facilities are also built in very close proximity of the sea, but they are usually smaller and of lower quality. Examples of such facilities are Villa Ibiza (Photo 4C) and Jeanette Apartments (Photo 4D) in Rowy, located on the dune strip and directly surrounded by a pine forest.

A somewhat different situation occurs on the Hel Peninsula. This is an exceptional region as regards its natural environment and therefore very attractive for tourists. As mentioned earlier, tourism is very intensive in the summer season which often results in an uncontrolled and extensive expansion of tourism facilities. In the period from November 2003 through to August 2004 only, 94 decisions concerning development and construction on the Hel Peninsula were issued, most of which were permits for development and the construction of tourism facilities, especially in Chałupy, Jastarnia and Jurata (KISTOWSKI & KORWEL-LEJKOWSKA 2005).

Unfortunately, on the Hel Peninsula, increasingly often actions can be observed leading to the development of tourism infrastructure which violate existing regulations and are hazardous for the natural environment. Examples of such actions are the dumping of sand and soil onto campsites on the Bay of Puck side of the peninsula, to expand the campsites or to create a beach (Photos 5-6). The sand is extracted from the shore, which is in danger of undergoing erosion from the open-sea side, and moved to the protected areas: brackish⁴ wetlands and reed beds. This way, on some campsites, a beach 30-40 metres wide has been created (WĘSŁAWSKI *et al.* 2011).

In general, according to A. SZWICHTENBERG (2001), in almost the entire post-war period, there has been a constant expansion of investments onto the most valuable environmental areas, that is, onto dunes and the seaside pine forest. The exceptionally fragile sea-shore structures and the processes occurring on them, natural habitats which are not very resilient to use by tourists, require that some pressure be taken off the seaside zone. Increasingly often, the necessity of reducing the intensity of seaside resorts is being raised.

4. SUMMARY

As a result of the growth of tourism, resorts have been created on the coastal areas in Poland, with a fairly well developed tourism function. Most of them are in

the form of latitudinal strips in direct proximity of the shore. This settlement pattern is characteristic for most seaside towns worldwide. On the other hand, what distinguishes to some extent Polish resorts from the long linear zones of tourism developments characteristic for some stretches of the Mediterranean, are the fairly wide zones between them. This is beneficial both for the natural environment and for conditions of recreation (SZWICHTENBERG 2001).

Based on the morphological differentiation within individual seaside resorts in Poland, however, we can distinguish two basic forms. The first comprises centres with a clearly heterogeneous spatial-functional structure, in which facilities (areas) used for tourism are adjacent to other facilities (areas). These are usually resorts with a moderately developed tourism function, which lack, as a rule, large tourism facilities, including accommodation. This means that the accommodation structure is dominated by rooms in private houses or small pensions, and the spatial layout of the town has not been transformed as a result of the development of the tourism function. Another group, more numerous nowadays, consists of centres with a heterogeneous spatial-functional structure, in which the tourism function is, to a certain extent, isolated (e.g. Jastarnia or Hallerowo in Władysławowo). These are localities with a clearly developed tourism function, in which the growing demand for tourism services is forcing the development of new areas, often of ones which are environmentally valuable and prone to human pressure.

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Eugeniusz Rydz

Pomeranian University in Słupsk
Institute of Geography and Regional Studies
rydz@apsl.edu.pl

THE DIVERSIFICATION OF TOURISM SPACE IN CENTRAL POMERANIA

Abstract: The paper presents issues of the formation and diversification of the Central Pomeranian tourism space. The author conducted an analysis of tourism accommodation facilities and tourism assets, which allowed him to identify a number of functional subspaces within the Central Pomeranian tourism space. Particular attention was paid to recreational tourism in coastal and lake areas, as well as to selected aspects of agritourism and the role of spas in Central Pomerania.

Key words: Central Pomerania, tourism space, spa treatment, recreational tourism.

1. INTRODUCTION

The turn of the 21st c. was marked by an unusual rate of transformation which influenced all areas of life. One is tourism which has been developing very rapidly compared to other similar phenomena. This development, as regards demand and supply, is strongly related to spatial expansion, while the spatial changes caused by tourism are best visible in areas of tourism reception. The growing amount of free time, typical of post-industrial society, often referred to as leisure society, as well as a general increase in affluence, curiosity about the world and the improving accessibility of many places, as yet unexplored, result in a growing interest in new spaces. More and more areas are acquiring qualities typical of tourism spaces.

For the purpose of the discussion presented in this article, the author will use the definition formulated by S. LISZEWSKI (1995), which has been supplemented and expanded several times, as well as the definition of tourism space presented by B. WŁODARCZYK (2009). S. LISZEWSKI (1995) describes tourism space as a "functionally distinctive part (subspace) of general geographical space, i.e. a space consisting of natural elements of the Earth's crust (natural environment), permanent elements of human activity in this environment (economic), as well as the human environment in its social meaning".

Tourism space understood in this way is a functionally distinctive subspace of geographical and social

space, and the reasons why it was created and developed include the need for recreation, cognition and experience, the attributes of modern tourism (LISZEWSKI 1995). Thus, it may be assumed that this space was created by people who use the geographical and social environment for tourism purposes, discover and develop it to satisfy their need for recreation, cognition and experience.

The main aim of the paper is to present the diversity of the internal structure of Central Pomeranian tourism space. On the one hand, the author will identify the natural and anthropogenic determinants of tourism development; on the other hand, a lot of attention will be devoted to tourism infrastructure and traffic. Taking into consideration the complexity of the Central Pomeranian tourism space, some aspects of spa tourism and seaside tourism will be presented, with a particular consideration of recreational tourism.

2. NATURAL ENVIRONMENT AS A TOURISM DEVELOPMENT STIMULANT

Central Pomerania, which includes the medium-sized former Koszalin and Słupsk voivodeships, covering the total area of 15,923 km², extends over the middle part of South Baltic Coast/*Pobrzeże Południowobałtyckie* (Słowińskie Coast/*Wybrzeże Słowińskie*, Bialo-

gard Plain/*Równina Białogardzka*, Słupsk Plain/*Równia Słupska*, Damnicka Upland/*Wysoczyzna Damnicka*), as well as the northern part of the Pomeranian Lake District/*Pojezierze Pomorskie* (Lobeska Upland/*Wysoczyzna Łobeska*, Drawskie Lake District/*Pojezierze Drawskie*, Drawska Plain/*Równina Drawska*, Polanowska Upland/*Wysoczyzna Polanowska*, Bytowskie Lake District, *Pojezierze Bytowskie*, Szczecineckie Lake District/*Pojezierze Szczecineckie*) (KONDRACKI 1994). Taking into account the physiographic conditions in the studied area, we may identify three basic types of landscape: the plains in the south, formed by outwash plains and ground moraine, the varied landscape of terminal moraines and other young postglacial formations in the middle part, and the ground moraine plain area in the north, cut with *Urstromtäler* (AUGUSTOWSKI 1977).

Due to the glacial character of the relief, the large number of lakes, the sizable forested area and the coastal location, Central Pomerania has considerable tourism potential, with the seaside areas being particularly attractive. Their attractiveness is determined first of all by the following natural environment elements:

- the wide, sandy beach,
- maritime climate and balneological assets,
- considerable exposure to sunlight, clean air,
- protected areas (a national park, landscape parks, nature reserves, monuments of nature, etc.),
- therapeutic mud and mineral water deposits.

When analyzing the tourism attractiveness of the natural assets of Central Pomerania, one should men-

tion the lake areas. The large number of rivers, the wealth of post-glacial landforms, a healthy microclimate, large forest complexes, and above all numerous lakes, make it possible for specialized tourism (fishing, hunting, water sports) to develop.

The diversified tourism attractiveness of Central Pomerania has been confirmed by a comprehensive tourism valorisation¹ (Fig. 1). After estimating tourism assets, infrastructure and accessibility by transport by means of a point-based ranking method, and after calculating the tourism attractiveness coefficients of individual *gminas* (communes), it turned out that the most attractive were the seaside *gminas* and those located in the southern part of the Central Pomeranian lake region.

3. ACCOMMODATION FACILITIES

The number of tourism accommodation facilities has been commonly regarded as the basic measure of tourism infrastructure, and the main indicator of the reception capability of the region (WŁODARCZYK 2009). In 2012, in the area of Central Pomerania there were 647 facilities, which offered 84,600 beds². The accommodation facilities, located in 22 towns (71.0%) and 43 *gminas* (66.2%), were clearly seasonal (64.4%) and distributed unevenly (Fig. 2). Natural environment qualities which contribute to tourism development in Central Pomerania are found in two different areas: in the coastal zone and in the lake region. The greater tourism-recreational attractiveness of the natural coastal environment was the reason for the highest concentration of accommodation facilities in the coastal zone. In the coastal zone, a classic bands and nodes system of tourism accommodation distribution is found; the areas between individual elements of tourism investment are not strongly anthropogenic and include cultural and natural elements (SZWICHTENBERG 2006). An exception is the eastern part of the Central Pomeranian coastal zone, with individual nodes of concentration. The seaside area consists of the following tourist regions: Dźwirzyno-Grzybowo-Kołobrzeg-Sianożęty-Ustronie Morskie, Gąski-Łazy, Dąbki-Darłowo, Wicie-Jarosławiec, Dębina-Rowy, Smoldzino-Gardna. Single concentration nodes are formed at Ustka and Łeba. The most attractive part of the area for tourists offered 75,800 beds (89.6% of the total number). The administrative units with the largest numbers of beds included: the city and *gmina* of Kołobrzeg (19,400 beds), the rural *gmina* of Mielno (13,300), the towns and *gminas* of Ustka (10,500), Darłowo (10,200) and Łeba (8,800), and the *gminas* of Ustronie Morskie (6,900) and Postomino (4,100).

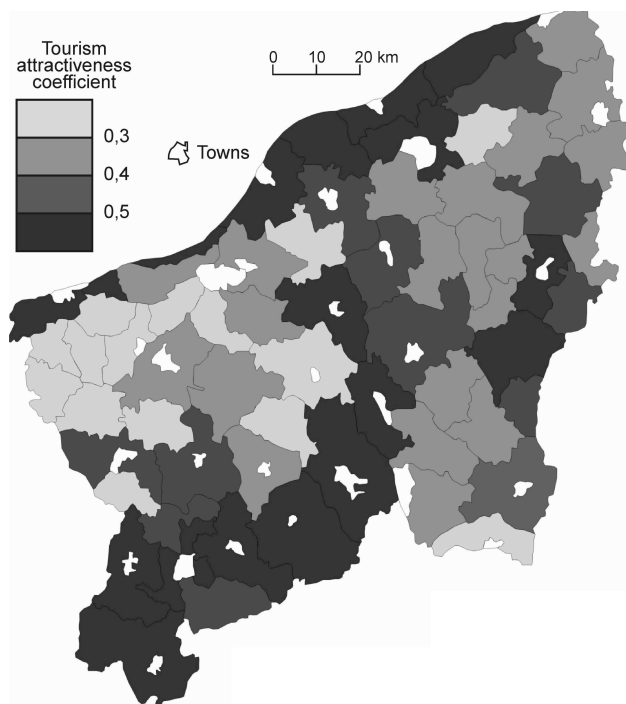


Fig. 1. The attractiveness of Central Pomerania: 2004
Source: E. Rydz (2007, p. 18)

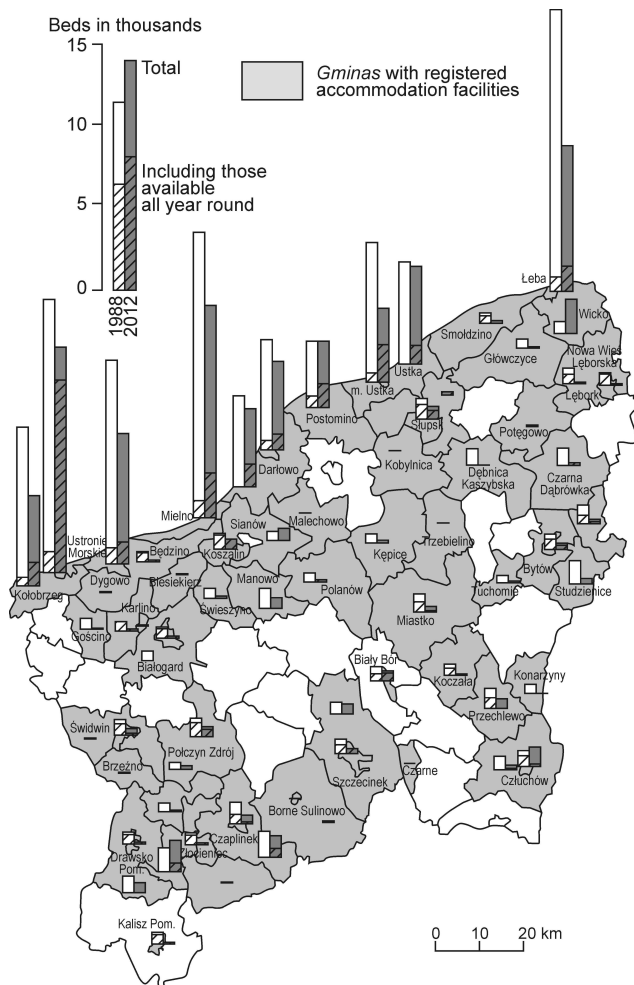


Fig. 2. Accommodation facilities in the *gminas* of Central Pomerania: 1988 and 2012

Source: author's compilation

There are basically two lake-forest areas in Central Pomerania: Drawskie Lake District/*Pojezierze Drawskie* and Bytowskie Lake District/*Pojezierze Bytowskie*, as well as a part of Krajeńskie Lake District/*Pojezierze Krajeńskie*. The Drawskie Lake District is the area of the largest concentration of lakes in Pomerania, with about 320 ribbon and ground moraine lakes, covering over 1 ha (KONDRACKI 1994). Its visual-landscape attractiveness is heightened by the largest and picturesquely situated lakes: Drawsko, Lubie and Wielimie, around which tourism accommodation and concentration nodes have been formed. They are made up by: the towns and *gminas* of Złocieniec (1600 beds), Czaplonek (900), and Drawsko Pomorskie (300). The other tourism region includes Bytowskie Lake District, with a considerable number of relatively small lakes. Tourism accommodation facilities are found in the town and *gmina* of Bytów (400 beds), the *gmina* of Studzienice (400), the town and *gmina* of Miastko (300) and the *gmina* of Parchowo (300). An isolated tourism region in the southern part includes the town and

gmina of Człuchów (1400 beds) and the *gmina* of Przechlewo (600).

Research shows that the forms of tourism accommodation in Central Pomerania are greatly varied, but still the majority of beds are offered by holiday recreation centres (40.8%), situated mainly in the coastal zone. Just four coastal towns provided a total of 9700 beds (2000 in Kołobrzeg, 2700 in Darłowo, 1500 in Ustka, 3500 in Łeba).

