

**tourism**



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## CONTENTS

### Articles

- ANNA ALEKSANDROWA, EKATERINA AIGINA – Lomonosov Moscow State University:  
The Major Centre for Russian Research and Education into Tourism and Recreation 7
- JOANNA KOWALCZYK-ANIOŁ – Tourism trends among Generation Y in Poland ..... 15
- BARTOSZ SZCZECZOWICZ – Use of the Concept of ‘Product’ to analyze the Relationships  
between Tourism and Physical Culture ..... 21
- ŁUKASZ SKOCZYŁAS – Volunteer tourism from the perspective of the social  
sciences ..... 31

### Scientific note

- MARTA MARO-KULCZYCKA – Profiles of first year Tourism and Recreation students:  
University of Łódź Faculty of Geographical Sciences (academic year 2011/12) ..... 37

### Review

- Tourism Geography in the Czech Republic [Geografie cestovního ruchu České republiky],*  
Jiří Vystoupil, Martin Šauer et al., Aleš Čeněk Publishing House s.r.s., Pilzno 2011,  
315 pp. – STANISŁAW LISZEWSKI ..... 43

### Report

- Tourism / Turyzm 2001-10* – ELŻBIETA PARADOWSKA ..... 47
-



# ARTICLES

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Tourism 2012, 22/2

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**Anna Aleksandrowa**

**Ekaterina Aigina**

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## LOMONOSOV MOSCOW STATE UNIVERSITY: THE MAJOR CENTRE FOR RUSSIAN RESEARCH AND EDUCATION INTO TOURISM AND RECREATION

**Abstract:** The author discusses the tourism geography research which has been undertaken at Lomonosov State University in Moscow over many years. This academic institution is one of the most famous research centres dealing with spatial recreation systems. At first (from the 1960's), research was mainly on geographical and technical issues, but the research area was gradually enlarged for example to include social and humanistic elements. The best known research has been done on 'spatial recreation systems', 'polarized landscapes', the 'recreational economy spatial complex', and the 'environmental model of a spatial system'.

**Key words:** Lomonosov Moscow State University, research, recreation system, recreation economy, polarized landscape.

*Science is clear learning of truth and enlightenment of the mind*  
(Lomonosov Moscow University motto)

The Lomonosov State University in Moscow is the oldest, the most important and the leading traditional university in Russia (SADOVNICHY 2005], as well as being a major centre of Russian science and culture. This exceptional research and education centre has had a huge influence on the development of the whole of Russian society.

Lomonosov University occupies a special position in educating for the tourism industry, as well as in tourism and recreation research. Traditionally, activity of this type was developed mainly at the university geography department. Its work set out the basic principles of Soviet recreation geography which in turn laid the foundations for the development of modern tourism research in Russia.

The dawn of recreation geography in the Soviet Union dates back to the second half of the 1960's when demand for recreational services was rapidly growing. A major stimulus to the development of tourism and recreation research was the introduction of 'Tourism Methodology' and 'Organization of Tourism Activity' courses in the geography departments of traditional universities. The number of academics whose work was to teach and undertake tourism and recreation research was growing. Numerous works concerning tourism and recreation from a variety of perspectives

appeared: pedagogical, psychological, economic, urban planning, etc., but it was geographers who played the leading (and) coordinating role in the development of tourism and recreation research.

A considerable contribution to the development of the theoretical foundations and practical research of recreation and tourism was made by the research team led by Professor Preobrazensky (1918-98). Some of whom were former Lomonosov University graduates who continued their professional career at their alma mater. It was they who laid the foundations for a new research trend in Russian geography dealing with human free-time activity.

This new research trend was developing at a time which was crucial for universities in general as a result of rapid technological progress. It was also a period of change in academic thinking with interdisciplinary approaches gaining popularity, while cybernetics and synergetics were starting to have an effect. Recreation geography was significantly influenced by the wide presence and use of the systems approach, as well as by a belief in the 'constructive' role of modern geography.

Work on the theoretical basis of the spatial organization of recreation and tourism developed rapidly until the mid-1980's, with field research, sociological

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surveys, and conferences on the relationship between geography and recreation. Originally, the focus was on the natural environment, but that soon changed, as a socio-geographic approach was followed. The social character of geography and recreation research developed alongside the publication of *Theoretical Foundations of Recreation Geography* (1975), under the editorship of PREOBRAZHENSKY. For the first time, recreation geography was presented not as a part of physical but of human geography. The book was a breakthrough (and not only in recreation geography) establishing directions for development over the next two decades. It also brought about a revolution in the whole Russian academic geography, increasing its human perspective. Research into spatial processes was initiated and how the lives of people and social groups were organised: their working and living conditions, recreation, personal development and other aspects and including the perspective of an individual.

The main ideas and concepts presented in *The Theoretical Foundations...* served as a starting point for further research both by the team of authors mentioned above as well as others (PREOBRAZHENSKY, KRIWISHEEV, eds, 1980, MIRONENKO, BOCHVAROV, eds, 1986, KOZLOV, FILIPPOVICH, CHALAYA and others, 1990). This work was valued by both Russian and foreign publishers. Issues in recreation were taken up by a broad spectrum of Russian geographers and many research centres started theoretical and practical research in the field of recreation geography. The new discipline, substantially reinforced by theory and practice, became a part of the university education system.

**The Concept of the Spatial Recreation System.** From the very beginning, recreation geography has been based on the following assumptions:

- human needs including those concerning physical and spiritual regeneration which require special conditions to be satisfied – free time and an appropriate location;
- the quantity and strength of these needs stimulates an individual to undertake recreational activity – different from everyday work and household duties – and society and its institutions create special conditions for it;
- by including natural and cultural elements in recreational activity, by using technology and human potential, special systems to satisfy recreational needs are set up, supported and developed;
- the recreation system is characterized by the needs and types of activity which have formed it. These have determined its functioning and development, its elements, internal and external relations, as well as efficiency;

- the creation and formation of systems, as well as their properties, are an outcome of the recreational activity;
- recreation systems form a spatial and dynamic socio-(demographic)-ecological system.

Spatial recreation systems are taught on recreation geography courses. The systems are treated as part of a larger socio-geographical system which consists of the following interconnected elements (sub-systems): recreation participants, natural and cultural, technical, service personnel, administrative bodies. They are characterized by a considerable functional and spatial homogeneity.

It was assumed that the individual and society are the 'subjects' of a spatial recreation system. The creating, functioning and development of such a system was always considered from the perspective of the recreational needs of an individual and of social groups, taking into account improvement to their health, work efficiency and the fullest possible regeneration of physical and mental powers. The model is anthropocentric and includes a special sub-system, 'groups of recreation participants', which occupied a central position within the whole and set the requirements to be met from all the remaining elements of that system.

The 'natural and cultural' sub-system refers to the quality of resources and conditions which fulfil participants' needs for recreation and bring about satisfaction. Their qualities include capacity, stability (durability), convenience and attractiveness. Focusing on an individual led to establishing new rules and methods for evaluating recreational potential (including recreation resources and conditions). First, it was necessary to assess the physiological 'convenience' supplied by the natural environment in organized recreation, and the socio-psychological attractiveness of landscapes, as well as natural and anthropological (cultural) sites. These criteria firmly established the directions in the research concerning giving value to recreational space.

The task of the 'technical' sub-system was to secure both basic (accommodation, gastronomy, transport) and supplementary (spas, education, entertainment, etc.) services for recreation participants and local inhabitants. Enterprises providing basic and specialized recreational services create the recreation area's infrastructure whose characteristic features are capacity, variety, standard, occupancy rate, ecological character and effectiveness.

The 'service personnel' sub-system was oriented towards achieving the required effects and securing an appropriate standard of recreation. It is characterized by a demand for highly qualified and professional service sector workers.



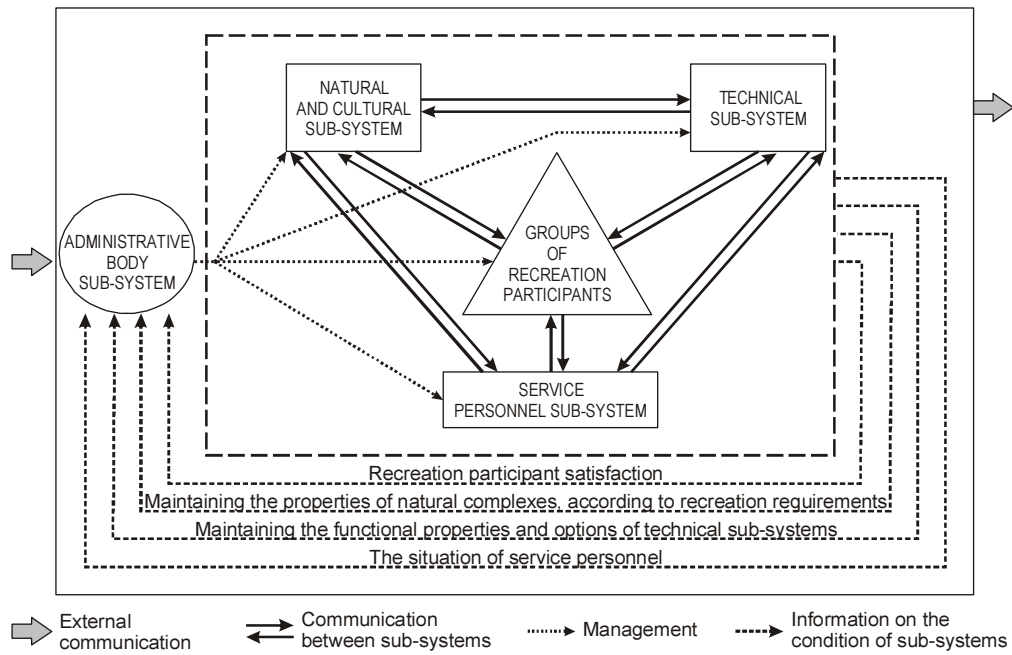


Fig. 1. Spatial Recreation System according to V.S. Preobrazensky

T a b l e 1. Spatial recreational systems

Sub-systems	System elements				
	Recreation participants	Natural and cultural	Technical	Service personnel	Administrative bodies
Recreation participants		Capacity Stability Convenience Attractiveness	Variety Capacity Convenience	Professionalism	Access to information
Natural and cultural	Regulation Choice		Ecological character	Regulation Renewal	Legal status
Technical	Homogeneity	Resources Reliability		Access to materials	Resources
Service personnel	Technologies	Convenience	Securing capital resources		Prevention
Administrative bodies	Homogeneity	Cleanliness (hygiene)	Occupancy rate Effectiveness	Skill	

S o u r c e: PIROŽNIK (1985).

The ‘administrative body’ sub-system performs external tasks, securing the optimum functioning of the system’s elements, as well as setting directions for the development of the whole, taking advantage of its material, financial and organizational potential.

An analysis of the spatial recreational system as a whole requires not only its constituents to be defined, but also identifying and describing the relations among them. These show its character (essence) and may be presented as a relationship matrix.

Figure 1 and table 1 present the most general properties which include the following:

- **Integrative (structure-forming) properties** of the various recreation elements. At the first meeting in 1969, which concerned the geographical issues in organizing recreation, Preobrazensky and Muchina presented some hypotheses on the systems character of recreational activity. Recreation geography was to present the whole of this complex, heterogenic phenomenon in a comprehensive way. The idea of integration, cooperation and its interdisciplinary character was the foundation of the spatial recreation system model.

- **Social character.** By the time spatial recreation problems were fully recognized, 'national' geography had been using different systems models (including landscape models). The main difference in the model was the fact that the individual was the central element (anthropocentrism), which should be seen as the greatest achievement of the Soviet school of recreation geography.
- **The focus of spatial recreation system activity.** The system is trying to achieve a certain stability. In the model, the input elements are recreational needs, and the output elements – the consequences of recreation and tourism. The efficiency of the system was one of the main interdisciplinary study issues.
- **Spatial recreation system organization,** which in *The Theoretical Foundations...* was referred to as management ('a complex recreation system, partly administrated and partly self-controlling...'). An essential condition for the sustainable development of recreation systems seems to be two control-related tasks: planning and regulation (PREOBRAZENSKY, ed. 1975, pp. 22-23).

The concept was conceived and developed in particular administrative and political conditions, in which the national economy was based on central planning. Originally, its functioning depended on directives given by administrative bodies and on the law. In practice, poor decisions made by the administration caused flaws in the operation of the systems.

With time, the originators of the concept started to notice the obvious imperfections in the model. 'For a long time we believed that the system was similar to technological systems, due to the way it is managed, its construction, automatic nature, deterministic and stochastic relations, feedback, and detachment from the recreation participants themselves. Today it is clear that we need to think differently, take into account all levels of self-organization and, most of all, give a larger role to the individual in this system' (VEDENIN & ZORIN, eds 1989, p. 20).

Preobrazensky had identified the weaknesses in teaching recreation – insufficient 'humanization', disproportion in the development of theory, methodology and empirical research, and partly also insufficient empirical study of self-organizing recreation processes, in addition to the incompleteness of the theoretical, multidisciplinary concepts related to the idea of recreation. Therefore, it was necessary to establish new study areas<sup>1</sup>.

**The polarized biosphere (polarized landscape) concept** was conceived at approximately the same

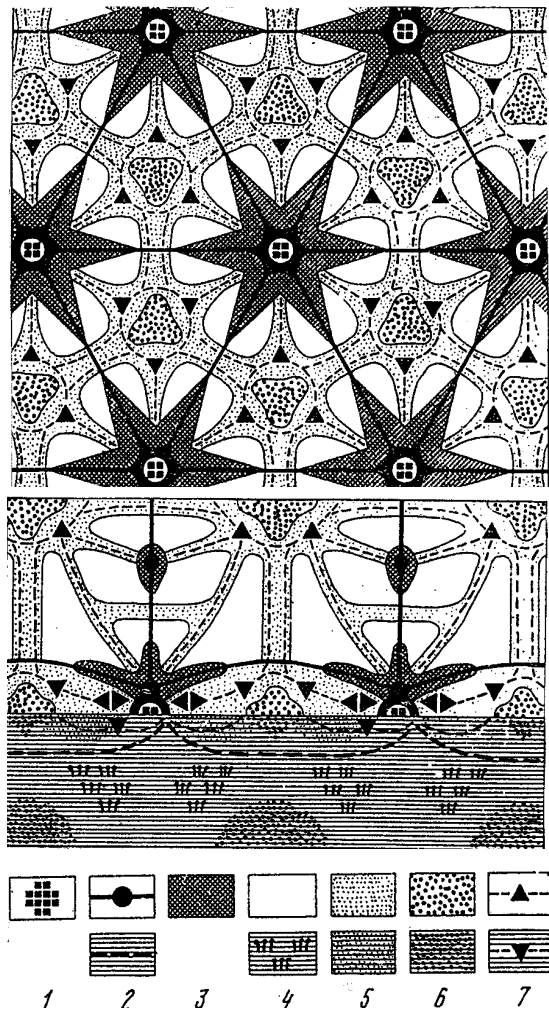
time (the 1970's) by Rodoman a member of the geo-geography department (RODOMAN 1974). Despite the fact that it is a more general geographical idea, it should be mentioned because its assumptions also concern recreation and nature protection.

The concept was a reaction to accelerating urbanization processes and the spatial development of cities, as well as an outcome of the search for a way to harmonise the development of mankind and the biosphere. It is based on the assumption that a large city and natural landscape – two 'equal' environmental components – should not interfere with each other. Therefore, they must be isolated by creating buffer zones between them. These assumptions are the basis of the idea and behind the construction of the polarized landscape model.

According to Rodoman (1974), one of the two 'poles' of the geographical environment – the city – is its old heart where businesses, shops, service outlets, cultural institutions, universities and schools, health service facilities and sports complexes are found and the housing zones surrounding them. The other 'pole' – nature reserves – should be open only for research, student fieldwork and short trips. Moving from one pole to the other would involve crossing, low- and medium intensity farming zones, country parks outside the city used for longer-term recreation and tourism, areas where forest and hunting are interweaved with natural meadows and pastures. These functional buffer zones should be situated in such a way that population density, intensity of economic exploitation and the frequency of visits, gradually decrease, from the city centre towards the nature reserve.

All the zones show homogeneity due to the movements of people which are the basic system-forming flows in a polarized landscape, and the landscape itself embodies the unity of the spatial system (Fig. 2).

The '**recreation economy spatial complex**' (recreation region) concept. Further development of the systems approach in recreation geography was connected with the concept of 'recreation economy spatial complexes' as an element of the national economy (MIRONENKO & TWERDOKHLEBOV 1981). In practical terms, it was oriented towards optimizing all the relations between the recreation economy and other regional or national economic sectors. It was a further step away from the spatial recreation system model, and the study of its structure and functioning, towards problems in the recreation environment, by defining its relations with the outside world. The authors themselves believed that a region, where the spatial recreation system had become its central part, is located in this space.



