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35 YEARS OF THE „TURYZM/TOURISM" JOURNAL

The tradition of the term 'tourism' in Polish goes back to the interwar period. It was introduced into the language of science by a Jagiellonian University professor, Stanisław Leszczycki (1907-1996), who defined it in 1937 as "the whole of tourist, economic, geographic, statistical, legal, cultural and social issues related to spas and tourism" (Wprowadzenie, 1985, p. 3). Even at that early stage, tourism was seen in Poland as a complex, multifaceted research subject.

Those traditions were referred to in the 1970s when, in a completely different socio-political situation (a socialist country with centrally controlled economy), research on tourism was resumed, mainly by geographers but also representatives of other academic disciplines. In 1978 at the Jagiellonian University, Kraków the first Tourism Geography department in Poland was created by the authors of a pioneering text book, entitled *Podstawy geografii turyzmu/ The Rudiments of Tourism Geography* (Warszyńska, Jackowski, 1978). At the same time, the University of Łódź introduced tourism courses run as part of a post-graduate Tourism Studies and this was followed by a specialization in Tourism Geography introduced by Prof. Stanisław Liszewski at the Department of Urban Geography in 1981.

Tourism studies were also introduced at many other academic centres in Poland (Wrocław, Warsaw, Poznań, Gdańsk). However, not all of the growing body of academic work could be published; there were few journals dedicated to tourism issues, they did not appear regularly and the chance to publish articles in foreign journals was very slim (due to the 'iron curtain'). Scholars dramatically needed a forum for exchanging their research results, views and theories concerning tourism.

This problem was noticed by the founder of the Urban Geography and Tourism Department at the University of Łódź, Stanisław Liszewski. In 1985, as a part of the "Acta Universitatis Lodziensis" series, he initiated a new journal entitled "Turyzm", referring to "Turyzm Polski", a journal founded before World War II by Stanisław Leszczycki and it was intended to commemorate that scholar as a pioneer of tourism studies.

The new journal was to be available to all tourism researchers, regardless of the discipline they represented. This intention followed from the definition of tourism formulated by Stanisław Leszczycki, emphasizing the interdisciplinary character of the research, and from the assumption that tourism theory can be developed only based on the cooperation of many academic disciplines. The new journal became a forum where various authors could publish both empirical research and significant review articles, as well as original theoretical and practical works which could help improve the functionality of tourism institutions.

"Acta Universitatis Lodziensis. Turyzm" included regular sections containing articles, academic notes, reports (usually from conferences, seminars or field classes with students), as well as reviews of published work. In a time of political isolation for many Polish researchers reading reports from conferences held abroad or reviews of books published in other languages was the only opportunity to follow current tourism research issues. Therefore, it is hard to overrate the role of these two sections.

Initially, the editorial team of the "Acta Universitatis Lodziensis. Turyzm" series was very small and consisted of only two members (Stanisław Liszewski – editor, Elżbieta Dziegieć – academic secretary). Their ambition was to publish extended summaries of the articles in foreign languages as well, translated by regular co-workers from the Philology Department: Lucjan Kowalski (French) and Leszek Podbielski (English). It was assumed that "Turyzm" would be aimed at a wide range of readers, not only Polish, but also foreign. Between 1985-1990, "Acta Universitatis Lodziensis. Turyzm" comprised seven issues in B5 format (in 1990 there were two, nos 6 and 7), presenting 36 articles, 8 academic notes, 10 reports and 7 reviews (Fig. 1a, 1b).

In 1991, an independent academic journal was created, entitled "Turyzm", published twice a year and following a new numbering (vol. 1, issue 1; vol. 1, issue 2, etc.). The Editorial Board had three members: Stanisław Liszewski as the editor-in-chief, Elżbieta Dziegieć as the deputy editor and Elżbieta Paradowska as the secretary of "Turyzm", while the Academic Council consisted of four distinguished Polish tourism specialists: Jadwiga Warszyńska, Alicja Krzymowska-Kostrowicka, Antoni Jackowski and Jerzy Wyrzykowski.

The output of the 1991-2000 period was 20 issues in 10 volumes, containing 83 articles, 39 academic notes, 51 reports and 39 reviews. The graphic design and form of the journal as well as its structure were similar to before (Fig. 1c, 1d), (*Articles*, *Academic notes*, *Reports* and *Reviews*) but in five issues, individual items appeared (e.g. *Discussion, Bibliographical information, Didactic notes*) which resulted from the character of those articles. The large, bilingual summaries were preserved and provided by Lucjan Kowalski (French) and Ewa Mossakowska (English). The uniform cartographic and graphic design of the articles was the responsibility of Anna Wosiak and she still remains a member of the editorial team.

The following years (2001-2008) brought several major changes to "Turyzm". Since 2001, articles have been submitted for obligatory external reviews with the names of the reviewers placed on the editorial page. An equally important change involved translating whole articles into English and this required a format change from B5 to A4. Each page was divided into two columns so that the texts in Polish and English could appear alongside each other. At the same time, translation into French was abandoned. Since the beginning of the present century, the professional quality of academic English has been ensured by translator Ewa Mossakowska and a native speaker of English, a geographer Richard Bolt. In the meantime, Prof. Andrzej Matczak joined the Academic Council.

In 2001-2008, the publication ran to 14 issues in 8 volumes (with two double issues), containing 75 articles, 28 academic notes, 17 reports and 28 reviews. Despite the new format of the journal, its colour design and graphic details were preserved (Fig. 1e) but the structure of the articles was slightly changed for bibliographical purposes with abstracts and key words being introduced.

The next important changes took place after 2009 and have continued to the present preparing it for the international market. The bilingual journal, published earlier in two columns (which was very inconvenient in terms of typesetting), was completely reconstructed. It was decided that each language version should be printed as a separate whole, bound together but beginning from opposite ends (Fig. 1f, 1g). Consequently, it was necessary to introduce two titles, so in 2009, the journal was renamed "Turyzm/Tourism". Since that year, it has been published in English by an e-publisher, Central European Science Publishers *Versita* (taken over in 2014 by De Gruyter Open EURSCI, and since 2018 run by *Sciendo*). Online publishing required assigning an e-ISSN number to the journal (2080-6922 – since 2009) and DOI numbers to the articles it presents. Since 2016, the online version has been the primary version. All in all, from 2009 to 2020, 12 volumes have been published, containing 170 articles, 11 academic notes, 9 reports and 16 reviews.

A significant change was the obligatory submission of articles to two reviewers, using the double-blind peer review system. The journal's Academic Council became international: the five Polish members were joined by five non-Polish scholars. In the same year, to much regret, Elżbieta Dziegieć (deputy editor) passed away.

Subsequent changes to the Editorial Board followed in 2013, when two deputy editors were appointed: Andrzej Matczak and Bogdan Włodarczyk, and the Academic Council was joined by a further three Poles and from abroad, a further eight non-Poles. The death of Stanisław Liszewski (1940-2016), the founder and editor-in-chief for many years, put an end to an epoch in the

Figure 1. "Turyzm/Tourism" journal covers from 1985 to 2020
Source: private archives

history of the "Turyzm/Tourism" journal. In 2016, Bogdan Włodarczyk became the new editor-in-chief and Andrzej Stasiak his deputy while Andrzej Matczak and Sławoj Tanaś took up other editorial positions.

The present board of editors took shape in 2019-2020. Currently, the editor-in-chief is Andrzej Stasiak and his deputy, Bogdan Włodarczyk, while the Editorial Board includes Leszek Butowski and Andrzej Matczak, as well as Brigita Zuromskaite from Lithuania and Vasyl Kyfjak from Ukraine. The duties of academic secretary are performed by Justyna Mokras-Grabowska and Michał Duda, while the language edition and typesetting are taken care of by Beata Bednarek (in 2019, in cooperation with Elżbieta Paradowska). In 2020, the Academic Council of the journal consists of 27 members, including 18 non-Poles representing 15 countries.

Apart from personal and organizational changes, the key innovations in the development of the journal were the implementation and use of modern information technology in its everyday work. For several years, "Turyzm/Tourism" has been accessible on the international publishing platform, OJS (Open Journal Systems), and since 2020, due to the agreement signed by the University of Łódź with the Elsevier Publishing House, on the Digital Commons platform as well. In 2019-2020, the editors of the journal participated in the *Wsparcie dla czasopism naukowych* (Support for academic journals) program, run by the Ministry for Science and Higher Education. Owing to the ministerial funds, it was possible to ask many recognized foreign reviewers for cooperation. As a result, in 2020, the "Turyzm/Tourism" journal joined the Scopus database and currently, it is indexed on 40 Polish and foreign bibliographic databases.

Over the past 35 years, the "Turyzm/Tourism" journal has come a long way: from a pioneering academic journal, where the results of the first tourism research were published still in a socialist Poland (the 1980s), through to one of the leading national journals documenting the transformations in tourism in the period of political and economic transformation (the 1990s, early 21st century), and since 2016 to a dynamic international title, aspiring to transfer the latest knowledge about tourism between Poland and the world. "Turyzm/Tourism" has been published throughout by the University of Łódź Publishing House with its Editorial Board remaining at the University of Łódź, Institute of Urban Geography, Tourism and Geoinformation It is the oldest academic journal devoted to tourism in Poland, boasting of an impressive publishing output. From 1985 to 2020, this comprised 338 articles, 86 academic notes, 87 reports and 90 reviews, written by many outstanding Polish and foreign scholars (Fig. 2).

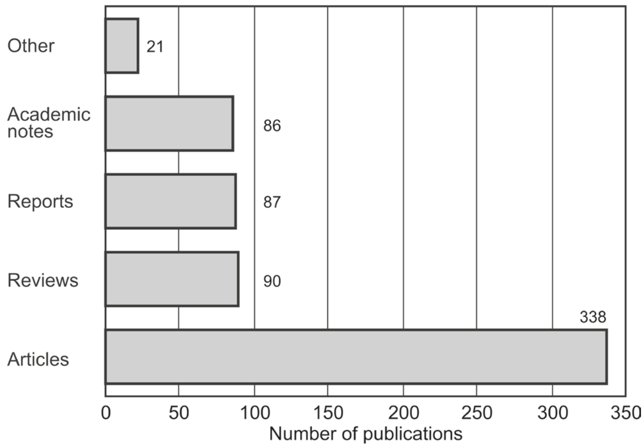

Figure 2. Publication structure in the "Turyzm/Tourism" journal, in 1985-2020
Source: authors

However, it is not the number of published works that is important, but their quality. In many cases, they were fundamental pieces of work, presenting the results of innovative studies, descriptions of new concepts and theories, and summaries of the achievements of Polish tourism researchers. Those which should be mentioned certainly include the following: *Funkcja turystyczna jednostek przestrzennych i program jej badania/ Research programs on the tourist function in administrative districts* by J. Fischbach (1989); *Spała: Morfologia i funkcja miejscowości wypoczynkowej/ Spała. Morphology and function of recreational village* (1991), *Przestrzeń turystyczna/ Tourist space* (1995), *Przestrzeń turystyczna miasta (przykład Łodzi)/ The urban tourist space (Łódź)* (1999) by Stanisław Liszewski; *Istota i właściwości przestrzeni rekreacyjno-turystycznej/ The essence and features of the recreational-tourist space* (1998) by Stanisław Liszewski & Marin Bachvarov; *Urbanizacja turystyczna terenów wiejskich w Polsce/ Tourist urbanization of rural areas in Poland* (1995) by Elżbieta Dziegieć; *Turystyka kulinarna – ujęcie geograficzne/ Culinary tourism from a geographical perspective* (2005) by Andrzej Kowalczyk; *Paradygmat terytorialności w turystyce kulturowej/ The territoriality paradigm in cultural tourism* (2009) by Myriam Jansen-Verbeke; and *Wkład nauk geograficznych w rozwój wiedzy o turystyce w Polsce/ The contribution of geography to the development of tourism research in Poland* (2010) by Antoni Jackowski. "Turyzm" has been presenting articles written by the finest Polish geographers, economists, sociologists and representatives of other academic disciplines dealing with tourism.

A number of issues have been dedicated to distinguished scholars who greatly contributed to the development of tourism geography: Jadwiga Warszyńska (1995), Alicja Krzymowska-Kostrowicka (1999), Bernard Barbier (2002), Antoni Jackowski (2005), Marin Bachvarov (2007), Elżbieta Dziegieć (2009), Stanisław Liszewski (2015), Monika Sławek (2016), Włodzimierz Kurek (2017) and Andrzej Matczak (2020). We have also bidden farewell in obituaries to some authors of significant practical research, conceptual work and theories in the field of tourism: Professors Peter Mariot from Slovakia, Zlatko Pepeonik from Croatia, Marin Bachvarov from Bulgaria and Poland, Jadwiga Warszyńska, Krzysztof Przecławski, Ryszard Gałecki and Olaf Rogalewski.

The journal has evolved, adjusting to political transformations, ministerial directives and requirements (lists of ranked journals) and to advances in editing and printing technologies (from offset prints to specialist editing programs and online editorial platforms). Regardless of the external conditions, the editorial team has always insisted on creating a journal of the highest quality possible. We have always been able to count on the support from authors, reviewers and readers and we are very grateful hoping it will continue into the future. We are certainly not going to run out of ambitious goals!

"Turyzm/Tourism" Editorial Board

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ELŻBIETA PARADOWSKA M.A. – THE SECRETARY AND LANGUAGE EDITOR OF THE "TURYZM/TOURISM" JOURNAL: 1985-2020

Elżbieta Paradowska has been professionally involved in editing the academic journal "Turyzm/Tourism" for 35 years. Having completed geographical studies in 1981, she started working for the Institute of Economic Geography and Spatial Organization, at the Department of Biology and Earth Sciences, University of Łódź. Her responsibilities encompassed dealing with administrative and didactic matters on the Post-Graduate Tourism Studies section created in 1977 (managed by Dr Elżbieta Dziegieć), organizing and running the library of tourism publications at the Urban Geography and Tourism Section (managed by Prof. Stanisław Liszewski), as well as editing academic texts in cooperation with the University of Łódź Publishing House.

When the "Turyzm" journal was created in 1985 (initially as a part of the "Acta Universitatis Lodziensis" series), Elżbieta Paradowska held the position of an informal secretary of the editorial team, which consisted of Prof. Stanisław Liszewski, the founder and editor of the journal, and Elżbieta Dziegieć, the academic secretary. She was officially appointed the secretary of "Turyzm" in 1990 and held this position until 2015. Over that period, 48 journal issues were published; some of them double editions and about 20 of them bilingual. At first, the responsibilities of the secretary involved contacting authors, reviewers and translators which substantially prolonged the publishing process, as well as organizing editorial meetings and actively participating in them. Her successive implementation of new forms of editing (mainly computer-based) and communication (internet) technologies made it possible to systematically shorten the editing process.

Due to her love of geography, literature and the Polish language, in 1998 she was supported by the University of Łódź Publishing House in her decision to start additional work as a language editor. She was responsible for the copy-editing and computer typesetting of articles, both in Polish and English, after they were approved for publication. Elżbieta Paradowska worked diligently for the benefit of the "Turyzm/Tourism" academic journal for 35 years.

Apart from preparing the journal for print, Elżbieta Paradowska edited a monographic series published by the Institute of Urban Geography and Tourism, entitled Konwersatorium Wiedzy o Mieście (Knowledge of the City Seminar) – currently a journal, comprising 30 volumes since 1996, as well as Warsztaty z Geografii Turyzmu (Tourism Geography Workshops; 9 volumes since 2011). An important part of her work for the Institute of Urban Geography was the preparation of publications connected with the academic advance of other employees. Her responsibilities included preparing 12 doctoral theses for print, published in the *Łódzkie Towarzystwo Naukowe* series, entitled *Szlakami Nauki* (On the Academic Trail), eight post-doctoral dissertations and two 'professorial' books, published by the UŁ Publishing House (*Sylwetki Łódzkich Uczonych*/ Portraits of Łódź Scholars and *Moja Droga do Nauki*/ My Road to Scholarly Study).

Elżbieta Paradowska also participated in preparing monographs written by multiple authors (*Łódź. Monografia miasta*/ *Łódź: a monograph of the city*, in both Polish and English, *Monografia województwa łódzkiego*/ *A monograph on Łódź province*), including conference follow-up materials (e.g. *Kultura i turystyka*/ *Culture and Tourism* – five volumes) and works which resulted from research grants written by those associated with the Institute (e.g. *Możliwości i kierunki rozwoju w dolinie Odry*/ *Development opportunities and trends in the Odra Valley*), as well as student textbooks (*Geografia urbanistyczna*/ *Urban geography* in two editions, one of which was published by PWN; *Statystyka – podręcznik dla studentów turystyki i rekreacji*/ *Statistics: a textbook for tourism and recreation students*), two parts of a 'jubilee volume' for the 70th birthday of Prof. Stanisław Liszewski, vast bibliographic publications regarding the geography of settlement, planning works (e.g. *Strategia rozwoju turystyki w Łodzi*/ *Strategy for tourism development in Łódź*), or reports from research on tourism in Łódź and Łódź Province, under the imprint of the *Regionalna Organizacja Turystyczna* of Łódź Province. She prepared several publications for *Polskie Towarzystwo Turystyczno-Krajoznawcze* (Polish Tourist and Sightseeing Society), for example *Szlaki turystyczne. Od pomysłu do realizacji*/ *Tourist trails: from idea to implementation.*

In her career, Elżbieta Paradowska took part in creating over 250 publications, not only academic journals, monographs and book series, but also textbooks, reports, works of popular science and others published by the Institute.

Her work for the Institute of Urban Geography and Tourism, particularly as part of the "Turyzm/Tourism" editorial team, has been invaluable. Her involvement, professionalism, devotion to the Institute and the University, her friendliness and readiness to help in a wide range of undertakings is an example for all involved in research, organizational and administrative work.

Elżbieta Paradowska has been one of the pillars of the "Turyzm/Tourism" journal and it will always be associated with her name. We are very grateful for all the years she has dedicated to the journal, the Institute of Urban Geography and Tourism and the University of Łódź.

"Turyzm/Tourism" Editorial Board

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THE ORIGINS OF ACADEMIC WORK ON TOURISM: A EUROPEAN PERSPECTIVE[1]

Abstract: The purpose of this article is to fill in the gap in knowledge about early academic work on tourism which had developed first of all in Europe. The author has tried to achieve this aim by conducting a retrospective analysis of chronological and institutional-methodological aspects of the evolution of tourism studies. As a result, he has distinguished two aspects (each divided into two): 1) chronological: a period of precursors and a formal academic period; 2) methodological: research within one discipline and interdisciplinary research. The results enabled the author to formulate general conclusions for critical discussion. It primarily concerns the domination of the English language and the Anglo-American tradition in the literature which is the reason why the global picture of achievements in tourism studies is incomplete and thus imperfect. The accomplishments of smaller, yet well-established, "national schools" are often ignored and remain almost unknown internationally. The author hopes that the article will be an encouragement to undertake research on early tourism studies in individual countries and to publish its results internationally as this will broaden knowledge of the origins of academic work in tourism.

Keywords: development of tourism studies, history and evolution, German school, French school, Italian school, Anglo-American domination, Polish achievements.

1. INTRODUCTION

The purpose of the article is to fill a gap in knowledge on early academic work on tourism and above all that which developed in Europe. The problem seems significant because contemporary authors, publishing their works mostly in English, commonly believe that tourism studies did not develop on a large scale until after World War II, and its heyday (still continuing) came only in the 1990s (Jafari, 1990, 2001). In addition, research in this domain is associated primarily with the achievements of the Anglo-American tradition, supplemented in recent decades with the findings of Australian and New Zealand researchers, as well as some from South-East Asia (remaining, however, under the influence of the English language tradition). This phenomenon, which is clearly visible in the predominance of English in contemporary research publications, has already been identified and critically described by both English-speaking academics and those coming from regions where other languages are spoken (e.g. Butowski, Kaczmarek, Kowalczyk-Anioł, Szafrańska, 2019; Chambers, Buzinde, 2015; Hall, 2004; Kozak, Kozak, 2016; McKercher, 2002; Wijesinghe, Mura, Bouchon, 2017). However, the detailed results of the retrospective analysis presented here by the author clearly indicate that the beginnings of tourism studies should be sought in the countries of continental Europe outside the English-speaking area. These go back as far as the second half of the 19th century, and have also been documented in works on the development of individual disciplines dealing with tourism

On the other hand, reconstructing the history of academic work on tourism, with consideration of the multiple disciplines related to it, seems to be very difficult if indeed possible. This can be seen by the fact that it has been relatively rarely attempted in a comprehensive way, and authors dealing with this issue, e.g. Vukonic (2012), Jafari and Xiao (2016) or Kozak and Kozak (2016), are few. Naturally, first we should ask about the purpose of such retrospective analysis. It is not just to mention authors and present their works, possibly relating to the achievements of individual disciplines, but it seems that research should lead to formulating some general conclusions. It should, to some extent, break the stereotypes regarding the contributions of individual academic schools and traditions (with respect to language as well) in the development of tourism studies. At the same time, conclusions from the analysis may form the basis for undertaking further research to provide a fuller picture of tourism phenomena in the contemporary world, embracing a maximally wide range of views. This could expand our knowledge about tourism and its various manifestations and allow us to understand it better.

Aware that completing this task goes beyond the framework of a single article, the author has attempted to at least partly reconstruct the origins of tourism studies.What is new here however is the methodological approach which places the author outside the singlediscipline system. Many works devoted to the history of tourism studies were written mainly from the point of view of a single discipline (e.g. Jackowski, Bilska-Wodecka, Sołjan, Liro, 2015; Jafari, Xiao, 2016) or at most of a group such as the social sciences (Dann, Liebman Parinello, 2009). Perhaps, an even more important move, due to which the author's results do not always confirm earlier findings (cf. Kozak, Kozak, 2016) especially with regard to early tourism studies, is his intentional stepping outside of the contemporary mainstream. They are typically presented in English and one of the negative effects is the fact that source investigations – so important for historical analysis – are limited to this particular language. Wishing to avoid this risk, an attempt was made to use sources other than in English, above all those published in French, German and Polish. At the same time, publications in English written by non-English speaking authors have been widely used, particularly when they concern the origins of tourism studies in their own countries. Naturally, the author is aware that the analysis presented here is incomplete, as it does not include reviews of research on tourism studies in a large number of countries. It seems, however, to be an objective drawback which should not prevent formulating conclusions from the study. On the other hand, it may be a challenge to continue research on the origins of tourism studies from the perspectives of other academic schools or language traditions that have not been mentioned.