Summer tourism accommodation of the lowest standard includes youth hostels and camp sites. In 1988, they made up 15.1% of the whole accommodation, while in 2012 – only 13.2%. The smaller number of beds is the result of the decreasing role of youth hostels (a drop from 1.8% in 1988 to 0.2% in 2012). Spatially, however, we may observe a growing number of beds at school youth hostels in the region, functioning mainly in the Drawskie Lake District, and are used mostly by school and university students during hiking trips and on sailing camps.

The accommodation facilities of the highest standard include hotels, motels and pensions. Over the past 20 years, the number of beds in hotels and motels has doubled. It is partly due to increasing the standard of already existing facilities, usually holiday recreation centres, as well as to building new ones.

Generally speaking, Central Pomerania has a poorly developed network of hotels, which function mainly in seaside towns. The main role is played here by Kołobrzeg, which offers 3600 beds in hotels, i.e. 42.4% of the whole hotel accommodation in Central Pomerania. A new element of the tourism accommodation structure in this region is agritourism accommodation. We should stress at this point that until the early 1990s, it was the enormous farms created from former State Agricultural Enterprises (*Państwowe Gospodarstwa Rolne* – PGRs) that played the predominant role in agriculture. The liquidation of PGRs was one of the causes of mass unemployment and the functional reconstruction of the countryside. You can often find historical palaces in villages which formerly belonged to PGRs, e.g. the palace-park complex in Strzekęcín, called the 'Amber Palace'. A stimulus for the economic revival of many micro-regions was agritourism – a form of rural tourism developing at farmsteads. According to the Institute of Tourism, in 2009, agritourism activity was found on 455 farms, while in 1996 there had been only 193 such places (RYDZ 2007). Jointly, they offered 5110 beds. Agritourism in Central Pomerania develops mainly in the seaside *gminas*, largely depending on the attractive natural and landscape environments.

The other region with a large number of agritourism accommodation facilities is the Lake District area. The region of Drawskie Lake District, across Szczecineckie Lake District, as far as Kaszubskie Lake

District, has the largest density of agritourism farms and the largest number of beds.

Private rooms to let are an important part of tourism infrastructure in Central Pomerania and a significant element of tourism accommodation on the coast. However, it seems impossible to estimate a credible number of beds in guest rooms, due to the incomplete and unreliable reports. Numerous studies, conducted as a part of field practice done by social-economic geography students, confirm that the number of beds is significantly under-calculated.

4. RECREATIONAL TOURISM

According to A. MATCZAK (1987), tourism is a social phenomenon which basically involves a change of the place of stay; the main motivation is the need to rest and the main object is a person who has the possibility to choose the place of recreation, its forms and organization, to suit his/her interests, physical predispositions and financial means.

In the light of registered collective accommodation facilities, in 2012, nearly 1.1 million tourists stayed in Central Pomerania, 4.9% of recorded tourism in Poland. They were mostly Polish tourists, and they made up 80.5% of all tourists in Central Pomerania.

The largest tourist centre, situated directly on the Baltic Sea, was Kołobrzeg, with 349,000 tourists, i.e. 31.7% of the total number in the region. The most intensive is recorded in the coastal zone, which has been confirmed by Charvat coefficients (Fig. 3).

The second most important tourism region is the Lake District. In comparison to the seaside area, tourism here is relatively low and less concentrated, making up only 7.5% of the total in Central Pomerania (JAŻEWICZ 2011). The main centres of this region are its towns: Szczecinek (12,500 tourists), Bytów (10,300), Połczyn Zdrój (7,400), Czaplinek (6,900), Człuchów (5,900) and Złocieniec (5,600).

On the other hand, the study concerning the average time spent in Central Pomerania, allowed us to indirectly define the forms and character of visits. The mean duration in the coastal zone was 6.7 days, which shows that it is tourism based on a single place. In the Lake District zone it is shorter and ranges between 2.6 days in Biały Bór to 4.8 days in the *gmina* of Złocieniec. As shown by E. RYDZ (2007) and A. SZWICHTENBERG (2006), a certain drawback of tourism in Central Pomerania is its seasonality. An analysis of the seasonality of tourism-recreation in the area of Central Pomerania, conducted using both direct and indirect methods, points to one specific tourist season – summer with a clear domination of

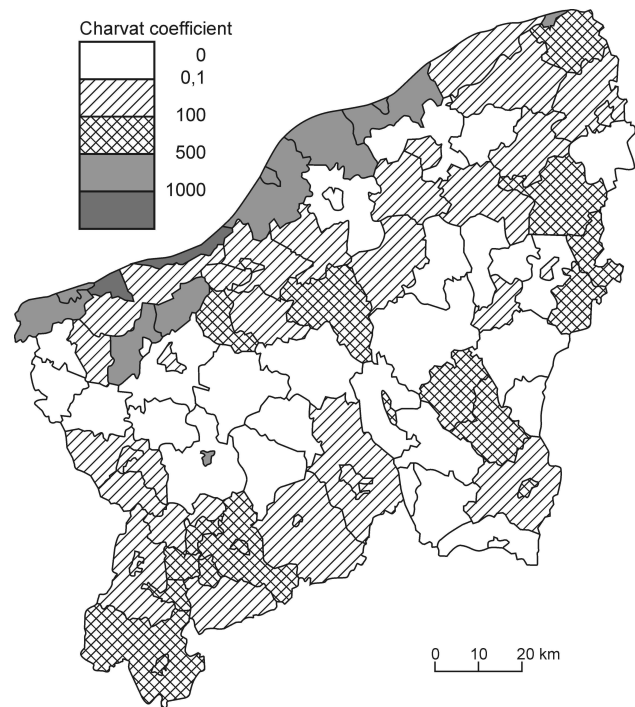


Fig. 3. Tourism intensity in Central Pomerania in 2012:
Charvat coefficient
Source: author's compilation

July and August. This seasonality is determined by the climatic conditions on the south coast of the Baltic Sea.

The importance of the tourist function in a given area is also shown by its geographical range of influence. In order to present the role of the holiday-recreational function in Central Pomerania, the territorial origins of tourists were analysed, using examples of tourist destinations in the *gmina* and town of Darłowo. The area was visited by both Polish and foreign tourists. The majority of foreigners were Germans and Scandinavians; smaller numbers came from Austria, Ukraine and the Netherlands. Polish visitors arrived from all Polish voivodeships, mostly from those situated in the western and central-southern parts of Poland, as well as from the mazowieckie, opolskie and małopolskie voivodeships.

5. SPA MEDICINE

With its wealth of natural assets with medicinal properties, mineral water springs, microclimate, etc., Central Pomerania is undoubtedly an exceptionally attractive and unique area, not only in Poland. As regards seaside spas (Kołobrzeg, Dąbki and Ustka), we should mention the stimulating nature of the bioclimate. A particular feature of the coastal climate is the presence of aerosols consisting of sea salt crystals

of iodine, produced by breaking waves. Optimum conditions for inhaling natural sea aerosols are provided when the wind blows from the sea and when it is foggy, while the quantity decreases with distance from the sea shore (KOZŁOWSKA 2009). The medicinal properties of the maritime climate are intensified by the forest complexes in the area. From the bioclimatic point of view, it is very important that many plants produce phytoncides – volatile chemical substances (essential oils) with germicidal and fungicidal properties, exuded by pine, larch, lime, oak and juniper. In the coastal zone of Central Pomerania, the most common is pine with its strong medicinal properties. An undeniable asset of seaside spas is climate- and water-therapy. Thalassotherapy (Gr. *thalasse* – sea), i.e. treating patients through a maritime climate, was already known in ancient Greece. Doctors' observations supported by clinical studies, proved the considerable usefulness of the sea and its climate in treating many chronic conditions (STRABUSZYŃSKA-LUPA 2009). The available materials show that thalassotherapy in Poland has a long tradition, as the first pools were built in as early as the beginning of the 19th c.: Kołobrzeg (1803), Sopot (1823), Świnoujście (1824), Ustka (1835), Krynica Morska (1840), and later Dąbki (1958).

Among lakes and forested moraine hills, in the middle of Drawski Landscape Park, we find the oldest spa in Central Pomerania – Połczyn Zdrój (1793). The lack of heavy industry, a low population density and abundant, wild nature make the Drawskie Lake District one of the ecologically cleanest areas of our country. A thick wall of forest, air saturated with the smell of resin, the abundance of lakes, and the location in the valley of the Wogra River give the local microclimate medicinal properties. For the most part of the year, the air has optimum humidity, and there are many sunny days. Strong winds are scarce and the annual temperature ranges are relatively small.

The most precious natural resources in the area are high quality therapeutic mud and saline waters. The therapeutic mud extracted from the high moraine hills is described by experts as one of the best in Europe. Połczyn Zdrój is one of the few spas in Poland where therapeutic mud is extracted on the spot; it does not have to be transported and processed, so it retains all the valuable medicinal properties. Połczyn saline water is drawn from about 1200 metres and contains a wealth of natural mineral elements. Due to the fact that it contains bromine, chlorine, iodine, calcium, potassium, magnesium, sulphur and a number of other elements, it is used for inhalation and medicinal baths.

At present, the spas of Central Pomerania offer treatments for twelve types of health problems, included in the International Statistical Classification

of Diseases and Related Health Problems (ICD10), and they largely correspond to clinical specializations. At the end of 2010, the majority of treatments were provided by spas in Kołobrzeg (11), Świeradów Zdrój (11), Świnoujście (10) and Ciechocinek (10). Kołobrzeg also belongs to the group of spa *gminas* with the largest number of spa medicine facilities in Poland – 27 at the end of 2010, and is closely followed by Ciechocinek, with 22 facilities.

The high status of the Central Pomeranian spas is also proved by the fact that in 2000-10 they had the following types of medical facilities: spa hospitals, spa sanatoriums, natural therapy centres, and spa outpatient clinics. In-patient facilities included sanatoriums for children. In 2010, 7500 patients under 18 years of age were treated in Kołobrzeg and Dąbki (49.0% of the total for Poland) – 5100 in Dąbki and 2500 in the spa hospital in Kołobrzeg. In comparison, at the largest facility of this type in Poland – Rabka Zdrój – 6000 children were treated at the same time.

The importance of the four 'statutory' spas in Central Pomerania is undoubtedly confirmed by the fact that at the end of 2010 they offered not only a wide spectrum of treatments, but also a total of 8381 beds in spa medicine facilities. This made up 22.2% of the total number of beds in the 44 Polish spa medical facilities in the same year.

Another measure of the considerable potential of the spa medical facilities situated in the area is the total number of patients, which amounted to 145,066 in the same year, i.e. 25.3% of all the people using the services of spa medical facilities all over Poland. The most popular is Kołobrzeg, where in 2010, sanatoriums were visited by 104,396 patients, i.e. 79.1% of all those treated in Central Pomeranian spas.

As regards the number of beds in sanatoriums and the number of patients, major Polish spas also include Połczyn Zdrój, Dąbki and Ustka. In Dąbki, situated on the sand bar between the Baltic Sea and Lake Bukowo, the main assets are the healthy microclimate, breath-taking nature, vast forested areas, the wealth of unique specimens of seaside fauna and flora, therapeutic mud deposits, a golden beach, a beautiful lake and total tranquillity.

The importance of Central Pomeranian spas is confirmed by the fact that in 2010, 4,759,400 treatments were administered here, i.e. 15.7% of the total number in Poland (Table 1). I believe that the fact that over the period of 2005-10 the number of places in sanatoria was steadily growing is positive. The number of beds increased by 22.3%, compared to a mean national increase of 8.2%. The number of patients increased by over 31.9%, while in other spa medicine facilities that increase was less spectacular (4.0%). The number of person-days in Central Pomeranian spas increased by over 15.2%, while in the remaining 40 spas – by 7.4%

(PONIKOWSKA 2009). The more rapid increase in the number of patients than the number of person-days in Baltic spas shows that the mean duration of stay decreased. This is confirmed by the results of research conducted by E. RYDZ (2005) in Kołobrzeg. On the one hand, this may be explained by the increasing popularity of shorter stays (often for the weekend) for a variety of purely medicinal purposes, as well as for SPA & Wellness treatments. On the other hand, we must not ignore the significant share of foreign patients (mainly from Germany and Scandinavia). Foreign patients usually prefer 2-week stays. Research shows that in 2010, 26,200 out of 42,200 foreign patients staying in Polish spas (c. 62.0%) chose Kołobrzeg as the main place of stay. Foreigners made up 26.9% of all patients staying for treatment in Kołobrzeg.

Table 1. Basic data regarding spa medicine facilities in Central Pomerania: 2005 and 2010

	Beds – as of 31 st December	Inpatients	Persondays of treatment in thousands	Treatments in thousands*
Poland – total:				
2005	34 894	550 789	9 315,9	30 698,9
2010	37 760	572 885	10 010,8	30 244,5
Central Pomeranian spas total:				
2005	6 784	109 938	1 846,3	4 789,3
2010	8 381	145 066	2 130,2	4 759,4
including:				
Dąbki				
2005	698	4 496	225,3	359,7
2010	799	14 155	195,2	383,1
Kołobrzeg				
2005	4 561	83 458	1 233,4	2 953,0
2010	5 966	104 396	1 496,7	3 127,1
Połczyn Zdrój				
2005	890	13 769	227,4	1 046,1
2010	960	17 296	258,4	807,1
Ustka				
2005	635	8 215	160,2	430,5
2010	656	9 246	179,9	442,1

* Data as of 2009.

Source: Spa medicine in Poland in 2005-2010. Statistical data and materials. Central Statistical Office. Statistical Office in Krakow, Krakow 2011; author's compilation.

The potential of Central Pomeranian spas also lies in the large number of natural therapies, which include mineral and natural mud baths, as well as inhalation. The conditions presented earlier, provided by the natural environment and local infrastructure, fully confirm that these therapies have become a brand product of the spas under discussion. They

offer 20% of the total number of treatments of this kind nationally, and the demand for traditional, natural medicinal products is growing, as they are the most trusted by patients. The popular natural therapies available in the spas, especially in Połczyn Zdrój and Kołobrzeg, include therapeutic mud treatments.

The youngest of the spas, Dąbki, due to its special location protruding into the open sea, has a highly favourable maritime climate, helpful in treating respiratory system diseases and allergies in children and adults. Therefore, inhalations make up over 85% of the total number of natural therapies for patients here.

In the coastal zone of Central Pomerania, based on rich natural resources with medicinal properties, as well as a particular type of climate, there are numerous 'statutory' spas, holiday-rehabilitation centres (e.g. in Jarosławiec) and destinations which provide selected medicinal services as a part of health prophylaxis (e.g. Dźwirzyno, Ustronie Morskie, Mielno, Łeba). People staying at destinations which have a holiday-rehabilitation function, take advantage of biological regeneration, hydro-massage, purely medicinal treatments, but also SPA and Wellness centres

Central Pomeranian spas are a major attraction for domestic and foreign tourists alike. People are becoming increasingly interested in this method of spending their leisure time, so spas have good prospects for development.