Functional zones and links between them: A – a homogenous plain inside the continent; B – a coastal area (top – for dry areas, bottom – for the sea); 1 – urban historical and architectural preservation areas, 2 – public services and transport routes, 3 – housing and industrial buildings, 4 – high and medium intensive farming, 5 – natural meadows, pastures, forest clearings, hunting areas, rural recreational areas, 6 – nature reserves, 7 – recreational destinations and tourism routes

Fig. 2 Polarized land and sea landscape system (according to RODOMAN 1974)

The spatial recreation system occupies a space delimited by the occurrence of assets and infrastructure, taking into account local development plans which define its boundaries (holiday resort sites, recreation zones, forest parks, etc.). In this context, a recreation region seems to be the largest spatial concept. The region is formed by the spatial recreation system and its surrounding socio-economic environment, which is where recreational, material and financial flows have their origin, reinforcing and activating the spatial recreation system. Contrary to the spatial recreation system, the boundaries of a recreation region are blurred and depend on outside pressures and the industrial-economic relations between the spatial recreation system and other specialized sectors, e.g. the settlement system or an administrative division.

The authors to define the recreation region as a complex consisting of two basic elements: the spatial recreation system and the surrounding socio-economic space that enabled its effective functioning. In this way, the region-creating process was extended beyond the narrow sectoral framework and enriched with inter-sector and inter-systemic relations.

Another major problem of regionalization was to establish the factors and conditions under which regions are formed, depending on geographical scale. The most important factor in the formation and development of recreation regions is the spatial division of labour. The recreation region was defined by the territory it occupies, with recreation seen as a specialist sector of the economy. From this point of view, the statement that a recreation region is only an area dominated by the tourism and recreation function seems false.

The concept of a recreation economy spatial complex greatly contributed to the development of a national school of regionalization, and in the 1980's it significantly increased the efficiency of recreation economy planning and its organisation on both national and regional scales.

The development of a 'national' school of geography in the 1970's was a complex and controversial process. On the one hand, work leading to the creation of a system of concepts presenting the spatial organization of free time activity turned out to be very inspiring. Recreation geography introduced a number of new refreshing ideas into Soviet geography, and socio-economic geography in particular. On the other hand, the lack of socio-geographic research, especially during the Stalinist period, had affected recreation geography as well. Methodologically, issues in recreation were given a normative character. It was not until the 1990's that researchers started to analyse spatial recreation systems and create social recreation models

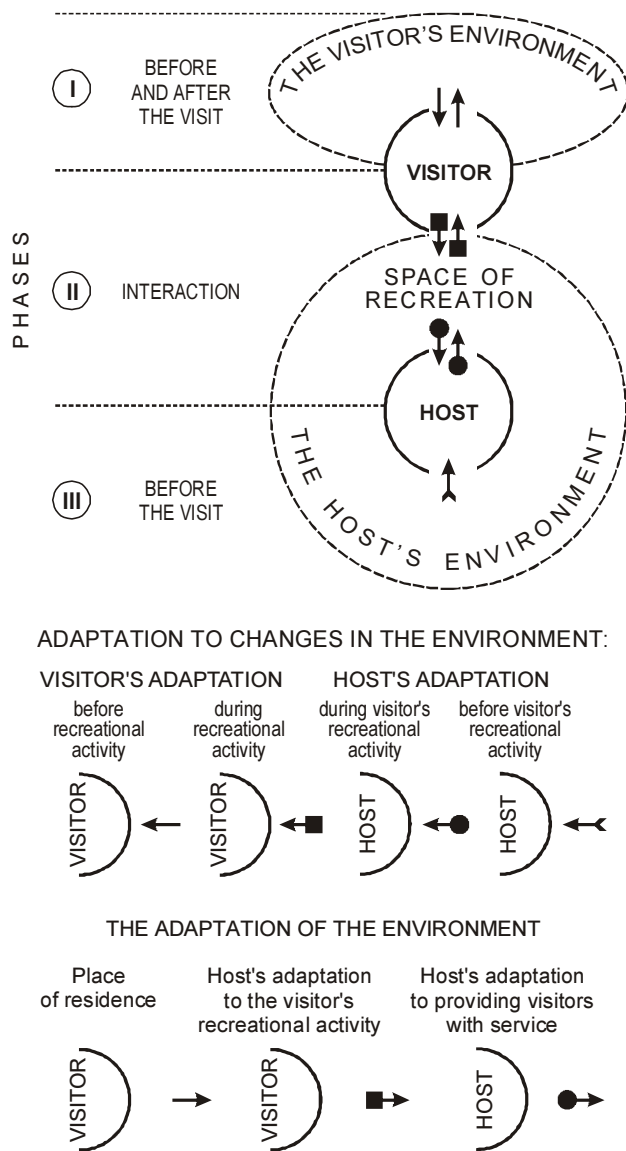
**The graphic 'environmental' (adaptive) model of a recreation system.** In the 1990's, due to advancing *perestroika*, movement towards a market economy and subsequent changes among academics from Lomonosov Moscow University, led to a need to formulate new hypotheses and concepts on recreation. One of them was the graphic 'environmental' (adaptive) model of a recreation system (MIRONIENKO & ELDAROV 1998).

Its creation was prompted by the self-organizing character of recreational activity in open communities and a market environment. The process of adaptation was considered to be a value in itself: relatively conflict-free, flexible, assuming different forms (including spatial).

The recreation system was viewed as a type of socio-economic spatial system whose structures reflect two types of relations between its main two elements:

firstly society and the natural and economic environments; and secondly society and the social environment. In contrast to the spatial recreational system, technical by nature, the leading role in the new system and in its formation was played by the socio-psychological relations.

The model depicts the co-occurrence of two recreation 'poles' in terms of social contact (Fig. 3). The first 'pole' is the 'visitor' and his/ her home environment, and the other – the 'host' and his/ her place of residence, which at certain times becomes a visitor's recreation environment.



Adaptation to changes in the environment: 1 – Visitor's adaptation before recreational activity, 2 – Visitor's adaptation during recreational activity, 3 – Host's adaptation before visitor's recreational activity, 4 – Host's adaptation during visitor's recreational activity  
The adaptation of the environment: 5 – Host's place of residence, 6 – Host's adaptation to the visitor's recreational activity, 7 – Host's adaptation to providing visitors with service

Fig. 3. Phases: I – before and after the visit, II – interaction, III – before the visit

The model consists of three parts, corresponding to the main stages (phases) of a visitor's socio-psychological perception of the recreation environment: before arrival, during the stay and after departure. At the first stage, the most important are the nature of recreational needs, as well as opportunities to choose them in the context of recreation activity cycles. At the second stage, the most significant is the process of undertaking them as special forms of interaction between people and the environment. At the third stage, it is the consequences of recreational activity.

The environmental model confirms recreation being seen in a new way – the compatibility of visitors' and hosts' interests, based on compromise. The model may also serve as a theoretical basis for the development of humanistic aspects of recreation geography and further research, as well as the search for resolutions to social, political and other global conflicts.

The rapid development of international, especially outbound tourism, which took place in Russia after the introduction of reforms in the 1990's, allowed tourism geography to become an independent discipline. It is based on the achievements of previous years, especially the 'national' school of recreation geography. The new understanding of the spatial organization (self-organization) of tourism activity was connected with the reconstruction of tourism in the new market conditions in Russia, as well as with the liberation of academic life from ideological bondage.

The concept of the spatial polarization of the global tourism market (global tourism economy development model) was conceived at the geography department of Lomonosov University in Moscow, thanks to works published by Professor Anna Aleksandrova in the early years of the 21<sup>st</sup> c. (ALEKSANDROVA 2002; 2008, 2009, 2010). She shows the intensification of processes related to tourism and the formation of homogenous tourism space on a global scale. The concept became very topical when Russia became open to development and an integral part of world tourism space.

According to the concept, modern tourism as an inter-sectoral sphere of the economy developed as a result of the social division of labour. Its 'higher form' is the international division of labour, a result of which is the global tourism market. It has a heterogeneous spatial structure which may be presented as a three-level pyramid with 'central' countries at the top, 'semi-peripheral' countries in the middle, and 'peripheral' countries at the base. This hierarchical structure expresses the inequality of states in the international division of labour characterized by a clear separation of the sites of tourism demand from the sites of tourism supply. Whether a country is classified as on the 'centre', 'semi-periphery' or 'periphery' of

global tourism space depends on the part it plays in the international division of labour, the intensity and direction of tourism, the significance of the tourism sector in the national economy, national tourism policy, as well as the general level of socio-economic development of a country. 'Central', 'semi-peripheral' and 'peripheral' countries are connected with one another via tourists, capital, labour force resources, as well as information. These have several characteristic economic-geographical features.

The international tourism market is evolving spatially. Each development stage has its 'centres', 'semi-peripheries' and 'peripheries'. The period from the end of the 18<sup>th</sup> c. to the beginning of the 20<sup>th</sup> c. was characterized by European monocentrism, when Great Britain – a pioneer of progress – established new forms of travelling as a consequence of the industrial development of society. After World War II, the 'centre' of the world's tourism space moved to North America – the USA, where computer booking systems were created. It was there that the centre of the global tourism industry remained for the following decades. In the late 20<sup>th</sup> c., the global tourism market was developing along a Western European-North American (USA)-Japanese axis. It is here that the world's tourism is concentrated, and technological and socio-economic innovations are introduced, later passed on to 'semi-peripheral' and 'peripheral' areas.

The global tourism market has development potential with observable regular wave fluctuations. Cycles of tourism activity have a complex structure and are a synthesis of fluctuation periods of different length (2-5, 6-11, and 13-20 years), amplitude and mechanisms. The cycles of the tourism economy are also strongly affected by the Kondratiev's long waves which explain the synchronicity of long-term fluctuations in the increase in tourism in different world regions.

Nowadays, tourism and recreation at Lomonosov Moscow University is changing as a result of clear research focusing. Academics from different departments turn to this research area, new departments are being opened, and new specialized courses are being run. The complex, multifaceted and multifunctional essence of tourism and recreation, as well as the numerous 'contradictory processes' in human life and the surrounding environment, raise new interdisciplinary issues and mean a comprehensive approach to tourism and recreation research must be taken. As never before, the role of recreation and tourism geography is growing with a stable, integrated research potential. Currently, an interdisciplinary trend in tourism and recreation research is the analysis of tourism-recreational areas using cluster theory (ALEKSANDROVA 2007a, 2007b, KRUSHALIN 2009).

## FOOTNOTE

<sup>1</sup> One of the first Polish researchers to deal with these issues was A. S. Kostrowicki who made use of a modified version of the Spatial Recreation System concept (J. Kostrowicki 1975, *Podejście systemowe w badaniach nad rekreacją, Przegląd Geograficzny*, vol. XLVII, issue 2, pp. 263-278) – translator's note.

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## TOURISM TRENDS AMONG GENERATION Y IN POLAND

**Abstract:** On the basis of empirical studies and available sources, the author presents tourism as undertaken by young Poles from Generation Y, with reference to demographic, and above all generational changes. She focuses on presenting tourism preferences and typical behaviour. The analysis shows that their behaviour is similar to those observed by Generation Y globally. The similarities are also visible in tourism – new, post-modernist trends, such as gap year and internet couch surfing portals, as forms of independent travel organization, are becoming more and more popular. On the other hand, the consumptionist habits of Generation Y (preferences for comfort and entertainment), as well as an orientation towards family and friends, frequently travelling companions, can also be observed.

**Key words:** Poles, Generation Y, youth tourism, tourism preferences.

### 1. INTRODUCTION

In the numerous attempts to interpret contemporary tourism, the questions that are becoming increasingly urgent are those concerning the socio-demographic changes and trends which influence tourist behaviour, or, in a wider sense, free-time activity as a whole. Demographic changes have an effect on many aspects of tourism, mainly the strength and type of tourism demand, as well as the tourism job market (Grimm *et al* 2009). The aim of this article is to show how tourism (tourist preferences) has been changing among Polish young people, over a period of intensive transformation and of generation change in particular. The discussion concerns young Poles from Generation Y. The analysis will include selected aspects of this group's tourism activity, focusing on its tourism preferences alongside new trends in tourism development.

Among the standard determinants of tourism activity, preferences and, consequently, the formation of tourism space, are socio-demographic features. An important variable is age, but many authors point to life cycle stages and generational differences as significant as well (OPPERMAN 1995; KOWALCZYK-ANIOŁ 2007). The dictionary definition might describe a generation as “a group of people (also animals or plants) at approximately the same age” and as “people maturing through similar or the same experience”. The idea of interpreting socio-economic problems from a perspective of generation cohorts is not new. In the social sciences it has a long tradition going back to

the 1920's (Mannheim) and is frequently applied in sociology (e.g. the theory of generations, formulated by the American sociologists, HOWE & STRAUSS in 1991), psychology or political science. In recent years, human resources and marketing specialists have also been paying a lot of their attention to these issues. The wide-ranging socio-political debate about on-going global demographic changes increasingly often includes issues of inter-generational relations. It has become essential to look at tourism from this perspective, as well. An interesting and particularly important issue for an understanding of the situation today, is a comparison of the behaviour of individual generations, especially as regards three large groups on today's tourism market. These generations have been given names: the oldest is the Baby Boomer generation, the middle is Generation X, while the youngest – Generation Y<sup>1</sup>.

The *Baby Boomer* (BB), X and Y generations (the most important because of their current numbers) have been described by different authors in great detail (e.g. HOWE 2006, MITCHELL 1995). The age ranges are 'theoretical', so the authors refer to slightly different periods concerning the years of birth of members of specific age cohorts. For instance, in his publication in 2005, KOTLER assumed that Generation Y (in the USA – *author's note*) was the product of the good economic times and the internet, and its members born 1978-94. For other authors (e.g. Lawrence), Generation Y consists of Americans born between 1977 and 1999. KOTLER &

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ARMSTRONG (2010) present the widest time span for Generation Y (called *Millennials* or *echo boomers* by these authors, or *i-Pod Generation*, *The Net Generation*, *Generation Next* by others) – between 1977 and 2000. The *Millennials* are mostly the baby boomers' children (83 million). While the majority (83%) of the BB generation are white, 45% of Generation Y belong to other races (KOTLER & ARMSTRONG 2010). From the global point of view, Pendergast (2010) assumes that Generation Y members were born over the period 1982-2000, which means that today they are around 10-30 years of age (table 1)<sup>2</sup>.

T a b l e 1. Dates of birth or existing generations according to Pendergast

Date of birth	Generation	Age in 2012
1901-24	GL	88 and above
1925-42	Silent	70-87
1943-60	Baby Boomer	52-69
1961-81	Generation X	31-51
1982-2002	Generation Y	10-30
2003 +	Generation Z	9 and below

S o u r c e: PENDERGAST (2010), supplemented.

It should be remembered that members of every generation present a variety of life styles, life cycle stages and other factors determining human behaviour and needs. For instance, Pendergast (2010) believes that Generation Y can be divided into *Generation Why* – people born in 1982-5, *Millennials (MilGens)* – born in 1985-99, and *iGeneration* – born 1999-2002.

In this article, the author focuses on the young today referred to as Generation Y, and on Poland. Considering the particular situation in Poland, where the fall of the socialist system (1989) was a significant turning point, the dates of birth of Polish Ys' should be redefined, and it is commonly accepted that it is between 1980 and 2000. Those concerned were born or were growing up at the time of a political and socio-economic transformation. It is not the only these circumstance that determine the particular character of this group – the global context is equally important, as well as meso-scale changes to the modern family, etc. As a result of the political and economic transformations, Poles have become citizens of Europe and the world – a world dominated by a very expansive, lively and dynamic capitalism, full of controversies and suffering from a serious crisis. Modern capitalism brought to Poland the ideology and culture of consumption, which this younger generation was, in a way, naturally growing into, unaware of the fact that there are alternatives to the apotheosis of a wealthy and pleasurable life. Along with the socio-economic transformation, Poland has become open to phenomena and trends observed in contemporary world which

can be subsumed into two key words: globalization and post-modernity (information, network society – SZAFRANIEC 2011). It is worth stressing that Generation Y is the first Polish generation to display global characteristics. This mainly concerns those living in large cities, brought up with the internet. Different authors mention the 'syndrome' of the global teenager who can be easily recognized because "s/he listens to similar music, wears similar clothes, watches similar TV channels, uses the same computer programs", no matter where – in Warsaw, Tokyo or London (SZAFRANIEC 2011, p. 32).

According to human resource management and marketing reports (e.g. *Generation Y: Realising the potential* 2010), Generation Y is defined by a set of characteristic features. Y's highly value private life (they believe in a work-life balance – *author's note*), expect flexible working hours, the chance to change from full time to part-time, and take a year out. Y's are very familiar with modern technologies (the internet, mobile phones, tablets, i-Pods, etc.), independent and ambitious, prepared for change and innovation. Its members have high self-esteem and become deeply involved in a job which interests them. They are willing to work in a team, tend to be demanding of their employers and have high expectations as regards earnings. At the same time they are unwilling to adhere to standards and follow procedures. Many authors believe that Generation Y, as a new generation of workers entering the market, is a real challenge for employers. According to MOSCARDO & BENCKENDORFF (2010), out of all the characteristics presented by different authors, consensus and general acceptance are only possible in the case of four key features (quoted after DONNISON 2007):

- using digital media, especially for entertainment, socializing and self-expression purposes;
- having a positive attitude to diversity, flexibility, social issues and one's own future;
- being oriented towards family and social groups (community);
- (added by Moscardo & Benckendorff) prolonging adolescence (maturing)<sup>3</sup> with a longer period of formal education.