2. A RETROSPECTIVE ANALYSIS OF TOURISM STUDIES

In view of the purpose of this study as well as considering its assumptions and limitations, the author has conducted a retrospective analysis of the development of tourism studies from two perspectives: chronological and institutional-methodological. As a result, he has distinguished mutually interconnected periods and research methods:

1. Two main research methods involving different methodological and institutional approaches:
   – single-discipline studies (mono-faceted);
   – interdisciplinary studies (multi-aspectual).
2. Two basic research periods (temporal aspect):
   – the earlier, precursor research period (within a single discipline);
   – the later, formal research period (within individual but also across multiple disciplines).

The distinction described above is presented in model form in Figure 1. A clear division into precursor and formal tourism periods turned out to be impossible because the two phases partly overlap. Thus, the model is illustrative only and the presented time lines are theoretical. This is the same with respect to the methodological-institutional division. Single-discipline or interdisciplinary research is often conducted at the same time or even by the same researchers at different periods. However, it seems that the distinguished periods and their methodological-institutional descriptions indicate general trends in the changes observed in the evolution of tourism studies in a long-term perspective. It is also worth noticing that the conception of tourism studies development presented here is partly an alternative, compared to Kozak and Kozak (2016) who distinguished three separate periods in tourism studies development: 1) before 1960; 2) 1960-1990; 3) after 1990. It also differs from the periodization proposed by Vukonić (2012), who distinguished five stages in tourism theory development: 1) the period preceding tourism development (in its contemporary sense) – before the mid-19th century; 2) the second half of the 19th century – when the first tourism studies were undertaken; 3) early 20th century – before World War I; 4) the interwar period; 5) the period after World War II.

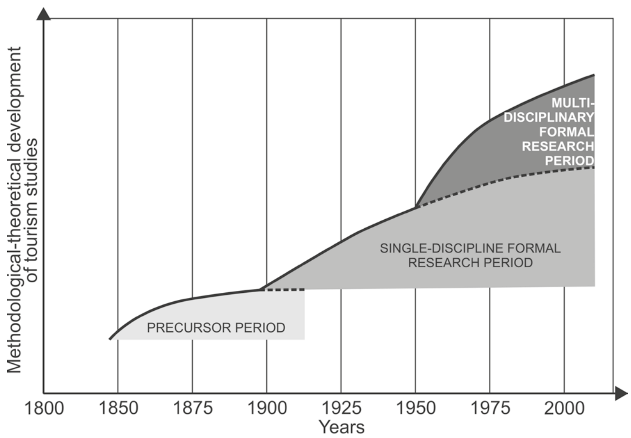

Figure 1. The methodological-theoretical development of tourism studies in real time
Source: author

In view of the historical periods in the development of tourism studies presented above, the next part of the article presents a more detailed description, justifying the division proposed by the author.

The precursor period, which started in the mid-19th century, includes works by those representing different disciplines who, apart from research typical of those disciplines, were also interested in tourism when it was not an autonomic object of study (research area). Obviously, the researchers were not using any specific concepts or terminology because they had only started to be created. The period of formal tourism studies was the time when they had "matured" enough to become an autonomic discipline, with their own (initially modest) conceptual apparatus and terminology, and even with some theoretical output and methods, usually borrowed from other, more advanced disciplines (mostly geography, economics and sociology) and adapted to the purposes of tourism studies. This has been described by many authors e.g. Bogucki and Woźniak (1997), Dann and Liebman Parinello (2009), Hau and Gartner (2012), Jackowski, Bilska-Wodecka, Sołjan i Liro (2015), Jafari and Xiao (2016) and Kowalczyk (2001).

Analysis of the origins of academic work on tourism from a methodological-institutional perspective has made it possible to distinguish two, in a way contradictory research approaches, involving single-discipline and interdisciplinary studies. The former is understood as research conducted from the perspective of one discipline (one aspect), without the need to make an interdisciplinary synthesis of the results. On the other hand, in interdisciplinary studies the distinguishing factor is the attempt to take a multi-faceted approach to a given problem, with the emphasis put on a synthetic interpretation of the results obtained within the framework of several disciplines. It is worth noting that while the first, precursor, stage of tourism studies was characterized by a single discipline approach (economics and geography were the main ones covering tourism studies), in the formal studies period (still continuing), both single discipline and interdisciplinary approaches are used. In the single discipline approach, some developed specific sub-disciplines focused on tourism issues[2], such as tourism geography, tourism sociology, tourism anthropology, tourism economics, etc. (cf. Kozak, Kozak, 2016). It seems, however, that they often remain on the margin of mainstream research in their parent disciplines (cf. Dann, Liebman Parinello, 2009). The interdisciplinary approach, suggested by Tribe (1997, 2006) as the most promising, seems to be much more difficult, with respect to the methodology and organization of research, even though it is presently regarded as giving better results. This problem has been discussed by many authors, including Darbellay and Stock (2012), Leiper (1990), Smith (1998), Tribe and Liburd (2016). Kozak and Kozak (2016) believe that the development of the interdisciplinary approach was influenced by the fact that tourism issues started to be explored by the first generation of researchers who had gained their degrees specifically in this discipline, contrary to their predecessors who were originally educated as economists, geographers or sociologists. In the literature, depending how strongly the research results were synthesised, descriptions of various modifications and developments of the interdisciplinary approach can be found, which are referred to as multidisciplinary, cross-disciplinary, trans-disciplinary, or even post-disciplinary studies[3] (Echtner, Jamal, 1997; Pearce, Butler, 1993; Rátz, 2014; Smith, 1998; Tribe, Xiao, 2011).

Considering the fact that the precursor period and the first phase of the formal tourism period (lasting, arbitrarily speaking, until World War II) have been less recognized, they will be the object of the historical analysis presented in this article[4]. The author's attention will be mostly focused on selected European countries due to the fact that it is in Europe (outside the English-speaking area) where examples of early academic work on tourism studies should be sought. This has also been confirmed by researchers from outside this continent and representing the 'Anglo-Saxon' tradition of tourism studies (Dann, Liebman Parinello, 2009; Vukonić, 2012; Jafari, Xiao, 2016). We may treat this statement as a hypothesis that needs to be verified, especially with regard to the works about tourism which were written by American authors (Brown, 1935; Carlson, 1938; Joerg, 1935; Jones, 1933; McMurry, 1930; Meinecke, 1929). It seems, however, that they had a dispersed character, probably due the researchers' diverse individual interests.

3. THE PRECURSOR PERIOD

The research conducted during the precursor period (especially its early phase) included a wide range of economic and geographical studies with their individual character depending on local economic, political and historical conditions. That is why, in individual countries or regions, different aspects were focused on. For example, in Poland (which had lost the status of a state at that time), the predominant type of research was geography focusing on ethnographic and cultural issues, often very patriotically-charged. On the other hand, German, Swiss, Austrian, French and Italian work was on the impact of tourism on a local economy, settlement system or environment, especially in the Alpine and coastal regions, as well as the historical cities visited by tourists. A little later, but still during the precursor period, strictly economics-oriented, practical work started to flourish, mainly for the purposes of local tourism economies. In Polish literature the early stage, mainly as a part of geographical as well as economic and social research, has been presented by Warszyńska and Jackowski (1978), Kowalczyk (2001), Jackowski and Sołjan (2011), as well as Jackowski, Sołjan, Bilska-Wodecka and Liro

(2015, 2016) who analysed the accomplishments of the leading German and French schools. Geographers were the first[5] to become interested in the phenomenon of tourism and trying to explain it and Jackowski, Bilska-Wodecka, Sołjan and Liro (2015) have formulated a thesis that research into tourism coincided with geography, turning towards issues of human existence in the natural environment. A theme which fitted into this trend perfectly was increasing human mobility, including tourism-related activity.

The most renowned German-speaking representatives of geography from the precursor period, whose achievements were the foundation of later formal tourism and economic research, include above all Alexander von Humboldt (1769-1859) (after: Jackowski, Bilska-Wodecka, Sołjan, Liro, 2015) – a naturalist, who observed the connection between the environment and human activity; Karl Ritter (1779-1859) – a regionalist, considered (next to Humboldt) to be one of the fathers of modern geography; Johann Georg Kohl (1808-1878) – a traveller, geographer and historian; Friedrich Ratzel (1844-1904) – considered to be one of the founders of anthropogeography; his student, Alfred Hettner (1859-1941) – an outstanding geographical theoretician; as well as Kurt Hassert (1868-1947) – and anthropogeographer, specializing in the geography of transport. Although none of these considered himself to be a tourism researcher, all of them, to a larger or smaller extent, dealt with tourism-related issues, either from an ethnographic-cultural (e.g. Ratzel, 1882) or from a geography of settlement perspective (tourist destinations) (e.g. Hassert, 1908; Hettner, 1927; Kohl, 1841), only sometimes focusing on the economic aspect of tourist activity.

In the French-speaking area, the first name that should be mentioned is that of Paul Vidal de la Blache (1845-1918), whose humanistic and at the same time regional approach to geographical research established a very good methodological framework for tourism studies as well. According to Jackowski et al. (2015, 2020), it is Vidal de la Blache with another French geographer, Lasserre, who were responsible for introducing the term *industrie touristique*[6] in reference to the development of the city of Lourdes, a famous pilgrimage destination (Lasserre 1930). In France, in the first decades of the 20th century, the institutional basis of geographical research on tourism (however limited mainly to the mountainous areas of the Alps and the nearby Cote d'Azur, including Corsica) was the Institute of Alpine Geography (*Institut de géographie alpine*), established in Grenoble in 1907, as well as the "*Revue de géographie alpine*" – a journal published from 1913. Their founder was an outstanding geographer, Raoul Blanchard (1877-1965), whose interests included tourism and he devoted many publications to it, superseding, in a way, formal tourism studies (Blanchard, 1911, 1914, 1919). Before World War I, specialist guidebooks and journals appeared, intended for those specialising in some forms of tourism, e.g. Auscher's "Le tourisme en automobile" (1904), which published academic articles, too.

Obviously, the choice of works written by German and French researchers, illustrating the achievements of the precursor period in tourism studies, is not accidental. Generally, it has been agreed that it was in German- and French-speaking countries where this work had already started to develop in the 19th century. It can be assumed, however, that it was also undertaken in several other countries (e.g. Poland), and above all in Italy (Avancini, 1925; Bodio, 1899; Stringer, 1912). Spode (2009) even claims that it was Italy (and not France) that was initially the most important centre of tourism studies, after German-speaking countries.

4. THE FORMAL TOURISM STUDIES PERIOD

Moving on to the formal tourism studies period, it should be emphasised that they naturally developed in German-speaking countries. The first publications on tourism, written mainly from an economic and geographical perspective[7], on the hotel industry or tourism promotion, appeared there at the beginning of the 20th century, and some even earlier. The authors writing from an economic perspective include Guyer-Freuler (1874, 1884, 1895, 1905), Angerer (1881a, 1881b), Stradner (1890, 1905), Brougier[8] (1902), Just (1907), Müller (1908), Schuller-Schrattenhofen[9] (1911), Zollinger (1916), Glücksmann (1917, 1935), Sputz (1919), Morgenroth (1927), Bormann (1931), Krieger (1933) and Jaeger (1936). The authors of geographically-based works include Grünthal (1934) and Poser[10] (1939).

It is worth noting that in as early as 1884, and ten years later in Graz, two important conferences were held devoted to promoting tourism. In 1914, in Düsseldorf, the Hotel Industry School (*Internationales Institut für das Hotelbildungswesen*) was founded, and transformed in 1920 into a vocational school (*Hochschule für Hotel- und Verkehrswesen).* Unfortunately, one year later, it was closed down due to the economic crisis (*Geschichte der Tourismusforschung,* 2020; Kozak, Kozak, 2016). A particularly noteworthy person at that time was Glücksmann (1929), who founded the Institute of Tourism Studies at the Berlin Higher Commercial School (*Forschungsinstitut für den Fremdenverkehr der Handelshochschule Berlin*)[11] and started publishing probably the first academic journal dedicated to tourism studies in the world, entitled "Archiv für den Fremdenverkehr" (Haedrich, Kaspar, Klemm, Kreilkamp 1998; Spode 2009). In 1934, at the Vienna Economic

University, the Institute of Tourism Studies (*Institut für Fremdenverkehrsforschung der Wirtschaftsuniversität Wien*) was established. Symbolically, the first stage of formal tourism studies in German can be added to the institutional[12] and academic achievements of the "Swiss school" (Bernecker, Kaspar, Mazanec, 1984; Kozak, Kozak, 2016; Spode, 2009), and especially the works of Hunziker and Krapf (1941, 1942), whose theoretical work is still the basis for many terminological analyses in this field.

Summing up the heritage of tourism studies in the German-speaking countries before World War II, it should be emphasized that to many researchers it had become the main area of their academic interest (hence their work has been classified as belonging to the formal studies period). However, they mainly conducted their research with reference to single disciplines (mostly economics-based). An exception here is the activity of Institutes of Tourism Studies in Berlin (Spode, 2009) and in Vienna, which represented the interdisciplinary approach. The innovative proposal by Hunziker, formulated in the 1940s, who suggested recognizing tour ism as a separate discipline, should also be mentioned. Looking at the work of the German language school (developing in Switzerland, Germany and Austria) from a 21st century perspective, it is quite clear that it was the predominant school until the 1960s[13]. In that decade, it started to lose significance to the benefit of British and American academics, who became increasingly interested in tourism issues.

As regards tourism research in the first decades of the 20th century by French academics, it seems that the transition from the precursor stage to formal tourism studies took place after the end of World War I[14]. With reference to that period, the urban planning and tourism study by Auscher and Rozet (1920), works by Blanchard (1919), including the geographical-tourist monograph on the Isère River and Grenoble region (1925), and the economic-tourist study by Gide (1928, after: Hsu, Gartner 2012), should be mentioned above all. The growing interest in tourism studies was also largely connected with the success of the International Exhibition of Hydropower and Tourism (*Exposition internationale de la houille blanche et du tourisme*) organized in Grenoble which drew the attention of public authorities and business circles to the importance of tourism for local and regional development (Jackowski, Bilska-Wodecka, Sołjan, Liro, 2015). As a result, in France, more and more publications started to appear (initially mainly on geographers' initiatives) where tourism issues were discussed (Borrel, 1933; Chaix, 1932; Miège, 1933). Except Grenoble, other centres where tourism studies were conducted were the universities in Toulouse, Bordeaux and Pau (Jackowski, Bilska-Wodecka, Sołjan, Liro, 2015).

The position on the predominant role of researchers from German-speaking (mostly economists) and French-speaking (mostly geographers) countries at the beginning of the formal tourism studies period is confirmed by the authors of a collective work entitled "The Sociology of Tourism. European Origins and Developments", edited by Dann and Liebman Parinello (2009), as well as work by Cohen (1984), Homberg (1978) and Spode (2009). Their analyses indicate that formal tourism studies, viewed from a broad sociological perspective (single-discipline approach – social sciences) started in the 1930s and were mainly undertaken in German (Glücksmann, 1935; Knebel, 1960; Wiese, 1930). From the 1950s, they were also developing in French-speaking countries, leaving a rich theoretical heritage in social studies[15]. It is also worth noting that during the initial period of sociological and anthropological research on a wide range of recreation issues (especially in France, the Netherlands, Belgium, and even the USA), leisure time and recreation occupied an important position (Dumazedier, 1962; Hourdin, 1962), with their specific conceptual apparatus and terminology (Fr. *temps libre*, *loisir*, Eng. *free-time*, *leisure*, *superfluity*). These referred to the 19th century social theories of Marx, Engels and Weber, or to the principles of protestant ethics emphasising the dichotomy of work vs. free time (Dann, Liebman Parinello, 2009). Similar tendencies were observed after 1945 in the USSR and the communist bloc countries, but for purely ideological reasons. In view of the above, it should be noted that in some countries, formal tourism studies *sensu stricto* followed leisure time studies into the framework of social studies. It also seems that they did not start to dominate over sociological work on leisure time and recreation until the 1960s-1970s, when they become the main object of interest to social researchers (Lanfant, 1972). This position is shared in practice by Podemski (2005) who notices that the phenomenon of tourist travel was observed on a larger scale by sociologists at the turn of the 1950s and 1960s. It is noteworthy that the growing academic interest in tourism *sensu stricto* coincided with the dynamic development of such studies in 'Anglo-Saxon' countries (mainly in Great Britain and the USA, later also in Australia and New Zealand) and with the growing domination of English in the literature on the subject and academic life in general. It also seems that in those countries, since the 1970s, it has been possible to observe a gradual transition from a single discipline to an interdisciplinary approach to tourism studies, an important methodological breakthrough (cf. Dann, Liebman Parinello, 2009).

Going back to early tourism studies in other European countries before World War II, they were rather sporadic and carried out on a small scale. They did not start until the 1930s (with few exceptions) and were conducted in just a few countries, mainly Italy which has a long tradition, especially of the economic aspects (Savelli 2009). Italy can boast an abundant literature on the subject including (after: Hsu, Gartner, 2012) the works of Belotti (1919), Niceforo (1923), Benini (1926), Marriotti[16] (1923, 1931, 1933), Tabacchi (1934), Pedrotto (1939) and Troisi (1940a, 1940b). They are among major works from this period written in a language other than German and French.

Compared to the Italian output, the historical achievements of the British school (currently the leading one) look modest but mention first of all should be made of the macro-economic works by Ogilvy[17] (1933) and Norval (1936). Britain is however where relatively early historical publications on travel around the European continent (Bates, 1911) had appeared, particularly those about the Grand Tour[18] (Mead 1914), or a much later retrospective study on seaside spa resorts (Gilbert, 1939). This does not change the fact that British researchers only embarked on tourism studies on a large scale much later. Kozak and Kozak (2016) even claim that it did not take place until the early 1970s and was connected with the transition of the British economy from production to services. This opinion was also confirmed by Vukonić (2012) in his study devoted to the development of tourism theory.

Apart from the countries mentioned above, tourism studies in Europe (before 1939) were sporadically undertaken in Scandinavia, Belgium and the Netherlands (Ramarker, 1951), and probably in some other countries as well, though on an incomparably smaller scale. In fact, the publications listed in this paragraph should be included in formal tourism studies although they were written from the perspective of single disciplines, mainly geography, economics or sociology. Many researchers had already treated tourism as the main area of their interest, perhaps with the exception of those who conducted strictly historical research (Towner, Wall, 1991).

As for interest in tourism studies outside Europe, the United States of America should be mentioned first. Interestingly, the scale and significance of research before the end of the 1930s were much smaller than in the Old World. In the first decades of the 20th century, publications presenting tourism issues appeared relatively rarely but included, for instance, economic (or geographical-economic) works by Brown (1935), Carlson (1938) and Jones (1933), or planning-geographical works by Joerg (1935), McMurry (1930), and Meinecke (1929). Most of them were purely practical, which fitted well into the pragmatic dimension of academic activity in the USA, shown by the fact that already in the 1920s, the University of Cornell (1922), and the College of Business at the Michigan State University (1927) had opened schools educating tourism workers (Kozak, Kozak, 2016). Kowalczyk (2001) indicates that in the 1930s, apart from North America, tourism studies were also found in Japan[19], at least in a geographical respect.

5. THE ORIGINS OF TOURISM STUDIES IN POLAND

The main reason for including a separate section devoted to the academic and organizational achievements of Polish researchers as regards the first phase of tourism studies was the intention to present an 'off-stream' country, functioning in a given political, social and cultural situation which was able to develop a model of tourism studies. Its achievements in this respect have been quite well described (at least in the Polish literature), thus there is no need to quote them in detail at this point. However, it is worth noting the particular character of this model, especially at the precursor period. It is certain that it resulted from an exceptional political situation (lack of statehood until 1918) which had an influence on the direction of research and, as a consequence, on the interests and academic evolution of those working in the formal studies period. It should also be stressed that Polish scholars working at that time on tourism issues referred to works by German-speaking researchers (especially within the Prussian sector), as well as the achievements of the "French school". In view of this, it can be assumed that due to external conditions, the specific "Polish model" was not closed and it creatively supplemented other European work. However, the most important purpose is to postulate the need to study other "national models" of tourism studies and the publication of their results internationally[20]. This will make it possible to supplement our knowledge about the origins of academic work in individual countries whose achievements are a part of the global output.

Returning to the "Polish model", it seems that, compared to the accomplishments of the initial phase of tourism studies in the leading countries, the successes of Polish researchers from that period should be rated relatively highly, both as regards research and didactic activity. It should be stressed it acquired an institutionalized form as a 'Tourism School' (*Studium Turyzmu*), founded by Leszczycki and functioning from 1936 to 1939 at the Jagiellonian University in Kraków where it was one of the few institutions in Europe conducting research and didactic work. However, it was not created from scratch, as tourism studies had already had some tradition in Poland. It also seems that the political conditions and lack of statehood were the reasons why in the precursor period (lasting until 1914), research focused mainly on discovering the relationships between the homeland and its culture, traditions and religion.

In this sense, they could be regarded as ethnographic-chorographic studies, similar to contemporary cultural tourism studies and, on a larger scale, to the humanist-regional concepts of Vidal de la Blache. From this period, a number of the most important names, such as S. Staszic (1755-1826) – sometimes called the father of Polish cultural tourism[21], J.U. Niemcewicz (1758-1841)[22] – a traveller and poet, W. Pol (1807-1872) – who used Humboldt's and Ritter's approach in his studies, O. Kolberg[23] (1814-1890) and Z. Gloger[24] (1845-1910) – ethnographers and folklorists, T. Chałubiński (1820-1889) – a doctor and naturalist called the "discoverer" of Zakopane, should be mentioned. From a little later, the names of M. Zaruski (1867-1941) – a sailor, mountaineer and poet, a co-founder of the Tatra Voluntary Rescue Team; A. Janowski[25] – the co-founder of the Polish Society for Cultural Tourism; Mieczysław Orłowicz (1881-1959) – an outstanding cultural tourism specialist and author of tourist guidebooks, or even M. Karłowicz (1876-1910) – a composer, mountaineer and publicist, should be recalled. At this point, several associations helped to discover the homeland by, for example, organizing journeys: the Filomath Society and the Filaret Association (1820-1823)[26], the Tatra Society (founded in 1873), Warsaw Rowing Society (1878), Warsaw Cyclists' Society (1884), Polish Cultural Tourism Society (1906), the University Tourism Club (1906), the Carpathian Association of Skiers (1907), or less known and founded slightly later – the Podole Cultural Tourism Society (1925) and Wołyń Cultural Tourism Society (1927).