6. SUMMARY

The results of the analysis of quantitative data (accommodation facilities) on the one hand, and qualitative data (types of tourism assets) on the other, confirm that tourism space of Central Pomerania is internally diversified, with distinctive functional subspaces. As shown by the article, the importance of these subspaces varies, if we consider the development of tourism infrastructure, intensity of tourism and tourism assets. The most significant is recreational tourism, developing mainly in seaside areas, mostly based on places with a periodically changeable functional structure. Recreational tourism in the lake area plays a less important role and tourism nodes are by isolated lakes of a typically seasonal character. An extremely important role in Central Pomerania is played by agritourism, as it creates a chance to revive post-socialist farming areas. A particular role in Central Pomeranian tourism space is played by spa medicine, the economic basis of destinations functioning throughout the year. The growing interest in spa tourism among Polish and foreign patients forms strong foundations for the development of this activity in Central Pomerania.

FOOTNOTES

¹ In order to calculate the tourist attractiveness for *gminas*, J. WARSZYŃSKA's method was applied (1970).

² The source material used for analysis comes from the Local Data Bank, www.stat.gov.pl. The registered tourist accommodation facilities certainly do not present a realistic picture, there are significant discrepancies between statistical office and field studies. However, due to the size of the studied area, the registered accommodation facilities were taken into account.

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Translated by Ewa Mossakowska

Dariusz Sokołowski

Nicolaus Copernicus University in Toruń
Department of Spatial Management and Tourism
sokol@umk.pl

DEVELOPMENT OF TOURISM IN A COASTAL *GMINA* IN TERMS OF OBJECTIVE DATA AND THE INHABITANTS' OPINIONS: THE EXAMPLE OF THE *GMINA* OF KROKOWA

Abstract: Tourism is often seen as an important factor in local development. The good or relatively good financial standing of tourist *gminas* and their inhabitants is usually emphasised while the positive impact of tourism on the development of infrastructure and other effects generally seen as favourable. What is less often emphasised are the problems associated with the development of tourism. The purpose of this article is to recognise the consequences of tourism development in a *gmina* of high tourism and recreation value and set them against the opinions of its inhabitants.

Keywords: tourism, local development, coastal areas.

1. INTRODUCTION

The role of tourism in local development is often overestimated. Numerous studies prepared on request of local government treat tourism as a way to reduce unemployment, a source of income for the population and budget, a stimulus to infrastructural development, a way to obtain external financing sources, etc. Is such optimism supported in the Polish context? Discussion of this view is the main objective of this article.

A rural *gmina* was selected as a case study due to its special prerequisites for the development of leisure tourism and the high number of tourists. It was assumed that in this type of administrative unit it will be easy to confirm the benefits of developing a specific function. It will also be possible to show whether the positive role of tourism is overestimated and if its negative consequences are also visible. Research in the *Gmina* of Krokowa, which occupies the western part of the *Powiat* of Puck in the Pomorskie *Voivodeship*, was based on (comparative) data from the Central Statistical Office (GUS), the Krokowa *Gmina* Offices, the *Powiat* Labour Office (PUP) in Puck, and questionnaire surveys conducted among *gmina* inhabitants¹. The main objective of the questionnaire was to set the objective data (statistics) against the perception of tourism by the local community.

The development of a specific type of economic function is usually associated with complex interactions and consequences, both positive and negative. In the case of tourism one can observe its impact on economic, spatial and social spheres. If the impact of a particular function on the environment is strong enough, and it can manifest itself too in its impact on the conditions and quality of life of residents. The limited space of this paper does not allow for a detailed examination of these issues, and therefore some will be presented simply to provide an overview.

2. IMPACT OF TOURISM ON THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE *GMINA* OF KROKOWA

2.1. ECONOMIC AND FINANCIAL EFFECTS

The impact of tourism on the local economy is usually multi-dimensional. First of all, tourism stimulates the local markets in accommodation, catering, shopping, transportation, along with cultural and entertainment services, thus creating new jobs, as well as providing a source of budget revenue and household income in

tourism resorts (cf. GOŁEMBSKI 2002, CZERWIŃSKI 2006). The consequence of tourism development is the reduction in importance of other activities, in particular agriculture, observed both in the transformation of the employment structure, as well as changes in land use (a significant portion of agricultural land has been used for housing, services and infrastructure). What is also worth noting is the decreasing importance of fishing which in the past played a significant role in some coastal towns and villages.

A manifestation of economic activity in the *gmina* is the number of registered businesses in its territory (Fig. 1). From the beginning of the transformation it has been growing rapidly (from 271 in 1995 to 970 in 2012), but with some fluctuations in 2001-07. In 2012, the ratio of registered businesses reached 915 per 10 000 inhabitants and is higher than for rural areas in the Pomorskie Voivodeship (794) and for rural areas in Poland in general (686).

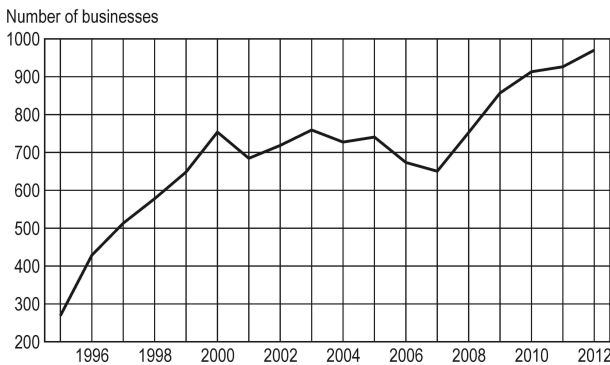


Fig. 1. Changes in the number of businesses in the *Gmina* of Krokowa

Source: compiled by the author on the basis of the GUS data

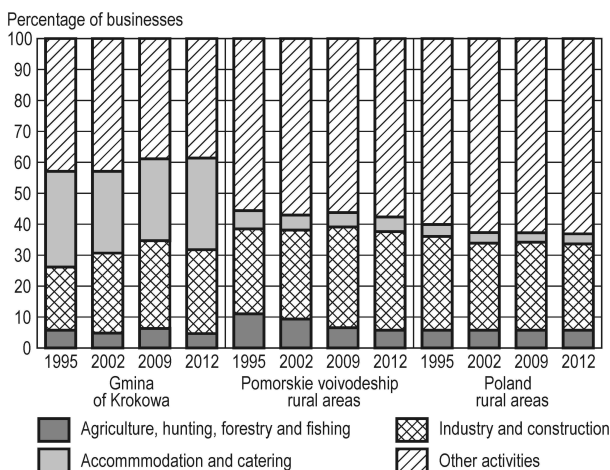


Fig. 2. Changes in the business structure in the *Gmina* of Krokowa relative to comparative areas

Source: compiled by the author on the basis of GUS data

The registered business structure clearly shows the important role of tourism in the *gmina* (Fig. 2). The

proportion of businesses included in Section I (accommodation and catering) of the 'Polish Classification of Activities' (PKD 2007) is about 30% of the total (31.0% in 1995, 26.8% in 2002, 26.3% in 2009, 29.8% in 2012).

According to the Krokowa *Gmina* Offices, 361 businesses (43.4%) are registered in Section I, of which 276 operate in the field of accommodation and 85 in catering services (November 2012). The corresponding changes are illustrated in Figure 3.

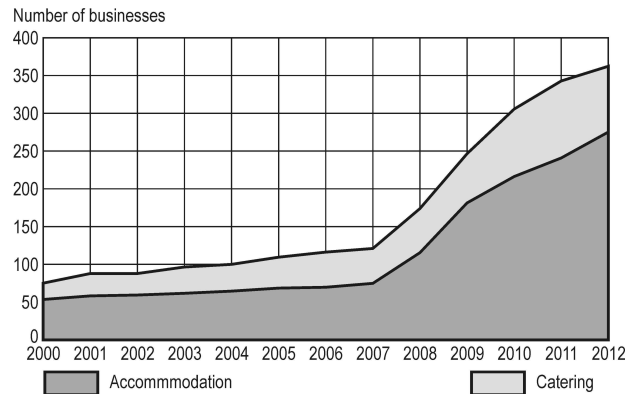


Fig. 3. Changes in the number of business entities registered in the Section I (PKD 2007) in the *Gmina* of Krokowa

Source: compiled by the author on the basis of data from the Krokowa *Gmina* Offices

Activities related to tourism generate revenue for the *gmina* budget mainly from taxes on corporations and individuals, as well as local taxes. European Union grants are an important component of budget revenue whose aims include the development of tourism.

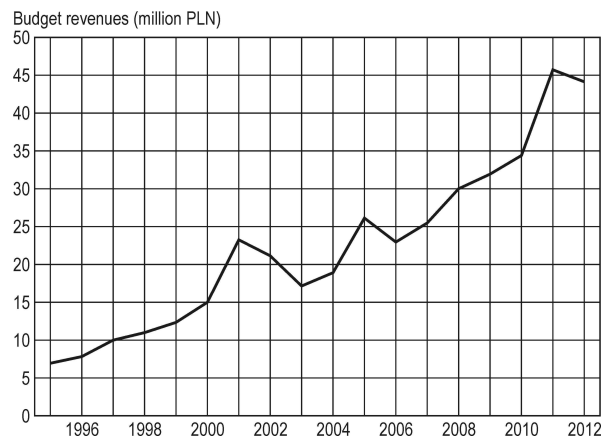


Fig. 4. Changes in the budget revenues of the *Gmina* of Krokowa (million PLN)

Source: compiled by the author on the basis of GUS data

The growth of budget revenue for the *Gmina* of Krokowa is high (Fig. 4). In 1995-2012 it reached an average of 11.6% annually, but this is similar to the national (11.1%) and voivodeship (12.7%)² levels. It is

difficult to demonstrate total budget revenue related to tourism as some of them are 'hidden' in various taxes and fees. Direct revenue from the local tax has increased in recent years by about 100% (115 000 PLN in 2007, 242 000 in 2011, about 210 000 in 2009, 2010, 2012), but this is only 0.5% of the *gmina* budget. Some idea of the scale of the stimulating impact of tourism can be shown by a comparison of the size of the budget per inhabitant to corresponding figures for Poland, *voivodeship* and *poviat*, against the background of which the *Gmina* of Krokowa looks favourable (Fig. 5).

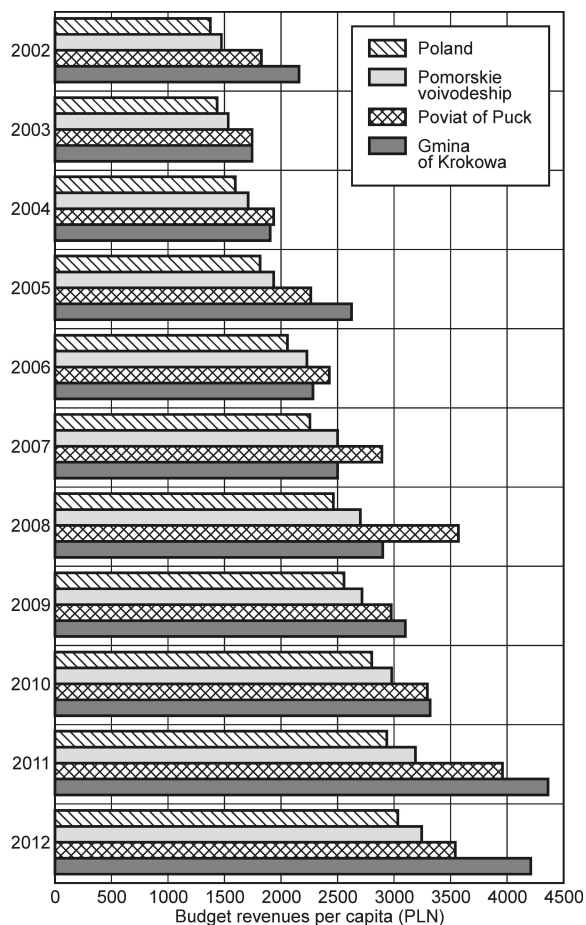


Fig. 5. Changes in budget revenue for the *Gmina* of Krokowa per capita (PLN) against comparative areas (excluding towns with *poviat* rights)

Source: compiled by the author on the basis of GUS data

2.2. IMPACT ON THE LABOUR MARKET

The above-average entrepreneurship of *gmina* residents and favourable development conditions affect the level of unemployment. Their number has undergone significant long-term as well as seasonal changes. In 2000-12 it ranged (as of the end of the year) from 855 to 267 and seasonal fluctuations are illustrated in Table 1. In most years (2010-12) unemployment de-

creased during the summer by about 100 compared to winter months³. This is due to the increased demand for seasonal work, mainly in hotels, catering and trade.

Table 1. Unemployed in the *Gmina* of Krokowa by months

Month	Year			
	2009	2010	2011	2012
January	324	455	481	514
February	349	491	489	532
March	367	479	477	527
April	361	477	427	490
May	359	423	397	457
June	354	387	362	431
July	345	338	322	407
August	345	337	337	403
September	385	394	387	444
October	377	410	408	428
November	393	425	416	444
December	413	448	455	494

Source: data from the *Poviat* Labour Office in Puck.

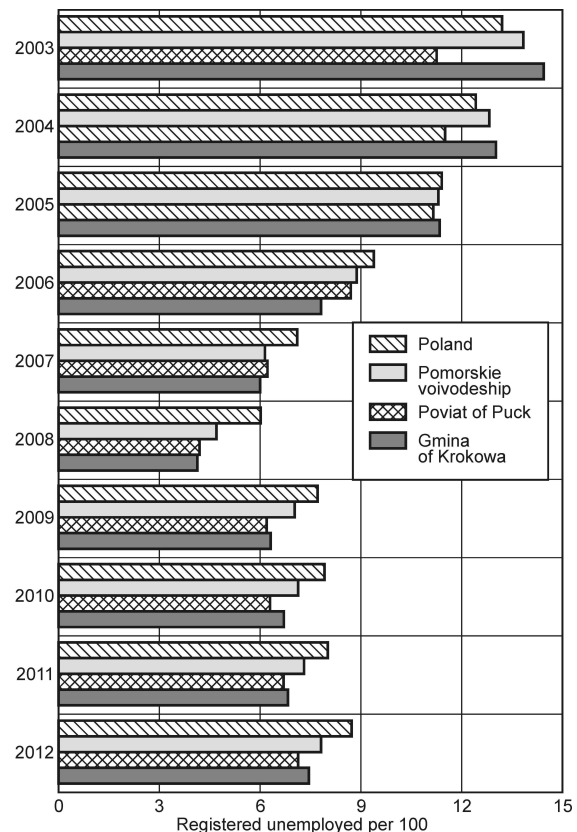


Fig. 6. Registered unemployed per 100 (at age of productivity) in the *Gmina* of Krokowa against comparable areas

Source: compiled by the author on the basis of GUS data

Changes in unemployment in compared administrative units are clearly correlated with each other (similar trends) however, a relative improvement can be observed in the *Gmina* of Krokowa since 2006 when unemployment was lower than both the country as a whole and the *voivodeship* (Fig. 6).

