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THE MEANING OF GENOCIDE AND TERROR IN COGNITIVE TOURISM

Abstract: The article considers the influence of acts of terror and war crimes on both the development of tourism, or a lack of it. Terrorist attacks, the victims of which are tourists as well as local citizens, constrain or completely prevent tourism development. Terrorism is then a barrier to the development of the tourism economy. With time, however, memory of the crime and its victims, due to documentation and commemoration, may become an impulse to organize spaces which will be included in tourism.

Key words: thanatourism, terrorism, genocide, remembrance, tourism space.

1. INTRODUCTION

Information plays an important role in creating tourism needs and motivations often differing from those in the past. Let us take, for example, travelling to places which in the mid-20th c. were regarded as non-touristic for safety reasons, lack of tourism infrastructure and facilities, and political or transport limitations.

The 1980s marked the beginning of travel to sites where acts of terror or war crimes had taken place in the relatively recent past. Although visiting sites of terror, genocide or war has a long history, trips made in order to see the site of a crime still vividly remembered by local people and stirring strong emotions among them, have always been controversial (SHARPLEY & STONE 2009, STONE 2012). The urge for this type of travel may arise from a variety of reasons, such as the need to pay homage to the victims, a feeling of empathy towards them or their relatives, or the need to commemorate the very fact of the crime itself. Tourists' needs, however, may be purely emotional, e.g. they may want to travel to a site which has experienced evil and cruelty, and bears the stigma of the dangerous or forbidden, evoking fear and disgust. Such tourism is most often referred to as *dark tourism* (LENNON & FOLEY 2000) and *thanatourism* (SEATON 1996). The literature offers a whole array of terms describing journeys to sites with a sinister history, such as *black spot tourism*, *slavery tourism*, *genocide tourism*, *war tourism*, *battlefield tourism*, *terror tourism*, *phoenix tourism* or *death tourism*.

Armed conflicts and terrorism belong to those factors which constrain or prevent tourism. Other factors are social (crime rate, cultural differences), political (political or religious conflicts), health (epidemics, contagious diseases), industrial (chemical and nuclear hazards) and environmental (natural disasters). The main causes are the impossibility of guaranteeing safety to tourists and those employed in the industry, as well as the logistical difficulties in organizing a tourism stay in dangerous areas.

The factors constraining tourism development also include ethical barriers (STONE 2012). Should an exploring tourist visit places where other people have suffered and died, and at the same time observe the results of violence; and not necessarily combining their stay with a noble cause such as humanitarian aid?

For safety or political reasons, in such situations, tourists are usually isolated from the world around them and safely accommodated; they travel in convoys guarded by armed police, the army or special units, and observe reality from a 'safe' though close distance. In such circumstances we may even talk about the theatricalisation of human suffering.

In the contemporary world, tourism is considered to be one of the most profitable sectors of an economy. In 2012, it generated 9% of global GNP and 6% of exports in the least developed countries, bringing in 1,200 billion dollars annually, with 1,035 billion tourism arrivals crossing borders. One in 12 jobs

globally is found in the tourism sector. Compared to the previous year, in 2012 the increase in the number of foreign tourism arrivals was larger in developing countries (+4.3%). In Africa, it reached 6%, after a considerable drop of 9% in 2011 due to unrest in North Africa. In 2011, there was a clear decrease in the number of arrivals in Tunisia (-31%) and Egypt (-32%), in comparison to 2010. Again, it was a consequence of political unrest and acts of violence. A similar trend was found in 2011 in Jordan (-6%), Lebanon (-24%), Palestine (-14%) and Syria (-41%) (UNWTO 2012, 2013).

Tourism is one of the key economic sectors in many countries, in particular those with an unstable socio-political situation and underdeveloped economy, countries which are nevertheless attractive from the point of view of satisfying tourism needs. Statistics concerning foreign tourism arrivals in 2011 and 2012 in South Africa alone show how sensitive tourism is to political unrest and a lack of security resulting from terrorist, military and criminal activity.

Acts of violence, war and terrorism limit tourism over relatively short periods. The changes in tourism in South-East Asia, which were the consequence of the terrorist attack on the World Trade Centre (WTC) in New York in 2001, were pointed out by EDMONDS & MAK (2006) who showed that tourism decreases only for a short period of time, but returns to the previous trend. Unfortunately, it is always connected with considerable financial losses in many sectors of the economy (Fig. 1).

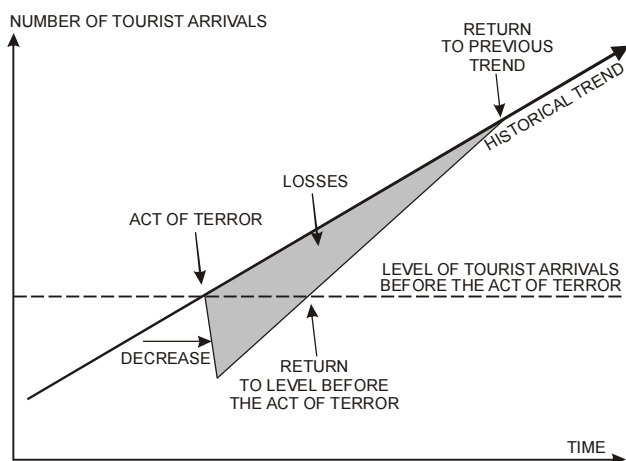


Fig. 1. Decreases and increases in tourism after an act of terror
Source: author's compilation based on EDMONDS & MAK (2006)

In the long run, acts of violence (genocide, terror) may be commemorated in geographical space through symbols – monuments, graves, museums or theme parks (historical). With time, events of this type may become an impulse to the development of a historical

asset associated with an act of violence, and then be transformed gradually into a tourism attraction and product. Then we may speak about the formation of remembrance space, a symbolic space frequently visited by tourists.

2. GENOCIDE AND TERROR AS A BARRIER TO TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

In the second half of the 20th c. and in the early 21st c., in the era of rapid global economic development (including tourism), military conflicts have become very common frequently resulting in war atrocities and genocide. War discourages potential tourists, though there are cases when a 'tourist' travels to a conflict area in order to experience the reality of war directly (currently, it is the border area between North and South Korea, Syria, Afghanistan, Pakistan and Iraq).

An element relevant to this issue is the scale of today's crimes against humanity, which largely or completely prevent tourism development. Unfortunately, recent acts of genocide have been taking place in very attractive tourism areas (BEECH 2009). In the last 50 years, they have been recorded in Bangladesh, Cambodia (crimes committed by the Khmer Rouge), Northern Iraq (the Kurdish massacre), the former Yugoslavia (Srebrenica massacre), Rwanda (the conflict between the Tutsi and the Hutu), Darfur (the conflict in Sudan), Syria (civil war), and many other parts of Africa and Asia (BRUNETEAU 2005). In the literature in English on the subject, travel to places where people are killed in great numbers is referred to as genocide tourism (BEECH 2009).

In the second half of the 20th c. a new military target – civilians – was used, who had nothing to do with the front line or any conscious contact with the war. Civilians, attacked in all parts of the world from the 1960s, have included tourists who have fallen victim to terrorist armed groups, partisans and criminals, kidnapping or killing for publicity, to reach their own political goals or to gain money.

Terrorism is a form of political violence, in which murder or destruction is used (or its threat) in order to shock or arouse extreme fear in individuals, or among groups, communities and authorities, to force them to agree to political compromise, provoke hasty reactions and to demonstrate their own political stand (BOLECHÓW 2002, 35). In the case of attacks on tourists, we may talk about international terrorism, involving the citizens or territory of more than one country. Religious terrorism may affect pilgrimage tourism.

Table 1. Examples of terrorist attacks on tourists

Date	Place	Event description
5/3/1970	Tel Aviv (Israel)	Attack on the Savoy Hotel in Tel Aviv
13/2/1978	Sydney (Australia)	Attack on the Hilton Hotel in Sydney
2/11/1979	Mecca (Saudi Arabia)	Islamic terrorists occupy the Great Mosque in Mecca
26/9/1980	Munich (Germany)	Bomb attack during the <i>Oktoberfest</i>
7/10/1985	Alexandria (Egypt)	Hijacking of the Achille Lauro (a ship)
22/9/1989	Deal (England)	Bomb explosion at the Royal Marines holiday centre in Deal, organized by the IRA
18/4/1996	Giza (Egypt)	Islamic extremists shoot Greek tourists, taking them for Israelis, near the pyramids in Giza
28/7/1996	Atlanta (USA)	Bomb explosion during a concert at the Atlanta Olympic Games
18/9/1997	Cairo (Egypt)	German tourists die in an attack in front of the Egyptian Museum
17/12/1997	Luxor (Egypt)	Attack on tourists in Luxor
15/10/1997	Colombo (Sri Lanka)	Attack on the Galedan Meridian Hotel
11/9/2001	New York (USA)	Attack on the World Trade Center (WTC)
23-26/10/ 2002	Moscow (Russia)	Attack by Chechen terrorists on the Dubrovka Theatre, Moscow
28/10/2002	Mombasa (Kenya)	Attack on a hotel and Israeli tourists, and an attempt to shoot a plane down in Mombasa
12/10/2002	Kuta (Bali - Indonesia)	Two bomb attacks on a bar and a club
16/5/2003	Casablanca (Morocco)	Suicide attack
5/8/2003	Djakarta (Indonesia)	Bomb attack on the Marriott Hotel
11/3/2004	Madrid (Spain)	Bomb attacks on suburban trains in Madrid
7/10/2004	Taba (Egypt)	Bomb attack in Taba in Egypt
23/7/2005	Sharm El Sheikh (Egypt)	Bomb attacks in Sharm El Sheikh
11/7/2006	Srinagar, Jammu, Kashmir (India)	Bomb attacks on tourists
24/4/2006	Dahab (Egypt)	Bomb attacks in Dahab
31/12/2006	Bangkok (Thailand)	Bomb attacks in Bangkok
20 IX 2008	Islamabad (Pakistan)	Explosion at the Hotel Marriott
26-29/11/2008	Bombay (India)	Attacks on hotels in the centre of Bombay
17/7/2009	Djakarta (Indonesia)	Bombs explode at the luxury Marriott and Ritz-Carlton Hotels
18/7/2012	Burgas (Bulgaria)	Suicide attack on a coach with tourists from Israel; the bus exploded in front of the airport

Source: author's compilation.

Domestic terrorism affects the residents of the country in which political terror is used.

Inward and outward tourism is very sensitive to political instability, e.g. wars, acts of violence, riots, coups or strikes. Examples of the bloodiest and most spectacular of terrorist attacks show that political instability is an element which destroys tourism anywhere in the world. Frequent terrorist targets are hotels, restaurants, bars, clubs or railway stations, i.e. places visited by tourists (Table 1). The basic aim of terrorism is to arouse fear among potential victims (often tourists or pilgrims), which directly or indirectly influences the behaviour of those threatened (*Encyklopedia terroryzmu* 2004, 13).

In the 20th c., terrorism became an accepted tactic of rebellion, especially in developing countries in post-colonial areas of Africa and South Asia, where the targets of attacks are visitors. In developed countries, the largest and most active terrorist organizations are

ETA (Basque Homeland and Freedom) and the IRA (Irish Republican Army), who also attack tourism sites. In 1996, ETA started to attack tourism destinations in Spain, including Majorca, and the IRA planted bombs at entertainment centres and restaurants on the mainland of Great Britain. Since the 1970s, the FLNC (Corsica National Liberation Front) has been attacking tourism resorts in Corsica.

In the 1960s and 1970s, Palestinian organizations became interested in air transport, sports events and tourism centres as easy international targets in the war with Israel. Attacks on Israeli tourism sites are still common (mostly in Jerusalem, Tel Aviv and Haifa). The beginning of modern international terrorism was marked by the hijacking of an Israeli plane flying from Rome to Tel Aviv, on 22 July 1968, by the Popular Front for the Liberation of Palestine (PFLP). Planes had been hijacked before, but in that particular case the terrorists' aim was to voice their own

revolutionary propaganda. This modern tactic became a precedent repeated many times in following years.

The next wave of terror was connected with the growth of Islamic fundamentalism, whose main centre at the end of the 1970s was Iran. Similar activity was started by groups in Latin America and South Asia, who attacked tourism destinations or kidnapped tourists for publicity or to gain money for weapons. Tourists were frequently abducted by narcotic cartels in their war with the authorities.

For ten years, starting from 1975, ASALA (Armenian Secret Army for the Liberation of Armenia) attacked airline offices. In the 1990s, attacks were organized in Turkey (earlier also in Cyprus) and included abductions of tourists, or attacks on hotels and restaurants in holiday resorts, by members of the Kurdistan Workers' Party (PKK). In Egypt, in the 1990s, tourists were one of the main targets of Islamic terrorism. Despite the fundamentalists' traditional hostility towards 'western culture', seen as invading Islamic lands, the tourism sector is one of the major sources of income in Egypt. In October 1992, Islamic militants ambushed a tourist coach, killing one and injuring several others. The woman killed was the first foreigner to be murdered in Egypt in the 1990s; it was the beginning of a series of attacks on foreign tourists which were to make the Egyptian militants fighting against Hosni Mubarak's regime famous.

In March 1993, Islamists ordered all foreigners to leave the country. They started to attack tourists following a plan to break the country's economy and overthrow the government. Acts of violence took place during cruises on the Nile, in Cairo (e.g. in April, Islamic fundamentalists shot 18 Greek tourists in front of a hotel in Hurghada in Upper Egypt, because they mistook them for an Israeli group). Between 1992-7, over 90 foreigners were killed in Egypt. In 1993, one year after the campaign of terror began, income generated by tourism decreased by half, i.e. by 1.5 billion dollars (*Encyklopedia Terroryzmu* 2002, 403). The bloodiest attacks in Egypt took place in Luxor (17th November 1997 members of an Islamic Group attacked tourists in front of the Deir-el-Bahari shrines, as a result of which 62 people died), Taba (October 2004 - 34 victims of bomb attacks) and Sharm el-Sheikh (23 July 2005 - 88 died and over 200 were injured in bomb attacks).

Attacks on tourists have taken place in other parts of the world as well. On 16th May 2003, in Casablanca, Morocco, 33 civilians died, including foreign tourists, due to a series of suicide bomb attacks by terrorists from the Salafia Jihadia group. On 18th January 2012, armed assailants in the north of Ethiopia attacked a group of European tourists, killing five, injuring two and kidnapping two. In press archives a lot of

information about terrorist attacks on tourists or their abductions can be found, e.g. on Bali (bomb attacks in 2002), in Islamabad, Bombay and many other parts of the world where European tourists have been attacked by Islamic fundamentalists who wanted to frighten and discourage them from coming. A recent example of an area excluded from tourism use is the major tourism attraction in Pakistan - the Swat Valley - which became one of the most important targets for Al Qaeda. In this way, the famous area of high-mountain trekking in northern Pakistan and the gate to the highest parts of the Himalayas was closed to tourism. The most tragic terrorist attack on Himalayan climbers in history took place in June 2013 at the Nanga Parbat base camp, which brought death to ten foreigners.

The most common terrorist strategy is the bomb attack, but in the 1970s other common methods included abducting hostages and hijacking planes or ships giving terrorists access to the mass media (Table 2).

The most spectacular abduction of hostages was the hijacking of five planes and blowing three of them up by the Popular Front for the Liberation of Palestine (PFLP) at Dawson's Field Airport in Jordan, in 1970, or the hijacking of the tourist ship, Achille Lauro, in the Mediterranean Sea in 1985.

In 1968 - 72 Palestinian terrorists hijacked 12 planes. Between 1969-81 there were over 550 cases of hijacking globally (*Encyklopedia terroryzmu* 2002, 225-226), many of which involved tourists. The number of hijacks decreased in the second half of the 1980s, mostly due to advances in aviation safety measures. Between 1969-94, 850 planes were hijacked, 50,000 people suffered, including 600 that died (STRZEMIENIECKI 1994, 51).

Most attacks on tourists have taken place in the poorest countries of the world, where tourism plays a key role in the economy. Wanting to discourage tourists from visiting the country, terrorists also hamper the economic and social development of a given region at the same time. International tourism is a sector based on interpersonal contacts and a dialogue between cultures. Success in tourism requires political stability, peace and security, which is why international terrorism brings negative economic, political and social effects, especially as regards international tourism (BACHVAROV & NAPIERALA 2002). This is confirmed by examples of the largest terrorist attacks directly or indirectly affecting a tourism economy. The turn of the millenium brought the bloodiest acts of terror, such as the attacks in Egypt in the 1990s and in 2004-5; the most tragic terrorist attack in history with the use of passenger planes in September 2001 in the USA; or the most atrocious attacks in contemporary Europe - in Madrid in 2004 and in London, in 2005.

Table 2. Examples of terrorist attacks on passenger planes and airport terminals in which tourists were the victims

Date	Name of airline/airport	Description (terrorist group)
12/10/1967	Cyprus Airways	Plane crash (de Havilland DH 106 Comet, flight 284) as a result of a bomb explosion
23/7/1968	El Al	The first Israeli plane hijacking (PFLP)
21/2/1970	Swissair	Plane crash (Convair 990, flight 330), as a result of a bomb explosion in the cargo hold (PFLP)
6-9/9/1970	El Al, Swissair, BOAC, TWA, Pan Am	Hijacking 5 planes and blowing up 3 at Dawson's Field Airport in Jordan (PFLP)
26/1/1972	Jugoslovenski Aerotransport,	Plane crash (McDonnell Douglas DC-9) as a result of a bomb explosion in the cargo hold (Ustase - Croatian Revolutionary Movement)
30/5/1972	Lod (Israel)	Lod Airport massacre (Japanese Red Army)
7/9/1974	TWA	Plane crash as a result of a bomb explosion (PFLP)
27/6/1976	Air France	Hijacking Airbus A-300, flight 139 (PFLP)
13/10/1977	Lufthansa	Hijacking Boeing 737 (PFLP)
12/2/1979	Air Rhodesia	Vickers Viscount, flight 825 shot down (ZIPRA)
7/8/1982	Ankara (Turkey)	Planting a bomb at Ankara airport (ASALA)
23/6/1985	Air India	Plane crash (Boeing 747, flight 182) as a result of a bomb explosion (Babbar Khalsa)
23/11/1985	Egypt Air	Hijacking a plane (Abu Nidala)
27/12/1985	Vienna (Austria), Rome (Italy)	Attacks on airports (Abu Nidala)
25/12/1986	Iraqi Airways	Hijacking and plane crash
29/11/1986	Korean Air	Plane crash (Boeing 747, flight 858) as a result of a bomb explosion (North Korean agents)
21/12/1988	Pan American World Airways (Lockerbie)	Plane crash (Boeing 747, flight 103), as a result of a bomb explosion (Libyan agents)
19/9/1989	UTA	Plane crash (McDonnell Douglas DC-10, flight 772), as a result of a bomb explosion (Libya)
24/12/1994	Air France	Plane hijacking (Armed Islamic Group of Algeria)
23/11/1996	Ethiopian Airlines	Hijacking and plane crash (Boeing 767, flight 961) (Ethiopian terrorists)
11/9/2001	United Airlines, American Airlines	Hijacking 4 planes belonging to American airlines and crashing them (Al Qaeda)

Source: author's compilation.

The results of a study conducted in Jordan among a group of foreign tourists from six continents (ALSA-RAYREH, JAWABREH & HELALAT 2010, 157), point to political instability as an important factor affecting tourism. Wars between countries are destructive not only for the tourism economy of those countries, but also for those neighbouring, as with the wars in the Persian Gulf in 1991 and 2003. Tourism in Iraq was nearly totally paralyzed, but neighbouring countries such as Jordan and Syria were affected as well. Similarly, the unstable situations in Palestine, Syria and Iran reduce tourism in Israel. Apart from direct dangers to tourists, the destruction of tourism infrastructure and historical attractions, conflicts and acts of terror have a long-term effect on the image of the country or region. Tourism is always one of the first victims of armed conflict and acts of violence, as well as one of the main economic sectors affected by war, terrorist activity or political instability. Referring to the results of the study mentioned above, 78% of respondents enquired about the political situation in a country before a visit, and 61% took the political

warnings not to travel to a given country during the crisis seriously.

Measurable benefits of attacks on tourists include the following: a guarantee of publicity; simultaneously hampering the development of the tourism sector and the whole economy; causing social tensions and undermining the position of authorities; lack of risk of losing the support of the local population due to the unacceptable and objectionable tourism behaviour resulting from cultural differences; drawing public attention to inequality between developed and developing countries, symbolized by the luxurious hotel facilities. Finally, the tourism sector is a relatively easy target of attack.

Terrorist attacks on tourists may be divided according to the site – an attack takes place at a recreational destination or in the transit zone between place of permanent residence and place of holiday stay (e.g. at airports or on means of transport); the target – during the attack the tourist is a consciously selected target or an incidental victim; while information about the attack holds up or reduces tourism at a site where it has happened before.

A tourist is often an incidental victim of an attack. It may happen, however, that terrorists attack a group of tourists they had selected earlier, in order to gain specific benefits, frequently financial (abduction or blackmail for ransom). This usually happens in countries where conflicts have an economic, ethnic, political or religious background, as in Turkey, Israel, Palestine, the Middle East and Africa; Peru, Mexico and other countries of Latin America; Sri Lanka, the Philippines and other Asian countries.

The duty to warn tourists against danger was stated in the Global Code of Ethics for Tourism, which was approved during the 13th General Assembly of the World Tourism Organization in Santiago, in 1999, in the A/RES/406 resolution. Official recognition by the UN General Assembly came on 21st December 2001, through the UN A/RES/56/212 resolution. It is a set of principles, whose purpose is to guide stakeholders participating in tourism development, such as state administration, local communities, tourism organizations, as well as tourists themselves, so that development is steady and responsible. The Code of Ethics refers to trade, security and humanitarian issues which influence tourism in a variety of ways. The authorities are responsible for ensuring security for tourists and visitors and their property. They should be particularly concerned about the security of foreign tourists who are at particular danger and provide them with easy access to information, protection, safety, security and help should such a need arise. Each attack, assault, abduction or threat to tourists or those employed in tourism, as well as purposeful destruction of tourism facilities, and cultural or natural heritage should be severely punished according to the law of a given country (*Global Code of Ethics for Tourism*, article 1, point 4).

Even when proper safety measures in the travel and tourism sector are kept, the danger of terrorism cannot be eliminated completely. Properly trained services may certainly help relieve the social and economic consequences of terrorist attacks. At the same time, it is important to strengthen and popularize the positive effects of tourism, such as the financial benefits to both the local population and the socio-economic system of the state that need to be supported in order to achieve political and economic stabilization. Travel and tourism weaken the factors leading to terrorism by supporting socio-economic development, creating employment opportunities and supporting mutual understanding and tolerance.

3. REMEMBRANCE OF GENOCIDE AND TERROR AS A TOURISM STIMULATOR

B. BOLECHÓW (2002, 17) draws attention to the subjective understanding of the innocence and guilt of the victims of terror. The guilty may be either tourists, because they support a regime financially, or other groups, as victims of ethnicity or social class. Some forms of terrorism involve attacking those who are not directly involved in conflict, but involvement has been taken by supporting the economy by visiting a given country. For some people someone may be a terrorist, while for others – a freedom fighter. Looking from this angle, sites of terror may be monuments to crime or to glory at the same time. It is very difficult to comprehend terrorism, although in Western thinking it is clearly a crime.