The people mentioned above represented various domains of social life, and only some of them were involved directly in academic work. However, their output was a good basis to begin regular tourism studies during the interwar period, booming in the second half of the 1930s when the Tourism School (*Studium Turyzmu*) was founded in 1936 and continued its activity until the outbreak of war. The history of the didactic and research activity of this institution has been well documented by many authors, mainly Jackowski (with his co-workers), Leszczycki (1992), Tokarski (1992) and Wyrzykowski (2014). A critical synthesis of their work is a large work, contributed to by several academics (Jackowski, Bilska-Wodecka, Sołjan, Liro, 2015) devoted to the 'Tourism School', presenting its history and achievements and comparing them to the accomplishments of other countries. Regrettably, the mainstream of those comparative discussions was limited to tourism geography, and the heritage of other disciplines was barely mentioned. In a sense, this article is an attempt at least partly to fill this gap. The observation made by the work's writers may seem a little surprising. They claim that "compared to the European countries and the United States, typical tourism geography started to develop in Poland relatively late, in fact after 1930" (Jackowski, Bilska-Wodecka, Sołjan, Liro, 2015, p. 26). It can be agreed that this claim is justified with regard to the achievements of German and French geographers. On the other hand, Polish work seems quite successful, both in its academic-cognitive and didactic aspects, mainly due to the activity of the 'Tourism School'. The writers confirm this in another part of this publication (Jackowski, Bilska-Wodecka, Sołjan, Liro, 2015, p. 13):

> The Tourism School – established in 1936 as a part of the Geographical Institute at the Jagiellonian University, was unique on an international scale. It played a significant role in the development of Polish and world tourism geography, as well as spatial and regional planning, connected with tourist activity and the preparation of future tourism sector workers in Poland.

6. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

To sum up the origins of tourism studies presented in this article, several general conclusions may be formulated, and also presented in the form of theses. They should undergo critical analysis or perhaps even become an inspiration for further research regarding the evolution of academic work on tourism, especially in areas not mentioned here.

1. In view of the achievements of various academic schools and traditions, it seems unquestionable that tourism studies started to develop on a larger scale at the turn of the 20th century on the European continent, mainly in Germany, Austria and Switzerland, as well as in France and Italy. It was due to the dynamic tourism development in specific, though relatively small, geographical areas belonging to these countries (the Alps, coasts, historical cities), which had certain economic, spatial-environmental and social consequences. The changes first drew the attention of economists and geographers, followed by sociologists, making tourism a new object of research in these disciplines. Tourism studies in their first phase were of purely practical nature, which may explain the considerable "delay" in their undertaking by British and American researchers. Great Britain and the USA were countries which, above all, generated tourism, but to a much smaller extent, receiving it, along with all its economic, environmental or social consequences.
2. Apart from the real-life factors mentioned in conclusion 1, the development of tourism studies initiated in the German-speaking area and in France was also triggered by the solid theoretical-methodological foundations in which the first work was undertaken. Special attention should be paid to the work of the 19th century German school of anthropogeography

(*Anthropogeographie*) and the French tradition of geographical regional studies, conducted from the humanist perspective (*géographie humaine*). An equally important role in the early days was played by the rich heritage of both countries as regards wide-ranging social thought and theory. Taking this into consideration, it can be assumed that the researchers undertaking the first studies on tourism, including those from outside France and German-speaking countries, naturally borrowed from their rich work.

3. Retrospective analysis of the development of tourism studies, conducted from the broadest perspective possible, going beyond one country, one language area or one academic tradition, has made it possible to distinguish three basic phases, partly overlapping in the temporal sense, showing distinctive methodological-organizational features:
   - the precursor period – historically the earliest – when tourism researchers, not yet equipped with any specific methodological instruments, or any adequate theoretical foundations for a new area of study, were forced to rely on the work of other, more advanced disciplines. Tourism researchers were originally involved in those disciplines and fully identified themselves with them while studying tourism. Practically, it meant that tourism studies were conducted within research paradigms ruling individual disciplines;
   - the formal tourism studies period – characterized by the single-discipline approach – is chronologically the second stage in the development of academic work on tourism, and also follows methodological-theoretical advancement. During this period, tourism acquired the status of a specific research area, explored from the point of view of various disciplines, using their theoretical work and methodological instruments adjusted to the character of the object of study. Simplifying, it can be assumed that the distinctive feature of this period and its peak phase is the evolution of several sub-disciplines, such as tourism geography, tourism economics, tourism sociology, etc. It is worth noting, however, that research in this phase, despite considerable methodological advancement, was still based on the paradigms ruling individual disciplines;
   - the formal tourism studies period characterized by an interdisciplinary approach is one of the most advanced phases of tourism studies, with regard to theory and methodology. Its most distinctive feature is putting emphasis on the interdisciplinary synthesis of the results of research conducted from the perspective of individual disciplines. This synthesis is the most important added value and determines the theoretical development. It is, at the same time, a kind of breakthrough which involves researchers breaking away from the institutional and methodological roots of the disciplines they derive from. In view of this, granting tourism the status of a specific study area or regarding it as an independent discipline seems to be of secondary importance and this has been the subject of heated discussions in the last three decades (Butowski, 2011; Leiper, 2000; Tribe, 2000).
4. When comparing the origins of academic work on tourism in individual countries, it can be noticed that in some of them formal tourism studies developed using the achievements of the precursor period. This particularly concerns continental Europe (Germany, Austria, France, Italy, Poland). In the countries where the precursor period had not occurred to this extent (English language area, mainly Great Britain and the USA), tourism studies started to develop practically from scratch. This does not change the fact that researchers dealing with tourism in these countries borrowed heavily from theoretical work in other disciplines (economics, sociology, anthropology, geography, and later also management and marketing sciences).
5. As a result, formal tourism studies have included single-discipline studies (or a group of related disciplines) and interdisciplinary studies. It seems that the single-discipline approach is more common in countries which have gone through the precursor period, characterised by researchers' strong attachment to their parent disciplines (e.g. in Poland). In the areas where English is spoken (the language that has dominated the international academic debate over tourism), the interdisciplinary approach is much more common. It is particularly visible among researchers who gained their academic degrees on strictly tourism-related research.
6. Assuming that the conclusions formulated earlier are true, the well-known and often quoted model of tourism evolution, proposed by Jafari (1989, 2001), can be critically referred to, the so-called knowledge-based platform. He distinguished several subsequent phases (referred to as platforms), describing tourism development in individual periods. The knowledge-based platform which is a phase during whose main task was to understand tourism as a complex phenomenon in the contemporary world, with the help of the research instruments offered by modern disciplines, was one of these. It was positioned as the fourth, chronologically, and its development period was established as the 1990s[27]. Considering the facts presented in this article, the last decade of the 20th century, indicated by Jafari as the one in which the need for academic recognition was most important, seems too late. This was probably due to Jafari's excessively anglocentric view of global work on tourism, down-

playing the heritage of continental Europe. This assumption seems to be confirmed by the fact that regardless of the period in which we place the dynamic development of tourism studies – the 1960s (Butler, 2015) or 1990s, (Jafari, 1989, 2001; Kozak, Kozak, 2016), to some extent it corresponds to the development of the interdisciplinary approach (more or less the 1970s and 1980s) which was primarily the domain of the Anglo-American school.

7. If we want to reconstruct the origins of tourism studies as fully as possible, it is necessary to consider achievements in the countries outside the main academic schools and traditions, or language zones, such as Germany, Austria, Switzerland, France, and later also Great Britain, the USA, Australia and New Zealand. These achievements were often a valuable supplement to mainstream work. Regrettably, they remain nearly completely unknown internationally. A good example is Poland, where regular and well institutionalized tourism studies had been conducted since the 1930s and researchers had been taking advantage of the achievements of the precursor period since at least mid-19th century. It can be assumed that similar situations might have taken place in other European countries too, often characterized by different historical, political, social, economic or environmental conditions which certainly had an influence on the development of tourism studies. Unfortunately, knowledge about tourism research usually remains 'closed' within these countries (and their language traditions) and is rarely presented outside, especially in the English-language mainstream literature. This situation certainly contributes to solidifying incomplete, thus somewhat mistaken opinions about the origins of tourism studies, especially among the younger generation of English-speaking researchers, but which at least some of them are aware (Butler, 2015; Dann, Liebman Parinello, 2009).
8. In view of conclusion 7, it seems that research on the origins of tourism studies undertaken in various countries should be continued and the results should be presented internationally, in languages understood by a wider audience. This would fill in the existing cognitive gap and make it possible to better understand the development of academic work on tourism on a global scale, including the achievements of local schools and traditions. Even though this is exactly the aim of this article, its author is aware that the scope of the analysis is insufficient by far (if only because of linguistic limitations) and it should definitely be enlarged by the accomplishments of other countries, outside areas where English, French, German and Polish are spoken, the particular areas which were the main source of information necessary to write this article.
9. The author hopes that the challenges suggested above will be faced. It might even take the form of polemics (which is equally valuable), perhaps questioning to some extent the findings and theses presented in this work. They certainly carry the imprint of subjectivism (sometimes unintentional) whose aim was to draw the reader's attention to the incomplete thus distorted knowledge about the contribution of smaller countries and research centres on tourism studies.

ENDNOTES

[1] The article is a part of a monograph entitled *Methodology of tourism studies: ontological and epistemological rudiments, and historical-institutional development*, submitted by the author for printing at the Polish Economic Publishing House.

[2] Their achievements at individual stages of research were often presented in special publications, e.g. *Podstawy geografii turyzmu* (Warszyńska, Jackowski, 1978), *Fondements pour une géographie du tourisme et des loisirs* (Cazes, 1992), *The Sociology of tourism: Theoretical and empirical investigations* (Apostolopoulos, Leivadi, Yiannakis, 1996), *Geografia turyzmu* (Kowalczyk, 2001), *Socjologia podróży* (Podemski, 2005), *Geographie der Freizeit und des Tourismus* (Becker, Hopfinger, Steinecke, 2007), *The study of tourism: Anthropological and sociological beginnings* (Nash, 2006), *Ekonomika turystyki* (Panasiuk, 2008), *The study of tourism – foundations from psychology* (Pearce, 2011), *The discovery of tourism economics* (Dwyer, 2011), *Geography of tourism* (Mason, 2017), *Géographie du tourisme et des loisirs* (Duhamel, 2018).

[3] It should be remembered, however, that including post-disciplinary studies into interdisciplinary research results in a logical mistake: interdisciplinarity assumes the existence of disciplines by definition, while post-disciplinarity means rejecting them (Szczepański, 2013).

[4] The methodological aspect of tourism studies development in 1945-2000, especially with reference to tourism activity, has been presented in the Polish literature by, e.g., Alejziak (2018).

[5] This statement seems valid, most of all as regards French and Polish researchers. In German-speaking countries, the predominant role was played by economists.

[6] The term was also adopted in English as *tourism industry* or *hospitality industries*. In Polish, it functions only as a loan translation *(przemysł turystyczny)*, pushing out *gospodarka turystyczna* (tourism economics) which is closer to the original.

[7] Kozak and Kozak (2016) claim that at their early stage, formal tourism studies were dominated by economic research, due to the economic needs of the countries recovering after World War I.

[8] In 1902, Munich, he gave a lecture entitled *The influence of tourism on the development of Bavaria* (Spode, 2009).

[9] Treating tourism (Ger. *Fremdenverkehr*) very broadly – as a sum of all economic activities involving travel.

[10] Apart from the quoted authors, Vukonić (2012) mentions other names of German speaking researchers, who undertook tourism themes at that time, e.g. F. Bartsch, P. Mechter from Austria, as well as L. Woerl, F.M. Buschel, G. Ströhmefeld, O. Kamp, K. Köhne, M. Krauss, F. Oppenheimer, M. Klafkowski. K. Thiess, R. Bodo, K. Brenner, D. Tremohlen, E. Dietl, W. Mahleberg, E. Sutter, A. Rockstrob or F. Drosihn from Germany.

[11] The Institute existed until 1935 (according to other sources – 1934), when it was closed down due to the economic crisis. It

was also significant that the founder, R. Glücksmann was of Jewish origin (Spode, 2009).

[12] In 1941, also in Bern, Forschungsinstitut für Fremdenverkehr (Institute of Tourism Studies) was founded.

[13] Many important theoretical tourism studies, authored by German-speaking researchers, were created in the 1950s. They include macro- and micro-economic works by Thoms (1952), Krapf (1953), Joschke (1953), Bernecker (1956), Walterspiel (1956a, 1956b, 1956c) or Hunziker (1959).

[14] However, many earlier works by Blanchard (1911, 1914) can be qualified as formal tourism studies.

[15] At the same time, it is worth noting that other authors who, in a sense, can be regarded as precursors of social studies regarding leisure time and tourism, include Veblen (1899) with his famous work *The theory of the leisure class*, Lévi-Strauss (1955) with his equally renowned piece, entitled *The sadness of the tropics* (Fr. *Tristes tropiques*), as well as Simml (1908) with the figure of "a stranger" created by him (Ger. *der Fremde*). Paradoxically, the authors of the first two texts were very critical about leisure time activities (Veblen) and travel (Lévi-Strauss). None of the three researchers treated tourism (recreation, travel) as the main object of academic interest; it was used rather to describe the society from specific research perspectives. The works created by these researchers were definitely an inspiration for others, who undertook the subject of tourism *sensu stricto.*

[16] In as early as 1925, at the University of Rome, he gave lectures dedicated to economic aspects of tourism (Medlik, 1965).

[17] They concerned, among other things, economic aspects of tourism as invisible export. According to Vukonic (2012), an inspiration for Ogilvie was the work by Mun (1664).

[18] One of the first works on Grand Tour was *Dialogues on the use of foreign travel. Considered as a part of an English gentleman's education, between Lord Shaftesbury and Mr. Locke* by Hurd (1764).

[19] The author does not quote specific sources.

[20] Regrettably, the majority of publications in English, the output of the non-mainstream countries is virtually disregarded (cf. Kozak, Kozak, 2016). This probably results from the insufficient knowledge of their authors, at least as regards the development of tourism studies in countries such as Poland, former Yugoslavia or former Czechoslovakia. An exception could be the collective work written by authors from many countries, under the editorship of Dann and Liebman Parrinello (2009).

[21] The author of *O ziemiorództwie Karpatów i innych gór i równin Polski* (Staszic, 1815).

[22] The author of *Podróże historyczne po ziemiach polskich między rokiem 1811 a 1828 rokiem odbytych* (Niemcewicz, 1858), published many years after his death.

[23] The author of a monumental work entitled *Lud. Jego zwyczaje, sposób życia, mowa, podania, przysłowia, obrzędy, gusła, zabawy, pieśni, muzyka i tańce*, published from 1858 (see: Kolberg, 1857-1890). Before the author's death, 33 volumes had been published, ten of which were included in the *Ethnographic pictures* series.

[24] The main author of E*ncyklopedia staropolska ilustrowana*, published in four volumes, in 1900-1903 (see Gloger, 1900-1903)

[25] The author of *Wycieczki po kraju* – a four-volume work, published in 1900-1903 (Janowski, 1900-1903)

[26] The trend to travel and discover one's own or foreign countries was characteristic of the Romanticism period all over Europe. The journeys were even called *les voyages touristiques*, and the most famous travellers from that period, mentioned by Vukonić (2012) include J.W. Goethe, F.R. Chateaubriand, Ch. Nodier, Stendhal, G.G. Byron, G. Sand, H. Heine, A. Dumas or A. de Musset. Unfortunately, he forgot to mention F. Chopin or A. Mickiewicz.

[27] A different opinion is represented by Butler (2015), who referred to the 1960s as a period od a dynamic development of tourism studies, at least in Northern America.

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FAN TOURISM AND FAN TOURISTS: DISCUSSION ON DEFINITIONS AND RESEARCH ISSUES

Abstract: The purpose of the article is to systematize the concepts of fan tourism and fan tourists and an attempt has also been made to identify the profile of a fan tourist. There are certain research gaps in terms of defining the concept itself, therefore the authors have decided to investigate this. Literature analysis and criticism as well as synthesizing ideas were methods used in this work. The article presents the characteristics of fan tourism and a description of a fan tourist using psychological, social and economic criteria identified on the basis of a literature investigation. The following attributes were distinguished: the main motive of activity, emotional involvement, 'extreme' support, commitment to ideas, sympathy towards ideas, personal attendance at an event and the nature of a consumer or a prosumer when a fan tourist participates in an event personally. The concepts of a fan in general, fanatic and sports fan (*kibic*) were used in the process of identifying the characteristics of a fan tourist.

Keywords: fan tourism, fan tourist, sports tourism, cultural tourism, fan, fanatic, sports fan.

1. INTRODUCTION

In the subject literature, fan tourism is most often associated with sports tourism (Hinch, Higham, 2001; Mokras-Grabowska, 2016; Stasiak, Włodarczyk, 2015; Włodarczyk, 2016), and Włodarczyk (2016) indicates that fan tourism can be approached as a kind of hybrid combining event and sports tourism. For this reason, it has been assigned a significant role in contemporary tourism, primarily from the perspective of the competitiveness of destinations (Kurek, 2007). This form of tourism is much less frequently analysed in terms of cultural goals e.g. participation in music festivals or concerts of famous artists (Geraghty, 2018; Liszewski, 2016; Williams, 2017). Cited publications often present quite superficial remarks on the essence of fan tourism and a fan tourist, in which the writers consider general motives followed by discussion of a tourist on a trip. Such discussion certainly limits the possibility of a deeper understanding of fan tourism, and the fan tourist him/ herself, and encourages more detailed and interdisciplinary literature research in this respect. It is all the more important as fan tourism can be currently classified as one of tourism's most dynamic forms. This is confirmed by the rapidly increasing number of fan clubs and followers' groups on social media. For example, the most popular worldwide idols in the area of contemporary culture and sport are on instagram.com including the popular music band Pink Floyd followed by 2.7 million, and Beyoncé, the singer, by 141 million. In the world of sport, the Los Angeles Lakers basketball team (12.5 million) and the football player Cristiano Ronaldo (204 million) are very popular on the internet. Not all sports fans follow their idols, however it can be assumed that the vast majority do. Fan tourism represents a developing domain, and the tourism industry increasingly perceives fans as a key market segment (Geraghty, 2018). According to Twitter Internal & Crimson Hexagon (2020) research, fan tourism increased by 39% in the period 2016-2019.

It should also be highlighted that the sports industry is one of the fastest growing economic sectors in the world. In North America the recorded value of the sports industry amounted to $67.3 billion in 2016, and this figure is expected to reach $78.5 billion with an annual growth rate of 3.1% (Cho, Joo, Chi, 2019). Within the sports industry, research issues preferred in tourism include the behaviour of sports fans and sportsmen and women themselves (Hanks, Zhang, McGinley, 2016; Ramirez-Hurtado, Berbel-Pineda, 2015; Walters, Shipway, Miles, Aldrigui, 2017), sport as a their pastime (Morrison, Misener, Mock, 2020; Theodorakis, Kaplanidou, Karabaxoglou, 2015) and sports management (e.g. Dotson, Clark, Super, Dave, 2013).

Such academic popularity is mainly confirmed by the economic importance of sport for spectators (Cho, Joo, Chi, 2019). Statistics show that each year an increasing number of people attend both cultural and mass sporting events, however, does this reflect fan tourism for sports fans or simply as tourists? Statistics show the total number of those who attend sports or cultural events without a clear division between sports fans and fan tourists, which leads to some controversy. The absence of a fan tourist definition in the literature constitutes a research gap and a reason for undertaking the research presented here.

The purpose of the article is to systematize the concepts of fan tourism and fan tourist. An attempt has also been made to identify the profile of a fan tourist. The intention of the authors is not, however, to settle these debatable issues arbitrarily, but to present their own reflections on the profile of a fan tourist and related issues which could serve as useful material for research, teaching and empirical purposes. Literature analysis and criticism was used in the study and synthesising of ideas found allowed the authors' own characterisation of a fan tourist to be developed.

2. A DISCUSSION OF THE TERMS: FAN TOURISM AND FAN TOURIST

The discussion begins with consideration of the essence of fan tourism, its divisions and motives. In the literature, it is most often associated with sports tourism and one of the most popular definitions was proposed by Alejziak (2016), who defines it as a form of tourism covering both the activity and the functioning of various institutions directly related to it as well as the provision of services to those who travel, voluntarily and temporarily rather than for work outside their everyday environment. This is in order to pursue their interests related to sport either by undertaking physical (sports) activity, or by attending sports events as spectators. Distinguishing fan tourism from tourism itself is based on a presentation of motives, and so fan tourism is defined as tourist trips made by those motivated by a willingness to attend sports events as sports fans (Brumm, 2012; Higham, Hinch, 2001; Kurek, 2007; Mokras-Grabowska, 2016; Stasiak, Włodarczyk, 2015; Włodarczyk, 2016).

In addition to the definition of sports tourism, there are also sub-classifications in which fan tourism is one. Among popular systematizations there is the one proposed by Standeven and De Knop (see: Mokras-Grabowska, 2016) where they identified four types of activity undertaken as a part of sports tourism:

- trips to watch sports events (so-called fan tourism);
- trips to visit sports facilities (so-called nostalgic sports tourism);
- trips to participate in sports events as competitors;
- trips to engage in various forms of sporting activity.

Mokras-Grabowska (2016) has adopted a similar standpoint regarding the sub-classification of sports tourism. In turn, Stasiak and Włodarczyk (2015), by introducing the sub-division of fan tourism those who actively participate in sports events and also make tours of the facilities related to their organization. This provoked controversy as the latter form of fan tourism was previously assigned to sports tourism. Fan tourism is approached slightly differently by Liszewski (Liszewski, 2016), who proposes to divide it into sports fan tourism and a more general fan tourism related to motives for participating in music festivals or other mass cultural events. Buczkowska also indicates the cultural aspect of Olympic tourism (considered in the context of participation in great sports events) (Buczkowska, 2008). In the English-language literature, cultural fan tourism is associated with film-induced tourism, film-motivated tourism, teletourism and media tourism (Beeton, 2005; Karpovich, 2010; Williams, 2019). Iwashita (2006) also mentions literature tourism. When describing culture-induced fan tourism, writers frequently refrain from providing a specific definition, but instead describe certain relationships between fans and a given space and its residents, or material objects connected with a particular film, book or character. In order to explain the essence of cultural fan tourism, the authors also use an analogy with traditional city tourism, emphasizing the fact of developing a personal relationship between fans and an urban space, which for them becomes e.g. real and unreal (fictional), imagined or inspiring (Geraghty, 2019), and this is not found among traditional cultural tourists. Geraghty (2014) also describes music-induced fan tourism, which involves following rock music and the practice of collecting souvenir pins produced and sold by the Hard Rock Café.