2.3. SPATIAL EFFECTS (INFRASTRUCTURE, TOURISM FACILITIES, ARCHITECTURE)

Spatial transformation under the influence of tourism is not only manifested in land use change, but also through the development of infrastructure. This contributes to the development of various sectors of the economy and an improvement in living conditions and quality of life for all *gmina* residents (cf. RÓŻYCKI 2006).

Funds for infrastructure investments come from the *gmina's* own funds and various grants, mainly from the European Union. According to the Krokowa *Gmina* Offices, at the end of 2012 the total subsidy from the EU was almost 45 million PLN, which puts the *Gmina* of Krokowa in fourth place out of 81 rural *gminas* in the Pomorskie *Voivodeship*. The total sum of the grants in 2010-12 was 21.7 million PLN. Most of these funds were spent on the construction of the sewage system (45.8%) and investment in education (12.3%). The share spent on tourism (fully or partly) was also significant (Fig. 7). The following investments should be mentioned: the construction of a bicycle path between Swarzewo and of Krokowa (6.0% of the grant), the construction of four marinas on Lake Żarnowieckie (12.4%) and an access road (locally called the 'promenade'), together with accompanying infrastructure, to the fishing port and the planned port service facility in Dębki (10.2%).

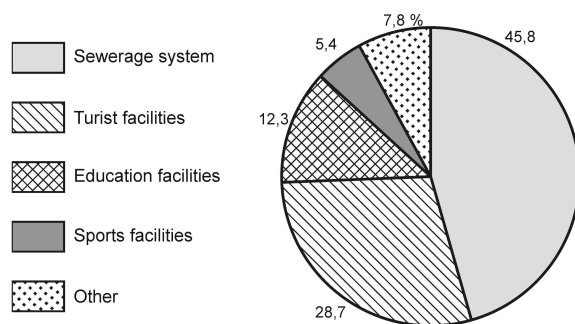


Fig. 7. Structure of EU subsidised investment in the *Gmina* of Krokowa: 2010-12
Source: compiled by the author based on data from the Krokowa *Gmina* Offices

In recent years there has been rapid increase in the 'tourism base' in the *Gmina* of Krokowa, including accommodation. In the period 2004-12 the number of places of accommodation⁴ (hotels or other) increased (according to GUS data) from 17 to 59, i.e. 3.5-fold, while nationally it was an increase by 36%, and in the Pomorskie *Voivodeship* by 59%. The number of beds in the *gmina* (with considerable annual fluctuations) by 85% (from 1026 to 1900), while nationally and in the Pomorskie *Voivodeship* the growth was 16% and 6%, respectively. The number of overnight stays increased

in the *gmina* by 69%, while nationally and in the *Voivodeship* by about 33% and 24%.

The development of the technical infrastructure and tourism facilities has been accompanied by another spatial manifestation of the impact of tourism – changes in building – which in particular has transformed the landscape. Scattered single-family housing has been consolidated and converted to buildings serving tourist functions. Not only the number but also the volume of buildings has increased; in seaside settlements three- or four-storey buildings dominate. The growth of construction in the *Gmina* of Krokowa is one of the highest in Poland (Fig. 8).

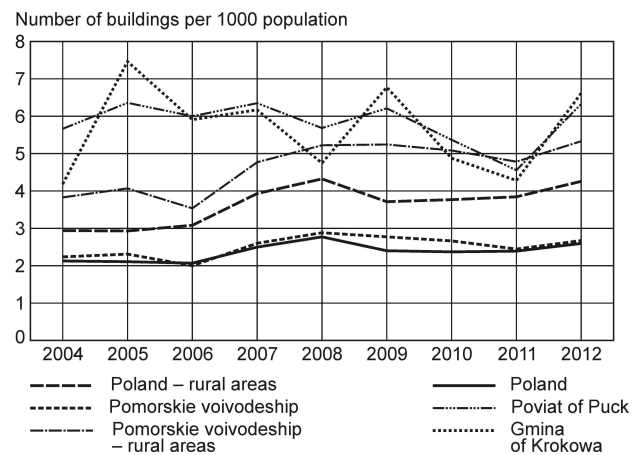


Fig. 8. New buildings put into use per 1000 population in the *Gmina* of Krokowa against comparable areas
Source: compiled by the author on the basis of GUS data

Intense development of settlements which do not possess local development plans contributes to architectural chaos and deepens the lack of spatial order. These effects should be placed on the 'cost side' (negative aspects) of tourism development.

2.4. ECOLOGICAL AND SOCIAL EFFECTS

Another negative manifestation of the development of tourism is its environmental cost. In the case of mass tourism such effects as increased noise and pollution (of land – garbage, water – sewage, air – mainly vehicle exhaust) are inevitable. In areas of high natural beauty, forests and dunes are often damaged as a result of tourists leaving hiking trails.

These effects of tourism are also visible in the seaside settlements of the *Gmina* of Krokowa. The most vulnerable to damage are the attractive areas, which are the main reason for the influx of tourists and the places of their greatest concentration. Frequently observed behaviour includes littering the coastal forest, burying waste and having bonfires on the beach, and climbing dunes. The *gmina* authorities also

contribute indirectly to the pollution of the most valuable areas by, for instance, permitting discos on the beach, an inadequate number of toilets and the lack of an adequate supervision of the behaviour of tourists (CHABOWSKA 2013). In efforts to maximise revenue, tourism management in accordance with the principles of sustainable development is extremely difficult, but – due to the desire to preserve the benefits of tourism for the future – absolutely necessary.

Tourism development also leads to some changes in the social environment. On the positive side is an increased sense of satisfaction of most inhabitants with the place where they live (this results in a relatively small emigration). Tourism also encourages the promotion of local culture, in this case Kashubian, by people who care about their language and traditions (MAJEWSKI & LANE 2001). Tourism development promotes cultural exchange, leading sometimes to conflicts, while these also arise between residents of the areas of tourist reception. These are generally caused by disparities in the distribution of profits from the development of tourism. Excessive tourism causes many difficulties in the daily lives of inhabitants, including lowered quality of services or traffic congestion which intensifies the side effects (such as an increase in the number of road accidents), and even dysfunctional effects (increased crime) (cf. Różycki 2006).

3. DEVELOPMENT OF THE *GMINA* OF KROKOWA UNDER THE INFLUENCE OF TOURISM IN THE OPINIONS OF THE INHABITANTS

The results obtained from questionnaires were influenced by the demographic structure and residence of the respondents. The contribution of income from tourism is greatest in settlements located near the coast, and decreases as we move inland. It is expected that the pattern of responses may vary depending on whether the respondents are also beneficiaries of tourism development or not – especially in financial terms. Therefore, it was assumed that it is appropriate to distribute the questionnaires in a relatively uniform manner in terms of respondents' residence, and cover a variety of ages. The answers were obtained from 276 people: 58% female and 42% male. The youngest respondents (18-25 years old) accounted for 23%, those in the following 10-year cohorts (26-35, 36-45 years old etc.), 20, 18, 15 and 13%, respectively, with the oldest (65+) at 11%⁵. The respondents resided in almost all of the settlements in the *gmina*, and those from the coastal villages (Dębki, Białogóra, Karwieńskie Błota I and Karwieńskie Błota II) were over-represented two-fold

(25% of the total, and 12.2% of *gmina* inhabitants). Given the goal of this survey, the questions concerned mainly social, economic and spatial issues.

3.1. OVERALL ASSESSMENT

Nearly half of the respondents assess the standard of living in the *Gmina* of Krokowa as good or very good, 31% assessed it 'average', and 22% ticked 'poor' or 'very poor'. It is difficult to comment on this because there is no comparable data. Overall satisfaction was expressed by a little more than two-thirds of the respondents, more than 10% indicated partial satisfaction (depending on the aspect), and a similar percentage – dissatisfaction (Fig. 9).

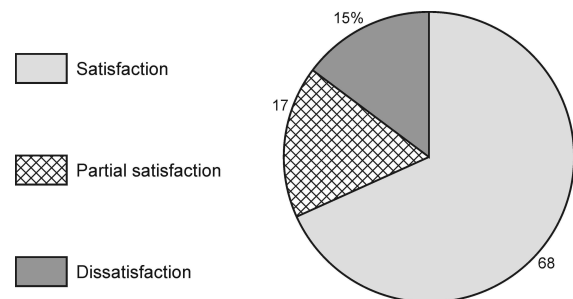


Fig. 9. Respondents according to their satisfaction with the development of tourism

Source: compiled on the basis of survey results

The pattern of answers to the question about the relationship of living standards to the development of tourism was similar: two-thirds claim that the standard of living had improved while in the opinion of 29% it had not changed, and less than 4% that it had decreased (Fig. 10).

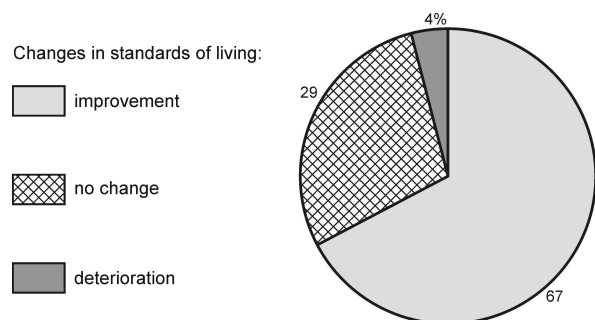


Fig. 10. Assessment of changes in standards of living in the *Gmina* of Krokowa connected to development

Source: compiled on the basis of survey results

Not all settlements equally participate in the benefits. Most respondents (71%) see a difference in living standards between those who live in coastal areas and the other inhabitants. It is worth noting the

existence of a certain correlation in the answers to these questions. Subjectivity of evaluation resulting from the possession of sources of income derived from tourism applies to only 26% (71 respondents). In this group, the majority (39) engage in activities related to accommodation, another 20 work in tourism seasonally, and some are engaged in other kinds of business. The location of the respondents' jobs related to tourism is in line with expectations. Most of them were employed in seaside settlements (Dębki, Białogóra, Karwieńskie Błota) – a total of 52 (i.e. 73% of those employed in the industry) in addition four worked in neighbouring *gminas*, and 15 in settlements farther away from the sea (Sławoszyno, Żarnowiec, Odargowo, Minkowice).

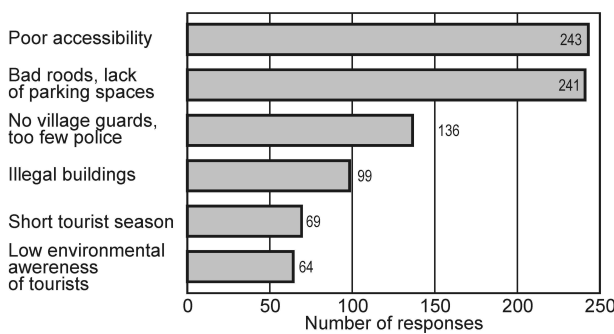


Fig. 11. Disadvantages of the *Gmina* of Krokowa (according to number of responses)
Source: compiled on the basis of survey results

Interesting answers were provided to the question about the 'disadvantages of the *gmina*', taking into account both the negative consequences of tourism development and the factors that inhibit or impede its development. The number of responses exceeds the number of respondents due to the possibility of multiple choices (Fig. 11). Almost all agreed that the biggest problem is poor accessibility as well as the poor condition of roads and lack of parking spaces. Quite common is a feeling of a lack of adequate order and security; a feeling of a lack of attention to spatial order (the existence of illegal buildings); as well as the low environmental awareness of tourists. Among the less frequently mentioned problems noteworthy is an indication of a lack of entertainment during bad weather, the low number of recreational facilities and poor cultural offer.

3.2. SOME DETAILED ASSESSMENTS

One of the questions (YES/NO) was based on the preparation of the *gmina* for the increasing number of tourists, and then on the support given for it in their answers. Only 40% expressed an affirmative opinion. These people often point to the quantitative develop-

ment of tourist accommodation (56 responses), the development of the *gmina* including its infrastructure (16), or the increase in the number of tourist attractions, mainly cultural events (11); some people did not support their opinions with arguments. Figure 12 shows the answers most frequently given to justify a negative opinion.

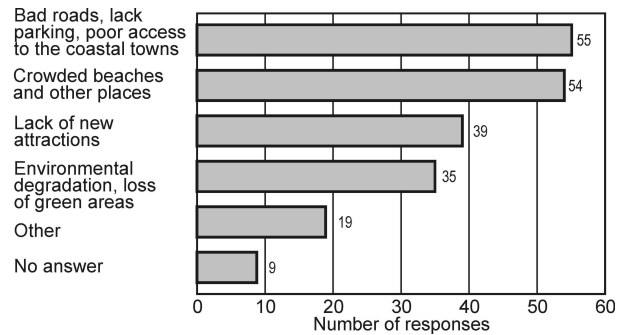


Fig. 12. Justification for the negative assessment of the *gmina*'s preparedness to receive an increasing number of tourists (according to number of responses)
Source: compiled on the basis of survey results

Despite a larger number of negative opinions, the majority of respondents see certain actions taken by residents and *gmina* authorities as contributing to the attractiveness of the *gmina* for tourists. Answering an open question they pointed out several such investments and other activities, including the construction of a cycle path (64 respondents) as well as the expansion of accommodation and catering services (47). Fewer pointed to new cultural events, improvements in water and sewage infrastructure and roads, the construction of jetties on Lake Żarnowieckie and the promenade in Dębki, new playgrounds, etc. As many as 35 did not perceive any new investments in the *Gmina* of Krokowa.

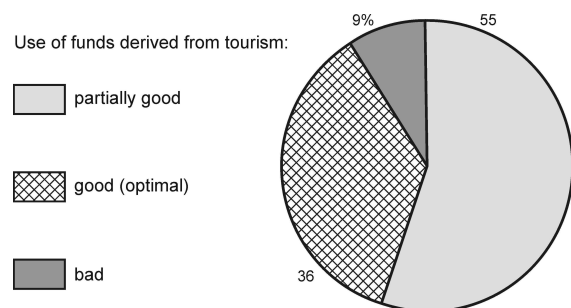


Fig. 13. Opinions on the appropriate use of funds derived from tourism
Source: compiled on the basis of survey results

Assessment of the use of funds generated by tourism is also varied. According to 36% of the respondents (Fig. 13) the *Gmina* of Krokowa uses this

revenue well. The majority, however, were of the opinion that besides good investments there are unsuccessful ones.

Ecological (negative) effects of tourism development are commonly observed in the *Gmina* of Krokowa. Over 90% of the respondents had witnessed the degradation of the natural environment. Almost all the people in this group had witnessed littering in the forest and the beach, and some of them other forms of nature degradation (Fig. 14).

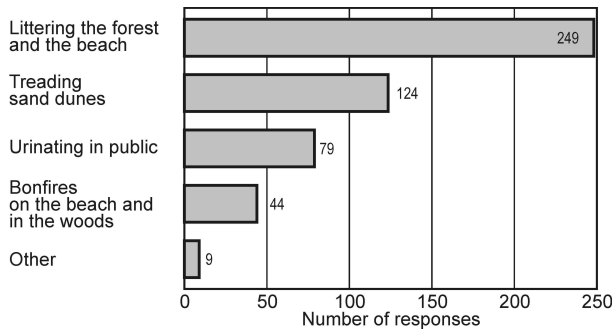


Fig. 14. Types of environmental degradation, as witnessed by the respondents (according to the number of responses)
Source: compiled on the basis of survey results

According to a large group of respondents it is possible to reduce the scale of the negative impact of tourists on the environment through activities such as the establishment of village guards, fining tourists more often, and even placing more rubbish bins and free toilets.