WRZESIEŃ (2007) claims that three characteristics mentioned in American analyses may be regarded as more universal:

- representatives of Generation Y are diversified racially and ethnically;
- they are extremely independent, rooted in their childhood (e.g. broken families, latchkey children) and the technological revolution in which they were growing up;
- as a result of their parents' over-protectiveness, they have a very strong sense of security and optimistically look to the future.



What is the Polish Generation Y like? What are their aspirations and ambitions, expectations from work, etc.? The comparison made by SZAFRANIEC (2012) among 19-year-olds in 1976 and 2007 shows that in Poland the idea of a good life is much more conventional than that in the West, but "(...) aspirations to make life affluent, colourful and interesting are one of the main characteristics of this generation. The core of their values (focusing on family and personal happiness) is undergoing 'entropy'. Not only have many different issues gained the status of important aims in life, but they have acquired a different meaning. Personal happiness does not depend on family alone. At work, good earnings are important, but personal satisfaction and development opportunities are becoming increasingly important as well. Money is not important as such, but it makes the benefits of a consumption-based society available to an individual, and helps him/her to establish a life style which allows self-expression" (p. 108). According to SZAFRANIEC (2011) in comparison with the young from the socialist period, today's "(...) value education, interesting work, big money and an exciting, interesting life much more highly. Other values which are important to them include friendship, the sense of being needed, prestige and respect - today's young are certainly more pro-social and community-wise. It is a more expressive generation, 'greedier' for life. Young Poles expect a lot, but are not too demanding. The foundations of their inner world are, on the one hand, personal and affiliative (happiness, love, friendship, family life), and on the other - work, seen as a condition for a successful life (affluent, pleasurable, interesting) and a source of personal satisfaction" (SZAFRANIEC 2011, p. 61). Such a description of the contemporary young sheds slightly different light on their attitude to work from what is often presented (demonized?) in the media, and at the same time it clearly refers to the global features of Generation Y.

When presenting a general description of the contemporary Polish young, it is worth mentioning issues related to tourism. Are the Y's tourism behaviour and preferences different from those of older generations? What is a Polish tourist from Generation Y like?

Having observed the growing interest in the tourism differences of specific generations, researched mainly in America, Australia and Britain (HUANG Y.-C. & PETRICK 2010, MOSCARDI & BENCKENDORFF 2010, RICHARDS 2007, etc.), the author analysed a representative sample of adult Poles. The results enabled her to show the special character of the tourism of Poles from Generation Y in comparison to older generations. The research (a questionnaire survey) included 2200 people, 540 of whom belonged to Generation Y. The survey was run among a randomly chosen group of respondents at their place of residence, by trained

questioners from CBOS (a polling agency). The study was financed through a research grant from the University of Łódź (WNG UŁ).

The questions concerned three aspects:

- methods of organizing a tourism trip,
- travelling companions,
- holiday recreation preferences.

The respondents were not asked to describe one particular trip, but their general tourism habits.

## 2. GENERATION Y AND THE ORGANIZATION OF TOURISM TRIPS

As regards types of travel organization, 36% of the Polish respondents from Generation Y stated that they chose organized trips, and 41% made bookings through the internet - table 2. Nearly 8% used internet couch surfing<sup>4</sup> networks, such as *Hospitality Club* or *Couchsurfing*, which are becoming increasingly popular.

T a b l e 2. Types of travel organization preferred by the generations studied (multiple choice option) - in percentages

Preferences	Older generations	Generation Y	Total
I choose organized trips	28.0	36.2	30.0
I make reservations on the internet	17.0	41.0	22.4
I travel with my family	66.4	57.7	64.3
I travel with friends	37.9	69.8	45.5
I travel alone	11.2	6.7	10.2
I use an internet couch surfing system	3.4	7.7	4.4
Gap year	0.8	4.0	1.6
Senior travel	4.5	2.9	4.1

S o u r c e: author's research.

T a b l e 3. Age structure of *CouchSurfing* portal users in 2011

Age (years)	Total		Poles	
	number	%	number	%
18-24	1,176,583	36.9	36,141	52.1
25-29	1,042,563	32.7	22,259	32.1
30-34	481,901	15.1	6,553	9.4
35-39	201,852	6.3	2,280	3.3
40-49	167,333	5.3	1,448	2.1
50-59	71,365	2.2	494	0.7
60-69	24,152	0.8	101	0.1
70-79	3,266	0.1	8	
80-89	592		5	

S o u r c e: author based on KOWALCZYK-ANIOŁ (2011).

In order to appreciate the scale of the phenomenon, it is worth comparing two figures - in 2011, over 71,000 Poles were members of *Couchsurfing* - an internet couch surfing club (table 3 - every second

person of which was 18-24, and every third was 25-29 – together they made up 84% of the group). A smaller number – 62,500 (there is no information on division into age groups) belonged to PTTK (based on a PTTK report on the state of the organization and policy activity in 2011).

Membership of internet couch surfing clubs is typical of the urban young (fig. 1), mostly using English, who not only take advantage of free accommodation at foreign club-members' homes, but also

gladly offer their own homes or other forms of hospitality (e.g. invitations to coffee, tea, showing them around their city – more in KOWALCZYK-ANIOL 2011). The author believes that internet couch surfing clubs, as a form of travel organization, and the taking of a gap year, are the distinguishing features of contemporary tourism for the Polish young, especially among students, and increases in importance every year. Both activities have one important feature in common – searching for authentic contact, understood as meeting another person and a different culture (fig. 2).

Gap year travel mentioned earlier (other expressions: *year off*, *time out*, *year out*, rarely *sabbatical*), i.e. journeys often to remote places, lasting for about one year, made before higher education, after graduating from university or before starting work, are a global trend in young people's tourism (e.g. FARACIK 2011). This phenomenon, which appeared in the 1960's in Great Britain, has become increasingly widespread and popular, especially in West European countries, like the UK (it is estimated that in 2003, about 250,000 people aged 18-25 declared a one-year break from education), as well as other developed countries, like the United States, Canada, Japan or Australia. The main reasons why students take a year off include the desire to travel, for training, or working for money or voluntarily. On the other hand, the advantages of such long trips, often to far away places, include gaining experience, self-confidence and self-awareness, and consequently choosing one's own career, aims and style of living. Gap year travel is often combined with voluntary work, which has been widely discussed in academic circles in recent years (e.g. TOMAZOS & BUTLER 2012, WEARING 2001, LYONS *et al.*, 2011, BENSON, ed. 2011), focusing not only on the motivations (which could be altruistic, ethical or utilitarian – e.g. learning or improving a foreign language, gaining new experience or having an adventure) and benefits, but also on a critical assessment of the influence of neo-liberalism on this form of activity (LYONS *et al.*, 2011). However, for a young person, travel of this type is certainly the best way to discover the world and oneself<sup>5</sup>. In the studied group, gap year journeys were made by 4% of the respondents from Generation Y, while it was less than 2% of the total (table 1). Gap year experience is more common among university students.

With regard to other forms of travel organization, slightly less than 3% of the Y's approached accompanied older people (e.g. their grandparents) during trips of the 'senior travel' type (trips organized outside the season, with discounts for people aged over 55, where the price is available to the accompanying person as well, regardless of their age).

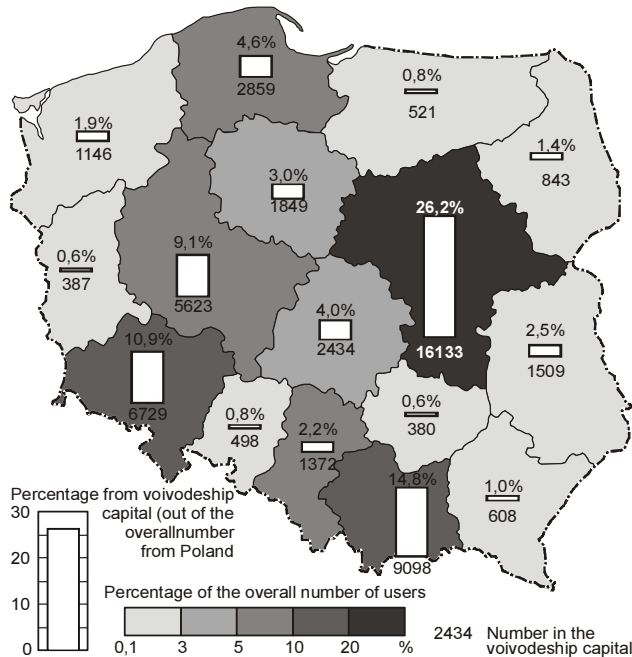


Fig. 1. Origin of Polish CouchSurfing portal users (as of 29<sup>th</sup> August 2011)  
Source: KOWALCZYK-ANIOL (2011)

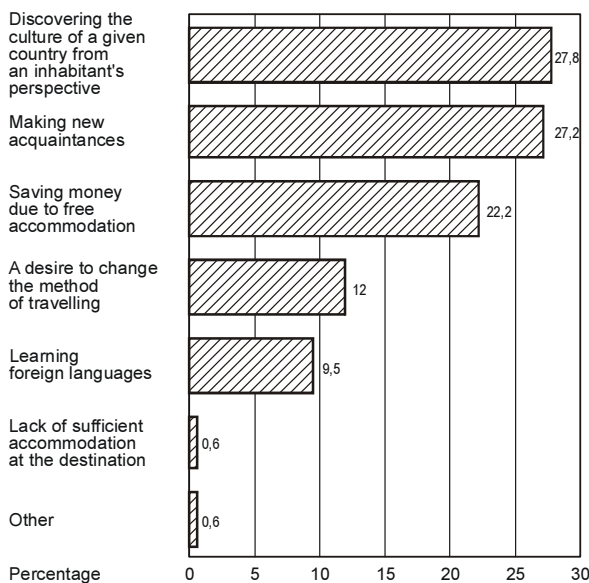


Fig. 2. Motivations for using couch surfing portals  
Source: KOWALCZYK-ANIOL (2011)

Another form of travel organization among the Polish young is connected with scholarship schemes. Due to the fact that they are institutionally connected with a degree (they are a part of a university course or a student's training), they are not available to every member of Generation Y. Therefore, they are not included in the present study. It must be stressed, however, that today's chance to travel as part of a scholarship scheme is an excellent opportunity for Polish students. At present, it is a wide-ranging (the two largest programs, i.e. ERASMUS and CEEPUS cover almost the whole of Europe) and are highly significant socio-educational initiative which is becoming increasingly popular (FARACIK 2011). According to official statistics, 14,021 Polish students took part in ERASMUS, the largest scholarship program, in the 2010/11 academic year alone, and a total of 108,041 students over the period from 1998/99 to 2010/11 (<http://www.erasmus.org.pl/odnosniki-podstawowe/statystyki>; 28.11.2012).

### 3. GENERATION Y AND THEIR TRAVEL COMPANIONS

Respondents from Generation Y rarely travel alone (less than 7%); they choose much more often to travel in the company of friends (nearly 70%) than other, especially older, generations (Table 2). This is another feature clearly distinguishing Y's as tourists. The research results presented earlier (SZAFRANIEC 2011, 2012) also pointed to the community-oriented preferences of Poles from this generation. Extremely interesting here are the results of a survey conducted by Kanapek in 2010, for her *licencjat* degree, among young people aged 15-25 taking part in the 85<sup>th</sup> Łódź Pilgrimage to Jasna Góra<sup>6</sup>. The results clearly correspond to the phenomena discussed in this paper. The main motivations to go on a pilgrimage among the studied group were religious (18%), the special atmosphere of a pilgrimage (community) (22%), friends' persuasion (17%) and company (16%).

It is worth noticing that regardless of age group, the respondents travel with families (64%), stated by 58% of the respondents from Generation Y, i.e. slightly fewer than among the older cohorts (the maximum was 66% in older generations) (Table 2). It should be said, however, that only 31% of the respondents from Generation Y have set up a family (are married), compared to 59% of the overall number of respondents. The remaining have not entered this particular stage of life yet or are living together informally. This result confirms a typical Polish tendency – Poles often undertake family tourism (literally). At the same time, the focus on the family is an important

feature of the studied generation (MOSCARDO & BENCKENDORFF 2010), including its Polish representatives. Preferences regarding travel with friends and family are an important signal for tourism products suppliers. It will be interesting to see whether Y's will change these preferences when they enter the next stages of life.

### 4. GENERATION Y'S TOURIST PREFERENCES – DESTINATIONS AND 'STYLES' OF RECREATION DURING TOURIST TRIPS

In her research, the author also dealt with tourists' expectations from the destinations visited, as well as the 'style' of recreation during the trip. The most distinctive of the features defining Generation Y is their active way of spending time during trips (83%) and the search for entertainment (74%) (Table 4). Two, seemingly contradictory groups of responses – looking for contact with nature (79%) and authenticity of the visited sites (69%), versus the appreciation of comfort (77%), are extremely significant.

Table 4. Expectations from visited destinations and preferred ways of spending time on holidays (multiple choice option) – in percentages

Preferences	Older generations	Generation Y	Total
I appreciate comfort in recreation	61.5	76.7	65.2
I'm looking for authenticity in visited destinations	55.3	69.2	58.6
I'm looking for peace and quiet	57.2	39.6	53.0
I'm looking for contact with nature	76.2	79.0	76.9
I'm looking for entertainment	28.2	74.4	39.2
I like to be active on holiday	59.8	83.3	65.4
I like to travel back to the same places	62.6	71.3	64.7

Source: author's research.

Almost all of the above are definitely more important for the studied Y's than for their parents and grandparents. It is confirmed that "(...) the young are a more colourful and expressive generation, perceiving the world and their own lives more intensively, with far less indifference. More young people stress the importance of many different things in their lives, nearly all of which they rate very highly" (SZAFRANIEC 2011, p. 40). We observe visibly higher requirements and challenges for the modern tourist industry, set by the 'i-Pod generation'. Taking into account the results of research on Polish tourism activity, as well as on the tourism spaces of consecutive generations (e.g. three generations of Łódź

families, KOWALCZYK-ANIOŁ 2007), it is worth noticing that the tourism spaces of this age group are considerably larger and more diversified. It is interesting that over 71% of the Y's approached stated that they liked to revisit the same places.

The analysis above, based both on literature and empirical study, shows that the contemporary Polish young display behaviour in general similar to those of the global Generation Y. These similarities can be also observed in tourism – e.g. new post-modern trends, such as gap year and internet couch surfing portals, are becoming increasingly popular new forms of independent travel, driven by youthful curiosity of the world, as well as openness to diversity, optimism, a good command of foreign languages, independence, and other characteristic features of this generation. On the other hand, it is easy to notice Generation Y's consumption habits – the appreciation of comfort and entertainment, as well as an orientation towards friends and family, who are frequently travel companions.

#### FOOTNOTES

<sup>1</sup> WRZESIEŃ (2010) refers to Polish Generation X as the 'End-of-the-Century' Generation, while to Generation Y – as the 'European Seekers'

<sup>2</sup> Every proposal for an age range provokes a discussion, but it is necessary to make a clear contrast of generation differences. Therefore, the author has adopted the division into BB, X and Y generations. She is aware of the many controversies concerning this division, but the advantages it offers support this choice.

<sup>3</sup> At this point, it is worth quoting the data referring to a phenomenon called 'nesting'. In 2008, in the EU, nearly 51 million people aged 18-34 (45.6% of the whole) lived with their parents (for a variety of socio-cultural reasons, mainly due to financial limitations). Poland is one of the top ten EU countries in which adult children stay at their family home for a very long time – women up to the age of 28.5, and men – until they are nearly 30 (SZAFRANIEC 2011).

<sup>4</sup> In Polish, there is not a single accepted term corresponding to the English 'couch surfing'. The phenomenon is popularly referred to as mutual hospitality portals or clubs, free accommodation social networks, or 'sleeping on a couch'.

<sup>5</sup> Voluntary work trips have gained in popularity since 1990. In 2010 their number was estimated 1.67 million. The majority of volunteers come from the USA, while the main reception areas are Latin America, Africa and Asia.

<sup>6</sup> The analysis was based on 78 correctly filled in questionnaires from those distributed among randomly chosen pilgrims to Jasna Góra, during the 85<sup>th</sup> Lodz Pilgrimage. 24% of the respondents were taking part in the pilgrimage for the first time, 28% – for the second time, and the others – for the third or more.

