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Tourism 2012, 22/1

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BETWEEN ACCEPTANCE AND DISLIKE: THE INTRICACY OF CROSS-CULTURAL CONTACTS WHILE TRAVELLING

Abstract: Today travelling is a global phenomenon. Many journeys involve cross-cultural contacts, often between cultures which are very remote from each other. Some questions arise: does the contemporary traveller expect cross-cultural contacts and how does he/she imagine such interactions? These seemingly simple questions enable us to reflect on the intentionality and complexity of cross-cultural interactions, the main issue discussed in the article. The author draws the reader's attention to the social roles assumed by the modern traveller, as well as the theoretical scenarios of cross-cultural contact, analyzing its symmetric and asymmetric forms.

Key words: tourist, traveller, social roles, social behaviours, cross-cultural relations.

1. *HOMO VIATOR*

Man has always been engaged in two types of activity: settled, which allows him to develop 'horizontal' social structures; and nomadic, which gives him a chance to satisfy his need for expansion, discovery and learning. Man the wanderer, pilgrim and discoverer is one of the basic 'social profiles'. *Homo viator*, poetically personified by Odysseus on his 10-year journey, has been embodied by the leaders of great armies who took their soldiers to the ends of the ancient world, the discoverers and explorers of new lands and seas, pilgrims travelling to holy places, as well as Irish bards, and the French minstrels stopping at the inns, cities and courts of medieval Europe. For centuries, man has been setting out on expeditions or journeys.

However, in the 21st c. the label *Homo viator* – the traveller – is attached to each of us like never before. It is given to those who want to pit themselves against the legendary travellers and explorers, as well as those who simply decide to spend their leisure time somewhere away from home. In the second half of the 20th and in the early 21st c. man can travel to the most remote places in the world and take up even the most extreme travelling challenges. Half a century ago, someone who visited the floating islands of Lake Titicaca was considered a great traveller, while today he is merely one of the hundreds or even thousands of tourists visiting this place (WEARING, STEVENSON & YOUNG 2010). On the one hand, saying that the opportunity to travel is given to contemporary man in general is a certain overstatement, as it refers only to the inhabitants of developed countries and the richest from the Third World. On the other hand, however, the scale of movement in Asia and South America shows that travelling, as broadly understood in terms of moving from one place to another, also concerns the less affluent inhabitants of developing countries.

Well-developed and widespread travelling activity generates numerous economic, social and environmental issues, including those related to cross-cultural contacts. The aim of this article is to discuss the cross-cultural relations which are formed when representatives of different cultures meet during individual and organized tourism trips.

According to the research presented at the 2nd Congress on Travel Medicine in Warsaw[1], 75% of Europeans going to the tropics are interested in the climate and the living conditions in the country visited, and only 40% are interested in the medical situation there. With reference to these results, we may ask how many tourists pay attention to the different nature and complexity of the culture which they visit. How many realize what cross-cultural differences are? The answers to these questions may be surprising and show the contemporary tourist-traveller as a person who is often unprepared for cross-cultural interaction.

What social roles then can a contemporary wanderer assume while travelling and what significance does it have for cross-cultural contacts?

1. THE SOCIAL ROLES ASSUMED BY THE TOURIST-TRAVELLER

Research interest in the social roles of travellers can be traced in the literature. The authors of *Spatial Behaviour* (Golledge & Stimson 1999) established a five-degree typology of tourism behaviour, taking into consideration the relations which the visitors can have with the local community. They list the following psychological categories: allocentric, near allocentric, indirect, near psychocentric and psychocentric. The first two categories comprise those who are open to new experience, seek contacts with members of local communities, and often even try to become a part of these communities. In the indirect type, contact with locals is limited to tourism sites and situations such as buying souvenirs or using a local guide's services. The psychocentric type includes tourists who avoid contacts with representatives of other cultures, usually choose a familiar environment and go on trips mostly within their own country, even then avoiding interactions with the local population.

Researchers notice that most tourists represent the indirect type. It can be stated that in this case, if cross-cultural contact occurs at all, it is the tourists who establish the rules and it is a very superficial interaction. It has nothing to do with really getting to know the person and their culture. It is more of a buyer-seller relation set in the context of tourism service. Allocentric tourists comprise 6% of all tourists and near allocentric 15%.

Other researchers who have studied the roles assumed by contemporary tourists, focus on the variety and distinctiveness of their behaviour towards the local population. The number of tourists and travellers has visibly increased in recent decades, therefore the issue has become more complex. New motives for travel are appearing, but the fact that it is so easy leads to a situation when a mentally unprepared tourist can find himself/herself in a culturally unfamiliar environment.

Cohen distinguishes between the institutionalized and non-institutionalized social roles of the tourist resulting from the growing participation of travel agencies in organizing tourism trips. Contrary to non-institutionalized, open roles, institutionalized roles produce schematic and standardized behaviours (COHEN 1972).

Reviewing the motives for tourism activity and its social background, Urry stresses that a tourist coming from the 'Western World' travelled in a 'shelter' or 'cocoon', isolated from local cultures, as early as the 1970's (URRY 2002). While travelling, he was trying to remain in the company of tourists similar to him (consciously or subconsciously), and viewed the visited worlds from the perspective of someone visiting an open-air museum, or isolated himself at tourism resorts. At present, the issue of tourists colonizing selected regions of the world is becoming increasingly acute and obvious. Although in the overall number of those travelling, the number of 'true' travellers and tourists is also rising (COHEN 1979, PEARCE 1982), the predominant type is still the tourist having limited cross-cultural contact.

We may point to many regions in the world which are visited by millions of tourists every year; they are virtually invaded by visitors. One of the more evident manifestations of tourism colonization, sheltered areas and the transfer channels between them, is Indochina and the Bangkok – Angkor – Phnom Penh – Saigon – Vientiane – Bangkok route. This includes four countries in which the tourist 'pops' into different tourist areas, finding there standardized hotels, clubs and restaurants. He moves between these areas, using a specially organized bus service. Using local transport is impossible in the deluge of tourist agencies' offers. The visitor travels through exotic countries, looking at different tourism products and has little chance of breaking free from this quasi-exotic circle.

The facts presented above prompt the following questions: are contemporary tourists able to make symmetrical relations with the local population at all and have a chance for peer interaction; having decided to assume the role of traveller, is the tourist condemned to superficial interaction and does he become dependent on the host's will; can he become a part of the local community if he makes an effort?

The two basic roles of those who travel to other cultures (places and people) can be described as the role of an 'insider' – a participant, and 'outsider' – an observer (see Fig. 1). What characterizes these behaviours? The 'insider' is a 'participant' of the places and communities he visits. A person like this is able to enter a foreign culture, in a more or less conscious way. He does it either unconsciously, accepting the rules at the places visited and avoiding standard tourism routes and areas, or consciously immersing himself in non-tourist places. He provokes contacts with the locals and tries to glimpse the 'everydayness' of a foreign culture. The 'outsider' is a traveller, a tourist who consciously or unconsciously does not accept the visited culture, limiting himself to travelling in his 'cocoon'.

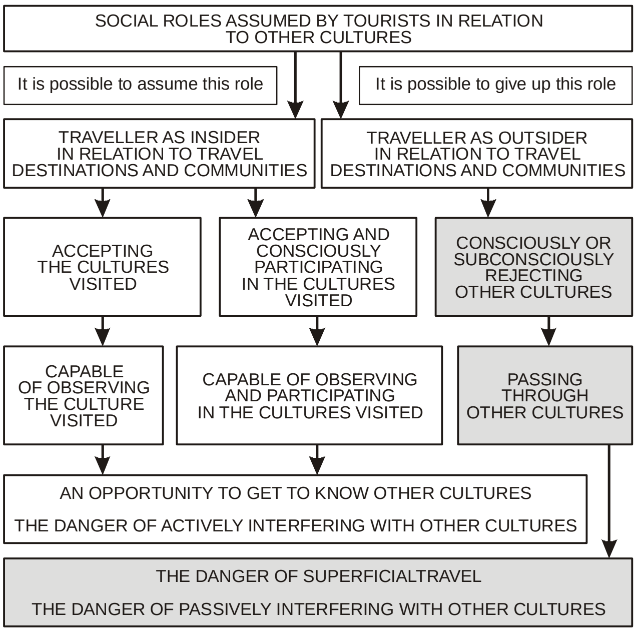

Fig. 1. Social roles assumed by tourists in relation to other cultures

What are the chances of assuming one of these roles? A tourist becomes an 'insider' only when he consciously takes on this social role, while the role of an 'outsider' comes to him spontaneously, unintentionally. Every, or almost every, person setting out on a journey involuntarily becomes an 'outsider' at the places visited. He is a stranger (Simmel 2005) who packed his backpack, bought a ticket and was brave enough to leave his place of permanent residence and head for an unknown destination. In this situation, an 'outsider' is *a priori* an observer, someone who has to go through a number of rituals, sometimes very simple, in order to be at least partly accepted by local communities. Even in a situation when a tourist travels to a destination he is familiar with the truth is that on his next journey there he is still visiting the place after a certain period of absence. In the meantime, the place itself and its community will have changed for various reasons. He was absent, time was passing and human lives were changing.

The question arises whether the role of an 'insider' can be assumed during a journey. Travellers' accounts show that it is very difficult, and sometimes even impossible (Cejrowski 2003, Uryn 2005, Kasza 2010). Certainly, in order to become an 'insider', at least partially, one needs to have a lot of patience, be aware of the norms and rituals of the other culture, repeatedly stay among the local community and have a little luck as well. As a result, the traveller may sometimes depend on being accepted by the members of the visited culture. The acceptance is likely to be incomplete, and the permission to learn the behavioural patterns of the local population and to take part in its life will be limited by different kinds of taboo (Maisonneuve 1995, Bell 209). It must be remembered, however, that assuming the role of a 'participant', living in a foreign culture or observing it from the inside, depends as much on the visitor's awareness as on the will of the local community.

Having assumed the role of an 'insider', the tourist-traveller becomes either a mere observer of local life or a participant. As an 'outsider', the same tourist is only a person passing through a foreign culture, without reflecting on its existence.

In both cases, the cross-cultural contact may be threatening to members of the local community, as it may passively or actively interfere with or modify their behaviour. Theoretically speaking, such contact may also be dangerous to the visitors, though in reality the tourist adopts fewer elements of the foreign culture than the hosts (Podemski 2004).

Certainly nowadays cross-cultural interactions are inevitable, and tourism, as broadly understood, is one of the basic domains of life in which these relations occur. We may ask, however, what steps are followed in such a contact – what scenarios are possible? (Smith 1977, Smith 2003).

2. CROSS-CULTURAL CONTACT SCENARIOS

Hypothetically, we may imagine four possible scenarios of cross-cultural contact, taking into consideration the involvement on the part of both the traveller and the host. This is of course a simplified set of social interactions which may be presented in a four-fold way (see Fig. 2).

– the scenario of a bilaterally open interaction – on the part of both the traveller and the host,

– the scenario of a unilaterally open interaction – on the part of the traveller,

– the scenario of a unilaterally closed interaction – on the part of the traveller,

– the scenario of bilaterally closed interaction – on the part of both the traveller and the host.

In the first case, the traveller and the host are in a bilaterally symmetrical relation and both parties form a harmonious system of cross-cultural interaction. This in practical terms means a contact based on the 'I speak and listen, approve and accept, I learn without changing' principle. It is a relation hard to achieve because the tourist-traveller is by definition a person who wants to learn and experience, is aggressive and takes too many things for granted, especially if he has devoted a lot of time, money and effort to reach the final destination and treats contact with members of the local community as the crowning of his efforts. In this situation he will be even more determined to arrange meetings, talk, take photographs, perhaps buy or exchange some small gifts. He may not realize that at the moment of contact his 'partner' in the interaction is in his/her everyday situation and has no time for or does not feel like interacting. Sometimes they are simply surprised by meeting a stranger and need time to get to know and place the 'newcomer' in their world. Let us add, a 'newcomer' who often does not know the local norms of everyday behaviour and, consequently, may cause as much damage to the culture as the proverbial 'bull in a china shop'.

	HOST Symmetrical	HOST Asymmetrical
TRAVELLER / TOURIST Symmetrical	I speak and listen, approve and accept. I learn, but without changing.	I speak, watch, show, reveal and earn money. I create stereotypes.
TRAVELLER / TOURIST Asymmetrical	I speak, watch (take photographs), give gifts. On departure, I occupy a social niche.	I don't speak, keep a distance. I reject, merely tolerating.

OPEN / OPEN	OPEN / CLOSED
CLOSED / OPEN	CLOSED / CLOSED

Fig. 2. Cross-cultural contact scenarios

The second scenario is a system of open behaviours and the attitude of a harmonious, symmetrical cross-cultural contact, resulting from the visitor's actions. In other words, it is a meeting between a tourist who understands the complexity of cross-cultural contacts and who knows or wants to learn the rules of behaviour in the culture visited, and a host who is closed to interaction. A situation like this may occur when members of the local community have dealt with tourists before and learnt how to treat one so that he is satisfied and leaves money as a reward, or when the local population simply do not wish for any new contacts. In this scenario, interaction is either impossible or it takes place according to the host's rules; for two-three hours costume is worn and a superficial performance for visitors is given. This type of practice is represented by, for instance, the everyday tourist who visits by boat the Isla Taquile on Lake Titicaca. The island turns into a living open air museum for a few hours daily where the tourists may 'touch' the local culture for a small charge. On the one hand, it is a culture which actually exists, but on the other hand, it is slightly 'tuned' to meet the guests' needs and expectations. Such 'ethnic villages' are scattered all over the world and mark the trail of the most popular tourism destinations from Turkey to the Amazon Rainforest.

An interaction which is unilaterally closed on the part of the traveller is a set of behaviours, which may be summarized as 'I speak, watch, take photographs, give gifts and depart. I occupy a social niche'. This may be the most frequent form of relation characterized by asymmetry of contact on the part of the visitor. Consciously or not, he enters the visited culture bringing his habits, behavioural patterns and rituals with him. He is not oriented towards openness and presentation, but towards appropriating. The members of the local community, especially those who have never experienced contact with 'strangers' before, after meeting and getting used to them, decide to show them their everyday life. On the other hand, the tourist, perhaps unconsciously at times, arrives, shakes hands, takes photos, gives small gifts – often useless in the long run (a torch which stops working when they batteries run out, a ballpoint pen which eventually stops writing, etc.) and finally leaves. We may ask whether the contact which occurs has no significance, or despite being so superficial, affects the local population, changes its style of living and their attitudes to visitors.

Finally, the last of the scenarios is a unilaterally closed interaction, in which the tourist does not expect any particular contact with locals; he only takes advantage of the services they offer such as hunting, diving expeditions or another form of spending time and is not open to the local population. Both sides remain in the buyer-seller relationship and they do not expect to get to know each other. The tourist's main aim is to receive service of the standard he expects: a well-organized safari, a rafting or diving expedition, and that is what he focuses on during his contact with members of the local community. In this case, cross-cultural contact certainly takes place, but as a cultural aspect it is moved to the background and it is significant only from the point of view of the communication between representatives of different cultures, as well as establishing and implementing the elements of a tourism service.

3. CONCLUSIONS

Quoting the results of research presented at the 2nd Congress of Travel Medicine[2] again, 6% of those returning from a tourist trip need medical help, 35% of whom suffer from digestive discomfort, 8% from respiratory problems and 5% from injuries. With reference to the topic of this article we may ask how many tourists have suffered from cultural shock. How many of them start to dislike another culture because they do not understand it? How many tourists, when visiting exotic communities, make the mistake of feeling superior to their hosts?

A tourism trip associated with meeting those of other cultures is an example of a very complex interaction. It is an encounter with the representatives of sometimes completely different worlds. Both, the travellers and the hosts follow certain norms, have their own rituals and their culture of origin. Both often do not realize what they possess and what the cultural differences between them are. Moreover, the social role of the tourist and the host is characterized by certain attributes, mentioned in this text. The tourist, who breaks away from his 'usual', 'typical' daily routine and wants to learn and experience, is oriented towards something new, exotic, is expansive and demanding (often having stereotypical expectations, always exaggerated in some way), but he is also a stranger who does not know the rules of local life. The host, who performs his 'usual', 'typical' duties, wants to earn some money, sell, show but without disturbing his life with excessive openness, is rather defensive in his attitudes.

When going on a journey and meeting the members of a local community, one can assume different social roles and enter the interaction in a variety of ways. It is worth doing causing a minimum number of changes and to understand the cultural distinctness of others.

FOOTNOTES

[1](http://www.rynekzdrowia.pl/Rynek-Zdrowia/II-Kongres-Medycyny-Podrozy-czyli-specjalisci-potwierdzaja-ze-Choroby-nie-znaja-granic,52045.html) – accessed 28.04.2011.

[2] Source: http://www.rynekzdrowia.pl/Rynek-Zdrowia/II-Kongres-Medycyny-Podrozy-czyli-specjalisci-potwierdzaja-ze-Choroby-nie-znaja-granic,52045.html, accessed on 28th April 2011.

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THE INFLUENCE OF THE REVITALIZATION OF FORMER INDUSTRIAL URBAN AREAS ON NEW URBAN AND TOURISM SPACES: CASE STUDIES OF MANCHESTER AND LYON[1]

Abstract: The purpose of this article is the identification of changes to urban and tourism space due to the revitalization of the industrial wastelands in selected cities of Western Europe. The first section presents problematic aspects of this issue whereas the second constitutes empirical research on two cities: Lyon and Manchester. Typical characteristics of these cities include their differing 'tourism biographies' as well as their diverse spatial and functional structures. Furthermore, different ways of implementing the revitalization of central area former industrial land have been followed which have been extremely significant in forming the new tourism space in both cities.

Key words: revitalization, industrial wasteland, urban and tourism space, Lyon, Manchester.

1. RESEARCH ISSUE

In the 20th c. the relocation of industry was a consequence of changes in technology, the organization of production and developments in transportation in the industrialized cities of Western Europe. These had a major influence on producing large areas of former industrial wasteland in cities which have become an integral part of their spatial and functional structure. The existence of such land became an important 'cognitive' value of urban space, and had a huge effect on the degradation of the cityscape.

Since the 1960s, revitalization has been seen as a method of renovating the degraded parts of cities. According to KACZMAREK (2010, p. 8) "the purpose of the re-structuring processes of urban space is a sequence of planned actions which contribute to economic revival and change the special and functional structure of degraded areas". Other researchers dealing with this issue present similar opinions, for example. DOMAŃSKI (2000), GASIDŁO (1998), LORENS (2005, 2007, 2010), LORENS & MARTYNIUK-PĘCZAK (2009), MARKOWSKI & STAWASZ (2007), MIRONOWICZ & OSSOWICZ (2005), ZIOBROWSKI & JERCZEWSKI (2009), ZIOBROWSKI *et al.* (2000). Revitalization refers to economic, social, cultural and spatial aspects (KACZMAREK 2001) and has a significant influence on the image of a city among its citizens and in addition affects the external image through promotional and marketing activity. Numerous planning and marketing projects have increased the attractiveness of the city. Therefore, revitalization of intra-urban industrial waste land may lead to the transformation of urban and tourism space.

Tourism space has been the subject of much deliberation in the literature (including DEWAILLY 1996, KOWALCZYK-ANIOŁ 2006, LATOSIŃSKA 2006, LISOWSKI 2003, LISZEWSKI 1995, 1999, 2005, 2006a, 2006b, 2009a, 2009b, 2009c, 2009d, LISZEWSKI & BACHVAROV 1998, LOZATO-GIOTART 2003, MEYER 2004, MIOSSEC 1976, OPPERMANN 1993, STALSKI 1984, WARSZYŃSKA & JACKOWSKI 1978, WŁODARCZYK 2005, 2006a, 2006b, 2007, 2009 and others) and some have referred to the revitalization of space through tourism (BRADBURY 1993, IMRIE & THOMAS 1993, GIBSON 1997, KACZMAREK & LISZEWSKI 1997, PRZYBYSZEWSKA-GUDELIS 1997). Urban space and tourism space are geographical subspaces, according to LISZEWSKI (1999) the first is characterized by specific organization whereas the second can be recognized on the basis of functional criteria. This means that they are identified on the basis of conceptually different criteria and may therefore be found in the same part of general geographical space. A feature of both tourism and urban spaces is variation over time while revitalization by influencing spatial and functional transformations is dynamic. As a result, it can be claimed that, depending on the subject and extent of change accomplished in the framework of revitalization, the process can affect the formation of new urban and tourism spaces or modify those existing.

Manchester and Lyon both used to be powerful centres of the textile industry. As a consequence of the collapse of industry in these cities industrial wastelands were formed in central areas, a major problem for municipal authorities as the industrial wasteland occupied some of the most central parts. The industrial wasteland being close to the centre led to the image of the whole city, which often had great cultural and historical value, being devalued. On the other hand, undeveloped space here constitutes an opportunity for generating attractive urban spaces which could increase the aesthetic, scenic and utility value of neighbouring areas. What is more, their spatial and functional transformation would enable the expansion and strengthening of the tourism offer of the historical centre itself.

Lyon and Manchester are cities where industry has played a variety of roles in their socio-economic and historical structures. Therefore, the tangible heritage of the industrial epoch, contributing to the formation of the identity of these cities, is now being exposed differently in urban space. The significance of the post-industrial facilities in the revitalized zones depends on the new functional profile designed for those areas. Similarly, newly built contemporary buildings contribute to a new architectural and urban image. As a result, the transformations of degraded areas determine the tourism space of both newer and older parts of the central area.

Taking into account the above considerations, it can be claimed that the complexity of urban space as well as the shape of the industrial wasteland, seems to have a major influence on the organization of the new urban space by tourism. Revitalized, former central industrial areas with original architectural features and old industrial buildings are intended to be new tourism destinations and can be recognized as new urban and tourism spaces. Their type will depend on long-term urban policy. The purpose of this work is not the identification of all types of tourism space, but indicating the role of the revitalization of degraded urban areas in shaping new urban and tourism spaces and transforming existing ones.

Thus the research issue is presented as being in the mainstream of research on tourism space (LISZEWSKI 2005, WŁODARCZYK 2007). According to a definition presented by WŁODARCZYK (2007), the presence of tourism is a necessary and sufficient condition for the classification of geographical space as a tourism space. While, the size and nature of tourism development allows the type of this space to be specified more accurately (LISZEWSKI 1995, WŁODARCZYK 2006 and 2007).

2. CASE STUDY OF MANCHESTER

Manchester is a city of Roman origin. Its genesis goes back to 79 AD, when at the confluence of the Rivers Irwell and Medlock a *castrum* was established with the name Mancunium or Mamucium (historians use both versions). The Roman settlement collapsed in the 5th c. and the main core moved north to the vicinity of the confluence of the Irwell and Irk. The medieval town developed on the right bank of the Irwell where in the 15th c. the parish church (now a cathedral) was substantially extended (Fig. 1), and along Deansgate Street which is a relic of a Roman trade route leading north and constitutes the main urban axis connecting the original and medieval settlements. Along with intensive industrialization since the 17th c., the mainly commercial Manchester central area consisted of numerous industrial zones located primarily to the south of the medieval core (Fig. 1).

Although Manchester is known as the 'first industrial city in the world' and the 'industrial jewel in the British crown', it was not a typical manufacturing town (KIDD 1993). It was once the world centre of trade in the textile industry which involved the presence of numerous storage facilities in the central area. In the 20th c. the city suffered from the economic and social crises connected with the collapse of the industry. The first symptoms appeared in the 30's (KIDD 1993), and its culmination was in the 60's (LISZEWSKI & YOUNG 1997, KACZMAREK 2001). A wide range of industrial sites in the city centre and its outskirts became subject to rapid degradation, a process accompanied by the 'devalorization'[2] of the whole central area of Manchester. The first recovery programs were undertaken in the 80's, whereas the last decade of the 20th c. was characterized by an intensive revitalization of industrial wasteland, coordinated with modernization throughout the city centre (KACZMAREK 2001, PECK & WARD 2002).