The development of mass tourism mainly oriented to increasing the number of visitors to the *Gmina* of Krokowa is not currently widely accepted. According to the majority of those interviewed (61%) tourism should be based on existing land use, and only 13% supported further intensive development with an expansion of tourism facilities (Fig. 15).

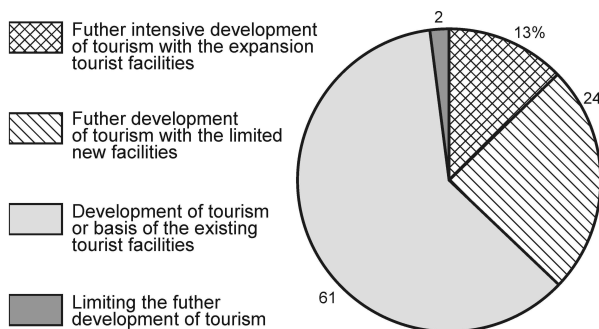


Fig. 15. Preferred directions of further development of tourism in the *Gmina* of Krokowa
Source: compiled on the basis of survey results

4. CONCLUSIONS

One of the *gminas* with natural beauty and recreational value, promoting the development of tourism, is the *Gmina* of Krokowa in Pomorskie *Voivodeship*. In addition to access to the sea with wide, sandy beaches, and Lake Żarnowieckie which allows sailing, the area has valuable natural elements protected in a Coastal Landscape Park and ten nature reserves as well as human tourism sites.

With the increase in tourism - construction, technical infrastructure and tourism facilities are being developed. Currently the number of pensions in the seaside settlements exceeds the number of residential houses (CHABOWSKA 2013). Baretje-Defert's index value for Dębki is 2011, which means that for every one hundred inhabitants there are 2011 beds. Of all the registered businesses 43% are related to accommodation and catering services aimed at tourists. The importance of tourism is also indicated by the structure of employment and the relatively favourable demographic situation, different than in most villages in Poland. The impact of tourism on the economy is also reflected by relatively high entrepreneurship and low unemployment. The revenues generated by these activities are important for the *gmina* budget.

The impact of tourism on the economy, finance and infrastructure is definitely positive, and is seen so by most *gmina* inhabitants. The dominating feeling is satisfaction with the development of tourism in the *gmina* and the opinion that thanks to tourism standards of life have improved. At the same time more than 70% of respondents see a difference in the standard of living of the inhabitants of coastal settlements and the rest of the *gmina*.

The assessment of the impact of tourism in the spatial sphere is less clear. Tourism strongly transforms rural settlements and local authorities do not control the spatial and architectural order, which is particularly felt in coastal settlements. The development of technical infrastructure often does not keep pace with dynamic development, resulting in congestion, car parks and in other public places, as well as environmental degradation. The latter was quite strongly stressed by respondents, which indicates a growing environmental awareness. This, however, cannot be said of a large number of tourists and about some of the entrepreneurs and organisers of mass events (profit above all). The results of the pursuit of profit maximisation are conflicts of interest arising from, besides issues already mentioned, the shrinking of attractive business space. As a result, some businesses are trying to expand into areas previously having other functions. Assessment of the social impact of tourism is also ambiguous. It seems that taking into

account costs, in terms of severity of adverse events (congestion, accidents, conflicts, crime), the balance is not favourable for the *Gmina* of Krokowa.

The aim of this study was to investigate the impact of tourism on a coastal *gmina* in various aspects. The key thesis, concerning the multi-dimensional and significant impact of tourism on the life of the *Gmina* of Krokowa, has been confirmed both by analysis of statistical data, as well as *gmina* inhabitants' opinions. The impact of tourism is not only multi-dimensional, but also bi-directional (positive and negative). Trying to balance these effects is not difficult – in the evaluation of *gmina* residents positive opinions on the effects of tourism predominate, despite full awareness of the costs incurred.

FOOTNOTES

¹ The article uses the results of questionnaire surveys carried out in 2013 by M. Chabowska as part of her Master's thesis written under the supervision of the author. The same work is also the source of data obtained from the *Gmina* Krokowa Offices.

² Excluding towns with 'powiat rights'; total values: 12.1% and 12.6%.

³ It can be assumed that in reality the drop in unemployment in summer is a bit higher than that recorded in public statistics, due to the fact that some of the temporary employed are not registered.

⁴ These figures do not include second houses.

⁵ All the survey results have been rounded to the nearest whole percentage

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Andrzej Świeca
Teresa Brzezińska-Wójcik
Marta Jolanta Józwik
Renata Krukowska
Ewa Skowronek
Andrzej Tucki

Department of Regional Geography and Tourism
Faculty of Earth Sciences and Spatial Management
University of Maria Curie-Skłodowska
andrzej.swieca@poczta.umcs.lublin.pl

SELECTED ASPECTS OF THE TOURIST SPACE OF THE LUBLIN REGION (CASE STUDY)

Abstract: The article presents the results of studies on the tourist space of the Lublin Region conducted so far by employees of the Department of Regional Geography and Tourism at the Faculty of Earth Sciences and Spatial Management of the Maria Curie-Skłodowska University. The studies, regarding the environmental and cultural tourist values, the level of management and transport accessibility, as well as selected elements of the tourism policy of the local authorities, permitted the determination of the tourist potential of spatial units (administrative and physiogeographical) with various importance and character. Areas with varied degrees of attractiveness were distinguished based on their tourist potential. Those classified as attractive and very attractive were described in detail in terms of: the degree of development of the tourist function, functional types of spatial units, perception of tourist space by users, and attitudes of the local community towards the development of tourism.

Key words: tourist space, perception, attitudes, tourist potential, Lublin Region.

1. INTRODUCTION

The Lublin Region, currently identified with the Lubelskie voivodeship, is diverse in physiographic terms. It comprises three distinguishable parts included in landscape belts with an east-west orientation: to the north – Central Polish Lowlands (South Podlasie Lowland, West Polesie, Polesie Wołyńskie), in the central part – South Polish Uplands (Lublin Upland, Roztocze, Wołyń Upland, Pobuże Basin), and to the south – submontane lowerings (Sandomierz Basin) (ŚWIECA, BRZEZIŃSKA-WÓJCIK 2009).

The Lubelskie voivodeship, constituting 8.0% of the area of Poland, was inhabited by 5.6% of the population of Poland in 2011. The region is still subject to very low degree of anthropogenic transformation. Areas with unique natural and cultural values are still retained, contributing to the region's attractiveness in terms of tourism and recreation. The natural resources (unique flora and fauna, outcrops, ravines, gorges, waterfalls, well-heads, caves, and vantage points) are among others covered with legal protection as: 2 national parks, 17 landscape parks, 85 reserves, and 1504 nature monuments (*Rocznik staty-*

styczny... 2012, Rocznik statystyczny... 2013). The area is distinguished by the mutual interweaving of the cultures of West and East Slavdom. The immigration of Ruthenian, Jewish (14th century), Tatar (15th/16th), German (16th century) contributed to the multicultural character of the landscape. The remains of material culture monuments of various age (from settlements from the Early Middle Ages to complexes related to manorial families and industrial monuments from the 19th and 20th century) constitute a cultural group of tourist resources (SKOWRONEK, WOJCIECHOWSKI, ŚWIECA 2006, SKOWRONEK, WOŁOSZYN 2006). The region includes one site of the World Cultural and Nature Heritage (the Old Town in Zamość) and three Historical Monuments (the palace and park complex in Kozłówka, Kazimierz Dolny on the Vistula River, and the historical urban complex in Lublin) (*Zarządzenie... 1994, Rozporządzenie... 2007, <http://www.unesco.pl/kultura/dziedzictwo-okulturowe/swiatowe-dziedzictwo/polskie-objekty/>*).

The diverse environmental conditions and cultural heritage provide a potential for the development of

tourism constituting a necessary element of the development of the tourist space of the Lublin Region.

2. RESEARCH SETTINGS AND METHODOLOGY

The study on the natural and cultural tourist values, level of management, and transport accessibility, as well as selected elements of the tourism policy of the local authorities, conducted in the Department of Regional Geography and Tourism at the Faculty of Earth Sciences and Spatial Management of the Maria Curie-Skłodowska University, permitted the determination of the tourist potential of spatial administrative units (communes and counties). The potential was assessed based on a multidimensional comparative analysis performed in communes. The resources, tourist and paratourist infrastructure, as well as transport accessibility, constituted the basis for calculating the synthetic measure of tourist attractiveness (SMTA TUCKI 2009). Areas with varied degree of attractiveness were distinguished depending on its value.

Certain areas classified as attractive and very attractive were subject to a detailed description. These included physico-geographic units (Łęczna-Włodawa Lakeland) and administrative units (Lublin, Kazimierz Dolny, and Zwierzyniec). Using the model approach to the development of tourist space following LISZEWSKI (1995, 1999), particular types of tourist space in the Łęczna-Włodawa Lakeland (KRUKOWSKA 2009) and in Lublin (ŚWIECA, BRZEZIŃSKA-WÓJCIK 2011) were distinguished. For the Łęczna-Włodawa Lakeland, an attempt was undertaken to determine the evolution of the tourist space with division into particular development phases (KRUKOWSKA 2009).

The perception of the tourist space by users was analysed based on the example of the city of Lublin. The opinion on the space of Lublin was obtained by means of a survey conducted among the inhabitants (439), tourists (222), and students (322) in the years 2004–2005, and tourists in 2013 (688 domestic tourists and 159 foreign tourists). The survey concerned among others: the assessment of the attractiveness of Lublin and its tourist objects, accommodation and gastronomy, as well as nomination of objects for the category of *the city's signature*. The survey included questions regarding the cultural offer and level of participation in Lublin's cultural life, as well as suggestions of changes which should be introduced to increase the attractiveness of its tourist space. Moreover, the objective of the study was to obtain knowledge on the city's tourist attractiveness in relation to the *Lublin Brand* project, the popularity of Lublin as a tourist centre, and its transport accessibility (SKOW-

RONEK, BRZEZIŃSKA-WÓJCIK, KRUKOWSKA 2009, ŚWIECA, SKOWRONEK, BRZEZIŃSKA-WÓJCIK, KRUKOWSKA 2009, TUCKI 2013).

Our studies so far have also focused on the determination of the attitudes of local communities towards the development of tourism, based on the examples of Kazimierz Dolny and Zwierzyniec. The assessment of the attitudes was performed with the application of the TIAS model (Tourism Impact Attitude Scale), proposed as an applicable assessment model, developed by LANKFORD and HOWARD (1994). A questionnaire was the primary study tool. The questions concerned the perception of the development of tourism by the local community in terms of economy, culture, and quality of life in the area of tourist reception (TUCKI, SOSZYŃSKI 2013, TUCKI, SKOWRONEK, KRUKOWSKA 2013).

3. ASSESSMENT OF THE LUBLIN REGION IN TERMS OF TOURIST POTENTIAL

The tourist potential of the Lublin Region constituted the subject of works by A. TUCKI (2009). The commune was adopted as the basic unit. A total of 219 communes were considered. The values of the synthetic measure of tourist attractiveness (SMTA) permitted distinguishing four groups of communes differing in tourist-recreation attractiveness: very attractive, attractive, moderately attractive, and little attractive (TUCKI 2009).

Based on the obtained numerical values of SMTA, the majority of communes (100) were classified as *moderately attractive*. The SMTA values obtained for rural communes and small towns vary between 0.06 and 0.49 (TUCKI 2009). Communes classified as moderately attractive constitute 44.1% of the study area. Only a slightly lower contribution in the study area (43.7%) was collectively reached by the communes classified as *very attractive* (29 communes) and *attractive* (62). A similar number of communes (28) were classified as *little attractive*. Their contribution amounts to 12.2%. The most attractive communes of the Lublin Region are: Kazimierz Dolny (measure 0.49), Janów Lubelski (0.40), Krasnobród (0.39), Włodawa (0.37), and Zwierzyniec (0.37).

Communes classified as very attractive are concentrated in four areas (Fig. 1), mostly located in (East and Middle) Roztocze, the north-eastern fragment of the Sandomierz Basin (The Janów Forests complex), the north-western part of the Lublin Upland ("tourist triangle Nałęczów-Kazimierz Dolny-Puławy"), and the southern fragment of West Polesie (Łęczna-Włodawa Lakeland).

4. THE TOURIST SPACE OF THE ŁĘCZNA-WŁODAWA LAKE LAND

An attempt to present the cycle of life of the tourist region of the Łęczna-Włodawa Lakeland, and the development of its tourist space, is included in works by KRUKOWSKA (2009) and KRUKOWSKA and KRUKOWSKI (2009).

The assessment of the degree of development of the tourist function of the Lakeland was performed with the application of the Baretje and Defert index. The numerical values of the index in the communes of the Lakeland vary from 0.11 to 120.84. The lowest index was obtained for the Łęczna commune, and the highest for the Włodawa commune. The village of Okuninka, located in the Włodawa commune, is among places with the highest level of investment in the Lublin Region.

The contemporary tourist function of the Łęczna-Włodawa Lakeland developed as a result of two very intensively occurring phenomena. The first one is related to the establishment and functioning of corporate recreation facilities (development of social tourism in the years 1956–1989), and the second – to the increasing popularity of second homes from the mid 1980's to the present moment. Both of the phenomena were based on social factors, i.e. the demand for recreation, both short-term (one day, weekend), and long-term (longer stay).

The analysis of the development of tourism infrastructure in the area of the Lakeland permits distinguishing, in the model approach by LISZEWSKI (1995), two basic phases, namely exploration and colonisation (KRUKOWSKA 2009). In the exploration phase, lakes (frequently with difficult access), as well as wetlands and peatlands, were visited, particularly by scientists, anglers, and few tourists. The colonisation phase included two stages. At the first stage, tourist investments began at the most attractive lakes located along the existing roads. They constituted node points around which the development of the phenomena occurred, drawing more tourism-related investments. The land management proceeded very fast, with no spatial management plans. The construction of recreation resorts used in the so-called social tourism developed particularly intensively. This process resulted in the development of the colonisation space, with the omission of space penetration and assimilation. At the second stage of the colonisation phase, the space of tourist colonisation largely increased, and an extensive tourist penetration space was created. Along with the establishment of agro-tourism lodgings, the tourist assimilation space developed.

5. THE ASSESSMENT OF ATTRACTIVENESS AND ATTEMPTED FUNCTIONAL TYPOLOGY OF THE SPACE OF THE CITY OF LUBLIN

In the assessment of the tourist potential of five cities with county rights in the Lubelskie voivodeship, SMTA varied from 0.32 to 0.87 (ŚWIECA, KRUKOWSKA, TUCKI, SKOWRONEK, BRZEZIŃSKA-WÓJCIK, KOCIUBA, JÓZWIK 2012). The maximum value (0.87) was obtained for Lublin. For Zamość, the tourist attractiveness measure amounted to 0.46. Considerably higher values were determined in the remaining cities, namely in Chełm (0.36) and Biała Podlaska (0.32).