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## USE OF THE CONCEPT OF 'PRODUCT' TO ANALYZE THE RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN TOURISM AND PHYSICAL CULTURE<sup>1</sup>

**Abstract:** The purpose of this article is to present opportunities for research which show the common ground between tourism and physical culture using approaches and methods worked out and applied in economics. Attention has been concentrated on the category of 'product', treated here as a theoretical concept by means of which it is possible to present a structure of tourism trip. This will include the part that refers to those values and human activities related to physical culture. An attempt to identify the social perception of the attributes that describe a tourism trip was made by an empirical study using *conjoint analysis* on students in higher education in Kraków. The results show that those who participate in tourism enriched by physical activity, prefer trips saturated with attributes such as the required level of courage, the testing of psychological and physical abilities, rivalry with others or nature, an element of adventure, a high level of physical activity, access to sports and leisure facilities, and contact with nature. But at the same time they prefer a low level of risk to health or life. It was noted, however, that related to the latter female and male preferences vary.

**Keywords:** tourism, physical culture, tourism product, preferences, higher education students, *conjoint analysis*.

### 1. INTRODUCTION

Reports of institutions monitoring the market for leisure have indicated increasing interest in tourists from developed countries who take part in trips centred on physical activity. Their programme will include various types of physical activity, give an opportunity for sport and related events, and promote regeneration of health and fitness (*Tourism Trends for Europe 2006*, p. 3, *Panorama on Tourism 2008*, p. 16, ALEJZIAK 2000, p. 191). These trends reveal the growing popularity of tourism characterized by 'psychological care for the body' and known as 'physical culture' (TATARKIEWICZ 1978, p. 80, see also OSIŃSKI 2002, p. 33, DEMEL 1998, p. 9), and which in the English-language literature is also described by terms such as 'sport', 'leisure', 'health & fitness' and 'recreation'.

Thus, tourism and physical culture have some common ground on which the values assigned and the human activities connected are intertwined. A contribution analysing the links between these two components of culture (as broadly defined) might come from a number of different fields and academic disciplines. This paper attempts to approach the issue from an economics perspective, including microeconomics and marketing. It was assumed that the

category of 'product', and more specifically a 'tourism product', can be particularly useful in an analysis of relationships between tourism and physical culture. The notion of a 'tourism product', from a marketing perspective, is understood as anything which satisfies the needs of a consumer who is also a tourist (see STOBIECKA 2010, p. 17-24). Therefore, a 'tourism product' may exist as goods or services, conditions, places, and people as well as its combination i.e. 'tourism package'.

Justification for the proposed research perspective is based on two premises. Firstly, a 'product' may be regarded as a theoretical concept (not just an object of exchange on the market) which reflects an actual tourism trip. In consequence, an analysis of the composition of a tourism trip through marketing concepts gives an opportunity to consider tourism activities based on the values of physical culture. In other words, the question is how physical culture – particularly in its structured forms which include sport, physical recreation and physical rehabilitation – may form part of a tourism trip. Secondly, acceptance of the assumptions of the microeconomic theory of consumer behaviour, based on the rational choice of market participants, makes it possible to use a number

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of approaches, methods and tools to identify the attitudes and preferences of consumers. Such a use of methodology from economics should also be valuable for identifying the real significance of those elements from physical culture – i.e. its values, types of activity, and also goods and services – in creating a tourism experience.

## 2. A PHYSICAL CULTURE TOURISM PRODUCT: ESSENCE, STRUCTURE, VALUE

M. Blaug, one of the most respectable methodologists in economics, describes as an ‘old idea’ the notion that buyers perceive and evaluate products as a bundle of specific attributes (BLAUG 1995, p. 225). According to this view it may be assumed that the buyers analyze a product by evaluating those attributes, i.e. taking into consideration the ability of a product composition to meet consumer expectations. Therefore, if a consumer wanted to satisfy needs or desires related to physical culture, those attributes would play a leading role in a product and thus meet the specific requirements of the consumer.

To answer the question about the attributes of physical culture in a tourism product, the well-known marketing concept of ‘product structure’, proposed by T. Levitt and developed by his followers, is useful. According to this concept, the ‘core’ level of a product is that which meets consumer needs, the ‘actual’ level includes those elements necessary to meet those needs, and the ‘augmented’ level consists of elements which are not necessary but which may increase consumer satisfaction (KOTLER & KELLER 2006, p. 372). This means tourism and physical culture intertwine at all three product levels (see SZCZECZOWICZ 2010, p. 121). The core of a tourism product should be filled with those values which are a result of a tourist’s reflection on physical culture, health and fitness, and also include experiences accompanying various forms of recreational and sport activities (i.e. ‘ludic’ and ‘agonistic’, an atmosphere of concentration, rivalry and courage) (LIPIEC 2007b, p. 20). Consumer attention may be additionally focused on testing the physical and psychological limits essential in any sports performance (LIPIEC 2007b, p. 17). Finally, the tourist experience may arise from aesthetic sensations – when the tourist considers the beauty of the human body engaged in a physical activity, the beauty of human actions and the beauty of a sports event (LIPIEC 2007a, p. 34).

At both ‘actual’ and ‘augmented’ levels of a tourism product, the relationships between different aspects of culture are perceived in the presence in a tourism

product of a set of components typical for any aspect of physical culture. It is especially visible in the case of the most specific offer on the market – i.e. a tourism package – this kind of product includes the goods and services necessary to meet a tourist’s needs and desires associated with the human body and physical activity. However, physical culture may be experienced by a tourist not only in using the goods and services which are available for market exchange – it is also possible as a result of the relationship between the tourist and representatives of a local community (distinctness of values, attitudes and life styles, tradition and customs), or as a result of participating in different types of physical activity including sports events as a spectator. Physical culture can find importance in places, sites, monuments, paintings, fashion and specialist equipment, as well as in books and documents, texts of songs, dances etc., tourist agency catalogues, forms of advertising, on postcards and souvenirs (SZCZECZOWICZ 2010, p. 121-122). Although these features show the potential links between tourism and physical culture, the recognition of their nature and significance requires disclosing whether (using the language of marketing) the attributes of physical culture presented in the composition of tourism product create for the consumer certain value. What does the ‘value’ of tourist product mean, however, when even the efforts of axiologists to define this term are considered not fully satisfactory (see TATARKIEWICZ 1978)?

Although in the 1770s Adam Smith in *An Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations* had already explained that the ‘value’ of a product either determines utility i.e. the ability to meet the needs of a consumer (value in use), or the opportunity for the owner to buy other goods (value in exchange) (SMITH 2007, p. 36-37). In economics, since marginalism (introduced 100 years later) the value of a product began to be commonly identified with the benefits that it provides to the consumer (SAGAN, ed. 2011, p. 21-22). From a user perspective, at present it is better to say that the consumer does not take advantage from value previously ‘programmed in’ by a manufacturer, but that value is released from a certain potential but this should not be considered an inherent characteristic of the good or service. Thus, in economics, management sciences and marketing, the value of the product for a consumer is interpreted in terms of a product’s ability to meet the needs and desires of a consumer. It has already been emphasized by T. Levitt who defined a ‘product’ as a tool used to solve specific problems or to realize specific intentions (see LEVITT 2008, p. 120), and at the end of the 20<sup>th</sup> c. Ph. Kotler explained that “Today, smart companies do not sell products, they sell packages of benefits” (KOTLER 1999, p. 191).

Thus, it is a category specific to a consumer and it is easy to demonstrate that the capability of a product to meet the expectations of different people can vary widely. However, this does not mean that the specific composition of attributes which constitute a product will be evaluated similarly even by the same user each time. In different situational contexts the consumer's needs (e.g. concerning health) may change. Moreover, since G.S. Becker published the results of his research, consumer preferences are no longer recognized as a constant in economics (see BECKER 1990). For a proper interpretation it should be mentioned that 'value for use' is susceptible to exterior factors and to time, so its definition is in accordance with the assumptions of axiological subjectivism. Moreover, PRAHALAD & RAMASWAMY (2005) convincingly demonstrate that it is also sensitive to the level of customer involvement in the process of product consumption. This last point seems especially important in the context of the products discussed here. The satisfaction of an active tourist – i.e. on a tourism trip that requires physical effort – depends not only on the 'ingenious' combination of its elements, but also requires the tourist to be physically, psychologically, technically, intellectually prepared (SZCZECZOWICZ 2010, pp. 119-120).

Beyond these explanations it is also important that the benefits achieved by a tourist, as a result of consumption, do not only meet basic human needs, but also those needs and desires which are the result of social interaction between consumers (SAGAN 2003, p. 66). This is especially important in discussion on consumption in countries where such basic needs are, to a high degree, met. For these people – as VEBLEN (2008) has written – the search is for ways of achieving expectations which are situated high in the hierarchy of human needs and desires. It is natural that they should aim at the consumption of products connected with leisure activities offered both on the tourism market and that for physical culture (and with some parts in common). A product created for tourists gives a particular opportunity to meet non-fundamental human needs because of its complexity and the characteristic that its services have no single meaning. According to WIECZORKIEWICZ (2008, p. 58), a cultural anthropologist, a tourism product has many meanings which vary with changing social context and interpretation. It is worth mentioning here that the contemporary marketing literature strongly points to a variety of meanings for products. Thus, it can be used for the study of tourism offers saturated with physical culture and should contribute to demonstrating how a tourist perceives and evaluates a trip enriched by attributes associated with the human body and physicality<sup>2</sup>.

In neoclassical economics, which is the mainstream today, the benefits resulting from the consumption of

a product are described by the general term 'utility'. More precisely, this concept represents a level of consumer satisfaction which is the result of the consumption of a good (or set of goods) and in addition shows how a person determines the order in which he/she would be willing to consume such products (ordinal utility). However, a description of a product only in terms of utility does not satisfactorily reflect how market offers are perceived by buyers. Although it shows the benefits provided by a product to a consumer, it ignores the fact that the consumer bears various costs because of the necessity to search, to choose, to buy and to consume the good or service. These costs should not only be understood as expenditure, but as the 'sacrifices' and 'disutilities' essential for searching, choosing and consuming the product. Therefore many complex categories are introduced into research on product perception and evaluation by consumers, and the most significant at present is 'value for customer'. This term is interpreted as a surplus of benefits over costs as perceived by the consumer and related to the purchasing and making use of the product (SZYMURA-TYC 2005, p. 74).

This argument is important because physical culture – in addition to generating certain benefits for the consumer (functional, emotional, symbolic) – brings with it some specific costs. An example is the purchase of the equipment necessary for the planned physical activity, the costs of physical and technical preparation for the planned trip, and the emotional costs resulting from specific, and often dangerous, types of physical activity. Costs incurred after returning from the trip may involve the need to recover health – this cost can be financial, as well as psychological, the length of time, and sometimes social (SZCZECZOWICZ 2010, p. 125).

### 3. IDENTIFICATION OF THE SOCIAL EXPECTATIONS OF PHYSICAL CULTURE ON A TOURISM TRIP THROUGH A STUDY OF CONSUMER PREFERENCES

The assumption that a product may be described as a 'bundle of its characteristics' is the basis of any number of methods and tools designed for the study of consumer attitudes and preferences. Nowadays, multi-attribute methods occupy a special position (e.g. *Simultaneous Multi Attribute Level Trade Off, Quality Function Deployment, Conjoint Analysis*) which are distinguished from traditional scales and models used to identify attitudes and preferences by the fact that a product presented to respondents for evaluation is characterised simultaneously by many attributes<sup>3</sup>.

This procedure allows information (depending on the methods used) to be obtained about a consumer's assessment of a product being tested relative to alternative proposals, consumers' expectations about the saturation of a product by its attributes, and finally the extent to which the presence of those attributes (and their level) helps to build utility and value for the customer. Thus it can be assumed that using multi-attribute methods should not only reveal social expectations about a tourism product as a whole, but also, additionally valuable, the attributes of physical culture found in a product.

For analysing the research issues described here *conjoint analysis* was selected. The method is implemented by presenting either real or hypothetical products to respondents, known as 'profiles', each of which is described by a set of variables, i.e. attributes (with values assigned to them) measured on a certain scale. Referring to utility theory it is assumed that respondents are able to assess the profiles in such a way that they indicate which are preferred i.e. which should bring the greatest benefit (WALESIAK & BAŁ 2000, p. 9, 18). The respondents' assessments are usually obtained through surveys, and the key stage in their analysis is known as 'decomposition' according to which the information on the relative importance of the preferred variables, and to what extent (their level), is disclosed.

T a b l e 1. Attributes and possible levels in a tourism package

Attributes ( $j$ )		Levels ( $l_j$ )	
1	Required level of courage	1	low
		2	high
2	Testing psychological and physical abilities	1	no
		2	yes
3	Rivalry with others or nature	1	no
		2	yes
4	Element of adventure	1	no
		2	yes
5	Level of physical activity	1	low
		2	medium
		3	high
6	Access to sports and leisure facilities	1	limited
		2	substantial
7	Level of risk to health or life	1	low
		2	medium
		3	high
8	Contact with nature	1	limited
		2	substantial

Symbols:  $j$  - number of attribute ( $j \in \{1, 2, \dots, 8\}$ );  $l_j$  - level of attribute  $Z_j$  ( $l_1, l_2, l_3, l_4, l_6, l_8 \in \{1, 2\}$ ;  $l_5, l_7 \in \{1, 2, 3\}$ ).

S o u r c e: author.

The subject of research is a 'tourism package'. It was described using eight physical culture variables selected on the basis of a study of the literature. Each

of them was assigned two or three levels of strength (table 1).

The empirical data was collected using the 'full-profile' method. This means that respondents were requested to evaluate tourism packages, each of which was characterized by all eight variables simultaneously, but the variables are assigned different levels of intensity. Using the *SPSS Conjoint* module (the *SPSS 11.5 for Windows* statistical package) the number of profiles presented was reduced to sixteen, but this would still ensure statistical reliability in the results. The profiles were presented on a questionnaire and the respondents were asked to analyze each one and assign a number from a set  $\{1, 2, \dots, 100\}$ , representing the probability of their participation on a particular trip. To avoid a situation where the sequence of profiles in the questionnaire would influence research results, five versions were prepared - distinguished only by the order in which the profiles occurred (see PULLMAN, DODSON & MOORE 1999).

The population of Polish higher education students was defined as one having a high participation level in tourism, especially in its active forms, and at the same time a well-developed system of views and beliefs. The research was carried out among full-time college students in state higher education institutions located in Małopolska Voivodeship, and the total number of respondents was 1050. The selection of the target group out of the general population was by stratified sampling. Seven strata were identified equivalent to the following academic fields: natural sciences, engineering and technology, medical and health sciences, agricultural sciences, social sciences, humanities, and the arts - the decision was motivated by the desire include a wide variety of values and interests in the sample. There were 150 respondents within each stratum to ensure the reliability of the results for the method applied (WALESIAK & BAŁ 2000, p. 31). The empirical data was collected by the questionnaire technique in the period December 2009 - March 2010.

The empirical data obtained confirms that the sample was characterized by a high level of participation in tourism ( $N=946$ , 90%), including physical activity ( $N=680$ , 72%). In the latter group two sub-groups were distinguished by taking into account the nature of the physical activity undertaken: whether it was an inherent component, as in the case of specialised tourism or sports camps, or whether it was an option, only a spare-time possibility for a tourist, such as sport or recreational games, walking, jogging, cycling, swimming, etc. The first sub-group consisted of 482 individuals, 46% of all respondents and 71% of all active tourists, and the second - 397 individuals, 38% of all respondents and 58% of all active tourists (table 2)<sup>4</sup>.



T a b l e 2. Participation in tourism (N = 946)

Respondents		Total number	Per-centage
Participating in physical activity-based tourism:		680	72
a	Exclusively in tourism with inherent physical activity	283	30
b	Exclusively in tourism with optional physical activity	198	21
c	Tourism with both inherent and optional physical activity	199	21
Not participating in physical activity-based tourism		266	28

S o u r c e: own research based on empirical results.

As a result of the implementation of the *conjoint analysis* procedure for each sub-group, two types of conclusion were reached. Firstly relative importance, i.e. the significance of each of the eight attributes in creating the total utility of a tourism package, and secondly, the part-worth utilities revealing preferences based on the level of each attribute. The figures on levels will demonstrate the range from the most to the least preferred. In consequence, the information about the part-worth utilities of the variables reveals the highest rated tourism package profile in the group of respondents.

This data was generated for both the total sample and the selected sub-groups of respondents. Table 3 presents this data for college students for whom

physical activity in tourism is an integral component, and those for whom it is optional<sup>5</sup>.

Analysis of the data demonstrates that in both groups of respondents the greatest importance was attached to the variable described as ‘level of physical activity’ (almost 20%), and the second to ‘level of risk to health or life’ (about 16-18%). Relatively high importance was assigned to ‘contact with nature’, ‘required level of courage’, and ‘element of adventure’ (about 10-15%), while the others – ‘testing psychological and physical abilities’, ‘access to sports and leisure facilities’ and ‘rivalry with others or nature’ did not exceed 10%. The most important for the evaluation of the utility of a tourism package are those attributes creating its actual level, and of lesser importance are those which directly relate to consumer experience.