Along with the spatial and functional transformations in central Manchester, the material heritage of the industrial era was highlighted in the modernized urban space. Former industrial facilities have been renovated and adapted to new functions, including tourism, which seems to constitute a crucial quality for the new urban landscape. Revitalized former industrial facilities are unevenly concentrated, most are located along the canals in the southern part of the central area in the areas of Castlefield, the City Centre itself, Gaythorn, Whitworth and Piccadilly. In the first of these areas, many former industrial sites are preserved in new types of integrated urban development. Because of its 'cognitive' value, which also has a reconstructed Roman *castrum*, it is called the 'cradle of Manchester' (KACZMAREK 2001). The leading feature

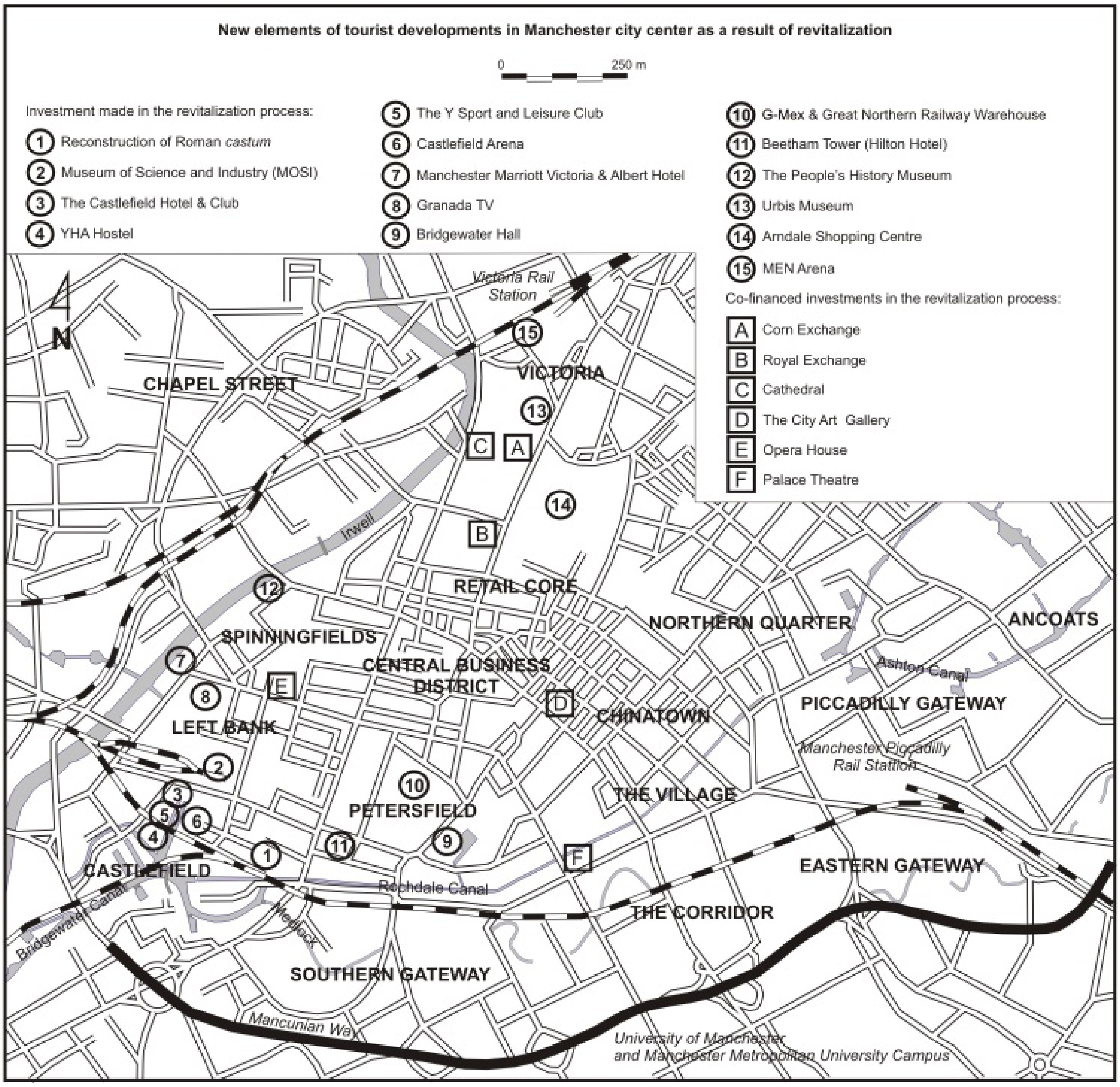

Fig. 1. Development of tourism in the centre of Manchester
S o u r c e: authors own work

was to be tourism, nonetheless, residential and recreational functions were added too. In Castlefield, all former industrial buildings with historical value became subject to revitalization, and in 1982 the first Urban Heritage Park in Great Britain was created (GIBSON 1997). In the context of the 'cognitive' development of tourism in the area, the greatest importance was attached to the adaptation of the world's first railway station Liverpool Road (from 1830), into a Museum of Science and Industry (MOSI) (see no 2. on Fig. 1). Here one may learn about the industrial revolution, the structure and operation of steam engines, locomotives, mills, the first electric machines and printers. The location was chosen for the sake of the rich history associated with the industrial revolution and the unique architecture of the region. In the vicinity of the museum there are also tourism sites such as the Castlefield Hotel & Club (Fig. 1 – no 3), youth hostel (YHA) (no 4), sport and recreation centre (Y Sport and Leisure Club) (no 5), and Castlefield Arena (no 6) modelled on the Roman amphitheatre. Behind it, to the east, there are the foundations of the Roman *castrum* surrounded by reconstructed defensive walls (no 1). On the western edge of Castlefield across the Irwell river a four-star hotel, is the Manchester Marriott Victoria and Albert (no 7), funded by a regional media company – Granada TV (no 8). What is more, its recording studios are available to explore (Fig. 1).

An integrating element of all the former industrial areas which have undergone revitalization, are the Bridgewater and Rochdale canals. Alongside these canals are towpaths with numerous benches and green spaces encouraging rest. Consequently, in the zones known as waterfronts (areas where the city has contact with water) attractive public spaces have been created. Moreover, along the banks of the canals (in Castlefield called Castle Quays), there is a wide range of cafes and restaurants located in former warehouses and depots formerly connected to the waterways. They were used for the storage of raw materials and also finished products which were then exported through the port in Liverpool, and later through the port of Salford too. Other gastronomic locations have emerged under railway arches or in new buildings with a characteristic style which refers to the past, constituting a dominant feature of the landscape and the subsequent 'cognitive' tourism value of this part of Manchester. Along with the process of revitalization, the canal has been cleaned and is used today as a popular tourism water route. At its edge, there are numerous moored boats used by individual tourists. The Bridgewater Canal, and the Manchester Ship Canal (west of Manchester, with its outlet in the port of Liverpool), is an important part of one of the longest canal systems in the north west of England, consisting of the northern – Rochdale Canal, and the southern – Ashton Canal. The Ashton and Rochdale canals merge in the area around Manchester Piccadilly Railway Station and are located latitudinally through the entire southern part of central Manchester. Today all are navigable. This system of canals, along with the small River Medlock, is a linear element interconnecting the renewed former industrial wastelands. Elements of the original development of industrial areas do not dominate the urban landscape, but form an important and integral part. Revitalization involved the location of flagship projects whose purpose was to give impetus to further spatial and functional transformations within urban units (BIANCHINI *et al.* 1992, PECK & WARD 2002). In the 1990s, revitalization led to the building of the Bridgewater Hall in 1996 (no 9) in the city centre itself where metropolitan functions were expected to play a dominant role. In addition, the former Central railway station was converted into the G-Mex conference and exhibition centre (1986) (no 10). In its vicinity there is also the Great Northern Railway Warehouse (no 10) which includes a multi-storied car park and an entertainment centre. Nearby, there is the highest skyscraper in the city which houses apartments and the Hilton Hotel (no 11), the highest (169 m) residential building in Great Britain outside London, and constituting an integral part of the urban landscape. The skyscraper is an iconic feature of Manchester and its new metropolitan image. Clearly, it constitutes one of the attractions of the city, whereas, the Hilton Hotel upgrades the standard of accommodation (Fig. 1).

Further flagship projects increasing the attractiveness of Manchester, realized in the framework of spatial and functional transformation, are the People's History Museum (previously – National Museum of Labour History) in the area of Spinningfields (no 12), and Urbis (the former Centre for Urban Culture) (no 13) in the vicinity of the cathedral (Fig. 1 symbol C), the Corn Exchange (A), Arndale shopping centre (no 14) and Victoria Railway Station (Fig. 1). They are located in areas which were not directly occupied by industry, consequently, their architecture does not refer to the city's industrial past. Among other important cultural institutions, Manchester Museum deserves special attention as there is a significant collection of the Egyptian art, as well as the City Art Gallery (D). Both institutions have received financial support in the process of the revitalization of the centre of Manchester (from the National Lottery) for the renovation of the buildings. These places, along with the Gallery of English Costume at Platt Hall, the Police Museum, the Museum of Transport, Palace Theatre (F), the Opera House (E) and others, create an unusual cultural offer. The flagship project also completed the development of various sports sites, for example the sports arena (Manchester Evenings News (MEN) Arena, previously known as Nynex – Fig. 1 no 15), the Manchester Velodrome at the National Cycling Centre, and the City of Manchester football stadium, designed for the Olympic Games in 2000 which ultimately were not held in Manchester, however it was used for the Commonwealth Games which took place in 2002. These sites, as well as the events held in their interiors (concerts, exhibitions, sports events), have significantly diversified the tourism offer of the city. Moreover, Manchester was a host city in the European Football Championship (Euro 1996) while in 1994 it had received the prestigious title 'City of Drama'. These events and others have influenced the process of creating a new brand for Manchester.

Another type of urban space undergoing spatial and functional transformation is the Northern Quarter, located to the north-east of the commercial core of the city (Fig. 1). This district has retained the most original industrial landscape in Manchester whose characteristic feature was the mosaic of different building types and functions, which to some extent has been preserved into modern times. Nowadays, intensive implementation of the residential function can be observed in this area, reflected in the increasing number of apartment buildings. Due to its peripheral location in relation to the city centre and lack of metropolitan amenities, this zone is not a popular tourism destination. Nonetheless, it is visited by artists, young people and individual tourists because of its unique architecture and atmosphere.

To sum up, it can be observed that former industrial sites located in a small area, have been almost entirely adapted to the tourism function *sensu stricto*, for example MOSI, and *sensu largo* – canals and the entire Castlefield district. Revitalization of this area was connected with the location of recreation areas and numerous other sites which constitute a tourism profile. At the same time, elements of urban structure such as trade or mass entertainment, were not accepted here, as they would dominate the 'cognitive' structure of Castlefield. Tourism gives an opportunity to explore technological and communication sites, such as canals and railway bridges, as well as the preserved industrial architecture which has undergone a contemporary facelift. In other parts of central Manchester, where the former industrial sites are located at specific sites, spatial and functional transformations have involved adaptation of these sites within the context of a particular urban area. Nevertheless, no attempt was made to interfere with their architectural form. Thus, historic former industrial buildings remain an important part of the urban landscape, a permanent mark of identity for the citizens of Manchester. Some of these buildings have become the most important tourism attractions of the city, likewise, other sites were constructed because of the revitalization of former industrial areas (Table 1). Their location in previously isolated urban areas and as part of the newly established tourism base, have contributed to generating new tourism space in Manchester.

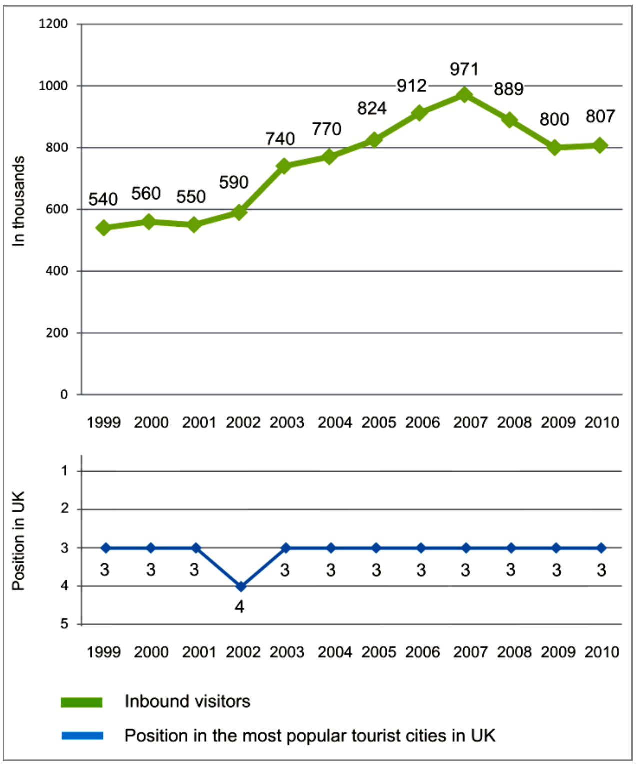

Fig. 2. Foreign tourists in Manchester: 1999–2010
S o u r c e: Author's own research based on International Passenger Survey, Office for National Statistics

The great importance of revitalization process for shaping new tourism attractions of the city is reflected in the volume of tourism which has been increasing since the 1990s and in the first decade of the 21st c. (Fig. 2). The case of Manchester demonstrates that industrial wasteland revitalization has initiated the formation of new tourism space and modified the existing area, whilst the transformation of degraded urban areas has enabled tourism facilities to emerge on the foundations of a central area which was

T a b l e 1. The most popular tourism attractions in Greater Manchester by visitor numbers: 2004-9

Places of tourism interest	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
The Lowry (R)	330 000 (2)	850 000 (1)	850 000 (1)	800 000 (1)	841 496 (2)	843 035
MOSI (R) *(2)*	469 399 (1)	430 794 (2)	392 361 (2)	704 975 (2)	852 262 (1)	532 763
Chill Factore	–	–	–	–	–	484 722
Manchester Art Gallery (RF) *(D)*	291 066 (3)	262 961 (4)	345 850 (3)	393 650 (3)	394 205 (3)	408 539
Bolton Museum, Aquarium and Archive	227 289 (7)	271 462 (3)	257 343 (4)	267 483 (4)	309 865 (5)	374 079
Manchester Museum (R)	166 525 (9)	196 200 (8)	224 952 (8)	234 648 (7)	244 265 (7)	329 752
Manchester United FC Museum	232 831 (6)	219 332 (7)	219 496 (9)	263 325 (6)	326 654 (4)	309 397
Urbis (R) *(13)*	193 798 (8)	173 905 (10)	256 240 (5)	251 540 (6)	262 114 (6)	253 041
Runway Visitor Park	264 743 (4)	248 514 (5)	250 000 (6)	226 087 (8)	228 000 (9)	241 000
IMWN (R)	249 875 (5)	229 968 (6)	235 991 (7)	222 791 (9)	238 794 (8)	236 529

K e y: R – new site, result of revitalization, RF – existing site within the industrial wasteland revitalization program, *(2)* – site symbol in Fig. 1, (2) – position in tourism attraction ranking (by year).

S o u r c e: author's own research based on Greater Manchester Tourism Facts & Figures.

previously dominated by trade (including Arndale, Urbis and MEN Arena) and services (People's History Museum in Spinningfields).

3. CASE STUDY OF LYON

Lyon, in common with Manchester, is of Roman origin. The first settlement of Lugdunum was located on Fourvière hill in 43 B.C. (Fig. 3). After the collapse of the Roman Empire it was abandoned and subsequent settlements were situated lower down by the Saône River, and later on the peninsula between the Saône and the Rhône. Development of the 19th c. city involved expansion on the left bank of the Rhône, the period of Lyon's greatest industrialization.

Lyon is the biggest historical centre of the textile industry in France and in the past the literature often referred to it as 'the world's capital of silk'. Unlike Manchester, Lyon's textile industry has never dominated the city's social and economic structure (STRASZEWICZ 1987) while former industrial sites are also significantly less visible in the present cityscape. The biggest post-industrial zone in the central area, *Confluence*, has an area of 150 ha, is situated in the southern part of the Presqu'île peninsula, well south of Place Bellecour, between the Saône and Rhône which converge at its southernmost point (Fig. 3). This part has never been occupied by the textile industry unlike the revitalized industrial wasteland in Manchester described above. However, *Confluence* played the key role in the development of Lyon's textile industry because since the 1830s a multi-modal communication hub has developed there, with river docks, a railway, and an unloading point for coal which was imported from the Loire which constituted the main energy resource for Lyon's factories. The railway contributed to a reduction in the cost of importing coal from farther regions in France and, in consequence, to reducing the production cost and increasing the competitiveness of Lyon's textile industry products. Apart from coal storage facilities, the area of *Confluence* was occupied by locomotive, chemical and tobacco factories as well as power stations. Moreover, two remand centres and a postal sorting office were situated here. The northern part of this zone, an area of 40 ha with residential and trading functions, is the *art nouveau* district of Saint-Blandine.

Confluence was formed in the 1770s as a result of the regulation of the banks of the Saône and Rhône. Earlier *Ile Mogniat* and other smaller islets were found here. The appearance of *Confluence*, undeveloped land in the heart of the city provided new challenges for planners. After the beginning of the industrial era this area was given an industrial function which was exogenic and developing. In the early years of the 19th c. an industrial landscape dominated the area. However, in the second half of the 20th c. this district began to lose its significance due to the collapse of industry. An additional factor contributing to *Confluence*'s isolation from the rest of the city was the location of Gare de Lyon-Perrache in 1855 which separated it from the northern part of Presqu'île. The area was then called '*derrière les voûtes*' (behind the arches) by citizens and treated as remote, unknown, hostile or even dangerous (COUDROY DE LILLE 2003).

This negative attitude was intensified by the location of a new communication hub in the 1970s with an international coach station alongside the railway station, and then by the building of a motorway (Fig. 3) which involved the total demolition of existing buildings and the isolation of *Confluence* from the rest of the city. In its southern part, the district is linked to the rest of the city by motorway and railway bridges – both unavailable to pedestrians. There is only one crossing nowadays, Pont Pasteur, across the Rhône to the Gerland district (Fig. 3).

The revitalization process aims to restore the accessibility of this zone as well as to engage its space with an attractive range of services. This is intended to expand the functions of the historical city centre in Presqu'île, which was placed as a whole on the UNESCO World Heritage List in 1998. This area with its Croix-Rousse district and Fourvière hill where the Roman *castrum* was located and a Roman amphitheatre is still preserved, is of the greatest tourism interest (Fig. 3). However, the industrial monuments in Lyon present less value for visitors as expressed by the actions of the city authorities and their manner of revitalizing the industrial wasteland in *Confluence*. Spatial and functional changes in this district include most often replace old factory facilities with new buildings, but unlike Manchester these buildings are rarely designed for tourism purposes. In *Confluence* it is planned to build:

– apartment houses ('Saône Park', 'Lyon Islands', *Le Monolithe*) (see nos 1, 2, 3, on Fig. 3);

– marinas (in Rambaud dockland) (see no 4);

– a shopping and leisure centre (*Pôle de loisirs* with a flagship project – *projets phares* – 'the lighthouse') (see no 5);

– an art gallery and a museum (*Musée des Confluences* – a flagship project) (see no 8);

– a sports and recreation centre (see no 9);

– hotels of various ratings (see nos 6, 16).

A new public space including new streets, a park (*Parc Saône*), two squares (*Place des Archives* and *Place Nautique*) and a pedestian area within the marina (see nos 4, 10, 11, 12 on Fig. 3) will also be developed.

The investments mentioned above are situated in the south-western part of *Confluence* which was

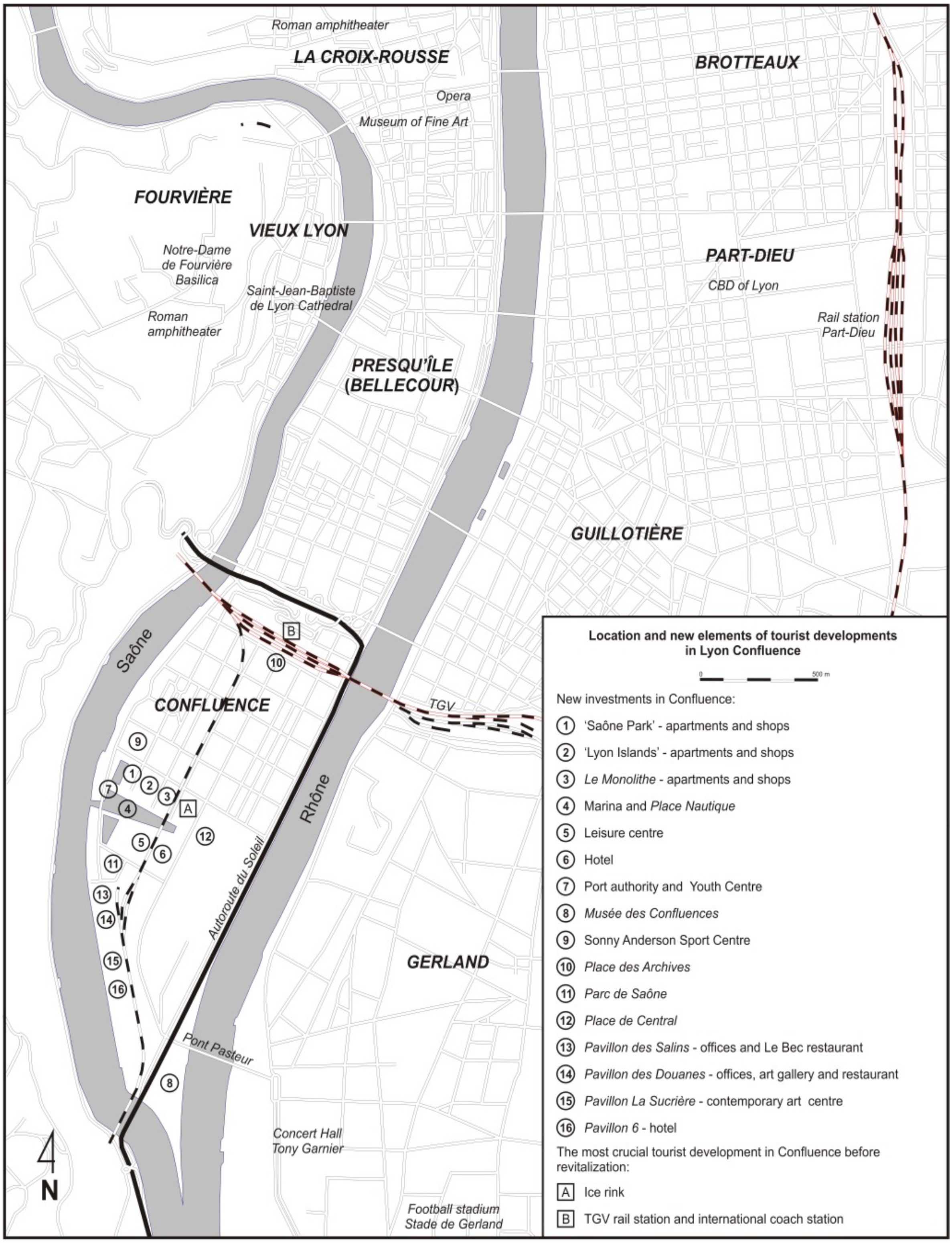

Fig. 3. Location and tourism development of Lyon *Confluence*
S o u r c e: authors own work

originally industrial but spatial and functional changes in this district have resulted in the almost total demolition of industrial buildings. Presently only railway yards in the centre of the peninsula and storage facilities in the south remain. As a result of revitalization almost the whole of the Saône embankment has been given a new architectural and urban shape while the Rhône bank remains isolated because of the motorway (the famous *Autoroute du Soleil*). Some pedestrian bridges crossing the rivers are part of urban plans to increase its accessibility from other parts of the city.

The spatial and functional changes in *Confluence* will entirely transform this part of Lyon's cityscape depriving it of industrial architecture and replacing it with modern buildings confirming the metropolitan nature of the city. Industrial facilities are practically invisible in other regions of the city. Revitalization of this district does not entail modernization in other parts of Lyon as in Manchester (with a scattering of flagship projects in the historical city centre). The transformation of *Confluence* will give the area the character of an 'Urban Entertainment Centre' providing cultural, leisure, shopping and gastronomic services. According to Tölle (2006) facilities of this type are the result of the increasing importance of the leisure industry accompanying the decline of traditional department stores in western countries.

The main reason for the lack of interest in the promotion of industrial history monuments in today's urban policy is Lyon's position on the UNESCO World Heritage List which has already secured its prestige and position on the national tourism map. Contrary to the revitalization in Manchester, the develoment process of Lyon's wasteland has almost entirely eliminated any remains of the industrial era. Remaining sites in the south-eastern part of *Confluence* and in Gerland are decaying or being replaced with modern city building, only a few have been adapted to new functions. Thus the citizens of Lyon have been deprived of a part of their identity and the cityscape is incomplete, lacking an essential part of its history.

The area of *Confluence* has functions satisfying basic needs and raising the standard of life. The location of cultural, entertainment and shopping facilities could expand the area of tourism interest which is now concentrated in the city centre. What is more, the building of a large hotel next to the shopping and entertainment centre as well as several smaller hotels will enlarge the city's accommodation offer as the centre is over-provided for and restricted by UNESCO World Heritage regulations, an obstacle to any hotel investment. Undoubtedly sites generated within the industrial wasteland revitalization program will increase *Confluence's* tourism attractiveness despite the elimination of the industrial facilities that gave rise to the area. Revitalization in Lyon can be regarded as a process aiming to expand existing tourism space and reflected in numerous tourism and para-tourism investments in the area. As there have been no surveys of tourism in *Confluence* so far, it is hard to estimate its present extent and its significance on the scale of the city as a whole.

4. CONCLUSION

Comparative studies of the two post-industrial cities has demonstrated that the extent of preservation and exhibition of material parts of their historical legacies in the cityscape, as well as their contribution to tourism purposes. It can also be claimed that the revitalization of land which was previously used for industry has various influences on shaping a city's tourism space and depends on the role which local authorities allocate to tourism (especially tourism on industrial and former industrial sites) and their policy of allocating a tourism function to this newly recovered area.

Lyon is a historical city with a rich 'tourism biography' and a complex range of metropolitan facilities that attract visitors. That is why the spatial and functional transformation of the central area has not significantly contributed to creating new or modifying existing tourism space. On the other hand Manchester had no specific tourism space for a long period of its history because of the domination of industry in the cityscape and the poorly developed central area. Tourism space in Manchester appeared as a result of increasing interest in the industrial era as it became regarded as an important stage of civilization and as such aroused great curiosity in visitors. In this way the hidden tourism potential of the city was revealed and then used mainly for 'cognitive' tourism purposes thanks to the adaptation of the industrial buildings into modern tourism facilities. This process was accompanied by larger scale economic and social transformations which have shaped the present metropolitan cityscape.

Industrial wasteland revitalization, city centre modernization and other activities (such as promotion of the city's new image, flagship project realization and hosting renowned events) have been possibly the only chance to establish a position for Manchester on the tourism map. The source of the city's image profit[4] was in this case the consistently realized policy of the authorities and accompanying marketing campaigns. This is the so-called created image profit whereas Lyon is an example of the so-called inherited image profit[5]. KACZMAREK (2010) claims that a negative image of a city constitutes a threshold for its development (see Boleslaw Malisz's concept of settlement evolution and development thresholds). Therefore it can be assumed that through industrial wasteland revitalization Manchester city council made the necessary contribution to cross over this boundary and support social and economic development. As a result this a development-influenced progression attracted new investments. These factors are, for example, environmental quality, living standards and an attractive cultural and tourism offer. Everything mentioned above enhances tourism attractiveness and shapes the urban tourism space. In Manchester, revitalization is a factor creating a new tourism space while in Lyon it changes the present cityscape by expanding the city's tourism offer thanks to new institutions and facilities that stimulate both typical and innovative behaviour of its visitors.

This issue seems to be of vital importance not only in a western European context but also because of the extent of degradation in Polish cities (ZIOBROWSKI & JERCZEWSKI 2009) and increasingly intensive central area revitalization processes on former industrial land. It is a common situation that such areas adjoin a historical city centre that is a traditional tourism space. For this reason connections between revitalization and tourism development should be subject to empirical research. This would then contribute to further discussion and attempt to provide contemporary tourism space research with an approach concentrated on spatial transformation from a perspective of industrial wasteland revitalization.