Terror policy is well thought out and long-term, used by a state on its own territory through special institutions, in order to reach certain political goals. Elements of terror include arrests, deportations, tortures, executions, etc, even violation of human rights on a massive scale (genocide). Such policy is sometimes part of the official interpretation of a state's ideology, supported by the law (BOLECHÓW 2002, 27). Terror produces remembrance sites which commemorate crimes; in time museums, mausoleums and other such places, visited by the victims' families, local people or tourists for differing reasons.

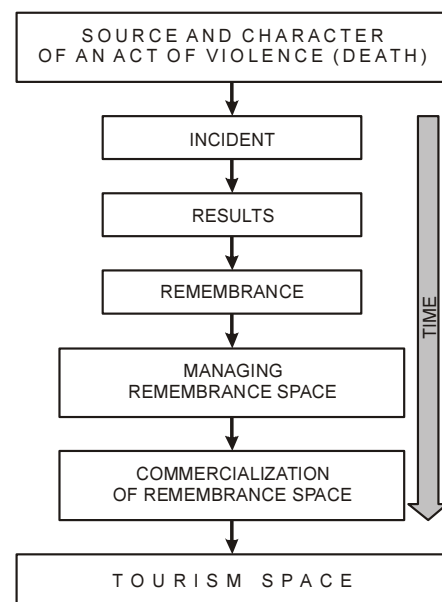


Fig. 2. Tourism use of an act of violence across time
Source: author

Travelling to places historically connected with war became popular as early as the 19th c. However, it was not until the second half of the 20th c. that managers of tourism space and the tourists themselves started to treat cemeteries, monuments and sites documenting acts of violence as tourism attractions. In order to provide a memorial to terror or other crime, remembrance space is managed, which may undergo commercialization and be transformed into tourism space and a tourism product (Fig. 2).

Recent decades have brought an unusual fashion for memorial museums. Their aim is to pay homage, commemorate, document, as well as study violence (Williams 2007). In Europe, there are remembrance sites which commemorate the victims of World War II, e.g. Auschwitz-Birkenau State Museum in Oświęcim, the former prisoner-of-war camp (*stalag*) on Święty Krzyż in the Świętokrzyskie Mountains, or the recently opened Martyrdom of Polish Villages Mausoleum in Michniów. In the 1990s, after the political and economic transformation, 'halls of memory' appeared devoted to Stalinism (e.g. History Museum of the City of Kraków with its permanent exhibition entitled 'Krakovian people and the terror of 1939-1945-1956', and the museums of the Polish Underground State's armed struggle (such as the modern, interactive Museum of the Warsaw Uprising). However, no central museum devoted to the crimes of Stalinism has been organized in Poland yet.

Memorial museums concerning extermination and genocide are quite common, as society is interested in their heritage and tragic history. The most interesting places of this kind, which are at the same time important tourism destinations, include the Yad Vashem Holocaust History Museum in Tel Aviv (Israel); the Tsitsernakaberd Museum of the Armenian Genocide (Armenia); the Fields of Death – a complex of commemorative monuments, museums and parks in Cambodia (e.g. in Tuol Sleng and Choeung Ek); Kigali Memorial Center in Rwanda; and the Cemetery-Monument commemorating the victims of the Srebrenica massacre in Potočari (the Balkans). The Topography of Terror Documentation Centre (*Topographie des Terrors*) in Berlin commemorates the victims of Gestapo and SS. In Budapest, we can find the Museum of Communist Repressions – the House of Terror (*Terror Háza Múzeum*), commemorating the victims of the totalitarian system in Hungary in 1945-56. The museum and monument of 'Red Terror' (*Red Terror Martyrs Memorial Museum*) in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia commemorates the victims of the military junta from 1974-8.

The museum of Hezbollah terrorist technology in Mlit, Lebanon (*Hezbollah's Terror Tech Museum*) is a modern museum presenting the terrorist and armed activity of Hezbollah. The *Counter-terrorism Education*

Learning Lab opened in Denver, USA in 2009, is a modern centre devoted to anti-terrorist activity. The *Oklahoma City National Memorial* is dedicated to the victims of the bomb attack in 1995 and displays original exhibits from the tragedy. Currently, a *9/11 Memorial* is being built to commemorate the victims of the attack on the World Trade Centre in New York on 11th September 2001 and 26th February 1993.

The truly 21st century modern, interactive museum collects souvenirs and artefacts, documents events, commemorates victims, and educates – often by means of the most modern audio-visual technology. It is the form of presentation and the educational role that make these museums tourism attractions, seen as tourism products or elements of a larger one.

An interest in places documenting acts of mass murder and terrorism originates from the needs to be satisfied during a visit. It is usually a combination of the need to learn about heritage and cultural assets and a need to learn historical facts i.e. the cognitive and educational factor. Another motivation is emotional, both in the sphere of the sacred (identification with the tragedy and suffering of the victims) and the profane (experiencing fear and strong psychological stimuli through information, image and sound). Interest in death comes from its absence in the everyday life of an average tourist, however it is often featured in the media, films and books, thus arousing conscious or unconscious fascination with the problem.

In Poland it is hard to find places documenting contemporary terrorism, apart from a large number of places commemorating Nazi terror and Stalinism (ŁABUSZEWSKI 2012). The museums which document terror and genocide include those organized at the site of former concentration, extermination and POW camps. The best-known museum of this type in Poland is the Auschwitz-Birkenau National Museum in Oświęcim, presenting not only evidence of genocide and the extermination of the Jewish population (Shoah), but also the methods of terror used against civilians by the Nazis.

The study of motivations for visiting the Auschwitz-Birkenau Museum (BERBEKA ed. 2012) validates the earlier statements. Half of the respondents confirmed that the museum is a stop en route in a tourism trip and pointed to the considerable tourism attractiveness of the site as well as its importance as a tourism product, increasing the tourism competitiveness of the Małopolska region. The majority of respondents mentioned the need to learn about the history of the camp, and pay homage to the victims as their motivation for the visit. As for post-visit emotions, tourists usually mentioned feelings of sadness, reflection, and at the same time respect for life and a stronger sensitivity to both human suffering and genocide itself. The results of this study confirm

both the pedagogical and the andragogical effect of a tourism visit in a historical death space.

4. GENOCIDE AND TERROR AS OBJECTS OF TOURISM INTEREST

We should not ignore the fact that people differ in their opinions about travelling to sites connected with acts of terror and genocide for tourism purposes. We must also remember the commercial use of the effects of terror and genocide for purposes which are not always approved of. Unfortunately, tourism also generates thanatourism dysfunctions, possibly due to a superficial knowledge of a given death space, being filled with negative emotions and not wanted. Death space may also be seen as a place of contact with a pop-cultural image of death. Tourism may lead to excessive and undesirable exploitation of this space, its reification and profanation.

How death is presented, and historical facts narrated, is extremely important for the interpretation of the event and the visited site. The authenticity of the message about death, and the reaction to it as a result of receiving outside stimuli, is highly important for an understanding of the causes and results of a given death (STONE 2012). In visited death spaces, death is presented so that the tourist 'consumes' it in a particular way through his/her experience. By providing proper narration and its setting, the organizer of a 'death remembrance space' may pursue goals set earlier. Depending on whether the goals are educational or entertainment-oriented, the form of the message will be different, though each time it may be focused on triggering off certain reactions, often severe such as shock, disgust, fear, sadness, etc. At sites documenting terror and genocide, the educational message is important making the tourist aware in what conditions the crime was committed and what it involved. The goal of passing this information is to teach history, preserve the event in memory, but at the same time to develop certain social attitudes. It is naturally controversial to point to the entertainment aspect of the motivation to visit such places. However, many such visits take place during longer recreational stays or tourism trips, and the visited sites of remembrance - museums - are treated as tourism attractions or elements of larger tourism products. Ignoring the ethical aspect, places like Auschwitz, Ground Zero, or Toul Sleng are can be visited as an element of 'dark entertainment' (STONE 2009).

Organizing educational classes in given death spaces reinforces the historical, religious or social message, as well as a tourist's world view (TANAŚ

2011). Learning history at sites which commemorate death is certainly a tourism activity because learning about cultural heritage takes place through direct contact with a symbolic space. In this way, it is possible to enhance the building of national identity and develop patriotic attitudes. From the pedagogical and educational perspective, the aim of cognitive visits to a death space is to raise an individual's awareness by confronting behavioural patterns with death and its symbolism (TANAŚ 2012). A result of this may be an understanding of the need to organize tourism infrastructure in order to propagate historical knowledge, as well as an understanding of the activity of institutions working for the protection and preservation of cultural heritage and the memory of tragic events.

5. CONCLUSIONS

The author has considered the influence of acts of terror and war crimes on both the development of tourism, or a lack of it. On the one hand, terrorism hampers the development of tourism space and the tourism economy. It reduces or prevents tourism in areas where tourists suffer from acts of violence. With time, however, the crime and the memory of the victims may become an impulse to make commemorative, cognitive and other visits to remembrance spaces a part of tourism.

The examples of terrorist attacks quoted in the article, where tourists were incidental or consciously selected victims, point to the gravity of the problem in areas which are unstable politically and economically. Terrorism affects economic development and decreases tourism interest in areas which cannot guarantee safety to visitors, but which may offer outstanding recreational and cognitive assets. Unfortunately, statistics and the current global political situation show that many attractive tourism areas are or probably will be inaccessible to tourists. At the same time, new tourism products which are based on death as an element of cultural and historical heritage, set in death spaces, meet the expectations of a variety of groups, determining tourism potential in some areas.

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THE BATTLE OF ŁÓDŹ 1914: A CHANCE TO DEVELOP MILITARY HERITAGE TOURISM IN THE METROPOLITAN TOURISM REGION OF ŁÓDŹ¹

Abstract: Wars were and still are an intrinsic element in the history of mankind. They bring glory to the victorious, the bitterness of failure to the defeated, and always destruction and suffering to ordinary people, but at the same time they have had a great impact or even shaped the culture of societies. In many places all over the world, as well as in Poland, relics from wars, battlefields, fortifications and weapons are unique and an extraordinary attraction that might bring in tourists. This type of tourism is known as military heritage tourism. In Łódź and its vicinity there are many military sites that might potentially become an attraction. They are mostly related to the great but forgotten Battle of Łódź that took place during the Great War. However, are they attractive enough to create a tourism product?

Keywords: military heritage tourism, battlefield tourism, Great War, Battle of Łódź, tourism product, metropolitan region.

1. RESEARCH PROBLEM

By the turn of the 21st c. a systematic change in tourism had begun. Instead of just recovering physically, people started to look for opportunities to broaden their knowledge, for rich and unusual experiences that would allow them to relax after the problems of everyday life. The tendency to abandon traditional forms of tourism such as 3xS (Sun, Sea, Sand) for a 'new' tourism based on the formula of 3xE (Entertainment, Excitement, Education) became a reality. One type of tourism that perfectly fits this approach is so-called **heritage tourism**², considered one of the fastest growing segments of world tourism with an estimated 37% coverage of the market according to UN WTO (GAWORECKI 2010). One unusual type of heritage tourism, increasing in popularity, is military tourism. Interest is focused mainly on different kinds of military sites connected with war, martyrology, military history, famous generals etc. These kinds of sites are spread all around Poland – a country with an extremely turbulent history. Many examples can be found in *Łódzkie Województwo* including relics from the Great War period, especially from the forgotten Operation Łódź that took place in 1914. The great opportunity to remember these past events is the centenary of the beginning of World War 1 that will be commemorated in 2014. As a consequence of this the

author has come up with the idea that it would be good to explore the potential of Operation Łódź and to explore opportunities to develop the tourism industry in the region.

2. DEFINITIONS OF MILITARY HERITAGE TOURISM AND BATTLEFIELD TOURISM

To fully understand the phenomenon of military heritage tourism (JĘDRYSIAK & MIKOS VON ROHRSCHEIDT 2011) or according to other authors, 'historical-military' tourism (KOWALCZYK 2008), it is necessary to explain heritage tourism itself. Formerly it was regarded mainly as travel motivated by a willingness to take part in so-called high culture, understood as visiting art galleries, museums, going to concerts etc (MIKOS VON ROHRSCHEIDT 2008b). Nowadays, tourism specialists understand it in much broader way and define it as '*activities of a tourist based on authentic interest in cultural heritage (monuments, local folklore, historical sites etc.) and their active participation in cultural life as broadly understood*' (KOWALCZYK 2008).

Military sites, warfare events and the places where they have occurred are part of 'culture as broadly

understood', despite the fact that they are mostly identified with tragedy, death and destruction. However it is wars that have shaped to a large extent the history of mankind, contributed to the progress of civilization, and paradoxically influenced the development of culture and art. From this point of view military tourism might be considered as a type of heritage tourism. MIKOS VON ROHRSCHEIDT (2008a) defines it as: '*... tourism trips for which the main reason to travel is to get personal experience or education, and in which the main point of the programme, the most important and decisive factor, is visiting sites connected with defence or the history of war, military forces, equipment, leaders or soldiers.*' (MIKOS VON ROHRSCHEIDT 2008a).

Other authors, for example, KOWALCZYK (2010) use the concept of 'historical-military' tourism, which indicates the dual aspect of a tourist's interest.

The subject of tourists' interest could be either historical-military sites or particular parts, places where famous war leaders stayed, collections of weapons or even works of art on battle themes. LAWIN & STASIAK (2009) among other military attractions give examples of different types of defensive structures, monuments commemorating historical events, places connected with war leaders, cemeteries and graves of soldiers, military events (such as the celebrations of *jednostki wojskowe*, demonstrations of military equipment, military enthusiast conventions, battle re-enactments etc.) and also the battlefields themselves.

The specific type of historical-military tourism connected with the last is so-called **battlefield tourism**. This is nothing new, however only recently have they drawn the attention of researchers. The main reason for taking part in this particular type of tourism is a willingness to visit the site where the famous battle took place. This could originate from a variety of touristic needs KOWALCZYK (2009): cognition (interests), cognitive-recreational (hobbies), political-ideological (patriotism), sentiment (memories, visiting the graves of relatives) or adventure (adventure tourism, extreme tourism etc.).

3. HISTORICAL BACKGROUND TO THE BATTLE OF ŁÓDŹ

The Battle of Łódź was a part of the bigger Operation Łódź which is considered as one of the greatest manoeuvre operations of the Great War. The aim of the operation was to anticipate the planned Russian offensive and was known as 'steamroller'. The operation began on November 11th 1914 with a series of spectacular victories by the German army, as soon as 17th November they had captured Zgierz and directly threatened Łódź, an important stage in a further

offensive towards Warsaw (MARCINIAK & LEWIAK 2010).

The beginning of the Battle of Łódź is considered to be 18th November, when the German forces began the manoeuvre to encircle Łódź. The German attack was broken on 22nd November in a vicious battle in the vicinity of Rzgów. The German forces, threatened with encirclement by the Russians, were forced to retreat. Some of the events made history. For example the attitude of the soldiers from General Schaffer's regiment who escaped from the enemy thanks to the tactical genius of their leader, as well as General Litzmann's capture of Brzeziny for which he was called 'The Lion of Brzeziny', thus during the Nazi occupation of Łódź during World War II the city was called Litzmannstadt. Until the end of the Battle for Łódź there were many clashes, however none of them gave a result for either side. In this situation, on 29th November, the Russian leaders made a decision to abandon the city and retreat to the line of the Pilica and Rawka Rivers. As a result, as early as 6th December the German army entered the city and thus began a four-year occupation (DASZYŃSKA 2011, MARCINIAK & LEWIAK 2010).

During the battle the Russian forces had used armoured cars and an armoured train for the first time. In addition to this, the entire Operation Łódź that lasted until May 1915 made history as the place where battle gas was first used by the German troops, near Bolimów, and thus influenced the invention of the gas mask (DASZYŃSKA 2011).

The result of the battle is very hard to unambiguously estimate, because it has to be analysed in many different dimensions. On the one hand, the emperor's army had managed to block the planned Russian invasion, but on the other the aim of the attack was to capture Warsaw which was not achieved as a direct result of the battle. Considering the results more broadly the Operation forced the Germans to deploy a part of their forces from the western front in order to reinforce the armies fighting near Łódź, resulting in a weakening of their forces in the west of Europe, thus influencing the future of the war. However both sides experienced great losses. The czar's army lost about 110 000 (an estimated 30% of their original forces) and the Germans lost about 90 000 (about 36% of theirs) about 200 000 killed during only 26 days of battle (MARCINIAK & LEWIAK 2010).

The battles from November 1914 had a great impact on the future of Łódź. Because of the destruction, depopulation and the loss of the Russian market, the textile industry in Łódź was in crisis and not able to regain its former prosperity. It ended the legend of Łódź as a 'Promised Land'. As a result of the Battle of Łódź the city was captured by the Germans and was occupied until the end of war in 1918 (KOWALCZYŃSKI

2010). This tough period limited its former flourishing development, caused a decrease in population by almost one third and also caused irreversible changes in its ethnic structure (JANCZAK 1997).

4. INVENTORY AND EVALUATION OF THE ATTRACTIVENESS OF SITES RELATED TO THE BATTLE OF ŁÓDŹ

Because Operation Łódź was a massive campaign that took place over a considerable part of today's Łódzkie Województwo (and also further afield) it left many relics and places that recall those times. Throughout the whole województwo there are war cemeteries (about 170) and in the forest it is easy to find remnants of old trenches (*Operacja Łódzka 1914-1915...*, 2009). However the battles related directly to the capture of Łódź were concentrated on a much smaller area closer to the city.

Because of this the author decided to limit his research area to the **metropolitan tourism region of Łódź** (MTRL) as proposed by LISZEWSKI (2005a). This parallels a new concept of tourism regionalisation in Poland, which defines a **tourism region** as '...a part of geographical space where tourism is concentrated' (LISZEWSKI 2010). Such a definition allows tourism regions based on **tourism space** as the primary function to be identified from spatial, economic and social aspects³ (LISZEWSKI 2010). One type of tourism region listed is a **metropolitan tourism region** defined as a '... part of geographical space that is used by a city with metropolitan functions and its wider metropolitan area, in which tourism is concentrated (...) featuring a clear division based on the direction of tourist flows, as well as primary intentions.' (LISZEWSKI 2005b).

It is a multifunctional region that is focused on cognition, culture, business, and leisure, on which tourism is found throughout the year and the dominant types of tourism space are those of penetration and colonisation (LISZEWSKI 2010).

The metropolitan tourism region of Łódź delimited by Liszewski covers the contemporary *powiats* of Łódź, Brzeziny, Łódź-East, Pabianice and the *gminas* of Buczek, Lask and Wodzierady in the *powiat* of Lask; the *gmina* of Domaniewice in the *powiat* of Lowicz; Czarnocin and Moszczenica *gminas* in the *powiat* of Piotrków; Dalików and Zadzim *gminas* in the *powiat* of Poddębice; and also the *gmina* of Szadek in the *powiat* of Zdunska Wola. This region covers 3676 km², 20.2% of the area of Łódzkie Województwo (1.2% of the area of Poland), and has almost 1.2 million inhabitants, almost half of the all citizens of the województwo (*Powierzchnia i ludność woj. łódzkiego w 2009 r.*, 2010). The location of the metropolitan tourism region of Łódź is presented on the map (Fig. 1).



Fig. 1. The metropolitan tourism region of Łódź in Łódzkie Województwo

Source: author - based on LISZEWSKI (2010)

Many sites and places related directly or indirectly with the events of the Battle of Łódź are located in the research area. Cemeteries and graves are the most common, but there are also remnants of trenches, fortifications, gunnery points and other individual sites.

4.1. CEMETERIES

Based on library and archive research and interviews with experts and local inhabitants, it is estimated that there are 60 cemeteries and burial places of soldiers from the Great War in the research area, 34% of the total number of sites of this type in Łódzkie Województwo. A field inventory of sites was conducted resulting in locating, photographing and describing 52 of the cemeteries (87% of the total located in the research area), two more were described according to interviews with local inhabitants, while information about the last six was not available. The location of cemeteries based on administrative divisions is presented on the map (Fig. 2). It is easy to observe that the sites create a clear circle around Łódź. A strong concentration is visible to the north and north-east of the city in Lagiewniki and Nowosolna, and also to the south-west from Pabianice to Konstantynów Łódzki. In Łódź itself there are only three sites, two of which are located in the city as a result of the addition of neighbouring *gminas* along with development of the metropolis itself. Such a location reflects the course of the battle, because it occurred outside the city's borders.