The literature overview allows a certain synthesis of the main characteristics of fan tourism in order to understand it (Table 1).

Stasiak and Włodarczyk (2015) focus on types of fan tourism activities, but point out that such fans explore the city and its surroundings, get to know the local cuisine and contact other fans. Based on the discussion presented, it can be concluded that fan tourism refers not only to sports tourism but also to cultural tourism. In addition to making tourist trips, writers perceive fan

Table 1. An overview of fan tourism definitions including a specification of their main elements

Author and title of publication	Definition	Main elements of definition
Brumm (2012)	Fan tourism represents one of a quite new type of tourism which is gaining in popularity. It consists in making tourist trips to attend sports events, most often in relation to large ones, e.g. the Olympic Games or World Championships, however fan tourism also refers to smaller events e.g. ski jumping or cycling competitions. Fan tourists' idea is to support their compatriots or favourite sportsmen and women. It is a result of the motives stimulating fan tourists to feel positive emotions or the prestige of being attending an event.	Tourist trips Purpose: sports events of various kinds Motive: attendance at sports events, desire to feel positive emotions, a sense of prestige
Włodarczyk (2016)	Fan tourism is an element of both national heritage and contemporary cultural tourism and consists in learning about national sports. Fan tourism also relates to Olympic tourism due to its nature and contact with both sport and culture.	Main motive: a visit to a sports arena, watching the players competing live and cheering favourite sportsmen and women The chance to attend as many sports events as possible The chance to visit sports stadiums
Williams (2017)	Fans are often involved in research and collecting information related to their form of tourism, trying to archive information, photos and maps of important places and often find more unobvious places. So, while fans often look for other types of knowledge about fan objects (e. g. learning as much as possible about actors or writers from their favourite TV series), so much so they can also get involved in this kind of practice when looking for places to watch films or TV sets.	Fan tourists are the fans perceived as collectors Purpose: collecting, archiving photos, maps and information about idols Their involvement revolves around their interest in traveling to follow artists and cultural artefacts
Geraghty (2018)	Fan tourism is passing through different tourism spaces and making sense of being present, taking photos and appearing as a fan in these spaces. In such cases multiple identities are revealed, fan identities change over time and the memories of geographic landmarks become important fandom markers. The spaces of sports fans are imagined, real and unreal, constructed and natural, challenged and official, absorbed and constructed, creative and hierarchical. They may be known for traditional tourism such as city tours. Typical tourist spaces can become the destinations of fans. What fans do in the field of media tourism contributes to building their identity; it can confirm their existence and make them fans of new media texts.	Passing through tourist spaces Most important role: fan Culture-induced tourist trips

Source: authors' compilation.

tourists as pilgrims. It is worth noting that fan tourists use some kinds of spaces which are not typical of mass tourism. An equally interesting issue is approaching fan tourists as if they are also perceived as sports fans, and this raises controversy in the light of the discussion presented here. It should also be noted that in the subject literature, fan tourism is identified with a passive form of sports tourism, in the sense of attending a sports event. However, the activities undertaken by fan tourists, concerning both tourist sources and tourist destinations, may lead to an active attitude towards such events.

A fan tourist primarily combines elements of a tourist in general with a specific category of spectator – a *fan*. *Fan* distinguishes the type of tourism discussed from those actually interested in it. The PWN dictionary of Polish states that a *fan* is an avid sympathizer of someone or something (*Fan*, 2020b) which has been functioning in Polish since the second half of the 20th century, and according to Długosz-Kurchabowa (2008) originates from the English word *fanatic*. Włodarczyk (2016) has a different opinion and translates the term *fan* from English as a sports fan (*kibic*). Another (English language) source presents a fan as someone who admires and supports a person, a sports discipline, a sports team, etc., but also as one highly interested in and spending a lot of time watching or reading about artists or sports teams (*Fan*, 2020a). Moreover, the term *fan* is used to refer to or express admiration for a selected book, its author, a cartoon, a film, actors, a director, a TV show, presenters, games or other product of the cultural industry (Lisowska-Magdziarz, 2017). An opportunity to support a favourite sportsman or woman or artist increases the desire for consumption and travel to tourist destinations.

In the era of SARS-CoV2 pandemic, fan tourists spend time on the internet to support their idols. It is also worth paying attention to the fact that fan tourists make virtual trips to events which take place without any audience. An example of such event was the #koncertdlabohaterów [concert for heroes] broadcast on the player.pl platform. The artists' own apartments or houses were their stages, whereas the aim of the event was to support health workers fighting the coronavirus.

Fans gather in groups which is characteristic for young people interested in pop culture, however, according to the source (Jaszewska, 2011), it is not only focused on pop culture. The variety of fan groups is so extensive that fans have a wide spectrum to choose from depending on their preferences. By joining such groups, they enter with a sense of belonging new cultural homelands. Fan communities are characterized by an active consumption of cultural texts, both learning about cultural products and their transformation as well as further replication. They are capable of discussing and transforming lyrics and even creating alternative endings. Fans explore territories that belong to someone else and remain in potential conflict with the original. However, they are extremely active and raise their interests to the rank of art, resulting in expanding experience beyond mere consumption. There is no clear division between the reading and writing of fans and their consumption is interspersed with production (e.g. songs, texts, films, etc.). Reading is an active, intellectually and emotionally engaging activity where fans creatively transform and continuously reinterpret texts (Jaszewska, 2011).

In terms of sociology, fans are defined as a specific category of pop culture recipient, interested in music, movies, TV series or books. How do they stand out? They are characterized by their commitment and multiple reception of cultural artefacts. The object of interest is very often adored and many times over. In the case of music fans, their behaviour revolves around attending concerts and pilgrimages to places associated with their idols. Fans know the works of a particular artist by heart and are also frequently a secondary producer, creating amateur versions based on a beloved work (Siuda, 2010). They often get involved in re-staging specific scenes and take part in thematic tours (Norris, 2016) e.g. to participate in an "imaginary space of action" (Couldry, 2007, p. 143) related to a given film or novel. A specific emotional bond is also developed between a fan and a place where the action of a movie or a novel is held, based on memories and identity. This place can be interpreted differently depending on the fan's knowledge.

It seems that discussion focused on the essence of a fan should include consideration of synonymous terms – a fanatic and a sports fan. A fanatic can be defined in two ways. On the one hand, it is a person who passionately adheres to an idea or religion, remains extremely intolerant of those who follow other views. On the other, it is a person passionately devoted to certain activities or is persistantly someone's admirer (*Fanatyk*, 2020). Fanaticism is often associated with religion (Poniatowski, 1969), although it is also found in culture and sport, and this is an important issue for this article. When interpreting the arguments by Forest (1991) it can be noticed that fanaticism is also understood as a threat to ideas and values. It happens that fanatics in sport are identified with hooligans and pseudofans (Dudała, 2004) and this means a fanatic is strongly emotionally involved in the object of his/her interest and demonstrates extreme support. A fanatic does not change views and persists strongly committed to the specific idea along, often manifested in aggressive and xenophobic behaviour towards those who have completely different views. A fanatic participates in the most active form, gets involved in rows or fights violating social and legal norms (Dudała, 2004).

In the literature, the term *fan* is associated only with sport which is a very important factor which integrates individuals from various groups, environments and social strata. As indicated by Roche, Spake and Joseph (2013), sports fans travel to attend sports events, watch sport and visit sports attractions. Traveling is an extremely important activity to a sports fan, and is associated with many incentives enhancing participation in sports events. Tourist trips and the desire to spend time with family or friends are listed among the main motives of sports fans (Ryśnik, 2019). The research also shows that the event itself motivates sports fans to travel, more than supporting a team or destination attractiveness. A committed sports fan travels to a world championships venue even when the favourite team has not qualified (Florek, Breitbarth, Conejo, 2008). It is also worth paying attention to the fact that, for example, speedway fans prefer tourist trips as a form of recreation (the main motive of the trip is relaxation) with family or friends (Kondraciuk, 2019). A sense of belonging to a community is created, along with emotional and psychosocial bonds (Siuda, 2010). The feeling of experiencing emotions by sports fans is called the 'contagion effect' and mutual observation, gestures and behaviours leads to the intensification of the emotions experienced. Sports fans put on T-shirts and scarves for a match of a specific team, which has been called *flagging* and means a conscious action aimed at demonstrating unity and the precedence of a given group of sports fans over others (Billig, 2008). A sports fan is emotionally involved in a long-term commitment towards a given club, a player or a discipline. He/she identifies very strongly but this does not rule out interest in other teams, players or clubs. A fan indulges in great passion, and sport is his/her main interest. A modern image of a sports fan shows that such a person regularly attends matches and all sorts of support activities thus influencing the atmosphere of a sports event. A sports fan identifies with the club and its colours, in particular by wearing a scarf and a club T-shirt (Pikora, 2013). Sports fans follow a division of roles when attending a sports event where group structure is of great importance. Group relationships and the positions of all members differentiate their roles as sports fans. There is a relationship in which if relations between social actors are deeper and the sense of belonging is stronger, the actors are more intensely involved in group activities and care about maintaining the relationship. Sports fan typology distinguishes ultras, hooligans, football fans and pseudofans (Pikora, 2013).

From an economic perspective, sports fans (including fanatics) present in the stands during sports events take on the role of consumers of a product because they have made a purchase, or more precisely, prosumers, i.e. consumers and producers at the same time. It should be highlighted that they co-create an event, at the same time remain a component by organizing and creating both support and the entire setting, resulting in a specific atmosphere and increasing the attractiveness of a sports event as a product that is dedicated to sports fans, sponsors, media and those who watch on TV, on the internet or listen to radio coverage. Sports fans promote a sports event on internet portals where they create communities around a given object of interest. The analysis of the literature in the humanities or sociology shows that sports fans may fall into a kind of fanatical and extreme support for their favourite teams whereas a fan is a peaceful person, refraining from such extremes and primarily focused on an intensive pursuit of his/her interests.

This analysis of the literature has allowed the psychological, social and economic characteristics of sports fans, fans in general and fanatics to be identified (Figure 1). Table 2 presents both objective and subjective criteria.

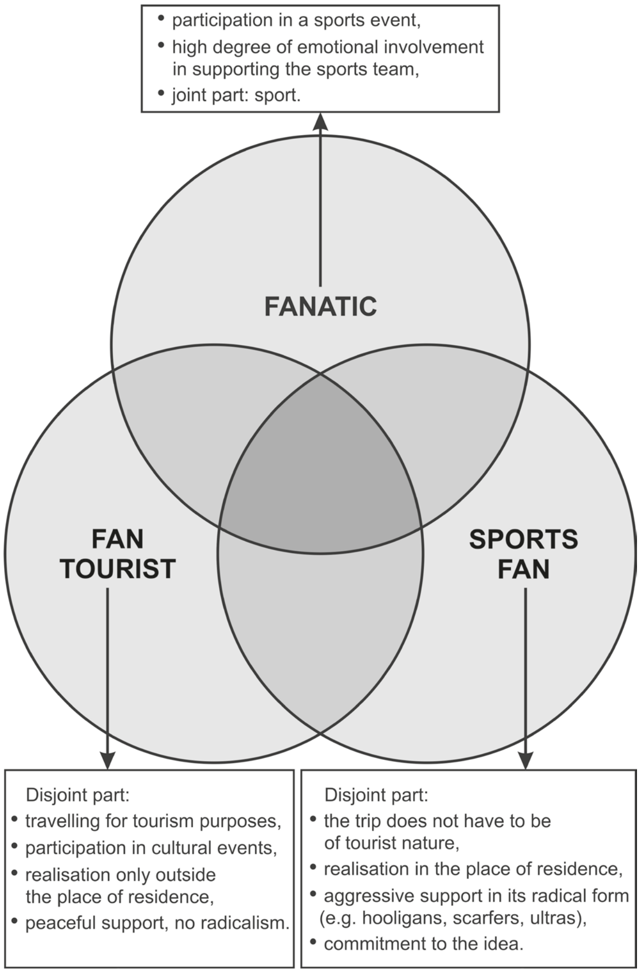

Figure 1. The distinction between a fan tourist, a sports fan and a fanatic
Source: authors' compilation

Based on these characteristics, it is possible to identify the profile of a fan tourist who meets the criteria of both a tourist (tourist activity outside the place of residence, travelling for tourism purposes, voluntarily) and also a fan. On the one hand, identifying the characteristics of a fan tourist makes the target group of fan tourism

Table 2. The criteria describing a sports fan, a fan and a fanatic

Criterion (psychological, social, economic)	Sports fan	Fan	Fanatic
Main motive of activity	Sport-induced, also relaxation	Sport-induced and culture-induced	Sport-induced, culture-induced (mainly religious)
Emotional involvement	Yes	Yes	Yes
Extreme support	Yes	No	Yes
Commitment to the idea	Yes	No	Yes
Sympathy for an idea	No	Yes	Yes
Personal attendance at an event	Yes /No	Yes	Yes /No
Consumer, and prosumer if personally participating	Yes	Yes	Yes
Participation on social media and establishing an online community	Yes	Yes	Yes

Source: authors' compilation.

consumers more specific and, on the other, indicates its independence and facilitates the orientation of tourism service providers to a specific group of recipients.

It might seem that on the basis of the adopted criteria for a fan, fanatic or sports fan, the essence of a fan tourist can also be easily defined. The concept of fan tourism itself however is associated with many doubts related to its definition. As it turns out, on the basis of mainly the Polish literature, fan tourism is primarily approached as a form of sports tourism. It is of a passive nature and consists only in attendance at sports events. However, it is worth paying attention to the essence of the *fan* part and its connotations. If a fan is a person who is interested in the overall phenomenon, then a fan tourist is not just a passive participant of a sports event and does not come down to the passive attitude of a spectator. Fan tourists are active in their usual (everyday) environment where they prepare for a trip, collect symbols of the favourite team, and also takes part in active discussion about favourite sportsmen and women or teams. In the destination area, fan tourists are not only limited to devoting time by being present on the sports stand, but are also able to become emotionally involved and support their favourite team in the form of 'cheering', which makes them active participants in a sports event, taking responsibility for some part of the emotion. When remaining in the area of the destination, fan tourists also identify themselves with the nostalgic sports tourist. Owing to the opportunity to spend time in the sports arena and using its facilities, a fan tourist could see the changing rooms of the favourite team or visit a museum with souvenirs. It should be emphasized that a *fan* is a person who is interested not only in sport, but also in the wider culture, i.e. film, books, music or other cultural artefacts which determines his/her passion and tourist activity. A *cultural* fan tourist can go on a trip to a cultural event on the same terms as a sports fan tourist. There is no doubt that emotional involvement in culture can be on the same level as emotional involvement in sport.

3. CONCLUSION

As mentioned in the introduction, a fan tourist is most often associated with a sports tourist. Fan tourism is also related to event tourism and cultural tourism. In this article, the phenomenon of fan tourism is presented in a broader perspective than just a sport oriented one. It is also worth considering cultural fan tourism and the significance of cultural events. Further doubts and questions related to fan tourism arise which in turn exert an impact on other research issues related to estimating the number of fan tourists participating in mass events as well as their expenditure.

As a result of the discussion, it can be concluded that a fan tourist is characterised by the following features:
- travels for tourism purposes voluntarily;
- attends cultural and/or sports events;
- is motivated by the desire to learn about cultural and sports facilities;
- only undertaken outside the place of residence;
- remains strongly emotionally involved;
- does not show extreme support;
- is sympathetic to the idea;
- is not committed to the idea;
- is interested in culture;
- is simultaneously a consumer and a prosumer when taking part in the events personally;
- participates on social media and establishes communities on the internet.

In their research efforts to understand the phenomenon of fan tourism, the authors take into account its nature and its interdisciplinary correlations. Therefore, their future research will be focused on a more extensive description of fan tourism, both in terms of its definition and its connections with psychological, sociological and economic issues. Future research should address the identification of socio-demographic and economic characteristics of fan tourism, divided into sports and culture, which will have cognitive but also practical significance for tourism, sports, the film industry and agencies dealing with e.g. sponsorship, product placement in films, social media, sports broadcasts and stadiums. The identification of a fan tourist may be useful for the purposes of future, in-depth research on the level of expenditure and factors influencing the scale and nature of a fan tourist's consumption.

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MILLENNIAL BACKPACKERS AND RISKS IN TRAVEL: A TYPOLOGICAL APPROACH

Abstract: In the research undertaken, the analysis categorised risk in the experience of the millennial generation of backpackers. An attempt was made to systematise it on the basis of the cognitive as well as emotional characteristics presented by the respondents. The research was conducted between 2018-2020. A non-random selection was used to acquire respondents called snowball sampling. 409 Polish millennial backpackers were found and interviewed online, and from this code keys were then extracted, assigned to meaningful categories, and thematic ranges were defined. The analysis of the collected qualitative material was used to establish a typology of risk for millennial backpacking. Analysis of the collected material on backpacking allowed five coded risk categories to be extracted. The first one was the backpacker's attitude towards travel; the second a search for autonomy and independence; the third selective calculation in terms of 'profit and loss', the balance determining behaviour; the fourth connected with the emotional needs of backpackers and the search for impressions; the fifth with external conditions involving risk related to environmental and cultural features of the reception area. Typological systematization of risk in backpacking allows the needs of this groups of travellers to be understood and service provision to be adapted to the requirements of a particular generation.

Keywords: backpacking, risk, millennials.

1. INTRODUCTION

The academic literature is dominated by the belief that risk alongside adventure is a vital feature for backpacking trips (Fuchs, 2013; Patyra, Dłużewska, 2015; Wantono, Mckercher, 2020). The motives for undertaking them are varied and for some it becomes a way of creating their identity (Elsrud, 2001); accounts of journeys full of daring activities allow us to present ourselves in an aura of uniqueness and indomitability in backpacker narratives. Risk can also be found in the journey, especially when destinations are areas commonly considered dangerous, and therefore an attribute of strong individuals. According to Leggat and Shaw (2003), the latter option seems to correlate most closely with backpacking, as confronting risks and threats during the journey is a daily reality for backpackers.

There is a rich collection of analyses of risk in the literature on backpacking (Desforges, 2000; Falconer, 2011; Lupton, Tulloch, 2002). Research has examined the relationship between the two (e.g. Jabłonkowska, 2015; Leggat, Shaw, 2003) and described the reasons for it (e.g. Elsrud, 2001; Fuchs, 2013; Kozak, Crotts, Law, 2007; Lepp, Gibson, 2008; Reichel, Fuchs, Uriely, 2007; Ryan, 2003). Backpackers' health problems as a result of taking risky actions (e.g. Piyaphanee et al., 2009; Potasman, Beny, Seligmann, 2000) and the psychological effects, especially related to addiction, have been studied (Bellis, Hughes, Dillon, Copeland, Gates, 2007; Fischer et al., 2010; Jabłonkowska, 2017b).

In this article, research on this issue has been enhanced by two additional threads: the categorising of risk in order to describe the nature of those taken by the millennial generation of backpackers, capturing and specifying the events that the respondents considered risky and thus learning about this particular element.

The second thread was an attempt to systematise the risk, to put it into a typological framework based on cognitive and emotional aspects.

2. MILLENNIALS IN TOURISM

Backpackers from the millennial generation were selected for the research. “Generation Y”, “generation MTV”, “digital children of the free market”, “generation of flip-flops and ipads” (Kubacka-Jasiecka, Passowicz, 2014) or generation ‘why’ (Kotler, Wong, Saunders, Armstrong, 2005; Tapscott, 2010) are how those born in the last two decades of the 20th century are described (Baran, Kłos, 2014; Fazlagić, 2008). It is a community with a meaningful potential for tourist activity despite financial or time limits (Santos, Veiga, Águas, 2016) who have extensive experience in travelling as tourists from an early age. Many of them have given up mass tourism and look for independent expeditions like backpacking. In their travels they seek personal development, authentic experiences, and want to “immerse themselves” in local cultures and foreign spaces. They often show impatience, require immediate action, results, quick reaction and guaranteed satisfaction (Kowalczyk-Anioł, 2012). They use the internet fluently and in an unlimited way, and have the greatest influence on the changes that have taken place in the tourism market (Iyer, Reisenwitz, 2009; Pendergast, 2010).

3. RESEARCH MATERIALS AND METHODS

The research was conducted between 2018-2020 and snowball sampling was used to acquire respondents. In the first stage, a group of 50 people, active on social networking sites (mainly on Facebook), were interviewed online using skype. Only millennials accepted were according to their age and those who declared themselves to be backpackers. At a later stage, the personalities of subsequent backpackers who took part in the survey were obtained via these respondents. As a result, 409 active backpackers who have been undertaking this type of tourism for at least five years were acquired. All were aged between 28 and 40. The number of women who took part in the survey exceeded the number of men and the vast majority had received higher education. The respondents were most often employed on a full-time basis in the state or private sector. No unemployed persons were found (Table 1, 2).

An interview questionnaire (open questions) was used for the purpose of this survey. The questions asked focused on the concepts of risk in backpacking

Table 1. Profile of respondents (N=409)

Variable	Category	Number	Percentage
Sex	men	181	44
	women	228	56
Age	28-30	205	50
	30-35	188	46
	36-40	16	4
Education	elementary level	0	0
	vocational education	21	5
	secondary education level	15	4
	higher education	373	91
Place of living	a city of over 500,000 inhabitants	182	45
	a city of 100,000 to 500,000 inhabitants	128	31
	a town of 20,000 to 100,000 inhabitants	49	12
	a town of up to 20,000 inhabitants	14	3
	rural areas	36	9
Socio-economic profile	public sector employee	97	24
	professional	41	10
	private sector employee	108	26
	self-employed	163	40
	pensioner	0	0

Source: authors.

Table 2. Travel directions indicated by the respondents

Travelling destinations	Numbers (%)
Croatia, Czech Republic, Slovakia	37-43
Hungary, Italy	26-31
Austria, Germany, Montenegro, Poland, Romania, Ukraine	20-25
Bosnia and Herzegovina, France, Norway, Serbia, Slovenia, Spain	15-19
Albania, Belgium, Bulgaria, Denmark, Estonia, Georgia, the Netherlands, Sweden	10-14
Belarus, China, Finland, Greece, Iceland, Israel, Latvia, Lithuania, Macedonia, Morocco, Moldova, Mongolia, Palestine, Portugal, Russia, Switzerland, Turkey, United Kingdom	5-9
Armenia, Azerbaijan, Brazil, Canada, Egypt, India, Iran, Japan, Jersey, Jordan, Kazakhstan, Kosovo, Kurdistan, Kyrgyzstan, Malaysia, Malta, Monaco, Philippines, Singapore, South Korea, Tajikistan, Thailand, Tunisia, United Arab Emirates, USA, Uzbekistan, Vietnam	2-4

Source: authors.

and on exploring and understanding their personal experiences.