FOOTNOTES

[1] Publication co-financed by the European Social Fund and State Budget – 8.2.1. Operational Program 'Human Resources Development', in connection with 'Doctoral Students' project – Regional Investment in Young Scientists – Acronym D-RIM'.

[2] 'Devalorization' – decrease in the value of something (author's translation; from *Słownik języka polskiego*, part 1, ed. M. Szymczak, PWN, Warszawa 1978).

[3] Image profit – the economic value of a city's image, i.e. the profit generated by its actual or created positive image. It should sustain an additional income for citizens and investors making use of the positive perception of the city (KACZMAREK 2010, s. 36).

[4] Created image profit – consistently performed marketing actions of the authorities which lead to a positive image of the city (*ibidem*).

[5] Inherited image profit – additional value that results from a positive historical image of a city (*ibidem*).

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AN ATTEMPT AT AN INTEGRATED ASSESSMENT OF THE TOURISM ATTRACTIVENESS OF A REGION: THE EXAMPLE OF NORTH KARELIA (FINLAND)

Abstract: The article presents a proposal for an integrated assessment of the tourism attractiveness of a region. The holistic approach used in the author's master's thesis is given as an example. The article presents the results of a survey and 'point bonitation' (a ranking method) for the North Karelia region. In the summary, there is an attempt to assess the methods which were applied in the research.

Key words: tourism attractiveness, 'point bonitation', methods of assessment of tourism attractiveness, integrated assessment of tourism attractiveness, North Karelia (Finland).

1. INTRODUCTION

The geographic environment is characterized by a complicated and heterogeneous structure, therefore we have to attempt to examine it as a system (KOWALSKI 1996). The main point of interest is tourism attractiveness defined by ROGALEWSKI (1977), a very complex and relative term dependent on the mental and physical features of each person.

Despite many years of tourism development, there is still a lack of an integrated measure for describing the level of tourism attractiveness of large spatial units. WARSZYŃSKA & JACKOWSKI (1978) mention the following elements as the most frequent: tourism value (through 'point bonitation'), tourism infrastructure (an analysis of the number and type of accommodation units), accessibility (the possibility, time and the cost of transport), the size and type of tourism activity (overnights, number of arrivals, number of tourists per night, the seasonal character), the extent and use of the land, the scale of tourism income, occupational structure and employment in the tourism sector, and the length of tourism trails.

2. METHODS OF TOURISM ATTRACTIVENESS ASSESSMENT

The first academic attempts at a holistic assessment of the attractiveness of the natural environment for tourism needs were made in the interwar period but it was not until the 1960s that some studies appeared on the tourism attractiveness of regions which took into consideration various criteria and methodological assumptions. Such studies included those by Mileska, Bajcar and Marsz. In 1974 Warszyńska presented the so-called 'model method' which was a crucial moment. Since the 1980s some attempts to assess the natural environment in a more comprehensive way than before have been made. Likewise in the assessment of regional attractiveness, apart from a description of the region, 'point bonitation' is used which allows an assessment of the tourism attractiveness of a spatial unit in a more objective way (KOWALSKI 1996).

Special attention was paid to the 'point bonitation' method which allows classification of different features and links qualitative and quantitative features together. 'Point bonitation' is quite commonly practiced, however in spite of many good points this method also has some drawbacks. First of all, it lacks a uniform system for establishing criteria and a set of values therefore it is impossible to compare the results of several different studies (even for the same area). The final conclusion also depends on the ranges and the criteria which were taken into account (MICHOWIAK 2004, WARSZYŃSKA 1974). The assessment of qualitative features, despite the greatest efforts remains, a subjective opinion.

3. A PROPOSAL FOR AN INTEGRATED EVALUATION OF THE TOURISM ATTRACTIVENESS OF A REGION

The main aim of the research was to find the most objective assessment of the tourism attractiveness of a region illustrated by the example of North Karelia in Finland[1]. To achieve this goal, methods were combined simultaneously to analyze many aspects and to draw the best conclusion. The first element was a survey concerning the perception of the region by Finns and foreigners to demonstrate its subjective reception. The second element was more objective. It consisted of an analysis of the attractions of the region by 'point bonitation', the acquirement of data on the extent of tourism, an examination of the region concerning its tourism and para-tourism infrastructure, analysis of its internal and external accessibility and a description of the literature. All those elements allowed the construction of a series of graphs, tables and maps which make it possible to answer the question: is North Karelia a real tourism region? It is also possible to answer some other questions such as which places are the most attractive to tourists and what activities result from tourism needs. It was important to discover what attracts tourists to the North Karelia region and what discourages them. An important aim was to discover why tourists concentrate in some towns and areas.

On the basis of the analysis and calculations, both the thematic maps and an integrated map were made. On the thematic maps, areas of great natural and anthropogenic interest and the most attractive places, as well as the most accessible zones, were presented. As a consequence of bringing together those thematic maps, an integrated one was drawn which presents the integrated tourism attractiveness of the region. Through the thematic maps, a clear picture of the elements which determine such attractiveness can be gained. The survey allowed the examination of many aspects of the region, for example cultural events. Very interesting results were obtained as a result of undertaking the survey simultaneously among Finnish inhabitants (domestic tourists) and foreigners (foreign tourists).

Two basic elements used for assessing the tourism attractiveness of a region were complemented with some numerical data obtained from various institutions such as the three national parks (data on the extent of tourism), the Finnish Chamber of Tourism, museums and hotels. An analysis of the literature concerning the region was made, direct research was conducted (participant research, and conversations with employees of national parks to personally verify the actual state of the infrastructure and its quality), tourism indices were calculated and the information given on websites was analyzed (hotels, museums and national parks).

4. THE EXAMPLE OF THE NORTH KARELIA REGION (FINLAND)

Karelia is a historical region which stretches on both sides of the state border of Finland and Russia (see Fig. 1). The larger Russian part is known as the Republic of Karelia and the small fragment which lies in Finland is called Western Karelia or Finnish Karelia. North Karelia is a part of Finnish Karelia and is 21 585 sq. km in area.

Fig. 1. Location of the North Karelia region on the Finnish administrative map
S o u r c e: author, K. Kowalska, based on a map from d-maps.com; 20.04.2010

North Karelia is divided into 19 smaller units (in Finnish *kunta*) and has population of about 175 000. The capital is Joensuu which has a population of 72 791 (in 2010). Additionally, the biggest towns are Lieksa, Kitee, Nurmes and Outukumpu (Vuorjoki & Virtamo 2005; see Fig. 2).

Old traditions, rites and folk customs are still present here and more visible than anywhere else in Finland (Lehtipuu 1996). Karelia is famous for its cuisine, historical costumes, national views, orthodox churches, chapels, convents, orthodox graveyards, language (Karelian dialect), traditions and customs, handicrafts, rites and orthodox holidays, art, and songs (folk songs). It is also the historical birthplace of the 'Kalevala' (RAIVO 2002).

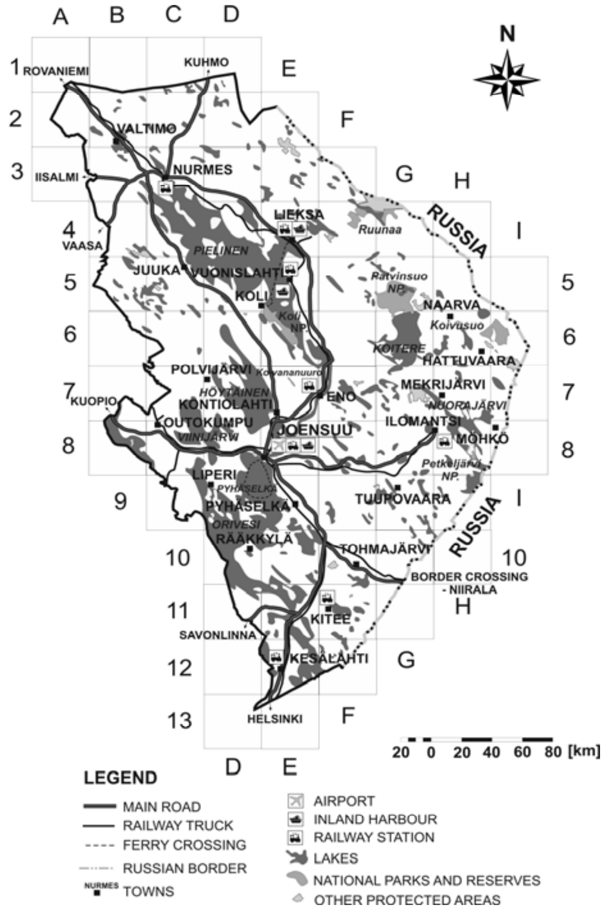

Fig. 2. Road network and the most important towns in North Karelia
S o u r c e: author, K. Kowalska, based on the maps *Tiekartta 6 (Savonlinna-Joensuu)* and *9 (Kuopio-Nurmes)*, 2007

In order to carry out a 'point bonitation', two topographic maps at a scale of 1 : 250 000 was used *Tiekartta 6 (Savonlinna-Joensuu)* and *9 (Kuopio-Nurmes)*. The cartographic grid of the map was the base for dividing the region into 74 basic squares each 20 km x 20 km. Each square was ascribed with a number of 'points' which had been calculated before. The criteria which describe the landscape were divided into three groups: natural elements (14), anthropogenic elements (19) and transport accessibility (7; see Table I). As far as natural elements are concerned, each square could achieve a maximum of 35 points, for the anthropogenic elements – 36 points, and for transport accessibility 6 points. In the last group there were two elements for which a negative number of points could be given: the railway (which crosses the square but there is no train station) and an airport (for its noisiness).

The map of natural elements shows that in this regard Karelia is a very attractive region (see Fig. 3). Very attractive and outstandingly attractive squares cover 70% of the region (52 squares). Naturally less attractive squares appear only peripherally. The northern part of the research region is more attractive than the southern one.

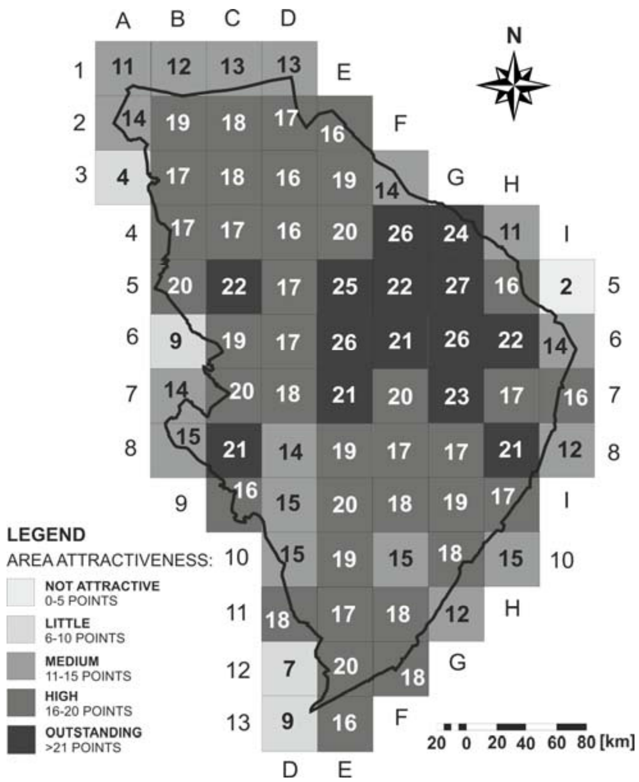

Fig. 3. 'Point bonitation' of natural elements in North Karelia
S o u r c e: author, K. Kowalska, based on the maps *Tiekartta 6 (Savonlinna-Joensuu)* and *9 (Kuopio-Nurmes)*, 2007

The most attractive squares are at the same time the wildest and most natural where vast areas are under protection. In this part the national parks are located: Koli (E5, E6), Patvinsuo (G5, G6) and Petkeljärvi (H8); the reserves: Kolvanonuuro (E7) and Koivusuo (H6); and also a natural hiking area called Ruuna (F4, G4) (*cf*. Fig. 2).

The high natural attractiveness of Karelia is due to the fact that this region lies within the biggest European lake district known as the 'Finnish Lakeland'. The lakes are the areas where tourists rest, sunbathe, fish, sail, canoe and swim, and on the rivers canoeing and rafting are organized. The integrated natural value of the region is even greater thanks to vast forest areas which are good places for hiking and forest fruit foraging. The Finnish government and some organizations insist on developing sustainable tourism in Karelia as they understand the importance of the natural elements. Nature is a priceless common treasure which should be available to the future generations.

T a b l e 1. The number of points given for each element

Group of elements	Sub-group of elements	Elements	Number of points available
Natural elements	Hydrography	Number of lakes	0–3
		Surface of lakes (%)	0–3
		Variety of coast line	0–4
		Number of rivers	0–3
		Total length of rivers	0–3
		Surface of marshes (%)	0–3
		Number of islands on lakes	0–3
	Geology and geomorphology	Number of hills	0–3
		Ravines	0–1
		Mineral deposits, mines	0–1
	Forests	Forest area (%)	0–2
		National parks (number of them)	0–2
		National park area (%)	0–3
		Number of reserves	0–1
Maximum points for natural elements			35
Anthropogenic elements	Settlement network	Number of cities and towns	0–1
		Number of villages	0–2
	Tourism trails	Natural trails	0–2
		Number of hiking trails	0–1
		Number of bicycle trails	0–1
		Number of water trails	0–1
		Number of ski trails	0–1
		Total length of hiking trails	0–3
		Total length of bicycle trails	0–3
		Total length of water trails	0–3
		Total length of ski trails	0–3
	Tourism infrastructure	Museums	0–3
		Monuments	0–1
		Bird–observation towers	0–1
		Tourism information centres	0–1
		Hotels	0–3
		Golf course/stables/bathing area	0–2
		Tourist refuge	0–1
		Architectural monuments and others	0–3
Maximum points for anthropogenic elements			36
Transport accessibility	Elements of transport infrastructure	Ferry crossing	0–1
		Inland harbour	0–1
		Airport	–1–0
		Train station	0–1
		Railway	–1–0
		Motorway	0–1
		Main road	0–2
Maximum points for transport accessibility			6
Maximum points for all the elements together			77

S o u r c e: author, K. Kowalska.

The map of anthropogenic elements is completely different (see Fig. 4). Outstandingly attractive and very attractive areas cover only 14 squares (19% of the region) and unattractive or nearly unattractive areas cover as much as 56% of North Karelia.

The most anthropogenically attractive parts are not as concentrated as the natural ones. The best tourism zone stretches from Joensuu (E8) to Lieksa (E4) and the second smaller zone is in the east and encompasses the area of Ilomantsi, Mekrijärvi and Hattuvaara (H8-H6).

A natural convergence in distribution of anthropogenic elements, settlement and transport systems (see Fig. 2) can be observed and the infrastructure that makes it possible to make use of what is of natural value (tourism trails, museums, summer cottages, tourism information centres). The most interesting areas are the vicinities of Joensuu (E8), Nurmes (C3), Ilomantsi (H8) and Ruunaa Reserve (F4). The squares where Mekrijärvi (H7), Hattuvaara (H6), Lieksa (E4) and Vuonislahti (E5) are located are also very attractive.

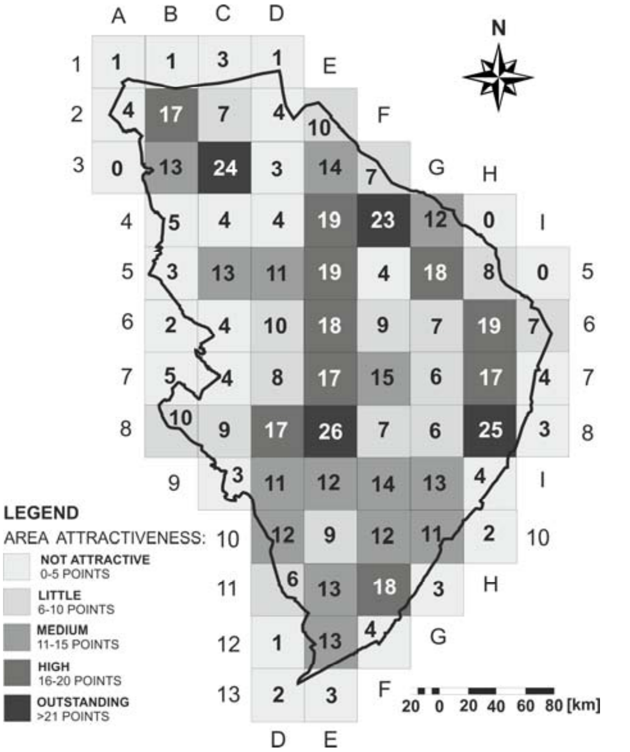

Fig. 4. 'Point bonitation' of anthropogenic elements in North Karelia
S o u r c e: author, K. Kowalska, based on the maps *Tiekartta 6 (Savonlinna-Joensuu)* and *9 (Kuopio-Nurmes)*, 2007

Thanks to the separate assessment of internal transport accessibility in North Karelia those areas reached easily can be seen (see Figs 2 & 5).

A central 'vertical' zone (D, E) and a 'horizontal' one (8, Outokumpu-Ilomantsi) can be singled out because the main roads and railway tracks run across these areas. Joensuu has the best connections with the whole region because it has the airport, the main railway and bus stations and is a road hub. According to the map (see Fig. 5) the most difficult for access are small towns which are situated in the western, north-western and south-western parts of the region.

It should be emphasized that the outstanding, naturally attractive areas (e.g. Ruunaa, Patvinsuo and Koivusuo), which are located in north-eastern Karelia, are difficult to reach. One can reach those places only by track. What is more, the belt which is close to the Russian border is marshy and particularly protected (it is also an external border of the European Union) - that is why this zone is hard to reach. The ferry crossing between Koli and Lieksa, available in the summer, is one of the most important transportation facilities (in winter the lake functions as a road for cars).

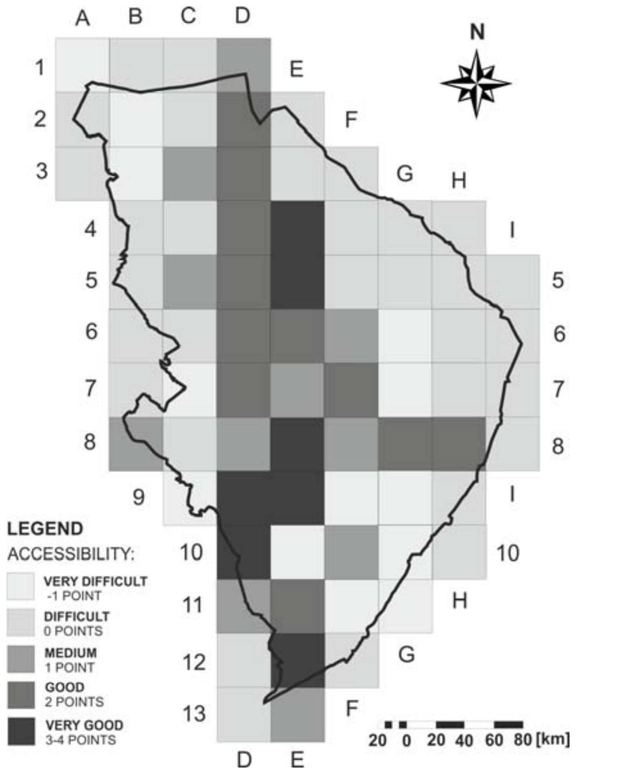

Fig. 5. 'Point bonitation' of transport accessibility in North Karelia
S o u r c e: author K. Kowalska, based on the maps *Tiekartta 6 (Savonlinna-Joensuu)* and *9 (Kuopio-Nurmes)*, 2007

Owing to the fact that the 'points' for all the elements were summed it was possible to create a general map of North Karelia region (see Fig. 6). It is similar to the map that presents the natural values (in this case).

Outstanding and very attractive squares cover 34% of the research area meaning that tourism activity is concentrated in one third of the region. The central area, with Joensuu and the north-eastern part where there are the national parks, reserves and other protected areas, is the most attractive. The western part of Karelia is much less attractive.

The second method used in this integrated assessment of tourism attractiveness was a survey on the perception of tourism conducted in the capital of North Karelia, Joensuu. The research lasted between 20th January 2009 and 30th April 2009. The survey, which was conducted in English, was made in two ways – directly (148 respondents) and indirectly via email (52). In total, 200 respondents were interviewed including 100 Finns and 100 students who had come to Joensuu from different countries. The research group consisted of 115 women and 85 men. Among the surveyed students were those from 25 different countries, mainly from Poland, Spain, Germany and Czech Republic. All were between 19 and 30 years old - the average age was 23.6.

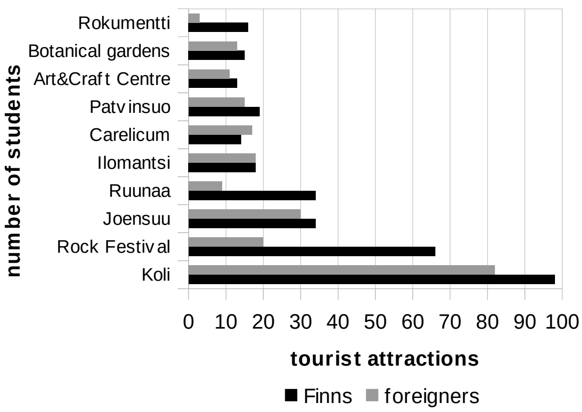

Fig. 6. The biggest tourist attractions in North Karelia region according to Finnish and foreign students
S o u r c e: author K. Kowalska

From a tourism point of view, 75% of Karelia is attractive. The attractiveness of natural elements, towns and cultural events were examined separately and what students find the most attractive (807 points, 180 respondents) is Koli. The Ilosaari Rock Festival received less than half (332 points, 86), while third was Joensuu (186 points, 61). 'Joensuu' means here the both the city with all its attractions and opportunities for recreation. Among the most attractive places in North Karelia students mentioned: Ruuna, Ilomantsi and Patvinsuo. In general, there are seven natural areas, two towns (Joensuu and Ilomantsi), two events (Ilosaari Rock Festival and Rokumentti), and four places in Joensuu: Carelicum, a handicraft centre, inland harbour and the market square. The other important element of the research was the divergence in perception of North Karelia between Finns and foreigners.

Taking into account the specificity of Finland, some extra elements and activities that may enlarge the tourism attractiveness of Karelia were also examined. The most popular are hiking trips. For both groups of students, one of the Karelian attractions is a sauna, with the chance to swim in a lake (in summer) or in a lake 'airhole' (in winter). The sauna is a part of Finnish culture and identity, an inseparable element of everyday life, a remedy for many illnesses and a unique experience. Cross-country skiing is one of the most popular winter attractions while others are swimming in the rivers and lakes in summer and staying in summer cottages. Many people find ice skating a great attraction. Karelia is also known for its local handicrafts (e.g. wire candlesticks), music (folk music from Rääkyla, the works of Sibelius), or local cuisine (e.g. karjalanpiirakka, pulla). Architectural monuments are mainly represented by the old wooden houses (some have been changed into a museum or a shop), Orthodox and Protestant churches. But they are not the most important destinations of trips, because tourism in Karelia concentrates rather on what is of natural value of which ecotourism and active tourism are the most promoted.

The interviewees were also asked to mention some obstacles to exploring Karelia. Both Finnish and foreign students presume that some of the main problems in the tourism exploration of North Karelia are a lack of information about the region, too little promotion and difficult transport accessibility to many places and attractions. High prices are a huge obstacle for foreign students.

At the end of the survey students were asked to put the attractions of North Karelia in order, starting from the greatest in their opinion (see Fig. 7). On the basis of their answers tables and maps of the most attractive places in Karelia were made.

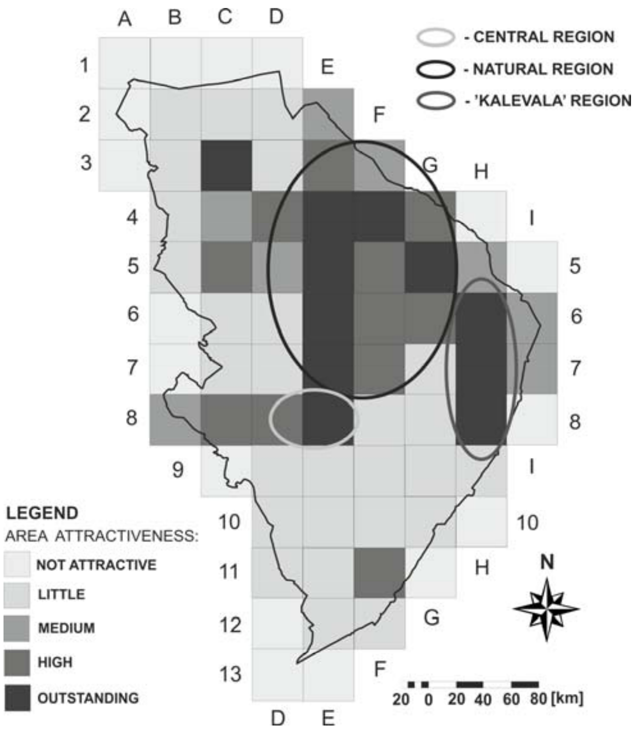

Fig. 7. Compilation of the results of the 'point bonitation' made on the basis of maps and a graphic interpretation of the survey results
S o u r c e: author K. Kowalska

Among about 19 mln tourists (domestic and foreign all together; in 2009) who visited Finland, almost

0.5 mln go each year to North Karelia (including 50,533 foreigners; see Table 2). The number of Poles visiting North Karelia is about 600 every year. Among all the visitors, domestic tourists dominate with 87.3% while Russians are the dominant group among foreign tourists (45.4% in 2009) – coming to visit their relatives, to look for a job or a better life. More than 1000 in recent years have come from Germany, Holland, Switzerland, Sweden and the United Kingdom. Finns visit North Karelia mostly in summer while in terms of foreign tourists, winter and summer are both popular.