T a b l e 1. List of inventoried burial places from World War I within MTRL

No.	Location	Type	Area [m ²]	No. of buried soldiers	No. of graves	Central object	Inscriptions	Fencing/wall	Information board	Signs	Overall rating	Valorization	Accessibility	Attractiveness	Rank
[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]	[8]	[9]	[10]	[11]	[12]	[13]	[14]	[15]	[16]
1	Aleksandrów Łódzki	evangelical	53	38	9	+	+	-	-	-	10	23	15	38	II
2	Baby	war cemetery	530	83	47	+	+	+	-	-	7	32	25	57	II
3	Bechcice Kolonia	war cemetery	2,929	320	111	+	+	+	+	-	5	41	8	49	I
4	Będków	roman catholic	32	N/A	5	-	+	-	-	-	2	8	15	23	III
5	Borowa	evangelical	3,723	N/A	11	+	+	-	-	-	2	21	13	34	II
6	Brzeziny	evangelical	161	N/A	42	-	+	+	-	-	5	19	20	39	II
7	Buczek	roman catholic	10	4	4	+	+	-	+	-	2	16	21	37	III
8	Chechło II	evangelical	444	5	5	+	+	+	-	-	2	20	20	40	II
9	Dobroń	roman catholic	3	1	1	-	+	-	-	-	7	13	13	26	III
10	Dzierżążna	war cemetery	868	130	14	-	+	+	-	-	2	23	16	39	II
11	Felicjanów	evangelical	1,197	4	2	-	+	-	-	-	0	13	12	25	III
12	Florentynów	evangelical	149	N/A	40	+	-	-	-	-	0	14	17	31	III
13	Gadka Stara	war cemetery	48,617	2,000	200	+	+	+	+	-	10	51	21	72	I
14	Gańków Mały	war cemetery	5,310	500	4	+	+	+	+	+	10	42	7	49	I
15	Gieczno	roman catholic	4	1	1	-	+	-	+	-	7	16	12	28	III
16	Grzmiąca	roman catholic	2	3	1	-	+	-	-	-	2	8	8	16	III
17	Jeźów	evangelical	661	N/A	120	+	+	+	-	-	2	25	13	38	II
18	Józefów	war cemetery	6,741	N/A	6	+	+	+	-	-	2	26	14	40	II
19	Kaletnik	grave	152	N/A	2	+	-	-	+	-	10	27	17	44	II
20	Kalino	war cemetery	457	41	0	+	-	-	-	-	0	16	11	27	III
21	Konstantynów Łódzki	roman catholic	7	2	2	-	+	-	-	-	2	8	22	30	III
22	Leźnica Wielka	roman catholic	3	N/A	1	-	-	-	+	-	5	11	19	30	III
23	Łask	roman catholic	5	N/A	1	-	+	-	+	-	7	15	16	31	III
24	Łaznów	roman catholic	14	N/A	5	-	+	-	-	-	0	6	16	22	III
25	Łódź-Dolny	orthodox	1,134	1,151	56	+	+	-	+	+	2	30	13	43	II
26	Łódź-Mileszki	roman catholic	1	35	1	-	-	-	-	-	0	5	12	17	III
27	Łódź-Rogi	grave	13	5	1	+	+	+	-	-	5	22	10	32	II
28	Matczew	grave	99	N/A	1	+	-	-	+	-	0	14	13	27	III
29	Ozorków	evangelical	144	36	25	-	+	-	-	-	5	18	17	35	III
30	Pabianice	roman catholic	1	48	1	-	+	-	-	-	5	12	12	24	III

[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]	[8]	[9]	[10]	[11]	[12]	[13]	[14]	[15]	[16]
31	Pawlikowice	war cemetery	3,492	500	120	+	+	+	+	-	7	43	9	52	I
32	Poczwardówka	war cemetery	7,377	N/A	220	+	+	+	+	-	7	42	13	55	I
33	Pustulka	war cemetery	36,019	N/A	300	+	+	+	+	-	10	48	14	62	I
34	Rosanów	evangelical	12	2	2	-	-	-	-	-	0	5	12	17	III
35	Rydzyni	evangelical	10	4	2	-	+	-	-	-	0	6	12	18	III
36	Stroć	roman catholic	39	400	1	-	+	-	+	-	7	19	18	37	II
37	Stryków	roman catholic	199	279	0	+	-	+	+	-	10	29	16	45	II
38	Swędów	roman catholic	158	60	11	-	+	-	-	-	2	15	12	27	III
39	Szadek	evangelical	26	N/A	11	+	+	+	+	-	2	21	18	39	II
40	Szadek Osiny	grave	697	37	0	+	+	-	-	-	7	23	6	29	II
41	Szadkowice	war cemetery	1,227	N/A	54	+	+	+	-	-	5	33	17	50	II
42	Szczawin	roman catholic	40	150	16	-	+	-	+	-	5	19	12	31	II
43	Ulejów	war cemetery	1,525	360	158	+	+	+	+	-	7	43	24	67	I
44	Wiączyń Dolny	war cemetery	9,705	1,977	200	+	+	+	+	-	10	43	11	54	I
45	Wodzierady	war cemetery	386	b.d.	15	+	-	+	-	-	2	20	15	35	III
46	Wymysłów Francuski	war cemetery	5,658	725	200	+	+	+	+	-	10	48	5	53	I
47	Wysieradz	evangelical	6	N/A	2	-	+	+	-	-	0	8	5	13	III
48	Zalew	grave	1,799	N/A	0	+	-	-	-	-	2	17	13	30	III
49	Zgierz	evangelical	57	100	13	+	+	-	+	-	7	25	18	43	II
50	Zgierz	roman catholic	68	27	23	-	+	-	-	-	5	15	13	28	I
51	Zgierz-Krogulec	war cemetery	4,609	319	25	+	+	+	+	-	10	42	11	53	III
52	Żabiczki	war cemetery	104	874	107	+	+	+	+	+	7	44	12	56	I

Explanations: N/A - not available; (+) - exists; (-) - does not exist.

Source: author - based on field inventory.

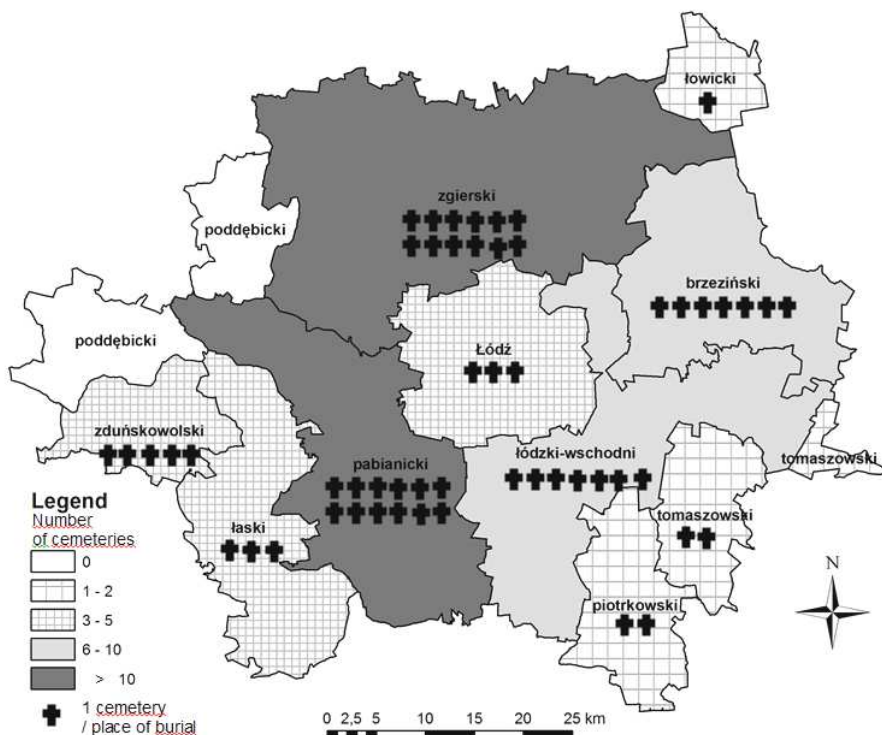


Fig. 2. Number of cemeteries in the MTRL according to *powiat*
Source: author

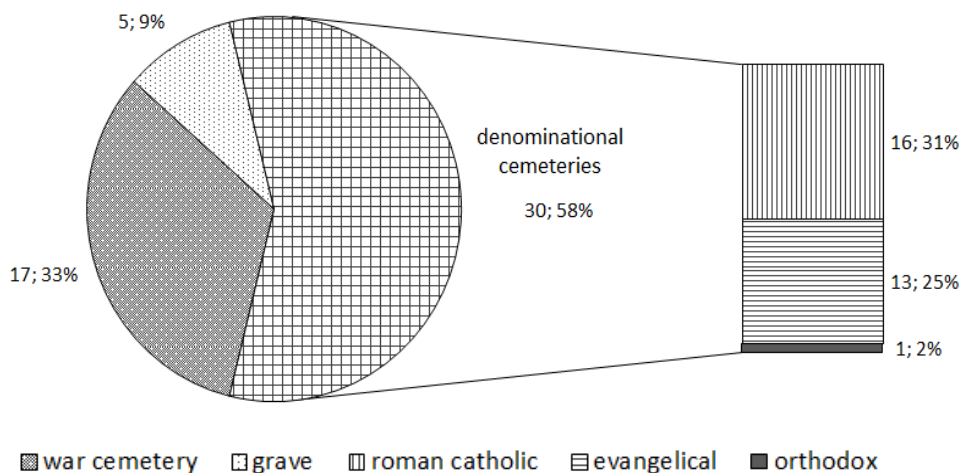


Fig. 1. Type of burial places of soldiers fallen during the Great War within the MTRL
Source: author

Among the inventoried sites 17 war cemeteries (33% of the total), five individual graves (9%) and 30 war sections in religious and municipal cemeteries can be identified. The majority can be found in Catholic cemeteries (16-31%), 13 in Evangelical and only one in Orthodox. Those proportions are presented in the figure (Fig. 3).

As a result of research it was calculated that the mean area of a burial place for soldiers from the Great War is about 2800 m². This figure varies a lot according to the type of site. There is a clear dominance of cemeteries whose average size is estimated at about

0.8 ha. The biggest necropolis is the war cemetery in Gadka Stara which covers about 5 ha. The smallest is a symbolic grave in a catholic cemetery in Łódź-Mileszki, about 1 m²

As there were many mass burials it is hard to precisely estimate the number of buried soldiers. Such information, mostly approximate, is available for only 34 sites (65%). The mean is approximately 301 but there are great differences amongst different types of sites (war cemeteries – 652, Catholic cemeteries – 84, Evangelical – 22, mass graves – 21 and on the one Orthodox cemetery as many as 1151). The final resting

Table 1. List of features, variants and scoring used to valorise the cemeteries

Feature	Type	Score	Feature	Type	Score
Type	war cemetery	5	Central feature	Yes	5
	mass grave	3		No	0
	religious	1	Inscriptions	Yes	2
Area in m ²	0-10	0		No	0
	11-100	1	Railings	Yes	3
	101-1000	4		No	0
	1001-10 000	7	Information board	Yes	3
	> 10 000	10		No	0
Number of buried soldiers	no data	0	Signs	Yes	2
	1-10	1		No	0
	11-100	2	General impression	V. good	10
	101-500	3		Good	7
	> 500	5		Average	5
Number of tombstones	no data	0		Bad	2
	0-10	2	V. bad	0	
	11-50	4			
	51-100	6			
	101-200	8			
	> 200	10			

Source: author.

places for the greatest number of soldiers are the cemeteries in Gadka Stara and Wiaczyn Dolny estimated at about 2000. The smallest are the single graves in Dobroń and Gieczno.

An important feature in evaluating the attractiveness of a cemetery is the number and condition of the different types of crosses, tombstones, plaques, columns and so on that make up its architectural entirety. Amongst them permanent railings, central features, avenues and plantings can be distinguished (TANAŚ 2004). Unfortunately many years of oblivion have led to their irreversible destruction. Luckily in recent years some of the cemeteries have been partly cleaned and restored and they remain the most visible relics from the times of Operation Łódź. There are about 100 sites. They are mostly concrete or terrazzo boards with inscriptions and standing crosses. Sometimes there are also bigger columns, wooden crosses and stone obelisks. The sites that have a positive impact on the attractiveness of the cemetery are the central sites. They are located in 31 of the inventorised necropolises, mostly in the form of large crosses, obelisks and stones.

The table (Table 1) presents detailed data about the inventoried sites. Based on this an assessment of the **tourism attractiveness**⁴ of the cemeteries was estimated in two stages. In the first the sites were valorised based on the features presented in the table (Table 2).

In the second stage the accessibility of particular sites was assessed and expressed in a linear distance to the nearest local, regional or national road and to the nearest buildings. Each distance was assigned with the scored value. After that the total of tourism attractiveness value and the distant value were summed up and divided by the greatest value possible to get. As a result an attractiveness factor (A) was obtained.

$$A = \frac{\sum V + \sum D}{P}$$

where:

A – tourism attractiveness factor,

V – tourism value assessment score,

D – communication availability score,

P – maximum score available – 50.

Tourism attractiveness values for particular cemeteries are presented on Fig. 4. Attractiveness ranks were based on it. The cut-off point between ranks II and III was the mean – 0.47. Sites with a lower value were classified as rank III (28 sites), those with a higher to rank II (11 sites). The most attractive ones were distinguished based on the inflection of the valorization curve criterion (SZKUP 1994). The greatest such inflection is observed above 0.6 so the cemeteries with the higher figure are classified as rank I (13 sites). The location of burial place attractiveness ranks are presented on the map (Fig. 5).

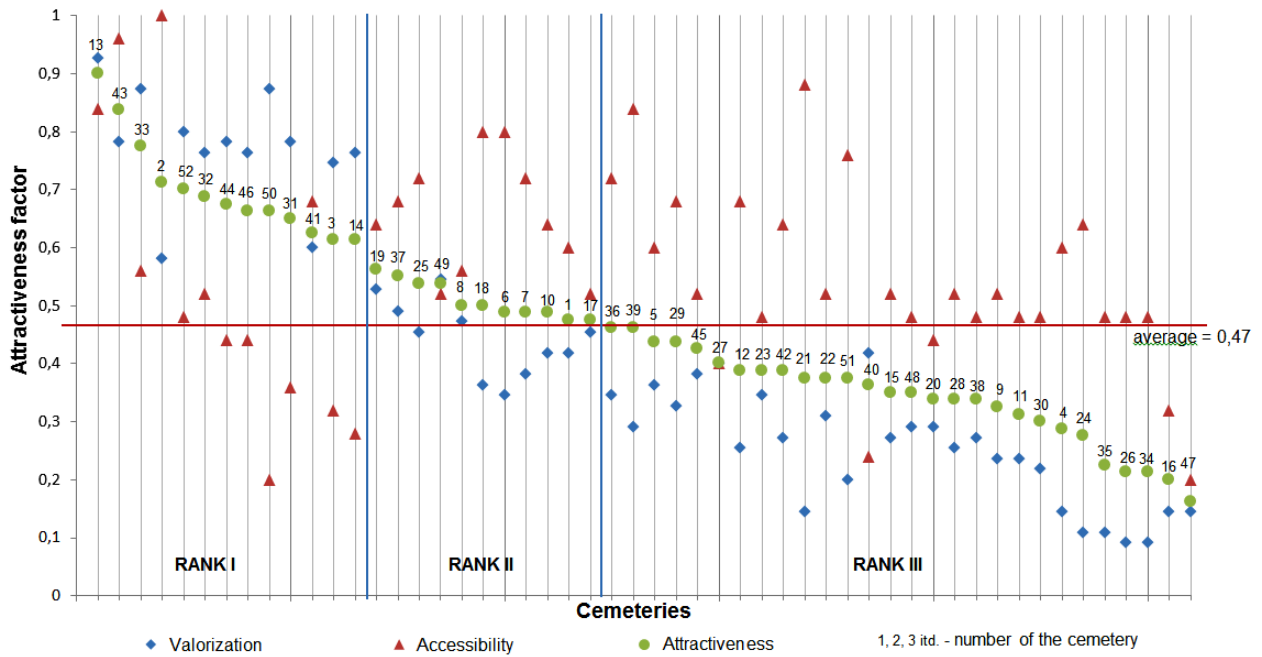


Fig. 2. Distribution of the tourism attractiveness factor for Great War cemeteries in the MTRL (site numbers correspond to Table 1)
 Source: author

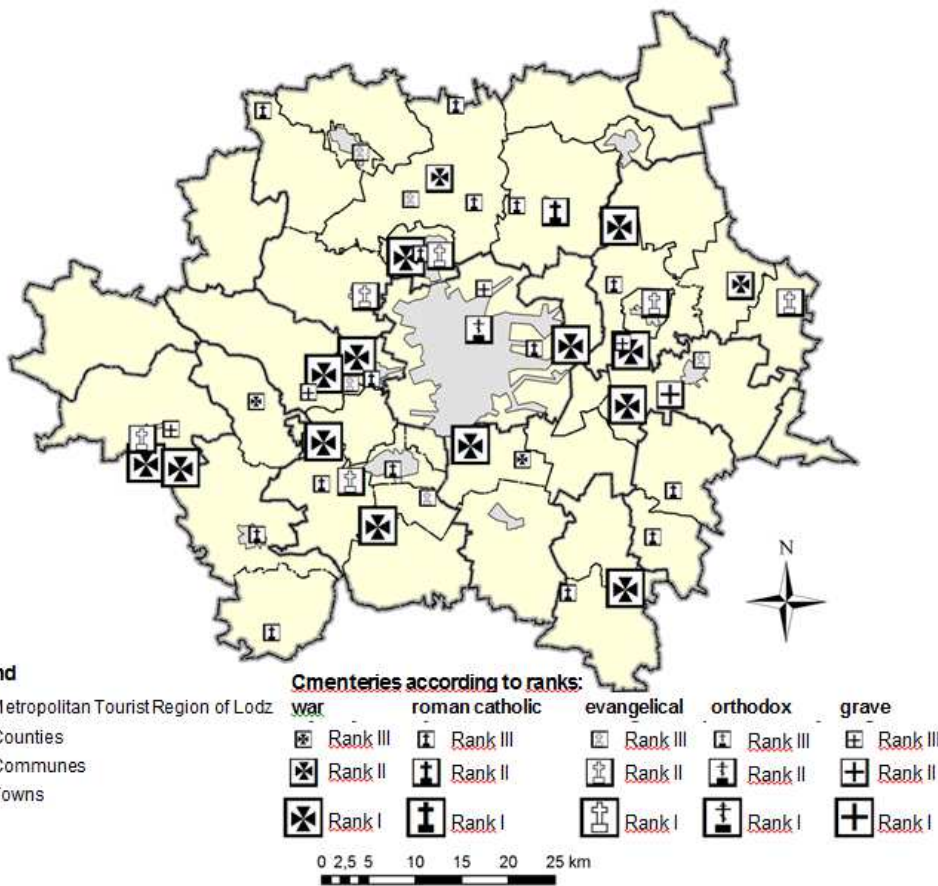


Fig. 3. Evaluation of the attractiveness of cemeteries from the Great War in the MTRL
 Source: author

4.3. OTHER SITES

Other sites located in the MTRL area which are directly or indirectly related to Battle of Łódź (or memorialize it) are extremely diversified and cannot be classified into particular categories. Examples might include:

- a) **Museum of the narrow-gauge railway Rogów - Rawa - Biała Rawska**, in Rogów: it was built in 1915 by the German army as a field railway that would supply the front divisions. Nowadays the collection comprises 129 narrowgauge locomotives and wagons from all over the country and is one of the biggest collections of this type in Poland and in Europe. Visitors, in addition to seeing the exhibition have also the opportunity to ride on the historic train (kolejrogowska.pl).
- b) **Museum of Leokadia Marciniak in Gałków Duży**: collects ethnographic, historical and archival miscellany related to Gałków and its vicinity. A separate group of exhibits include memorabilia and documents from the Great War. Amongst them not only documents, maps and photographs but also elements of soldiers' uniforms, equipment and weapons, bullets, shell-cases and shrapnel, as well as soldiers' personal possessions can be found (www.galkowek.pl).
- c) **Churches in Gałków Duży, Konstantynów Łódzki and Kurowice**, which were alleged to have played some part during the battle as observation or resistance points, or simply were damaged as a result of the battle. As a reminder of these events there are the shell-cases of bullets from the facades of the buildings (JAGIEŁŁO, KRAKOWIAK & WŁODARCZYK 2008).
- d) **The railway station in Gałków**: the station building featured on many archival photographs was very badly damaged during the battles of 1914. Its appearance today after recent renovation reflects the Great War period.

In Łódź itself there are many sites whose history is related to the Great War. Good examples are the 'Grand' Hotel which hosted the headquarters of the Russian 2nd Army, the 'Savoy' Hotel, an observation point, the former Łódź Commodity Exchange on Wólczańska Street which was later used as the headquarters of the *Milicja Obywatelska* (Citizen's Militia), the hospital in Kochanówek which was used as a field hospital, Biedermann Palace home to *Komitet Obywatelski* ('Citizenship Committee'), the former Łódź Fabryczna railway station used as a place of transportation, deliveries of supplies and the evacuation of the Russian administration and citizens, Rudzka Hill a good observation point for the first German squads in order to inspect the neighbourhood and many more (KOWALCZYŃSKI 2010).

5. SUMMARY

Sites related to the Great War and especially the Battle of Łódź are richly represented over almost the whole area of the metropolitan tourism region of Łódź. They are concentrated mostly in the line Stryków - Brzeziny - Koluszki to the east and north-east of Łódź, and also in the vicinity of Pabianice and Konstantynów Łódzki. Smaller clusters are noted in the neighbourhood of Rogów to the east and Szadek to the west. In Łódź itself it is possible to find traces of those events, especially after probing the history of different sites in the city, curious even for citizens of the city. Chances to use this potential to develop tourism in the MTRL are presented in the SWOT analysis (Table 3).

Table 2. SWOT analysis for the development of military heritage tourism based on the potential of the Battle of Łódź

STRENGTHS	WEAKNESSES
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - the great number of sites throughout the research area - areas of concentration near Stryków - Brzeziny - Koluszki and Pabianice - Konstantynów - exceptional events crucial for the continuation of the Great War could be a basis for developing new products - museum of the narrow-gauge railway in Rogów - strong relations with the history of Łódź 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - small diversity of sites (the majority are cemeteries) - the bad condition of the majority of sites (only 13 were classified as attractive) - poor remains of entrenchments that are not clearly visible in the landscape - the considerable scatter of the sites - absence of outstanding sites that could be a central point for a future product
OPPORTUNITIES	THREATS
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - unknown but interesting history worth introducing to wider society - growing interest in the Great War especially related to the upcoming 100th anniversary of its outbreak in 2014 - the international and multicultural dimensions of those events - creation of re-enactments and exploration groups interested in the topic - work on delineating of the Great War Eastern Front National Driving Trail whose main coordinator is the local authorities in Łódź 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - low awareness of the citizens of Łódź and potential tourists, related to a lack of knowledge of the history of the Battle - more attractive sites in other <i>województwos</i> (Modlin Fortress, Osowiec Fortress, well preserved cemeteries in Małopolska and Podkarpackie <i>województwos</i>) - economic crisis - no funds for prospective initiatives - lack of consistent and coordinated action between institutions - little time to prepare for the commemoration of the 100th anniversary of the outbreak of the Great War

Source: author.

The tragedy of these historical events is even sharpened by its oblivion. The Great War was, and still is, treated as a fight between foreign powers. It is often forgotten that Polish people were in both annexationist armies and were fighting against one another on both sides of the conflict. Unfortunately this tragedy was eclipsed by World War II. According to the author it is absolutely essential to improve the awareness of both the citizens of Łódź and visitors to the region related to the events of the Great War. It is possible to do this by organising historic stagings and re-enactments with the help of enthusiast associations. A good example is the re-enactment of the Battle of Bolimów which increases in popularity and interest each year. Because of the considerable scatter of the sites it would be a good idea to create a theme trail. Such activity has been already undertaken by the local authorities in Łódź which, together with eight other *województwos*, plans a Great War Eastern Front National Driving Trail. However it is crucial for such a trail to become an attraction for the potential tourist if it consists only of the most important and best preserved sites. Of course it could be complemented over time.

Obviously the most interesting solution could be the design of a new, themed, complex and consistent project, based on the heritage of the Battle of Łódź, but presented in a modern and attractive way with the support of interactive media. Unfortunately such a project would involve large costs and therefore would carry a great risk.

FOOTNOTES

¹ The article is based on the fragments of the master thesis "The battle of Lodz in 1914-1915. An analysis of its potential and the usability in creating the tourist project of the region of Lodz" written under the supervision of Prof. B. Włodarczyk and defended in the Institute of Urban Geography and Tourism Studies of University of Lodz (BOŃCZAK 2011).

² According to the definition proposed by UN WTO the heritage tourism, known in Poland as a cultural tourism (KOWALCZYK 2008) is understood as "...an immersion in the natural history, human heritage, arts, philosophy and institutions of another region or country." <UN WTO after DALLEN & STEPHEN 2003>.

³ „Tourism space is such part of the geographical space in which tourism exists. The imperative and sufficient conditions to classify the part of the geographical space as a tourism space is tourism, whatever its size and character. An additional condition that allows tourist space to be delimited is the existence of the tourist infrastructure whose size and character describe the type of the tourism space” (WŁODARCZYK 2009).

⁴ **Tourism attractiveness** is acknowledged as a „quality (...) that results from the group of the natura or other features that raise the interest and attract the tourists. This concept includes the elements that are the basis of the development of any tourist activity and satisfies the tourists' needs, such as tourist values, tourist infrastructure and the communicational availability.” (KUREK 2007).

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TOURIST PRODUCT IN EXPERIENCE ECONOMY

Abstract: The turn of the 20th and 21st c. was marked by the development of experience economy, in which the basic commodities are not specific products, but the customers' emotions, impressions and experiences. Tourism has always been a particular "holiday experience industry". In recent years, however, the importance of the conscious creation of emotional tourism products has become even greater; we may observe continuous efforts to multiply and intensify tourism experience. The key activities to achieve this goal include transforming tourism infrastructure into unique tourism attractions, enlarging traditional services/service packages by elements providing additional emotions and satisfaction, using modern technologies in order to add virtual entities to real tourism space (augmented reality), as well as to conveniently record tourism experience and share it with the public.