The high importance of Lublin is emphasised in the literature on the subject (among others PRZYBYSZEWSKA-GUDELIS, GRABISZEWSKI M, IWICKI 1979, ŁĘCKI [ed.] 2005). The city has been classified as one of ten great tourist centres in Poland. Important elements of the tourist potential of Lublin are urban and architectural monuments, the heritage of different cultures and nations inhabiting the city until 1939, the activity of cultural-entertainment-recreation institutions, the functionality of a large city, and transport accessibility.

Information obtained from the Office of Tourist Guide Services in Lublin, and data on the number of tickets sold in 15 objects of the city in the years 1991–2001, suggest that the city was visited by approximately 340 thousand people annually on the average (ŚWIECA, BRZEZIŃSKA-WÓJCIK 2011). The Majdanek National Museum was the most popular among tourists (26% of the total number of visitors to the selected objects). The Museum of Lublin at the Lublin Castle, the Botanical Garden of the Maria Curie-Skłodowska University, and the Open Air Village Museum are also popular tourists destinations. Accommodation objects are clearly concentrated, particularly in the districts of the Old Town and City Centre. Approximately 58% of accommodation objects are located within a radius of up to 2.0 km from the city centre (Cracow Gate). Based on the obtained value of index $Tf(t)$ of 27.6 per 100 inhabitants, Lublin is classified as a cultural centre, a route stop, a congress city, and main regional city.

Based on the collected and analysed data, four types of tourist space determined by LISZEWSKI (1999) can be distinguished within the urban space of Lublin: the space of penetration, assimilation, colonisation, and exploration. The scattered space of tourist *penetration* is constituted by objects the most frequently visited by tourists (the Museum of Lublin at the Lublin Castle, the Holy Trinity Chapel at the Lublin Castle, the Lublin Archicathedral, the Archdiocese Museum of Religious Art, the Museum of History of

the City of Lublin, and the Literary Museum of Józef Czechowicz), concentrated in the area of the original urban arrangement (the Castle Hill, the Old Town Hill – Old Town and *Deptak* – the pedestrian zone). The space also reaches outside the compact urban development, to the Open Air Village Museum and the Majdanek National Museum. The space of tourist *assimilation* particularly includes *Deptak* (part of the Krakowskie Przedmieście Street) and its closest vicinity, among others the *Centrum Plaza* shopping centre. This space will be subject to a slight expansion reaching the Bystrzyca River valley after the commissioning of the shopping centre *Pod zamkiem*. The city's *colonisation* space develops in the southern part of Lublin in the forest complex *Dąbrowa* around the Zemobrzycki retention reservoir. The youngest type of tourist space in Lublin is the *exploration* space. Its development is related to the increasingly frequent visits to Lublin of participants of conventions, fairs, congresses, and scientific conferences, who discover new fragments of the city. Some of those fragments are sometimes included in the permanent sightseeing programme.

6. PERCEPTION OF LUBLIN TOURIST SPACE

According to the results of surveys conducted in the years 2004–2005 (SKOWRONEK, BRZEZIŃSKA-WÓJCIK, KRUKOWSKA 2009, ŚWIECA, SKOWRONEK, BRZEZIŃSKA-WÓJCIK, KRUKOWSKA 2009) and in 2013 (TUCKI 2013), Lublin represents an attractive tourist space. The inhabitants, tourists, and students alike emphasise its interesting location, architecture, and atmosphere. Also according to the results of the survey conducted in 2013, the city constitutes an attractive tourist destination for 80% of respondents, whereas every fourth respondent assessed Lublin as very attractive, and almost half of them as rather attractive. The unique image of the city was assessed much better. At a scale from 1 to 5, every third respondent gave it a good grade. According to respondents surveyed in the years 2004–2005, the most interesting and valuable objects in Lublin are mainly located in the area of the Old Town. These also include the Open Air Village Museum, Majdanek, and the Botanical Garden. The respondents recognised the Castle as the most valuable object in the city's tourist space. They unanimously nominated the Castle and Old Town as the City's signatures. The survey conducted in 2013 showed that Lublin is perceived as a city of interesting events with a unique form. More than 50% of respondents gave positive answers, including approximately 17% providing definitely positive answers.

More than half of the respondents were interested in the cultural events in the city. It should also be emphasised that almost all of the cultural events mentioned by the respondents are organised by and for students, namely *Koziennialia*, *Juwenalia*, and *Kulturalia*.

A relatively high assessment was obtained for the accommodation and gastronomy facilities in Lublin. In the years 2004–2005, as many as 36.6% of tourists described Lublin's accommodation base as comparative to other cities. In 2013, the offer and number of accommodation objects in the city was assessed well by fewer respondents, namely 24.6%. The opinion on the gastronomy was also positive. In the years 2004–2005, approximately 63% of respondents considered it as comparative to other cities. As many as 70% of respondents expressed a positive opinion on the gastronomy in 2013. That year, also the transport accessibility of Lublin was assessed positively. 43.3% of respondents assessed access to the city from other parts of Poland as good.

According to the survey conducted in 2013, more than half (59%) of visitors stayed in Lublin for several days. The mean stay duration was 4.5 days, with approximately 4 days for tourists from Poland, and 7 days for foreign tourists. One-day visitors constituted 21% of respondents, and persons staying there for several hours – 20%. The relatively long stay of foreign tourists in Lublin, as for a tourist and not recreation centre, can be explained by the main declared objective of visits to Lublin. Every third foreign tourist came here to visit their family or friends.

According to the opinions of respondents in the years 2004–2005, factors negatively affecting the attractiveness of Lublin included: negligence, too narrow offer of tourist attractions (among others recreation, cultural, and sporting events), and very weak promotion. It should be emphasised, however, that activities aimed at the improvement of the attractiveness of the city's space through the activation of tourist phenomena have lately been initiated. The international Jagiellonian Tourist Trail has been prepared, and a related event has been organised, namely the Jagiellonian Fair, enjoying increasing popularity over the last several years javascript:void(0). Thematic trails have been established, and cycling paths have been prepared and signposted. The city's marketing activities have also been intensified in the context of the European Capital of Culture. According to the results of the study conducted in 2013, the activities were perceived in various manner. Every fourth responding domestic tourist declared that they noticed the promotion of Lublin in mass media. Every third respondent knew the promotional slogan *Lublin. The city of inspiration*.

7. ATTITUDES OF THE LOCAL COMMUNITY TOWARDS THE DEVELOPMENT OF TOURISM

The consideration of the opinions of the inhabitants on the development of tourism in the Lubelskie voivodeship is a relatively new study polygon (TUCKI, SOSZYŃSKI 2013, TUCKI, SKOWRONEK, KRUKOWSKA 2013). Studies conducted so far covered the urban commune of Kazimierz Dolny and the urban-rural commune of Zwierzyniec.

Kazimierz Dolny is classified at a very high level (SMTA of 0.49) among the rural units and small towns of the Lubelskie voivodeship in terms of tourist potential (TUCKI 2009). The commune is distinguished by its high environmental and cultural values. It has a relatively high contribution of protected areas (80% of the commune's area), and the highest number of architectural monuments (30) and museums (5) among the communes analysed. Moreover, it is very attractive in terms of tourist infrastructure. In 2011, it offered 7.2% of the accommodation capacity of the Lublin Region, 80% of which were objects functioning all year round. The contribution of Kazimierz Dolny in supporting tourist traffic in the entire Lublin Region in the last several years, considering the average number of persons using collective accommodation facilities (more than 60 thousand), amounts to approximately 30% (PAWŁOWSKI, TUCKI 2010).

A study conducted with the application of a diagnostic survey (244 questionnaires) showed that the attitude of the inhabitants towards the development of tourism in the commune of Kazimierz Dolny is generally positive. The majority of responses were within the range of 3.5–4.0. This means that the inhabitants assess the development of tourism and its impact positively. Relating the obtained results to the Doxey model (euphoria, apathy, irritation, antagonism), assuming that the attitudes of inhabitants in a given area are usually positive at the initial stage of tourism development, the stage of development of tourism in Kazimierz Dolny can be recognised as initial, with the euphoria stage still dominant (DOXEY 1975). Considering the four attitudes in the behaviour of inhabitants towards tourists (acceptance, tolerance, adaptation, withdrawal) proposed by PAGE and HALL (2003), the study results show that the inhabitants of Kazimierz Dolny are in the transitional phase between "acceptance" and "tolerance".

The study on the attitudes of inhabitants towards tourism also covered the urban-rural commune of Zwierzyniec. Similarly as Kazimierz Dolny, it is distinguished by high tourist potential, with SMTA amounting to 0.37 (TUCKI 2009).

The tourist tradition of Zwierzyniec reaches the 16th century, when the summer residence of the Zamoyski family was established there. The tourist tradition developed due to the local environmental and cultural values. The commune's tourist attractiveness is determined by its unique natural landscape – the Wieprz River valley, the Echo ponds, and the Rudka retention reservoir, all surrounded by the Kosobudy-Zwierzyniec Forests under legal protection as the Roztoczański National Park. The environmental values are supplemented with elements of cultural heritage, including the 18th-century church built on an island, the architectural complex of the Management of the Zamoyski Entailed Estate (18th–19th century), the antique industrial and residential development, as well as the 18th-century spatial arrangement and traditional rural development (ŚWIECA, BRZEZIŃSKA-WÓJCIK, GRABOWSKI, KAŁAMUCKI, KRUKOWSKA, TUCKI 2013).

Tourist services have a large impact on the character of the economy of Zwierzyniec. In 2011, a total number of 465 business entities included 348 companies providing services, with 48 entities in section I (accommodation and gastronomy services). In the commune, 5 collective accommodation facilities are registered, including 3 functioning all year round. The accommodation capacity amounted to 231 places, including 99 available all year round. Accommodation services were used by 6 116 persons, including 50 foreign tourists (www.stat.gov.pl).

A study based on a survey (244 questionnaires) showed that in general, respondents expressed a positive attitude towards the development of tourism in the commune. The inhabitants show a pro-tourism attitude, in relation to the development of tourism both at a local and regional scale. Relating the obtained study results to the five-degree scale model by DOXEY (1975), the stage of the development of tourism in Zwierzyniec can be recognised as initial (exploration/introduction stage), with the stage of euphoria still dominant.

8. CONCLUSIONS

The high natural and cultural values of the tourist space of the Lublin Region provide potential conditions for the development of various forms of tourism. Over the last several years, products and projects have appeared which can intensify the tourist and recreational use of the tourist space of the Lublin Region.

In the north-western part of the Lublin Upland in the area of the Land of Loess Ravines, these are: *The Iron and Blacksmith Tradition Trail* in Wojciechów, the

Polish Festival of Folk Bands and Singers in Kazimierz Dolny, The Land of Health with its centre in Nałęczów, The Lesslandia Academy including objects in Nałęczów, Wojciechów, and Puławy, The Magical Gardens Amusement Park in Trzcianki near Janowiec, and the Małopolska Gap of Vistula River Geopark (BRZEZIŃSKA-WÓJCIK 2012, SKOWRONEK 2012).

The tourist space of the Łęczna-Włodawa Lakeland offers the following popular products: *The Festival of Three Cultures in Włodawa, The European Neighbourhood Days Our Polesie – Our Bug River in the commune of Wola Uhruska, the Museum of Former Hitler's Concentration Camp in Sobibór, Bug River Kayaking trails, the Bug-Krzna Kayaking Trail, and the Polesie Equestrian Trail* (KRUKOWSKA 2012, SKOWRONEK 2012).

Products worth emphasising in Roztocze include: *the Central Cycling Trail of Roztocze, the Summer Academy of Film in Zwierzyniec, and the reconstruction of battles Saved from oblivion near Tomaszów Lubelski*. The region's attractiveness is emphasised by educational trails – *DINOZAURS Krasnobród and Mining tunnels in Senderki, The Geotourist Trails of Central Roztocze, and museums – The Museum of Petrified wood in Siedliska, The Museum of the Krasnobród Village in Krasnobród, and the museum in the Guciów Settlement*. The *Recreation and Education Park Nature Zoom near Janów Lubelski, at the boundary between West Roztocze and the Sandomierz Basin, is under construction*. The *Stone Forest in Roztocze Geopark is being currently designed* (BRZEZIŃSKA-WÓJCIK 2012, KRUKOWSKA 2012).

The advantage of the Lublin Region in the scope of development of tourism is its location at the eastern border of the European Union. It is becoming an increasingly attractive border region for Europeans, and the Eastern Borderlands worth visiting for the inhabitants of other Polish voivodeships.

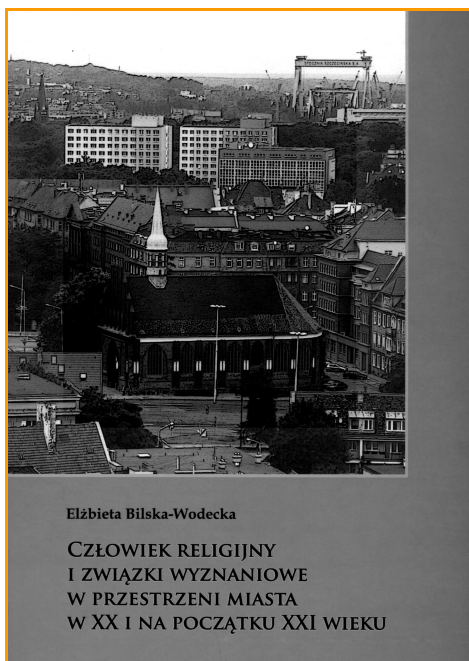
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REVIEWS

Tourism 2014, 24/1



ELŻBIETA BILKA-WODECKA

*CZŁOWIEK RELIGIJNY I ZWIĄZKI
WYZNANIOWE W PRZESTRZENI MIASTA
W XX I NA POCZĄTKU XXI WIEKU*
[THE RELIGIOUS INDIVIDUAL AND RELIGIOUS
ORGANISATIONS IN URBAN SPACE IN THE 20TH
AND EARLY 21ST CENTURIES]

INSTYTUT GEOGRAFII I GOSPODARKI PRZESTRZENNEJ
UNIwersytetu Jagiellońskiego
KRAKÓW 2012
pp. 304

The subject of this mysteriously entitled work is the religious diversity of (selected) cities, situated within the present borders of Poland. The introduction and first chapter outline the objectives and the subject of research, as well as identifying the cities included. In order to construct the methodological basis of the work, the author first had to define two fundamental concepts: the 'religious individual' and 'religious space'.

After presenting the age-old discussion over the semantic range of *homo religiosus*, Bilka-Wodecka concludes that "the religious person tries to organize space and everyday life so that they could live according to the principles they profess" (p.13). It seems that the most important part of this definition is the principles (religion) a person declares.