It is noteworthy that the tourism package profile preferred by both sub-groups is the same – i.e. tourism saturated with ‘inherent’ and ‘optional’ physical culture – with a high level of all variables except the component of risk. Respondents stated that they would achieve the greatest satisfaction when the experiences and emotions emerging as a result of physical activity are accompanied by a feeling of total safety. Therefore, respondents expect trips to create favourable conditions for physical activity (access to the appropriate goods and services), preferably in contact with nature, as well as experiences not available in everyday life

T a b l e 3. The relative importance and part-worth utilities of attributes for respondents participating in physical activity-based tourism by type of trip (N = 680)

Attributes		Levels		Tourism in which a physical activity is							
				inherent (N = 482)			optional (N = 397)				
				W	U <sub>c</sub>	Pref.	W	U <sub>c</sub>	Pref.		
1	Required level of courage	1	low	12.18	-3.30	low	11.46	-2.22	high		
		2	high							3.30	2.22
2	Testing psychological and physical abilities	1	no	9.56	-2.70	yes	9.38	-2.55	yes		
		2	yes							2.70	2.55
3	Rivalry with others or nature	1	no	8.93	-1.46	yes	9.10	-1.08	yes		
		2	yes							1.46	1.08
4	Element of adventure	1	no	10.78	-3.90	yes	10.28	-4.45	yes		
		2	yes							3.90	4.45
5	Level of physical activity	1	low	18.20	-4.91	high	19.23	-4.22	high		
		2	medium							-0.43	0.03
		3	high							5.34	4.19
6	Access to sports and leisure facilities	1	limited	9.24	-2.55	substantial	9.65	-3.18	substantial		
		2	substantial							2.55	3.18
7	Level of risk to health or life	1	low	16.17	1.84	low	18.34	2.62	low		
		2	medium							-1.60	2.15
		3	high							-3.44	-4.78
8	Contact with nature	1	limited	14.93	-5.66	substantial	12.58	-4.95	substantial		
		2	substantial							5.66	4.95

Symbols: W - relative importance [%]; U<sub>c</sub> - part-worth utility; Pref. - preferred level.

S o u r c e: own research based on empirical results.

T a b l e 4. The relative importance and part-worth utilities of attributes for respondents in tourism with inherent physical activity by gender (N=482)

Attributes		Levels		women (N = 305)			men (N = 177)		
				W	U <sub>c</sub>	Pref.	W	U <sub>c</sub>	Pref.
1	Required level of courage	1	low	10.55	-2.45	high	13.78	-4.75	high
		2	high		2.45			4.75	
2	Testing psychological and physical abilities	1	no	10.17	-3.02	yes	8.80	-2.14	yes
		2	yes		3.02			2.14	
3	Rivalry with others or nature	1	no	8.76	-1.26	yes	8.49	-1.79	yes
		2	yes		1.26			1.79	
4	Element of adventure	1	no	10.11	-3.92	yes	10.64	-3.86	yes
		2	yes		3.92			3.86	
5	Level of physical activity	1	low	18.15	-4.68	high	19.27	-5.31	high
		2	medium		-0.24			-0.75	
		3	high		4.92			6.06	
6	Access to sports and leisure facilities	1	limited	9.52	-2.77	substantial	8.72	-2.17	substantial
		2	substantial		2.77			2.17	
7	Level of risk to health or life	1	low	18.20	3.79	low	17.20	-1.52	medium
		2	medium		1.72			1.40	
		3	high		-5.51			0.12	
8	Contact with nature	1	limited	14.54	-5.84	substantial	13.09	-5.35	substantial
		2	substantial		5.84			5.35	

Symbols: *W* - relative importance [%]; *U<sub>c</sub>* - part-worth utility; *Pref.* - preferred level.  
 S o u r c e: own research based on the empirical results.

T a b l e 5. The relative importance and part-worth utilities of attributes for respondents in tourism with optional physical activity by gender (N = 397)

Attributes		Levels		women (N=282)			men (N=115)		
				W	U <sub>c</sub>	Pref.	W	U <sub>c</sub>	Pref.
1	Required level of courage	1	low	11.07	-1.68	high	12.39	-3.54	high
		2	high		1.68			3.54	
2	Testing psychological and physical abilities	1	no	9.37	-2.69	yes	9.41	-2.18	yes
		2	yes		2.69			2.18	
3	Rivalry with others or nature	1	no	9.57	-0.86	yes	7.93	-1.61	yes
		2	yes		0.86			1.61	
4	Element of adventure	1	no	10.40	-4.68	yes	9.98	-3.90	yes
		2	yes		4.68			3.90	
5	Level of physical activity	1	low	19.12	-3.69	high	19.48	-5.50	high
		2	medium		0.14			-0.24	
		3	high		3.55			5.74	
6	Access to sports and leisure facilities	1	limited	9.60	-3.32	substantial	9.76	-2.83	substantial
		2	substantial		3.32			2.83	
7	Level of risk to health or life	1	low	17.91	3.68	low	19.38	0.02	medium
		2	medium		2.30			1.80	
		3	high		-5.98			-1.82	
8	Contact with nature	1	limited	12.95	-5.12	substantial	11.66	-4.53	substantial
		2	substantial		5.12			4.53	

Symbols: *W* - relative importance [%]; *U<sub>c</sub>* - part-worth utility; *Pref.* - preferred level.  
 S o u r c e: own research based on empirical results.

(adventure), the opportunity to test psychological and physical abilities, and the necessity to demonstrate courage. It is interesting that their attitude is positive even to those types of activity which are saturated with 'rivalry with others or nature', a characteristic peculiar to sports activity. In consequence, the interests of respondents are also aroused – apart from various types of active or specialised tourism – by sports tourism packages and adventure tourism. However, expectations are not all sufficiently met by trips whose composition includes an element of risk, for instance poorly-prepared or actively dangerous, or that the programme includes some extreme or highly specialized forms of activity which often turn out to be a risk to the tourist's health or life (see BENTLEY, PAGE & MACKAY 2007, CATER 2006).

As gender is the primary demographic feature which seems to differentiate preferences for physical culture, *conjoint analysis* was undertaken separately for women and men for all tourism packages. The empirical data obtained – concerning tourism with inherent physical activity – is summarized in table 4.

Analysis discloses differences in relative importance for each gender group. Among the variables (with scores above 13%) it can be seen that women indicate the risk factor ( $W_7=18.20$ ), the level of physical activity ( $W_5=18.15$ ) and contact with nature ( $W_8=14.54$ ) as essential features; while men rank the level of physical activity ( $W_5=19.27$ ), the risk factor ( $W_7=17.20$ ), the element of courage ( $W_1=13.78$ ) and contact with nature ( $W_8=13.09$ ). It thus appears that women rank risk more highly but courage less highly than men ( $W_1$  is 10.55% for women and 13.78% for men).

It should be noted that the tourism package preferred by women is exactly the same as for the whole population of active tourists (see table 3), while for men it differs in terms only of the variable 'level of risk to health or life'. While women prefer a feeling of safety to a sense of danger, men move acceptable risk a little further by declaring that risk level should be 'medium'. To analyze this issue more precisely, empirical data concerning part-worth utilities for women and men were also generated, excluding those individuals who aside from the trips discussed here are also involved in tourism in which physical activity is undertaken as optional. Analysis is then limited to describing the preferences of those who may be considered 'pure' tourists by going in for trips without the chance to withdraw from physical activity ( $N = 283$ ). Results here show a greater variation between women's and men's expectations than before. Although the tourism package profile preferred by women still assumes a 'low' level of risk to health or life, the one preferred by men indicates a willingness to take a 'high' level of risk<sup>6</sup>.

The empirical data on preferences for optional physical activity according to gender is presented in table 5.

By analyzing this data it is noted that although women and men rank the variables to some extent differently, these differences do not relate to attributes which are ranked by both groups in the first two positions: level of physical activity and risk factor. This time, differences between preferences mainly concern the level of the latter variable: for women – low, and men – medium. Nevertheless, the part-worth utilities, excluding those for whom physical activity was optional, as well as those in which it was integral, show that among those who participate only in the first ( $N = 198$ ) both men and women prefer a low level of risk. It turns out that men on trips saturated with obligatory physical effort display a willingness to put their own health or life in danger – but that men who participate in tourism with optional physical activity do not show it. Women, however, always expect a high level of safety.

#### 4. RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN TOURISM AND PHYSICAL CULTURE THROUGH THE 'PRISM' OF A PRODUCT – ASSESSMENT OF THE ISSUE AND DIRECTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The search for relationships between tourism and physical culture from the perspective of a product is an interesting and a cognitively useful approach. It reveals significant opportunities for using the theoretical and methodological ideas from economics to recognize the extent to which values related to physical culture are sought and perceived by tourists on trip offers accessible to them. As emphasised, a product is understood here not only as an object of market exchange, but first and foremost as a concept reflecting a structure of tourism activity regardless of who is the initiator of a trip.

Acceptance of the assumptions of neoclassical economics leads to the recognition of a consumer as the entity making the choice of how to meet his/ her own needs and desires in a rational way. In the situation considered here, it means that in making a decision on a tourism trip the consumer chooses from among those accessible the ones for which the ability to meet expectations seem to be the greatest. These expectations are revealed not so much in the trip evaluated as a whole, but to the characteristics that make it up. Thus, the act of choosing a tourism product enriched by attributes related to physical

culture is a consequence of the individual perception of the common ground between tourism and physical culture (an individual aspect) and of the social perception of relationships that exist between these two aspects of culture (the market aspect). Knowledge of this common ground, or at least a reduction in ignorance, may be carried out by using the methods developed in marketing research for finding the meanings ascribed to products and for identifying the attitudes or preferences of consumers.

In this paper examining the social expectations of the presence of attributes describing the physical culture on a trip was demonstrated by empirical research using the multi-attribute method, *conjoint analysis*. In the light of the results, the sample of Kraków's higher education students were distinguished by a high level of participation in physical activity-based tourism, the kind of tourism trips in which the value of physical culture attributes (excepting the risk factor) is high, were preferred. However, it should be noted that the most important were those which relate to the actual level of product, rather than to physical culture experiences. This raises the question of whether responses resulting from the perception of individual attributes were really desirable, or just attractive and creating positive associations. The latter doubt suggests continuing the research using approaches designed to identify explicit and implicit consumer attitudes. It is worth emphasizing that research results so far have revealed a difference between women's and men's preferences in terms of danger to health or life.

Even though the empirical approach presented can be improved, the results show two justified directions of further research. Firstly, the current results should be verified by qualitative methods leading to a better understanding through the analysis and interpretation of the expressions, reactions or the behaviour of respondents, and therefore to help resolve the uncertainties that have arisen. Secondly, for both quantitative and qualitative analysis a more detailed approach is justified, and this may be achieved, for example, through the classification of tourism types (active tourism, specialized tourism; adventure tourism, active sports tourism, passive sports tourism, and educational tourism in the area of sport and physical culture). All these, in addition to achieving cognitive aims may help to reveal socially desirable directions for the development of tourism packages, and directions in terms of participation matching health and recreation motivations as well as in being competitive in free time, compared with offers which promote their absence.

## FOOTNOTES

<sup>1</sup> The study was financed from a grant from the Ministry of Science and Higher Education in 2009-10 as the research project: 'The role of physical culture in the value creation of a tourism product' (no. N N112 018636).

<sup>2</sup> For example Sagan, based on literature research, distinguishes six classes of product dimension: utilitarian, psychological, conformist, ostentatious and distinctive, snobbish, and cultural (SAGAN 2003, p. 74-75). SZCZECHOWICZ (2008, p. 213-222) presented an analysis in the context of tourism products connected with physical culture.

<sup>3</sup> Measures and models of consumer attitudes and preference identification are presented by Sagan in 2004, and the multi-attribute methods are described in the following works: (MAZUREK-ŁOPACIŃSKA, ed. 2005, OBORA 2000, WALESIAK & BĄK 2000).

<sup>4</sup> This result does not add up to 100% because - as already pointed out in Table 2 - 199 respondents declared that they took part in both types of trip

<sup>5</sup> The data obtained for all respondents along with discussion are presented in SZCZECHOWICZ (2012).

<sup>6</sup> Preferences relating to other variables, in this sub-group of respondents, are the same, so they are not included in the presentation of detailed figures about the relative importance of variables and part-worth utilities.

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## VOLUNTEER TOURISM FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF THE SOCIAL SCIENCES

**Abstract:** This article is a survey of research and a presentation of the standpoints of different researchers on volunteer tourism.

**Key words:** volunteer tourism, mass tourism, volunteering.

Volunteer tourism is a social phenomenon whose influence on tourism is increasingly seen. It is associated with kinds of tourism that are in opposition to mass travel<sup>1</sup>. Those who participate in volunteer tourism programmes are for many reasons outside the scope of the tourism industry, requiring services that are new and seldom offered as they want to see places which are usually not visited by tourists and places which are not even treated as tourism attractions. That is why an academic approach to the subject of volunteer tourism seems to be so important as it may play a role in the foundation of practical services for those who deal with the organisation and servicing of tourism.

It seems likely that the demand for travel offers under the terms of volunteer tourism will rise in the near future. Currently in Poland this demand seems to be small, fulfilled mainly by various non-governmental organizations, foundations and associations whose goal is to help the needy. On the one hand these are organizations providing help for those living in other countries, on the other involved in Poland. The latter are not only looking for foreign volunteers but also often operate on the basis of exchange in international networks. In this case a Polish citizen willing to participate in volunteer tourism abroad takes advantage of the offer submitted by such an organization and in return some volunteer tourist from the other country comes to Poland. At present, this type of organization seems sufficient. However, we can presume that in the near future an increasing number of Poles will be interested in travelling on volunteer tourism programmes. Then there will be a chance for the commercial sector to organize such programmes.

The inspiration for this article is therefore an attempt to anticipate the development of volunteer tourism in Poland and to present the work of numerous researchers on the sociology of this phenomenon to those interested – mainly employees of NGO's and of travel agencies. In addition the author's aim is to create a foundation upon which it will be possible to study this in Poland at the present stage of its development. This article is a survey of research and a presentation of the standpoints of different researchers on volunteer tourism. Thus, the aim is to create a broad view of the phenomenon discussed here. Therefore, first the presumed origin of volunteer tourism will be dealt with alongside an attempt to describe its dissemination. The results from different researchers will be presented as they concern the motivation of those who have chosen this way of spending their time. Next, critical arguments concerning this type of tourism will be presented. At the end the conclusions drawn from this work will be presented as they can help tourism industry employees to efficiently organize volunteer tourism.

Volunteer tourism is often associated with the appearance of the category of 'new tourist', who – in contradistinction to a 'mass tourist' – is more aware of the influence on the area which he or she visits (MUSTONEN 2005). Someone who chooses more expensive offers, but those which are eco-friendly, may be considered an ideal type of such a 'new tourist'. Thus, such a tourist may need to spend more money since the most important things are experiences, making new acquaintances, and getting to know other cultures in as authentic a way as possible. That is also why such a person – who because of his or her

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worldview chooses 'couch surfing' as a way to find accommodation, visits places which are generally not considered as attractive, tries to look under the 'mask' which the authorities of a given area show visitors – can also be considered to be a tourist of the new kind. In this context the costs borne by a 'new tourist' during his or her trips do not necessarily have to be higher than those which a mass tourist bears.

A conviction that a new type of tourist has appeared is common among those in the tourism industry. Increasingly voices are encountered speaking about the necessity of more legal regulation in the tourism industry as this industry frequently destroys local resources. It is often compared to the banking sector which is often accused of causing the financial crisis which began in 2007. According to these opinions, the tourism industry should be – much as banks are – under the constant and far-reaching supervision of state institutions. In response to these accusations, at the ITB International Tourism Fair Berlin in 2009, an argument was quoted that a characteristic of the activity of a tourist business is to require a final and binding decision by its customers. On the one hand, this makes efficient state regulation in this industry impossible to implement, and on the other, it ensures certainty that the particular decisions of those who manage this sector cannot cause disastrous results as in the case with banks. Finally, it is the tourist who verifies the information given by a tourist business, and so it does not depend on the opinions of those who manage it (*Let Consumers...* 2009).

An example of a model of a responsible tourist may be one who chooses the so-called volunteer tourism service. 'Volunteer tourism' is understood here as a kind of voluntary departure from the place of residence whose aim is firstly – to meet new people and visit new places, secondly – to do non-profit work. The purpose of this work is to support what is commonly recognized as important and whose effects are commonly considered as positive. The key element here is the non-profit nature of this work. It is not synonymous with not receiving any wages however, it means that the motivation for the work is not a direct financial or material benefit and that it does not allow significant savings. The volunteer tourism discussed here differs from other types of voluntarism with a tourism goal and its inseparable elements such as the cognitive and psychological desire to interact with the natural, cultural and social qualities of the place visited.