Key words: experience economy, modern tourism, tourist product, emotional product, holiday experience, augmented reality.

1. EXPERIENCE ECONOMY – CONTEMPORARY TOURISM – TOURIST PRODUCT

The world economy in the early 21st c. is becoming increasingly global, and simultaneously complex and multidimensional. In order to describe and analyse it, new theories and models are needed, one of which is the 'experience economy' concept. According to Pine & Gilmore, we are living in times of a new, advanced economy, based primarily on services, and which should provide consumers with strong emotional experience (NOWACKI 2011).

Experience is then yet another form of offer in economics, after raw materials, products and 'ordinary' services. It cannot function independently, but becomes an essential part of a traditional good or service. Experience is considered a new value and the main source of consumer satisfaction. Economic activity may then be compared to theatre, as the product itself includes experience, emotion, sensation, thrill, mood and atmosphere (MARCISZEWSKA 2010).

Other major features of the 'experience economy':

- a combination of experience with the process of product consumption;
- widespread creation of experience by means of modern technologies;

- the need for active participation (immersion) by the product's consumers (opposite to the frequently passive participation in earlier economic models);
- individualization and personalization (personal nature) of the created experiences (the necessity to adjust them to individuals every time);
- the fact that experience is stored in human memory (including all its positive and negative sides) (MARCISZEWSKA 2010).

In the light of the general assumptions on the 'experience economy', it is not surprising that its leading branches are the creative industries (IDZIAK 2009), along with tourism¹, because they are areas of human activity where, by definition, the 'product' itself is experience. Cultural institutions and tourism businesses are transformed into kinds of factories for emotions, impressions, thrills and memories².

Tourism in the 21st c. is moving further and further away from the former model, referred to as 3xS (sun, sea, sand), which signified passivity on a beach. The 'new tourism' is rather 3xE, where E stands for education, entertainment and excitement. The skilful combination of knowledge and entertainment has been given a separate name – *edutainment*.

However, in contemporary tourism proportions among the three 'Es' are not always well balanced or most desired. The tourist offer is very frequently heavily dominated by entertainment and excitement alone. *'Travelling is incessant fun and joy, during which tourists are in a state of continuous eating, sampling, tasting and consuming the products offered to them'* (WIECZORKIEWICZ 2008, p. 287). Critics even speak of the *disneyization* of tourism (RITZER 2001) or *tourist fast food* (MIEDZIŃSKA & SZABLIKOWSKA-MANYŚ 2004). Tourism is occasionally treated as a kind of a mirror of contemporary consumer culture, reflecting materialistic societies and individuals (RYMARCZYK 2006). Naturally, not all tourists are like this, there is also a large and constantly growing group for whom travel is a way of expanding their understanding, a form of personal development, as well as an extraordinary experience of the world (BUCZKOWSKA 2009).

However, regardless of how sophisticated tourists' needs are, they always expect first of all a professionally prepared, all-inclusive offer, which will meet their expectations. Treating emotions and experiences as a particular market value that tourists are ready to pay more for is not a new phenomenon in the tourist business, and this is reflected in definitions of the tourism product.

For at least 20 years, the theory of tourism has been dominated by a holistic approach in which the tourism product is treated as **'experience available for a certain price'** (Middleton 1996, p. 89, all use of bold by the author). For MEDLIK (1995), a tourism product in its broad sense is *'a combination of what tourists do and the assets, devices and services which they use for this purpose. From the tourist's point of view (...), it comprises the whole experience from the moment of leaving the house to the moment of return.'* A similar view is presented by KACZMAREK, STASIAK & WŁODARCZYK (2005), who define the tourism product as a *'set of utilities related to tourism trips, i.e. tourism goods and services available on the market, enabling people to plan a journey, travel and collect experiences'*. MACCANNELL (2005, p. 33) points out that *'more and more often it is pure experience, which does not leave any material traces, that is produced and sold'*.

The fact that *'there is no ordinary product'* on the market was pointed out by ALTKORN (1999). Every tourism package contains certain additional benefits generated in the tourists' minds during, before and after the journey, in the form of emotions, impressions, experiences and psychological satisfaction. They are partly a result of general stereotypes regarding the destination (e.g. *'a luxury resort for elites'*), as well as intentional activity by tour operators who consciously create added value to the product (logo, slogan, promotion, market image, etc.). The choice of destination, as well as the approach expresses the tourist's

attitude and life philosophy, reflects his/her personality, signifies prestige, belonging to certain social groups, it builds self-image both in the tourist's eyes and – which is often more important – in the eyes of others (KACZMAREK, STASIAK & WŁODARCZYK 2005).

Facing such sophisticated, not to say high expectations, it is necessary to construct a well-thought-out, wide-ranging offer, in which the tourist and his/her emotions occupy the central position and which will guarantee an expected level of experience. More or less consciously, perhaps intuitively, the tourism industry is trying to meet these expectations.

The main methods of intensifying tourists' thrills and emotions:

- transforming the tourism infrastructure to offer unique tourist attractions,
- expanding older forms of a tourism product by elements of experience and emotion,
- creating a so-called *'augmented reality'*,
- new forms of recording tourism experience and sharing it,
- discovering new tourism spaces, to provide unique, sometimes even extreme experience,
- developing new forms of tourism to provide original, extraordinary emotions and develop the tourist's skills, creativity and personality.

The author will discuss the first four in this article, while the last two – due to the scale of the issues – will be the topic of a separate paper.

2. TOURISM DEVELOPMENT AS A TOURISM ATTRACTION

Unconventional architecture, especially such which arouses extreme emotions and causes controversy, has always attracted tourists' attention. A perfect example is the Eiffel Tower which initially was a subject of fierce argument and discussion. Nearly dismantled, with time it became *'an unrivalled landmark', 'an icon of architecture and modernity (...), a symbol of Paris, its inseparable attribute'* (SYKTA 2012, p. 181). Today too there are many controversial constructions which quickly have become icons of mass tourism, such as the Pompidou Centre or the Louvre Pyramid in Paris, Gaudí's works in Barcelona or the buildings designed by Hundertwasser in Vienna (houses and the waste incineration plant), the Guggenheim Museum in Bilbao, *'Dancing House'* (*'Ginger and Fred'*) in Prague, *'Face House'* in Kyoto and many others. We may also find extravagant ideas in Poland, which have become a strong magnet for tourists, e.g. *dom do góry nogami* (upside down house) in Szymbark, *Hotel Pekin* in Władysławowo, or *Krzywy Domek* (Crooked House) in Sopot.

COHEN (1972) believes that creating such artificial tourism attractions is a common and typical characteristic of contemporary mass tourism. What is new, however, is the fact that it increasingly commonly concerns tourism infrastructure facilities as well.

In the traditional sense, the material base of tourism comprises all the elements of infrastructure, which *'ensure the proper functioning of the reception site, assuming the maximum satisfaction of the tourists' needs'* (KACZMAREK, STASIAK & WŁODARCZYK 2010, p. 55). Until recently, their main function was only to support or supplement tourism assets.

At present, some elements of tourism infrastructure are becoming target tourism attractions themselves, successfully attracting hundreds of thousands of visitors. The main examples here include swimming pool complexes (aquaparks, thermal pools), amusement theme parks (PISARSKI 2009), science centres, huge shopping – cultural – recreation centres (malls³) (KOSTECKA 2007, FUHRMANN 2008, DUDEK-MAŃKOWSKA & FUHRMANN 2009), hotel-casinos (DUDEK 2005, 2006), stadiums of legendary football clubs⁴ (NOWACKI 2009) and other, often extravagant sports and recreation complexes (e.g. Ski Dubai roofed ski slope, or 'Tropical Islands' near Berlin). What they have in common is usually modern, breath-taking architecture, full of flair, functional and attractive interior design, as well as a varied and rich offer (including permanent events), guaranteeing excitement for many hours, or even several days. A slogan expressing the idea of this type of place could be the shopping centre motto: *'Forget your car, forget the street, forget services, forget yourself'* (MAKOWSKI 2003). It is true indeed that due to the extraordinary concentration of wonderful attractions, visiting them allows tourists to forget grey, bland reality.

A huge number of stimuli, adventures and experiences, i.e. a unique (extreme) holiday experiences⁵, are provided by cruises (ROUBA 2002). Apart from luxurious accommodation in cabins of a variety of standards and an opportunity to have meals in several themed restaurants, the newest Voyager class vessels offer a countless number of recreation and entertainment attractions. They include a beach deck with swimming pools, a health and beauty centre, saunas, 'hot springs', a gym, an aerobics hall, basket ball and volleyball courts, an ice rink, a climbing wall, a roller skating track, a Mini Golf course, a casino, a shopping gallery, a theatre, a library, a concert hall, a disco, a small museum of technology, and an oceanographic laboratory. *'Disembarking after a week long cruise, tourists have a feeling that they have not managed to see everything yet'* (ROUBA 2002, p. 51). It is not surprising then that neither the cruise route nor the visited ports or beaches, but the cruise itself is the greatest attraction for the tourists.

A similar trend is observed in the traditional hotel industry. As it is impossible to compete only by providing high quality service, many hotels decide to make their offer original, expressive and unique, and sometimes extravagant, bizarre or even shocking. It is a particular kind of response to the growing needs of guests who are no longer satisfied with ordinary accommodation, even at the most luxurious hotel. They expect something more – a stay at an exceptional, unconventional place which will enable them to collect unusual holiday memories and experiences, different from their friends. Hotels offer accommodation in strange places, in buildings of bizarre, often experimental architecture, in unusual, fanciful interiors, with sophisticated service.

Discussing such exceptional hotel facilities, MILEWSKA (2008) listed the following:

- renowned and luxury hotels, e.g. 'Burj Al Arab' in Dubai,
- boutique and designer hotels (with individually arranged interiors, unique décor, often designed by star-architects or fashionable designers),
- peculiar and untypical hotels, e.g. built in ice or under water,
- hotel record-breakers (the largest, the smallest, the tallest, built at the highest altitude, etc.),
- curious, extravagant hotels, e.g. situated in unused harbour cranes, in the heart of the Amazon jungle, with rooms arranged in concrete rings or old wine barrels, at a military prison, or where men are not admitted,
- hotels in means of transport, e.g. in a tramway car, helicopter, Boeing 747, or other vehicles moving on wheels (including *rotels* a combination of a luxury coach and a hotel).

No matter how we name and classify them, hotels have long stopped being merely an element of tourism infrastructure. Currently, they are components of the tourist's whole holiday experience, providing additional emotions, thrills and satisfaction when staying at a given place, similar to tourism attractions.

The urge to surprise guests may also be observed in gastronomy. There are many restaurants and bars, whose architecture and interior design aim at shocking their customers. Gastronomic establishments are arranged in various unusual places (e.g. in planes) and settings (e.g. on a high platform or below the sea), and their eccentric décor is often amazing. Meals may be eaten, for instance, next to an ancient bath-tub placed among the tables, or sitting on toilet bowls or in a wheelchair. The biggest surprises, however, wait in the toilets. Sometimes even finding them may be difficult, e.g. when the entrance is hidden behind the door of a ... wardrobe. Inside, one may be astonished by uneven, bulging floors, Venetian mirrors with

a view to the main dining room, gasmasks, military-style instructions how to use the urinal, etc. (MILEW-SKA, PRAĆZKO & STASIAK 2010).

3. ADDING AN ELEMENT OF EXPERIENCE AND EMOTION TO OLDER FORMS OF TOURISM PRODUCT

According to some researchers (*cf.* KACZMAREK, STASIAK & WŁODARCZYK 2010), the turn of the 21st c. brought a new generation of travellers called 'new tourists', who are steadily growing in numbers. They are very different from their predecessors: more experienced, flexible, independent and mobile, representing other demographic features, guided by a different system of values, and preferring a different life style.

Their education and the influence of the modern media are the reasons why the 'new tourists' show a different sensitivity and a liking for a particular 'visual' aesthetic; they get bored easily and require more varied media. At the same time they display varied interests, not only in traditional tourism-related areas (history, historical monuments, famous people, etc), but also in many other, sometimes quite marginal ones (industrial heritage, sport, politics, places known from literature and films, cooking, cultural events, life styles, fashion, jokes and anecdotes, etc). The 'new tourists' want not only 'to see' and 'to learn', but also 'to understand' and 'to experience', and come into a direct contact with the visited place. It is not surprising then that the traditional 20th c. forms of sightseeing (city tours) turn out to be inadequate. The classical transfer of information (often encyclopaedic) in one direction is not only unattractive and boring, but even outdated and unacceptable (*cf.* MIKOS VON ROHRSCHEIDT 2011).

The role of the modern tourism guide is then not simply to communicate facts, but to interpret heritage seen on the way. It is about explaining different meanings and relations by means of direct contact with original items, through direct experience, by using various media, as well as by being engaged emotionally (*cf.* NOWACKI 2005, KRUCZEK, KUREK & NOWACKI 2010). The role of the person responsible for interpretation is to help tourists to understand the sense of a given place (*genius loci*), its exceptional history and present time, as well as experience the visited areas to the full using all the senses.

Interpretation should be pleasant and interesting, contain elements of fun and entertainment. It may take the form of provocation or discovery (but presented in an attractive manner, clear to those who are not specialists in a given field). Not only are bare facts

important, but also jokes and anecdotes; not only verified information, but also presumptions, predictions and self-commentary. The most wanted interpretive approaches include raising doubts, quoting controversial sources, debunking myths and false beliefs, quoting literature excerpts, involving the listeners in a dialogue (asking questions, puzzles for a prize, encouraging thought, drawing conclusions), etc.

The essence of interpretation then is telling an emotional story of a given place. The images created in tourists' imagination in this way should excite and make them involved, evoke a spontaneous reaction. Naturally, even a perfect command of the language may prove insufficient, so it is necessary to reach for other media which have an effect on all the senses: sight, hearing, taste, smell and touch. The right atmosphere is created and tourists become familiar with the theme of a trip by watching documentaries and feature films, or listening to music (ethnic, folk, modern) on the coach. An important part includes tasting exotic dishes, fruit or alcoholic drinks, natural (flowers, spices) or artificial (aerosols) smells, touching – taking an exhibit into the hand, picking up and using a tool, feeling its texture, weight, etc. In this way the reception of information becomes multisensory, giving the tourist the personal experience desired.

In order to create an illusion of travelling in time in many historical places, historical costumes are worn not only by the guides or museum staff⁶, but by the tourists themselves. The costumes, staging, lighting, music and additional sounds stir the tourists' imagination and evoke pictures from the past. Sightseeing usually takes place according to a scenario earlier prepared, and the tourists become not only spectators, but also active participants in the performance, who actually have an influence on the course of action. More and more often the theatricalization of tourism space is spoken about. The world 'becomes a huge stage, where a performance takes place, and the main part may be played by any tourist, especially as the spectrum of the possibilities offered is very wide. They include sightseeing with theatrical elements (wearing costumes, playing scenes), playing games (solving puzzles, looking for treasure, discovering the past), taking part in shows and presentations, reconstructions of historical events and many others' (STASIAK 2011, p. 46).

Initially, interactive sightseeing (with a plot) was popular mainly as an interesting aspect of incentive or team-building trips. Today, it is common and available to all tourists. The most interesting options include the *Communism Tour* in Nowa Huta (sightseeing with a guide dressed in worker's overalls, a ride in a Trabant or by a 'cucumber' bus, a visit to a typical flat from Gierek's times, taking part in a dancing party from the 1970s, a fictionalized visit to Łódź (solving a crime puzzle set in the reality of the

'Promised Land' – a term used to refer to the 19th c. Łódź – meetings with typical inhabitants of the 19th c city), or discovering the secrets of medieval Toruń in the company of Copernicus or a Knight of the Teutonic Order (KACZMAREK, STASIAK & WŁODARCZYK 2010).

Other alternative ways of bringing the heritage of an area closer to the tourist include:

- **city trails with micro-events**, i.e. sightseeing with a guide or alone, following a route set earlier (real or virtual), enriched with performances, concerts, interactive shows or other multimedia elements (MIKOS VON ROHRSCHEIDT 2011);
- **city games** – a form of sightseeing which combines elements of a traditional scout paper chase, street happenings, as well as computer games and role-plays. The participating teams try to be the first to reach the target following a set of rules. Discovering secrets and solving puzzles involves strong emotions due to the element of competition. There are many types of city games: historical, based on literature, films, legends, looking for hidden objects, finding QR codes, etc. (cf. STASIAK 2011, MIKOS VON ROHRSCHEIDT 2011);
- **geocaching** – searching for treasure with the help of GPS. The treasure is a 'geocache' – a box hidden earlier by other players, containing a visit log and small gifts for exchange. Its location is revealed in the form of geographical coordinates that can be found on an internet website (e.g. www.geocaching.com, <http://opencaching.pl>, www.geocaching.pl);
- **questing** – discovering the cultural and natural heritage of the area in a non-standard way, which means walking along pre-prepared but unmarked tourism trails (quests) with the help of maps and clues (usually in the form of rhymed puzzles). The trail is set in such a way that it makes it possible to reach intriguing places, not described in guidebooks or on the internet, and the crowning achievement is finding the treasure – a box with a seal confirming quest completion (WILCZYŃSKI 2011).

It is interesting that it is not necessary to invent new forms of old tourism services in order to incite tourists' interest. Sometimes it is enough to offer the same products, but at an unusual time and in a different setting. A perfect example is the European Night of Museums – a French initiative since 2005 – a unique cultural event during which museums and galleries are open for one chosen night. Today, it is organized in over 40 countries every year, attracting crowds of people willing to visit cultural institutions. The popularity of the Night of Museums is quite

surprising, because apart from special exhibitions, they are mostly the same as those which can be visited during the day. Here, however, the key factor is the atmosphere of a mystery, exceptionality, unusualness, festivity, and a holiday of culture.

Another event – the Night of Restaurants is based on the same principle. Its second staging took place in 2013 in Białystok, Gdańsk and Poznań (<http://nocrestauracji.pl>).

As regards gastronomy, another extraordinary idea was conceived in order to increase customers' impressions, stimulate their senses, and provide them with unique experience. At the *Dans le Noir* restaurants meals are eaten in complete darkness and the menu remains unknown until the last moment. The waiters are blind and the guests gradually learning to move and eat in the dark (MILEWSKA, PRĄCZKO & STASIAK 2010). In 2013, restaurants of this type were open in Paris, London, New York, Barcelona and St. Petersburg (<http://www.danslenoir.com>).

4. MODERN TECHNOLOGIES

An important move modifying and enriching the holiday experience of modern tourists is the use of modern technologies. The range is very wide and constantly growing. They include CD-ROM or DVD presentations, audio-guides, audio-visual presentations, multimedia kiosks, internet websites, mobile devices, 3D techniques, and virtual or augmented reality (PARDEL 2008, WIZA 2008).

Combining the real world with computer-generated elements may take many forms. The simplest solutions (power point presentations, web pages, multimedia kiosks) allow additional extended textual, graphic and sound information about a given site, historical monument, museum and so on to be presented. They are currently fairly popular, but due to the limited interaction with the user they are slowly going out of use. Young tourists in particular treat them as standard techniques and are not really excited about them.

Mobile tourism guides installed in cellular phones are more advanced technologically. They make it possible to download unlimited amounts of tourism information, in various languages, together with a variety of multimedia contents, such as illustrations, photos, music, sounds, etc., which ensure easy access to an interactive map, service guide, suggestions of tourism theme trails or city games.

Another technology commonly used in tourism is the mobile navigation which has caused a real revolution in cartography. *'We may even talk about a departure from typical, map-based information towards egocentric*

communication, in which the key role is played by the map user' and his/her needs (Gotlib 2011, cited after: KONOPSKA 2012, pp. 259-260). The problem is not information capacity any more (theoretically unlimited), but the appropriate grouping of its content in individual data layers, from which the tourist may then select (road map, infrastructure, road hazards, tourism information). The key element, however, is the dynamic matching of the map content to the location of the tourist (KONOPSKA 2012).

The most complicated, but also the most effective technique of building tourists' satisfaction is the augmentation of existing reality, i.e. supplementing it with computer-generated models or scenes. Using special equipment, it is possible to project three-dimensional objects in real space (cf. PARDEL 2008). They transform static tourism space into an interactive world of education, excitement and fun. Its superiority, compared to traditional 'ordinary' space, lies in the 'interactive properties and immersive (creating the feeling of actually staying in the virtual world) contact with the geographical environment' (NIKIEL & ZAWADZKI 2008, p. 199). The tourist has a subjective impression of 'being inside' the generated reality, and at the same time has an influence on what is happening in it, can manipulate the objects generated by the computer. In effect, he/she moves around an artificially developed world, full of computer stimuli affecting all the senses.

It is already possible to take virtual walks in the reconstructions of ruined buildings (e.g. the Great Synagogue in Lublin) or no longer existing cities (e.g. medieval Krakow, Wawel, Zielona Góra - NIKIEL & ZAWADZKI 2008). Augmented reality has already appeared in museums (e.g. the Museum of Polish Jews in Warsaw); scientists are working on opening digital museums in open spaces (WIZA 2008).

The examples quoted above refer primarily to the enrichment of tourism space in order to multiply tourists' experiences and impressions. Modern technologies, however, also leave an imprint on ways of recording tourism experience and sharing it.

At the end of the 20th c. Fierla wrote jokingly: *'The most important change in the tourist of the recent times has been the appearance of a small, yellow human figure on the tourism map. He has slanting eyes and a third eye on his belly - he is the Japanese tourist, who quickly visits the world, taking pictures or making films using expensive equipment'*.

Limiting a tourism visit to just looking at objects and thoughtlessly pressing the camera shutter-release button has been called 'kodakization' and was one of the first tangible symptoms of travel mostly for the visual consumption of places (URRY 2007). Sociologists stress that taking photographs results from the wish to own the world (store it in a private collection). The desire to immortalize oneself with famous views and

landscapes in the background is equally important. Many tourists feel that it is the best evidence of their journeys all over the world and a confirmation of their wonderful holiday experience.

Nowadays, at a time when cameras and digital camcorders are commonly used (routinely installed in mobile phones), the behaviour described here is typical of not only one nation. All tourists, regardless of their country of origin, like to take hundreds or thousands of photos, or make long films during one trip. The more they do it, the more mechanical and thoughtless it is. Thanks to the preview function, they may check the quality of the photo right away. If they are not satisfied (blurred picture, ugly face, unwanted elements within the frame of the picture), the photo may be deleted and the shot repeated (improved) immediately.

We deal here then with an instant selection of experiences eliminating the imperfect - holiday memories must be flawless... They may not only be transformed but also purposefully arranged. Therefore, at many tourism destinations, we can easily find local inhabitants who will gladly point out the most satisfying shots, settings and postures to tourists, for a small price ('holding up' the Leaning Tower, 'measuring' the Eiffel Tower, kissing the Sphinx, etc.). As a result, all photographs are the same and show similar views. But this is exactly as it is supposed to be - only familiar landscapes will enable the prospective viewers to recognize without mistake the place visited by the author of the photo.