The interviews were digitally saved, then transcribed in Microsoft Word format and sent to NVivo 11 Pro to create code keys. Coding the data made it possible to carry out an analysis of the answers given and to identify different problem threads either superior or subsidiary. The codes, in turn, were assigned to the more significant categories. There were five of them.

4. THE RESULTS

The analysis of the responses obtained during the survey allows five coded risks to be distinguished in backpacking. The first one is included in the backpacker's travel attitude and – according to the respondents - marks this type of travel in a particular way. The second is found in the search for autonomy and independence. The third selective calculation in terms of 'profit and loss', the balance determining behaviour. The fourth is connected with the emotional needs of backpackers and their rush to experience extraordinary adventures, defined by the authors as searching for impressions. The last category, external conditions, involves risk related to climatic, geographical, natural or environmental conditions in the chosen travel destinations.

4.1. CATEGORY 1: BACKPACKERS' TRAVEL ATTITUDES

Topics related to this category refer to areas directly found in the situation of being on the road, such as style of travel, destination, accommodation, transport, activity, visiting either tourist or less popular places, relations with locals. Respondents indicated (78%) the interaction with the destination that is discovered during their trip. This bond, though marked by risk, allows them to realize their dreams, achieve goals and gain experience:

– "In backpacking, there is really a risk at every step of the way, from getting there, to accommodation, transport, food, meeting others, etc. It's a big undertaking and you only have to count on yourself"[1].
– "In backpacking, risk is everything. You never know who you're getting into, where you're going to get to, where you're going to sleep, but that's what's most appealing and fascinating about it".
– "The risk in backpacking is trusting strangers. When you start your journey, you get into a car with a complete stranger at his/her mercy. Continue to visit places of mixed opinion, unpopular, where no one of the healthy senses would look. But we have to, because the backpacker has to take risks, because the effects of this danger are totally worth it".
– "Backpacking in itself is a risk when you are driven by your dreams, you enter an area of strangers – you discover unknown places, you meet unknown people, you enter their culture and life, you do something that is commonly perceived as something potentially dangerous, that can cause trouble, and that is just doing something that others lack courage to do".

The risk is to abandon the zone of comfort, safety and stability and the backpacker then becomes responsible to him/herself for choices. This is an integral part of their identity and they are an integral part of this type of tourism. This forces constant changes to be made:

– "Taking a risk gives us, as backpackers, the guarantee that we will make our dreams and passions come true regardless of personal consequences".
– "We take risks all the time. We choose an overnight stay that a person living in one place wouldn't allow himself or herself, we eat something that the average tourist wouldn't touch, and so on".
– "In backpacking, risk is usually associated with uncertainty. It is not haggling for your life and reaching your destination at all costs, but rather, of course

in a way, being in the sun and trying to do the impossible".
– "In backpacking we take many risks, it is a form of going beyond comfort".

Therefore, risks in this category can be defined as the range of activities that are undertaken because the journey is related to movement, interaction. It is the vector of change, resulting from the move from a zone of appearances in which the backpacker operates on a daily basis, to a "clash" with another place and a foreign culture.

4.2. CATEGORY 2: AUTONOMY AND INDEPENDENCE

The second category includes topics related to freedom and independence: liberation, escape, self-determination, lack of limitation (59%). Risks in this category should be understood as the need to move away from all that is common, ordinary, everyday, from the norms and social order in which lives are lived. It is a chance to discover a larger range of sensations, to experience emotions, to penetrate unknown places, to contact strangers. This specific act of unrestrained and socially responsible activity allows us to return to the time of adolescence when everything seemed possible:
– "In many cases, risk is just a thought in a person's mind, not a real life-threatening situation. A backpacker sees it differently, risk allows you to experience freedom, adrenaline and independence".
– "For many, risk is connected with uncertainty about what awaits us in the future. And I believe that risk is when you can lose something. In backpacking you almost always gain. Yes, you can lose, but you can in everyday, ordinary life. It seems to me that the risk of traveling as a backpacker is smaller. For example, the risk of a boring life is zero if you travel as a backpacker. Everything depends on what you value most in life. If you value, for example, predictability and a well-organised life, then backpacking is not for you".
– "It's new experiences, escape, madness, detachment from everyday life. Risks in backpacking are almost always associated with unexpected situations that we do not experience every day in traditional life".
– "In my opinion, the risk is to do something without having to think about the effect. It's spontaneity. No norms. Simply total liberation. I never feel as free as when I'm facing the risk of winning. Then I'm like a child fascinated by defeating a dragon".

Taking risks while travelling seems to make life simpler, freer, more authentic. There is a paradox in this statement as risk appears here as a carrier of uncomplicated or trivial experiences. In the experience of travel, however, as one of the respondents stated, it is "marked by the current calculation of the possibility of emergency situations, which we easily assimilate because they teach by play". You really have to have skills, without them you would not be able to cope with difficult situations:

> If a person is reasonable and knows how to behave in different situations, and he or she gains this knowledge from travel, then risky situations are less and less difficult, less and less complicated, they can be confronted and this is unusual. Hardship becomes minimal, the same as when you walk around your own place of residence.

4.3. CATEGORY 3: SELECTIVE CALCULATION

In this third category (44%), risk is associated with its rationalization as profit or loss through usefulness, minimisation, risks, costs. Risk is a positive value when it is a carrier of opportunity, and therefore arises from weighing up challenges in terms of consequences:
– "These are situations that can significantly change our destination, our meetings and situations in any manner. It is necessary to have the courage to calculate wisely what we can gain and to go that way".
– "Risks in backpacking are not risks, they are more related to the right choice of those better ways to travel".
– "Thoughtful decisions which, despite difficult situations, bring us benefit and satisfaction".
– "A difficulty that we have to overcome in order to gain".

In any other case, it would be a negative loss-making experience. But this is impossible - in the opinion of the respondents - for there is no combination of variable values that would be independent of the situation:
– "The risk is connected with a calculated, well-thought-out action, taking into account that something may go wrong".
– "We have to be seriously aware that everything can have both negative and positive effects, depending on the situation we find ourselves in. Yes, there may be consequences that we cannot predict. But for the most part, ignoring the dangers involves losing something: health, life or someone, something".
– "I associate risk with such ridiculous behaviour, which can lead to the loss of something that is important to me (health, life, money, valuable objects), etc."
– "Irresponsible action, whose consequences can be very serious".

Therefore, for this group of respondents, risk is an activity to achieve expected effects, a choice that is linked to the dynamically changing conditions of travel, and does not involve conscious or thoughtless exposure to ill-considered decisions. Although such risky (daring) activities can happen in the backpacking community, as the respondents said:

– “There are backpackers who risk against common sense. In my opinion, this is a show-off. Courage is simply being conscious”.
– “If someone thinks that risk in backpacking is exciting, you don’t understand anything. It’s not about being daredevil. You’re not gonna know the world when you’re dead. It’s not worth jumping into a pool when there’s no water”.
– “Stupidity and buoyancy. That’s how I understand it”.
– “Risk is not daring. If that were the case, we would pay the highest price for this ridiculous thing”.

4.4. CATEGORY 4: SEEKING SENSATIONS

The risk in the statements of the respondents (41%) was presented as stimuli with a high emotional load. In this category are found topics such as adrenaline, adventure, sensations, exploration, stimulation. In the statements analysed, the respondents appear to have a strong need for external excitement in order to find, using Zuckerman’s (1994) terminology, the optimal level of stimulation and excitement for themselves. Without it, life seems stereotypical and boring. For this reason, they engage in risky behaviours, revealing the need to experience otherness, to cross borders on the one hand, and to experience adventure, variety and intensity on the other. It is astonishing that they concentrate their activity around physical risk only, silently omitting the risks in moral, health, social or financial spaces.

The assumption of Fuchs (2013) that backpackers are a separate category of travelers who are different from institutionalised mass tourism in terms of risk behaviour during travel is however wrong. Backpackers are not a homogeneous community in terms of risk perception (Reichel, Fuchs, Uriely, 2007). For this reason, it seems necessary to conduct research to explain the complexity of their attitudes and behaviors related to risk. In order to fill this gap in the literature, the Sensation Seeking Scale developed by Zuckerman could be helpful. When comparing the responses with the scale of sensations proposed by Zuckerman, it is noticeable that two out of four stimuli recorded by him coincide. The first one, experience seeking, is to reject a conformist lifestyle and set off on a journey to seek new experiences:
– “Risk is an attempt at something new, unknown, new experience, breaking down barriers”.
– “Risk involves travelling to places that are difficult to reach that other tourists do not reach, and we do not know much about them, but by doing so we get to know foreigners and their culture”.
– “It’s doing something that’s commonly seen as potentially dangerous, that can cause trouble, others don’t have the courage to do it, and we go”.
– “Exploring, overcoming one’s limits and weaknesses”.

The second factor (boredom susceptibility) is based on an aversion to routine, avoidance of duties, abandonment of everyday habits, and dissension within existing reality:
– “Risk is a surge of energy when there is a threat, sometimes uncertainty, but then I know that I’ve broken out of my cage, I’m experiencing something I wouldn’t survive in my home”.
– “Risk has taught me how to break down my barriers and not get lost in everyday life”.
– “For me, risk is liberation from boredom, overcoming my weaknesses, laziness”.
– “Achieving higher goals”.

In a few statements there was an identification of risk associated with fun (5.8%). It is difficult to see in these opinions a direct representation of the third Zuckerman factor (lack of inhibition), the relaxation of social ‘brakes’. It is rather a light and pleasant way of spending time on the road without losing control over one’s own actions and suffering the negative effects of deceleration:

- “Adrenaline, good fun, emotions, but within reasonable limits”.
- “Adventure and memories not to be forgotten, not to be treated! ☺”
- “Where the risk is, there’s fun”.
- “Joy, laughter, fun and adventure”.

Research shows that the perception of risk, as described by the respondents, is not the same as taking risk, and that risk and the search for sensations cannot be regarded as identical.

4.5. CATEGORY 5: EXTERNAL CONDITIONS

In the fifth category, the risk is linked to climatic, geographical, natural and environmental conditions. It should be noted that this was indicated least among the respondents, mentioned only by 18%. Included in this category were climate, politics, environment. Respondents described the possibility of losing health, or even life or physical injury, as a result of various unforeseen circumstances, especially connected with an attack from other people or animals:
– “Risks are the possibility of unpleasant and dangerous events, danger situations where the heart beats faster, such as assault, theft, wild animals”.
– “Fear of lurking dangers at every turn and helplessness in case of encountering one of them”.
– “Discovering unknown places, sometimes wild and unpredictable, it is not known what kind of people will be there”.
– “In backpacking the risk is connected with relying on strangers. You can find criminals of all sorts”.

Another feeling of threat that respondents have associated with risk includes political or climatic instability in the visited country:

– “Risks include travelling to countries where the political or climatic situation threatens life and safety”.
– “Risk is everywhere, everything is dangerous now. The war in Syria, the conflict in Nagorno-Karabakh, in Africa, in the Middle East, you travel to countries and you don’t know if the political situation threatens you not to return from your journey”.
– “The political situation and climate problems, floods, hurricanes, fires are all dangerous and put you at risk. But in backpacking, even such risks can lead to achieving something or getting (not material good) with some temporary sacrifice”.
– “Danger is not up to me, it is something that cannot be avoided. Political changes in the countries where we are going, some cataclysms. No matter what lifestyle you lead. Potentially, and at home, you could be in danger. So, you have to overcome your fear and go with the knowledge that we are not always safe and will not always be in comfortable situations”.

Such a low level of risk related to external conditions is undoubtedly, in the opinion of the authors, a result of the mainstream interest of backpackers. During the journey they focus their perception on gaining experience, discovering new things and experiencing changes. Risk becomes their motivation for travel, and therefore a positive value. This is probably the reason why they have a greater acceptance of risky events, recognizing them as positive travel experiences. Hunter-Jones, Jeffs and Fischbacher-Smith (2007) wrote that the feeling of risk is highly subjective, that the level of tolerance above which it becomes unbearable (it starts to be perceived as negative) is not the same for different groups of tourists. Backpackers seem to have this threshold set very high and this probably explains their low level of concern for external conditions.

5. DISCUSSION

World literature on the subject stresses that risks in backpacking affect different spheres of travel, related to backpackers travelling alone in various ‘world spaces’; sleeping and eating in places that do not meet basic sanitary or legal requirements; ignorance of health and safety, and without inhibitions (Elsrud, 2001; Issahaku, 2015; Jabłonkowska, 2015, 2017a, 2017b; Watcharapong et al., 2010). Not all of these have been presented in this study, and risk was connected with situations found in the actual nature of their travel style. Additionally, in a way synonymous with risk, were liberation, self-determination, usefulness, cost, adrenaline, adventure, exploration. However, in the opinion of the respondents, the boundaries of the pursuit of these values are set by prudence and basic safety principles – the calculation of profit and loss becomes important.

The declarations of the respondents do not indicate those risks which seem obvious from backpacking[2]. None of the respondents (N=409) mentioned the health risk – associated with being infected during travel, although it is known that there is a relationship between travel and the higher incidence of infectious diseases. Nor did anyone refer to the risk of mental illness (i.e. anxiety, depression, addictions), which can result from experiencing difficult experiences. However, the literature indicates that stress associated with risk has a negative impact on the mental health of backpackers. This issue is presented by the results of Yoda, Yokoyama, Suzuki and Hirao (2017), who pointed out the link between the experience of flooding (in Thailand in 2011) and mental illnesses in tourists travelling around Bangkok at the time. Earlier, similar research in a group of backpackers was conducted by Piyaphanee, Olanwijitwong, Kusolsuk and Silachamroon (2012). Stewart and Leggat (1998) described mental disorders after coming into contact with an exotic culture other than their own. They proved that, in principle, contact with another culture is perceived by backpackers as beneficial, it serves to broaden understanding of the world, build good intercultural relations, shape personality or even escape from the boredom which is part of everyday routine; shock and stress resulting from cultural differences may become a threat to mental health and cause depression, anxiety, insomnia, addictions, hostility or aggression.

In the respondents’ narrations there is also no description of cases that would show willingness to take up recreational or sporting risks and establishing relationships with the local community. The respondents did not admit to behaviour such as drug use, alcohol abuse or uncontrolled sexual relations, although this is a theme presented in the literature on this subject and a lot of attention has been devoted to this issue. Among others Fischer et al. (2010) have studied whether sex is a key factor for women to engage in backpacking and a key determinant of their satisfaction with such travel. They pointed out that the choice of destinations, travel partners, accommodation and place of rest for the women surveyed was significant because it was motivated by creating conditions for informal sex (Carr, Poria, 2010).

6. CONCLUSIONS

The direction of the research project was not only an academic challenge, but also – in the era of globalized backpacking - important for the service market which can be used in the creation of new tourism products, including for backpackers. The collected empirical material may constitute a valuable source of information addressed to a market segment which is little recognized in Polish conditions. The surveys carried out among the respondents of the millennial generation looking for an independent style of travel and innovative concepts of their own, allow this community to be seen with its appreciative approach to risk. The respondents have placed the importance of risk into various categories, the common theme of which has become the rationalisation of experience. The respondents start a backpacking trip (the risk is, in their opinion, related to this style of travel); they move freely without a specific plan, along unpopular routes, penetrate the culture of the visited country and establish contacts with its inhabitants by calculating the balance between profits and losses. They give up their convenience for the authentic experience of doing something, acquiring competences, overcoming their own weaknesses and barriers. One condition has to be met, however, in the risks associated with these needs, the maintenance of security.

When forecasting new services for backpackers, the market of tourism and recreation services must take into account such ideas, which realistically reproduce the 'phenotype' of the contemporary backpacking market and their appetite for risk.

Such products are already slowly being produced, although they are still scarce and do not fill the gap in backpacking needs. In Australia, among others, where tourist attractions have been created allowing 'safe' risks to be experienced, they have been marketed as 'adventurous journeys'. It is an attempt to respond to the need for a specific activity in which risky activities are undertaken, but without real danger or loss. Such activities enable backpackers to create their image as experienced travellers and build a sense of crossing borders, even though the experience is based only on illusion. Furthermore, in New Zealand, a popular destination for backpackers, there are places where you can experience an exciting adventure, not about real danger, but about activity with a thrill.

ENDNOTES

[1] In all respondents' statements quoted in the article, the original spelling has been preserved.

[2] Fuchs (2013) indicates that tourism is characterized by specific characteristics such as immateriality, inseparability, variability and impermanence, and that the tourism product is influenced by specific factors such as bad weather, human relations, striking airport personnel, terror, crime, political unrest, disease and natural disasters. These factors often increase the level of risk perceived by tourists, commonly referred to as "travel risk" or "destination". There are 43 risk factors associated with tourism, from serious events such as natural disasters to trivial matters such as taking part on a trip. Tsaur, Tzeng and Wang (1997) described the risks associated with illness, crime, accidents, hygiene and danger, along with traveling by different means of transport, cultural barriers and uncertainty about laws at the destination. Sönmez and Graefe (1998) detailed risks related to financial, functional and physical, psychological, social, satisfaction, time, health, political instability and terrorism issues.

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CONSUMER ECOLOGICAL BEHAVIOUR AND ATTITUDES TOWARDS PRO-ECOLOGICAL ACTIVITIES IN ACCOMMODATION FACILITIES BY GENERATION Z

Abstract: This is an empirical study that is based on the results of questionnaire research on ecological behaviour and consumer choices shown by generation Z and their attitudes towards pro-ecological practices implemented as part of ecological policies in accommodation businesses. At the same time, an attempt was made to find out whether the implemented ideas could encourage this generation to choose places offering practices friendly to the environment and thus be a source of competitive advantage of such locations. The description of the results was preceded by an overview of past research on the issue and theoretical background on sustainable consumption. An analysis of the results showed that Generation Z in most cases tried to limit their negative impact on the environment as well as trying to apply ecological guidelines in practice. Generation Z support pro-ecological behaviour on a daily basis, however, this is mainly true when it comes to behaviour bringing financial or health-related benefits. The young approve of most pro-ecological practices in the accommodation industry but they differ in preferences and in exchange for their support, they expect financial rewards. In conclusion, this generation rates more highly accommodation facilities implementing pro-ecological practices and this translates into a greater willingness to stay at such places.

Keywords: sustainable consumption, Generation Z, pro-ecological practices, tourism, accommodation facilities.

1. INTRODUCTION

The young are an important part of the tourism market. As consumers, they are characterised by a relatively large amount of free time, mobility, interest in the world, eagerness to learn about new cultures, and willingness to be in close contact with nature and with local communities (Buffa, 2015). The value of the tourism market for the young was estimated at 190 billion USD in 2009, 286 billion USD in 2014 and the forecast for 2020 puts it at over 400 billion USD (Richards, 2016).

According to Anderson and Sharp (2010), the young are those aged under 30 which comprise Generations Y and Z. The authors focused on the latter group: those born between 1995 and 2010, between 10 and 25 years of age (Lazanyi, Bilan, 2017; Vallone et al., 2016). There is a scarcity of research describing these because many are still children (Southgate, 2017).

It was observed that the young are independent (Desai, Lele, 2017), they expect quick and full access to information and they expect immediate answers to their questions (Opis, Cenusa, 2017). They are heavy users of the internet and the internet-related tools needed for tourism which have been the subject of numerous analyses (Hamed, 2017; Ip, Lee, Law, 2012; Nemec Rudež, Vodeb, 2015).

Generation Y, also known as the millennials, are usually perceived as being ecologically-oriented, while Generation Z, or the post-millennials, are perceived as socially-oriented. This means being involved in many of the problems of the modern world. It has been pointed out that Generation Z are involved in social-political actions on social media, and that they support the weak and excluded and apart from social matters, they are also familiar with topics related to ecology and environmental protection. They care about the quality and durability of products, but also pay attention to ecological issues (*Eko-generacja Z*) as ecological benefits should be one of the reasons for choosing a product. Understanding motivations for purchasing and sources of customer satisfaction is key to effective sales based on generating value which is why it is worthwhile analysing those groups who determine demand on the tourism market. One of such groups is the young.

According to the outlines of the *2030 Agenda for sustinable development* (*Przekształcamy nasz świat…*, 2020), societies should be responsible for the realisation of goals on sustainable consumption. Ecological consumption, an example of such, should focus on the behaviour and choices of tourists while travelling and staying at their destinations. From that perspective, there is a need to recognise the pro-ecological attitudes of the young (as consumers of tourism products) and their attitude towards proecological practices implemented by accommodation businesses as those responsible for building a competitive advantage.

As a result, the main aim of the present study is to show the ecological behaviour and consumer choices of Generation Z and their attitudes to pro-ecological practices implemented as a part of ecological policies in accommodation businesses. At the same time the authors tried to answer the question whether proecological actions can encourage these generations to choose pro-ecological accommodation and thus be the source of competitive advantage for such businesses.

The consequence of these aims is the hypothesis that ecological policies and following their guidelines can be a source of competitive advantage for an accommodation business.

2. LITERATURE ANALYSIS

The concept of sustainable development is an important issue in tourism (Tzschenke, Kirk, Lynch, 2004). According to UNWTO, sustainable tourism should:

– make optimal use of the natural resources which are key elements of its growth and help to preserve natural heritage and biological diversity;
– respect the authenticity of societies of the recipient regions, preserve their cultural heritage, traditional values and promote cross-cultural understanding and tolerance;
– secure the long lasting functioning of the economy, providing socio-economic benefits for all involved (Nowacki et al., 2017; UNWTO, 2017).

Its implementation is realised on two levels: creating sustainable tourism consumption and the operation of tourism businesses following guidelines for sustainable growth (Burzyński, Abram, 2011). Implementing sustainable consumption means accepting responsibility by consumers with a view to limiting negative impacts on the environment (Bruska, 2016; Evans, 2011) and with the aim of guaranteeing a dignified life for all within the limits of Earth's abundance (Bruska, 2016; Lorek, Fuchs, 2013; Lorek, Spangenberg, 2014). The literature distinguishes two types of sustainable consumption: eco-friendly green and socially responsible (Bruska, 2016). The former means using goods and services to meet basic human needs and improve standards of living while at the same time, minimising the use of natural resources, toxic materials and the amount of waste (Ryszawska-Grzeszczak, 2007). Ecological behaviour includes consumption of ecological goods, growth in spending on ecological food, frugal use of consumer goods, purchasing goods which do not generate a lot of waste, sorting garbage and recycling. The creation of the pro-ecological consumer is a prerequisite for the emergence of a market for environment-friendly products (Kryk, 2011).