T a b l e 2. Number of foreign tourists who visited North Karelia by country of origin in 2007-9

Country of origin	2007		2008		2009	
	no. of tourists	% f.t.[1a]	no. of tourists	% f. t.[b]	no. of tourists	% f. t.[1]
Australia	243	0.42	299	0.55	138	0.27
Canada	709	1.21	233	0.43	224	0.44
Czech Republic	1 130	1.93	571	1.05	284	0.56
Norway	797	1.36	339	0.62	376	0.74
Denmark	623	1.06	647	1.19	426	0.84
Japan	848	1.45	701	1.29	481	0.95
Belgium	508	0.87	523	0.96	496	0.98
Poland	666	1.14	585	1.08	525	1.04
Spain	1 189	2.03	123	0.23	534	1.06
USA	1 283	2.19	857	1.58	588	1.16
Austria	666	1.14	477	0.88	768	1.52
Estonia	1 445	2.47	1 332	2.45	807	1.60
Italy	1 564	2.67	1 206	2.22	819	1.62
France	2 538	4.34	1 327	2.45	992	1.96
United Kingdom	2 471	4.22	2 376	4.38	1 519	3.01
Sweden	2 775	4.74	2 310	4.26	1 677	3.32
Switzerland	1 895	3.24	1 627	3.00	1 678	3.32
Holland	3 498	5.98	2 939	5.42	1 738	3.44
Germany	7 636	13.05	6 516	12.01	5 618	11.12
Others	4 877	8.33	4 374	8.06	6 634	13.13
Russia	19 080	32.61	23 426	43.17	22 940	45.40
Total foreigners	58 513	12.56[b]	54 270	12.61[b]	50 533	12.74[b]
Finns	407 392	87.44[c]	375 971	87.39[c]	345 976	87.26[c]
Total number	465 905	100.00	430 241	100.00	396 509	100.00

[a] % f.t. – percentage foreign tourists (by country), [b] percentage foreign tourists (relative to domestic), [c] percentage domestic tourists.
S o u r c e: www.stat.fi, Mikko T. Mäkinen.

The urban tourism function index (according to Baretje/Defert) for Joensuu equals 2.61, which according to WARSZYŃSKA & JACKOWSKI'S (1978) interpretation, means that it is a small administrative centre. The number of tourism accommodation places (per 100 inhabitants) for the whole Karelia region amounts to 3.33. Accommodation available in North Karelia is presented in Table 3.

T a b l e 3. Accommodation units and tourism beds in North Karelia region: 2009

Type of accommodation	Number of accommodation units	Number of beds
Hotels	22	2 070
Hostels	5	178
Summer houses	164	2 666
Other types of accommodation	26	920
Total	217	5 834

S o u r c e: author, K. Kowalska, based on information gathered; various sources.

The tourism intensity index according to Schneider is 257.1 in Karelia (tourists plus one-day visitors). The accommodation capacity usage index is 77.13 and the index of development equals 42.85. Accommodation density is low – 0.27 available beds/km^2. About 55 % of tourists stay at least one night in Karelia during their visit while the average tourist stays 2.25 days. According to the SWOT analysis and its graphical interpretation in North Karelia is in the 'attack' area (according to STASIAK, WŁODARCZYK & KACZMAREK 2010). That means that there are great opportunities to use the chief assets. More strengths than weaknesses were noticed and more opportunities than threats (data obtained from the Finnish Central Statistical Office; Mikko T. Mäkinen).

At the end of the research on the most attractive places, the results of the survey were compiled resulting in one common map of tourism attractiveness (Fig. 7). In the last phase the author outlined the three most attractive areas in North Karelia: the Central Region, the 'Natural' Region and the 'Kalevala' Region.

According to the research Finns highly value North Karelia as a tourism reception area yet we cannot talk about its international importance. It is increasingly often visited by foreigners but its peripheral location in Europe means it remains an 'elite' region visited only by very aware tourists.

The development strategies for Finland and North Karelia and government activities show that this region should remain undegraded, that is why they develop sustainable (ecotourism), alternative tourism and agrotourism. In the master's thesis (and briefly in the article) it was shown that North Karelia is a real tourism region.

5. SUMMARY OF THE USEFULNESS OF THE RESEARCH METHODS APPLIED IN THE STUDY OF REGIONAL TOURISM ATTRACTIVENESS

The simultaneous application of two research methods was able to show the most attractive places and areas in North Karelia and present those most eagerly visited. Both methods (the survey and valorization) complement each other and present the tourism attractiveness of this region more completely as well as the location of what is valued within its borders.

The 'point bonitation' method is considered a more objective research method than a survey. However, taking into account that the author was a participant in this case there is an element of subjectivity. In view of the fact that each author may analyze different elements, allocate varying points to each factor and have different ranges, this method is not perfect. Additionally, it makes it impossible to examine such attractions as cultural events.

The other aspect is to select a map at the right scale. It is important to find as precise a map as possible covering many elements, especially tourism ones, and by direct spatial research the author could verify if important elements had not been omitted. To sum up, the 'point bonitation' is a good method to show the more and the less attractive areas but only on the condition that a map is used at the right scale with rich content. Creating thematic maps, showing natural attractiveness, anthropogenic attractiveness and accessibility, allow a perception of which elements contribute to the attractiveness of a region.

The survey conducted among two groups of students revealed which places are most often and most eagerly visited and what the opinions of domestic and international tourists about these places are. In this way which cultural events are attractive, the nature of obstacles according to tourists' experiences and their personal impressions, was demonstrated as well. An analysis of their responses complemented valorization. A combination of the results of both investigations shows objectively that the reception areas are really the most attractive places.

In conclusion, undertaking both analyses simultaneously and combining their results allows assessment of tourism attractiveness in a more objective way and enables conclusions to be drawn. Usage of only one would not reveal answers to all the questions. That is why this is a good way to study various tourism-related aspects within vast spatial units. Yet they still have to be complemented by other indices, statistical data and analysis of the available literature. The approach to assessing tourism attractiveness proposed in the article is vital because it is based on a comparative interpretation which is a valuable source of information and brings together all tourism aspects in a holistic way.

FOOTNOTES

[1] The method of assessing the region from the tourism point of view proposed in this article was used in a master's thesis entitled *'The Tourism Attractions of North Karelia (Finland)'* written by Katarzyna Kowalska at the Institute of Urban Geography and Tourism Studies under Prof. Stanisław Liszewski's direction in 2010.

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SEA CRUISES AS A NEW BRANCH OF THE TOURISM INDUSTRY

Abstract: The article presents sea cruises – a form of tourism which is not very common in Poland but flourishes in other parts of the world. The author describes world and European fleets, cruise routes, ports visited and elements of cruise organization. She presents a detailed illustration of the most powerful European company – the Italian *Costa Crociere* (Costa Cruises) – which organizes cruises in Europe and all over the world.

Key words: tourism geography, sea tourism, sea cruises, tourism fleet, *Costa Crociere.*

1. INTRODUCTION

After World War II, sea passenger shipping began slowly to transform itself into tourism cruising[1] with stops at different ports for sight-seeing. This was because passenger lines were losing in competition with air transport. The process of cruise development accelerated in the 1980's and 90's, to become very dynamic in the last decade (2000-10) (*L'activité...*, 2003, CARTWRIGHT, BAIRD 1999, CHOMKA 2000). The increase in the number of cruise passengers over that period is estimated at 37%.

A number of companies specializing in this type of tourism have appeared owning fleets of deep draught ocean-going ships and capable of organizing individual cruises for up to 3000 per ship.

Ships call at ports where tourists may find a wide offer of excursions, mainly by coach, with guides, and organized for different language groups.

The competition between individual companies is strong, especially as regards tourism routes, comfort of travel, ways of spending time on board, the variety and quality of the services offered, and price levels. The companies widely cooperate with external service providers and in searching for qualified staff. Its scale demonstrates that a new branch of the tourism industry has been born (*Contribution...*, 2010, DWYER, FORSYTH 1998).

In the Polish literature, sea tourism has been discussed by MIKA (2007) who identifies five forms:
– coastal navigation excursion ships;
– sea ferries;
– cargo ships;
– seagoing yachts;
– seagoing excursion ships.

MIKA devoted most of his attention to the last form, referring to it just as cruising (sea excursion tourism) and this article is also dedicated to this particular form. The author attempts to present the issue globally and in Europe, using the example of the largest European company and one of the largest in the world, the Italian *Costa Crociere*, which in 2008 celebrated its 60th anniversary.

Finally, it should be stressed that while collecting data for the purposes of this article, the author found a number of discrepancies between different sources. Therefore, the figures quoted in the article should be treated as approximate, pointing mainly to the scale of the phenomenon described.

2. SEA CRUISING GLOBALLY

The global scale of the sea cruising phenomenon is illustrated by several figures. At present, there are about 300 large cruise ships, each accommodating over 500 passengers in cabins. It is estimated that these ships transport 13 million tourists annually. About 200,000 people are employed in the service of this transport sector and the cost of building a single ship reaches about 500 million dollars. Experts estimate that the cruise ship industry is one of the fastest growing branches of the tourism economy (WARD 2010, www.e-hotelarz.pl). Generally, in the early 2000's globally, sea cruises averaged 9.5 million passengers annually and over the decade the number of passengers increased by nearly 37%. It is estimated that they spent 48 billion dollars a year. American (6 million) and European (1.7 million) tourists constituted 81% of the total.

Sea cruises are organized by companies with various financial structures, often joint-stock companies. A company owns a fleet of passenger ships of similar tourist capacity, i.e. the number of places/beds in cabins with a large number of staff on land as well as at sea. On board the ratio of passengers to staff is 3 : 1 on average.

The companies choose the routes of their cruises and ports of departure, which are often outside their home country, within a cruising area, e.g. the Caribbean, Northern Europe or the Far East. During a cruise the ship calls at many ports where the tourists go on organized excursions.

The oldest companies launching tourism cruises, and which still exist today, were European companies. The earliest were established in the mid-19th c., e.g. Cunard – a British company set up in 1840 in which luxury cruises have always played a predominant role. It owned such famous ships as Queen Elisabeth I and II, Queen Mary I, and currently Queen Mary II and the newest – Queen Victoria.

A particular role was played by the Holland America Line, established in 1873 as a Dutch-American company (currently American), which specialized in transporting emigrants from Europe to North America. In 1895, the Holland America Line organized the first holiday cruise in the world, and in 1910 – the first voyage from New York to the Holy Land (www.venustour.pl).

A company of long experience is the Italian *Costa Crociere*, set up in 1948 originally for cargo shipping purposes, it soon reoriented itself towards sea cruises for tourists.

A number of cruise lines which are currently the largest were founded in the 1960's (e.g. the British-American Princess Cruises in 1965, NCL in 1966) and later (e.g. the American Carnival Cruise Line in 1973, the Italian MSC in 1988, the American Celebrity in 1989) (Safpol Travel). The youngest companies include Crystal Cruises (American, based in Los Angeles), set up in the early 1990's as well as the Spanish *Iberocruceros*, established in 2007 (Wikipedia Costa Cruises).

An analysis of the worldwide cruise market points to the strong domination of Europe and North America (Table 1). These two macro-regions concentrate 74% of the companies which organize sea cruises in the world, 85% of cruise ships and 87% of cabin places. Europe is in the lead, with 48% of companies, 45% of ships and 45% of cabin places. The African continent lacks this type of cruising resource and the rest of the world has few of them. This does not mean, however, that there are no cruises in those areas; they are simply organized by European and American companies.

Table 1. World sea cruise fleets by size of ship – 2009

Size of ship (by number of cabin places)	Number		
	companies	ships	cabin places
Europe			
> 1000	15	85	186 000
500–1000	17	72	43 300
< 500	29	74	8 870
Total	61	231	238 170
North America			
> 1000	8	76	192 500
500–1000	6	16	12 000
< 500	23	110	18 500
Total	37	202	223 000
Asia			
> 1000	3	19	41 450
500–1000	4	7	5 060
< 500	5	13	1 600
Total	12	39	48 110
South America			
> 1000	–	–	–
500–1000	10	20	13 760
< 500	3	4	630
Total	13	24	14 390
Australia			
> 1000	1	3	6 000
500–1000	–	–	–
< 500	7	10	650
Total	8	13	6 650
Central America			
> 1000	–	–	–
500–1000	1	1	700
< 500	–	–	–
Total	1	1	700
Africa			
> 1000	–	–	–
500–1000	–	–	–
< 500	–	–	–
Total	–	–	–
Globally	132	510	531 020

Source: based on *Cruise Chips List, Cruise Companies* – www.cybercruises.com.

The concentration of large ships with over 1000 cabin places should be noted and companies from both regions own 88% of large cruise ships and 89% of places on them.

Tourism competition affects the sea cruising sector as well. As a result, companies from different countries form companies in order to protect their own business.

The largest corporation of that kind is the American, Carnival Corporation & plc, consisting of the ten strongest American and European companies (Table 2). They own nearly 100 large ships with the total of about 220,000 cabin places. This means that the Carnival Corporation (…) holds 53% of all the large

T a b l e 2. Carnival Corporation & plc – the world's largest cruise company

Company	Home country and main office	No of ships	Average number of places per ship	Total tourist capacity of ships
Carnival Cruise Line	USA – Miami	23	2 500	57 500
Costa Crociere	Italy – Genoa	17	2 500	42 500
Aida Cruises	Germany – Rostock	8	2 000	16 000
Princess Cruises	Great Britain/USA – California	15	2 500	37 500
P & O Cruise	Great Britain – Southampton	8	2 200	17 600
Holland America Line	USA – Seattle	15	1 700	25 500
P & Cruise	Australia	3	2 000	6 000
Cunard Line	Great Britain – Southampton	4	2 000	8 000
Iberocruceros	Spain – Madrid	4	1 300	5 200
Ocean Village	Great Britain – Southampton	2	1 500	3 000
Total		98	x	218 800

S o u r c e: based on www.cruiseeurope.com.

cruises and 51% of cabin places. The second largest, but half the size, is the American Royal Caribbean Cruises Corporation, consisting of six companies, mostly American. There are also several small companies, consisting of the companies in a given country, e.g. TUI Travel plc in Great Britain (Table 3).

T a b l e 3. An example of a national company – TUI Travel plc (Great Britain)

Company	Home country and main office	No of ships	Average number of places per ship	Total tourist capacity of ships
Thomson Cruises	Great Britain - Luton	5	1 200	6 000
Island Cruises	Great Britain	2	1 500	3 000
Total		7	x	9 000

S o u r c e: based on www.cruiseeurope.com.

We may observe a strong diversification in the development of companies organizing tourism cruises. There are countries, like the United States of America, Great Britain, Italy, or Germany, where companies specialize in cruises on large ships. There are also countries, where cruising takes place on small river and coastal boats, e.g. China (six companies which own 16 ships for 200 people each), Vietnam (one company with one ship for about 70) or New Guinea (one company with two ships for 40 people each). Other countries with small fleets include Chile (five companies with eight ships for 100 people each) and India (four companies with seven ships with 50 cabin places each). A relatively large fleet of river boats is found in France (one company with 26 boats, 180 places each).

A particular position among the European countries is occupied by Great Britain where there are 29 large ships, with a total of about 75,000 places, 15 medium-sized ships belonging to six companies (about 100,000 places), as well as 21 small ships (with less than 500 places), some of which are river boats. There are also 21 barge hotels.

Some countries have large sea-going yachts offering exclusive cruises, e.g. the USA has 12 such yachts and Ecuador has three.

At this point it is important to mention the cruise typology, quoted in the literature on the subject (www.croisiere.com). There are 10 types of cruises with one for cruising down the great rivers of the world[2]. Thus, there are the following nine types of sea cruises:

1) Coastal – by small boats, e.g. among the Greek, Adriatic or Red Sea islands;

2) 'Classic' sea – they last 8-12 and more days, following set routes and dates;

3) Short sea – shorter than the classic ones (2-6 days)

4) Stationary – with a break during the cruise; the break usually lasts for one week, serves mainly recreational purposes. The tourists stay at one of the visited ports and go back to the ship at the next rotation;

5) Theme cruises:

– art (music, theatre, dance),

– culture (literary, historical cruises combined with lectures, led by cruise hosts),

– natural history,

– cooking/gastronomy,

– sport (walks, golf),

– exploration cruises in the Antarctic or Arctic, on board a specially adjusted ship, in order to discover the harder to reach parts of the world,

6) Long-distance – a combination of travelling by air and sea: flying from one's own country to a distant

port, then on a sea cruise (e.g. a flight from Italy to Shanghai and a cruise on the Chinese Sea);

7) Sailing – cruises by sailing ships of different sizes, exclusive;

8) Motivation – seminars, congresses, group trips.

This typology has been recently enlarged by a new type which appeared when a huge ship named 'Oasis of the Seas' was built whose cabins can accommodate 6360 passengers and 2000 staff (www.france-info.com). The enormous size of the ship greatly limits the possibility of docking or having traditional optional excursions organized at stopover ports. The 'Oasis…' was designed as an independent, floating leisure centre, offering the passengers a wide range of recreational activities. The author suggests that this type of cruise is referred to as a fixed recreation cruise.

On a global scale, there are platforms for co-operation between cruise companies and companies and cruise tourism experts. The most important one is the annual Cruise Shipping Conference, based in Miami, USA (webmaster@levoyageur.net).

Considering the scale, the use of cruise ships is strongly affected by issues of marine and harbour environment protection. Environmental issues are currently strongly highlighted in the activity of individual companies and are often an object of competition as regards obtaining certificates or distinctions. Particular attention is being paid to climate issues, the protection of air and water purity, waste disposal, and water reuse. Companies cooperate with various organizations and institutions such as the European Committee or the WWF. A special area of activity is the protection of the Mediterranean Sea Basin, where the heavy traffic of cruise ships is added to a similar traffic of cargo ships. Another area of activity is the protection of ports such as Venice.

3. TOURISM SEA CRUISES ORGANIZED BY EUROPEAN COMPANIES

In Europe, there are 13 countries with 29 companies specialized in organizing sea cruises (Table 4). It is worth noticing that not all coastal countries take part in organizing such cruises, e.g. Poland[3], Sweden, Belgium, Estonia, Latvia or Russia. However, there is one country which does not have access to the sea (Switzerland) but has two companies, owned jointly with Kenya, where the ships are stationed. A situation when one company combines cruising with another function is rare. An example of such a company however is the Luis Cruise Line from Cyprus, established in 1935 and based in Nicosia with 12 ships and a chain of 26 hotels – 15 in Greece and 11 in Cyprus (www.venustour.pl).

Great Britain is the leader among the European countries as regards the number of companies (21), ships (70) and cabin places (nearly 88,000), as well as the number of cruise participants (over 1.5 million in 2009) (Table 5). The position of Italy is also interesting; it has only two companies, but owns only large ships and as regards the number of places it is the largest in this particular category. Apart from Great Britain and Italy, European leaders include Germany and Spain. We should stress here the relatively weak position of France, which in many other sectors of tourism occupies the top position in Europe and globally, has a well-developed coastline and ideal shipyards which build passenger ships as well (e.g. recently Queen Mary II), but at the same time does not offer so many tourism sea cruises.

The ranking of European countries as regards cruise fleets (Table 4) is based on the number of passengers (Table 5). In 2009, a total of nearly five million people went on sea cruises in Europe. The majority of them were British (31.0%), followed by Germans (21.7%), Italians (15.9%) and Spaniards (12.6%). In all countries there has been an increase in the number of passengers. The highest in 2009 (compared to 2008) was recorded in the Scandinavian countries (41%), followed by Austria (27%) and Spain (26%). On a European scale it was 12%.

The routes of cruises most frequently chosen by Europeans include the Mediterranean Sea (Fournier 2011) with the Canary Islands, the Azores and Madeira (2.8 million tourists in 2009), the Baltic Sea and Norwegian Fiords (884,000 tourists in 2009). In these last two regions the largest increase in the number of cruise participants is found (> 20% compared to 2008). A smaller increase is observed in the number of Europeans travelling to the Caribbean (which also attract the French – see Table 6) and on other routes (<19%) (www.lhotelerie-restauration.fr). The dominance of the Mediterranean Sea (67% of the overall European traffic in 2009) should be stressed, followed by the Caribbean, Antilles and Bermudas, but they constitute only 13.4% (webmaster@levoyageur.net 2010).

An interesting phenomenon is the cruise traffic load of the ports, related to ships arriving and their tourists. The situation in some ports is illustrated in Table 7. The number of ships and tourists is comparable in such different port cities as St Petersburg (five million inhabitants) and Tallinn (400,000 inhabitants). On average, three large ships call at each of these harbours every day, bringing about 9000 tourists. Disregarding the possible rotation, in order to provide them with an appropriate service, there is a need for 220 coaches and 220 guides speaking in different languages in each of the cities. This is a much greater problem for Tallinn, a small city, than for the huge St Petersburg.

T a b l e 4. Sea cruise fleets in European countries – 2009

Home country	Sea cruise fleets by number of places in cabins									Home country total					
	> 1 000			500–1 000			< 500								
	number			number			number			number			% of the total		
	c[a]	sh[b]	places	c[a]	sh[b]	places	c[a]	sh[b]	places	c[a]	sh[b]	places	c[a]	sh[b]	places
Great Britain	6	36	75 100	6	15	9 450	9	19	3 340	21	70	87 890	34.0	30.4	36.9
Italy	2	29	78 500	–	–	–	–	–	–	2	29	78 500	3.2	12.6	32.9
Germany	2	10	20 000	2	11	5 500	7	23	1 030	11	44	26 530	18.1	19.1	11.1
Spain	3	8	9 300	–	–	–	–	–	–	3	8	9 300	4.9	3.4	3.9
France	1	1	1 300	1	1	750	3	7	1 590	5	9	3 640	8.2	3.9	1.5
Greece	–	–	–	4	12	8 100	2	13	1 150	6	25	9 250	9.8	10.9	3.9
Finland	1	1	1 800	–	–	–	1	2	400	2	3	2 200	3.2	1.3	0.9
Norway	–	–	–	1	13	6 500	1	2	200	2	15	6 700	3.2	6.5	2.8
Portugal	–	–	–	1	5	2 500	–	–	–	1	5	2 500	1.6	2.1	1.0
Cyprus	–	–	–	1	10	8 000	1	1	260	2	11	8 260	3.2	4.7	3.5
Netherlands	–	–	–	1	5	2 500	2	3	300	3	8	2 800	4.9	3.4	1.2
Croatia	–	–	–	–	–	–	2	3	400	2	3	400	3.2	1.3	0.2
Switzerland / Kenia	–	–	–	–	–	–	1	1	220	1	1	220	1.6	0.4	0.1
Total	15	85	186 000	17	72	43 300	29	74	8 890	61	231	238 190	100.0	100.0	100.0

c[a] – companies, sh[b] – ships.
S o u r c e: based on *Cruise Chips List, Cruise Companies* – www.cybercruises.com.

T a b l e 5. European sea cruise participants – 2007-9

Participants' home countries	No of participants in thousands			Increase 2008–9 (%)	European market share (%) 2009
	2007	2008	2009		
Great Britain	1 335	1 477	1 533	4	31.0
Germany	763	907	1 027	13	20.7
Italy	640	682	790	16	15.9
Spain	518	497	627	26	12.6
France	280	310	347	12	7.0
Scandinavian countries	94	123	174	41	3.4
Benelux	82	92	109	19	2.2
Switzerland	64	65	75	16	1.5
Austria	52	59	75	27	1.5
Portugal	20	28	30	8	0.6
Other	155	183	184	1	3.6
Total	4 004	4 422	4 942	12	100.0

S o u r c e: based on (webmaster@levoyageur.net) (2010).

T a b l e 6. Main routes of French tourists on sea cruises – 2008 and 2009 (in thousands)

Routes	No of tourists in thousands		% of the total – 2009
	2008	2009	
Mediterranean Sea and Black Sea	200	233	67.0
Caribbean, Antilles, Bermudas	46	47	13.4
Scandinavia – Baltic Sea	18	19	5.5
Atlantic islands, Great Britain, Western Europe	14	11	3.2
Transatlantic cruises	11	10	2.8
East: Asia – Australia	3	4	1.1
South America	3	3	0.8
West Coast USA, Mexico, Hawaii, Panama Canal	1	1	0.3
Other routes	7	13	3.6
Charter, integrative, seminar cruises	6	8	2.3
Total	310	347	100.0

S o u r c e: based on webmaster@levoyageur.net (2010).

The problem is different in Flåm, situated deep in a Norwegian fiord and inhabited by 300 people. The pier makes it possible for only one ship to moor and only one ship can call here daily. Despite the fact that all the inhabitants are involved in tourism, they are not capable of serving 3000 people at the same time. At the culmination of their stay, it is necessary to provide 70 coaches with guides, therefore Flåm needs help from the nearby town of Voss and city of Bergen. In this way cruise tourism here has an impact on the whole region. Its regional range is also seen in the optional excursions that are organized. It should also be said that the guides are sometimes foreign students spending their holidays in this way to earn their university fees[4].

T a b l e 7. Ships calling at ports and cruise tourists in 2010

Ports	Number	
	ships	visitors
Baltic ports		
Copenhagen	307	662 000
St. Petersburg	298	423 931
Tallinn	280	389 370
Stockholm	259	415 000
Gdynia	85	125 372
Riga	64	58 564
Klaipeda	45	34 962
Ports in Southern Norway		
Bergen	241	291 877
Geirangerfjord	158	210 105
Oslo	150	260 843
Stavanger	111	175 000
Flåm	106	136 908

S o u r c e: *Cruise Europe Statistics* www.cruiseeurope.com.

The European Cruise Council (ECC) brings together 24 cruise ship companies (webmaster@levoyageur.net).

4. *COSTA CROCIERE* – A CASE STUDY OF THE STRONGEST EUROPEAN CRUISE LINE

Costa Crociere has been on the market since 1948. It is a joint-stock company, which owns 16 large ships accommodating about 1000 passengers. In total, the ships offer over 18,000 cabins with over 38,000 places (Table 8). The Costa fleet is very modern; 11 ships (64.7%) were built in and after 2000. Only three ships (17.6%) come from the 1990's, and the remaining two are older, but regularly modernized (www.cruiseshipodyssey.com).

In 2011, Costa organized nearly 300 cruises (Table 9). The main routes included the Mediterranean Sea with the Canary Islands (131 cruises, 44.3%), Northern Europe (55 cruises, 18.7%) and the Far East (32 cruises, 10.9%) (Fig. 1).