The desire to impress friends is so strong that the majority of travellers do not want to wait till they come back home; they want to share their experience on the spot - right after they have climbed to the top of a mountain, while they are visiting a 'top' historical monument, during their stay at a prestigious resort, etc. Thanks to modern technologies, it is possible. Having a mobile phone, one can make a call, text or send an MMS. If you have access to the internet, the number of communication channels becomes even greater, including e-mails (with attachments), social networks, blogs, or private websites.

The change in tourism behaviour in this respect, which has taken place in the last two decades, is an unquestionable sociological phenomenon. The traditional photographs brought from holidays in relatively small numbers were an important part of the remembered journey (KACZMAREK, STASIAK & WŁODARCZYK 2010). They were made public in a controlled way, usually in a small circle of family members and friends. Nowadays, reminiscing about the journey starts ... during the journey, e.g. in the evening, when looking through the pictures taken during the day (and deleting unwanted shots). Photographs are often shown to strangers - incidental travel companions.

After the return home, there are so many photographs that... hardly anyone has enough time to see them all. They are usually stored on the computer hard drive, but will never be sorted and described.

A particular fashion of the recent years has been the publishing of private holiday photos with descriptions and comments on the internet (social networks). It is surprising because the published materials can be viewed by every net user, and their distribution and the way they are used, are not necessarily what the author would wish. This situation, however, may be explained by a certain dose of vanity (the desire to be admired, to impress others), or even some kind of exhibitionism on the part of the author.

5. CONCLUSIONS

Travelling has always been inextricably connected with exploring the unknown, having exciting adventures and gaining new experience. In this sense, the tourist was and still is a perfect exemplification of the 'experience economy', a particular 'holiday experience industry'. For at least two decades, it has also been reflected as such in the approach to the tourism product, which, in a broad sense of the term, signifies the whole of the tourist's experience.

In recent years, the significance of experiencing the tourism product emotionally before, during and after the trip has been strongly stressed (*cf.* the concept of three journeys in KACZMAREK, STASIAK & WŁODARCZYK 2005). It is largely the result of the development of the modern experience economy in which the basic commodities are not specific products, but the consumer's emotions, impressions and experiences. Internal feelings, excitement, satisfaction with a given destination turn out to be more important than the standard of tourism service provided. Tourists are no longer satisfied with passive recreation or common entertainment; they wish to take part in something extraordinary, feel surprised by something, and have a unique holiday adventure (*cf.* IDZIAK 2009).

The most significant change is the transformation of the tourist from a passive observer to an active participant. For the 'new tourists', it is essential that they can interactively influence the course of the action, co-decide, co-create their own and their companions' experience. Using IT terminology, this phenomenon is defined as 'tourism 2.0'. *'In such tourism, the borders between suppliers and buyers, as well as between tourists and the inhabitants of tourism destinations are becoming blurred'* (IDZIAK 2012 p. 265). In this way, consumers are paradoxically becoming the producers of the tourism product, or even a part of it (*cf.* KACZMAREK, STASIAK & WŁODARCZYK 2010).

A response to the consumer's growing expectations is the assurance of an appropriate supply by the tourism sector. The current trend is to multiply and intensify impressions and emotions in order to surprise, amaze, or sometimes shock modern collectors of holiday memories, so that they are fully satisfied.

This analysis shows that the activities to achieve this goal are varied. The most important of them include:

- transforming tourism infrastructure into unique tourism attractions, presenting controversial architecture, interior design, a particular atmosphere or the unusual character of the services provided;
- enlarging the traditional service package by elements providing additional emotions, impressions and satisfaction;
- using modern technologies to enlarge real tourism space by virtual entities (to create augmented reality), evoke a feeling of satisfaction in tourists' minds, as well as to conveniently record tourism experience and share it with the public.

Activities aiming at the intensification of consumer emotions concern the modification of both the simplest products (individual services) and the more complex, multi-faceted ones (tourism package, event, site, area). Despite the many efforts of tour operators, the obtained results are not always satisfactory.

The basic problem is that consumer's expectations are constantly growing; tourists are becoming more and more experienced, 'they have been everywhere, seen everything', even if not personally, then on modern media, which considerably raise their expectations. They demand new and stronger stimuli, which is why it is getting increasingly difficult to obtain the 'wow!' effect of surprise and amazement. This appears when the psychological product is larger than expected - when tourists' expectations are exceeded (*cf.* product dimensions in KACZMAREK, STASIAK & WŁODARCZYK 2010). In order to achieve it, it is necessary to take a well thought-out, comprehensive approach to constructing a modern tourism offer, based on emotion management.

This is a fact well known to hoteliers, who build their customer's satisfaction patiently, step by step, by means of providing small pleasures. The final opinion depends on the receptionist's everyday smile, personalized welcome on the TV screen in their hotel room, a few sweets resting on their pillow, inviting them to rest, a slightly unfolded duvet, a set of miniature toiletries in the bathroom, 'towel origami' (e.g. towels folded in the shape of animals), or a rose in a wicker basket with clean laundry. Individually, these details are insignificant (and cheap), but if they are offered jointly, they are mutually strengthened

(synergy effect), creating an atmosphere of exceptional hospitality. In this way they successfully create in the guests' minds the feeling of exceptionality and satisfaction with the choice of the hotel.

Another genuine threat to the effective creation of a competitive tourism product is the danger of overloading the offer with too many attractions. According to BOGACZ (2012), travel agencies typically offer a 'combination of different values – a programmed abundance'. Although the modern tourist – a collector of experiences – keeps searching for new sensations, the excessive demand on emotions may lead to boredom or even indifference. It is worth noticing here that modern travellers do not evaluate or give hierarchy to their experiences. Hence, in Witkacy's words, the transcendent experience stands right next to 'the pleasures of the stomach'. '*The cultural product is a carnival, during which the lofty mixes with the banal; art with kitsch (...)*' (LENIARTEK 2012, p. 128). Following this way of thinking, contemplating the Mona Lisa or a visit to the red light district, Corpus Christi in Łowicz or Oktoberfest, the Chopin Piano Competition or traces of the UFO in Wylatów all remain at the same level of importance as regards tourist memories (KACZMAREK, STASIAK & WŁODARCZYK 2010).

In this situation, it is very easy to trivialize the tourism offer. Satisfying the tastes of a large number of undemanding tourists often leads to tourism traps, i.e. artificial, kitsch attractions which play on the tourists' basic feelings, only to make them spend their money. Good examples are haunted houses (very popular in the USA), dark rides (riding vehicles in the dark) or shooting dark rides (riding in the dark and shooting) (KRUCZEK 2009b).

In Poland, the conscious creation of tourism products involving strong emotions has only just begun. Some trends or phenomena which are already present in the West will probably appear soon in Poland as well. Perhaps it will be possible to see the different character of the Polish tourism market (resulting from particular attitudes to religion or patriotism). Whatever happens, tourism studies are gaining a new, intriguing field of study.

FOOTNOTES

¹ The word 'industry', referring to both cultural and tourist activity, has many opponents and critics. Due to the popularity of this term, it has been used in the article but without any discussion of its use and semantic range.

² Just as the cinema gained the nickname 'dream factory', tourism might be described as a 'holiday experience factory'.

³ The world's largest shopping centre, the West Edmonton Mall in Edmonton (Canada) consists of 800 shops and 11 department stores, 110 restaurants, a full-size ice-rink, a hotel (360 rooms), a lake, a chapel, 13 night clubs and 20 movie theaters.

⁴ Modern stadiums offer sports fans not only many hours of carefully staged, emotional sports events, but also an opportunity to visit the club museum, the gallery of trophies, the backstage (e.g. changing rooms), to buy club souvenirs in the large shopping and recreation zone, and sometimes to meet sports stars in the recreation-restaurant part.

⁵ The slogan of the Royal Caribbean International cruises owner on the American market in the early 21st c. is: '*The Ultimate Holiday Experience*'.

⁶ This is not always recommended or welcomed by tourists. For instance, dressing the employees of Hitler's underground laboratory in Kamienna Góra in German military uniforms and concentration camp clothes was an idea which raised strong controversies.

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WHAT IS NATURE TOURISM? CASE STUDY: UNIVERSITY STUDENTS

Abstract: On the one hand in recent years *nature tourism* (*turystyka przyrodnicza*) has constituted a significant part of the tourism industry, on the other it has caused many problems for researchers attempting to define the phenomenon. Should the tourism destination or its primary motivation determine its categorisation? Is there indeed a need when considering practice as well as theory? The authors of the article have attempted a discourse with both foreign and domestic literature and subsequently sought to find the perceived meaning of *turystyka przyrodnicza* (*nature tourism*) amongst students of Poznań University particularly those associated with the natural environment on their degree courses. The present article should be considered as a contribution to further work in this field theoretically as well as practically.

Keywords: nature tourism, nature-based tourism, nature-oriented tourism, ecotourism.

1. INTRODUCTION

Nature tourism is an important part of the world tourism industry (LINDBERG 1991, p. 5, *TIES* 2003) – and importantly – one which is gaining in prominence (CAMPBELL 1999, p. 534). LINDBERG, FURZE, STAFF & BLACK (1997, p. 1) report that the nature tourism sector accounts for circa 7% of all international travel, but varies significantly with respect to given world regions. It should be pointed out that the annual global nature tourism growth rate is estimated at 10-30% (*TIES* 2003). It is this region, and more precisely the concentration of natural assets (as well as the tourism image) of a given destination, which determines such large differences. And so, as an example, in Australia the nature tourism sector accounts for as many as 62% of foreign and 16% of domestic tourists. This group is distinguished by its profitability: in 2008, foreign ‘nature tourism’ tourists averaged spending of \$6009 per trip, while ‘classical’ tourists just \$3747¹.

Nature tourism is considered to be one of the more important factors attracting foreign tourists in many African countries. However it should be pointed out that this form of travel is not always a reflection of positive change. In the opinion of AKAMA (1996), nature tourism in Kenya, stereotypically created by western organisations, is contrary to the needs and expectations of the local population (p. 572). This is

because it only focuses on selected natural assets known and promoted for centuries (to a large extent due to colonial transformations and subsequent generations of Europeans and North Americans).

In Poland nature tourism is the subject of numerous academic works, as compared to other European countries many destinations of high natural value (relatively speaking) are to be found here, and the number of foreign tourists is continually growing (reflected for example in the services offered by the *Eco-Frontiers Ranch*). However the fundamental issue seems to lie with a precise definition of what nature tourism really is both in Poland as well as in the global context. This is significant not only for academic research but also (and perhaps even more importantly) for accurate market analyses in the tourism industry.

2. NATURE TOURISM: CONCEPTS AND DEFINITIONS

The very concept of nature tourism, whose beginnings date back to the 18th c. fascination with the elemental nature of Romanticism as being opposed to the ever more civilized urban and industrialized world, has

produced issues and discussion in Polish as well as foreign literature. The term *nature tourism* is often used interchangeably with *green*, *alternative*, *soft*, *sustainable*, *responsible* or *ecotourism* (KRIPPENDORF 1996, pp. 517-532, PRISKIN 2001, p. 637, DUDEK & KOWALCZYK 2003, pp. 117-118, NIEZGODA 2008, p. 79); KRZYMOWSKA-KOSTROWICKA (1995, p. 25) as well as KOWALCZYK & KULCZYK (2010, p. 127) also use the concept of *eco-friendly tourism* whereas KAMIENIECKA – *pro-ecological tourism* (1995 p. 11). Additionally, there are forms of tourism directly associated with the natural environment. However, their nomenclature refers to a given ecosystem, for example forest tourism, lake tourism, polar tourism etc., or others such as canoe, adventure, bird watching or survival tourism, at the heart of nature but terminologically associated with types of activity (PRISKIN 2001, p. 639).

In the context of conceptual differences it is particularly important to present the different perspectives of the various researchers. Primarily it should be pointed out that all forms of nature tourism, despite their differences, are able to resist mass tourism (although DUDEK & KOWALCZYK, 2003 p. 120 believe that nature tourism can itself be a mass form). Secondly, most researchers agree that nature tourism is in fact any kind of tourism taking place in the natural environment, on the proviso that the nature tourist's source of satisfaction predominantly stems from being in touch with the natural environment (e.g. CEBALLOS-LASCURAIN 1996, pp. 19-20, GOODWIN 1996, p. 287, BLAMEY 2001, pp. 5-22, SHAFER & CHOI 2006, pp. 625-626).

Similar opinions are voiced by organisations involved with tourism management who consider it to be a form of leisure taking advantage of natural assets in a particular manner (e.g. *Western Australian Tourism Commission and Department of Conservation and Land Management*, 1997, p. 4). On the other hand some researchers point out that nature tourism should be associated with activities taking place in a relatively untransformed natural environment (VALENTINE 1992, p. 108, GOODWIN 1996, p. 287, WANG 2000, p. 87). However, rightly or not, at this point the implication is that nature tourism in urban areas, but based on visiting zoos, arboreta, natural history museums or the like, is excluded. It is also clear that not all activities undertaken in a natural environment, untransformed by human activity, are undertaken with the intention of being close to nature. For example, in order to go climbing, both an artificial climbing wall in a city as well as rock faces in Jura Krakowsko-Częstochowska may be used, and the main purpose for such a trip is not contemplation of nature but a well-defined physical activity. In such a situation the best solution seems to be provided by GRENIER (2004, p. 66) who subdivided nature tourism into:

- **nature-based tourism** – where the natural environment is the background for the performance of various activities; they are also possible in an urban setting;
- **nature-oriented tourism** – in order to contemplate the essence of nature, closely associated with it and as a rule it should be in a practically untouched natural environment; nature tourism understood in such a way has also been referred to in the English language literature as *environmental tourism* (GOELDNER & RITCHIE 2009, pp. 227-229).

However, attention should be drawn to the fact that the use of *nature-based tourism* in this literature may lead to confusion, as some researchers consider it to be synonymous with tourism taking place solely in the natural environment (e.g. JAMROZY, BACKMAN & BACKMAN 1996, p. 913, ALAEDDINOGLU & CAN 2011, p. 199), and even as a phrase meaning exactly the same as *nature-oriented tourism* (NEWSOME, MOORE & DOWLING 2002, p. 13).

On the other hand some researchers consider nature tourism to be only that found in legally protected areas (DENG, KING & BAUER 2002, p. 424, DUDEK & KOWALCZYK 2003, p. 122).

The confusion in the nomenclature on nature tourism is furthered by the use of the phrase *ecotourism*, which is held to be synonymous with nature tourism by many researchers (e.g. CORBETT 2006, p. 144, Luzar *et al.* 1998, p. 48); according to DUDEK & KOWALCZYK most Polish researchers are also of that opinion (2003, p. 120). It seems that this form of tourism may be categorised as 'nature-based', as it does not necessarily have to take place in a natural setting (even if in most cases it does) (DOWLING & WEILER 1997, p. 51, GRENIER 2004, pp. 63-64, MASON 2000, p. 336, LEUNG *et al.* 2001, p. 21). Fennell is of a similar opinion, who in comparing as many as 85 ecotourism definitions considered the following to be its primary premises:

- usually practiced in a natural setting;
- the study of and getting to know the natural and cultural aspects of a given area (ecological education);
- limited impact of tourists on the visited environment;
- benefits for local communities;
- the tourists' involvement in the protection of the given environment (2001, p. 24).

Similar components are mentioned by VARLEY & MEDWAY (2011, p. 903). From the point of view of ecotourism specialists, all those conditions can be fulfilled if tourists visit zoos and if they are impressed by the fauna, for example, of the African savannah found there, they can then search for additional information about the life of cheetahs; or perhaps if they

help Sukuma people financially, they could be contributing to their protection, all while being in Poland, and not by exploring the Serengeti National Park.

HIGHMAN & LÚCK (2002, pp. 36-51), WU, WANG & HO (2010, p. 739) as well as KULCZYK (2008, pp. 150-151) amongst others emphasise the possibility of ecotourism in urban areas, where individuals interested in the urban natural environment practise urban ecotourism.

On the other hand visits to natural areas, as an indispensable element of ecotourism and its differentiation from nature tourism, are highlighted by ZARĘBA (2010, p. 50) and KOŻUCHOWSKI (2005, p. 170).

To sum up – ecotourism is a type of nature tourism which may, but need not be, practiced in the natural environment, but nevertheless pertains predominantly to natural themes. The primary activity of the tourist is getting to know the environment in a broad sense (also cultural aspects) associated with the given location as well as its protection and care. Thus, according to the authors, ecotourism may be regarded as a form of nature-based tourism.

Apart from ecotourism, which connects natural elements with cultural ones, we can find one more term that refers to those two kinds of heritage: *nature-culture tourism* (MIKOS VON ROHRSCHEIDT 2008, pp. 134-135) which involves visiting natural sites created by human activity, for example parks, gardens, nature exhibitions etc. Specific examples are the 29 items (2012) from the UNESCO *World Cultural and Natural Heritage of Humanity* (so-called mixed) list, including Mount Athos, the Pyrenees, Mużakowski Park, Machu Picchu, Cappadocia etc.

Another term which appears in the English language literature connected with nature tourism, fuelling the confusion, is the term *wildlife tourism*, which, however, does not refer to the study of 'wild nature' but only includes some types of non-domestic animals in their natural habitats or in captivity (HIGGINBOTTOM 2004, p. 2). Reynolds & Braithwaite (2001, pp. 33-34) have defined seven main forms of this kind of tourism (the authors named it *fauna tourism*):

- nature tourism, where the animal is the over-riding element and the other components of a given tourism product are marginal;
- visiting a given natural habitat, rich in species variety, often for the purpose of feeding the animals;
- visiting man made sites where animals live in captivity;
- watching a given species;
- hiking in defined habitats;
- watching dangerous, spectacular animal behaviour, arranged by man;

- hunts, where animals are usually culled for consumption, both in their natural as well as artificial ecosystems.

Sometimes the concept of nature tourism involves or is even treated as a synonym for sustainable tourism (DUDEK & KOWALCZYK 2003, p. 117), but to the authors it seems this latter type can be spoken of in any context, and both in natural or urban environments, as long as it complies with the principles of sustainability (PROSSER 1994, pp. 31-32, KAMIENIECKA 1995, pp. 10-11, NIEZGODA 2008, p. 85).

The particular individuals choosing to participate in these leisure activities were also a subject of interest. Here, an interesting classification was suggested by LINDBERG (1991) who divided them into four categories:

- scientists, researchers and tourists, who are oriented to active education and action to improve the state of the environment, are often the core of nature tourism;
- tourists taking a special trip to see protected areas in order to understand the natural and local cultural history;
- tourists whose primary aim is to learn about a specific, well-known natural attraction;
- casual tourists who discover nature by coincidence, as part of a wider trip.

Each can be categorised according to time spent in a natural environment, type of nature experience and significance for the destination itself (1991, p. 11).

To conclude, the authors consider the most effective definition of *nature tourism* – as understood in the broader sense including all forms, types and kinds – will be the following: 'that which in any way and even to a minimal degree involves elements of the natural environment'; and as such allow for the possibility that nature tourism can be undertaken in a urban area. Thus *nature tourism* understood in such a multi-faceted manner, depends on the purpose the participant – even if it is of an indirect character (the natural environment is only background, as if expendable) – the authors suggest that it should be labelled *nature-based tourism*; whereas when nature is the determining factor for tourism that involves direct contact with environment - they prefer *nature-oriented tourism*.

3. PERCEPTIONS OF NATURE TOURISM: A CASE STUDY

In seeing the many differences in the interpretation of the term *turystyka przyrodnicza* (*nature tourism*) in the literature, the authors decided to take a closer look at how this term is understood in practice.

Empirical research, through the use of questionnaires, was carried out using the website, *ankieta.pl*, amongst Poznań University of Life Sciences students, as those who, at least in principle, have particular contact with the natural environment.

The questionnaire contained 18 questions, five of which were multiple choice and included questions on the characteristics of the respondents. The key to the questionnaire was sent to students, so only they were able to take part in the investigation.

3.1. RESPONDENT CHARACTERISTICS AND TEST METHODOLOGY

The research was conducted between March and May 2013 on a sample of 370 individuals (approx. 4.5% of all full-time students²), representing different subjects across eight different departments. Forestry (28.83% of total students surveyed), tourism and recreation (16.28%), biology (11.19%) and human nutrition (9.52%) were the most important. This stems from the fact that in general such students are somewhat connected professionally with the environment, wild-life or travel, and are interested and take part in nature tourism. Second and third year students were the most frequent and constituted 53.56% of those surveyed. First year students (19.32%) and postgraduate students (27.12%) were not far behind.

In terms of permanent residence the home location of the students is interesting – 40% in the countryside, 23.39% in towns of 30 000 residents and less, while only 11.19% live in urban areas of 30-100 000 residents and 25.42% in bigger cities. We can conclude that residents of less urbanized areas, who are in contact with nature on a daily basis, are more interested in nature tourism. On the other hand, a lot of those students have temporarily moved to the city of Poznań, which has significantly limited that co-existence.

In terms of voivodeship, those from Wielkopolska dominate (72.88%), followed by Zachodniopomorskie, Lubuskie, Pomorskie and Kujawsko-Pomorskie voivodeships (together 18.98%).

The gender structure of the respondents was typical of the current status of students with women dominating (70.17%).

The questionnaire contained both closed and open questions providing the respondents with an opportunity to express themselves freely.

3.2. RESEARCH RESULTS

One of the most significant issues of the analysis was that of familiarity with, and comprehension of, the term *turystyka przyrodnicza* (*nature tourism*).

53.32% respondents stated they understood, but 31.53% were unable to unambiguously state their position on the issue. Only 15.25% of the respondents were totally ignorant of the term. Those who showed they understood were asked to indicate exactly *what* they understood it to mean. It should be pointed out that more than half took the broad interpretation of *nature tourism* (51.86% of all responses) (Fig. 1).

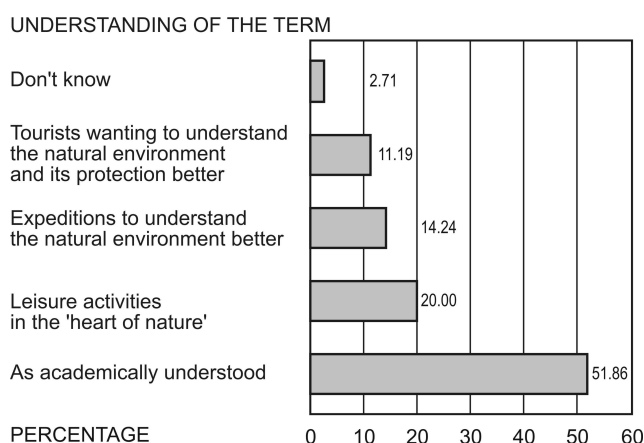


Fig. 1. Understanding of the term *turystyka przyrodnicza* (*nature tourism*) by respondents

Source: own materials based on research (2013)

For this dominant group, *turystyka przyrodnicza* (*nature tourism*) includes a variety of trips undertaken in the natural environment, with emphasis on the cognitive aspects as well as the protection of natural assets. A broad understanding of *nature tourism* is also highlighted by the next most frequent option (leisure activities in the 'heart of nature'). Such a distribution of answers confirms the doubts of the authors and other researchers on the understanding of this concept.