Since sustainable tourism has to achieve ecological objectives, the impact of tourism growth on the environment is the subject of numerous analyses (Berezan, Millar, Raab, 2014). It has been pointed out that sustainable design is of key importance for destinations, keeping up with contemporary market trends and further emphasised by the notion that sustainable growth in tourism is best seen in the accommodation sector (Mousavi, Hoskara, Woosnam, 2017), connected with its rapid growth which has a strong impact on the environment (da Rosa, Silva, 2017). Realisation of sustainable growth at the level of a single business is done through implementation of CSR (Corporate Social Responsibility) guidelines and pro-ecological and pro-social actions aimed at the wellbeing of employees and guests. Actions aimed at raising ecological awareness among customers using such services can result in an increased willingness on the part of companies to act in a socially responsible way and at the same time to increase interest in products characterised by high ecological standards (Kryk, 2011).

One aspect of sustainable growth is action aimed at protecting the environment which is of key importance in many regions. Hence, protection of the environment is given priority in the activity of many tourism businesses including those providing accommodation services which is reflected in the management system and development strategies. Efforts are being made in order to design and/or improve environmental policies and minimising negative impacts on the environment e.g. by implementing water- or energy-saving programs. In most cases, such actions are voluntarily chosen and result from the need to develop and adapt to European and world trends and standards in the tourism industry (Borkowska-Niszczota, 2011).

From the literature, it has been pointed out that accommodation businesses are even more environmentally oriented, alongside the introduction of legal regulations (Berezan, Miller, Raab, 2014). As stated earlier, consumer expectations are very important factors stimulating actions on the part of business owners and local authorities, and consumer pressure acts as a catalyst (da Rosa, Silva, 2017). It was pointed out that following guidelines for sustainable growth results in a higher quality of product which in turn improves the level of consumer satisfaction (Edgell, 2006). Business owners tend to build their brands using connotations from ecology (Kapera, Wszendybył-Skulska, 2017).

When it comes to protection of the environment, the hospitality industry is a key tourism element (Erdogan, Baris, 2007). According to experts' estimates, about 75% of accommodation's impact on the environment is directly related to excessive consumption (Bohdanowicz, 2006). Thus, customer attitudes, sustainable consumption and acceptance of the practices being implemented, can limit the negative impact. Therefore, it is important to engage customers in the pro-ecological actions of accommodation businesses through the option of not changing sheets and towels daily, using recycled toilet paper, magnetic cards triggering the energy supply, dosage-allowing devices for liquid soap, low-power lighting, gym equipment supporting electricity production, selective waste collection and education on responsible behaviour. In order to improve consumer involvement in environment saving actions, certain benefits have been offered for instance a free meal for customers using training bikes capable of generating at least 10 watt-hours of electricity (Crowne Plaza Hotel Copenhagen Towers in Denmark), bus transport to nearby ski-lifts included in the price (*Nad przełomem* Hotel), vouchers for snacks and drinks in exchange for not using the daily hotel service (Sheraton accommodation) (Borkowska-Niszczota, 2011, 2015).

One can wonder to what extent the guidelines for sustainable growth are actually implemented. Surely, such practices will be implemented better as the benefits resulting from them exceed the costs of their introduction. As Ryan (2002) emphasised, some pro-ecological practices can generate millions of savings. Business managers have noticed such opportunities and tried to optimise the use of water and energy or reduce the amount of waste (Mousavi, Oskara, Woosman, 2017). New methods of management implemented in accommodation facilities create an opportunity to gain competitive advantage (Borkowska-Niszczota, 2011). It is a chance to stand out in the market (Beccera, Santalo, Silva, 2013) and as a result, can lead to a higher value for a brand. Still, some business owners do not take advantage as they do not see benefits coming from such actions (Kang, Stein, Heo, Lee, 2012).

Initiatives connected with gaining a competitive advantage as a result of pro-ecological actions differ depending on the quality of services offered by a facility (Ge, Chen, Chen, 2018). Pro-ecological actions can be a tool for building customer loyalty. Other positives of such initiatives include good relations with local stakeholders, improving their image in comparison with competitors, and law-compliance (Prochorowicz, 2015). The image of an environment-friendly facility has a positive effect on creating word-of-mouth marketing, a willingness to pay more and a willingness to return to the same place (Han, Hsu, Lee, 2009; Kelly, Haider, Williams, Englund, 2007; Lee, Hsu, Han, Kim, 2010). However, it cannot be assumed that all customers will display the same positive response to pro-ecological practices in accommodation. There are groups of consumers expecting such practices and ready to pay for them but it is not clear if they are substantial enough to justify pro-ecological investments resulting in higher prices. This problem is amplified by the fact that consumers exist who do not wish to pay more for ecological accommodation, despite being aware of the value of such practices (Manaktola, Jauhari, 2007). Declarations do not necessarily translate into actual actions. In a study by Bereza, Millar, and Raab, over 80% of respondents declared their willingness to pay more for pro-ecological practices but from the same group, over 40% said that the best motivating factor for environmentally-friendly behaviour would be a discount (Bereza, Millar, Raab, 2014). Other analyses have shown that consumers are willing to pay more for accommodation services in places following pro-ecological guidelines (Kang, Stein, Heo, Lee, 2012; Kostakis, Sardianou, 2012; Millar, Baloglu, 2011). In the study by Han, Hsu, Lee and Sheu (2011), 90% of respondents said that they would rather stay in accommodation observing ecological guidelines. Robinom and Giannelloni (2010) managed to confirm a hypothesis that environmental protection initiatives can be considered a 'plus' attribute of a hotel. At the same time, limitations to the comfort of a stay were also seen as a barrier to certain behaviour (Baker, Davis, Weaver, 2014; Han, Chan, 2013). Furthermore, Baker, Davies and Weaver (2014) noticed that consumers were more willing to implement pro-ecological behaviour at home rather than at the hotel.

Research shows consumer's positive attitudes to ecological facilities (Chen, Tung, 2014; Gao, Mattila, 2014) but some differences in attitude were observed depending on the gender of respondents (Han, Hsu, Lee, Sheu, 2011) and their age (Sidali, Huber, Schamel, 2017). In turn, Millar, Mayer, Baloglu (2012) analysed expectations and attitudes to ecological matters among both business and leisure tourists without any significant differences between the two groups.

Within the sphere of sustainable growth in the hospitality/accommodation sector, another aspect under investigation is the influence of employees on the implementation of actions (Chan, Hawkins, 2010). Analysis of the determinants affecting the implementation of pro-ecological practices is another important area of study. Gil, Jimenez and Lorente (2001) pointed out dependence on age, membership in a chain and the financial results of a given hotel. Another interesting subject is cooperation (in particular, international) aimed at gaining competences, ideas and consequently, implementing pro-ecological practices (Ge, Chen, Chen, 2018).

In Poland, the issue of pro-ecological activities undertaken in accommodation has been studied as well and the results have shown an insufficient appreciation of the idea of eco-development among consumers (Kapera, Wszendybył-Skulska, 2017). The determining factors affecting the choice of a particular hotel are quality, location, and price (all about 60%) with less than 32% of respondents mentioning the importance of pro-ecological activities (Kapera, Wszendybył-Skulska, 2017). This figure, however, should not be seen as low as ecological awareness can be treated as a significant secondary factor which can prove decisive in cases where the three earlier-mentioned factors are assessed as being of similar value. Kasim (2004) also observed similar determiners of choice, arriving at the conclusion that investments in ecology are a waste of resources.

Some factors determining the implementation of pro-ecological practices in accommodation businesses include legal regulations, material benefits, customer expectations and pressure. The analysis here will focus on the last item as it is the ever growing social awareness of ecology-related issues and the resulting demand for them that has led to the emergence of assessments on the impact of accommodation facilities on the environment (Liang, 2013). One of the tools used for the synthetic assesment of this impact is the Green Key Eco-Rating Program (Pawłowski, 2016) as consumers pay more attention than ever to ecology-conscious entities and products and this can then be used in promotional activities (D'Souza, Taghian, 2005).

Since Generation Z place a premium on care for the environment, they willingly participate in pro-ecological initiatives that limit their negative influence on the environment. It is the first generation that is aware of ecological changes and the negative impact on the planet (*Eko-generacja Z*).

The above conclusions are in agreement with the findings of Han, Kim and Kiatkawsin (2017) which seem to negate some of the stereotypes of the young and the results confirm the hypothesis which states that they take care of the environment and are willing to take pro-ecological actions. Other publications (Haddouche, Salomone, 2018) have suggested a different attitude however and studies on Generation Z carried out in Poland have also shown the cost of environmental losses in economic calculations. It appears that what drives water-saving is not an ecological mind set, rather it is the cost of private spending. What seems to be a promising factor is the fact that the young are nevertheless aware that the environment should be protected as part of taking care of oneself and the health of future generations (Kwiatek, Skiba, 2017).

3. RESEARCH METHODS

The article is based on the results of empirical research. Pilot work was carried out using a standardised questionnaire (characterised by indirectness with face-to-face contact being abandoned in favour of written communication) with a group of 245 young people aged 18-25 over the period from December 2019 to January 2020. The questionnaires were handed out and filled in by groups of young people gathered in the same place at the same time. The venue of the survey was Warsaw, a place generating strong tourism demand. The dominant group were 19 year olds (26.1%), 20 year olds (21.2%) and 18 year olds (18.4%) with the least numerous being 23 year olds (0.82%). Most of the respondents were female (62.4%) and they were, in most cases, studying (47.7%) or those both studying and working (48.2%).

The questionnaire was made up of eight questions covering the attitudes of young people towards ecological behaviour and products, types and frequency of actions aimed at environmental protection in everyday life, the importance of the eco-friendliness of selected products and their manufacture, willingness to pay more for ecological products and for accommodation which implemented pro-ecological practices, incentives for customers engaging in pro-ecological practices, and the level of satisfaction with the actions undertaken by accommodation facilities as part of ecological policy. The authors also tried to determine whether the respondents would appreciate pro-ecological accommodation more and whether they would be willing to pay for such services. The research interpreted the results by means of analysis, synthesis and deduction.

4. RESULTS

The first question to respondents was of a general character and was meant to introduce more detailed questions stating their attitudes towards ecological behaviour and products. The results indicate that more than half of them (59.1%) tried to follow guidelines on ecology, but did not succeed. For a substantial group (19.2%), it was important as they always try to follow the guidelines, but there are those who are indifferent (8.9%). Another group (3.7%) are those who apply guidelines only when it suits their interest, and 1.2% of the respondents deem such guidelines a waste of time. Moreover, 7.7% did not state an opinion.

The research determined which pro-ecological behaviour was implemented on a daily basis as well as frequency. The results are presented in Table 1.

The most frequent pro-ecological behaviour is noticing lights that had not been switched off, sorting garbage, carrying their own shopping bags and avoiding disposable ones. The behaviour which got "often" or "from time to time" ratings were saving electricity, conserving water and buying healthy food. When it comes to using biodegradable bags, they mostly reported using them "from time to time" and "always" or "often". Avoiding plastic packaging was reported as occurring "from time to time" or "hardly ever". Rare is the habit of returning bottles – over half of the respondents never do it.

While shopping it is important to check whether the product itself and the process of its production are eco-friendly. Hence, the importance of ecological issues was rated using a 1-5 scale where 1 meant "no importance" and 5 stood for "very important". What the respondents deem "very important" and "important" (results 5 and 4) is whether a given product and its manufacture is environmentally-friendly and this holds for food (63.68%), juices (57.15%), apples (51.43%) and electricity (50.2%). The same feature seems less important in case of cars (43.26%), cleaning products (42.86%), trips (42.44%), a meal in a restaurant (39.19%) or a stay in a hotel (36.73%). Least importance was attached to the ecological nature of fuel with only 28.98% of the respondents viewing it as important or very important, while 31.43% attached no importance to it at all.

Responses to the question on the respondents' willingness to pay more for eco-products varied but positive answers accounted for a slightly higher proportion. The prevailing answer was "rather yes" (36.7%) followed by "rather not" (28.57%), "definitely yes" (5.7%) and "definitely not" (4.9%). Quite a large number of the respondents (22%) had no opinion on the issue and 2% failed to address the question at all.

Subsequent questions relate to the respondents' attitudes to pro-ecological policies in accommodation businesses where pro-ecological practices were implemented as part of achieving such policies which in many cases entailed limitations and less comfort for guests. However, the respondents expressed their support for such practices indicating that they are the source of potential or actual satisfaction. They were rated on a 1-7 scale, where 1 indicated dissatisfaction and 7 meant very high satisfaction with a given solution and the results are presented in Table 2. The respondents did not have to use the services offered by accommodation or be their customers in order to express their attitudes to pro-ecological practices in such facilities.

The results presented in Table 2 indicate that the respondents support many of the pro-ecological practices implemented in accommodation. Judging from the percentage of ratings 6 and 7, it can be observed that the most popular practices are movement sensors in corridors, energy-saving sources of light, solar panels, magnetic cards and sorting of garbage. Only slightly less popular are soap-dosing devices, glass bottles, hand driers instead of paper towels, as well as information on pro-ecological practices. It is worth mentioning the less popular practices such as change of sheets and towels on request, lower temperature of water and limiting air-conditioning.

Since the authors believe that involving customers in pro-ecological practices in accommodation is paramount, an attempt was made to find out what kind of incentives might trigger such involvement. In most cases, the respondents expect financial rewards in exchange for their involvement (discounts on a stay – 72.24% or services – 65.71 or cash – 38.37%). Less popular were material incentives – 29.39% or points earned on loyalty programs – 20.41%.

As for the question whether the young are better and as a result would choose accommodation implementing pro-ecological practices, the largest group of answers (50.61%) was "rather yes" and 20% "definitely yes". As few as 4.48% were of a different opinion and chose the answer "rather not" while "definitely not" was chosen by 0.4% of the respondents. At the same time, 23.26% of the respondents had no opinion whatsoever. Far less optimistic results were recorded when it came to the question whether the young would be willing to pay

Table 1. Kinds and frequency of everyday pro-ecological behaviour in Generation Z (% of responses)

Behaviours	Whenever I can	Often, I try to	From time to time	Hardly ever, never	No reply
I sort my garbage	33.06	34.70	25.71	6.12	0.41
I conserve water, I limit its use	22.04	39.19	28.16	10.20	0.41
I carry my own shopping bag, I try not to buy disposable bags	38.78	29.38	17.96	13.47	0.41
I use biodegradable bags	21.22	22.86	37.96	17.55	0.41
I conserve electricity, I limit its use	18.37	32.65	35.10	13.47	0.41
I try to buy and use healthy foods	24.49	38.78	30.20	6.12	0.41
I notice the lights that haven't been switched off	50.20	30.20	15.51	3.68	0.41
I return bottles	7.76	9.79	22.04	60.00	0.41
I avoid plastic packaging	7.76	18.77	39.59	33.47	0.41

Source: own research.

Table 2. Declared support for pro-ecological practices implemented in accommodation (% of responses)

Factor	Rating							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	No response
Towels and bed sheets changed only on request	13.88	9.79	11.84	12.24	14.70	8.16	25.31	4.08
Soap dosing devices instead of disposable soaps	4.08	2.04	11.84	8.57	19.59	11.02	38.78	4.08
Use of magnetic cards triggering lights in rooms	3.27	3.67	9.39	11.02	17.55	12.65	38.37	4.08
Drinks in recyclable bottles	4.90	6.12	9.80	9.80	17.55	18.37	29.38	4.08
Rooms with information on pro-ecological practices	5.31	10.61	11.02	14.29	17.96	13.06	23.27	4.48
Sorting garbage	4.08	5.71	6.94	11.84	16.33	13.88	36.74	4.48
Hand driers instead of paper towels	7.35	5.71	11.43	16.33	15.92	11.84	26.94	4.48
Use of energy-saving sources of light	0.82	1.63	8.57	11.84	17.14	14.29	41.63	4.08
Ecological food	0.82	3.27	13.46	11.84	20.41	17.14	28.98	4.08
Solar panels in accommodation	2.45	2.04	8.98	11.84	18.78	10.61	41.22	4.08
Movement sensors in corridors – unused devices automatically switched off	2.04	6.53	5.71	9.39	15.92	11.43	44.90	4.08
Limited air-conditioning	7.76	6.53	15.92	17.14	21.22	16.33	11.02	4.08
Lower water temperature of and limited use of water	9.80	12.24	13.06	15.92	17.55	11.43	15.92	4.08
Longer usage cycle for bed sheets	17.14	10.61	14.29	15.92	17.14	11.43	9.39	4.08

Source: own research.

more for a stay implementing pro-ecological practices. The responses varied, although the largest proportion (32.65%) chose "rather yes" and "definitely yes" (6.5%), as many as 26.9% replied "rather not" and 7.34% "definitely not". A similar proportion of respondents (23.67%) had no opinion on the matter.

5. CONCLUSION

The implementation of *Agenda for sustainable development 2030* (*Przekształcamy nasz świat…*, 2020) and its aim of sustainable consumptionwill not be possible without the involvement of consumers of tourism services. Pro-ecological tourism should show active interest in the issue not only at home but also while travelling. Such tourists should support accommodation facilities in the implementation of ecological policies. Choice of environmentally-friendly accommodation and acceptance of pro-ecological practices should result from a high level of ecological consciousness, particularly in the case of young consumers. This in turn can be achieved through its constant building both formally and informally.

The presented results provide a lot of useful information on the pro-ecological behaviour of Generation Z and their attitudes towards pro-ecological actions in accommodation businesses, and proving the existence of such behaviour was the main aim of this study. As for behaviour and consumer choices, in general the young are trying to apply ecological guidelines, they support pro-ecological behaviour and products even though they admit that they are not always successful in doing so. This confirms earlier findings showing that the young do take care of the environment and are willing to undertake pro-ecological activities. The activities they perform in the first place are the results of new regulations (sorting garbage) or result from economic or health-related reasons (avoiding disposable bags, saving energy and water, buying healthy foods). It is also in line with earlier findings showing that it is financial frugality rather than a conscious pro-ecological stand that leads to such behaviour.

Unfortunately, the young are not used to giving up products packed in plastic or returning glass bottles to recycling centres. The respondents pay more attention to the eco-features of a product and the ecological character of its manufacture in the case of food products than tourism services such as a stay in a hotel or a meal in a restaurant. Still, a noticeable group of respondents do pay a lot of attention to the ecological nature of tourism products.

Post-millennials generally support the implementation of pro-ecological practices in accommodation facilities the only difference being the scale of such support. Certain practices are very popular and are both accepted and supported by about 50% of respondents. However, other practices such as prolonged usage of bed sheets, or sheets and towels changed only on request are not positively viewed. When it comes to a willingness to pay more for pro-ecological practices, opinions vary. Generation Z expects financial incentives/rewards (discounts or cash) for their involvement in pro-ecological actions.

An auspicious omen is the fact that a large part of young consumers tend to rate more highly and choose those facilities which are pro-ecological. This provides an answer to the question stated in the introduction and confirms the assumed hypothesis. Ecological policies and pro-ecological practices can be a source of competitive advantage for companies providing accommodation services. While analysing the results, it is important to bear in mind the pilot character of the study. Both the selection and size of the sample are limitations to generalisations from the conclusions. Moreover, the importance of the issue should be emphasised as well as the ever growing importance of issues on sustainable growth in the contemporary world. These facts, beyond any doubt, provide arguments for the continuation of research.

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EXPERT FORECASTS OF THE IMPACTS OF TOURISM TRENDS: ASSESSMENT BY POLISH UNIVERSITY STUDENTS

Abstract: The purpose of the article was to establish whether a tourism student can effectively recognize tourism trends, and to achieve this aim the following research tasks were accomplished: 1) the authors identified 10 trends (and 47 impacts), concerning the transformations that have occurred in tourism in recent years and have been recognized by specialists from the European Travel Commission and the European Tourism Action Group; 2) these trends and their impacts underwent a critical evaluation by students who were given the opportunity to add other impacts (their own) to the specialist list; 3) students' evaluations were compared to current trends identified in other academic work. The research was conducted on 95 tourism and recreation students at the University of Physical Education in Kraków and the Vistula School of Hospitality in Warsaw (formerly: Warsaw School of Tourism and Hospitality Management), in 2017/2018 and 2018/2019. The article has also presented the results of earlier research (unpublished) at two other academic centres (Rzeszow and Kielce) on 113 students, 17 lecturers and 76 travel agency employees. Together the results described in this article present the opinions of 301 respondents. It was established that students, as a group, are sufficiently effective observers of changes in the tourism market to make an appropriate contribution and, consequently, are valuable participants at brainstorming sessions. They use what they have learned during their university study, are familiar with forecasting and scenario methods, as well as taking advantage of the imagination and creativity typical of such students.

Keywords: tourism, tourism market, trends, foresight, expert method, students.

1. INTRODUCTION

In the current situation, the claim arising from much research into tourism that it is an extremely complex phenomenon, is a truism. It is a field where different dimensions or aspects of reality connect and interpenetrate. Due to this complexity, however, tourism is very sensitive to changes in individual tourists' needs and desires, the demographic structure of societies, the availability of natural and cultural resources, technology, the legal environment, etc. As a consequence, it is justifiable, if not necessary, to identify these changes by recognizing various trends (psycho-social, demographic, economic, technological, etc.) in the tourism market. By trends, we mean general regularities (quantitative, qualitative) in shaping given phenomena, regardless of the character of the variables which are being analysed, or the extent of the changes that they undergo. Precisely speaking, we are talking about "short- or long-term phenomena of regional or global range, usually described in economic, sociological and psychological terms (the lifestyles of some market segments and the consumption models related to them), influencing various business sectors" (Vejlgaard, 2008, in Hajdas, Szabela-Pasierbińska, 2016, p. 233).

Being aware of current trends is important to many organisations not excepting those operating in the tourism sector. It is, above all, significant for regional or state governments which need a rational basis to create and implement current policies, new laws and assess impacts on the environment, by stimulating trends which are beneficial for society and limiting those which are not, or at least minimizing their negative consequences (Alejziak, Szczechowicz, 2019). This awareness and the resulting knowledge are required by the managers of enterprises and other organizations as well so they can make effective decisions regarding their functioning and strategy (e.g. investments). They are also important for individuals who play various social and economic roles so they can make optimal use of their scarce resources (Coathup, 1999; van der Duim, Ren, Jóhannesson, 2013; Inskeep, 1991; Pearce, 2005; Wodejko, 2006; Yiannakis, Gibson, 1992).