According to TOMAZOS & BUTLER (2009), the beginning of volunteer tourism goes back to the summer of 1920 when a group of volunteers were engaged in assisting the inhabitants of a war-damaged village near the French city of Verdun. In the period between the two world wars more initiatives of this kind

appeared and Tomazos & Butler seek its origin in post-war shock and in the pacifist ideals which were also those of Henri Dunant, the founder of the Red Cross. For years this movement has been developing and in recent times an acceleration of this process can be noticed. In their analysis of volunteer tourism, however, they draw attention to the fact that most of the programmes are not operating in the countries which most need them<sup>2</sup>. In 2007 most were in India, Costa Rica and Peru while the authors of this research considered countries such as Afghanistan, Sierra Leone and Burkina Faso as those which needed them most. An explanation could be suggested by simply referring to the feeling of safety. According to this thesis, volunteers would only go to the countries which they consider relatively safe and politically stable. However, such an interpretation does not tally with research on global tourism, according to which tourism in regions that are considered attractive is relatively rapidly restored after a war is over (*We won't...* 2007<sup>3</sup>).

TOMAZOS & BUTLER (2009) also studied other factors which might influence the number of volunteer tourism programmes in a given country and which it appears did not depend on its population. On the other hand, a clearly visible growth of volunteer tourism can best be seen in countries which have been hit by a major natural disaster (e.g. in Thailand, Indonesia and Sri Lanka after the 2004 tsunami), but has not been restricted only to these countries. As Tomazos & Butler claim, these data point to a possibility that behind the development of volunteer tourism are economic factors rather than the actual wish to offer help. It may be said that volunteer tourism is subject to the same market rules as 'common' tourism. Especially that in many cases one has to pay for the opportunity to participate in a programme (and also to pay for travel, food and other expenses)<sup>4</sup>.

To ask questions about the motives of those who decide to participate in volunteer tourism seems obvious<sup>5</sup> and answers will be based on using two kinds of research which differ in form. The first, the authors of which are the above-mentioned TOMAZOS & BUTLER (2010), is a field study carried out among volunteers in a Mexican orphanage. From this a picture emerges of voluntary service as a final result of a long decision process influenced by numerous and varied factors. As far as motives are concerned, participants explained their engagement in the programme in six different ways on the basis of Tomazos & Butler's studies. The first is a wish to get away from the everyday routine at the permanent place of residence, which is often connected with the necessity to break away from problems and pressures which today are a part of life in a highly developed country. The second is a fondness for travel. The third a wish to



repay one's life of privilege and the need to give help to those who are poor and whose poverty is no fault of their own. The fourth is connected with the growing distrust of all kinds of charity organisations which bring help to victims and collect funds in developed countries. Tomazos & Butler associate this distrust with many scandals concerning organisations of this type and those who worked for them. Relief consisting in giving definite sums of money or personal support for a given organisation is increasingly often perceived as insufficient as information is widespread about embezzlement or misappropriation of the funds supposed to be used to help the poorest. In view of all this, volunteers prefer to go to a given place themselves and be personally involved in offering help so as to be certain that what they offer will not be wasted or cynically used by dishonest agents. The source of the fifth kind of motivation is a conviction that there will be real benefits to the volunteer from participating in some programme. Apart from the obvious benefits of gaining new perspectives, new experiences and personal development, what is also important here are the real advantages in the employment market. The experience of voluntary service abroad may be favourably seen by employers. Moreover, it allows an increase in one's knowledge of different forms and possibilities of co-operation between representatives of different cultures. For many people volunteer tourism can also be an opportunity to study a foreign language. The source of the final and sixth kind of motivation is pleasure. For volunteers pleasure is an indispensable element of their trip, and for some of them – as can be seen from the research authors' experience – even the only goal to which their whole stay is subordinated, and this is a cause of dismay to local co-workers.

Contrary to Tomazos & Butler's studies, OOI & LAING (2010) carried out research on volunteer tourism which was a part of a larger project on traveller tourism. Using 249 questionnaires, the authors studied tourists who stayed in one of seven selected hostels near Melbourne in Australia. The authors gave those questioned a set of possible answers based on the literature. Thus, it should be emphasised that the kinds of motivation distinguished here are not the result of an analysis of causal opinions of the tourists. However, the Ooi & Laing research enabled their authors to establish a ranking of different kinds of motivation. At the beginning are found such motives as 'experiencing something different and new', 'the wish to travel', 'getting acquainted with other cultures' and 'interaction with the local population'. It was only in 8<sup>th</sup> place that the wish 'to make a difference' was found while 'doing something valuable' was 9<sup>th</sup>, supporting communities in developing countries' appeared 12<sup>th</sup>, while 'working with com-

munities in developing countries' was 13<sup>th</sup>. It seems pointless to mention all the kinds of motivation distinguished, however, it is important that the top places were taken by motives which came rather from the personal needs of volunteers for individual development rather than altruism or empathy.

Apart from the research results, Ooi & Laing added some more reflections of their own, throwing new light on questions concerning volunteers' motivations. First, they draw attention to the fact that people who decide to go on such trips may be influenced by their wish to improve their own image and emphasise their own individualism. This reflection seems particularly important in view of the frequent opposition of volunteer tourism to mass tourism, and stressing the altruistic motivation of the volunteers<sup>6</sup>. Second, the authors emphasise that for many an important argument which leads them to go on such a trip is the opportunity to get to know new people and to make new friends. And third, they claim that a motivation is their conviction that they would be visiting an area whose nature and culture are of a unique character. And this may explain the issue brought up earlier of why some countries are more popular among these organisations than others.

Discussing the motivations of volunteers, it is worth adding that they see themselves as tourists differing from the 'typical', and they evaluate this otherness positively, and wish to emphasise it (e.g. LEPP 2009).

It should also be said that if those who are determined to go abroad within a volunteer tourism programme may define their motives differently to those who supervise their work and are their guides who see volunteers as a source of funds and a workforce for their project. Such a conclusion can be drawn from COGHLAN'S (2008) studies. She interviewed six employees of organisations which deal with volunteer tourism.

A comprehensive criticism of volunteer tourism was made by SIMPSON (2004). She based her reflections on an analysis of organisations which offer trips to older British teenagers. According to tradition, many of them spend a year of their lives, most often after they have completed their secondary education and before they start university studies, doing things which are not directly connected with the educational system while acquiring experience and practical knowledge. At that time many of them go for trips abroad to participate in volunteer tourism programmes. Simpson focused her attention on the negative aspects of these programmes. She claims that they are conducive to ethnocentrism and they are also its manifestation. This is because they are based on a conviction that the development of societies occurs

uni-directionally and is to be determined by changes in societies which are a part of Western culture. According to such an assumption, countries of different cultures whose social and economic standards are different, should for their own good become similar to the countries of the West. Volunteer tourism programmes adopt such a line of reasoning by thinking that some countries need help from the outside and the proper people to give such help are British (or any other Western) young people. The key phrases are for instance 'to make a difference', 'to do something valuable' etc. adopted by numerous organisations, are aimed at replacing an outdated and generally criticised notion of 'progress'. Simpson also draws our attention to the fact that people who have no qualifications are sent abroad to take part in volunteer tourism programmes. That is why it can be stated that their only qualification is simply being members of highly developed Western societies. Those who organise volunteer tourism also concentrate on short-term (according to the definition adopted: not more than a year long) activities instead of taking care of long-term strategies lasting many years. The arbitrary decisions made by organisations of this kind, due to which some countries are considered to be more in need of assistance than others, are a further issue. It should also be said that such things as famine and poverty become themselves tourism attractions, and their showing and describing functions to draw more tourists.

After having interviewed the volunteers, Simpson formulated some further critical arguments against this type of tourism. First, she said that participants in such programmes begin to see poverty in countries of the Third World as the only factor which distinguishes them from developed countries. They also very often think that those who suffer poverty are happy with what they have and that they expect from life much less than Western citizens. Comparing their own life situation with those of people whom they encounter when they work as volunteers leads many of them to the conclusion that fate determines everything. The fatalistic belief in 'good luck' or in some supernatural power, which divides people into rich and poor, draws attention away from the real processes of political and economic exploitation. Additionally, volunteer tourism can serve as a source of confirming stereotypes and a conviction about the irreducible otherness or strangeness of the inhabitants of the Third World.

It should be added here that this may result in a kind of reinforcement of stereotypes of the West itself and in the strengthening of its negative image. After all, the image of ignorant Westerners who go around the world and spread their customs, modern technologies and their idea of progress, is one of the

main components of Occidentalism, understood as 'an image of the West, drawn by its enemies, and refusing humanity to its inhabitants' (BURUMA & MARGALIT 2005). It should also be added that tourism is sometimes generally considered as a symptom of neo-colonialism (PODEMSKI 2005, p. 40-44).

Kate Simpson is not the only researcher who is critical of volunteer tourism. However, her opinions are probably more extreme but they allow us to look at this issue from a new point of view. Much less explicit in their opinions are RAYMOND & HALL (2008). They conducted comprehensive studies of ten organisations which deal with volunteer tourism programmes. Their research comprised interviews with employees of these organisations, 'focus studies' among volunteers and starting a blog inviting comments on the results. Research showed that volunteer tourism, by making direct contacts between volunteers and inhabitants of a given region possible, supports the process of disturbing the stereotypes that both have of one another. On the other hand, it was also found that in many cases the knowledge which makes it possible to do away with stereotypes is considered simply to be an exception to the rule. These authors found that the phenomenon of better cross-cultural understanding may indeed be a result of one's stay in a foreign country within the volunteer tourism programme. However, it does not occur automatically in all cases.

Based on their research, Raymond & Hall formulated three pieces of advice for organisations which send volunteers abroad. First, it is important that the programme they develop should fulfil the needs of local communities. So, first of all volunteers should not take the workplaces of the inhabitants or question the value of the jobs done by them. Second, organisations should motivate volunteers to reflect on and use their own experiences concerning other cultures. A way to resolve these problems could be the organisation of discussions or the encouragement to write diaries. Third, the process of mutual acquaintance of volunteers and the inhabitants of a given area, e.g. through placing volunteers in homes of the local population, or by assigning volunteers and local workers to carry out the assigned tasks together. This is even more important, according to the results of Raymond & Hall's studies, than the thesis that volunteers understand other cultures better through staying in multicultural groups of other volunteers. Organisations often bring together volunteers of the same nationality or of the same culture. Sometimes they even try to send for a selected programme those who have much more in common (e.g. everybody they send are young Britons).

COGHLAN (2008) would add another piece of advice: employees of organisations which prepare

volunteer tourism programmes should realise that people of different qualifications and motivations decide to take such trips. Therefore, care should be taken to place them well, self-development and tasks should be given to appropriate people. Those who manage volunteer tourism programmes in places where they are carried out should also possess the same competences as those of tourism guides.

Volunteer tourism, whose rapid development has been observed in recent years, is an unusually interesting phenomenon from a sociological point of view. It is hoped that academic understanding can be the foundation for the practical endeavours of tourism industry employees who address their offer to customers whose needs and demands are increasingly varied. Advice provided by experienced researchers who know the market for services related to volunteer tourism in other countries, may be a source of inspiration to activities for non-profit organizers of this type of programme.

At the theoretical level it should be noted that volunteer tourism is an extremely interesting phenomenon, which is further evidence of the changes taking place in the modern societies of developed countries. The emergence of new tourism categories of which volunteer tourism is certainly one, is a reflection of the fact that the traditional formula of tourism in these societies has reached a limit. Today increasing emphasis is put on such things as the full experience and emotional processing of new stimuli, not only to the process of receiving them. Visiting a monument and taking a picture of it becomes to a large group of people an insufficient experience. Volunteer tourism allows experience of a different environment in a unique way, combined with the awareness of helping other people or joining a cause (e.g. environmental one). The development of volunteer tourism can assume that the needs of a contemporary tourist will evolve to become even more complex.

#### FOOTNOTES

<sup>1</sup> Although it is difficult to consider volunteer tourism as a form of alternative tourism, cf.: ISAŃSKI (2008, pp. 30-33).

<sup>2</sup> The need for help was measured using the HDI development index, used also by the United Nations.

<sup>3</sup> According to a study published by Tourism Intelligence International and described in this article, the number of British tourists returned to its regular level 8 months after the end of the hostilities. In the case of German tourists it took 11 months.

<sup>4</sup> Sometimes it is considered as a distinguishing factor between the volunteer tourism and the regular volunteer work, cf. OOI & LAING (2010, p. 192).

<sup>5</sup> It should be noted that – as claimed by PODEMSKI & ISAŃSKI (2008) – “tourists are among the most difficult groups of respondents in social science research”.

<sup>6</sup> The idea according to which mass tourism and volunteer tourism are something totally different, perhaps even contradictory, and that volunteering tourism is a result of the need to help others, is present not only in the academic literature, but also in journalistic texts – cf. FLOREK (2009).

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# SCIENTIFIC NOTE

Tourism 2012, 22/2

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## PROFILES OF FIRST YEAR TOURISM AND RECREATION STUDENTS: UNIVERSITY OF ŁÓDŹ FACULTY OF GEOGRAPHICAL SCIENCES (ACADEMIC YEAR 2011/12)

Education for the tourism industry has been associated with the University of Łódź since 1977 (their evolution has been fully presented by LISZEWSKI 2006, 2008). The current course – *Turystryka i Rekreacja* (Tourism and Recreation) is divided into two separated stages: a three-year *licencjat* (bachelor equivalent) and a two-year *magister* (master's equivalent). Courses are conducted both as full-time and weekend part-time.

In 1995-2000 in the journal *Turyzm* there was a cycle of publications on the profiles of candidates for degrees in the Geography of Tourism and the Hospitality Industry, based on data collected during the recruitment process (JAKÓBCZYK-GRYSZKIEWICZ & WŁODARCZYK 1995, JAŹDŹEWSKA & WOLANIUK 1996, STASIAK & WŁODARCZYK 1997, RZEŃCA & SZKUP 1998, LAWIN & SZKUP 2000). In the following years such research was abandoned. This situation was recognized as inappropriate because knowing students' needs may to some extent contribute to a better adjustment of the curriculum to their expectations. For this reason in the academic year 2010/11 similar research was conducted among first year 'Tourism and Recreation' students (MARO-KULCZYCKA 2010). Directly asking candidates questions has become impossible, as they no longer take an entrance exam (recruitment is based on the results of final exams at the end of school and over the internet). In the academic year 2011/12 this research was undertaken for a second time.

The main objective was to find answers to the following questions: where did students find out about the course; why did they choose it; and what were their expectations and future plans? In addition, they were asked about certificates in the field of tourism, membership of tourism organizations, tourism

trips in 2011 and whether 'Tourism and Recreation' was their only degree course.

Research was conducted during classes on November 6<sup>th</sup> and 20<sup>th</sup> 2011 (weekend part-time course) and November 10<sup>th</sup> and 17<sup>th</sup> (full-time course). The questionnaire consisted of nine questions (both open and closed) and a further nine on background personal details. The goal was to question all students but after conducting the survey and checking the data it proved impossible to achieve.

A total of 96 students filled in the questionnaire correctly – 63 from the full-time course and 33 from the weekend part-time course. There were slightly more female than male (52 out of 96 respondents). As to age structure, a strong predominance of respondents aged 19-20 can be noticed (84.7% of students, fig. 1).

Overall, for the vast majority of respondents 'Tourism and Recreation' is their only degree course – only four had another.

The majority of respondents had attended a *liceum* (secondary/high school), and significantly less – a *technikum* (technical secondary school, table 1).

Table 1. Schools attended

Type of school attended (n=96) as a percentage	
<i>Liceum</i> (secondary/high school)	68.8
<i>Liceum profilowane</i> (vocationally specialised secondary school)	6.3
<i>Technikum</i> (technical secondary school)	18.8
Others	6.3

Source: author's research.

Among the 18 from a *technikum*: seven were from a hotel administration profile, three from economics and catering profiles, one each from logistics, ICT, horse breeding, sanitary installation, and landscape architecture. Six from schools abroad (in Belarus and in Kazakhstan) and from a music school chose 'others'.

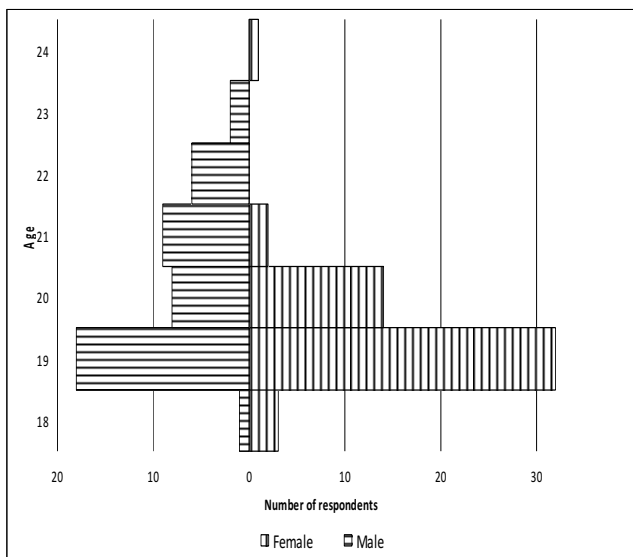


Fig. 1. Gender and age structure of respondents  
Source: author's research

Respondents were also asked about their final school exams. In addition to the obligatory Polish, a foreign language and mathematics, 81 students had taken geography (61 at extended level), 13 social studies (8 at extended level), eight history and three biology.