In the subsequent stages of the research it was important to establish whether respondents undertook nature tourism in its academically-understood form, and what the role of the natural environment in the tourism activities of those students was. As many as 68.47% stated they undertook nature tourism; for getting to know the natural environment constituted the primary purpose of at least some trips (63.73% of all answers). Nearly 18% expressed specific opinions on this issue. Here it was emphasised that getting to know the environment includes: as a way of life, whose main purpose is leisure, interesting experiences, as a passion. However for 18.31% learning about the natural environment was an insignificant element of a trip. In interpreting the responses to this question the motivation hierarchy for many young people should be borne in mind [social and entertainment factors occur frequently in tourism

activity research on students (PRZECLAWSKI 1996, p. 42)]. A not insignificant role here is played by earlier experiences within in eco education: participation in interesting field activities, student engagement with nature, as a stimulus of future decisions on expeditions.

In order to develop and popularise nature tourism, it is important to find out the degree to which specialised tourism services are taken advantage of. The respondents' answers, when asked if they have already come across tourism services geared towards discovering the environment, were mostly negative, but they also pointed out that they had not sought these types of services (48.14%) (Fig. 2). Just 20.34% had experience in using them. Here it is worth considering why young people who willingly spend their leisure time in a natural setting, do not take advantage of opportunities to understand it better. Is this the result of insufficient supply, bad experience with organised outdoor activities of this type, or restricted access to this type of service (e.g. due to finances)?

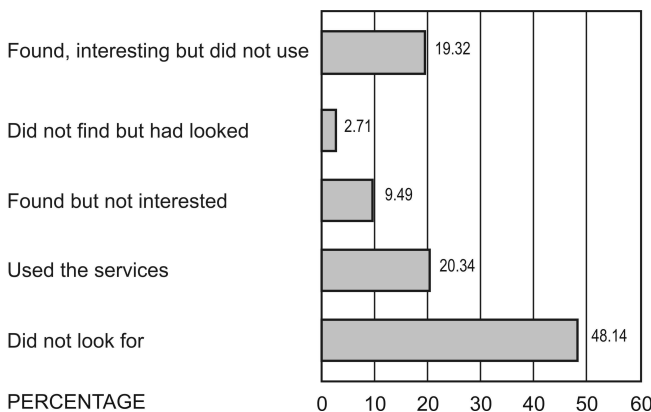


Fig. 2. Tourism services and the environment
Source: own materials based on research (2013)

In attempting to precisely define the term *nature tourism* as well as its appropriate presentation in practice, it is significant to determine which forms of activity are most popular. As is evident from Fig. 3 those undertaken independently or run by specialist organisations and associations were dominant (such as looking after sick wild animals, animal watching). The fact that most methods for organising activities during these trips are associated with animals should be highlighted, plants being of less interest.

Interestingly, the respondents also eagerly sought contact with the natural environment in an urban setting, through visiting zoos or spending their leisure time in urban open areas (communal parks and forests). Once again this demonstrates the necessity to include this form of tourism in the term *nature tourism*.

And thus it is not the type of area visited but the theme and purpose that seem more significant.

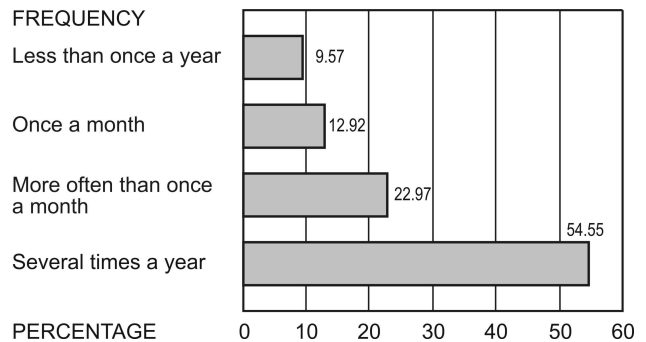


Fig. 3. Forms of nature tourism (more than one answer could be chosen)
Source: own materials based on research (2013)

As shown by the answers to the next question (Fig. 4), respondents spend their leisure time in the natural environment. Nearly 55% stated a willingness to undertake nature tourism several times per year, whereas 36% indicated an even higher frequency. Such a high frequency is justified by motivation (Fig. 5). For many, trips of this type are an opportunity to follow their interests (34.13% of all answers), spend free time (25%), but also present an opportunity to relax and regain their inner balance (21.15%).

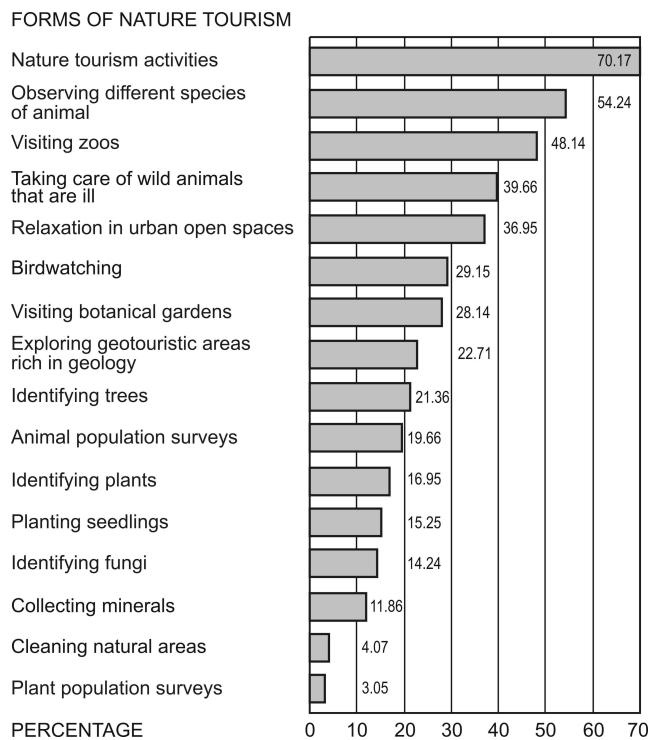


Fig. 4. Frequency of nature tourism trips
Source: own materials based on research (2013)

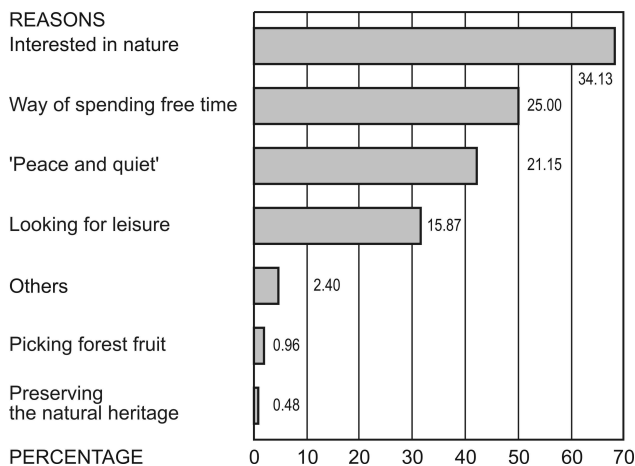


Fig. 5. Reasons for nature tourism
Source: own materials based on research (2013)

For the respondents, nature tourism also presents an opportunity to achieve other goals associated, for example, with spending time with close friends (Fig. 6). Such trips are organised together – as a group (42.37%) or with a spouse/boy- and girlfriend (33.56%). 20.34% stated they organise such trips on their own. Less than 4% used the services of travel agents or specialist organisations. It should be pointed out that such a distribution of answers is typical for university students for many types of tourism activity.

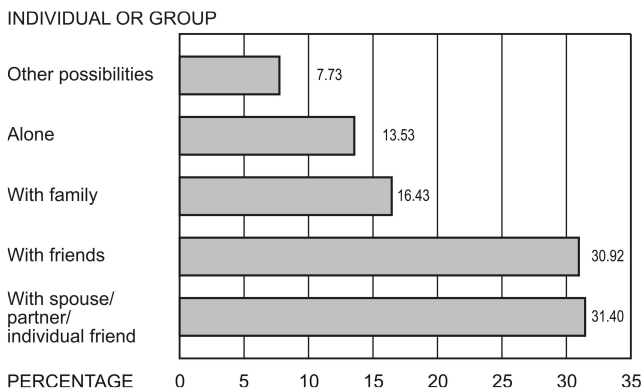


Fig. 6. Individuals vs groups in nature tourism
Source: own materials based on research (2013)

To a large extent, the image of nature tourism depends on the eco-sensitivity of the individuals participating in it. A significant element is awareness of the impact of tourism on the natural environment. It is worth noting that the students surveyed assessed tourists in a natural environment as 'strangers' who are violating a fixed order (54.24%); on the other hand, 20.68% felt themselves to be guests, while 10.51% felt indifferent to the host environment. The surveyed students often selected 'others' as their answer

(14.58%) which afforded an opportunity to make a free statement on tourists or their environmental impact; it was often recorded that negative changes to a visited destination were caused by tourists, their lack of knowledge or sense of responsibility.

The most frequently recognised positive aspects included (Fig. 7) eco-education (77.60%), the promotion of specific natural areas (65.10%) and protection of the environment as a tourism activity (50.52%).

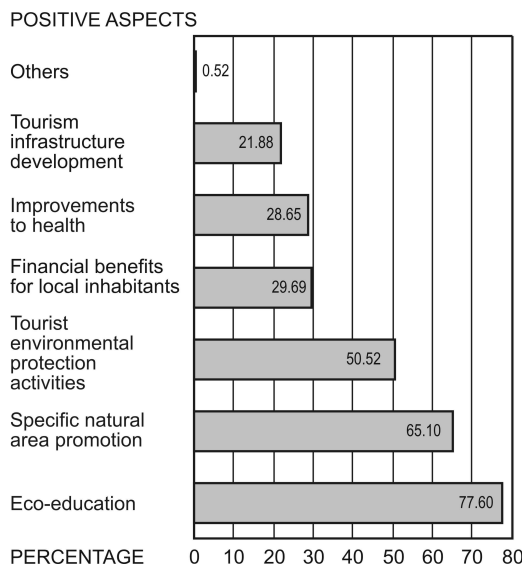


Fig. 7. Positive aspects of nature tourism development (more than one answer could be chosen)
Source: own materials based on research (2013)

Amongst the problems students pointed to most (Fig. 8) were litter (83.40%), damage to plant life (73.03%), disturbance to animals (70.95%) and noise pollution (42.32%). It should be pointed out that all these are a consequence of a lack of appropriate knowledge and eco-sensitivity.

The development of nature tourism should be associated with appropriate infrastructure, which on the one hand facilitates the discovery of natural assets and on the other protects the environment against adverse transformations. In the opinion of the surveyed university students the most significant elements improving the attractiveness of tourism areas are (Fig. 9) recreational facilities (benches, lookouts, designated fire hearths etc.) 62.37%, marked trails (55.93%) and educational paths (50.51%). These elements illustrate the tourism penetration space of destinations. The students considered those developments which permanently transform the space (such as accommodation, catering or availability of external transport), perhaps making it more convenient for people but radically changing the ecological balance of eco-systems, as being less significant. The low rating of the

services of guides in improving the tourism attractiveness of natural areas is worth noting.

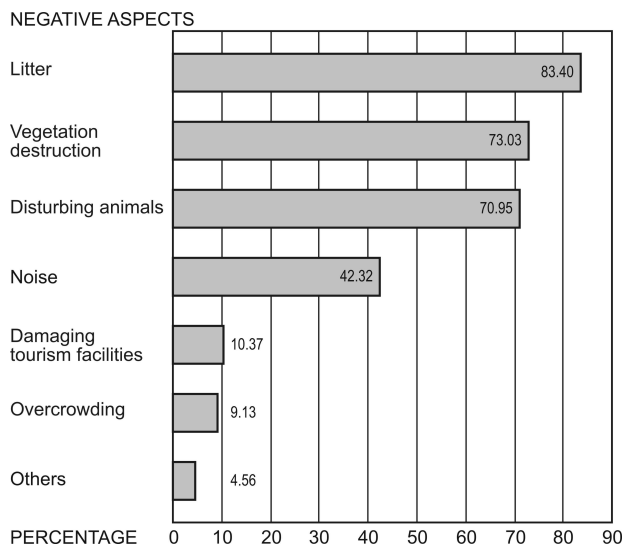


Fig. 8. Negative aspects of nature tourism development (more than one answer could be chosen)
Source: own materials based on research (2013)

In the opinion of the authors, this stems, to a large extent, from the bad experiences of university students with activities which involve a guide (the most common weak points are not matching information to needs, use of a single method by guides or inability to use activities involving the whole group) as well as a lack of use of these services by groups (friends or family).

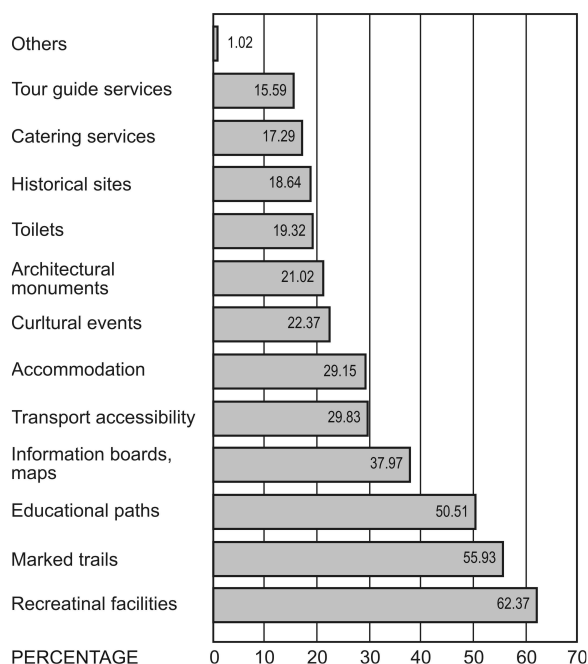


Fig. 9. Elements enhancing the natural environment (more than one answer could be chosen)
Source: own materials based on research (2013)

3.3. RESEARCH CONCLUSIONS

The research conducted amongst students of Poznań University of Life Sciences yielded many interesting insights and observations of which the most important seem to be:

1. The concept of *nature tourism* is understood as various forms of tourism activity not only carried out in the natural environment, but also in urban space; however, focused on exploring nature and on the need to protect it.

2. Nature trips are organized relatively frequently, however, without the help of professional entities (travel agencies or other organizations).

3. Contact with nature is one of the most popular forms of leisure activity for the young.

4. University students see changes which may be occurring to the environment due to the impact of nature tourism developments (both negative and positive).

5. Tourism penetration space is the most significant type in nature tourism and a significant number of students surveyed, adopting the Lindberg classification mentioned above, are those who visit particular nature destinations or who are interested in environmental protection issues.

These insights confirm the necessity to undertake work to define the terms appearing under the umbrella of *nature tourism*. This will not only allow for a discussion in the literature but also, more importantly for practitioners, will facilitate appropriate market research and its interpretation.

4. CONCLUSIONS SUMMING UP DISCUSSION OF *NATURE TOURISM* AS A TERM

The authors of this article have proposed a very broad definition for the term *nature tourism*, recognising and analysing the various ideas, both in Poland and abroad. It has to be remembered that even urban space includes natural elements, most probably shaped by human activity, but still natural: city parks, municipal forests, zoos, arboreta and the like. This is why an important factor in defining the essence of nature tourism is not space, but the purpose of the trip being undertaken – if the purpose happens to be the desire to be in touch with nature and learn about the natural environment, we can talk about nature tourism, even if it takes place in a city.

To conclude their discussion the authors wish to stress that every type of nature-based tourism may assume one of three relations: conflict, coexistence or

symbiosis (BUDOWSKI 1976, p. 27-31). Certainly, we must strive for such a relationship in which both parties benefit; the natural environment because it can be effectively protected by tourists who raise environmental awareness, and also the tourists themselves who relax, learn, develop their sense of aesthetic sensitivity and responsibility, and so forth, in a natural setting.

In emphasising the significance of nature tourism as a part of global tourism, it is impossible to avoid the issue of valuing and assessing natural assets: in terms of their use and in the form of recreation being discussed. LEE (1997, p. 587) points out that most individuals (theoreticians as well as practitioners) ignore the economic value of natural assets for tourism. Whereas according to these authors, services in nature tourism should not only protect the natural environment but also safeguard local community income from loss outside of the region. The residents, being aware of the economic value of their natural assets will be best suited to safeguard them.

This article, even during its preparation, caused many questions to be raised and highlighted doubts as to the various forms of nature tourism – as well as in their nomenclature. Thus it seems vital to do similar research on geotourism, lake or forest tourism, and so on.

FOOTNOTES

¹ <http://www.sustainabletourisonline.com/parks-and-culture/nature-based-tourism/forms-of-nature-based-tourism/nature-based-tourism>, 26.05.2013.

² A sample of 370 can be considered as representative at a confidence level of 0.95 and an error of 0.05.

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TOURISTICALLY-ATTRACTIVE SPRINGS IN THE POLISH LOWLANDS

Abstract: On the basis of available published materials and his own research, the author identifies the 27 most attractive springs in the Polish Lowlands. He describes their most important landscape and tourism assets – the relief of the spring outlet area, landforms, the character of the spring itself and the accompanying tourism infrastructure. The article presents available data regarding the water discharged by the springs: volume, temperature, colour and medicinal properties; as well as pointing to associated interesting natural features, examples of religious architecture and historical curiosities. The distribution of springs in the Polish Lowlands is uneven, with the majority found in the area of the morainic uplands, as well as in deeper river valleys and lake troughs.

Key words: springs, landscape and tourism assets, Polish Lowlands.

A spring is the site of a natural discharge of ground-water to the surface of the earth from a single source, through an opening, crack or fracture. It occurs at places where the surface of the earth cuts an aquifer.

There are various criteria for classifying springs, the main one being the nature of the underlying rock (e.g. porous, jointed, with caves). Using this particular one, springs can be divided into “layer”, fracture, fault and karst. In mountains and uplands, fracture, fault and karst springs emerging mostly from solid rock are found. In the lowlands, they are predominantly ‘layer’ springs, draining water from a ‘layer’ in a porous formation e.g. sands or gravels. Taking into consideration the force causing the discharge, they are descending (gravity) springs in which the water is flowing downwards. They are a part of a post-glacial landscape, especially in higher areas with varied relief. There are many in districts of lakes, especially in post-glacial troughs. Spring discharge in lowlands, however, is small, usually less than 0.5 l/s (litres per second), although in some cases it reaches several dozen litres per second.

Some springs in Poland are considered to be sacred and sites of religious cults. They are often named after saints or sanctuaries, and are believed to have miraculous (healing) powers. That is why we find shrines, churches, sanctuaries etc. built near them, often visited by pilgrims and tourists.

Moreover, springs not only have interesting hydrological features, but are also a part of the landscape, and as such they become attractive to tourists, in addition to displaying healing and other features.

Detailed information about the Polish Lowlands can be found in numerous specialist publications, mainly in articles published in academic journals (DYNOWSKA 1986, MAKSYMIOUK & MELA 1995, POLESZCZUK 1998, MONIEWSKI 2004), and conference proceedings (FORYSIAK & MONIEWSKI 2006, MONIEWSKI *et al.* 2006, BAŚCIK & URBAN 2007, JOKIEL *et al.* 2007). Mentions of the tourism value of springs are included in guidebooks (ALEXANDROWICZ *et al.* 1975, MARCINEK & CHRUSCICKI 1976, PASIECZNY *et al.* 2008), as well as geographical and tourism gazetteers and encyclopaedias (MILEWSKA 1998, KWIATEK & LIJEWSKI 1993, ŁĘCKI 2005, KRYGIER 2007). Information on the tourism value of springs can be found in tourism geography textbooks (CHOIŃSKI & KANIECKI 1996, MAIK 2000, LIJEWSKI *et al.* 2008), and monographs (OLACZEK 2008, GŁĄBIŃSKI 2009, DOMIAN & KUPIEC 2010). Sometimes springs are also mentioned in general geography textbooks (STARKEL 1999, KONDRACKI 1998, CHEŁMICKI *et al.* 2010). General information about springs is found in hydrography and hydrology textbooks (MIKULSKI 1965, DYNOWSKA & TLAŁKA 1982, BAJKIEWICZ-GRABOWSKA & MIKULSKI 2006), as well as in books with religious themes (JACKOWSKI 1998, WIŚNIEWSKI 1998, ŻELAWSKI 2010).

The aim of this article is to present the natural and human assets of springs in the Polish Lowlands on the basis of the available literature, internet sources, and the author’s own field work. The information may encourage tourists to visit these springs.

On the basis of available published materials and his own research, the author has listed 27 springs

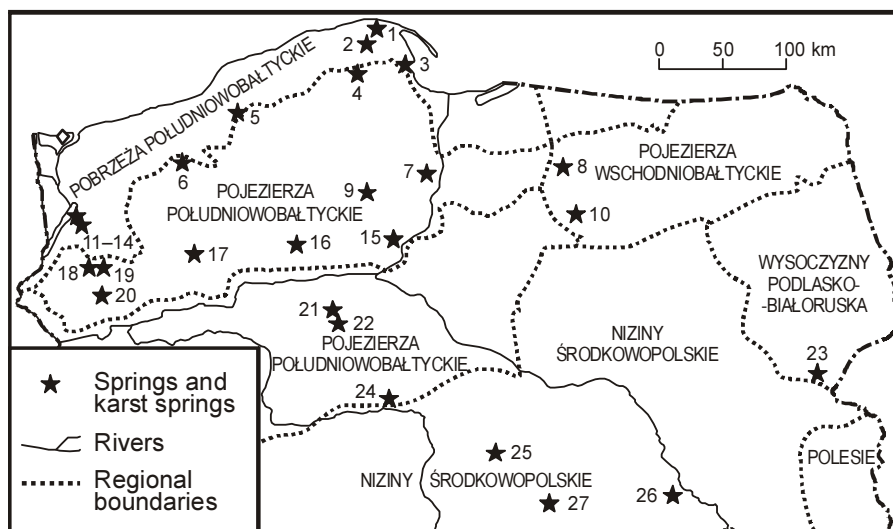


Fig. 1. Distribution of touristically-attractive springs in the Polish Lowlands
Source: author

showing tourism value. Their spatial distribution in the Polish Lowlands is presented in Fig. 1. The author chose those springs whose natural and human assets are described in the literature or on the internet, and/or are visited by large numbers of pilgrims and tourists travelling to religious sites. The description includes the names of these springs, their exact locations plus nearby places, position in a named valley (along with the stream or river name), and the geographical region, as well as information about the relief of the water discharge area (valley side and foot, fracture, outlet). Further information concerns the character of the area surrounding the spring, the type of rock from which the water flows, as well as its colour, volume and temperature. The accompanying tourism infrastructure, interesting natural features, religious sites, the medicinal properties of the water and historical remarks are also mentioned. The name of the landscape park or/and nature reserve and the name of a tourism trail leading to it are included as well. The landscape and human assets of selected springs are presented in photographs (Fots 2-6).

Brief descriptions of touristically-attractive springs are presented below, starting from the north and ending with those located in the south of the Polish Lowlands.

1. *Małe Źródelko* (Little Spring), called 'Zdrońik' by the local people (Kashubians), is a natural spring with medicinal properties emerging from the foot of a slope in the north-western part of *Kępa Ostrowska*, about 0.5 km west of the village of *Ostrowo*. It is situated near the *Karwieńska* road from *Ostrów* to *Karwia* which runs through meadows (*Władysławowo gmina, Puck powiat*). The spring is surrounded by

a low concrete wall and its water was formerly used for agriculture. There are several boulders, about 1 m in diameter, surrounding the spring. The path leading to it has a hard surface and you can find a small bench and a table there. Through a series of ditches, the spring feeds the river, *Czarna Woda*, which flows directly into the sea. Slightly to the south is the 'Bielawskie Marshes' nature reserve with bogs and peat land where moor plants such as bog myrtle (*Myrica gale*) and cloudberry (*Rubus chamaemorus*) are protected. It is one of the largest natural habitats for cranes in Poland. The panorama of 'Bielawskie Marshes' from can be seen from a wooden observation tower situated on the blue trail.