The growth of the Costa company is demonstrated not only by its modern ships, but also new routes of travel: in 2006 – the Far East, Dubai and the Arab Emirates, in 2007 – the Indian Ocean and in 2010 – Greenland (Fig. 2). At the beginning of 2012 Costa organized its first, 100-day-long cruise around the world, including Australian ports for the first time. The concept of the 'Around the World' cruise comprises three stages: 'In Christopher Columbus' Footsteps' – from Savona to Los Angeles (Fig. 3), 'In James Cook's Footsteps' – from Los Angeles to Singapore (Fig. 4), and 'In Marco Polo's Footsteps' – from Singapore back to Savona (Fig. 5) (*Costa Cruise 2011* [Cruise catalogue]).

An analysis of *Costa Crociere* cruises shows that the numbers of cruises in individual months are relatively equal, with a slight domination in May (33 cruises), July (31) and August (30) and the smallest in February (18) and October (18). This relative regularity shows the company's efforts to make a steady and balanced use of its fleet.

T a b l e 8. Italian fleet of *Costa Crociere* 2011/12

Name of ship	Placed in service	Modernization year	No of cabins	Tourist capacity
Costa Fascinosa	2012	–	1 508	3 780
Costa Favolosa	2011	–	1 508	3 780
Costa Deliziosa	2010	–	1 130	2 826
Costa Luminosa	2009	–	1 130	2 826
Costa Pacifica	2009	–	1 504	3 780
Costa Serena	2007	–	1 500	3 780
Costa Concordia[a]	2006	–	1 500	3 780
Costa Magica	2004	–	1 358	3 470
Costa Fortuna	2003	–	1 358	3 470
Costa Mediterranea	2003	–	1 057	2 680
Costa Atlantica	2000	–	1 057	2 680
Costa Victoria	1996	2004	964	2 394
Costa Romantica	1993	2003	678	1 697
Costa Classica	1991	2001	654	1 680
Costa Marina	1969	2002	383	1 000
Costa Allegra	1969	2006	399	1 000
Total	x	x	17 688	44 623

[a] The ship was wrecked on 15th January 2012, after the article had been submitted for publication.

S o u r c e: based on www.cruisesshipodyssey.com *Costa Cruises* – Wikipedia.

T a b l e 9. Routes and the number of *Costa Crociere* cruises in 2011

Route	Year of inaugurating route	Cruises	
		number	% of total
Mediterranean Sea and Canary Islands	.	131	44.3
Northern Europe – Baltic Sea, Norwegian Fiords, Spitsbergen, Iceland	.	55	18.7
Far East – China, South Korea, Japan	2006	32	10.9
Caribbean (initially with the USA)	1959	23	7.7
Red Sea		19	6.4
'Small' cruises on the Mediterranean Sea	from 1996 in winter	14	4.7
Dubai and the Emirates	2006	12	4.0
'Unique' transatlantic cruises (incl. those to Greenland)	.	6	2.0
Indian Ocean	2007	4	1.3
Total	x	296	100.0

S o u r c e: based on *Costa Cruises 2011* [Cruise catalogue].

There is a clear seasonal differentiation of the regions where cruises are organized. The most characteristic

Fig. 1. A *Costa Crociere* route on the Baltic Sea
S o u r c e: *Costa Cruises 2011* [Cruise catalogue]

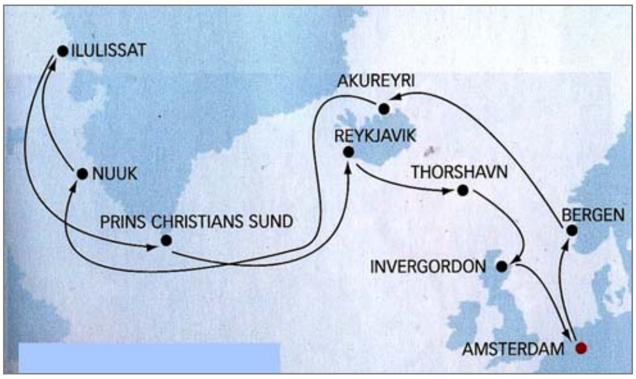

Fig. 2. The Costa Crociere route to Greenland
S o u r c e: *Costa Cruises 2011* [Cruise catalogue]

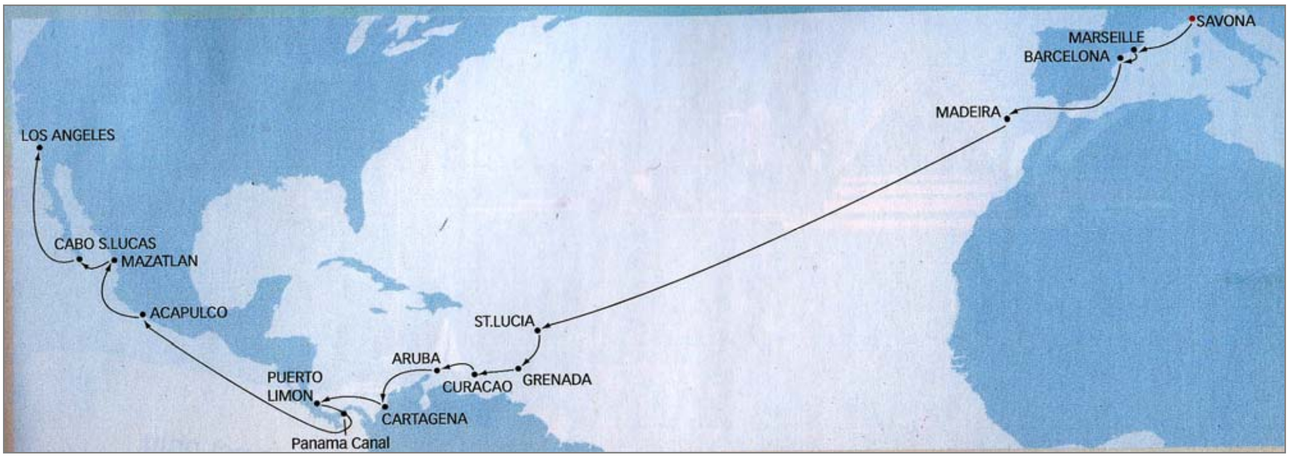

Fig. 3. In Christopher Columbus' Footsteps – Part I of the 'Round the world' cruise organized by Costa Crociere in 2012
S o u r c e: *Costa Cruises 2011* [Cruise catalogue]

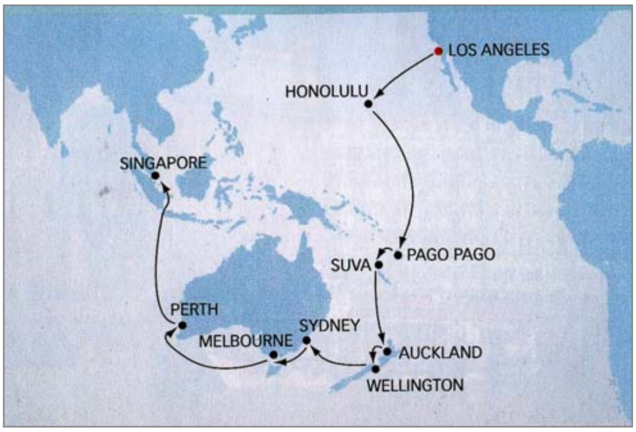

Fig. 4. In James Cook's Footsteps – Part II of the 'Round the world' cruise organized by Costa Crociere in 2012
S o u r c e: *Costa Cruises 2011* [Cruise catalogue]

region is Northern Europe where cruises are organized between May and September, with their peak during the three summer months – June, July and August. Between December and April the cruises are organized mainly in South America, Dubai and the Emirates. The Mediterranean Sea basin is an interesting region, as there the cruising season lasts all year[5]. The Canary Islands and the Caribbean also have long seasons[6].

Costa cruises begin at 20 ports all over the world (Table 10). The main port of departure is Savona in Italy (99 cruises, 33.5% of the total), followed by Venice (40, i.e. 13.5%). An important role is also played by Copenhagen (30, i.e. 10.1%), as well as Sharm el Sheikht and Shanghai (*Costa Cruise 2011* [Cruise catalogue]).

In the case when the port of departure is not in Italy, *Costa Crociere* follows the fly/sea approach, which means that it organizes charter flights for the passengers from Italy to the ports, e.g. from Milan to Buenos Aires, Dubai or Shanghai[7].

Costa ships call at almost 200 ports all over the world (Table 11, Fig. 6) and those most intensely used are clearly visible. Most of them lie on the Mediterranean Sea and in Northern Europe, as well as in the Far East and South-Eastern Asia.

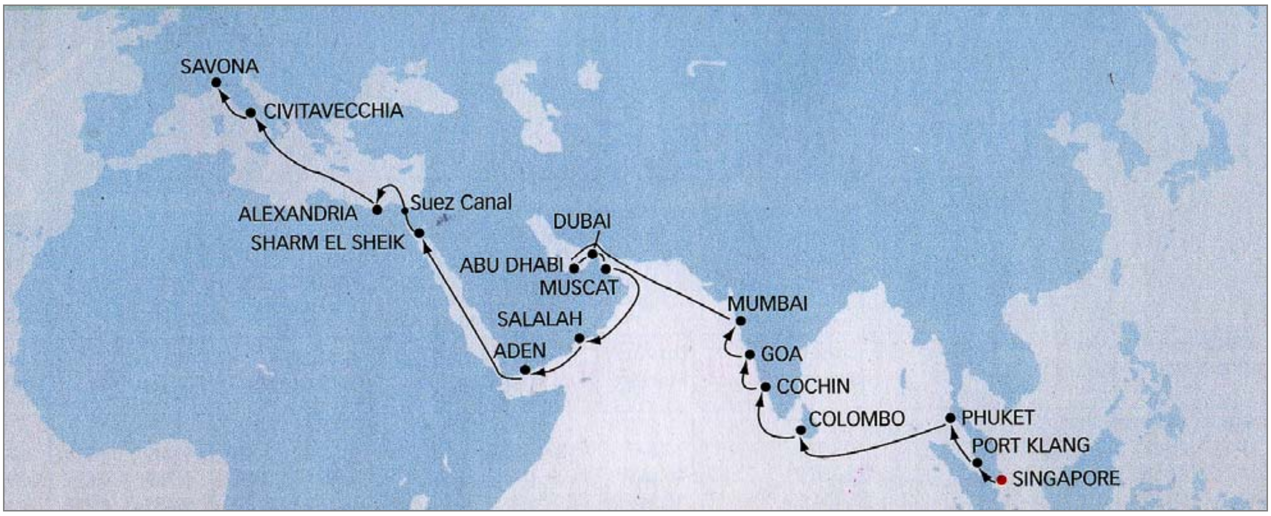

Fig. 5. In Marco Polo's Footsteps – Part III of the 'Round the world' cruise organized by Costa Crociere in 2012
S o u r c e: *Costa Cruises 2011* [Cruise catalogue]

T a b l e 10. *Costa Crociere* ports of departure in 2012

Port of departure	Cruise departures	
	number	% of the total
Savona (Italy)	99	33.5
Venice (Italy)	40	13.5
Copenhagen (Denmark)	30	10.1
Skarm El Sheikht (Egypt)	18	6.1
Shanghai (China)	17	5.7
Amsterdam (Netherlands)	13	4.4
Santos (Brazil)	10	3.4
Other ports of departure (13) < 10	69	23.3
Total	296	100.0

S o u r c e: based on *Costa Cruises 2011* [Cruise catalogue].

T a b l e 11. Ports used by *Costa Crociere* ships by region (as of 2012)

Region	Visited ports	
	number	% of total
Mediterranean Sea	37	19.3
Northern Europe	32	16.7
The Far East and South-Eastern Asia	27	14.0
Central America and the Caribbean	15	7.8
South America	13	6.8
Other	68	35.4
Total	192	100.0

S o u r c e: *Costa Cruises 2011* [Cruise catalogue].

Costa invests in the development of port terminals in order to make passenger and ship servicing more efficient. Recently large investments have been made in Savona (2003), Barcelona (2007) and Tianjin in China (2010) (www.costacroisieres.fr).

As has been mentioned before, at the ports visited the tourists may take part in optional excursions[8]. Table 12 presents an example of the excursions offered at Baltic ports in 2012 for those guided in French, during one cruise. The offer in St Petersburg is impressively wide, and includes not only visiting the most interesting historical monuments and the Hermitage, but also going to a ballet performance and a folklore evening. At several ports the offer includes trips to areas situated far away from the visited port city. Those excursions were often eco-tourism and took the tourists to interesting natural sites and regions, particularly valuable as regards sustainable development.

The development of *Costa Crociere* is also demonstrated by its growing number of passengers (tourists): in 1997 – 350,000, in 2007 – 1.1 million and in 2010 – 1.5 million.

In 1997-2007 the number of cruise passengers tripled while in 2007-10 it increased by 35% as a result of introducing new large ships (see Table 8) (www.tourmagazine.fr) (www.meretmarine.com).

In some countries, Costa is the most important company, serving the majority of inhabitants, e.g. in France, in 2003, 35% of the French people participating in sea cruises chose Costa. France is the second most important market for Costa, after Italy, preceding Spain, Great Britain, Germany and Austria.

Costa employs 15,000 people: 14,000 working on board and 1000 on land, from 80 countries. The mean age of the employees is 30 and the mean period of employment – two years, 61% of the staff are male (www.linkedin.com) (*Costa Crociere* – Company Profile). The languages used on board Costa ships include

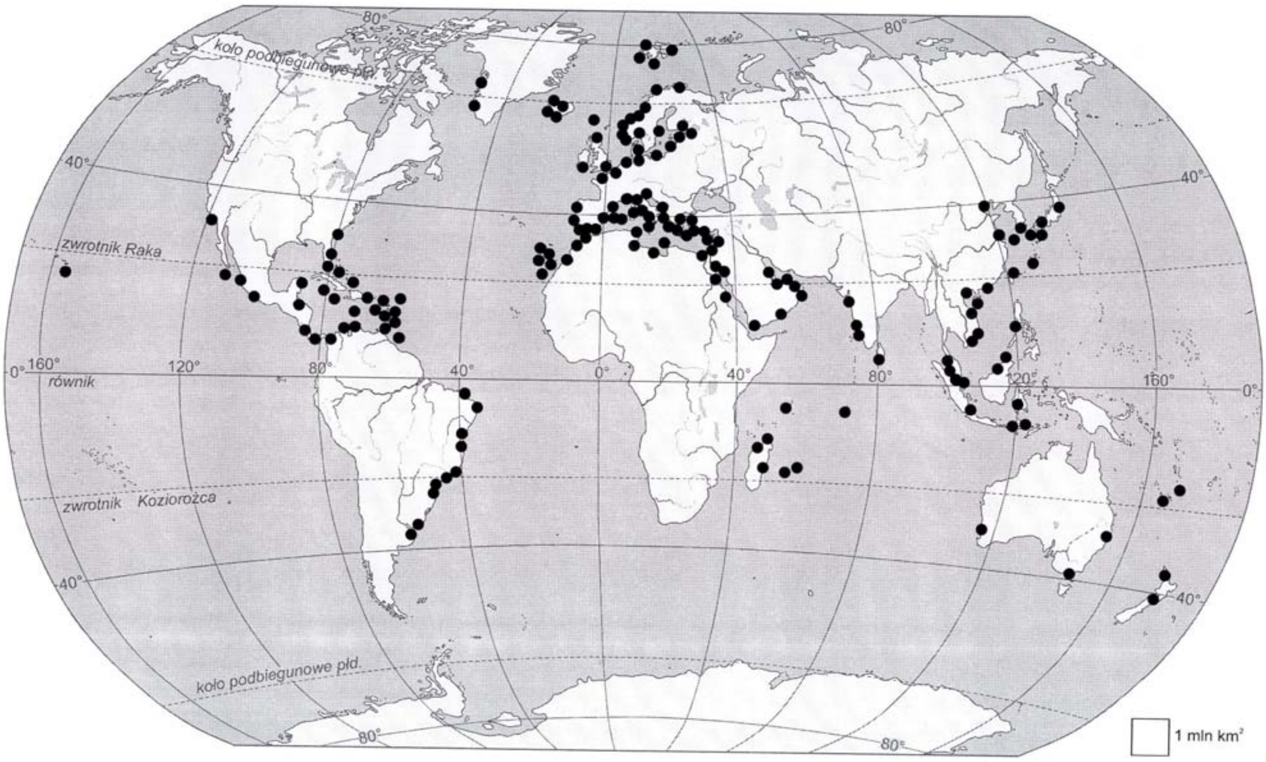

Fig. 6. Ports docked by *Costa Crociere* ships as of 2011
S o u r c e: based on *Costa Cruises 2011* [Cruise catalogue]

T a b l e 12. Offers of excursions in port cities visited – a *Costa Crociere* Baltic port cruise in 2011

Visited port	No of excursions	
	in port city	including longer distances
Tallinn[a]	4	–
St Petersburg	15	5
Helsinki	5	3
Stockholm	6	–
Oslo[a]	3	–
Copenhagen	5	1

[a] The limited offers in Oslo and Tallinn were caused by the relatively short stopover of the ship.

S o u r c e: based on *Tour magazine – the excursions 2011*. Costa Luminosa.

Italian, English, French, German, Spanish, Russian and Portuguese.

In their efforts to provide a high standard of personnel service, Costa organizes its own training, mainly for the hotel stewards serving the passengers in cabins, as well as waiters and auxiliary staff. Training sessions are run at seven schools: in India (two), Italy, the Philippines, Indonesia, Brazil and Peru. On the one hand, the aim is to gain workers of standardized skills, and on the other to stimulate young people in developing countries. The period of employment on ships is short (from half to one year). The young go back to their countries with new qualifications and experience in tourism services.

Tourism activity on Costa ships is organized by 25,000 agencies in Europe and 65,000 in the world.

Costa Crociere is very active as regards environmental protection. In 2004 it was awarded the ISO 14001 Certificate for its high standards. The company particularly values the special 'Green Star' badge it received. In 2005 it started cooperation with the WWF in the area of marine environment protection, and in 2009 for the protection of the Mediterranean Sea in particular. Costa also signed a voluntary agreement for the protection of the environment of Venice, the 'Venetian Blue Flag'. Since 2005, many Costa ships have been taking part in monitoring climatic changes related to air pollution. The monitoring is conducted in cooperation with the European Commission. Costa ships also participate in monitoring electromagnetic emission (*Costa Cruises 2011* [Cruise catalogue]).

Costa is the only European company which publishes annual reports on its activity in the field of environmental protection on ships. They regard, among other things, energy and fuel saving, desalinating sea water for drinking purposes, water reuse, segregation and the disposal of 100% of regular waste, and organizing eco-tourism (*Costa Cruises 2011* [Cruise catalogue]).

Costa has obtained certificates of safety (OHSAS 18 001), quality (UNI EN ISO 9001) and social responsibility (SA 8000) (www.costacruise.com).

5. SEA CRUISING TOURISM – A BRANCH OF THE TOURISM INDUSTRY

Sea cruising tourism is becoming a major part of the tourism industry. It operates in many different regions and a number of aspects can be identified:

1. Creating the fleet – building the ships, their equipping (often luxurious, from expensive materials), exploiting the ships, developing services. The important aspects of all these activities include employment and the balance between cost and profit.

2. Services for the passengers as regards hotel facilities, gastronomy, entertainment, sport, culture, shopping, spa & wellness, photography and tourism at the ports visited.

3. Cruise routes, ports visited – traditional routes, as well as new routes and ports included in an offer.

4. The influence of cruising tourism on the visited port destinations:

– docking at ports – it is necessary to have adequate terminal infrastructure[9], using courier services, supplying provisions, paying harbour fees,

– developing local tourism services,

– developing tourism agencies which organize optional excursions – coaches, multilingual guides,

– developing the production and sale of souvenirs and regional articles,

– developing mailing services,

– an increase in the attendance and profits from admission fees at the sites visited,

– use of local gastronomy.

5. Training young workers in countries with a large workforce supply and a growing tourism market which will be able to absorb those qualified returning from work on ships.

6. The activities of companies which have suitable fleets and organize sea cruises:

– building their own fleet,

– creating a competitive offer as regards the standard of the facilities available on the ship, hotel, gastronomic and other services, cruise routes, systems of price discounts, the efficiency and appropriate behaviour of staff,

– cruise organization – the choice of routes and ports, frequency of cruises, marketing and promotion,

– cooperation with thousands of tourism agencies and offices and airlines when organizing the fly/sea cruises, cooperation with other service providers as regards port services and provision,

– creating large, strong companies, mainly international, accumulating capital and creating competition on the sea cruises market.

In recent years new companies have appeared, with a relatively large potential at the start.

6. CONCLUSIONS

Sea cruises are becoming an increasingly popular form of tourism, combining contact with seas and oceans while travelling to attractive coastlines in different countries. A ship makes a comfortable, fixed place of accommodation and relaxation, and the majority of days during the cruise are devoted to sightseeing. This is often limited to quick visits to the most important sites and buildings, and gives the tourist a sense of insufficiency, makes them interested in what they did not have time to see. On the one hand, this way of learning about the world corresponds to the current fast pace of living and gaining experience, but on the other it urges people to revisit given countries and individual destinations.

The strong competition on the cruise market leads to companies creating systems of offers and incentives in order to attract new and keep old clients, as well as sending their ships to remote, more obscure regions of the world.

Sea cruises as a developing branch of the tourism industry, brings the tourists benefits which are difficult to assess, but also gives economic and social benefits to the country of origin of a given cruise company and foreign markets.

FOOTNOTES

[1] In Polish terminology we find the term 'excursion cruises'. The author suggests using the term 'tourist cruises' so that the word 'excursion' refers to optional excursions, organized during the cruise at the visited ports.

[2] The rivers include the Rhine, Danube, Seine, Rhone, Pau, Guadalquivir, Mosel, Volga, Yangtse, Mekong, Dnieper, and the Nile.

[3] It must be stressed here that the situation was completely different in inter-war Poland. There were companies called 'Żegluga Polska' and 'Polskie Towarzystwo Okrętowe' at that time. Apart from passenger cruises, they organized summer sea excursions under the slogan: 'work on the land, rest on the sea'. Four Polish ships – 'Kościuszko', 'Pułaski', 'Warszawa' and 'Polonia' – sailed in summer to Scandinavian countries, Latvia, Estonia, the USSR, Morocco, the Canary Islands and Madeira, Palestine, Greece, Turkey, North and South America (*Cruise on the Baltic, 1929, Morskie wycieczki zagraniczne 1929, Letnie wycieczki morskie 1933, Wycieczki morskie 1938*).

[4] Employing foreign students was also observed by the author in Greenland.

[5] *Costa Crociere* was the first to organize winter cruises on the Mediterranean Sea in 1966.

[6] *Costa Crociere* launched cruises to the Caribbean in 1959.

[7] The fly/sea system has been used by *Costa Crociere* since 1969. The company was the first to introduce it.

[8] The offer of optional excursions at port destinations varies thematically. There are cultural, panoramic (going to viewing points) and visiting the major buildings and sites visited in a given town or city, shopping, sport, ecological, culinary (in cooperation with the Michelin Gastronomic Guide) and ethnographic excursions (*Costa Cruises 2012* [Cruise catalogue]).

[9] Some ports lack proper infrastructure. Ships lie at anchor at a roadstead and the tourists are transported to the coast in boats. At some ports the hosts appreciate the economic role of receiving large tourist ships and adjust the wharfs to suit their needs, as well as building terminals (e.g. in recent years in St Petersburg). There are situations when the cruise companies themselves invest in terminals (Cf. Chapter 4).

Translated by Ewa Mossakowska

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TOURISM IN MOSCOW AFTER THE 'PERESTROIKA' TRANSFORMATIONS

Abstract: Moscow seems indeed to be a centre of world tourism. On the one hand, its tourism attractiveness for Russians and foreigners, as well as the wide opportunities it offers to its own inhabitants, stimulates trips for tourism and recreational purposes. On the other hand, it is determined by a number of historical, geographical, demographic, geopolitical, economic and socio-cultural factors.

Key words: tourism in a large city, Moscow.

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

1. REASONS FOR TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN MOSCOW

Moscow has the qualities of the modern capital of one of the leading nations in the world. Moreover, it is a city of federal significance, an independent entity within the Russian Federation, the administrative centre of the Central Federal District and the centre of the Moscow District. Moscow is one of the group of cities defined as 'megalopolis'. All this makes it administratively unique in the world. The city is the seat of the state legislative, executive and judiciary organs (except for the Constitutional Tribunal of the Russian Federation, based in St Petersburg since 2008), as well as of foreign diplomatic missions. The Kremlin is the official residence of the President of the Russian Federation.

Practically, no other city in Russia can compete with Moscow as regards the role played in the world arena, which is the basic condition for building a positive image of the city as a tourism centre.

The image of 21st c. Moscow as it is perceived by Russians and foreigners has become an subject of analysis for the Russian research centre (ROMIR), supported by the city authorities and the Gallup International organization. The research shows that Russians highly value the positive image of the capital: well organized, with well-off citizens, a well-developed business and recreational infrastructure, safe, and rich in cultural events. For the majority of respondents (over 80%), the image of Moscow as the 'visiting card' of Russia globally is crucial for creating and maintaining the image of a strong and flourishing country (Башкирова & Лайдинен 2001, p. 46).

Moscow has a long history (it was first mentioned in historical documents in 1147) and this is reflected in the many attractions in the city. Numerous historical events were marked by the building of churches and monasteries, and in secular constructions some fortified, as well as later in monuments. The Moscow region (Moscow and the Moscow District) has exceptional historical and cultural potential, the greatest in Russia – 38% of all such buildings in Russia are here (for comparison, in St Petersburg, Novgorod and Pskov Districts, it is only 16%) (*Программа*... 2000, p. 7). It is estimated that there are 6,500 historical, cultural and architectural monuments in Moscow (*Столичные*... 2007) including sites and buildings of global significance such as the Kremlin, the Red Square, the Bolshoi Theatre, Pushkin Museum of Fine Arts, and the Tretyakov Gallery. There is the unique hyperboloid structure of the Shukhov Tower, considered to be one of the most beautiful and interesting structures in the world in terms of engineering, as well as the 540-metre-high TV Tower in Ostankino, which for eight years was the highest in the world (Пестриков 2005, p. 26). Three monuments in Moscow have been put on the UNESCO World Heritage List, and another 23 are considered to be particularly valuable as the national heritage of Russia (Table 1).