A more precise definition is provided by the author for religious space, which she derives from geographical space. She believes that it is a "subspace, a fragment of geographical space, with relations between the individual and the *sacrum*". Space understood in this way bears the qualities of social space. It must meet, however, at least one out of two necessary conditions: the area must be permanently inhabited by a population professing some kind of religion, or there must be some sacred buildings present.

The author sets herself two goals: cognitive and methodological. The cognitive goal is "to define the factors shaping the religious space of the largest Polish cities in the 20th and early 21st centuries, with particular consideration of the religious individual and the religious organizations functioning within this space" (p.13). The other goal is to develop a research procedure which makes it possible to analyse long-term transformations of the religious structure of cities (p. 13).

The author conducted detailed research in the 15 largest cities in Poland (with some exceptions, which she explains in the text), with reference to three periods: 1900-18, 1918-44 and 1945-2005. She has used all available resources, both archival and contemporary. The list of resources is placed at the end of the book, and the tables can be found on the CD attached.

The book is divided into nine chapters, the first three of which are methodological-theoretical, a further five are analytical, while the last contains conclusions.

In Chapter 3 ("Theoretical foundation"), Bilka-Wodecka suggests using the functional method to study the religious function of cities, dividing the functions into exo- and endogenous, as well as postulating the idea of a free religious market. She

believes that the latter may be used to discuss the function of religion in the contemporary world. She also includes a subchapter referring to religious and secular time, as well as to a relative approach as a way of interpreting processes, and in the geography of religion as well.

Chapter 4 is entitled "Political factors determining the situation of religious organisations". It is devoted to the formal and the actual situation of religious organisations on Polish territory at different political periods in the 20th and 21st centuries. Among other things, the author discusses the degree of interference by occupant countries, and then by different Polish governments as regards the religious market.

In chapter 5 ("The transformations of the religious structure of cities vs. pluralism"), the author presents the factors causing changes in the cities studied (religious, political, economic, demographic and social), as well as influencing the number and variety of religious organisations, and correlations between nationality and affiliation with a given religious organisation. The author quotes the numbers belonging to different religious organisations in Poland in 2005. The chapter ends with a typology of the religious diversification of cities, which includes three types: intermittent, regressive, regressive but stable.

The next chapter ("The religious individual and religious organisations within the religious space of a city") is devoted to an analysis of the main units of religious administration, sacred buildings, as well as the network of parishes in the cities studied. The author presents a cycle for the erection of sacred buildings in Polish cities, which consists of the following stages: fighting for a location, applying for a building permit, the difficult period of constructing (or adapting), ownership changes, as well as the occasional demolition stage.

A special chapter (7) is dedicated to the use of time for religious activity. The author conducted an analysis of religious time in calendars, time on holidays, as well as discussing the factors determining the use of time for religious activity. The last subchapter presents selected aspects of religious life, including the spatial distribution of the *dominicantes* index by parish, using the examples of Łódź and Kraków.

The title of the last chapter (8) is very similar to the title of the whole book ("The religious individual and religious organisations over time and space") which I do not approve of. In the first part of this chapter, the author divides religious space into contemporary (formal, functional and perceptual) and historical (secularized and archaic).

The model of the evolution of this space presented in Figure 51 is an attempt to summarize research on religious space. For the purpose of constructing this model, E. Bilska-Wodecka made use of Butler's tourism area life cycle. Her model of religious space consists of seven phases (initial, development, expansion, stagnation, revival, decline and 'going into hiding', whose course is then analysed in each of the 15 cities studied.

In the chapter entitled "Conclusions", the author summarized her research and referred to the objectives set at the beginning of the book. She stated that the creator of and at the same time the person responsible for all the changes in religious space is the religious individual, represented by religious organisations. Bilska-Wodecka emphasizes the obvious influence of political factors on the functioning of religious organisations, which she demonstrated by analyzing the phenomenon in several periods. The synthetic presentation of the changes occurring in the religious space is through a transformational model.

At the end of the book the author asks: "What will be the direction of change in the religious space of Polish cities?" Unable to provide a definite answer, Bilska-Wodecka presents three scenarios which she believes are possible: progressive secularization, the transformational model observed in the United States, and a third one – still difficult to predict and define today.

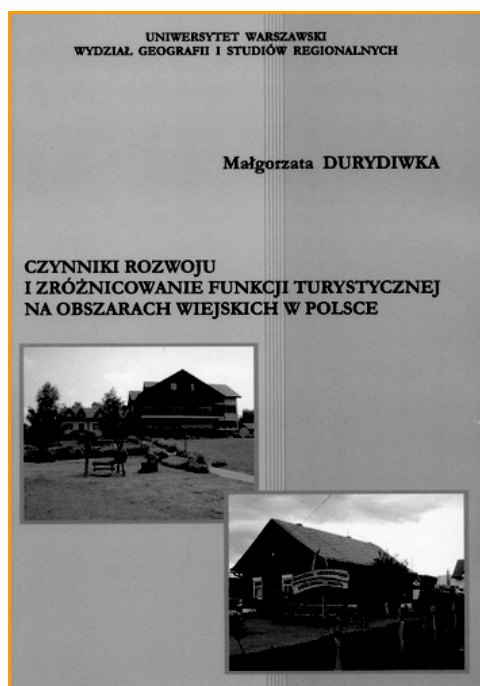
The author carefully compiled a bibliography which consists of archival sources (manuscripts), printed sources, internet sources and data bases, as well as individual publications. At the end of the book there is a summary in English.

The book by Elżbieta Bilska-Wodecka is an example of a geographical monograph including aspects of the geography of religion, as well as urban, social and population geography. In this respect, it is an exceptional and highly illuminating work. The factual, conceptual and methodological layers of the book deserve the highest praise. In my opinion, it is the first work in Poland where the author has attempted a comprehensive analysis of the religious individual functioning in urban religious space. This attempt has brought very interesting results, both cognitively and methodologically. The noticeable similarity of some models in the geography of religion and tourism is intriguing. It may point to the universality of these concepts in the study of various geographical subspaces (e.g. the area life cycle).

Stanisław Liszewski

University of Łódź
Institute of Urban Geography and Tourism

Translated by Ewa Mossakowska



MAŁGORZATA DURYDIWKA

**CZYNNIKI ROZWOJU I ZRÓŻNICOWANIE
FUNKCJI TURYSTYCZNEJ NA OBSZARACH
WIEJSKICH W POLSCE**

[DEVELOPMENT FACTORS AND DIVERSIFICATION
OF THE TOURISM FUNCTION IN THE RURAL AREAS
OF POLAND]

WYDZIAŁ GEOGRAFII I STUDIÓW REGIONALNYCH
UNIwersytetu Warszawskiego
WARSZAWA 2012

pp. 376

The book consists of three large sections (Part I – “Tourism as a function in rural areas”, Part II – “Tourism function development factors in the rural areas of Poland”, Part III – “The diversification of the tourism function in the rural areas of Poland: 1995-2005”), with a number of sub-sections, as well as an introduction, summary, list of references (over 500 entries) and some appendices. The work contains 52 tables, 84 figures (including many coloured), and 5 appendices (mostly tables presenting numerical data for the period 1995 to 2005), as well as a list and description of the tourism regions in rural areas in the same period.

Durydiwka briefly presents the aim and the idea behind her work, as well as research methods. Her aim is to present the factors which stimulate tourism function development and the spatial diversification its development level in the rural areas of Poland: 1995-2005. The tourism function is defined as “the whole of socio-economic activity in a given spatial unit, focused on serving tourists”.

In describing the state of research into the tourism function of rural areas, the author shows a tremendous erudition that can be seen in her extensive knowledge of the basic literature on the subject. A valuable contribution is the presentation of government documents concerning the multi-functional development of rural areas.

A very skilfully written part is the section in which the author describes tourism function development factors and their classification. Following the writer’s suggestion, these factors can be endogenous

or exogenous and Durydiwka presents a detailed description of the identified factors.

The last section of the book is a summary. The author justifies her choice of the criteria used to define the tourism function, which mainly resulted from her own experience gained during numerous field studies. In order to quantify the tourism function, the author used the synthetic measure *Ft*, following Ziolo, making necessary modifications and adaptations (Ziolo constructed this indicator in order to present the spatial concentration of industry). The measure enabled her to show the scale of tourism in individual spatial units (*gminas*) and as a proportion of the tourism function in Poland. Based on *Ft* values, the author set five levels (classes) of tourism function development in rural areas.

The procedure for establishing the level of development in rural areas is based not only on the current situation, but also on the history of tourism in a given region or destination. While analyzing its diversification, the author examined 2168 rural *gminas* and the rural parts of urban-rural fringe areas nationally. She established five levels of development – from level 0, when the tourism function has not been formed, up to level 4, where it is very well developed. The majority of *gminas* with a developed function in 2005 were found in *zachodniopomorskie* (8), *małopolskie* (6) and *pomorskie* (6) voivodeships. The author noticed that the picture of the spatial diversification in rural areas is quite stable. She also confirmed that the main factor is the high quality of natural assets. The remaining elements, though equally important, have a complementary character.

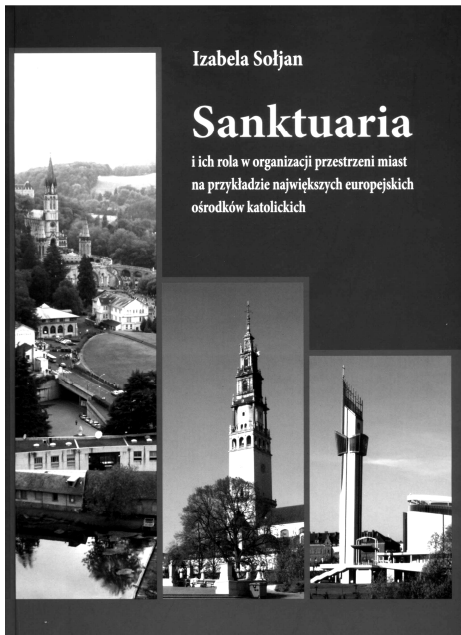
Further on, Durydiwka suggested a typology of rural areas by tourism function. She identifies five types of *gminas* (0, A, B, C, D), with important factors including the number of firms registered in section H of the *REGON* system, as well as the number of people using accommodation. The final part here is discussion of the issue of tourism regions in rural areas of Poland and the author distinguished 34 such units in 2005. Table 3.9 is very illuminating; it shows the history of Polish tourism regionalization (pp. 24-25).

The book by Durydiwka, entitled *Development factors and diversification of the tourism function in the rural areas of Poland* the author has raised a very up-to-date and important research issue for the geographical, economic and social sciences. The research methods adopted are a considerable contribution to the development of geographical sciences methodology. It is the first serious study on the tourism function in rural areas (as broadly understood) and its role in their development. The work is breaks new ground, not only in Polish literature, it expands the world literature on tourism.

Antoni Jackowski

Jagiellonian University in Kraków

Translated by Ewa Mossakowska



IZABELA SOŁJAN

*SANKTUARIA I ICH ROLA W ORGANIZACJI
PRZESTRZENI MIAST NA PRZYKŁADZIE
NAJWIĘKSZYCH EUROPEJSKICH
OŚRODKÓW KATOLICKICH*

[SANCTUARIES AND THEIR ROLE IN THE ORGANISATION OF URBAN SPACE: EXAMPLES FROM LARGE EUROPEAN CATHOLIC CENTRES]

INSTYTUT GEOGRAFII I GOSPODARKI PRZESTRZENNEJ
UNIwersytetu Jagiellońskiego
KRAKÓW 2012

pp. 364

In 2012, the Institute of Geography and Spatial Economy publishing house at the Jagiellonian University published a large work by Izabela Sołjan presenting the role of sanctuaries in the organization of the urban space of the 20 largest European Catholic centres. A detailed analysis of the influence of sanctuaries on the functional-spatial structure of a city was presented using case studies including Jasna Góra in Częstochowa and Lourdes in France. The monograph contributes to geographical studies concerning pilgrimage centres, sacred space and landscape, as well as the role of the religious function in the formation and development of the cultural landscape. It contains references to a large quantity of Polish and foreign literature (160 and 102 titles, respectively), numerous tables (23), figures (94) and photographs (68), showing the state of current research on the geography of religion. Written in a good, communicative language, illustrated with neat and aesthetic plans, and with photographs of sanctuaries, it is very attractive to readers. The monograph consists of eight chapters and a summary, a bibliography, a list of tables, figures and photographs, a summary in English, as well as an appendix with questionnaire templates and a list of monasteries in Lourdes and Częstochowa.

Chapter One is the introduction, in which the author presents the aim and methodology of her research, reviews research achievements described in the Polish and foreign literature (e.g. points to the role of history and regional studies in geographical analysis), as well as presenting various approaches (religious, canon law) including her own to the concept of a sanctuary. The aim of the monograph is to

present the spatial organization of a sanctuary, its origins and location, and its functions, as well as to show the influence of a sanctuary on the spatial structure of a city.

In Chapter Two, the author makes an ambitious attempt to present the influence of sanctuaries on the development of cities from a historical perspective. She discusses their role in the development of ancient (Mesopotamia and Sumer, Egypt, Israel, Greece, Rome), early Christian, medieval European and modern cities. The material effectively broadens our knowledge about the role of the religious function in urban development. Apart from detailed analyses, the chapter contains concise summaries illustrating the function of sanctuaries in the historical periods presented.

In the third chapter, the author discusses the factors which determine the location of sanctuaries in urban space. First, she describes their origins and conditions leading to their development. Next, she goes on to discuss the location of a sanctuary within urban space, including its central zone, the zone of intensive urban investment and the periphery. The chapter ends with a presentation of mono- and poly-sanctuary examples. The author points to changes in the function and location of sanctuaries, depending on social, economic, political, cultural, etc. relations in a given historical period.

Chapter Four presents the functions of a sanctuary. The author discusses the management structure, as well as religious and non-religious functions. The discussion is illustrated with two detailed case studies, namely the sanctuaries in Lourdes and Częstochowa. In both cases, the author broadly presents their

organizational structure, as well as the historical and religious conditions of development, their function and current pilgrimage volume.

The issue of space organization at the largest Catholic centres in Europe is presented in Chapter Five. The author discusses the structure and composition of the sacred zone, the way it is isolated from surrounding space, areas of pilgrim activity, types of sacred zones and the development of the sacred zones in Lourdes and Częstochowa. This is a continuation of the earlier, more general reflections through concrete examples. Apart from detailed analyses, the chapter contains certain generalizations in the form of typologies of sacred zones by type, structure and size, into: 1) simple developed, small, with clear boundaries, 2) complex developed, large, with clear boundaries, 3) simple developed, medium-sized, with clear boundaries, 4) complex developed, small, with blurred boundaries, 5) complex simple, small, with undeveloped boundaries and 6) complex developed, medium-sized, with clear boundaries. This typology points to the diversity of sacred space and the possibility of isolating it from surrounding secular areas.