2. *Źródlika Czarnej Wody* (Blackwater Springs) are extensive area of outflows forming a small river leading to the sea – the *Czarna Woda*. Its upper course is deeply cut into the *Żarnowiecka Upland*. Nearby, we can see the glacial erratics called 'God's Foot' and 'Devil's Stone'. In order to protect the landscape and the natural assets, a forest and floral nature reserve has been established there, named after the springs. They are situated about 1 km north-east of the village of *Świecino* (*Krokowa gmina, Puck powiat*). The *Czarna Woda* flows directly into the Baltic Sea between *Karwia* and *Jastrzębia Góra*.

3. *Źródło Marii* (Mary's Spring) emerges from the edge of an upland (*Kaszuby Lake District*), in the area of the *Oliwa Forests* in *Gdynia* (the southern part of *Wielki Kack*). The water flows out from a rounded opening strengthened with gravel and stone, in the middle of which (on an islet) is a small shrine where a statue of the Virgin Mary has been placed. Beside it, on a tourism trail, is a small, stone drinking fountain.

A small stream of the same name flows out of the spring (about 1 l/s) in *Kacze Łęgi* ('Duck Meadows') nature reserve, and into the River Kacza, which in turn flows into Gdańsk Bay. This spring with miraculous, healing water is situated on two tourism trails (black and yellow) and on a cycling trail in the Trójmiasto Landscape Park.



Photo 1. Rounded niche of Mary's Spring with the statue of Virgin Mary (Gdynia, 3rd August 2011)

4. *Źródła Staniszewskie* (Staniszewskie Springs) form the largest complex of springs and seepages in northern Poland (*gmina* and *powiat* of Kartuzy). The groundwater flows out on the steep left slope of the upper Łeba valley, starting streamlets which flow directly into this river. The springs, together with unique plant communities and rare plant species, form the 'Staniszewskie Springs' nature reserve, within the Kaszubski Landscape Park (Kaszuby Lake District). The reserve can be entered by a forest road from Mirachów (about 3 km) towards Sianowo (forest district: Glinne), marked as a red PTTK (Polish Tourism and Sightseeing Society) tourism trail.

5. *Źródło Polanów* (Polanów Spring) has miraculous healing 'powers', emerging on the slope of the sacred Polanowska hill (156 m above sea level), about 2 km south-west of Polanów, near Koszalin (Polanów *gmina*, Koszalin *powiat*). At present, it is a shallow stone well with a bucket for drawing water. It is covered and decorated with a picture of Virgin Mary. Next to it, there is a wooden bridge over the outlet of a periodic stream which flows into the River Grabowa – a left tributary of the Wieprza. Along the forest path leading to the top of the hill, there are 20 rosary stations, carved in wood. Next to the summit is a Franciscan hermitage with a Virgin Mary sanctuary – a Franciscan pilgrimage centre.

6. *Ptasie Źródło* (Bird Spring) is a spring with medicinal mineral water known since 1688. It is

surrounded by a circular wall of stones with a shallow basin and a drinking fountain in the centre. The spring's discharge is small (< 0.5 l/s) and the water colours the stones brick-red and brownish because it contains iron compounds. The spring is situated on the right slope of the Kamienny Potok ravine, close to Borkowo sanatorium in Połczyn Zdrój (Połczyn Zdrój *gmina*, Świdwin *powiat*). The spring can be reached following the yellow *Wokół Połczyńska Zdroju* trail which runs through the buffer zone of the Drawski Landscape Park ('Połczyńska Switzerland'). Kamienny Potok is a right tributary of the Wogra, which in turn is a left tributary of the Dębica flowing later into the Parsęta.

7. *Źródło 'Piaseczno'* (*Źródło Matki Bożej*) – the water in Piaseczno (Mother of God) Spring has miraculous (healing) properties. The spring is situated on the eastern slope of the valley of the Piaseczno stream which flows into the River Wierzyca – a left tributary of the Vistula. At present it is a relatively deep well with a windlass and a bucket to draw water. At the site where the miraculous spring emerged, a chapel in the shape of a boat was built, as well as 15 rosary stations. Next to the well, there is a car park for those travelling by the Tczew–Bydgoszcz road, about 0.5 km east of Piaseczno (Gniew *gmina*, Tczew *powiat*). Nearby, we can find the oldest Virgin Mary sanctuary in Pomorze.

8. *Źródło 'Gietrzwałd'* (Gietrzwałd Spring) emerges from the foot of a hill, in a small square hollow, surrounded by rounded and flat stones. In order to reach it, a few steps must be descended. The water flows from a pipe (a drinking fountain of less than 0.5 l/s discharge), over which there are three marble *bas reliefs* depicting Moses touching a rock from which water is emerging, and Israelites drinking water in the desert. Next to the spring, there is a figure of the Virgin. Above, at the edge of the forest, we find 15 stations of the cross. The miraculous spring is situated near the Virgin Mary Basilica in Gietrzwałd near Olsztyn which is why it is visited by a great number of pilgrims and tourists (Gietrzwałd *gmina*, Olsztyn *powiat*). The spring starts at the foot of the Giławka valley, a tributary of the River Giłwa, which in turn is a tributary of the Pasłęka flowing into the Vistula Bay.

9. *Źródła Rzeki Stążki* (Stążka River Springs) are powerful underground waters forming the Stążka River, offering exceptionally spectacular views. They are considered to be a monument of nature and can be found in a nature reserve bearing the same name. The springs themselves have their own name – *Wodogrzmoty Krasnoludków* (Dwarfs' Waterfall), which comes from the fact that the water emerges at great speed. The springs are situated in the Tucholski Landscape Park (Tucholskie Forests), about 13 km north-east of

Tuchola between Kowalskie Błota and Biała. The springs can be reached from the village of Biała, going south-east along the *Szlak Partyzantów AK* (Home Army Partisan Trail). The Stążka River is a left tributary of the Brda (Cekcyn *gmina*, Tuchola *powiat*).

10. **Źródła Rzeki Łyny** (Łyna River Springs) are several dozen seepage springs flowing out from numerous semi-circular openings and forming a stream. The waters flow out from fluvio-glacial sand above a substratum of impermeable Miocene loam, at the foot of a terminal moraine at an altitude of 155 m. Differences in altitude (up to 30 m) of individual parts of this ravine make the local landscape very interesting. The phenomenon of headward erosion occurs here which is particularly rare in the lowlands, which is why the area is under protection and has been turned into a landscape and geomorphological nature reserve named after the springs. The springs are situated about 1.5 km north-east of the village of Łyna, Nidzica *gmina* (Mazury), on the Olsztyn–Dobrzyń green tourism trail. The River Łyna is a left tributary of the Pregoła which flows into Kaliningrad Bay.

11. **Źródło Worpickiego** (Worpicky Spring – German: *Worpitzky Quelle*) is a high discharge spring (1-2 l/s), with a temperature of 8 °C, flowing out from the base of an opening (10 m in diameter), at the foot of a steep scarp overgrown with beech trees. Groundwater flows out both at the foot of the slope and below it. On the northern side some concrete steps can be seen – remnants of those from 1894 which make a descent to the spring easier. The spring is situated in the Szczeciński Landscape Park called ‘Primaeval Beech Forest’, in the ‘Beech Hills’ nature reserve. The spring flows down the eastern slope of the valley of the Chojnówka stream and is its right tributary. In the area of Szczecin Zdroje, the Chojnówka flows through a covered channel into the Cegielinka, a right tributary of the Regalica. The spring can be reached by the road

from Szczecin–Podjuchy to Kołów. Midway, in the area of *Przełęcz Trzech Braci* (Three Brothers Pass) we must turn left (to the north) onto the Chojnowska road and after 1.5 km, about 50 m to the east (right) of this road, we will find the spring (green and blue tourism trails).

12. **Źródło Chojnówki** Chojnówka Spring (also known as *Oczko Luizy* or *Marzanny*), has an elongated opening, consisting of several charming small outlets, especially on the western side, with groundwater seepages and outflows of 1-2 l/s discharge, and a temperature of 9 °C. On the northern side, there is a small, silty pond with a stone barrier, partly damaged, built in 1899. The outlets extend over 90 m in length and several metres in width, and it is the place where the Chojnówka stream starts (‘Beech Hills’). Chojnówka Spring can also be found in the Szczeciński Landscape Park (‘Beech Forest’), in the same valley as the Worpicky Spring, only a little more to the south. It is situated only 800 m north of the *Przełęcz Trzech Braci* (Three Brothers Pass).

13. **Źródło ‘Lwia Paszcza’** (Lion’s Mouth Spring) is an outflow of groundwater at the rate of about 0.5 l/s throughout the year whose water temperature is 9 °C. It is also situated in the Szczeciński Landscape Park (‘Beech Forest’). Until 1998, the spring was decorated by a cast iron lion’s mouth made in 1893 from which a stream of water used to flow into a small rectangular basin (1.5 x 2.0 m). Now, only the remains of a concrete wall are left. At present, the water flows out at a different place beneath a small scarp, with rusty-coloured stones (due to iron compounds). The spring is situated on the left bank of the *Lisi Potok* valley and is surrounded by majestic hills – Odyniec to the north (101.2 m above sea level) and Zamczysko to the south-east (103.4 m). Next to the spring, there is a camping space with wooden benches and tables and a place to make a bonfire. *Lisi Potok* is a right tributary of the River Trawna, which in turn is a right tributary of the



Photo 2. Worpicky Spring. The upper part of the photo shows the remnants of steps from 1894 (Bukowa Forest, 21st March 2012)



Photo 3. Stone barrier with a small waterfall, holding back the water of Ponikwa Spring (Bukowa Forest, 21st March 2012)

Niedźwiedzianka, which flows into the Płonia. The spring is situated in the central part of the 'Beech Forest'. It can be reached by a road from Kołowa, called Kira, going northwards. The spring is found about 2 km from Kołów by a meander, very near the left bank of *Lisi Potok*.

14. **Źródło Ponikwy** (Ponikwa Spring) also known as *Oczko Ponikwy*, is in the form of seepages and outflows. It starts at the foot of a scarp through an opening (20 x 30 m), surrounded by slopes, which are up to 4 m deep in its northern part. From the south, the opening is closed off by a stone barrier built in the early 20th c., holding back the water and forming a small waterfall of about 0.5 l/s discharge and a temperature of 10 °C. The opening is situated in a broad valley, in an area of considerable variation in height, as much as 50 m between Wodnik Hill (130.5 m above sea level) in the west and Łowczyn (137.7 m) in the north east ('Beech Forest'). The spring, which is the main source of the Ponikwa stream, gives off a smell of methane. The name of this stream refers to the fact that after flowing for several hundred metres, opposite Czajcza (127 m) the stream disappears into a permeable substratum. The spring is situated at the exit of the Świstówka valley, in the central part of the 'Beech Forest' (Szczeciński Landscape Park). It can be reached by the road mentioned above, leading from Szczecin-Podjuchy to Kołów. Midway, in the area of the *Przełęcz Trzech Braci* (Three Brothers Pass) we must turn right (southwards) and after going 1 km along the blue trail, we find the spring.

15. **Źródło Świętego Rocha** (St Roch Spring) starts under the edge of a morainic hill named after the same saint. The water flowing from beneath the scarp forms a stream, visibly cutting into the valley side. St Roch Hill, which had been the site of a Slavonic cult, offers a beautiful view to the Vistula valley. The John Paul II educational path runs across the hill and by the spring. Due to its landscape assets, the spring is a monument of nature and is situated in Topolno on the left side of the lower Vistula valley (Pruszcz *gmina*, Świecie *powiat*).

16. **Źródło 'Górka Klasztorna'** (Górka Klasztorna Spring) is currently a well with two hand pumps for drawing water in a village of the same name. The spring became famous in 1079, when a shepherd seeking to graze some cattle noticed a figure of the Virgin Mary on an enormous oak tree. After this revelation, the water in the nearby spring acquired miraculous (healing) properties. The oldest Virgin Mary Sanctuary in Poland was erected there, with the revered icon of the Virgin Mary Górecka. Nearby, we can find a Pilgrim centre. The village of Górka Klasztorna lies near Łobżenica (a *gmina*), in Piła *powiat* (Krajeńskie Lake District). The spring is situated in the catchment area of the stream flowing from Kruszki – a left

tributary of the River Łobżanka, which in turn is a right tributary of the Noteć.

17. **Leśne Źródła** (Forest Springs) are formed by abundant seepage of groundwater flowing in the form of a thin sheet over a fluvial terrace on the south bank of Tuczno Lake. The terrace extends slightly above the lake surface, at the foot of a steep slope. The water flows throughout the year, preventing the area becoming overgrown. The groundwater has stable temperature of about 7 °C, therefore we can see green stretches of spring moss and star duckweed even in winter. Due to its natural assets, the area is a nature reserve protecting numerous springs and the fluvial terrace which are part of a natural forest ecosystem. The spring is situated about 1.5 km south-west of Tuczno. Tuczno Lake is situated in the *gmina* of Tuczno, Wałcz *powiat*, on the Drawska Plain of the Wałeckie Lake District. Tuczno Lake is crossed by the River Rudnica – a left tributary of the Płociczna, which in turn is a left tributary of the Drawa.



Photo 4. Otto's Spring niche. At the background – consecration of the water by the metropolitan Bishop of Szczecin-Kamień (Brzesko, 4th June 2011)

18. **Źródło Ottona** (also *Studnia Świętego Ottona* and *Źródło Świętego Ottona*) Otto's Spring starts from a rectangular opening (30 x 35 m) and about 2.5 m deep. The area in front is cut with 9 ditches draining water at 1 l/s, temperature 10 °C. The ditches form a linear outflow towards the north, the beginning of the Jordan stream. Beside the stream, by an unsurfaced road, there is a cross with a plaque commemorating the baptism of the inhabitants of Brzesko on 3rd June 1124. The spring has become increasingly well-known and popular among pilgrims and tourists due to the annual consecration of its water since 2010 by the metropolitan Bishop of Szczecin-Kamień. The spring is situated on the northern edge of the Myśliborskie Lake District (including the Pyrzycka lowlands) about 0.5 km east of the village of Brzesko, in the *gmina* of Pyrzyce. The line of longitude of 15° East, marking the beginning of Central European time zone,

runs nearby. The Jordan stream joins a system of water-courses and ditches (Stróżewski) which enter the River Płonia from the left.

We should mention St Otto's Well here (also known as St Otto's Spring), situated in a park in the eastern part of Pyrzyce (the southern edge of the Pyrzycka lowlands). It is a shallow well (about 3 m deep), covered with a rectangular steel frame (1.2 x 3.5 m). The whole, including a polished grey-pink granite cross, forms a unique monument in stone (flags and blocks). It is surrounded by a low stone wall. The site commemorates the baptism of Pyrzyce inhabitants in July 1124. There used to be a spring here which started a stream flowing into the River Płonia.

19. *Źródło w Przelewicach* also known as 'Źródliśko'. A spring in Przelewice *gmina*, Pyrzyce *powiat*, flows from a 4 metre-wide opening, at the foot of a 4-5 m high scarp. Groundwater flows out in a semi-circle from the scarp, forming a charming pond with boulders of about one metre in diameter. It is rusty red due to iron compounds, about 1 l/s discharge and a temperature of 10 °C. It flows as a narrow trickle into the stream flowing next to it ('Przelewiczanek'), which enters Lake Płoń from the south. Lake Płoń is traversed by the River Płonia, which flows into Lake Dąbie. The spring is situated in the arboretum in Przelewice, the 'Avenue of Springs' on the western slope of the valley of the 'Przelewiczanek' stream (northern edge of the Myśluborskie Lake District upland). There are 20 more outflows along the 'Avenue of Springs' which flow into 'Przelewiczanek', and with a unique flora (e.g. wild lettuce).



Photo 5. The small "Źródliśka" niche with boulders in the Dendrological Garden in Przelewice (9th April 2012)

20. *Źródło 'Boży Dar'* (God's Gift) is a quite wide, flat, marshy area of seepages and outflows of groundwater, at the foot of a terminal moraine. It is situated in a forest, the source of the Lodowy Strumień flowing into Barlineckie Lake. The water (1-2 l/s) is very cold in summer, which has given its name to the stream. In

many places on the stream bed there are rusty traces of iron compounds. The spring, which is a monument of nature, is situated near the village of Mroczkowo, south of the *gmina* of Barlinek, Myślubórz *powiat*, on the south bank of Barlineckie Lake (in Barlinecko-Gorzowski Landscape Park). It is a varied, post-glacial landscape with considerable variations in height up to 40 m above the lake surface. The spring lies on the green tourism trail running around Barlineckie Lake, including an Ecological Educational Path. The spring is about 4 km to the south-west of Barlinek. Barlineckie Lake is a source of the River Płonia, which flows into Dąbie Lake.

21. *Źródło Świętego Huberta* (St Hubertus Spring) is a walled and covered spring of about 8 l/min. discharge built of variously coloured stone, about 3 m high (*Kamienny Dom*). The water flows out as a rusty trickle (iron compounds), joining a nearby lake. The spring is 5 m from Lake Ostrowieckie on its steep eastern bank, near the village of Wiktorowo (*Gąsawa gmina*, Żnin *powiat*), about 10 km south-east of Żnin (Gnieźnieńskie Lake District). The spring can be reached by walking from Wiktorowo holiday centre alongside the lake, and down a forest path. The spring is situated right opposite Zabłoccy Bay. Due to its landscape, the spring is considered a monument of nature. Lake Ostrowieckie is linked to the River Noteć via the Foluska stream (a left tributary).

22. *Źródła Gąsawki* (Gąsawka Springs) emerge from the bottom of Lake Głębozec Wielki, situated in a forest, 109 m above sea level. They are also formed by nearby outlets at the foot of the lake's banks. In order to protect the valuable natural assets of the area, a nature-landscape reserve has been established there with the same name. It protects seepage outlets and their unique flora, as well as a Nature-Forest Path with many information boards on the hydrography, flora and fauna of the Gąsawka valley. The springs are situated close to Głębozec near Niestronna, (*Gąsawa gmina* in the south-eastern part of Żnin *powiat* - Gnieźnieńskie Lake District). The Gąsawka River is a left tributary of the Noteć, which in turn is a right tributary of the Warta.

23. *Źródło 'Grabarka'* (Grabarka Spring) is a miraculous spring with a colourful shrine and a well with a pump. Next to the shrine is the Kryniczka stream which makes it easy for pilgrims to drink and wash themselves in the healing water. The spring starts at the foot of a sacred hill *Święta Góra* in the village of Grabarka (Nurzec-Stacja *gmina*, Siemiatycze *powiat* - Drohicza Uplands). On the top is an Orthodox sanctuary with a church, monastery, two pilgrim centres and over 10,000 crosses. The Kryniczka stream flows into the River Moszczona, a right tributary of the Bug. Grabarka Spring is situated about 8 km east of Siemiatycze.

24. *Licheńskie Źródło* (Licheń Spring) is currently a well, hidden inside a brick chapel. Next to it, near another chapel, there are five taps to draw water, and a little concrete pool for hand washing. After numerous cases of recovery from drinking this water, the spring is now believed to have miraculous powers. It is situated beneath St Dorota Church, on the east bank of Lake Licheńskie in the village of Stary Licheń (Ślesin *gmina*, Konin *powiat* – Kujawskie Lake District). Next to it, there is one of the largest Virgin Mary sanctuaries in Poland, with the Virgin Mary Basilica, a Way of the Cross, Golgotha, numerous monuments, commemorative boulders, etc, as well as a well-developed infrastructure catering for the needs of pilgrims and tourists. Lake Licheńskie is connected to the River Noteć via the Warta–Gopło Canal.

25. *Źródła Ciosenki* (Ciosenka Springs) are situated close to one another and are one of the most interesting and largest in central Poland. They flow from two outlets, with up to 45 l/s discharge, forming the Ciosenka stream. The springs are situated on the northern edge of the village of Rosanów, north of Zgierz (*gmina* and *powiat*). About 1 km from the springs is a working water mill (with a water wheel). Near the springs, about 0.5 km north of Rosanów, is the ‘Ciosny’ nature reserve protecting a natural site of exceptionally impressive junipers, growing on the central former dune area of the Łódź Hills. The Ciosenka stream is a right tributary of the River Dzierżazna, flowing into the Czarnawka, which in turn flows into the Moszczenica – a left tributary of the Bzura.

26. *Źródło Królewskie* (Royal Spring) consists of natural springs with a high discharge of groundwater, at the edge of a flood plain near the River Zagożdżonka (a left tributary of the Vistula). The site includes wooden bridges for tourists and the main spring is surrounded by a sandstone wall. In order to protect these springs, as well as the varied landscape around with its marshes, mixed forests and rare flora, a nature reserve has been established under the same name. There is an educational path, a picnic area (covered) and a bonfire site. The spring has very clean, cold and refreshing water, appreciated by visitors. The water was once drunk by King Władysław Jagiello, and the spring was named after him. It is situated in Kozienicka Forest (Kozienicki Landscape Park), on the Radom–Kozienice route near Augustów, (*Pionki gmina*, Radom *powiat* – Kozienice Lowland). To reach the spring, turn right 1.2 km east of Augustów, into a fire break (used as a parking space) and travel a further 3.2 km along a forest road (to another parking space).

27. *Niebieskie Źródła* (Blue Springs). Three karst springs separated one from another by islets. Each consists of a number of smaller springs at the bottom of two ‘basins’ up to 4.5 m deep. The emerging water

(about 9 °C) brings out unique blue and green shades on its sandy base, depending on the weather conditions and the position of the sun. The main aquifer lies in jointed Jurassic limestone and the springs’ discharge reaches about 80 l/s being the source of the River Jana flowing into the Pilica. They are in the Pilica valley, on its right bank, in the south-eastern part of Tomaszów Mazowiecki (Modrzewski road). A nature reserve has been established there, under the same name in order to protect these unique colourful springs and the surrounding landscape.

Key observations and conclusions:

1. The springs of the Polish Lowlands are mainly ‘layer’ and descending springs, flowing from Quaternary sand and gravel formations. Only *Niebieskie Źródła* are joined by water coming from Mesozoic limestone formations.

2. The distribution of touristically-attractive springs in the Polish Lowlands is uneven. The majority can be found in areas with more varied relief, mainly areas of end moraines and moraines which are deeply cut into by river valleys and ribbon lakes. Springs are rarest in areas with poorly developed relief.

3. Among the 27 springs presented, 17 are legally protected (8 nature reserves, 5 landscape parks, 4 monuments of nature), 7 are related to religious pilgrimages, and the remaining three are situated close to nature reserves and one is in an arboretum.

4. The phenomenon of a spring flowing out from under the ground is associated with crystal clear water, a bubbling sound and mystery. A spring is usually surrounded by lush greenery. Moreover, it is the beginning of a watercourse, situated in an area of varied relief and interesting geological structure. These assets, as well as other advantages both natural and human make them attractive tourism sites.