Table 1. Highly valuable historical and cultural monuments in Moscow

Russian Federation national heritage structures [a]		
1	The Kremlin	
2	Bolshoi Theatre	
3	Maly Theatre	
4	Tchaikovsky Moscow State Conservatory	
5	Russian National Library	
6	Russian Academy of Arts	
7	Lomonosov State University	
8	National Historical Museum	
9	Pushkin State Museum of Fine Arts	
10	Tretyakov Gallery	
11	Rublyev Museum of Old Russian Culture and Art	
12	State Museum of Oriental Art	
13	Polytechnical Museum	
14	Schushev State Museum of Architecture	
15	Bakhrushin Central Theatre Museum	
16	Lyev Tolstoy State Museum	
17	Cathedral of Christ the Saviour Tserkov	
18	The State Historical Museum	
19	The State Archive of the Russian Federation	
20	The Russian National Archives	
21	Glinka State Central Museum of Musical Culture	
22	Russian State Archive of Literature and Art	
23	The All-Russian State Television and Radio Broadcasting Company	
UNESCO World Heritage Sites		
	Structure	Criterion [b]
1	Kremlin and Red Square	I, II, IV, VI
2	The Church of the Ascension in Kolomenskoye	II
3	The historical-architectural complex of Novodevichy Convent	I, IV, VI

a – status acquired on the strength of the Resolutions of the President of the Russian Federation No 294 of 18th December 1991, No 1847 of 6th November 1993, No 64 of 24th January 1995, No 275 of 2nd April 1997, and No 30 of 15th January 1998.

b – criteria applied to the selection of cultural heritage, monuments, groups of buildings and sites that may be considered part of the World heritage: I – the site should represent a masterpiece of human creative genius; II – exhibit an important interchange of human values, over a span of time or within a cultural area of the world, on developments in architecture or technology, monumental arts, town planning or landscape design; III – be an outstanding example of a type of building or architectural or technological ensemble or landscape which illustrates (a) significant stage(s) in human history; be an outstanding example of a type of building or architectural or technological ensemble or landscape which illustrates (a) significant stage(s) in human history; IV – be directly or tangibly associated with events or living traditions, with ideas, or with beliefs, with artistic and literary works of outstanding universal significance (*World Heritage List…* 2011; List of particularly valuable national heritage sites in Russia: *Перечень*... 2011).

In the 21st c. Moscow is undergoing a thorough architectural transformation which is sometimes harmful to its historical appearance and the complex urban environment. The building of high-rise office blocks, modern transport infrastructure and luxurious apartments is often connected with the loss of historical and architectural monuments. At the same time new attractions are appearing, such as the Cathedral of Christ the Saviour or the new business centre called 'Moscow City'.

Moscow is one of the major cultural centres in Russia. It has over 60 museums and exhibition halls, over 100 theatres and concert halls, about 100 cinemas, two circuses, etc. Such a large historical and cultural potential makes Moscow an attractive mass tourism destination.

Moscow has a large population, the largest in Russia and Europe; at the beginning of 2011, the figure was 11.6 million (*Об оценке*... 2011), therefore, it is one of the ten largest in the world (*World: largest*... 2011). It is also the heart of the Moscow urban agglomeration, the largest of this type in Russia and Europe whose population is estimated at between 14.7 to 17.4 million (*Городские*... 2010).

The high demographic potential points to a greater scale of in-migration and internationalization, rapidly developing in conditions of globalization, an additional impulse to both further long-term migration and short-term trips such as for business, visiting relatives and friends, recreation and other purposes.

Moscow is considered to be one of the most expensive cities in the world, with considerable social diversification of its inhabitants[1], as well as a relatively high living standard. The average earnings of Moscow inhabitants have always been higher than the average in Russia amounting to 200%, even though this decreases year on year. According to the Moscow City Statistical Office, at the end of 2010 the capital, with 8% of the country's employment, produced 20% of the national income and was responsible for about 25% of national expenditure. Moscow inhabitants' spending on cultural, tourism and legal services is 1.2-2 times greater than the national average (*Москва – московский*... 2011). The affluence of a considerable part of the city's population determines their economic opportunities, including expenses related to tourism. The high demand for tourism services has not been fully satisfied yet.

Moscow is part of a global system of cities of political and economic importance, which have recently become key points in international tourism. These largely determine the functioning and development of the world economy; they control, manage and serve it, as well as perform significant international roles. It is here that international capital concentrates and the head offices of important international corporations are based.

Economic activity in global cities plays a very important role in their development as business tourism centres. The global experience shows that business tourists are the most desired category of visitor as they spend 2.5-3 times more than 'ordinary' tourists. A particular rhythm of business activity is expressed by the high concentration of industrial, financial and commercial institutions, authorities and courts, head offices of international organizations, educational institutions, etc. On the one hand, the scale, diversity and global range of their functions, guarantee global cities intensive and wide ranging contacts, the high value of what they do internationally and this leads to the development of business trips and their centralization. These cities are the epicentres of negotiation, contract signings, the exchange of research and celebrations of achievements, the organization of exhibitions, fairs, presentations, meetings and conferences, as well as attracting innovators of new trends in a variety of fields.

According to 'Foreign Policy', in 2010, Russia came 25th in the ranking of global cities that make a significant contribution to the development of human civilization (FUNG & MONDSCHEIN 2010). The Moscow of today is an international business centre, one of the major financial and industrial centres in Russia, the centre of national economic management. According to the Federal Statistical Office, the gross regional product of Moscow (8.4 trillion rubles in 2008) makes up about one fourth of the gross national product (*Регионы*... 2010). In 2008, the city was 15th among the most important cities in the world (ЖОГОВА 2009). The size of Moscow's budget is comparable to that of some countries, e.g. Ukraine. At the time of the economic reforms, Moscow transformed itself into the main national financial centre, leaving other Russian cities far behind as regards the level of financial infrastructure and concentration of financial resources. Today, the majority of the leading financial institutions are found there: major banks, insurance companies, pension funds, stock exchange, etc. Moreover, there are the head offices of the main Russian commercial institutions and social organizations, as well as the foreign agencies of companies operating in Russia and the Commonwealth of Independent States. Over 80% of national financial resources and over half of all foreign investments go through the financial system of the city. Also the most important Russian Stock Exchange is based in Moscow. The Moscow Interbank Currency Exchange is one of the ten most important and it is in Moscow that over 80% of trading in securities in Russia takes place (*Москва – московский*... 2011).

In establishing the key priorities for the long-term strategic development of the city, Moscow authorities have undertaken the task of transforming the agglomeration from a major into a leading international financial centre, offering the world financial community wide opportunities as regards investment and banking services, as well as a centre for advanced technologies. Therefore, it seems vital to forecast a further increase in the number of business tourists arriving in the city which should be reflected in the development of business infrastructure.

Moscow is one of the largest transport nodes in Russia, with national air corridors, railway trunk lines, the motorway system and navigable waterways intersecting. The capital is served by four airports, situated close to the city: Sheremetyevo, Domodedovo, Vnukovo and Bykovo. Moscow airports offer direct connections with nearly all the capitals in the world. Flights to Moscow are offered by both Russian and the major international air transport companies (British Airways, Lufthansa, SAS, Finnair, etc.). The majority of foreign tourists use air transport to get to Moscow. There are nine railway stations in the capital and external and internal railway connections are served by the 'Russian Railways' company. Passenger trains run to 19 European and Asian countries (including direct carriages on 56 international routes) (*Москва – тосковский*... 2011). Practically, all Russian coach companies have networks of partners all over the world. Due to a developed system of canals, since Soviet times Moscow has been called 'the port of the five seas'. Steam tour boats depart from the Northern and Southern river ports, connecting Moscow with St Petersburg, Astrakhan, Rostov, Don and other Russian cities.

Moscow, the nucleus of the whole transport system in Russia, is the element that links the cities and regions of the country. The central geographical location of the capital and the presence of a developed transport infrastructure makes the city a 'marshalling yard' of tourism journeys to historical and cultural centres, not only in regions close to Moscow, but also those further away.

The popularity of tourism destinations often depends on the condition of the tourism infrastructure and based on accommodation. In 1992-5, the economic situation prevented the development of the Moscow hotel industry. Hotel owners' main concern was to survive in difficult conditions – utility bills had increased considerably (electricity, gas, heating), as well as the prices for other municipal services. Occupancy of hotel rooms did not exceed 50% but hotel managers were unwilling to reduce the number of staff (*Программа развития*... 2000, p. 5).

During the period 1995-8 the business activity of both foreign and Russian investors visibly increased. As a result, new hotels were opened in Moscow: 'Tversky', 'Palast Hotel', Grand Hotel', 'Vinogradovo, 'Aurora Lux', 'Katerina' and others. The need for 4 to 5-star hotels, indispensable in the city, was practically satisfied[2]. The reason for increasing investments in luxury hotels is their high profitability and relatively fast pay-back in comparison with 2 to 3-star hotels. Generally speaking, the hotel sector is characterized by high costs of construction and long term pay-back (9-11 years). Building better class hotels enable investors to recover their costs through high prices for services.

The beginning of the hotel boom in Moscow in the mid-1990's coincided with international operators and owners of global hotel chains entering the city hotel market, as well as strengthening the position of Russian enterprises. International companies became interested in the capital because on the one hand it attracted most international tourists, and on the other – the existing offer of hotel rooms of the highest standard, as well as services in Moscow generally, greatly diverged from the actual demand. All this made Moscow one of the most promising markets for the development of the contemporary hotel business.

While earlier the market leaders were American networks, nowadays a large part of the hotel services in the capital is controlled by European chains (Fig. 1), the most active of which are the French Accor Group, the British InterContinental (IHG), the Belgian Rezidor, as well as the American Marriott International which has seven hotels in Moscow.

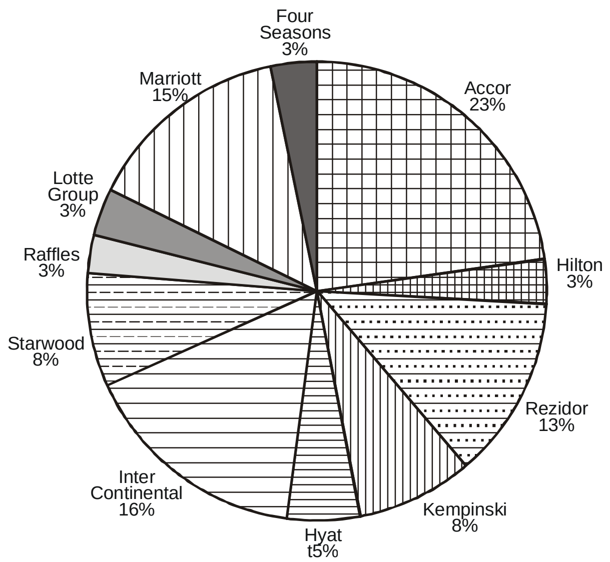

Fig. 1. International operators and their share of hotel services in Moscow and the Moscow District: 2008
S o u r c e: ПАНИНА (2008, p. 22)

The Moscow hotel market predominates as regards the range of services and income from this sector. Moscow has 4% of the hotels and other types of accommodation in Russia, and their share in the total hotel business income is 50%. There are 290 hotels in Moscow, offering 92,000 beds (*Государственная*..., 2011). According to the basic performance measures in the hotel industry, average room rate (ARR) and average revenue per available room (RevPar), Moscow occupies a medium position between the obvious market leaders and the remaining European capitals (Fig. 2).

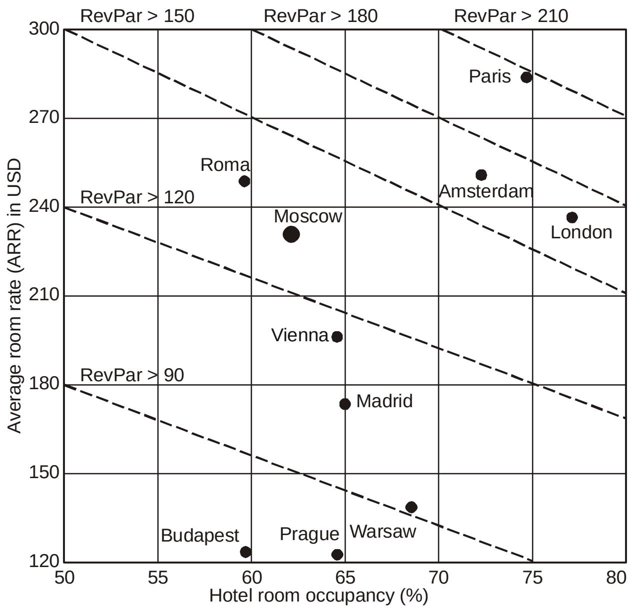

Fig. 2. The position of Moscow among European capitals according to the basic measures of the hotel business sector
S o u r c e: *Рынок*... (2011, p. 4)

Further development of the Moscow hotel economy is characterized by the following trends:

1) expansion of services to areas which were earlier the domain of other activity (e.g. gastronomy, entertainment, fairs, etc.);

2) 'democratization' of hotel business activity and increasing access to hotel services for the mass client;

3) increasing specialization in the hotel industry, with particular consideration of certain segments of the consumer market, as well as their individual features;

4) globalization and centralization of the hotel business;

5) individualization of service and concentration on the expectations and needs of the guests;

6) wide implementation of new means of communication and information technologies, which enable a systematic and thorough economic analysis;

7) implementing new technologies connected with hotel business strategies, including a wide use of the internet for the purpose of booking and purchasing hotel services.

2. FEATURES OF TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN MOSCOW

Moscow occupies a particular position among Russian cities as regards the level and scale of tourism development. Contrary to ‘passive’ centres, which mainly receive tourists (receptive destinations), and ‘active’ centres mainly generating tourism elsewhere (generative destinations), Moscow both receives and generates.

In 2006, about five million inhabitants of Moscow spent their holidays abroad and their range was very wide. However, the main flows were to relatively cheap directions where visas were not required such as Turkey, Egypt, Greece, Thailand, as well as China, Finland, Italy, Spain and Germany (*О городской... на 2008–2010 годы*... 2007).

However, regardless of the size of the tourism flows generated, it is foreign inbound tourism and journeys from other Russian cities and regions that are of the greatest importance. Every year, the status of the city as a capital, its economic, scientific, cultural and commercial potential attracts millions of Russians and citizens of other countries. Moscow differs from other cities in the Russian Federation by the high concentration of both internal and foreign tourism. A particular group of visitors is formed by Russian citizens who come to the capital on business, for holiday, for treatment or for other purposes. The market of internal tourism overshadows that of foreign tourists (Fig. 3). The inhabitants of other Russian cities make up over 60% of the guests of all Moscow hotels (*О городской… на 2008–2010 годы*... 2007) with Russians (*circa* 15 million during the year) arrive in the capital for purely tourism purposes (*О городской… на 2008–2010 годы*... 2007).

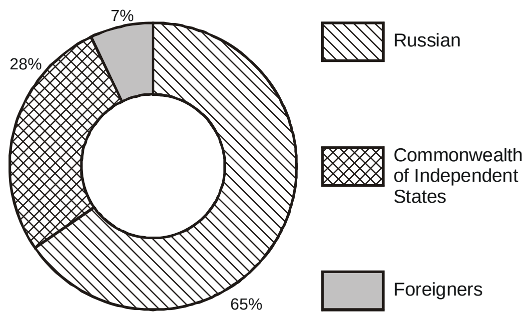

Fig. 3. The structure of tourists staying at Moscow hotels in 2009, by the countries of origin
K e y: blue – Russian, terracotta – Commonwealth of Independent States, green – foreign
S o u r c e: *Гостиничный*... (2010, p. 8)

The majority of tourists arriving from farther locations choose Moscow because of its status in the Russian Federation. Over 70% of foreigners coming to Russia treat it as ‘a must’ to visit the capital (*Программа*... 2000). Since the end of the 20th c. their number has been gradually growing and there is a high rate of increase (Fig. 4). In 2000-7, the flow of tourists arriving in the capital was growing by 15-20% a year and in 2007 Moscow was visited by 4 million foreign tourists. In some years, e.g. in 2003 and 2004, in contrast to the general decrease in the number of visits to Russia, Moscow showed an increase, in this way reducing the impact of the unfavourable tendencies elsewhere.

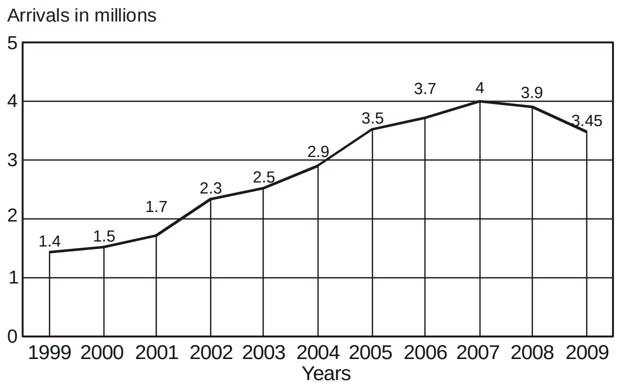

Fig. 4. The rate of increase in the arrivals of foreign tourists in Moscow: 1999-2009
S o u r c e: *Анализ и оценка*... (2006); *О городской... на 2005–2007 годы*... (2004); *Гостиничный комплекс*... (2010)

The rate of increase in the number of tourism arrivals is cyclical and depends on fluctuations in economic conditions. A decrease in production causes a decrease in the share of consumption in the gross national product and as a consequence leads to a decrease in tourism and incomes from the tourism industry. The global economic crisis, which occurred in 2008, and its consequences, particularly visible in 2009, as well as the soaring prices of transport services and problems with obtaining visas – all these lowered the arrival indices in Moscow to the level recorded five years before. However, the capital maintained its position among the main tourism cities of Europe. According to a study of tourism conducted in 101 European cities in 2009 by European Cities Marketing (ECM), Moscow occupied 10th position (Fig. 5). The revival of the global economy and finances, which started in mid-2009 and continued in 2010, resulted in a revival of tourism activity on the Moscow travel market.

The flow of foreign tourists arriving in Moscow is visibly diversified. The differences regard both the markets represented and the purposes of travelling to the capital and can be divided into two main parts: visitors from the Commonwealth of Independent States; and visitors from abroad. The relative proportions of these groups are presented in Fig. 3. The high percentage from the Commonwealth of Independent States proves the intensification of integrative processes and the growing role of Moscow as the centre of business tourism and migration in search of work in post-Soviet space.

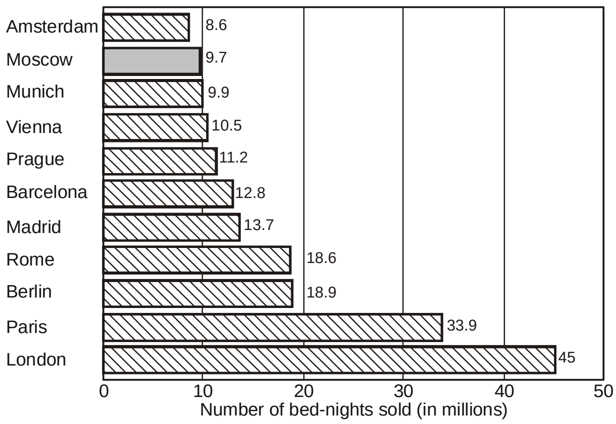

Fig. 5. Ranking of the most important tourism cities of Europe as regards number of bed-nights sold (in millions): 2009
S o u r c e: *Гостиничный комплекс*... (2010, p. 8)

The wide geographical range of incoming tourism is typical of Moscow. The capital is visited by the inhabitants of numerous countries, but the really significant ones (measured by the number of bed-nights sold) arrive from a quite small group of countries. The main Independent States are Ukraine, Belarus, Kazakhstan, Azerbaijan and Uzbekistan. As regards abroad, over a half of all the arrivals in Moscow are generated by 10 countries, especially the external partners of the city such as Germany, China, the USA, Italy and Great Britain.

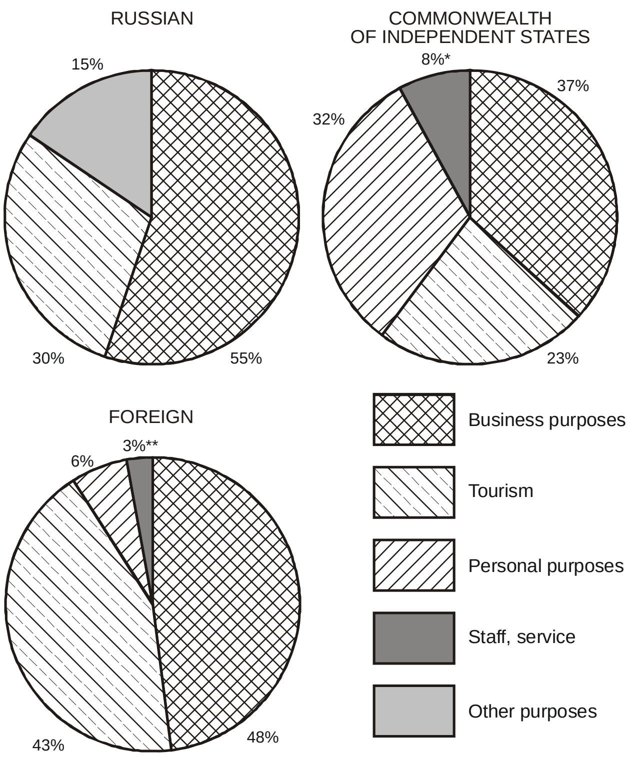

Fig. 6. Russian and foreign tourists according to purpose: 2009
S o u r c e: *Гостиничный комплекс*... (2010, p. 69)

Visitors from the Commonwealth of Independent States and abroad have distinctly different motives for travelling to Moscow. The Commonwealth citizens come to the capital mainly for private (personal) reasons, the most important of which is looking for a job. In contrast, the majority of foreign visitors arrive for business and professional purposes (Fig. 6).

As regards the purpose of arrival, the flow of foreign tourists to Moscow clearly differs from the general Russian tendency (Fig. 7). While foreigners usually travel to Russia for private, personal reasons with about 10-15% for tourism purposes, in the case of Moscow the percentage of visitors arriving for tourism purposes is 3-4 times higher. In overall tourism to Moscow, business trips dominate over private and other arrivals. Currently, nearly half of the foreign visitors in Moscow are business tourists, while the figure for Russia is 15-20%, on average. The capital contributes significantly to the development of the business tourism market in the whole country. It is the epicentre of this market and a factor generating its growth.

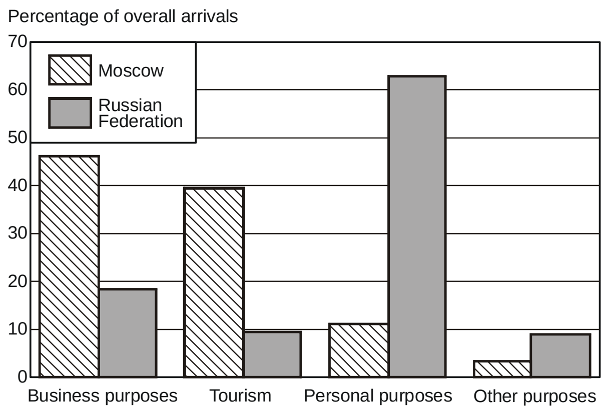

Fig. 7. Foreign travellers to Russia and Moscow as a percentage of overall arrivals: 2009
S o u r c e: *Гостиничный комплекс*... (2010, p.7); *Туризм*... (2010, p. 6)

Apart from business tourism, other types of tourism can be found in Moscow such as culture-related, for events, medical treatment and also pilgrimage. While in 2009, at the peak of the global financial crisis, numbers of tourism, business and medical treatment-oriented visitors decreased, the pilgrimage-related ones increased by nearly 80% (*Гостиничный комплекс*... 2010, p. 9) which points to the transformation of the capital into a multifunctional tourism centre. The variety of tourism activity types and the various ways of combining them are now one of the major methods of increasing the tourism attractiveness of Moscow and the development of its tourism market resources.

The complex structure of tourism, dominated by business travel, determines other specific features of tourism development. The classification of the overall number of visitors according to duration of stay shows that the majority it is for up to a week (Fig. 8). Relatively short stays are typical above all of business tourism. Organized tourists stay in Moscow for about a week, visiting the city as a part of longer journeys, often to other cities such as St Petersburg or the cities of the Golden Ring (Russia).

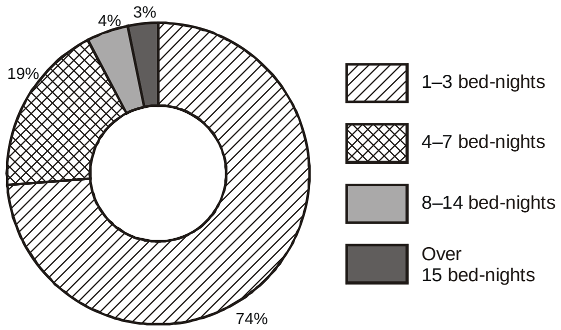

Fig. 8. Visitors in Moscow according to number of bed-nights sold: 2009
S o u r c e: *Гостиничный комплекс*... (2010, p. 10)

The prevailing business character of arrivals in Moscow explains another specific feature of its tourism, i.e. its weak seasonality (Fig. 9). Across the year small seasonal fluctuations in hotel room occupancy can be found with the lowest rates in December and January, and the maximum in the spring and autumn months, i.e. in the periods traditionally associated with business tourism. During the holidays celebrating the signing of the Declaration of State Sovereignty (Russia Day – in June) and during the Days of the City (in September), both featuring numerous events, the occupancy rate of Moscow hotels approaches 100% (*О городской... на 2005–2007 годы*... 2004).