In the lengthy Chapter Six, the author presents the influence of a sanctuary on the spatial structure of the city where it is located. The discussion begins with an attempt to place a sanctuary within an urban space and describe its micro-, meso- and macro-scale influences. The author points to the important role of transport accessibility in the development of sanctuary cities. Situating a sanctuary in a city contributes to its territorial development, creating new districts, and not only of a religious character. The more general reflections are made real with the results of detailed research conducted on Lourdes and Częstochowa. The author attempts to combine functional and morphological analyses by studying the functional-spatial structure of the main routes leading to the sanctuaries in Lourdes and Częstochowa.

In Chapter Seven, which complements the detailed analyses presented in the previous chapters, the author describes the economic, social and morphological aspect of a sanctuary, referring to Suliborski's 'neo-functional' approach. The author undertakes the difficult task of defining the economic role of a sanctuary within the local economy of a city. Using various sources, including her own research, the author attempts to estimate the income generated by pilgrims, and the role of accommodation facilities in the development of the tourism function in Lourdes and Częstochowa. An interesting motif of this part of the monograph is the attempt to define residents' attitudes to the sanctuary and the role it plays in their lives.

In Chapter Eight, the author tries to generalize the impact of a sanctuary on a city by taking a model-based approach. In order to do this, she makes use of the tourism area evolution cycle concept of Butler, as well as the structural-functional model of tourism space. The proposed model for the influence of a sanctuary on a city is based on three criteria: sanctuary development stage, the influence of the sanctuary on city development, and the role the sanctuary plays in the organization of urban space. The criteria enabled the author to identify four models presenting its role in the organization of urban space: 1) sanctuaries having the strongest influence on urban space organization (e.g. Fatima, Lourdes, Assisi, etc.), 2) sanctuaries having a strong influence on urban space organization (e.g. Marizell, Loreto, etc.), 3) sanctuaries having a medium (partial) influence on urban space organization (e.g. Kraków-Łagiewniki, Syracuse, etc.), 4) sanctuaries having a small influence on urban space organization (e.g. Levoča, etc.).

In the conclusions to the monograph, the author considers the results of her study and confirms that the aims set have been achieved. As regards the cognitive aspect, the author points to the multiple factors influencing the effect of a sanctuary on a city. As a rule, sanctuaries create functional zones around them, serving the pilgrims. Not only are they religious centres, but often make their cities touristically attractive. Methodologically, the author points to the difficulty in conducting an analysis of the socio-economic influence of a sanctuary on a city, due to the lack of suitable source materials, limited access to existing ones and the difficulties in collecting them.

The monograph is an interesting and innovative work on the role of sanctuaries on the functional-spatial structure of cities. It presents research achievements, both Polish and foreign, in the field of the geography of religion and sanctuary cities. Factually, it goes far beyond analyses of pilgrimages to sanctuaries, and extends the research area by including the genetic, organizational and functional aspects of sanctuary space, and by presenting a typology of sanctuaries and their functional-spatial influence on the city through establishing sacred zones around them. The monograph contains many interesting analyses and interpretations, which make it worth reading and studying in detail.

Andrzej Matczak

University of Łódź
Institute of Urban Geography and Tourism

Translated by Ewa Mossakowska



SŁAWOJ TANAŚ

TANATOTURYSTYKA. OD PRZESTRZENI ŚMIERCI DO PRZESTRZENI TURYSTYCZNEJ
 [THANATOURISM: FROM DEATH SPACE TO TOURISM SPACE]

WYDAWNICTWO UNIWERSYTETU ŁÓDZKIEGO
 ŁÓDŹ 2013
 pp. 224

The book gives mature expansion of discussion on thanatourism, still not well explored in Poland. The author is in fact the only specialist in this field and one of the few in the world tourism geography.

The book consists of four main chapters ("Death and culture", "The geography of death culture", "Man in thanatourism space", "The essence of thanatourism"), an introduction, conclusions and list of references (over 250 entries!). The book contains 46 figures, 25 photographs and 12 tables, as well as a summary in English.

Each chapter is a separate whole. However, the author has managed to link them with an invisible thread, which has allowed him to maintain a continuity of thought, and outline the research procedure step by step. As a result, it is a publication where the apparent separateness of chapters has not ruined the academic investigation or the logical process of drawing conclusions. The author has thoughtfully described individual intricate issues, making them understandable for the reader. Despite the sternness and complexity of the theme, the author has showed extraordinary maturity, allowing him to present his line of thought in a highly civilized and respectful manner.

The work breaks new ground in the theory of tourism studies. To the best of my knowledge, no other form of tourism has been given such a comprehensive theoretical frame as thanatourism, thanks to Sławoj Tanaś. Purely theoretical works are very rare

among the younger generation of geographers. The book reviewed here is certainly an interesting attempt to look at this particular form of tourism activity from a new angle.

The vastness of this research area makes it a part of various bordering disciplines, such as cultural studies, ethnology and in part sociology. As an experienced researcher, the author has not yielded to the pressures of an abundant literature and attractive sources accessible to each of these disciplines. Giving it a lot of thought, he has confronted them and at the same time presented the geographical point of view. While reading the book, nobody could doubt that it represents geographical sciences. It refers to human geography in a wider sense, especially the geography of culture, religion and tourism. I would also like to stress that the relations between tourism space and thanatourism sketched by the author which are clearly visible and well presented. The book is interesting and significantly broadens our knowledge of travel in general, and of thanatourism in particular. Despite the unusual subject, the text is easy to understand. It is a truly unique study, as regards tourism research, and has a strong applied character. It should be read by employees of various economic, planning and tourism institutions, as well as by representatives of churches of different denominations who take care of thanatourism space.

Antoni Jackowski
 Jagiellonian University in Kraków

Translated by Ewa Mossakowska



ALINA ZAJADACZ

*TURYSTYKA OSÓB NIESŁYSZĄCYCH –
UJĘCIE GEOGRAFICZNE*

[*THE TOURISM OF THE DEAF: A GEOGRAPHICAL
APPROACH*]

BOGUCKI WYDAWNICTWO NAUKOWE
POZNAŃ 2012
pp. 370

The book presents the important and current issue of tourism activity among disabled people. A particular segment of this part of the tourism market is related to the deaf who need specially prepared tourism space and services. The work is one of the few (if not the only) publications on the Polish market which not only present this issue but also suggest solutions as to how to increase the participation of the deaf in tourism, taking into account that until now they are often excluded.

The book is largely a review, showing Polish and foreign research achievements, both theoretical and empirical, on the theory of tourism, tourism for the disabled, and, more marginally, the tourism of the deaf. The latter has been rarely discussed in academic literature on tourism, especially in its geographical (spatial) aspect, so the publication fills a noticeable gap in the tourism geography literature. Numerous citations from current Polish and foreign academic literature demonstrate that the author is very familiar with the issue she discusses in her work.

Individual chapters clearly point to the research procedure that was followed (from the general to the particular), emphasizing the relations between such concepts as tourism > tourism of the disabled > tourism of the deaf. In Chapter 2, the author briefly presents the geographical aspects of tourism and disability, treating these issues as a starting point for a detailed discussion.

The results of empirical analysis are preceded by a presentation of the conditions of life of the deaf (Chapter 3), as well as the factors enhancing and

limiting their tourism activity (Chapter 4). These are extremely important issues, as they let the reader understand the spatial behaviour of the disabled (mainly the deaf).

Detailed research on the tourism activity of the deaf based on empirical research (Chapter 6), is presented against the tourism activity of Poles in general. In this part of the work, the author presents the tourism behaviours of the disabled, divided into short- (weekend and holiday tourism), medium- and long-term (holiday, summer holiday tourism), as well as the attitude of deaf people towards social integration in free time. The chapter also presents the spatial distribution of journeys made by both hearing and deaf respondents (e.g. the furthest tourist trip ever made, a dream journey).

The conclusion to the publication is that even though they have similar tourism needs, the deaf require a special adjustment of geographical (tourism) space to perceive some of its elements. Another conclusion is the confirmation that the deaf tend to spend their free time in their own environment and their level of social integration with healthy (hearing) people or other disability groups is low.

The greatest theoretical achievement is the creation and description of a model of activities stimulating the development of tourism for the deaf. Its main element is an indication of activities adjusting the tourism offer to their needs. Another result is a model for adjusting data in the Tourist Information System, to the needs of sign language users. Its aim is to better prepare space (geographical, tourist) for 'consumption' by deaf people.

An undeniable advantage of the book by Alina Zajadacz is its up-to-datedness, both as regards general contents and information. The author presents the key issues in a concise and clear way, concentrating mainly on the tourism of the disabled, especially the deaf. At a time when everyone has a right to take advantage of tourism, it is an extremely important

issue. An approach to key issues using models makes the book not only original, but also universal and it can be a basis for discussion and comparison with other research conducted in Poland and abroad.

Bogdan Włodarczyk

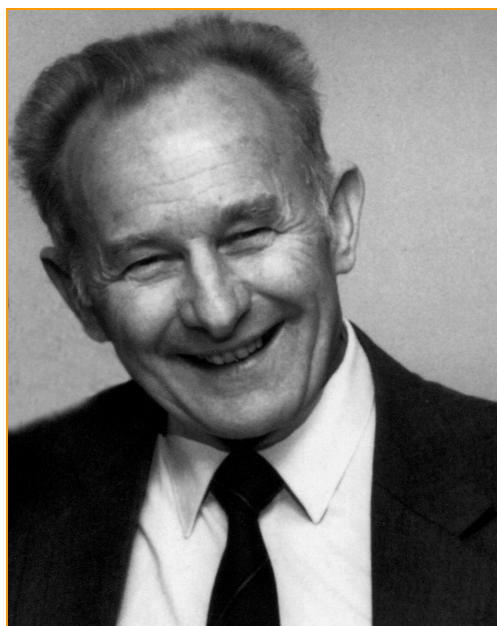
University of Łódź
Institute of Urban Geography and Tourism

Translated by Ewa Mossakowska

IN MEMORIAM

Tourism 2014, 24/1

PROFESSOR KRZYSZTOF PRZECŁAWSKI (1927–2014)



Prof. Krzysztof Przeclawski was a distinguished Polish academic, tourism specialist, a teacher and the educator of many generations of university students. He graduated from the Law Department, University of Warsaw and was granted doctoral and habilitation degrees in Humanities at the Polish Academy of Science. He became full professor in 1995.

He was a renowned lecturer on tourism sociology, who gave lectures at the University of Warsaw, the Jagiellonian University, the Central School of Planning and Statistics, the Physical Education Academy in Kraków, the Higher Humanistic School in Pułtusk, the Higher School of Social Sciences in Warsaw and the Higher School of Hotel Management, Gastronomy and Tourism, as well as abroad, e.g. at the International Centre of Tourism Studies in Turin (1968-75). He worked mostly at the University of Warsaw, especially the Institute of 'Social Prophylaxis and Resocialization'.

Prof. Przeclawski was the author of over one hundred academic papers, several hundred publications which included several books and numerous articles

on tourism sociology, the humanistic and ethical foundations of tourism, as well as education and re-socialization through tourism. The most important include *Turystyka a wychowanie* (1973), *Socjologiczne problemy turystyki* (1979), *Humanistyczne podstawy turystyki* (1986), *Turystyka a świat współczesny* (1994), *Człowiek a turystyka – zarys socjologii turystyki* (1996), *Etyczne podstawy turystyki* (1997), *Turystyka a religie* (1999).

Życie to podróż ("Life is a journey") is the title of one of his books. His journey through life was professionally, socially and privately connected with tourism; he was fascinated with travel. He once wrote: "Travelling has always been my passion".

Travelling all over Poland and around the world was not only Prof. Przeclawski's favourite activity, but also an object of study and reflection. He approached all aspects of tourism and studied its complexity defining it as a psychological, social, economic, spatial and cultural phenomenon. He combined his theoretical interest with his vast knowledge of philosophy and sociology, to lay the foundations of the Polish school of tourism sociology, developing the theory and defin-

ing the functions and range of this particular discipline. He analysed tourism as a social and cultural transformation factor, important for cross-cultural dialogue. He stressed the educational and ethical functions of tourism.

Prof. Przeclawski looked for answers to the following questions: What does tourism mean for people? What is the role of tourism in the social and cultural transformation of contemporary society? He claimed that "tourism is above all a human activity".

He saw tourism as "a chance for national development and an opportunity to educate the young". It was a vision which guided him through his career. He had the gift of making people focus on problems and important events. He was inspired by the issues of modern tourism which was becoming a global and increasingly commercial phenomenon. In 1987, together with a group of other academics and tourism experts, he founded the Polish Tourism Association whose aim is to support tourism and tourism-related disciplines. He was the first chairman (1988-95), and then honorary chairman of the Association, as well as the initiator of the First Polish Tourism Congress, held in Warsaw in 1995, and the author of its theme: "Tourism as a Chance for National Development". During the congress, he proposed adopting "A Declaration by the Polish Tourism Congress on the need for ethics in tourism".

In 1988, he became one of the founders of the International Academy of Tourism Studies, based in Madrid. Its first conference was held one year later in Poland.

He initiated and was in charge of some research programs, such as the international project entitled "Tourism as a result of transformation: socio-cultural studies" (1982-90) (initially coordinated by the Social Sciences Centre in Vienna), or the Central Program of Basic Studies, entitled "Tourism as a socio-economic development factor" (1986-90). The latter took place at the Institute of Tourism, headed by him for many years (1983-91), in cooperation with all Polish research centres and academics (around 300) involved in a wide range of tourism studies.

Professor Przeclawski was a member of many international academic associations, including the International Association of Tourism Experts and the International Sociological Association, as well as a member of the editorial team of "Annals of Tourism Research", published in the United States, an Editorial Committee member of "Tourism", published by the Institute of Tourism in Zagreb, and the Chief Editor of "Problemy Turystyki" ("Tourism Issues"), published at his own Institute of Tourism.

It is not possible to list or evaluate all his achievements. A researcher and a teacher dedicated to academic life and tourism, he educated, influenced and inspired others. He showed great organizational skills and initiative throughout his life.

Prof. Przeclawski was honoured with a doctor *honoris causa* degree by the Physical Education Academy in Kraków (2005). He was also awarded the Knight's and Commander's Cross of the Order of *Polsnia Restituta* and many other distinctions, including the Golden Honorary Badge of Merit to Warsaw and the Honorary Badge of Merit to Tourism.

A great humanist, philosopher and tourism sociologist, open-minded and friendly towards all people, he emanated cordiality and kindness which he instilled in others. It could be seen in the warm relationships in the groups of people that he dealt with at universities, institutes and associations.

We addressed him "Krzysztof", reducing the distance, just as he wished. For many, he was a good friend. All who knew him valued his vast knowledge, research experience and modesty. Always curious of people and the world, always exploring it, he promised in one of his books: "When I get to the other side, I will be watching further events in Poland and the world..."

Professor Krzysztof Przeclawski – a wonderful, wise and righteous man dedicated to academic life, his family and tourism – died on 15th January 2014. Tourism has suffered an irreparable loss.

Alicja Gotowt-Jeziorska
Head of the Polish Tourism Association

Translated by Ewa Mossakowska