5. The most popular springs, visited especially on indulgence days, are small ones next to Virgin Mary sanctuaries. Pilgrims and tourists believe they have miraculous (healing) powers. Their water is both drunk and used for washing those parts of the body considered to be sick.

6. Many springs which were popular in the past, especially those associated with religious cults, have drastically decreased in discharge or completely disappeared. Some centuries ago, they flowed onto the surface, today the water can only be drawn from wells.

7. The majority of the springs presented in the article have been taken under special protection due to their valuable hydrological, geomorphological and medicinal properties or other natural assets. They are usually situated in national parks, landscape parks, or nature reserves, and have often become monuments of nature.

In general, the aim of the article has been achieved, although it was not possible to find information regarding the discharge and temperature of water in each case. We should remember, however, that the springs described above are mostly 'layer' springs, flowing out from relatively shallow post-glacial formations, so to some extent their discharge and temperature will depend on the season.

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SCIENTIFIC NOTE

Tourism 2013, 23/1

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THE HISTORY OF TOURISM STUDIES IN KAZAKHSTAN

Tourism geography is a discipline which deals with the spatial organization of tourism, where the object of study is the analysis and synthesis of the spatial forms and relations between tourism phenomena and a number of related space transforming processes. Being a complex phenomenon, tourism has become an object of inter-disciplinary studies. Recently, a new discipline has begun to develop – ‘tourismology’¹, mostly due to the contribution of such as geography, economics, management, sociology, psychology, pedagogy, medicine, architecture, urban planning, regional planning, law, as well as other natural, social and technological fields. However, there is still a long way to go in the process of developing ‘tourismology’ in which the mono-disciplinary approach to tourism is changed to multidisciplinary. The author believes that tourism geography can and indeed does fully perform the functions of tourismology as it is currently developing, because as a sub-discipline of social geography, it refers to all aspects of tourism activity, including the natural-geographical, socio-economic, ecological, political, academic-technological, etc.

Recreation and tourism geography studies in Kazakhstan were pioneered in the 1970s by the ‘Kazgiprograd’ State Institute of Design, employing a team of qualified architects, geographers, economists, engineers and other specialists, such as Rusmanova, Ejdinova, and Muchametchina, who greatly contributed to the achievements of the Institute as regards tourism development plans for Kazakhstan.

Over a period of more than 20 years, ‘Kazgiprograd’ developed many schemes for the tourism economy of the republic. They included ‘Development plans for recreation zones in the Kazakhstan Soviet Republic for 1976-1990’ (1979), and ‘Plans for the development and distribution of tourism centres in the

Kazakhstan Soviet Republic by 2000’ (1983). The second project included a correction – the period was extended to 2005, and the end of the first reporting period – to 1990. The works mentioned above are considered to be the most significant architectural and planning projects on the organization of recreation and tourism in Kazakhstan. They propose preparing attractive areas of the republic for tourism use should take place gradually, taking into account the following:

- natural and historical-cultural potential (heritage) of the area;
- possibilities for organizing tours;
- availability of transport routes;
- infrastructural back-up;
- available work force resources.

Each of the previously established recreational-landscape zones was evaluated from the point of view of its value for different forms of recreational activity. The system adopted for assessing conditions and resources made it possible to compare different areas and recommend individual regions as suitable for the development of various forms of mass tourism. As a result, about 60 tourism-recreational zones were identified covering 16 provinces (*oblasts*).

‘Kazgiprograd’ drew up several other plans, including some regional ones. First of all, we should mention here the ‘Plan for the development and distribution of spas, recreation and tourism sites, nature parks and reserves in the Kazakh Soviet Republic’ (1985) and ‘Plan for the development and distribution of the natural environment preservation fund facilities in the Kazakh Soviet Republic by 2005’ (1989). The projects presented the potential of recreation and tourism development in the republic, based on its natural resources.

In 1970-80, ‘Kazgiprograd’ was the leading producer of tourism-related projects in Kazakhstan,

though in the early 1980s other institutions involved in similar activity appeared, usually on a regional scale. At Kirov Kazakh State University, a group of researchers from the Geography Department conducted a study commissioned by the Zhambyl Provincial Department of Architecture. Its outcome was the 'Plan for the development and distribution of tourism industry in the Zhambyl Province: 1990-2005' (supervised by Erdavletov). The study included the following:

- an analysis of the current level of tourism development in the province;
- recommendations concerning a plan for long-term development and location of tourism enterprises;
- publishing *Tourism map of the Zhambyl Province*, at a scale of 1:750 000 (Minsk, 1990).

Other works, unfortunately unfinished because of the start of Gorbachev's perestroika, included a pocket version of *Tourism atlas of the city of Zhambyl*, which might have become the third publication of this type in the USSR (the other two presented Moscow and Minsk)

The dissolution of the USSR and the regaining of sovereignty by Kazakhstan led to a deep economic crisis, a consequence of the collapse of the national economic system. One result was the disintegration of 'Kazgiprograd', divided into several smaller specialist departments. They continued to pursue the activity of the former 'giant' and were run by its previous managers: Muchametchina, Bajzakov, Dudukalova, Ejdinov and others.

Tourism planning was resumed in the early 1990s by the group led by Muchametchina. The team worked on two important projects, 'A comprehensive plan for the study and distribution of facilities along the Kazakh section of the Silk Road' (1991) and the 'National Program for Tourism Industry Development in the Kazakh Republic - a draft' (1993). They both played a significant role in formulating a long-term conception of national tourism development, based on its natural and socio-economic resources.

Some researchers began to work at private institutions, executing orders from other firms and organizations. Such works included a *Map of the Almaty Province for hunters and anglers*, at a scale of 1:800 000, by Chikovani, published in Minsk, 1993.

An important publication was the landscape-based *Map of the tourism-recreational resources of Zhetysu (Semirechye)* (Nazarczuk & Girovka), by 'Ekoprojekt' (1997), including a qualitative assessment of the recreational resources of the region.

In 1998, the same company published the *Map of environment protection in Kazakhstan*, at a scale of 1 : 350 000 (Nazartchuk, Bajzakov & Dudukalova), which presented the existing and potential sites for protection as well as a basis for the development of various types of mass tourism.

Despite some small inaccuracies, the very original *Map of ecological tourism sites in the vicinity of Almaty*, at a scale of 1 : 60 000, drawn by Fishman & Firsova in 1999, may be successfully used by both tourists and the lecturers and students of the country's universities which educate prospective tourism workers.

In the late 1990s, tourism and recreation studies were taken up by researchers from the Institute of Geography at the National Academy of Science. Led by Popov, a group of academics from the 'Geo-ecological Laboratory for Mountain Area Problems' conducted wide-ranging research into using the natural environment of northern Tien Shan. The results of the study included the following:

- rules for assessing recreational resources were established, which might be applied to other mountainous regions of Kazakhstan and the neighbouring countries;
- factors and conditions of tourism activity were analysed, in relation to the types of activities at individual destinations;
- methods of mapping mountain areas were established.

In 1996, the Geography Department at the Al-Farabi State University opened a tourism section (including the Faculty of Tourism) and researchers became involved in studying the development and spatial organization of tourism in Kazakhstan, as a result of which the university became the leading higher education institution dealing with the subject. It was confirmed by the opening of a multifunctional Tourism Research and Education Centre in 1999, whose main objectives included:

- the study of tourism;
- issuing academic publications;
- compiling university textbooks;
- preparing information and advertising materials.

The founder of the Faculty and the Centre was Prof. Erdavletov, a specialist in tourism geography. In cooperation with assistant professors Artiemiev, Alijeva, Isakova and Abisheva, as well as Tyncherova and Ivanov, they conduct research into theoretical and practical issues of the spatial organization of tourism in the Kazakh Republic, the results of which may be found in both journals and occasional academic publications, mainly in the 'Kazakh National Uni-

versity – geographical series’, or in conference publications.

Since it was founded 13 years ago, the Faculty of Tourism has organized three international academic conferences: ‘Current issues of tourism theory and practice’ (1999), ‘Problems of tourism industry development in Kazakhstan’ (2002), and ‘Tourism geography: current theoretical and practical issues’ (2006). All three events were followed by the publication of conference materials.

In 2000, the Faculty of Tourism won a grant for conducting research, in a competition announced by the Kazakh Ministry of Education and Science. As a result, together with the Tourism Research and Education Centre and the ‘GradInform’ group (Muchametchina & Vagapova), they conducted a study concerning the assessment of recreational resources as the basis of the sustainable development of the tourism industry in the Kazakh Republic. The aim of this project was to establish theoretical and methodological foundations for a research-based, rational use of the recreational resources of the Kazakh Republic for the purposes of tourism development and spatial organization.

The results of the study were as follows:

- establishing criteria for classifying and assessing natural and socio-economic recreational resources (2000);
- conducting a comprehensive study, as well as an inventory and evaluation of recreational resources, combined with the spatial delimitation of tourism-recreational regions and collecting wide-ranging data about all recreational resources, using the example of Almaty (2001);
- establishing a methodology for preparing topographic tourism maps of Kazakhstan provinces and regions [*Tourism map of the Almaty Province, at a scale of 1:800 000* (2002)].

In 2009, the Faculty won a ministerial grant again, which was used for three-year (2009-11) research entitled ‘Establishing the geographical foundations for the sustainable development of tourism, on the basis of the Kazakhstan potential tourism and recreation assessment’.

In the following years, the Faculty of Tourism at the Al Farabi University was transformed into a major research centre dealing with tourism in Kazakhstan. In 1998, at the Geography Department, the first PhD thesis was defended in the field of economic, social and political geography, a sub-discipline of which is tourism geography – a discipline new to both Kazakhstan and the whole Commonwealth of Independent States.

The founder of the Dissertation Council for Academic Degrees and Titles was Professor Erdavletov – the author of the first theoretical works, as well as student textbooks, where he laid the foundations of Kazakhstan’s tourism geography. He is the leader of the Kazakh school of tourism geography – a discipline of the future, oriented towards solving problems through research-based rules for tourism development and national spatial organization.

Over the years when the Council was functioning, PhD theses on tourism geography were defended by seven students: Musin (1998), Szabelnikova (2000), Alijeva (2001), Mamadiarov (2002), Tursinbajeva (2003), Kubiesova (2004) and Titova (2007).

A noticeable contribution into the development of tourism research has been made by other universities and organizations such as the Tourism Department at Turan University (Nazartchuk, Korabliov and others), Tourism Department at the Kazakh Academy of Sport and Tourism (Vukolov & Makagonov), Abai University Faculty of Tourism (Bejzenov, Masbajev & Saipov), and Auezov South Kazakhstan State University Faculty of Tourism (Zoldasbekov, Pychariev & Mamadiarov). Recently, research into the tourism economy has been taken up by the Institute of Economics, at the Ministry of Education and Science. Each of the institutions mentioned above contributes to developing tourismology in Kazakhstan, for instance, the Kazakh Academy of Sport and Tourism and Abai University – in the field of tourism pedagogy, sports theory and practice, as well as children’s and school tourism; Turan University – in the field of the tourism economy. The dissertation councils at these universities admit doctoral and habilitation theses concerning various areas of tourism. The dissertations by Vukalov (tourism pedagogy) and Makagonov (theory of sports tourism) were defended at the Kazakh Academy of Sport and Tourism. The list of other dissertations on tourism in Kazakhstan shows topicality in the problems presented, as well as the role of researchers representing various disciplines in academic development. Tourism has been put on the Kazakh Accreditation Council list of disciplines. Creating a modern effective tourism industry in Kazakhstan will be impossible without conducting tourism studies. Therefore, it is necessary to include at least three new disciplines on the Accreditation Council list: tourism geography, tourism and recreation, tourism economics and organization; as well as tourism pedagogy and psychology, following a division into geographical, economic and pedagogical-psychological sciences. This would mean studying the

development and spatial organization of tourism as a socio-economic and spatial phenomenon, as stated in the 'Conception of tourism development in the Kazakh Republic' in 2001.

When writing this article, the author tried to analyse the whole of Kazakh tourism literature, which showed that it predominantly consists of tourism guide-books (to regions, cities and individual tourism attractions), while the number of theoretical works is definitely smaller. However, the first steps have been already made. Authors of theoretical works include Vukolova, Girovke, Zoldasbekov, Kim, Korabliov, Makogonov, Nazartchuk, Popov, Pychariev, Rajev, Saipov, Tyntcherova, Jagofarov and others.

The responsibilities of the state organ (equal to a ministry) dealing with tourism, established in 1991, were limited to merely coordinating the activity of all the tourism enterprises and organizations, guaranteeing their state's support and establishing the regulations governing tourism. Regrettably, it must be said that the present Kazakh Ministry of Tourism and Sport is unable to cope with these tasks successfully, and that includes patronage over the development of tourism research.

It would not be fair, however, to say that the Ministry and its regional divisions ignore the problem of research-based tourism development in the country altogether. An example of its actual involvement was the foundation of the Tourism Department of the City of Almaty (Kajsenov), which published the *Guide to Kazakhstan: Almaty – the centre of Kazakh tourism* in 2002. The book, published in Russian and English, is an element in creating the image of the country on the global tourism market. Moreover, the Tourism Department deals with the preparation of films and brochures advertising the most attractive sites in Kazakhstan, TV programmes about such places and about the current issues in tourism development.

We should also mention the activity of the Almaty Tourism Department (Bekbergenov), which in 2002 published a tourism guide entitled *Zhetysu – a land of tourism*, as well as a *Tourism map of the Almaty Province, at a scale of 1:1000 000* (ed. Nazartchuk). There are also bi-lingual materials, which together with publications about Almaty are a part of current tourism policy in Kazakhstan, focused on the development of international tourism as a source of foreign currency.

We should also mention the contribution to tourism development made by some workers of the Ministry of Tourism and Sport (Nikitinskij & Bekbergenov). In 2008, they published a very interesting *Tourism schematic map of the Kazakh Republic, at a scale of 1:3 500 000*, in both wall and pocket sizes.

It might be said that these are only the first steps. The Ministry should promptly create organizational and financial opportunities to establish a State Institute of Tourism Research which would take responsibility for research guaranteeing tourism development and its spatial organization in the Kazakh Republic. The country already has the human resources to do that. An Institute of Tourism might soon move from a stage of dispersion and dilettantism to a focused, scientific approach to the study of national tourism problems.

FOOTNOTE

¹ In Kazakhstan, tourism science (tourismology) has been put on the list of official scientific disciplines. In Poland, it is being discussed whether making tourism science or sciences a separate discipline is necessary. Another controversy concerns the naming of the potential new science. It appears that 'touristicology' or 'tourismology' are not highly approved by scientists. Since the 1930s geographers have been using the term 'tourism', which fully reflects the nature of this more and more frequently isolated scientific discipline (translator's comment).

REPORT

Tourism 2013, 23/1

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Institute of Urban and Tourism Geography

REPORT FROM THE 3rd POLISH CONFERENCE OF INSTITUTES AND FACULTIES OF TOURISM AND RECREATION AT STATE UNIVERSITIES: “CONTEMPORARY CONDITIONS FOR TOURISM DEVELOPMENT”, KRAKÓW, 27-28TH SEPTEMBER 2012

Cooperation among institutes and faculties of tourism and recreation at state universities in Poland, initiated in 2008 by Prof. Grzegorz Gołembski, has resulted in a third conference held in Kraków, at the Jagiellonian University, on 27-28th September 2012. The first conference in this series took place in 2008, at the State Higher Vocational School in Sulechów, its outcome being a publication of conference materials edited by Prof. G. GOŁEMBSKI¹, while the second was organized in 2010 at the University of Łódź, and resulted in a publication edited by Dr S. TANAŚ (2010)².

The conference at the Jagiellonian University was organized by the Tourism and Spa Economy Department at the Institute of Geography and Spatial Economy. The head of the organizational committee was the head of the department, Prof. Włodzimierz Kurek; the conference secretary was Dr Robert Pawlusiński. The conference Academic Council was headed by Prof. Gołembski from the Economic University in Poznań. The contemporary conditions leading to tourism development was the topic of this meeting and its aims fell into two groups. The first included the aims set at all the earlier conferences, i.e. the meeting of all those involved in tourism research in Poland, the exchange of opinions and experience on the advanced training of tourism specialists, as well as a review of current research projects.

The main objective of the Kraków conference was the identification of the contemporary conditions for the development of tourism.

The large number of presentations forced the organizers to arrange (on top of plenary and poster sessions) three separate blocks (A, B and C) on both 27th (one session in each block) and 28th September (two sessions in each block). The conference was

officially opened on Thursday, 27th September, at 10 o'clock, by the Dean of the Biology and Earth Sciences Department, Jagiellonian University, and the Head of the Institute of Geography. Afterwards, the sessions began.

The first plenary session was led by Prof. Aleksander Szwichtenberg. It included seven presentations which in general referred to the overall aim of the conference, i.e. the presentation of differing conditions for tourism development, particularly in Poland. The session started with a presentation by Prof. Gołembski who analysed the effects of the political and economic transformation on the tourist market in Poland (political and economic conditions), and correlated that with the syllabus for educating tourism specialists at universities. The next paper was presented by Prof. Liszewski who discussed the geographical conditions for global tourism development (domination of mass tourism and global tourism), and then the influence of the geographical space on the development of various kinds of tourism activity and the formation of tourism space. Next, Prof. Dziędzic presented development stages in specific tourism sectors. Prof. Jackowski captivately discussed the role played by the Tourism Studium, Jagiellonian University, established in 1936 by Prof. Leszczycki. The historical conditions for the development of tourism studies in Poland, though obvious, seem to be nearly unknown to Polish academia. The next presentation, by Prof. Kowalczyk, made the audience aware of the influence air transport has on the development of tourism. Referring to the UNWTO statistics, the speaker stated that in 2011, 51% of international tourists used air transport. Prof. Rapacz, Dr Jaremen & Dr Gryszela presented a paper

concerning current social problems in tourism, and whose aim is to reduce the number of people excluded from tourism. The authors analysed the tourism activity of the handicapped and the elderly in Poland and the Czech Republic. The first plenary session ended with a paper presented by Prof. Kurek, who, on the basis of an analysis of several academic periodicals from the last 30 years, presented the changing relationship between tourism and a natural environment which increasingly needs to be protected against tourist invasion by law.

The presentations were followed by a very interesting discussion conducted by several conference participants. The papers presented in this session showed the variety of factors which determine the contemporary development of tourism. The discussion concerned political, economic, geographical, trade-related, historical, technological, social and environmental factors. Although the range of tourism development factors is much wider, the presented papers showed the direction which should be followed in research into contemporary tourism, not only in order to diagnose the existing situation, but also to understand its complexity, the basis for predicting its development and consequences.

Further sessions on 27th September 2012 were divided into three, clearly thematic blocks (A, B and C), even though they had no names. Block A included seven papers prepared mostly by those from departments of economics, dealing with tourism. They were devoted to issues such as the influence of fashion on tourism development (Prof. Niezgoda), the tourism function of a *gmina* (Dr Seweryn), and the role of knowledge diffusion through the cooperation of organisations in a region (Dr Czernek). Block B contained six geographical papers, which included presentations concerning the possibilities of using tourism-recreational space in the Lubelszczyzna area (Prof. Świeca & Dr Brzezińska-Wójcik), the conditions for tourism development in formerly industrial urban areas (Dr Derek), or the significance of wars and terrorist attacks for cognitive tourism (Dr Tanaś). Block D contained seven papers which concerned educating students for tourism purposes. They included "E-learning in tourism education" (Dr Napierała & Dr Szkup), "Motivations to study and the educational and career expectations of tourism and recreation students at UWM in Olsztyn" (Dr Omelan), or "The influence of the tourism and recreation studies syllabus on the development of the students' own tourism behaviour" (Maro-Kulczycka MA).

On the second day of the conference (28th September 2012), sessions in blocks A, B and C were continued. Block A (economic) contained eight papers, including "Shaping the competitiveness of a tourism area" (Dr Gryszel), "Getting financial support in the

case of a tour operator's insolvency" (Żylak, MA), or "Trends in changes on the tourist market of the Lubuskie voivodeship" (Dr Świątkowski). Block B contained eight papers presenting varied topics. They included "Guiding practical experience for students" (Dr Potocki), "The tourist-recreational attractiveness of Konstancin-Jeziorna" (Dr Duda-Gromola), as well as "The social determinants of ski tourism demand in the Polish Carpathians" (Krzesiwo, MA). Block C also included eight papers (six of them were actually presented) focusing on cultural tourism, e.g. "Amusement parks in the world and in Poland" (Dr Kruczek), "Modern trends in religious tourism in Europe" (Dr Mróz & Mróz, MA), or "An outline of equestrian tourism in Poland: traditions and the present" (Dr Urban).

The blocked sessions were followed by a poster one consisting of eight papers presenting various topics. They were mostly research results or conclusions from the PhD theses the presenters were preparing. The poster session lasted 30 minutes and offered participants an opportunity to talk directly with the authors of the works presented.

The conference was rounded off with a participants' meeting, during which they exchanged their opinions about the sessions and discussed other topics.

As the conference organizers informed us about their intention to publish the presented papers in the near future (after editorial reviews), a detailed discussion was postponed until they have appeared in print. The conference participants approved of the idea of having such meetings; it was agreed that the fourth conference would be organized by the Faculty of Tourism, the Economic University in Poznań, headed by Prof. Gołembski. It is to be combined with the Faculty's jubilee.

The 3rd conference in Kraków had 92 participants, including 23 professors and associate professors. The authors of the papers were the employees or post-graduate students from 30 Polish universities, including representatives from 10 city universities – the Jagiellonian University (20 participants), the University of Łódź (eight), Warsaw (four), Silesia, Szczecin, the UMCS in Lublin, UMK in Toruń, and the University of Warmia and Mazury (two from each), as well as from UAM in Poznań and the University of Wrocław (one from each). Other conference participants came from the Pedagogical University in Kraków (four), four Economic Universities: in Kraków, Poznań (five from each) and Wrocław (three), as well as the Central School of Commerce (*Szkoła Główna Handlowa*) in Warsaw (two), the Academy of Physical Education in Poznań (seven) and Kraków (five). The conference was also attended by participants from the State Higher Vocational Schools from Wałbrzych,

Sulechów, Leszno, Konin and Jarosław, as well as other higher vocational schools in Warsaw, Gdynia and Koszalin. There was also one representative from SGGW in Warsaw.

The undeniable success of the 3rd Polish Conference of the Institutes and Faculties of Tourism and Recreation at State Universities, organized by the Tourism and Spa Economy Department at the IGiGP (Institute of Geography and Spatial Economy), Jagiellonian University, lay not only in the contents of the presentations, whose value can only be fully appreciated after they are published, but also the fact that the conference was attended by younger tourism researchers (post-graduate students). This augurs well for the future development of tourism studies. The participants represented different disciplines, thus confirming that tourism studies has an inter-

disciplinary character. It is also significant that the conference in Kraków was attended by those from different types of higher education institution from all over Poland.

The conference was very well organized; it was held in splendid conditions, in the lecture halls of the Institute of Geography and Spatial Economy at the new Jagiellonian University campus on Gronostajowa Street.

FOOTNOTES

¹ GOŁEMBSKI G. (ed.), 2008, *Nowe trendy rozwoju turystyki*, PWSZ Publishing House, Sulechów, pp. 518.

² TANAŚ S. (ed.) 2010, *Nauka i dydaktyka w turystyce i rekreacji*, Lodz Scientific Society, Lodz, pp. 362.