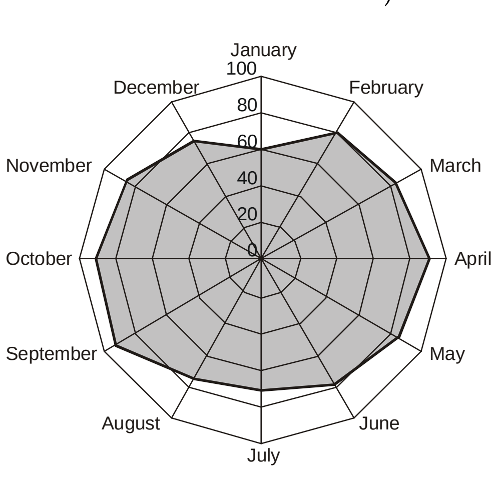

Fig. 9. Occupancy of Moscow hotels in individual months
S o u r c e: *Гостиничный комплекс*... (2008, p. 10); *Гостиничный комплекс*... (2009, p. 10); *Гостиничный комплекс*... (2010, p. 11)

Generally speaking, Moscow authorities treat tourism as a priority in the strategy of city development and together with the hotel industry it contributes significantly to its socio-economic development. Tourism is an important source of income for the city budget, providing up to 7% of its entire income (ALEKSANDROVA, ROGOVA, SLUKA 2011, p. 147). The tourism industry guarantees an inflow of investments and creates new jobs. It also increases the city's population and, consequently, raises Moscow's inhabitants' standard of living.

In comparison with other capital cities which are tourism centres, Moscow has recently been in the lead. However, there is still considerable growth potential, especially as regards the development of foreign tourism and an increase in hotel occupancy rate.

3. THE PRIORITIES AND PROSPECTS FOR TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN MOSCOW

Tourism development in Moscow is hindered by a number of factors. The main problem seems to be the tourism-hotel infrastructure of the capital whose condition and standard has not reached the European level yet. There is a shortage of hotel rooms and small, medium-class hotels with an appropriate standard of service. While in Moscow there are 290 hotels (*Государственная*... 2011), in Paris there are 1450 and in London, 1700 (*Анализ и оценка*... 2006). There is also a shortage of high-class conference and congress hotels, exhibition complexes, business centres, facilities where international meetings, festivals and sport events could be held. Business tourism has rather poorly developed foundations.

The tourism attractiveness of Moscow is also weakened by the condition of the communal infrastructure, especially the transport system. In 2010, Moscow was third among the large cities of the world as regards traffic jams (*Москва заняла*... 2010). Another drawback is the shortage of modern tourism coaches of different sizes, of parking lots, and the low standard of transport services and taxis. The results of regular social surveys of Russian and foreign tourists in Moscow show that among different types of tourism service, transport is one of the most frequently criticized elements and this dissatisfaction is constantly growing (*О городской... на 2005–2007 годы*... 2004).

Tourism development in Moscow is also hampered by the lack of balance between the prices and the quality of the tourism services. Elevated prices combined with the poor quality of service make the attractiveness of the capital on the global tourism market doubtful, and redirect the demand towards other tourism destinations. The opinions of Russian tourists show that the prices have a great influence on the decision whether to travel to Moscow. Over 50% of the respondents believe that the prices in Moscow are much too high (*О городской… на 2005–2007 годы*... 2004).

Another problem is the tourism image of Moscow. The capital suffers from the negative image of Russia as a whole, comprising fragments of the Soviet image which had developed over many years. According to annual social surveys conducted since 2005 by the international company GlobeScan jointly with the BBC, the image of Russia is more negative than positive. In 2011, 30,000 people from 27 countries were surveyed and as a result, Russia was 13th on a 17-point scale measuring positive influence on global development (*Positive*... 2011). Foreigners stereotypically perceive Russia as a dangerous country and as regards level of safety, experts place Russia 125th in the international ranking (*Анализ и оценка*... 2006). This badly affects the image of Moscow as an attractive and safe city. The situation is being made worse by insufficient information regarding the tourism potential of the country as a whole and its capital in particular, by the lack of high quality advertising, insufficient support for tourism products on the international market, the modesty of the tourism offer (the small range of tourism services and the depreciation of some tourism products).

Market analysis has allowed the Moscow authorities to formulate the following priorities in a strategy to develop tourism in the city:

– building a friendly image of the city;

– developing tourism infrastructure;

– creating conditions for the development of new tourism products;

– creating successful conditions of stay for tourists;

– developing the system of educating and training tourism industry workers;

– ensuring research into tourism activity (*О городской… на 2008–2010 годы*... 2007).

Moscow authorities are working on everything listed above, but they mainly concentrate their efforts on improving the tourism infrastructure of the city and creating a positive image as a world tourism, cultural and business centre.

The early 21st c. witnessed advanced changes in the hotel industry in Moscow including the reconstruction and renewal of accommodation resources so that they were closer to world standards. The number of new quality hotel complexes, representing different ownership forms and categories, has increased. Many hotels are situated in historical buildings which have been reconstructed and redecorated. Higher standard hotels in the city centre are situated within a convenient distance from the main attractions of the city, fairs and business centres.

Moscow authorities have focused particularly on increasing the investment attractiveness of the hotel market. For this purpose, investors who were building new hotels and reconstructing old ones were offered special preferences; they could buy land half price and the average rent for them was established at 0.01 of the actual market price for the time of construction and the first three years after completion. Moreover, the investors received a refund from the city budget of the cost of the loans taken out for the construction or renewal of Moscow hotels. Considering the above regulations, the cost of building new hotels decreased, on average, by 20-25% (*Гостиничный комплекс*... 2009, p. 1).

Next to new investments in the city, large-scale reconstruction and modernization of the old hotel fabric can be found, which in most cases was aimed not only at designing hotel interiors, but also at increasing the level of comfort and services offered to the guests.

Due to the new regulations adopted on the capital hotel property market, it was possible to create conditions for further development of investment and obtain private capital, and this increased the rate of opening both new and reconstructed buildings. Between 2000 and 2009, a total of 98 hotels were opened. Never before had so many hotels opened in Moscow in such a short time (*Портал про*... 2011).

Today, both as regards the number and the quality of hotels, Moscow has come close to world tourism capitals, but the insufficient number of small, budget hotels remains a problem. A large number of important hotels of the 'tourist' standard situated in the city centre ('Minsk', 'Ukraine', 'Leningradzka', 'Central' and 'Beijing') were closed due to modernization producing a shortage of bed-places at the most popular hotels. For different reasons, about 9,000 further bed-places at three-star hotels were excluded from use at that time in Moscow (*Стратегия*..., 2008). As a result, the accommodation potential of the city changed for the benefit of the higher category hotels, and the prices for accommodation and additional services rapidly increased. The situation was often discussed by the city authorities who described it as detrimental to mass tourism development. That is why a decision was taken to support many new investments as regarded two- and three-star hotels, hostels and other low-budget accommodation facilities.

However, infrastructure development is not limited merely to the modernization of the hotel infrastructure. In 1988, Moscow authorities decided to create a multifunctional tourism-recreational zone, called the Moscow Golden Circle[3], which was to attract Russian and foreign tourists. It is a major urban project, located in the city centre, oriented towards creating a new urban environment, meeting the requirements of a metropolis of the 21st c. The ideas behind the Moscow Golden Circle included creating a continuous walking zone in the city centre, improving the organization of city transport, reviving the city centre, and creating new kinds of architectural and landscape elements. The project comprises over 200 inter-connected sub-projects, involving the construction of new buildings and the reconstruction of existing ones, the restoration of historical and cultural monuments, as well as the organization of recreation and entertainment-related places. A new system of tourism services was designed for the Golden Circle, functioning on the basis of 30 new multi-functional business-hotel, commerce-service, culture-entertainment and museum-information complexes, as well 'first contact' centres consisting of a tourism information centre, a coffee bar, a toilet, a souvenir stand, etc. (*О концепции*... 2002). An important part of the project seems to be the idea of developing the elements of the system 'under ground', which would enable it to function throughout the year.

The area selected for the Moscow Golden Circle – over 300 hectares – is the nucleus of the architectural complex in the capital (Fig. 10). It is here that most elements of the historical and cultural heritage of the city can be found, with the Kremlin complex at its head. According to the project, the area of the Golden Circle will be crossed by one water, one bus and 14 pedestrian tourism trails which include over 100 tourism attractions – historical, cultural, architectural monuments and monumental buildings. The trails were designed using the idea of combining recreational and educational purposes, as well as opening new viewing points (*Портал центрального*... 2011).

The project is based on the principle of eco-reconstruction, i.e. transformations oriented towards giving the urban environment new quality. The area should become better not only for tourists, but also for residents. In order to achieve this aim, the following steps were planned: removing industrial enterprises from the zone and reorganizing those whose profile does not fully correspond to the principles of the project, reorganizing the communication system (vehicle and pedestrian), solving the numerous ecological problems and protecting natural enclaves, undertaking construction and architectural work to build new and modernize old tourism attractions as well as increasing the quality of the housing and office and business infrastructure.

So far, only a part of the project has been completed. The first steps towards creating the pedestrian zone included designing a theme trail, called 'A tour around the attractions of the Moscow River Zone', building some bridges, as well as establishing a system of tourism signs, understandable to foreign tourists visiting the Moscow Golden Circle.

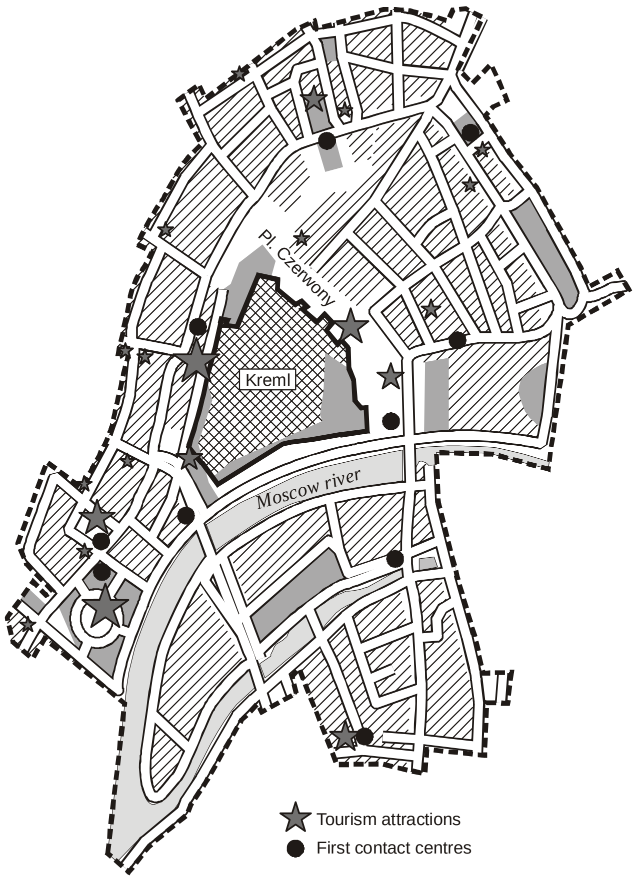

Fig. 10. The Moscow Golden Circle tourism-recreational zone

In order to create a competitive tourism market, it is not enough to develop infrastructure. An effective development strategy for the tourism product is needed, focusing on the most important tourism markets and aggressive by nature. Before 2002, the non-commercial tourism development in Russia, partially including Moscow, as a tourism destination, in practice did not exist. Some efforts made in the mid-1990's came down to taking part in occasional thematic exhibitions (fairs) in Russia and abroad, but without display or financial support from the central budget. In the early 21st c. many initiatives appeared, the purpose of which was to present the tourism potential of the Russian Federation in full, both on the domestic and foreign tourism market. In Moscow much larger funds are devoted to creating its image than in other Russian cities reaching 210 million rubles in 2007 (6 million Euros)[4] (*О городской... на 2008–2010 годы*... 2007).

The development of Moscow as an international tourism centre is based on several aspects:

1. Organizing exhibitions at leading international tourism fairs. Moscow takes part in 15-20 major tourism fairs and exhibitions in every continent every year, including WTM (London), ITB (Berlin), FITUR (Madrid), BIT (Milan), ATM (Dubai), 'The Motivation

Show' (Chicago), JATA-WTF (Yokohama), AIME (Melbourne), CITM (Shanghai), etc.

2. Supporting exhibition activity in order to make Moscow one of the leading and most important locations of fairs. The 'Travel and Tourism International Exhibition' (MITT) organized in Moscow, one of the five most important tourism fairs, was widely acclaimed. Every year MITT is attended by representatives of about 3000 enterprises from nearly 200 countries from all over the world in an area covering 52,000 m² with 80,000 visitors from 500 Russian cities and 95 countries. The fairs are covered by about 500 journalists, over 50 publishers and nine information agencies (*Официальный сайт MITT*... 2011). Professionals are offered a comprehensive program including conferences, workshops, seminars, consultations and presentations of new tourism offers. During the MITT, renowned experts discuss current issues in tourism, announce new projects supported by the city budget and changes in pricing policies. All this attracts hundreds of foreign tour-operators and thousands of tourism business representatives. MITT shows the potential of inbound tourism and is a real showcase of Russia's tourism potential.

Apart from MITT, there are many other tourism fairs organized in Moscow, e.g. 'Intermarket', 'Recreation', 'Hunting, Fishing, Recreation', or 'The Eurasian Amusement Parks and Attractions Expo' (EAAPA).

An important step towards strengthening Moscow's position on the world tourism fair market is the Moscow International Travel Fair (MITF), organized since 2001 (*Официальный сайт MITF*... 2011). In 2011, MITF changed its profile and turned to selling holidays elsewhere to both Moscow inhabitants and visitors. The motto of the fairs was 'First-hand recreation' and they were reoriented towards the 'end-client', and by omitting indirect distribution channels increased the intended sale. Moscow inhabitants could familiarize themselves with the full spectrum of the tourism services on offer, choose an offer and pay a promotion price offered for the time of the fairs, and obtain numerous 'rewards' and discounts. In order to facilitate search and booking, the clients had free access to the internet during the fairs. The techniques used to win the interest of the MITF visitors included organizing events during which the potential tourists might learn about the culture, traditions, customs and cooking from different countries and the regions of Russia. Lotteries and competitions offered prizes like excursions and other holidays. Other attractions included fortune-telling, having personal horoscopes written, yoga and meditation lessons in a Mongolian yurt, an art exhibition presenting works by handicapped artists, the Central Administrative District Championships in Rock Climbing, an interactive training version of an urban 'game', cooking show, etc. Specialists are offered their own business program. The organizers of the renewed MITF boast of an unprecedented success. The fairs are held at the beginning of May at the start of the tourism season, therefore they have a good chance of becoming the main guideline for Moscow inhabitants when it comes to choosing a place for the summer holidays.

3. Non-commercial advertising of Moscow's tourism potential. In order to build a positive image of the city, advertising is based mainly on outdoor and mass media presentation. Moscow as a tourism city in Russia is popularized through advertising campaigns in major publications, radio and TV stations. The Moscow regional TV channel regularly broadcasts 'Traveller's Diary', a program about the tourism attractions and assets of the regions of Russia, presenting tours that have actually taken place. The program stimulates the development of Russian tourism.

In order to increase the competitiveness of the capital's tourism product and create a friendly image of the city abroad, an international image campaign is being run. As a part of this campaign the capital advertised itself in different countries all over the world as well as during the Days of Moscow. With the use of computer technologies, a colourful image of the city is being created, with commentary in the language of the target country and supported by a press conference. At the same time, regular advertising campaigns are run in the international press ('Business Week', 'The Economist', etc) (*О городской… на 2008–2010 годы…* 2007).

4. Preparing and distributing non-commercial advertising and information materials. The production of advertising and information materials, both traditional and electronic, takes place on a huge scale reaching about one million copies annually (*О городской... на 2008–2010 годы…* 2007), published in European languages as well as in some others (e.g. Japanese, Arabic). The publications are intended for non-commercial distribution in Russia and abroad at tourism fairs, through Russian agencies abroad, the World Tourism Organization and other international organizations.

5. Organizing international events. In order to attract Russian and foreign tourists to Moscow, the authorities organize important events, showing the special character of Russian culture and national customs. For instance, the annual one-week long celebration of 'Zapusty' – the farewell to winter and welcome to spring – with folk pageants and traditional dishes. It is attended by about 40,000 tourists visiting the capital (*О городской… на 2008–2010 годы*... 2007).

One of the major events in the life of the capital is the celebration of the Days of Moscow at the beginning of September. It is an enormous event full of parades, fairs, concerts and fireworks shows. In 2011, the culmination of the holiday was a laser show, organized over 25,500 m², and is now in the World Book of Records.

Another event connected with the Days of Moscow is the Festival of Soldiers' Song, *Spasskaia Bashnia* (the Fortified Tower) which is held on Red Square (*О фестивале*... 2011). In 2011, 1500 soldiers – musicians and artists from 15 different countries – presented the diversity of military traditions from different parts of the world. This unique show was watched by over 42,000 Moscow inhabitants, as well as Russian and foreign tourists.

With the participation of the Kremlin, there is a new tourism product: the ceremonial inspection of the foot and horse guards, according to early 18th c. instructions, of the Presidential Regiment and military band. At present (since 2005), it has become a symbol of Moscow, as the changing of the guards in front of Lenin's Mausoleum was in Soviet times.

Other important cultural and sports events organized in the city and surrounding areas, the most famous and popular include the Moscow International Aviation and Space Salon, the Moscow Film Festival, and the International Tennis Tournament for the Kremlin Cup.

Table 2. Tourism industry development in Moscow: 2011-6

Index	Year		Increase in 2011-6 (%)
	2011	2016	
Number of foreign tourists in millions	4.1	7.3	78.0
Consumption of paid tourism services in billions of rubles	23.5	33.5	42.6
Profits from the hotel industry in billions of rubles	39.1	52.9	35.3

Source: based on: *Государственная*... 2011.

6. Other campaigns. These include coverage of events organized elsewhere in Russia, organizing press-tours for Russian and foreign journalists, important international meetings, symposia and other events held as a result of bilateral and multilateral international agreements.

There are plans to organize a meeting of the general council of the World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) in Moscow in 2015, which will be a great opportunity to promote the capital. Similar events attract attention to Moscow and are widely commented on in the media. Strategic plans drawn by the Moscow authorities include transforming the city into a popular tourism destination to be continued until 2018, when Moscow will host the FIFA World Cup. Selected indices of tourism development in Moscow up to 2016 are presented in Table 2. An additional impulse for the development of the tourism industry in the capital region will be the solving of a long-forgotten issue – the creation of a comprehensive concept for the whole of the Moscow region tourism space and preparing a complex tourism product, directed towards a wide range of Russian and foreign tourists. So far, only the first steps have been made in this direction.

FOOTNOTES

[1] According to Forbes Magazine, in 2008 Moscow had the largest number of billionaires in the world (in 2011 there were 79). Moscow had overtaken New York (59 billionaires) and London (41), and was second to New York in terms of millionaires. In 2011, the wealth of all the Moscow billionaires was estimated at 375 billion dollars (Brennan 2011).

[2] According to Russian Federation legislation, hotels are classified in five categories. The highest category is marked by five stars and the lowest by one star.

[3] The Moscow Golden Circle is the name given to the system of infrastructure and tourism attractions within the administrative borders of the city, in contrast to the Golden Ring, mentioned earlier, which includes Moscow and the cities situated north-east from it, with exceptional historical and cultural heritage (*translator's comment*)

[4] According to UNWTO, in order to attract one tourist who will spend 1000 euros in the visited country, it is necessary to spend 3-10 euros on non-commercial advertising of the tourism product (*Стратегия*... 2008).

Translated by Ewa Mossakowska

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SCIENTIFIC NOTE

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TOURISM INTENSITY ON TRAILS IN THE PIENINY NATIONAL PARK: SUMMER SEASON 2010

1. INTRODUCTION

Established in 1932, the Pieniny National Park is one of the oldest protected areas of its kind in Poland. It covers an area of 23.46 km^2 and includes the most precious areas of Pieniny Właściwe and a part of Pieniny Spiskie. Located on the edge of the Carpathian Mountains, the PNP enjoys proximity both to the Beskidy and Tatra Mountains which increases its attractiveness and offers 27 km of walking trails (WRÓBEL 2002) (Fig. 1) which are easily accessible and safe even for inexperienced tourists.

The diversity of the rock formations of the Pieniny Mountains, resulting from their geological history, constitutes an important landscape feature of the Park. The Trzy Korony and the Sokolica peaks, are both provided with viewing platforms for tourists, and alongside the ruins of Pieniny Castle on Zamkowa Góra, constitute the biggest tourism attractions. Among the features most appreciated by Polish and foreign tourists is the picturesque ravine of the Dunajec River where traditional 'flisak' rafting is organized. Nearby, the Czorsztyn reservoir further increases the landscape value of the PNP, at the same time offering tourists who spend their time in the region various types of activities.

Due to its natural treasures and non-environmental attractions, the PNP is a place enjoying huge popularity among tourists, and consequently, a destination visited by a significant number of people. Tourism in the PNP undergoes fluctuates seasonally (KUREK 2007), with ninety five percent occurring in the summer season (WRÓBEL 2002).

Former studies of tourism intensity in the PNP were carried out in the years 1972-4 (BOLLAND 1982) and in 1977 indicators of tourism carrying capacity for walking trails and individual sections were worked out deciding the maximum number of tourists for one day (CELICHOWSKI 1977). Measurements of tourism intensity in the PNP were also carried out by the Association of Geography Students of the Pedagogical University of Kraków in 2007-10 (WARCHOLIK, SEMCZU &, BARANOWSKI 2010).

The aim of this article is to present the tourism intensity figures in the Pieniny National Park for the 2010 summer season and compare them with the results for 2007-9. On the basis of the figures and having compared them with the tourism carrying capacity, trail sections greatly exceeding the maximum number of tourists were discovered[2].

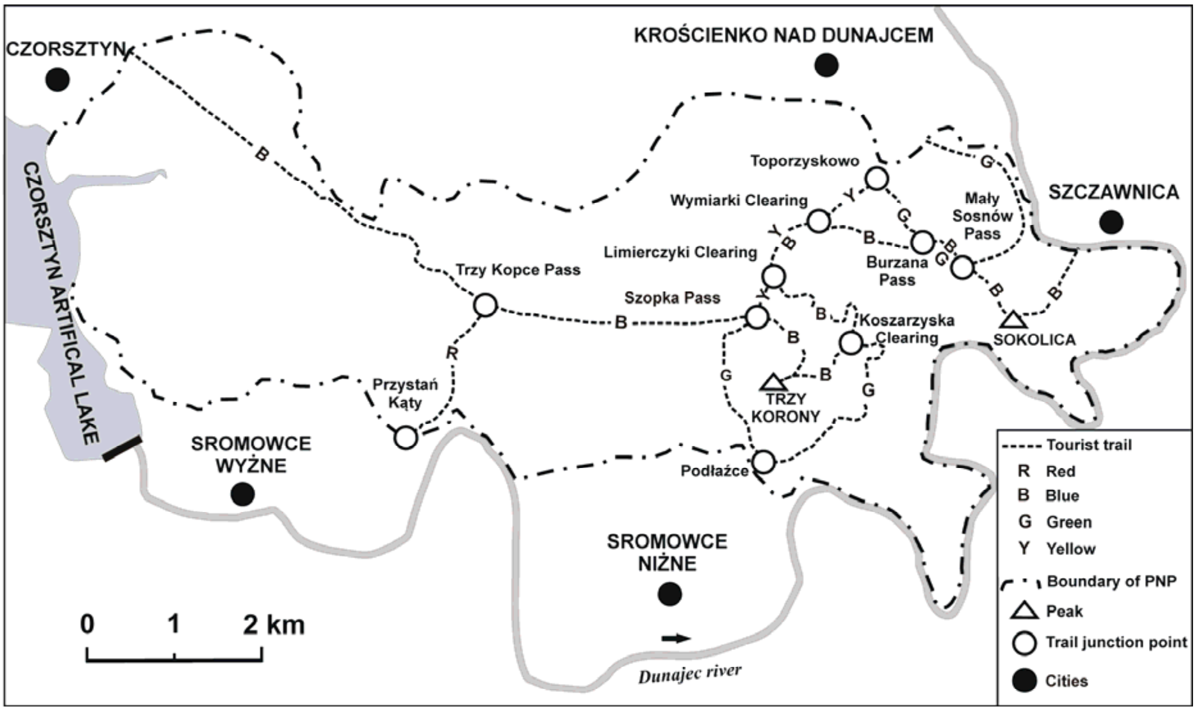


Fig. 1. Tourism trails in the Pieniny National Park
S o u r c e: authors' own work

2. METHODS

The monitoring of tourism intensity was carried out at 14 points distributed along the walking trails of the PNP. Measuring points were located halfway on each trail section which eliminated calculation errors resulting from tourist crossovers at trail intersections. At each measuring point there was one observer whose task it was to note down the number of tourists and their walking direction. The measurements were taken on 16th-18th and 22nd-23rd July 2010 (the 17th and 18th were weekend days). Four of the five measurement days were sunny (on two days in the afternoon there were with small occasional showers) and one day was cloudy.

On each day the measurements were carried out for seven hours (9:00-16:00). On the monitoring form the tourists' arrival and departure directions were noted and the number was summed at 15 minute intervals. An advantage of this method is a quantitative result giving a value of tourism intensity. However, this method requires engaging a great number of people with monitoring forms and their appropriate positioning. In such measurements it is not possible to count in tourists going off the trails (BARANOWSKI & LEJA 2010).

On the basis of these figures, an arithmetic mean was calculated which illustrates the intensity of tourism in the summer season on the walking trails of the PNP.