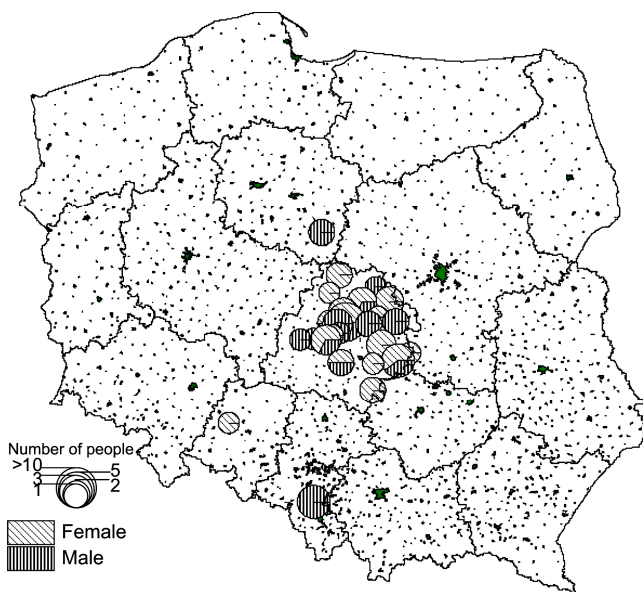


Fig. 2. Students' home towns  
Source: author's research

The respondents were asked about their home town (fig. 2). Out of 96, six came from abroad: Belarus (4), Kazakhstan and Ukraine. As for Poland, the vast majority of students (91.7%) came from Łódź Voivodeship. Only four came from others - Silesian (2), Opolskie and Kujawsko-Pomorskie. This situation shows the regional focus of the 'Tourism and Recreation' course at the University of Łódź, confirmed as more than a half of the students from Łódź Voivodeship live outside of the city. This structure is similar to that from the previous academic year when 88.1% of respondents came from Łódź Voivodeship (MAROKULCZYCKA 2010).

The respondents were also asked to state their current place of residence (fig. 3). All students live in Łódź Voivodeship - the vast majority (70.8%) in Łódź itself. Taking the type of course into account, more full-time students live in Łódź. This situation is probably due to practical reasons as daily commuting from other towns is expensive, time consuming or often simply impossible. Full-time students that do not live in Łódź live in places close to the city (Zgierz, Konstantynów Łódzki) or in towns with convenient communications (Koluszki). Almost 3/4 of respondents live with their families (parents or grandparents) while 15.6% rent flat with friends. Slightly more than 10% live in a student hostel.

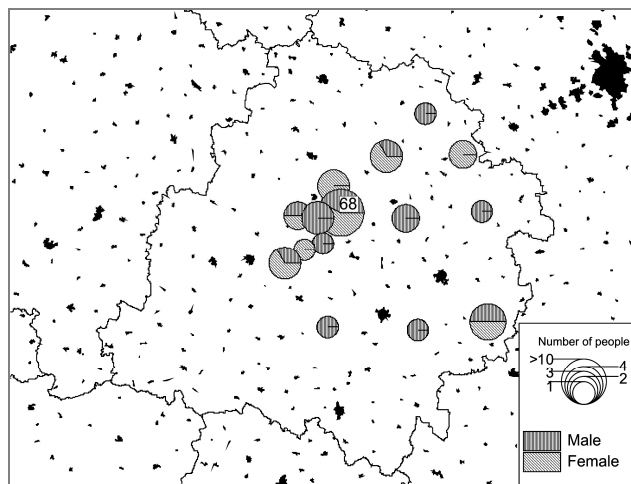


Fig. 3. Respondents' current places of residence in Łódź Voivodeship  
Source: author's research

The most common sources of information about the 'Tourism and Recreation' course were those collected from friends or family and also from the official webpage of the *Instytut Geografii Miast i Turyzmu* (Institute of Urban Geography and Tourism). These sources covered 80% of the total (fig. 4). From the perspective of course designers this should be considered successful, as 'word-of-mouth' information demonstrates the positive image of the 'Tourism and

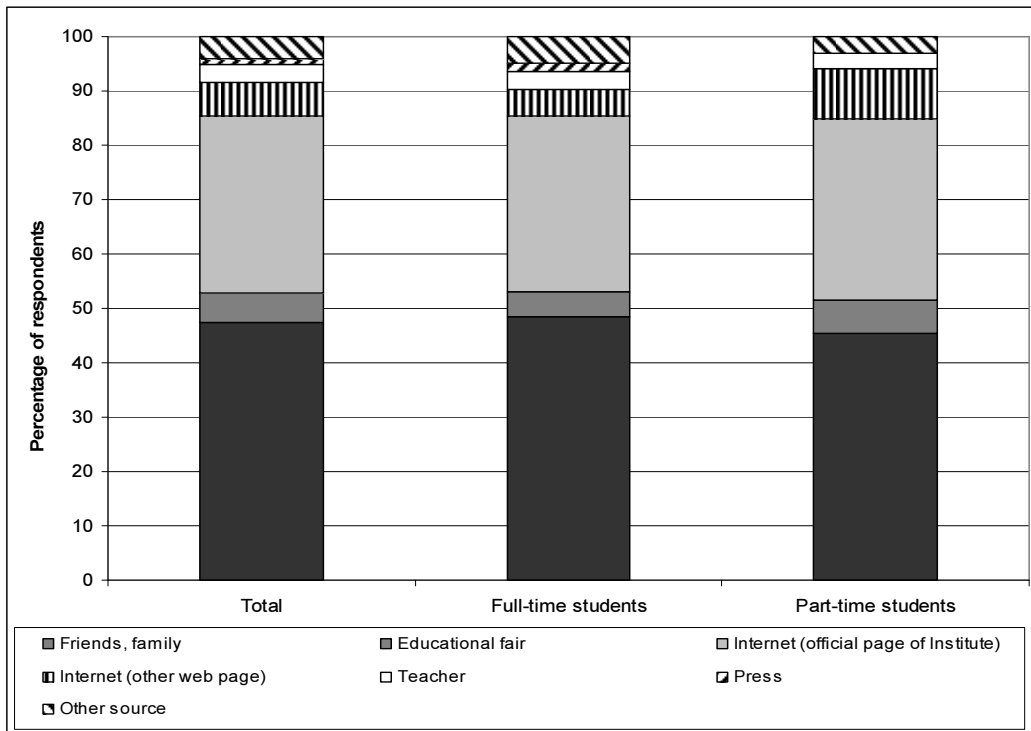


Fig. 4. Sources of knowledge about the 'Tourism and Recreation' course at the University of Łódź  
S o u r c e: author's research

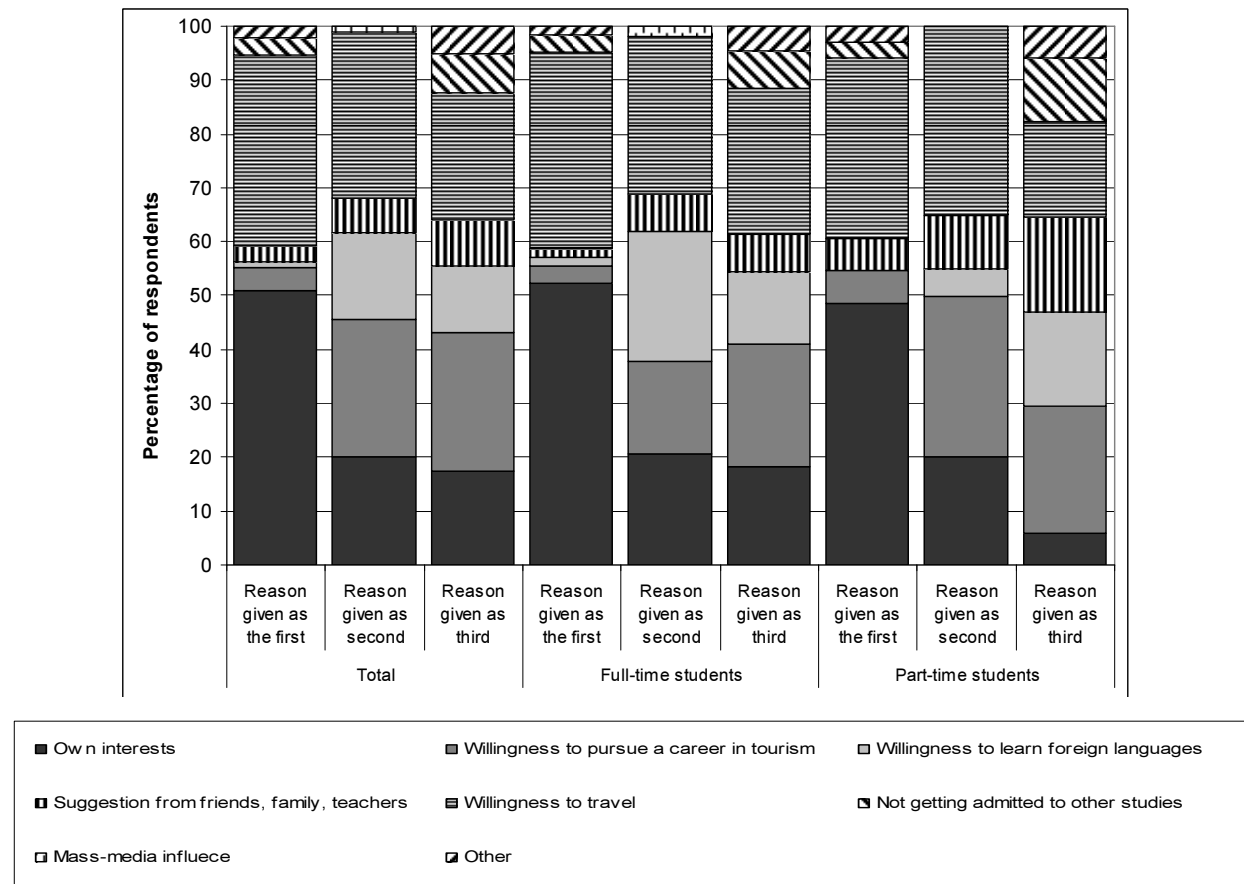


Fig. 5. Reasons for choosing 'Tourism and Recreation' at the University of Łódź (In each case in the graph 'as first etc reason')  
S o u r c e: author's research

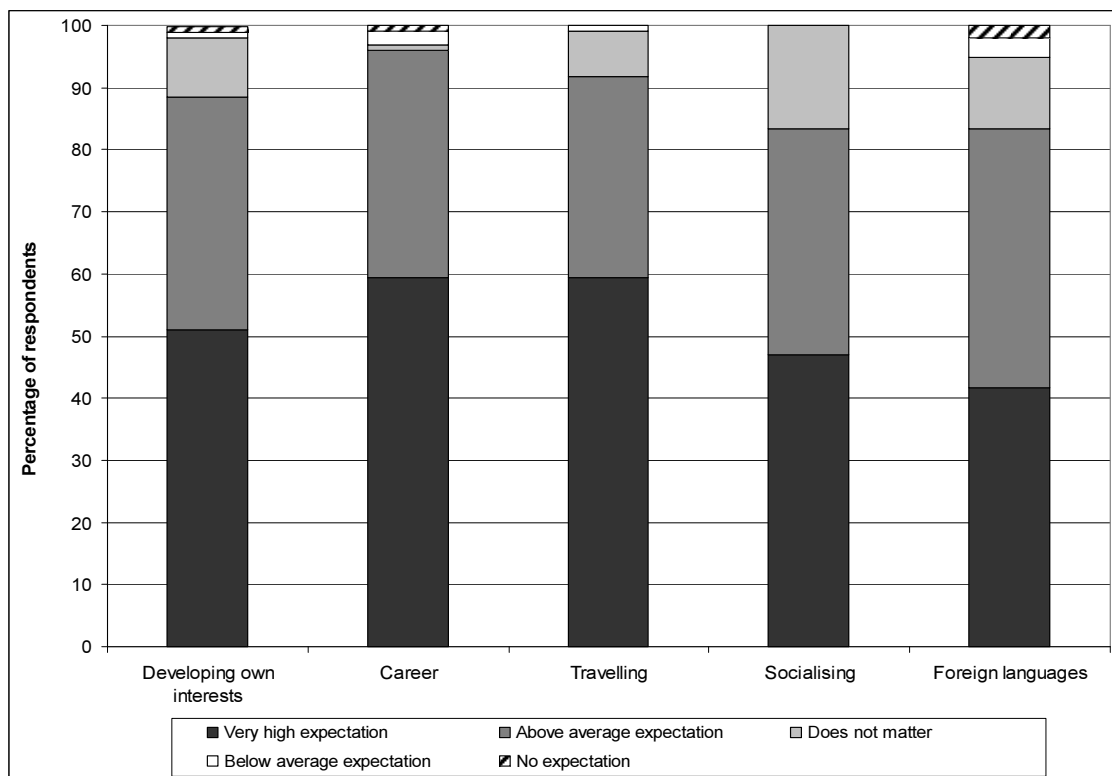


Fig. 6. Students' expectations from the course  
S o u r c e: author's research

Recreation' course among those interested in higher education. The importance of the official webpage shows that it is well-constructed and well-run. The popularity of the webpage has been taken into account by the course designers and in December 2011 a new, more interactive version was launched.

Other webpages (e.g. the official page on the University of Łódź) were a third, but considerably less important, source, mentioned by 6.3% of respondents (9.1% among weekend part-time students).

Another issue considered was the reason for choosing this course (fig. 5). Respondents gave a total of 271 responses, giving ranks from 1 (the most important) to 3 (the least important). At least two reasons were named by 94 students and three by 81. The most common were 'own interests' (82 responses, 49 with rank '1') and 'willingness to travel and learn about the world' (73, 34 with rank '1'). The third reason (but less often declared – 49) was 'willingness to pursue a career in tourism'. It should be mentioned that this reason was generally given in second or third place; it was considered more important by weekend part-time students than for full-time students. Other reasons were 'a willingness to study foreign languages' (26) and 'suggestions from friends or family' (16). Further reasons were given only by a very small number of students.

The reasons for choosing 'Tourism and Recreation' as a course were to a large extent consistent with the reasons given by candidates for the Geography of Tourism and the Hospitality Industry in 1994-1999 and by students of 'Tourism and Recreation' in the academic year 2010/11 (JAKÓBCZYK-GRYSZKIEWICZ & WŁODARCZYK 1995, JAŹDZEWSKA & WOLANIUK 1996, STASIAK & WŁODARCZYK 1997, RZEŃCA & SZKUP 1998, LAWIN & SZKUP 2000, MARO-KULCZYCKA 2010).

In 1994-9 the primary motivation was 'learning about the subject' which was given by between 20% and 40% of candidates. An important reason was also 'own interest in tourism and geography' mentioned by 25.9% (1994) and 50% in 1996. Aspiring students also mentioned 'willingness to travel and learn about the world', a factor for 33% of candidates (1996) to more than 70% (1998-9). In the academic year 2010/11 the most important reasons were 'own interests' (76 answers) and 'willingness to travel and learn about the world' (73 answers).

The next question referred to expectations from the course (fig. 6). Respondents were asked to select to what extent they expect to fulfil each of five given elements (on a scale from 'very high expectation' to 'no expectation').

Students expect to find a job after the course: 95.8% had an 'above average expectation' or a 'very high



expectation'. Almost equally popular expectations were travelling (91.7% respondents had had an 'above average expectation' or a 'very high expectation') and developing own interests (88.5%). Less important were socializing and learning foreign languages, but they still had a high rate of responses (83.3% each) in the top two categories.

Respondents were also asked about certificates held in the field of tourism and about their membership of tourism organizations. In both cases negative answers dominated. Only 14.6% of students had any certificate and just 6.3% were members of tourism organizations. Among certificates the most popular were those connected with sailing and swimming – five students were qualified 'yacht sailors' (*patent żeglarski*) and four were lifeguards (*ratownik WOPR*). Four respondents were entitled to look after children on summer camps (*opiekun kolonijny*), two were qualified holiday organizers (*animator czasu wolnego*) and two had completed a climbing course. As for tourism organizations, five respondents were members of *Polskie Towarzystwo Turystyczno-Krajozawcze* (Polish Tourist and Sightseeing Society) and one *Polskie Towarzystwo Schronisk Młodzieżowych* (the Polish branch of Hostelling International). As in the previous academic year, this situation seems to be worrying in the context of reasons for choosing a course. If 'own interests' were the most important factor, why are they not followed up by practical action? It should be noted that this situation recalls a negative trend visible among candidates for the Geography of Tourism and the Hospitality Industry degree in 1994-9 (LAWIN & SZKUP 2000). During this period membership of such organizations dropped significantly from 33% in 1994 through 25% in 1996 to 9.1% in 1999.