Research in order to identify and analyse the trends which influence tourism may involve a variety of methods which serve the purpose of forecasting changes in the macro environment. They may be traditional methods used in forecasting megatrends, microtrends and 'vogues', as well as approaches resembling interdisciplinary studies on the future (Borodako, 2008; Hajdas, Szabela-Pasierbińska, 2016; zob. też EC, 2009)[1]. Without going into detail, quantitative methods are based on mathematical models in which the values of given variables are extrapolated into the future, while qualitative methods are based on specialist knowledge. Therefore, each group can be matched to a characteristic (desired) profile of the person who is planning and undertaking research on trends.

In the case of quantitative methods, such a person should demonstrate knowledge of academic disciplines as well as analytical skills, while for the qualitative methods, the person should not only be knowledgeable, but also creative, intuitive, experienced, innovative, resourceful and original (Hajdas, Szabela-Pasierbińska, 2016). When it comes to tourism, we must remember that in many situations, a specialist is expected to demonstrate knowledge which is comprehensive, multifaceted and interdisciplinary, and not be selective.

Forecasting is always based on a correct diagnosis of reality (or on the established current state of the phenomena studied), on interdependencies and feedback, as well as the directions and strengths of internal and external factors, existing limitations, etc. When projecting the future, it is possible to use various forecasting techniques which differ, above all, with respect to the time horizon and the number of factors under consideration.

Forecasting offers numerous ways of examining the future and which can be divided into three groups: extrapolative, intuitive and inferential (Grabiński, Wydymus, Zeliaś, 1993; Penc, 1997). The first group includes methods which are based on past development trends, and the basic premises of inference using a range of econometric models. Intuitive methods are not supported with precise calculations, and the whole prognostic process is based on the creative capabilities of the human mind, particularly on associations, free exchange of opinions and submission of ideas. Inferential methods make it possible to predict some phenomena on the basis of others, despite the fact that cause and effect relationships between them have not been found[2].

In view of the above, the authors assumed that their main aim is to establish whether only an experienced specialist is able to effectively identify current tourism trends, or if this can also be done by a student of tourism. Setting such an aim is based on two assumptions.

Firstly, students are usually young and open-minded, but at the same time they are critical of their surrounding reality which is a good basis for making observations and a sensible assessment of the changes taking place within tourism. At the same time, it makes possible non-standard reasoning which allows the surrounding reality to be looked at in a different way to specialist lines of thought. It is also connected with the fact that current students (the second decade of the 21st century) or recent graduates are representatives of the, so-called, generation 'Z'. Their characteristic traits include self-confidence, openness and acceptance of diversity, awareness of the influence of global problems on the lives of individuals and societies, risk-taking tendencies and the ability to take quick decisions (Chomątowska, Żarczyńska-Dobiesz, 2014). They are also qualities which may make 'today's' students able to effectively identify trends in, for example, tourism.

Secondly, by attending various classes, students acquire up-to-date knowledge in many academic disciplines and this is a good basis for analysing the complexity and multifaceted character of tourism. The multidisciplinary nature of tourism studies is confirmed by an analysis of the graduates' profiles and the syllabuses implemented at different types of universities (regular, economic, technical, humanistic, agricultural, physical education academies, etc.[3]), preparing students for work that involves satisfying travellers' needs and wants[4]. It is worth noting that this multidisciplinary character may be an asset for students, in contrast to academic specialists who focus on the detailed examination of a strictly specified fraction of reality[5].

Let us explain here that university curricula and syllabuses do not always cover the whole of present knowledge and the results of the latest research. This is indicated in analyses by Gołembski who examined the syllabuses of tourism courses at eleven Polish universities with regard to topics corresponding to recent research trends and the most important economic challenges. As a result, he managed to establish those current trends in academia and the economy which are not sufficiently covered at major universities: quality management, the tourist function of urban centres and regions, network approaches in regional studies, innovation, entrepreneurship, and new ideas of regional and enterprise management (Gołembski, 2016).

At this point, it is worth recalling the conclusions drawn from the research among graduates of first degree (BA) Tourism and Recreation studies (2008/2009 and 2009/2010) at the Józef Piłsudski University of Physical Education in Warsaw, Biała Podlaska Branch. It was concluded that tourism students represented a relatively high level of initiative, which could be regarded as above average compared to the general population of Polish students. At the same time, the respondents were professionally active (gainful employment, competence development, etc.), though, as the researchers claim, "they were less [...] engaged in the social, organizational or research activity" (Buchta, Skiert, Sikora, 2012, pp. 70–71).

These general indicators regarding tourism students' initiative can be supplemented by employers. In the light of some cross-national empirical studies, conducted among tourism entrepreneurs, tourism graduates demonstrate a satisfactory level of theoretical knowledge, but insufficient experience, assertiveness and innovativeness, to satisfy the entrpreneurs'needs (Szymańska, 2009). The issue of preparing people for work in the tourism sector is not quite clear because the results of other studies show that employers rated the competences of tourism graduates at a relatively low level (Alejziak, 2014).

It should be emphasised, however, that employers probably evaluate graduates' knowledge (and skills) primarily in terms of practical usability, judging how useful they might be in performing specific professional tasks, and not how much the students know about tourism and its trends in general. This is very important from the point of view of this article, as well as natural, considering the fact that at many universities, tourism sub-majors are perceived as practical work (even if they are formally conducted as academic) which is to prepare graduates for work in a wide range of tourism services (cf. Tokarz-Kocik, 2016). On the other hand, however, those representing academic and business environments at the same time remark that "...a situation when a university graduate possesses only practical knowledge and is only a good 'artisan' cannot be allowed" (Głąbiński, 2010).

It is worth mentioning that the students themselves rate their own competences (knowledge) slightly more highly. This does not mean that they are not critical towards themselves or their universities because their self-assessment with regard to many aspects of knowledge and skills is lower than expected (Skiert, Buchta, 2014). To make the picture of tourism graduates complete, we wish to point out that they gain many different skills, including social/soft ones (Łubkowska, Nadobnik, Tarnowski, Nowak, 2017), which, coupled with some hard skills, should define a 'specialist'. The emerging figure of a tourism graduate (regardless of their major) is, it seems, very complex. However, this mainly results from the complexity of tourism, and partly from the fact that the contemporary labour market promotes the, so-called, flexible career model, characterized by an accumulation of knowledge and skills (Bednarska, 2013). All this seems to confirm the wide range of knowledge, as well as other competences, developed by students who complete tourism-related academic courses.

2. RESEARCH METHODS

The aim of this article can be expressed in the form of the following research hypothesis: tourism students are able to notice trends in tourism which match specialist indicators. This hypothesis was specified by posing three research questions, referring to tourism students:

1. Does the student have appropriate knowledge and analytical skills which enable him/her to reflect on the complex and multifaceted domain of tourism?
2. Is the student capable of taking a critical attitude to the trends identified by specialists which define changes in tourism?
3. Is the student able to creatively develop the set of trends describing the changes identified by specialists, supplementing it with accurate observations based on his/her own knowledge, personal experience, intuition, etc.?

In order to provide answers to these questions and, consequently, to achieve the research aim, the approach was divided into three stages: (I) identifying the trends regarding the transformations which have taken place in tourism in recent years and confirmed by specialists; (II) students' critical assessment of the trends identified at stage I, combined with the opportunity to complement the specialist list with other trends; (III) comparing students' evaluations on the current trends identified by specialists.

Based on the indicators of the European Travel Commission (ETC – https://stc-corporate.org) and European Tourism Action Group (ETAG – https://www.etag-euro.org) from 2003 and 2006, a list of major trends observed in the socio-economic world was compiled, as well as their impacts and implications for the tourism sector. Altogether, 10 out of the 11 trends described in these reports were selected (one category was omitted from the analysis as is explained later in the text) and 3-7 impacts were ascribed to each of them. A total of ten trends were established, and to each of them was ascribed from three to seven impacts and implications (47). The trends and their impacts are presented in Table 1.

As a research method, the authors chose a diagnostic survey based on a three-part questionnaire. The introductory section explained the aim of the research and included an invitation to take part in the study. The tables contained in the main part provided a description of trends (column 1) and the impacts/implications ascribed to them (column 2). For each impact/implication, an open space was left to mark the probability of its occurrence globally (column 3) and in Poland (column 4). The respondents could indicate probabilities using a Likert scale: 1 – strongly agree, 2 – agree, 3 – undecided, 4 – disagree, 5 – strongly disagree. The table also included three lines for each of the 10 trends where the respondents could add impacts/implications which they believed to be likely in the near future. The

Table 1. Trends and their impacts/implications for the tourism sector, according to European Travel Commission (ETC) and European Tourism Action Group (ETAG)

	Trends		Impacts/implications (for tourism sector)
I	**Demography** The number of elderly people will grow rapidly. They will be healthier and have larger financial resources at their disposal. They will decide to retire earlier.	1	Increasing demand for quality, comfort, safety
		2	Increasing demand for easy and fast transport
		3	Increasing demand for more quiet entertainment facilities
		4	Increasing demand for products for people travelling alone
		5	Larger demand in the months before and after high season
		6	In marketing, age will be emphasised less strongly than comfort
II	**Health** Health awareness will be growing.	1	Travel directions perceived as less healthy will be chosen less often than before
		2	The demand for holidays offering only sunbathing will continue to decrease
		3	Active holidays will become increasingly popular, and the demand for facilities satisfying such needs will be growing
		4	The demand for bio-regeneration products will be increasing
III	**Awareness and education** The average level of education is rising.	1	Increasing demand for specialist products
		2	Including elements of art, culture and history in organized events and individual holidays
		3	A need for better and more creative information transfer
IV	**Information technology** The significance of the internet will continue to grow (searching for information, online shopping).	1	Easy access to information about travel directions and tourist products will encourage people to compare offers and this will influence competition
		2	Experienced tourists will more and more often compose their own holidays from available modules, through direct booking
		3	The role of travel agencies will be decreasing, as the online purchase of organized events is becoming increasingly popular
		4	The internet will reduce the role of national tourism organizations and tourism chambers
		5	The accessibility of links to service providers will gain in importance as a condition for a website to be successful
		6	Due to the growing significance of safety, the more critical tourists will feel a stronger need to make safe online bookings
V	**Transport** Fast trains and cheap airlines are becoming increasingly accessible, but on the other hand, traffic on Polish roads will be heavier, due to traffic jams.	1	Easily accessible and cheap destinations will be chosen more often for short stays
		2	Short stays in the countryside will be replaced by stays in large cities
		3	Travelling by fast rail will become more popular than scheduled flights
		4	Heavy traffic on Polish roads will cause congestion ('traffic jams')
		5	Interest in coach tours will be decreasing
		6	Interest in sea cruises will increase, especially among tourists over 50
		7	Difficulty in accessing information about timetables will have a negative effect on the choice of destination
VI	**Sustainable development** Environmental awareness will continue to rise.	1	Regional destinations will gain in importance
		2	Tourists will be willing to visit places where the locals are happy to receive growing numbers of tourists
		3	Tourists will cover some of the costs connected with sustainable development
		4	Sustainable tourism is not the same as eco-tourism
VII	**Safety** Due to terrorist attacks, regional wars, crisis situations and pollution, tourists will steer away from regions considered to be dangerous.	1	The quality of water in reservoirs and of the drinking water, will determine the choice of destination
		2	Demanding tourists will more frequently complain in situations when products do not meet the standards of the destination
		3	The cost of the guarantee of safety will increase
VIII	**Free time** The society demand a larger amount of leisure time and recreation; hence, the on-taxable income will be decreasing.	1	The need to provide cheap products is increasing
		2	The need to offer recreation is increasing
		3	One longer holiday is increasingly exchanged for a few shorter holiday breaks

Table 1. (cont.)

<table>
<tr><th colspan="2">Trends</th><th colspan="2">Impacts/implications (for tourism sector)</th></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="6">IX</td><td rowspan="6">Experiences
Tourists' expectations regarding service standard and the relation between quality and price are increasing. Tourists more often speak openly about their expectations, growing needs, which they later effectively verify.</td><td>1</td><td>There will be stronger competition in tourist services, with respect to the attractiveness of the program and the destination; alternative ways of spending money will appear</td></tr>
<tr><td>2</td><td>Countries and regions which do not meet the growing expectations and standards will become less attractive in the long run</td></tr>
<tr><td>3</td><td>Clients' behaviours will be diversified (one year travelling abroad, the next – around the country; one long journey followed with several short ones)</td></tr>
<tr><td>4</td><td>Experience and critical approach will encourage tourists to travel to places from the past ('back to the basics')</td></tr>
<tr><td>5</td><td>Increased mobility of tourists will have a positive effect on transport rental</td></tr>
<tr><td>6</td><td>Tourists will more and more often choose regions which offer a diversified, full and completely sustainable conception</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="5">X</td><td rowspan="5">Lifestyle
For several years we have been observing changes in lifestyle, which have a significant impact on the way tourists' needs and behaviours are perceived.</td><td>1</td><td>Interest in BB ('Bed & Breakfast') services will decrease, as they are perceived as low-quality services</td></tr>
<tr><td>2</td><td>Changes in lifestyle result in a decreasing interest in purchasing an event in the form of a ready-made package</td></tr>
<tr><td>3</td><td>Tourist vents enriched with new products; services will be purchased more willingly than those which are currently popular</td></tr>
<tr><td>4</td><td>Tourist events combining recreation and an opportunity to enjoy one's hobby will be purchased more willingly</td></tr>
<tr><td>5</td><td>The need to have one's own 'port', stimulating the purchase of a second home, is becoming increasingly common</td></tr>
</table>

Source: ETC, ETAG (2003); ETC (2006)

final part included a respondent's particulars section where they were asked to disclose their gender and age, as well as contact details.

To accomplish stage II, it was necessary to select a sample from the general population of tourism students. This was a non-probability sample, as the researchers believed that the study should be conducted among students of tourism and recreation. As can be seen from the syllabus, the course is interdisciplinary and this, theoretically, enabled students to evaluate the trends identified by specialists and related to various areas of tourist activity. The study was carried out at two universities: Bronisław Czech University of Physical Education in Kraków (a state university) and the Vistula School of Hospitality in Warsaw (a private educational establishment). Thus, spatially, the research included two of the major Polish academic centres (Kraków and Warsaw), preparing specialists for work on the tourism market, and was conducted in two academic years: 2017/2018 and 2018/2019.

It should be noted at this point that the research which involved students of different universities assessing trends and their impacts indicated in Table 1, had already started in the academic year of 2007/2008. In subsequent years, however, the study tool (questionnaire) was modified, gradually becoming more respondent-friendly and, above all, more extensive. Initially, the respondents were asked to evaluate the impacts of individual trends identified by specialists, and only in later years could they 'add' impacts which they predicted themselves. This circumstance is one of the reasons why the authors decided to present the results concerning 2017/2018 and 2018/2019. Another justification of this decision is that the trends and their impacts (Table 1) seem still to be true, which derives from the very nature of a trend. As mentioned earlier, trends are largely connected with long-term changes and their development is evolutionary, in contrast to megatrends which mostly cause revolutionary changes (Hajdas, Szabela-Pasierbińska, 2016)[6].

The study included 101 respondents, mostly MA students and several students of E-tourism, a new course, in the second year of BA studies whose knowledge of information technology was not less than 2nd degree (MA) students. Due to the fact that some participants returned incomplete questionnaires, the final analysis included data from 95 respondents. The characteristics of the study sample are presented in Table 2.

The majority of the 95 respondents were from the University of Physical Education in Kraków, and most of them were female. All the respondents were doing the 'Tourism and Recreation' course, majoring in 'tourism business management', 'SPA centre management', 'outdoor project management', 'motivation and business tourism' (MA studies), or 'e-tourism' (BA studies); at the Vistula School it was 'hospitality' and

Table 2. Characteristics of the student sample (n=95), the university they represent, and gender

University	Gender		Total	No data
	Female	Male		
Bronisław Czech University of Physical Educationin Kraków	45	19	64	0
Vistula School of Hospitality in Warsaw	15	4	19	12
Total	60	23	83	12

Source: authors.

'meetings industry management' (MA studies). The respondents were all students, so they were, naturally, of similar age.

3. RESEARCH RESULTS

3.1. STUDENTS' ASSESSMENT OF THE PROBABILITY OF THE IMPACTS OF INDIVIDUAL TRENDS IDENTIFIED BY SPECIALISTS

As mentioned in the presentation of the research method, the students assessed each trend by subjectively indicating the probability of its impacts/implications predicted earlier by ETC and ETAG specialists. The students used the scale mentioned above. In this way, they not only expressed their subjective opinions, but also critically evaluated specialists' forecasts. By 'critically', we mean both the fact that the students evaluated specialist opinions, based on their knowledge and intuition, as well as the fact that they could either agree with those opinions (allocating a score of '1' or '2' to them), maintain a neutral attitude (a score of '3'), or have a different opinion (scores of '4' and '5'). Based on the students' assessments, the authors present the descriptive statistical values in Table 3.

When analysing the data presented in the table, the conclusion that students' assessments were quite similar to specialists' opinions can be arrived at, which may result either from students' trust in the specialists' indicators or from the similarity of opinions. It is confirmed, above all, by the relatively low values of the arithmetical mean. For the whole set of impacts, they fall within the 1.4 to 3.5 range, but if we ignore one more extreme rating of 3.5 (trend V, impact 3), the range closes at 2.9, i.e. between 'strongly agree' and 'agree', and possibly 'undecided'. A similar conclusion can be drawn from the analysis of the median and dominant values. In both cases, the median had a value of 1 or 2, sometimes 3, and only once of 4. The dominant also usually

Table 3. Assessment of the probability of a given trend together with its impacts/implications for global tourism (n=95)

Trends and their implications for the tourism sector		Central tendency measures			Measure of dispersion						Asymmetry measure
					absolute					relative	
		arithmetical mean	median	dominant	minimal value	maximal value	variability area	variance	standard deviation	changeability co-efficient [%]	skewness
I Demography	1	1.6	1	1	1	5	4	0.70	0.8	50.0	1.8
	2	1.6	1	1	1	5	4	0.71	0.8	52.4	1.7
	3	2.4	2	2	1	5	4	1.06	1.0	41.9	0.5
	4	2.9	3	2	1	5	4	1.18	1.1	37.9	0.1
	5	2.2	2	2	1	5	4	1.08	1.0	46.9	0.8
	6	2.2	2	1	1	5	4	1.36	1.2	52.9	0.7
II Health	1	2.3	2	1	1	5	4	1.50	1.2	53.7	0.7
	2	2.5	2	2	1	5	4	1.50	1.2	49.2	0.4
	3	1.6	1	1	1	5	4	0.70	0.8	51.6	1.6
	4	1.6	1	1	1	5	4	0.80	0.9	56.6	1.9
III Awareness education	1	2.0	2	2	1	5	4	0.90	0.9	46.0	0.7
	2	2.0	2	2	1	5	4	0.90	0.9	46.9	1.0
	3	1.6	1	1	1	5	4	0.70	0.8	51.9	1.6

Table 3. (cont.)

Trends and their implications for the tourism sector		Central tendency measures: arithmetical mean	median	dominant	Measure of dispersion, absolute: minimal value	maximal value	variability area	variance	standard deviation	Measure of dispersion, relative: changeability co-efficient [%]	Asymmetry measure: skewness
IV Information technologies	1	1.4	1	1	1	5	4	0.60	0.8	55.5	2.4
	2	1.6	1	1	1	5	4	0.70	0.8	52.0	1.7
	3	2.0	2	1	1	5	4	1.30	1.1	57.4	0.9
	4	2.5	2	3	1	5	4	1.30	1.1	45.9	0.3
	5	1.9	2	2	1	5	4	0.80	0.9	43.3	0.7
	6	2.0	2	2	1	5	4	1.00	1.0	49.2	0.9
V Transport	1	2.3	2	2	1	4	3	1.20	1.1	48.8	0.4
	2	2.9	3	3	1	5	4	1.10	1.0	35.1	–0.1
	3	3.5	4	4	1	5	4	1.00	1.0	28.4	–0.6
	4	2.0	2	3	1	5	4	1.20	1.1	54.8	0.9
	5	2.2	2	3	1	4	3	1.10	1.0	46.2	0.5
	6	2.2	2	3	1	4	3	0.80	0.9	41.0	0.5
	7	2.2	2	3	1	5	4	0.90	1.1	49.7	0.9
VI Sustainable development	1	2.4	2	2	1	4	3	0.70	0.8	34.9	0.0
	2	2.5	2	2	1	5	4	1.20	1.1	43.8	0.6
	3	2.6	3	2	1	5	4	0.90	0.9	35.3	0.4
	4	2.4	2	2	1	4	3	0.90	0.9	39.4	0.2
VII Safety	1	2.5	3	1 i 3	1	5	4	1.30	1.1	46.2	0.1
	2	1.9	2	2	1	5	4	0.90	0.9	49.2	1.2
	3	1.8	2	2	1	5	4	0.70	0.8	45.6	1.5
VIII Leisure time	1	2.4	2	2	1	5	4	1.30	1.1	48.3	0.4
	2	1.8	2	2	1	5	4	0.90	0.9	50.4	1.3
	3	2.3	2	1	1	5	4	1.30	1.2	51.1	0.6
IX Experiences	1	1.5	1	1	1	5	4	0.50	0.7	46.8	1.7
	2	2.2	2	2	1	5	4	1.10	1.0	46.8	0.7
	3	2.3	2	2	1	5	4	1.00	1.0	42.9	0.5
	4	2.7	3	2	1	4	3	0.90	1.0	35.1	0.0
	5	2.0	2	2	1	4	3	0.60	0.8	38.4	0.7
	6	1.8	2	2	1	4	3	0.50	0.7	39.3	0.9
X Life style	1	2.8	3	4	1	5	4	1.40	1.2	42.5	0.0
	2	2.7	3	2	1	5	4	1.20	1.1	40.2	0.0
	3	1.9	2	2	1	5	4	0.90	0.9	48.8	1.1
	4	1.5	1	1	1	5	4	0.40	0.7	44.0	1.9
	5	2.2	2	2	1	5	4	0.90	1.0	44.0	0.4

Source: authors.

had values of 1 and 2, in several cases of 3, and in two cases of 4.