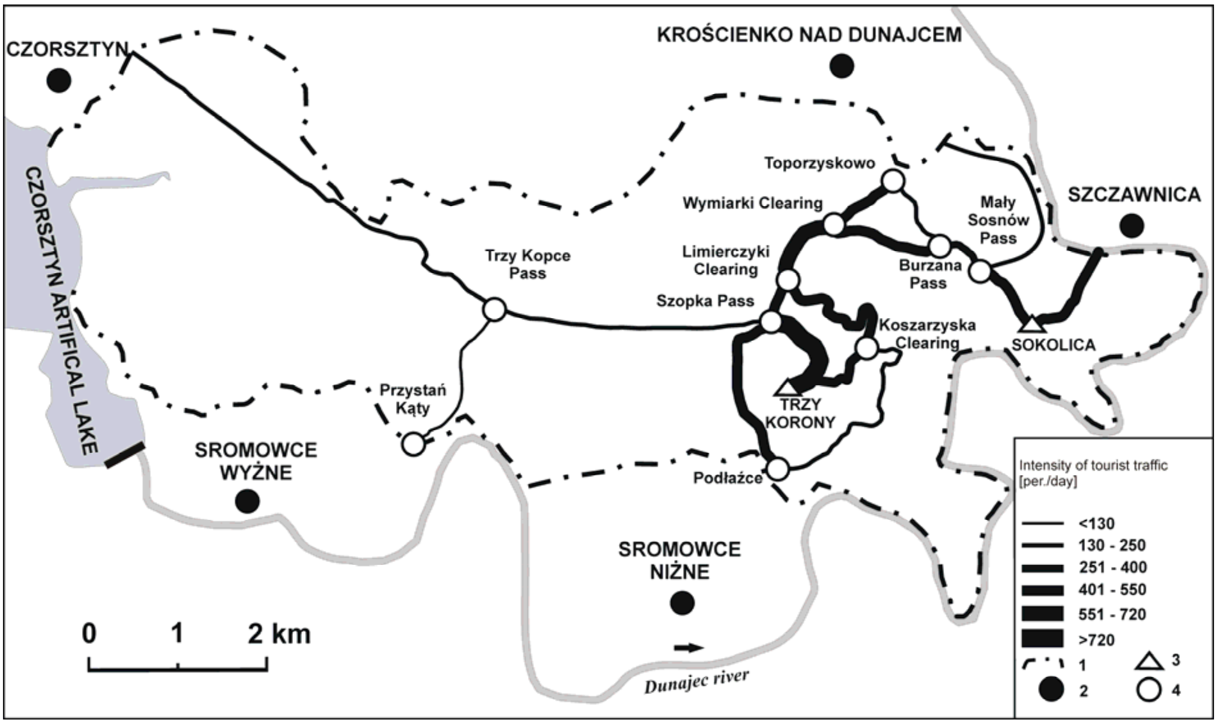
3. TOURISM INTENSITY

The intensity of tourism in the PNP in 2010 showed significant spatial diversity (Fig. 2). The values of tourism intensity for individual trails ranged from 21/day on the section Kąty Przystań-Trzy Kopce Przełęcz, to 966 /day on the section Szopka Przełęcz–Trzy Korony (Table 1).

During the five measuring days of July 2010, the average daily number of tourists entering the PNP was 1198. A similar figure was reached in 2008. At the same time in 2007 and 2009, higher figures were found: 1408 and 1477 /day, respectively (Table 2).

The section Szopka Przełęcz-Trzy Korony was walked by 966 tourists /day, the most intensely used. Measurements taken in previous years showed a similar tendency of tourists to use this section more than others: 2009 – 1238, 2008 – 948, 2007 – 1232 per day (Table 3). The route runs directly to the major attraction of the PNP – that is the Trzy Korony peak – and is used by tourists coming both from the direction of Sromowce Niżne, Krościenko nad Dunajcem, and Czorsztyn.

The second route in terms of its tourism intensity figure turned out to be the section Wymiarki Polana-Limierczyki Polana, with 716 a day in 2010, while in 2009 – 1071, in 2008 – 720, in 2007 – 1038 per day. This section has a transit character and it leads in the direction of the Zamkowa Góra and Trzy Korony.



K e y: 1 – boundary of the Pieniny National Park, 2 – settlements, 3 – peak, 4 – trail junction
Fig. 2. The intensity of tourism on the trails in the PNP in 2010
S o u r c e: authors' own work

T a b l e 1. Tourism intensity on the trails in the PNP in 2010

Section	Number of tourists / day
Szopka Przełęcz–Trzy Korony	966
Wymiarki Polana–Limierczyki Polana	716
Wymiarki Polana–Toporzyskowo	550
Podłażce-Szopka Przełęcz	467
Koszarzyska Polana–Trzy Korony	466
Szopka Przełęcz–Limierczyki Polana	445
Szczawnica–Sokolica	429
Mały Sosnów Przełęcz–Sokolica	424
Limierczyki Polana–Koszarzyska Polana	405
Wymiarki Polana–Burzana Przełęcz	402
Mały Sosnów Przełęcz–Burzana Przełęcz	280
Mały Sosnów Przełęcz–Toporzysko	173
Podłażce–Koszarzyska Polana	161
Czorsztyn–Trzy Kopce Przełęcz	148
Trzy Kopce Przełęcz–Szopka Przełęcz	146
Burzana Przełęcz–Toporzyskowo	131
Przystań Kąty–Trzy Kopce Przełęcz	21
Pieniny National Park	1,198

S o u r c e: authors' own work.

These two routes are included in the yellow trail running through the sites of great tourism attractiveness. A significant concentration of tourists can be observed here at the most attractive sites of the protected natural area of the park (PTASZYCKA-JACKOWSKA 2007).

T a b l e 2. Tourism intensity in the PNP in 2007-10

Year	Tourism intensity	
	total	total / km^2
2010	1.198	51
2009	1.477	62
2008	1.160	49
2007	1.408	60

S o u r c e: authors' own work

Table 3. Intensity of tourism on chosen sections of trails in PNP in 2007-10

Section	Year			
	2010	2009	2008	2007
Szopka Przełęcz–Trzy Korony	966	1,238	948	1,232
Wymiarki Polana–Limieryczki Polana	716	1,071	720	1,038
Mały Sosnów Przełęcz–Sokolica	424	700	350	500
Burzana Przełęcz–Toporzyskowo	131	112	104	116
Przystań Kąty–Trzy Kopce Przełęcz	21	45	17	23

S o u r c e: authors' own work.

For the section Wymiarki Polana–Toporzyskowo Polana, the figure for tourism intensity in 2010 was 550 per day. In previous years this section had showed a lower intensity as well. This route is taken by tourists moving from Krościenko nad Dunajcem into the heart of the PNP. Fewer tourists turned out to be attracted to the section Burzana Przełęcz–Toporzyskowo as this route has an alternative path, Toporzyskowo–Wymiarki Polana, that is more often chosen (Fig. 2).

Similar to previous years, the lowest tourism intensity in 2010 was noted for the route Przystań Kąty–Trzy Kopce Przełęcz 21 per day. This section lies far away from the most popular sites of the PNP (Trzy Korony, Sokolica).

4. EXCEEDING THE TOURISM CARRYING CAPACITY ON TRAILS IN THE PNP

Tourism carrying capacity is defined as the maximum number of tourists that may visit the same tourism destination at the same time without causing damage and degradation to the natural environment, and consequently, a decrease in the standard of visitors' satisfaction (MIKA 2007). So far no universal indicator for the value of tourism carrying capacity on walking trails in protected areas has been worked out (PSTROCKA-RAK & RAK 2011), and all existing suggestions generate numerous disputes and are of little practical use (GRAJA-ZWOLIŃSKA 2009, Pstrocka 2004).

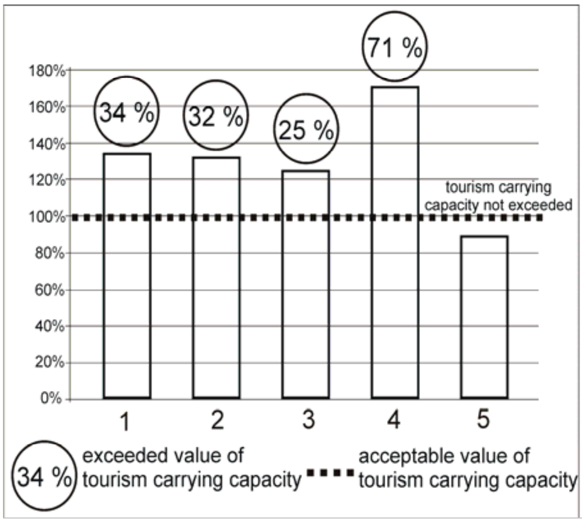


Fig. 3. Exceeded acceptable value of tourism carrying capacity in 2010 on sections of trail I:
1 – Szczawnica–Sokolica, 2 – Sokolica-Sosnów Przełęcz, 3 – Burzana Przełęcz–Wymiarki Polana, 4 – Wymiarki Polana–Toporzyskowo, 5 – Mały Sosnów Przełęcz–Burzana Przełęcz
Source: authors' own work

The achieved results of measuring the intensity of tourism were juxtaposed with the carrying capacity figures calculated for the trail routes by CELICHOWSKI (1977):

I – Szczawnica-Sokolica-Czertezik-Krościenko nad Dunajcem (321 / day).

II – Krościenko nad Dunajecem–Trzy Korony–Zamkowa Góra-Krościenko nad Dunajcem (287 / day).

For route I, the carrying capacity indicator was only not exceeded in the section Mały Sosnów Przełęcz–Burzana Przełęcz. On the other sections the maximum value proposed by CELICHOWSKI (1977) was exceeded (Fig. 3).

For route II, the indicator of carrying capacity was exceeded on all sections (Fig. 4). It was particularly seriously exceeded on the section Szopka Przełęcz–Trzy Korony.

The section Toporzyskowo–Wymiarki Polana was a part of both routes I and II for which CELICHOWSKI (1977) calculated separate carrying capacity indicators.

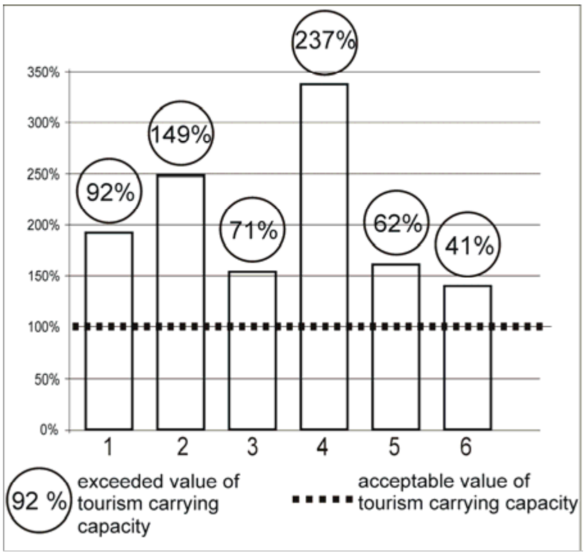


Fig. 4. Exceeded acceptable value of tourism carrying capacity in 2010 on sections of trail II: 1– Toporzyskowo–Wymiarki Polana, 2 –Wymiarki Polana–Limierczyki Polana, 3 – Limierczyki Polana–Szopka Przełęcz, 4 – Szopka Przełęcz–Trzy Korony, 5 – Trzy Korony–Koszarzyska Polana, 6 – Koszarzyska Polana–Limierczyki Polana
Source: authors' own work

5. CONCLUSION

In recent years the number of visitors to the PNP in the summer season has remained similar. The measurements of tourists taken in 2007-10 indicate that the highest intensity values still occur on the same sections Szopka Przełęcz–Trzy Korony and Wymiarki Polana–Limierczyki Polana. The lowest values are noted in the western part of the park.

On the busiest routes of PNP, tourism carrying capacity is exceeded several times over which may bring about negative changes in the natural environment. The most common negative effects include trampling and affecting the properties of soil cover. Such changes in mountain regions may result in increased surface runoff and in the development of erosive processes (FIDELUS 2008, GORCZYCA & KRZEMIEŃ 2006, KASPRZAK 2010, KRZEMIEŃ 1997). Increased tourism may also frighten away birds and push animal life away into the depths of the Park (MIKA 2005).

The high intensity of tourists on tourism trails may also negatively affect the reception of the landscape, and disappoint tourists. These effects may lead to a clash between preserving the value and protecting of natural resources, and tourism in the area of the Pieniny National Park (PTASZYCKA-JACKOWSKA 2005).

FOOTNOTES

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[2] We would like to thank Prof. Antoni Jackowski and the anonymous reviewer for their much appreciated comments.

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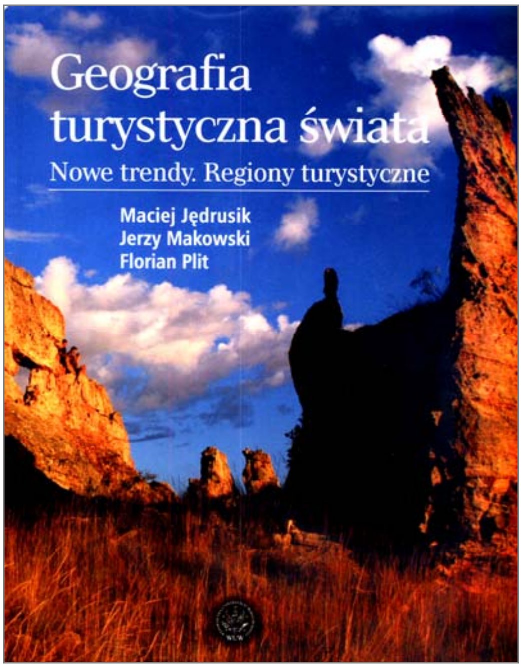
REVIEW

Tourism 2012, 22/1



‘*GEOGRAFIA TURYSTYCZNA ŚWIATA. NOWE TRENDY. REGIONY TURYSTYCZNE*’ [A TOURISM GEOGRAPHY OF THE WORLD: NEW TRENDS, TOURISM REGIONS’]
MACIEJ JĘDRUSIK, JERZY MAKOWSKI & FLORIAN PLIT
WYDAWNICTWO UNIWERSYTETU WARSZAWSKIEGO
WARSZAWA 2010, pp. 383

‘*Geografia turystyczna świata. Nowe trendy. Regiony turystyczne*’, a collective work published in 2010, was written by regional studies specialists from the University of Warsaw. The subtitle of the book suggests that it concerns new phenomena in tourism and contains a description of tourism regions. The publication consists of two main parts, one of which presents ‘Theoretical Issues’, and the other – ‘Large Tourism Regions of the World’.

In the first part, the authors present the basic issues including concepts and definitions related to tourism; they present discussion on tourism geography and the geography of tourism (Chapter 1), outline the history of tourism, as well as dividing tourism into different forms and variations (Chapter 2). The following chapters are devoted to the relations between tourism and the natural environment, the impact of tourism on its surroundings (Chapter 3), as well as the dangers to the environment for tourism (Chapter 4). New trends in tourism are described in Chapter 5 concerning its contemporary forms and popular directions of travel. The first part ends with a world tourism regionalization (Chapter 6), where the authors quote the *UNWTO* classification, pointing to its limitations, as well as presenting their own division of the world into regions based on tourism assets. Regionalization leads the reader to the second part of the book devoted to regions.

Considering the theme of the work, the first part seems too large (113 pages), and the issues presented are related to the geography of tourism (concepts, history, classification) rather than tourism geography. An example of an oversized sub-chapter which needs to be reconsidered is the one on classification (quite inadequately called ‘tourism systematics’). It presents 18 forms of cultural tourism alone, including dance, ethnographic, astronomic, scientific, historical and historical-military. A fairly questionable one is the ‘Other’ category, comprising kinds of tourism (?) according to various criteria, e.g. gay, pre-marital (participants), hospice, or euthanasia (purpose) tourism, also referred to as intimate tourism. It seems that in introducing different sub-divisions it is easy to go too far, therefore let us remember that, generally, when talking about tourism not only the elements of temporarily moving to another place (voluntarily or for non-profit activity) should be taken into account, but also the motive should be verified (whether it really has something to do with tourism – recreation, learning or physical activity). The classification presented in the book also produces the reflection that we should perhaps stop inventing new forms and variations of tourism, because in some cases (see the tables) the categories are duplicated (e.g. mountain tourism occurs in sightseeing and specialist tourism), and sometimes they do not occur at all (e.g. in business tourism). Moreover, the classification leaves certain questions unanswered, e.g.: Why do the quoted examples not include rural tourism? Do the authors believe that it would be a form or a variation and if so – of what form of tourism? Or, why is club tourism not included under entertainment? It seems that the classification suggested by the authors requires a more detailed analysis, which would be more commendable in a student textbook on tourism geography, while in this book only common forms of tourism in the regions where they actually develop should be mentioned.

The part devoted to the spheres of the Earth – water, air and land as environments satisfying tourism needs – is very interesting and original it presents many forms of tourism, and above all examples of areas where they are found (e.g. the Caribbean, the Canary Islands, Oceania, etc.). It is regrettable that the point of reference here is the natural environment, which is of course very important, but we must remember that it is not only that environment that attracts tourists. For many human works are equally important, i.e. historical monuments, customs, events, etc. Unfortunately, this part of the book lacks reference to the human cultural environment or to the political issues, internal problems or the economic situation of the area which may increase or hinder the development of tourism, regardless of natural conditions. It also seems that the title of the book excessively highlights the 'new trends', the description of which somewhat gets lost among other subjects, and which are mentioned only in relation to selected problems.

The second part of the work presents the large tourism regions of the world and is divided into two sections. The first on intra-continental regions (predominantly terrestrial – 8), and the other – coastal regions (predominantly marine – 6). The authors themselves admit that distinguishing between regions is always difficult due to the choice of criteria. The classification presented seems logical and appropriate, because apart from tourism assets, it also differentiates between motives for travel. The authors believe that these are mostly cognitive and specialist, but there are also recreational motives. On the other hand, the division into sub-regions refers to climatic conditions and cultural and civilisational similarity. Basically, individual sub-regions consist of nations, or parts of them as tourism regions occur regardless of administrative borders. Within regions, areas of similar features are put into groups. Naturally, the proposed division is subjective and may be questioned, but we should always be aware of the dilemmas which appear at every attempt at delimitation and of the necessity to make choices. Generally speaking, despite certain doubts (e.g. whether South-Eastern Asia is really a coastal region, or whether Indian Ocean islands may form a single sub-region), it must be admitted that generally the arguments for the classification seem convincing.

Further on, the book contains descriptions of individual regions, which is naturally limited, but provides the most significant information, and selected according to a specific scheme, i.e. the geographical range of the area, its history, demographic and economic features. The section concerning tourism contains information regarding major attractions, tourism development, tourism centres, potential risks, as well as statistical data about, for instance, the intensity of tourism (mostly referring to 2007). This information allows the authors to concisely explain the character of the areas presented in the context of the main theme of the book, and the reader may learn about their individuality and is encouraged to search for further information about selected places. Apart from the main text, there is some more detailed information presented in boxes, which regards given areas, buildings or phenomena. This information effectively enlivens the basic contents and makes the book friendlier to the potential reader. Other advantages are the photographs and maps interspersed throughout the text. It should be stressed that the second part of the work is more coherent and better thought out. The description of each region ends with a short summary, containing the most important conclusions regarding the places presented. The book closes with a bibliography containing many foreign titles and an index of geographical terms.

To sum up, the book reviewed accomplishes its task as a textbook for university tourism students. Its strong point is the fact that it briefly, substantially and interestingly presents tourism regions and at the same time shows the differences between them. The regional approach has allowed the authors to highlight the features, phenomena and processes typical of a larger area, occurring regardless of administrative borders, as well as to show the difficulties with global tourism delimitation.

The book is a valuable and highly required publication, even more so in that currently tourism has become an energetically developing economic sector, and its range is widening. The book may be an alternative to other publications available on the market, e.g. *Geografia turystyczna świata* by WARSZYŃSKA (1994), *Europa. Geografia turystyczna* (2008), *Kraje pozaeuropejskie. Zarys geografii turystycznej* by KRUCZEK (2011) or *Encyklopedia turystyczna świata* (2001).

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REPORT

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REPORT ON THE ANNUAL 'TOURISM AND HOSPITALITY RESEARCH IN IRELAND' CONFERENCE (THRIC) – 'SMART THINKING IN TOURISM' – ATHLONE, CO. WESTMEATH, IRELAND, 14-15 JUNE 2011

The seventh annual Tourism and Hospitality Research in Ireland Conference was held on the 14th and 15th of June 2011 and was devoted to *smart thinking in tourism*. The conference was hosted by the Department of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure Studies of Athlone Institute of Technology (AIT) as a part of its fortieth anniversary celebrations.

The aim of the conference was to accentuate the significance of smart thinking in tourism, which in the current, challenging economic climate can be perceived as a chance for development. In this respect, the greatest opportunities are seen, among other things, in high competitiveness, creating a good value for money tourism product, and improving access on a national and regional level. It is also of pivotal importance to discern the interrelations between human, physical and natural resources in the tourism industry.

The conference was launched with a meeting that took place on 14th June in Athlone Civic Centre. It provided the international delegates from academia and the tourism industry with an opportunity to get to know each other and network. The official welcome ceremony for the event was conducted by Sheila Buckley Byrne, the mayor of Athlone, Dr Marian Fitzgibbon, the Head of School of Humanities at AIT and John O'Hara, the Head of Department of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure Studies at AIT.

The conference proceedings on 15th June took place in the Department of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure Studies building at the main Athlone Institute of Technology campus. The official opening of the event was by John O'Hara, Sheila Buckley Byrne and Professor Ciarán Ó'Catháin, the President of AIT.

The keynote speakers of the meeting were Dr. Melanie Smith and Barry Chandler. Dr. Melanie Smith, representing the Corvinus University of Budapest, a tourism academic for about fifteen years and a chair of International Association ATLAS (Association for Tourism and Leisure Education), addressed the topic of *Smart thinking in special interest tourism*. During this speech the emphasis was placed on the necessity of creative thinking in tourism, seen, above all, in creating high-quality tourist experiences within different forms of niche tourism.

The second keynote speech was delivered by Barry Chandler, one of the representatives of tourism industry, working mainly on the Irish, British and American markets. Barry Chandler is a founder of *Interactive Hospitality*, a digital marketing agency providing consulting services in the field of promotion and advertising for hospitality and gastronomy businesses. His speech, entitled *Smart use of social media in hospitality: how to engage customers, influence experiences, and profit from your online activities* was focused on maximizing business profits with the use of online marketing, without reliance on traditional, capital-intensive advertising.

Apart from two keynote speeches, the conference consisted of three parallel theoretical sessions within which 26 speeches were given. Each session was further divided into three subcategories of topics according to which between two and four speeches were made. The first session comprised three themes:

– *New approaches in tourism and hospitality education*, where attention was devoted to the necessity of implementing changes in the education process within the two domains of knowledge. The key issues are creative and interactive approach in the teaching process, the priority of which is entrepreneurship.

– *Festivals and events*, within this topic the methodological issues concerning the measurement of the economic, social and environmental impacts of festivals were argued along with the question of their funding.

– *Creative thinking in tourism* – the areas discussed, among other things, included the topic of maximizing tourism through the development of cycling networks, as well as the issue of building new, cultural tourism products on the basis of mythology.

The second theoretical session comprised the themes of *Niche tourism*; *Food perspectives* and *People in tourism*. Within the first theme different forms of niche tourism, in particular film-induced tourism and religious tourism were considered. The predominant focus was on the critical success factors in special interest tourism and on the changing profile of tourists. Discussing the future of gastronomy, attention was given to the current trends prevailing in Ireland in this respect and to the requirement for developing and supporting hospitality-driven direct-supply-chain food networks and their significance in regional development. The topic of people in tourism included the matter of the relation between Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) and the decision-making process in choosing hotels applying its principles, was discussed.

During the third theoretical session the following subjects were under discussion: *Marketing in tourism and hospitality*; *Case studies in tourism* and *Sustainable tourism*. The first group of topics comprised the direction of the dominating tendencies in the gastronomy sector of the hotel industry in Ireland, including their influence on the activities of businesses. The second group was presented by students and referred to three different case studies in tourism, on the basis of which changing the image of a city through sport, the tourism use of the archaeological potential of Ireland, and authenticity in tourism were debated. Within the theme of sustainable tourism, the focus was on the demand for and perceptions of 'sustainable' tourism destinations in Ireland.

The detailed inferences, in relation to each of the topics raised by the conference speakers, concerned theoretical and research aspects, as well a practical approach with business applications within the realm of smart thinking in tourism, were included in the publication issued in an electronic format. It comprised nine 'volumes' using as titles the themes described above, covered during the theoretical sessions.

The next stage of the conference was a panel discussion. The group of experts, in addition to the two keynote speakers, comprised Tracey Coughlan from Fáilte Ireland (the National Tourism Development Authority of the Republic of Ireland), Jim Deegan, Professor of Tourism at the University of Limerick, Mary Mulvey, CEO 'The Greenbox' and Liam Scollan, Chairman Ireland West Airport. The panel was chaired by Tadhg Carey, the editor of the Westmeath Independent and the Offaly Independent. The discussion touched on numerous issues of global and local significance. Amongst the addressed areas were the general state of tourism and the hotel industry in Ireland and worldwide, the cardinal importance of education within the domains of tourism and hospitality, the quality of service in tourism and the hotel industry, and finally the necessity of greater collaboration between the members of academia and business. One of the inferences drawn from the discussion was that in times of economic crisis the future of tourism and hotel industry should be seen in imagination, creativity and innovation, in other words in 'smart thinking'.

Altogether over one hundred participants attended the 'Tourism and Hospitality Research in Ireland' Conference from several countries including Great Britain, Hungary, Poland, Sweden and the United States of America. Naturally, the most numerous were delegates representing various academic institutions in Ireland, e.g. Dublin Institute of Technology, National University Ireland in Galway, Galway-Mayo Institute of Technology, Letterkenny Institute of Technology, University of Limerick, Limerick Institute of Technology, Shannon College of Hotel Management, Institute of Technology Sligo, Waterford Institute of Technology.

Attention needs to be drawn to the fact that conference catering was provided by the students of Athlone Institute of Technology. The dishes were prepared by the students of Advanced Certificate in Professional Cookery (National Apprentice Programme & Total Immersion Chef Programme), and the guests were served by Diploma in Restaurant Management students. This gave the conference participants an insight into the high standard of AIT students' preparation for work in the industry from practical perspective.

The formal close of the conference was made by John O'Hara, the Head of Department of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure Studies, who thanked all the participants and presented an award for the author of the best conference article to Tomás Mangan, entitled '*An evaluation of attendee experiences of the 2011 Galway St. Patrick's festival parade: An ethnographic observation*'.