In the following question, respondents were asked about their future plans (both personal and professional). Students usually mentioned several and in total 99 career-related plans were presented (some students had no plans, some had more than one), with 67.7% connected with tourism (fig. 7). The biggest group was 'Career in tourism' (unspecified) - approximately one fifth. A further group of respondents (one third) simply want to have a professional job, not necessarily in tourism.

As for personal plans, the most common were graduating (18 times) and travelling (15 times). Moreover, nine want to live abroad, four to learn foreign languages, to meet new people or simply to be happy. Other plans were mentioned by just one or two students, and among the most original were becoming a dance instructor, film editor, a landlord, a stunt performer and a horse riding instructor.



Fig. 7. Professional plans of respondents  
Source: author's research

Future plans are to a large extent similar to those declared by candidates for Geography of Tourism and the Hospitality Industry in 1994-6 and 'Tourism and Recreation' in the academic year 2011/11 (table 2). Compared to previous years there were fewer plans connected with tourism.

Table 2. Future plans declared by candidates for Geography of Tourism and the Hospitality Industry (1994-6) and by first-year students of 'Tourism and Recreation' in 2010 and 2011

Plans	Year				
	1994	1995	1996	2010 (n=104)	2011 (n=114)
	%				
Travelling	23.1	-	27	18.3	13.2
Working as a tourist guide <sup>a</sup>	23.8	23	47.7	9.6	10.5
Working in travel office/hotel	36.2	50	26.7	21.1	18.4
Working in tourism industry (unspecified)	-	-	11.1	26.0	18.4
Working as a holiday representative	-	-	-	10.6	11.4
Other professional plans	6.8	-	-	14.4	28.1

Source: JAKÓBCZYK-GRYSZKIEWICZ & WŁODACZYK (1995), JAŻDŹEWSKA & WOLANIUK (1996), RZEŃCA & SZKUP (1998), STASIAK & WŁODARZYK (1997), LAWIN & SZKUP 2000, MARO-KULCZYCKA (2010) and author's research.

Compared to previous research, the current questionnaire was extended with a question about students' tourism travel in 2011. In this year  $\frac{3}{4}$  of respondents had participated in such activity. Among 71 travellers, the most popular country was Poland – 52 people – with the most popular places being Zakopane (14) and Mielno (8). As for foreign destinations, five travelled to Spain, four each to the Czech Republic and France, and three to each of Bulgaria, Italy, Germany, Turkey, Egypt and England (table 3).

Table 3. Students' travel destinations in 2011

Country	Number	Country	Number
Poland	52	Croatia	2
Spain	5	Hungary	2
Czech Republic	4	Slovakia	2
France	4	Tunisia	1
Bulgaria	3	Albania	1
Italy	3	Russia	1
Germany	3	Ukraine	1
Turkey	3	Denmark	1
Egypt	3	Lithuania	1
'England'	3	Montenegro	1
Netherlands	2	Sweden	1
Austria	2	USA	1
Greece	2	Slovenia	1

Source: author's research.

Having taken into consideration the aims of the research it can be stated that:

1. The most common sources of information about the 'Tourism and Recreation' Course at the University of Łódź were from friends or family (47.4% responses) and the official webpage of the Institute of Urban Geography and Tourism (32.6%).
2. The most important reasons for choosing this course were the students' own interests (30.2%) and willingness to travel and learn about the world (30.3%). Slightly less significant was the opportunity to pursue a career in tourism (18.1%).
3. Students expect from the course an opportunity to find a job (95.8% had an 'above average expectation' or a 'very high expectation') and the chance to travel (91.7% an 'above average expectation' or a 'very high expectation'). Developing their own interests was also a significant expectation.

4. In the future 67.7% would be willing to work in the field of tourism. The most popular personal plans are to graduate and to travel around the world.

It may seem worrying that most students do not have any tourism certificates and do not belong to tourism organizations. This means that their declared personal interests are not being followed by practical action. However, their interest may also be developed during tourism travel, in which 76% of respondents participated in 2011. Those were mainly domestic trips.

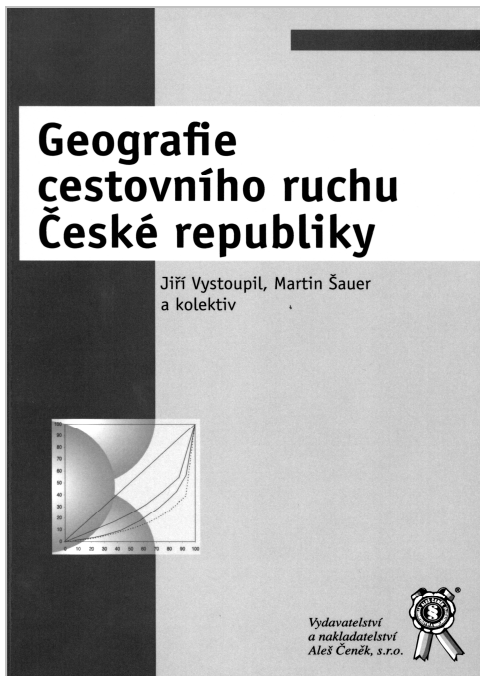
The profile of first-year students of 'Tourism and Recreation' at the University of Łódź has been prepared for a second time but does not allow conclusions to be drawn about existing or non-existing long-term trends. It should be noted, however, that conducting this type of research may provide a better understanding of students' needs and expectations. It is especially important in the context of the recruitment process. Current electronic recruitment, based on points from final school exams, does not allow advance knowledge of those who are going to begin the course at the University of Łódź.

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# REVIEW

Tourism 2012, 22/2



## TOURISM GEOGRAPHY IN THE CZECH REPUBLIC [GEOGRAFIE CESTOVNIHO RUCHU ČESKÉ REPUBLIKY]

JÍŘI VYSTOUPIL, MARTÍN ŠAUER *ET AL.*

ALEŠ ČENĚK PUBLISHING HOUSE s.r.s.  
PLZEŇ 2011, pp. 315

The book, presented as a single volume, is the first overall work on Czech tourism geography published by geographers from the Czech Republic. The six authors are a team of academics from the Faculty of Regional Economics, Masaryk University in Brno, led by Jiří Vystoupil and Martin Šauer.

*Tourism geography in the Czech Republic* contains 315 pages and is divided into eight chapters. A further chapter, nine, is a glossary of terms used. The publication ends with a short (two-page) summary in English, an ample bibliography, information about the authors, as well as lists of tables (47), figures and graphs (27), maps in black and white (12) and in colour (20).

The book opens with a short preface where the authors accentuate the pioneering character of the publication and present its layout.

In Chapter 1 (pp. 9-21), entitled 'The geographical study of tourism and recreation in the Czech Republic', the authors present research development and discussion on the purpose and range of tourism studies in the Czech Republic. The work which is considered to be that which started the discussion was written by Häufler in 1955. Later publications include those by Šprincova, Vystoupil, Gardavski, Bicik, Havrland, Mariot and some other, younger geographers. The main subjects in the field of tourism and recrea-

tion include tourism potential and individual sites, issues concerning the short-term recreation of city inhabitants, second homes, urban and rural tourism, etc. This chapter presents geographers' achievements as regards cartographic work, methods of measuring tourism, and environmental protection in tourism, but also notes prepared for students and textbooks, as well as applied research.

A separate sub-chapter is devoted to a short presentation of the main tourism geography research centres in the Czech Republic, of which four are called 'geographical schools of thought': Prague, Brno, Olomouc and Ostrava. Other centres where tourism studies are conducted include the universities in Plzeň, Liberec, Usti nad Labem, České Budějovice, Pardubice and Hradec Králové.

The whole chapter is a well prepared compendium of knowledge on the research and the centres dealing with tourism geography in the Czech Republic.

Chapter 2 ('The history of the development of tourism in the Czech Republic', pp 22-34), presents stages in the influence of various organizations on the development of tourism in the Czech Republic.

Beginning in the 19<sup>th</sup> c., the authors divide the history of tourism into four periods: before 1918, 1918-48, 1948-89 and after 1990; presenting the most

important events in the history of Czech tourism in each period, describing them, and illustrating with tables.

It is worth noticing that the authors consider the founding of the Czech Tourist Club in 1888 and *Časopisu turistů* in 1889 (one of the oldest tourism periodicals in Europe) to be the beginning of organized tourism in the country.

In the next chapter (pp. 34-77), the authors present the natural and cultural-historical potential of tourism in the Czech Republic and discuss its distribution. With regard to natural potential, the authors analyse the distribution of all natural assets (Table 3.1), presenting protected natural areas, dividing them into national parks (6) and the protected landscape areas (25) which cover 13.7% of the country's area. They also mention national and local nature reserves and 'monuments of nature'. Each of the national parks and protected landscape areas is briefly discussed and then the authors describe the use of these areas for tourism purposes (tables 3.3, 3.4, and 3.5), quoting the number of beds available, the density of available beds per km<sup>2</sup>, and per 100 inhabitants, as well as defining the character of the landscape and the season when the area is actively used for tourism.

While discussing the tourism potential of the cultural-historical assets, the authors list the cultural-historical monuments, architectural monuments (historical town centres, buildings, urban and rural architecture, historical technological and military sites, historical churches), both material and non-material values (language, traditions, etc.), and cultural institutions (museums, theatres, etc).

A round-up to this part of the chapter is the presenting of UNESCO protected cultural-historical monuments (12 sites). The chapter ends with two maps showing the distribution of the sites which comprise the tourism potential of the country.

Chapter 4 is devoted to the presentation of infrastructure, illustrated with numerous tables, maps and graphs. Its analysis starts with a description of changes over time and space of tourism accommodation. In 2010, there were over 449,000 beds available in the Czech Republic, 32,500 of which were in Prague, 26,500 in the Trutnov Oblast and 14,800 in Karlovy Vary. In the last 14 years, accommodation resources in the Czech Republic have increased by over 100,000 (over 30%) available beds.

When discussing the sport and recreational infrastructure, the authors stress the importance of new forms of transport (by air, motorways, etc.), which has made the Czech Republic available to foreign tourists.

The authors pay a lot of attention to winter sports facilities (ski lifts, ski runs and cross-country skiing trails), as well as to the infrastructure used in hiking (marked trails, thematic routes and educational trails),

cycling tourism (the development of marked cycle routes) and other forms of sport and recreation. The chapter is illustrated with tables, maps and graphs.

Chapter 5 (pp. 104-158) is entitled 'The main forms of tourism'. The authors discuss nine that have developed in the Czech Republic which they consider to be the most important: urban tourism (nearly 12 million visitors and over 36.5 million bed-nights), rural tourism (a traditional form of city inhabitants since the 19<sup>th</sup> c.), congress and trade fair tourism, and spa tourism (in 2008, there were 86 spas in the Czech Republic, offering 46,000 beds). Spas are categorized: international category I includes Karlovy Vary; international category II includes a further six spas; the national category – eight; while those remaining belong to regional and local categories. Other forms of tourism discussed are summer (e.g. beside water) recreation, winter, wine-tasting, and golf tourism (as a specialized form), as well as second home tourism. Statistically, in 2000, there were 433,000 second homes in the Czech Republic; their distribution is presented in tables and figures. It is interesting that a significant 'deconcentration' occurs over a period of 20 years (1971-91), demonstrated by coefficients of 92.6 and 79.4, respectively. The chapter ends with two short sub-chapters, devoted to the typology of functions at tourism destinations and the functional and spatial transformation of tourism in the Czech Republic.

Chapter 6 (pp. 159-180) is devoted to tourists and other visitors to the Czech Republic. The analysis was conducted in a traditional way and includes number (6.6 million foreign and 6.1 million domestic tourists in 2000), seasonality (the summer season predominates - 43%), as well as the spatial range of places of origin (84.7% from Europe, including 22.2% from Germany) and their distribution within the area of the Czech Republic (Prague highest, with 6.9%). The chapter is very well documented with statistical tables and maps. The thematic maps are a particularly interesting feature (figs 6, 11, 12, 13 and 14), showing the arrivals of foreign tourists from Europe and Czechs' journeys abroad.

An interesting section is Chapter 7 (pp. 181-193), entitled 'The tourism regionalization of the Czech Republic'. The authors present their principles of regionalization, as well as discussing the results. Figure 7.1 is worth particular attention because it shows the tourism regionalization of the Czech Republic '*as the Germans see it*', as well as the regionalization historically in 1981.

The last, and at the same time, the longest chapter of the book (pp. 194-262) is entitled 'Tourism profiles of the Czech Republic'. The authors discuss here 14 areas following an identical pattern. It is a description of these areas as they are today including detailed statistical and other information. It covers Prague and

the regions (*kraj*): Středočeský, Jihočeský, Plzeňský, Karlovarský, Ústecký, Liberecký, Královéhradecký, Pardubický, Vysočina, Jihomoravský, Olomoucký, Zlínský, Severomoravský.

When discussing 'tourism profiles' there is a certain inconsistency as they do not correspond to the territorial division presented on the map of 'tourism regions' (p. 309).

As said at the beginning, the book contains a long list of references (over 250), mainly Czech and Slovakian. It appears that the authors have listed a great majority of the tourism-related works which have been published there which has a great documentary value.

In conclusion to this review, I would like to stress a few general points. As promised, the book is a geographical 'monograph' on tourism in the right sense of this word, i.e. a research study based on statistical and cartographic analysis. The layout is typical of this type of work, although the authors have added a number of new features, e.g. presenting the main forms of tourism or including valuable information about 'schools of thought' and other university centres in the Czech Republic with tourism research. A very good idea was to include a glossary at the end which helps in studying the contents.

The authors should be envied for their wide access to statistical data concerning tourism issues, e.g. second homes or tourism figures (especially across time), which in Poland would be virtually impossible.

It is regrettable that the authors did not consider achievements from other disciplines dealing with tourism (economists, sociologists, psychologists, etc.). Even though geographers have the greatest achievements in tourism studies, they are not the only ones interested in the subject. I also believe that the English summary of the work is too short and says little about the contents.

In general, I would like to express my appreciation of the book and encourage it to be read. After a long period of stagnation, tourism geography in the Czech Republic is clearly reviving, shown not only here but in the publication of the *Atlas of Tourism in the Czech Republic* in 2006, and in the first issue of a new journal, entitled *Czech Journal of Tourism* (1/2012).

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# REPORT

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Tourism 2012, 22/2

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## *TOURISM / TURYZM 2001-10*

### 1. INTRODUCTION

*Turyzm/Tourism* is an academic journal devoted to the theory of tourism which has been published in Poland for 28 years. It features papers by academics from various disciplines dealing with tourism and it contains research findings, theoretical discussion and practical investigations as well. The journal presents previously unpublished before articles, reviews and research notes containing results of original empirical work, as well as book reviews, reports and current information. Since July 2012, the articles included in *Turyzm/Tourism* have been awarded 'six points' by the Ministry of Science and Higher Education.

*Turyzm* began publication in 1985. In 1985-90 it was issued once a year, in a series entitled *Acta Universitatis Lodzianensis*, running to seven issues (E. Paradowska, Spis publikacji zawartych w serii wydawniczej, *Acta Universitatis Lodzianensis. Turyzm*, 2/2/1992, pp. 117-121). Since 1991, *Turyzm* has been appearing twice a year. From 1991 to 2000 the articles contained summaries in French and English (E. Paradowska, Zawartość czasopisma 'Turyzm' w latach 1991-2000, *Turyzm* 10/2/2001). Since 2001, the publication has been bilingual (Polish and English), therefore its title was changed to *Tourism/Turyzm*. Between 2001 and 2012 (June), 20 issues were contained in 12 volumes.

Following past practice, the present volume contains a list of all the publications featured in *Turyzm/Tourism* in 2001-10. These 17 issues (10 volumes) contained 95 papers (theoretical and methodological - 32, reviews - 38, practical - 23), 37 research notes, 26 book

reviews, 21 reports and a number of biographies and obituaries devoted to outstanding tourism researchers.

There have been three double issues published in the past decade (15/1-2/2005, 17/1-2/2007 and 19/1-2/2009) dedicated to selected researchers in appreciation of their academic and didactic contribution to the development and promotion of tourism. The double issues were devoted to Prof. Antoni Jackowski from the Jagiellonian University in Cracow; Prof. Marin Baczvarov from the Universities of Sofia and Łódź, who spent the last ten years of his life in Lodz working at the Urban and Tourism Geography Department; and to Prof. Elżbieta Dziegieć who had conducted research into tourism geography for many years and was deputy editor of *Turyzm/Tourism* until 2009. Two single issues (12/2/2002 and 18/1/2008) were also special editions; one was dedicated to Prof. Bernard Barbier from the University of Aix-Marseille, who had been earlier awarded an honorary doctorate for his services to the University of Łódź and for his research and didactic achievements in the field of tourism. The last special edition (18/1) was prepared in order to promote *Turyzm/Tourism* among members of the Tourism Commission during the International Geographical Union Congress in Tunis, in 2008. It contained information on research and didactic activity in the field of tourism in Poland, i.e. a presentation of the Polish universities which educate tourism specialists, the major journals and regular conferences devoted to tourism.

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