In view of this, it is worth considering the students' inclination to allocate a score of '3'. Such scores, which express 'lack of opinion' about a given issue, can be regarded as 'safe' and imply that the respondents have not formed an opinion on the probability of a given impact due to insufficient knowledge or other reasons. Let us note that in the whole group of respondents, the total number of '3s' given to all 47 impacts was 691, while, theoretically, they could have been allocated 4465 times, provided all the respondents (n=95) had assessed each of the 47 impacts at '3'. In other words, students' tendency to score neutral is 15.5% and, in consequence, the tendency to assume an attitude (positive or negative) equals 84.5%. The value of this last indicator seems relatively high, which points to the respondents' confidence when expressing opinions. Let us add that among the respondents who chose a score different than '3', an opinion agreeing with the specialists' indicators (scores '1' and '2'), was expressed by 82.4% and a different opinion ('4' and '5') by 17.6%.

The overview of the results presented above does not mean, however, that the respondents unequivocally shared ETC and ETAG specialists' opinions on ongoing or anticipated changes in the tourism sector. With reference to each impact, the minimal value is 1 and the maximal is 5, nearly every time. Thus, the variance range of scores is very wide, or in fact maximum. This, in conjunction with a standard deviation ranging from 0.7 and 1.2, as well as a variance rate, ranging from 35% to 55%, points to a substantial dispersion of the students' scores around mean values. Let us add, however, that in the majority of cases, the distribution of scores is skewed right and asymmetrical (sometimes the skewness is very strong), so they tilt towards 'low' scores.

When analysing the preliminarily results, let us look more closely at the impacts which the students tended to assess differently to the ETC and ETAG specialists, particularly 'travelling by fast rail will become more popular than scheduled flights'. It is worth emphasising that the specialists' opinions which the study refers to were formulated in 2003 and 2006 based on data available in the early years of the 21st century. The respondents, however, gave their scores several years later, based on their knowledge of the current development of certain phenomena which could only have been predicted by the specialists. Therefore, students' observations regarding, for instance, tourists' demand for different types of transport services, can be assessed positively as a result of an independent, critical look at the formulated thesis.

The data collected in the course of the study underwent analysis in order to discover possible differences in the respondents' opinions, depending on gender. For this purpose, a compilation of basic descriptive statistics was prepared, analogous to the contents of Table 3, but separately for men and women. However, preliminary analysis of values did not clearly demonstrate any influence of gender on the scores allocated to individual trends or impacts. As regards these trends, some impacts had slightly higher scores for women, and others for men. It is interesting, however, that women were more decisive in their opinions, i.e. they relatively rarely gave a '3' to the impacts. For women, '3s' appeared in 12.2% of possible cases, while for men, it was 15.4%.

In the description of the questionnaire, it was noted that the respondents allocated each impact the probability of its occurrence globally (discussed above) and on a national scale with reference to the tourism sector in Poland. Without going into much detail regarding the comparison of these two sets, let us just say, referring to the basic measure of central tendency, that for only seven out of the 47 evaluated impacts, did indicators on a global scale demonstrate a higher value of arithmetical mean. In one case, they were equal (rounded to one decimal place), and in 39 cases Poland achieved higher scores. Thus, it seems that students tend to ascribe a slightly higher probability of occurrence to global than national impacts. It should be added here that differences between mean values were relatively small.

Considering the possible criteria diversifying students' answers, it is worth referring to the results of pilot studies which were conducted in the academic years 2014/2015 and 2015/2016 among BA students (3rd year) and MA students (2nd year) of Economics at the Professor Edward Lipinski School of Economics, Law and Medical Sciences in Kielce, specializing in Managerial Economics. They were 'non-tourist' 2nd degree courses, but the students also took some subjects related to tourism, or strictly 'tourist' (a monographic lecture or 'Tourism Economics' classes). The research used a slightly different questionnaire (some of the trends were described through other impacts; it was not possible to add personal ideas). The results show that arithmetical mean values fall within a similar range to tourism and recreation students: 1.3 – 3.3. At the same time, for a larger number of impacts, the arithmetical mean was estimated at 3.0 or higher. The results of both studies also turned out to be similar as regards median and dominant values (the students from Kielce usually had scores of 1 or 2), but significantly different as regards the tendency to give neutral scores, i.e. '3' (undecided). Let us remember that among the students from Kraków and Warsaw, this tendency was rated at 13.5%, and among the students from Kielce at 6.4%, which means that the students of economics were more decisive in their opinions.

3.2. AN EXTENDED SET OF THE IMPACTS OF INDIVIDUAL TRENDS INDICATED BY SPECIALISTS

Analysis of the research results so far suggests that the respondents tended to agree with specialists' forecasts concerning transformations in the tourism sector. Such advanced congruity of students' and specialists' opinions is not, however, an expression of a passive attitude of the former and their inability to hold a position of their own, or of their lack of criticism. It turned out that the respondents expressed their critical attitude towards the set of impacts presented to them by complementing it with their own indicators of changes which they anticipated in the tourism sector. There were a relatively large number of such original ideas, 474, added to the questionnaire. Let us note, however, that not every respondent wrote down the impacts they predicted; only from 63 respondents, some of whom referred to nearly every trend. The number of 'original' implications anticipated by the students is included in Table 4, with respect to respondents' gender.

When analysing the data given above, it can be noticed that the number of students' 'original' ideas varies: the fewest were ascribed to the 'experiences' trend (29), and the largest number to 'demography' (76). Explanation of this goes beyond the scope of this text, though it may imply that there are areas in which students feel more confident, have better knowledge/intuition and are willing to share. There are also areas where they feel less confident and less willing to express opinions. It is noteworthy, however, that a great majority of those who wrote anything (48 – 76.3%) were female. In view of this, let us note that with respect to eight trends, women entered more comments than could be expected from their percentage in the total number of respondents who indicated impacts other than those anticipated by the WTC and ETAG specialists. Women dramatically outnumbered men when it came to writing extra comments on the 'lifestyle' trend, as many as 35 out of 40 were provided by women. This seems a good foundation for two hypotheses whose verification would require further research. According to the first one, female students show a stronger tendency to share opinions on ongoing or anticipated changes in the tourism sector than male; according to the other, the tendency to present these opinions varies depending on the domain concerned.

Without recalling all the impacts indicated by the study participants (474), let us focus only on those for two selected trends referred to as 'information technologies' and 'experiences'. The choice of these trends is arbitrary, but it was prompted by the wish to compare trends in areas of reality which significantly differ from each other. In this regard, 'information technologies' represents contemporary, modern, science phenomena and as such, they may be closer to students as young people (Generation Z). On the other hand, 'experiences' refers to the timeless, humanistic outlook on reality, as well as people's needs and desires.

The two tables below present the impacts of the two trends indicated by the students. For clarity, these impacts were divided into groups and their characteristic subsets were described by means of generalizations. It must be said, however, that it was not the only way to group them because some of the impacts refer to different aspects of a given trend. Let us add that the tables do not contain data on the probability of occurrence of individual implications because those added were usually indicated by single students and their occurrence was regarded as highly probable (1 – 'strongly agree' or 2 – 'agree'). Table 5, compiled in this way, presents the impacts of the 'information technologies' trend.

When analysing the contents of this table, it should be noted that students considerably extended the set of impacts which they had been given for assessment. They added 60 indicators which undoubtedly refer to several significant phenomena related to IT development. They pointed to some fundamental issues by expressing their opinions about the role of traditional and modern travel agencies, as well as questioning the influence of those technologies on interest in travel (in the traditional sense of the word), and the predominant form of trips

Table 4. The number of original impacts/implications for the tourism sector, ascribed to individual trends, by gender

Trends in the tourism sector		Number of quoted impacts/implications				
		Total	including			
			female		male	
I	Demography	76	52	68.4%	24	31.6%
II	Health	51	41	80.4%	10	19.6%
III	Awareness and education	50	40	80.0%	10	20.0%
IV	Information technologies	60	46	76.7%	14	23.3%
V	Transport	37	29	78.4%	8	21.6%
VI	Sustainable development	36	30	83.3%	6	16.7%
VII	Safety	51	40	78.4%	11	21.6%
VIII	Leisure time	39	29	74.4%	10	15.6%
IX	Experiences	29	23	79.3%	6	20.7%
X	Lifestyle	45	40	88.9%	5	11.1%
Total		474	370	–	104	–

Source: authors.

Table 5. Impacts/implications of trend 4, indicated individually by students ‘information technologies’

No	No of resp.	Impacts/implications for the tourism sector	Category
1	70	Travel agencies will still be very important, due to many people's unwillingness to make online purchases	Traditional travel agencies
2	4	There will still be many people preferring personal contact with a travel agency employee; coffee, tea, etc.	
3	82	Travel agencies: raising the standard, direct sale	
4	76	Increasing number of online ticket bookings and purchases leads to a decrease in employment (tourist office, checkout desks)	
5	56	The importance of online consultants, advisors will increase	
6	55	Easy communication /contact with the travel agency / holiday destination	Access to informa-tion
7	76	Clients' growing awareness due to easy access to information	
8	98	The most important thing on the internet is the access to offers at one place and the opportunity to compare them, as well as the ease of organizing a trip without leaving home	
9	53	The number of specialized portals comparing offers and enabling people to make reservations and purchases will increase	
10	72	Growing significance of information websites and local ratings (e.g. TripAdvisor)	
11	57	Applications presenting and comparing offers	
12	55	Access to information regarding safety at the holiday destination	
13	52	Increasing influence of the social media on tourism	Social media
14	91	Increased influence of social media on the recognizability of and demand for travel agencies, sites, etc.	
15	85	Increasing importance of the opinions posted on the internet	
16	54	Looking for information provided by other tourists and individual offers	
17	66	More demanding clients	Independent organization of travel
18	51	Better matching of trips to individual needs	
19	89	Growing demand for travelling on your own (based on vast knowledge about a given place, gained from the internet)	
20	62	Demand for organizing travel independently	
21	5	In my opinion, Poles prefer to buy complete packages - organized events	
22	92	Development of mobile applications	Mobile applications
23	53	Growing number of mobile applications facilitating travel	
24	72	Growing significance/role of applications in the tourism sector	
25	90	Larger demand for tourism applications	
26	58	Development of tourism applications will cause a decrease in couriers' and guides' services	
27	64	Decreasing interest in human guides and growing interest in guide applications + e.g. Google with object recognition function + information about it	
28	67	The demand for guide applications will increase	
29	77	Increasing demand for mobile booking or guiding applications	
30	61	Increased comfort when booking a trip	
31	89	Opprtunity to make purchases or bookings over mobile phones	
32	67	Demand for recreation applications will increase	
33	72	Growing demand for interactive visits to exhibitions, decreasing interest in visiting ‘boring’ museums	
34	78	There will be no need to use guides and couriers as you can find everything on your smartphone	
35	60	Access to the internet is increasingly determining the choice of the destination and, later, satisfaction	Modern technologies at the holiday destination
36	8	Increasing demand for the digitalization of the visited places, i.e. on-site internet	
37	83	Smaller demand for room equipment (TV); wi-fi is more important	
38	100	The choice of accommodation offering a wide range of possibilities to use modern information technologies will increase	
39	90	Growing significance of technology at hotels, tourist sites, information points	

Table 5. (cont.)

No	No of resp.	Impacts/implications for the tourism sector	Category
40	63	Offers are directed mainly to young people	Specific segments of clients
41	94	Many elderly people are afraid of trips which are not organized by specialists (language barrier, technological barrier – inability to use equipment)	
42	58	Development of applications enables the disabled or blind people to break the barriers while sightseeing	
43	51	Decreasing general integration during trips	Social contacts while travelling
44	51	Increasing integration among people sharing the same interests	
45	64	Fewer people will leave home, using the possibility of virtual travel	Interest in going on a trip
46	65	The number of trips may decrease as it is possible to see the same on the Internet	
47	63	Social laziness	
48	45	People will spend more time at home, because there will be more distance working	
49	58	The role of travel agencies will be limited to organizing incentive travel	Other
50	52	Hotel chains will be superseded by the sharing economy	
51	62	Demand for slow life among tourists	
52	71	Enterprises which don't have a website will practically disappear	
53	66	Fighting for a client (lowering prices, raising standards)	
54	95	Trust in online travel agencies will increase	
55	61	Growing marketing of tourism organizers	
56	77	Demand for advertising on the Internet or through services like Google	
57	78	A larger number of bookings because the client can buy without much reflection on whether they can afford it – impulsive sale	
58	85	Internet must reduce the cognitive urge to see something 'live', not only on a photo	
59	63	A growing number of jobs for computer specialists, programmers	
60	90	More active hackers, viruses, endangered money transfers	

Source: autors.

made by contemporary tourists. They also expressed their opinions on changes regarding access to information, taking into account the problem of communication between consumer communities, e.g. through social media. They also commented on the significance of mobile applications for satisfying the needs of today's tourists, as well as the amenities expected at holiday destinations. Students as a group also referred to modern phenomena such as the sharing economy or a slow life. When reading these quite optimistic results, let us remember, however, that the additional questionnaire entries discussed here were made by individuals, so they express the activeness and perceptiveness of individual students, and not the whole community.

In the same way, Table 6 presents the impacts of the 'Experiences' trend where students made the smallest number of additional entries.

In this case, the students' indicators, grouped into five categories, are visibly less numerous and less diversified. What is important, considering the way some entries were formulated, is that it seems doubtful if they can be qualified as 'experiences'. Even if the entries grouped

Table 6. Impacts/implications of trend 9, indicated individually by students 'experiences'

No	No of resps	Significance/implications for the tourism section	Category
1	83	Need for extreme adventure travel	Character of experiences
2	85	Demand for extreme experiences	
3	90	Increasing demand for exotic, surprising, modern places	
4	91	Stronger desire to discover new, unknown places	
5	72	Market overload with perfection, high standard and need for 'authenticity'	
6	72	Growing importance of small homesteads/guesthouses	
7	64	Wish to have familiar homemade food as well as typical local cuisine on one menu	

Table 6. (cont.)

No	No of resps	Significance/implications for the tourism section	Category
8	77	Raising the standard of services	Quality and innovativeness of services
9	78	Higher quality of services	
10	1	Growing expectations regarding accommodation, transport	
11	95	Larger comfort of transport and stay	
12	95	Better quality of service, meals, etc.	
13	63	Raising the standard of hotel/carriers' services	
14	58	Increasing demand for luxury goods	
15	65	Larger demand for innovative attractions	
16	11	Tourists are increasingly choosing regions with unique, modern glass bridges over a precipice; something giving a boost of adrenaline + an exotic location	
17	82	Stronger need for exotic, independent trips	Travel organization model
18	58	Tourists will organize cheap holidays by themselves less frequently	
19	58	Tramping will become less important	
20	5	People are becoming aware of their rights and complain more often	Complaints and company activity
21	71	The number of complaints at tourist agencies will increase	
22	61	Growing interest in complaining about an event which did not meet the client's expectations	
23	77	More frequent attempts of insurance fraud	
24	61	Small tourist enterprises going bankrupt	
25	66	Scrupulous, meticulous search for offers and verifying programs	Other
26	66	Returning to a given place after being satisfied with the program	
27	67	Many travel options, e.g. by plane, by car, etc.	
28	67	Competition among carriers	
29	85	Competition will be followed by a decrease in the prices of tourist services	

Source: authors.

into categories: ‘Character of experience’, ‘Quality and innovativeness of services’ and ‘Travel organization model’ fit into the wide-ranging domain of tourist experiences, the entries in the two remaining categories, i.e. ‘Complaints and company activities’ and ‘Other’ can hardly be interpreted as travellers’ experiences and emotions. It can be assumed that students’ ability to observe, notice and articulate the transformations in the tourism sector depends on the domain which a transformation concerns. A similar conclusion can be reached if we look at the students’ entries regarding the remaining nine trends, but discussing them would go beyond the scope of this research.

3.3. COMPARING THE IMPACTS OF INDIVIDUAL TRENDS INDICATED BY STUDENTS WITH THE OPINIONS OF RESEARCHERS AND TRAVEL AGENTS

The research presented in the previous chapter was carried out in 2017-2019. It was, however, a continuation of a project conducted from 2010 which, despite a slightly different character and aims, largely corresponded to the issues presented above. It seems that those earlier studies fitted into the aims described in this article, therefore they will be presented below and used to provide answers to the research questions posed in this work.

The research was conducted in 2010-2012 among the employees and students of the University of Information Technology and Management in Rzeszów (at that time employing one of the authors of this article) as well as among employees of travel agencies in this city. The study was undertaken within the experimental framework of the ‘Tourism policy’ course (on the last year of MA studies, Tourism and Recreation major), during classes on the influence of megatrends on the functioning of the tourism market. The study was connected with work on a new method, currently referred to by different authors as the Sequential Analysis of Tourist Trends (Alejziak, 2012), which was being developed and ‘tested’ at that time during classes with students. Both, the method itself and the results were later used in the MA theses of three students who had access to the results (see Gałek, 2011; Kusiak, 2011; Pichura, 2011).

This study (from 2011) included three groups of respondents. The first one consisted of employees of the Faculty of Tourism Economy (FTE) at the University of

Table 7. Opinions about the impacts/implications of trend 4 – ‘information technologies’

Information Technologies	Students’ opinions – Number of respondents: N=33											
	Rank 1 – expressed by answer: strongly agree		Rank 2 – expressed by answer: agree		Rank 3: undecided		Rank 4: disagree		Rank 5: strongly disagree		Rank – total result	Ranking of impacts
	N – number of people	Rank – result	N – number of people	Rank – result	N – number of people	Rank – result	N – number of people	Rank – result	N – number of people	Rank – result	Total number of points	
Impact 1	26	26	5	10	1	3	0	0	1	5	44	I
Impact 2	16	16	16	32	0	0	0	0	1	5	53	II
Impact 3	7	7	13	26	1	3	9	36	3	15	87	VI
Impact 4	1	1	10	20	6	18	12	48	4	20	107	VII
Impact 5	10	10	19	38	0	0	4	16	0	0	64	III
Impact 6	8	8	13	26	3	9	6	24	3	15	82	V
Impact 7	9	9	18	36	3	9	2	8	1	5	67	IV
Information Technologies	Opinions of the Faculty of Tourism Economy employees – number of respondents: N=17											
	Rank 1 – expressed by answer: strongly agree		Rank 2 – expressed by answer: agree		Rank 3: undecided		Rank 4: disagree		Rank 5: strongly disagree		Rank – total result	Ranking of impacts
	N – number of people	Rank – result	N – number of people	Rank – result	N – number of people	Rank – result	N – number of people	Rank – result	N – number of people	Rank – result	Total number of points	
Impact 1	11	11	6	12	0	0	0	0	0	0	23	I
Impact 2	7	7	6	12	3	9	1	4	0	0	32	II
Impact 3	6	6	3	6	6	18	1	4	1	5	39	VI
Impact 4	3	3	5	10	5	15	4	16	0	0	44	VII
Impact 5	5	5	8	16	2	6	2	8	0	0	35	IV
Impact 6	6	6	6	12	4	12	0	0	1	5	35	IV
Impact 7	5	5	4	8	7	21	1	4	0	0	38	V
Information Technologies	Opinions of travel agency employees – number of respondents: N=76											
	Rank 1 – expressed by answer: strongly agree		Rank 2 – expressed by answer: agree		Rank 3: undecided		Rank 4: disagree		Rank 5: strongly disagree		Rank – total result	Ranking of impacts
	N – number of people	Rank– result	N – number of people	Rank – result	N – number of people	Rank – result	N – number of people	Rank – result	N – number of people	Rank – result	Total number of points	
Impact 1	43	43	30	60	2	6	1	4	0	0	113	I
Impact 2	35	35	36	72	2	6	3	12	0	0	125	II
Impact 3	12	12	37	74	8	24	17	68	2	10	188	VI
Impact 4	12	12	30	60	13	39	19	76	2	10	197	VII
Impact 5	23	23	40	80	10	30	3	12	0	0	145	III
Impact 6	17	17	28	56	11	33	20	80	0	0	186	V
Impact 7	19	19	36	72	13	39	6	24	2	10	164	IV

Note: compared to the research presented earlier, the Rzeszów studies identified one additional impact (No 6 – possibility of on-line purchase will result in later bookings).
Source: authors.

Information Technology and Management in Rzeszów who delivered 17 correctly filled-in paper questionnaires. The second research group was of 35 2nd year MA students of tourism and recreation (S) who provided detailed answers in 33 questionnaires (the remaining two were incomplete and were excluded). The last and the largest group were employees of Rzeszów travel agencies (TA) who filled in the questionnaire available on www.webankieta.pl. In total, 93 questionnaires were collected, 76 of which qualified for further analysis (17 were rejected due to a lack of some answers).

For the purpose of analysis, each variable and answer provided by the respondents was ascribed a rank, based on the assumption that the lower the value of the total result (rank-sum), the higher the probability that a given impact will occur as a consequence of the trend in question. Then again, the higher the value of the total result, the lower this probability. The aim was to create a ranking of the probability of occurrence of individual impacts, and indirectly to define the influence of individual trends in the tourism market. The result may be defined by ordering the impacts from 'l' to 'n', where 'n' signifies the number of analysed impacts, and matching the order from 'l' to 'nx', where 'nx' signifies the order of probability according to the adopted assumptions. As a result, the impact with the lowest value of the total result was the most probable and marked as 'I', and the impact with the highest value was least probable. The results of these analyses with reference to the two trends, 'information technologies' and 'experiences', are given below.

Table 7 presents the opinions of students, lecturers at the Faculty of Tourism Economy and employees of Rzeszow travel agencies. ETC and ETAG specialists' opinions most strongly agreed with respondents' opinions as regarding no 1, assuming that increasingly easy access to tourist information will allow tourists to obtain more data about a destination, as well as compare prices, and in this way will have a growing influence on competition. On the other hand, the respondents believed that the least probable impact was no 4: 'the internet will have a rapidly decreasing role in Polish tourism organizations'. All the answers are presented on the table. It is worth noting that that students' opinions demonstrated a greater similarity to those presented by the lecturers as regards the more probable impacts, and in the case of the less probable ones, the students' opinions were more similar to the statements of travel agency employees.

Interesting conclusions can be drawn from the comparison of the mean values of indicators on the probability of individual impacts which can be calculated by dividing the total value of all indicators in individual groups by their frequency. Here are the figures for impact 1: students – 1.333 (44:33); lecturers – 1.353 (23:17); travel agency employees – 1.487 (113:76). Thus, the figures are quite similar in all the groups. In the case of impact 4: students – 3.242 (107:33); lecturers – 2.588 (44:17), travel agency employees – 2.592 (197:76).

The analysis of the results, which involved defining the rank (order) of the probability of the analysed impacts (Table 8), reveals that all groups of respondents indicated exactly the same impacts which, they believed, were most (impact 1) and least (impact 7) probable. It is worth noting that students' and travel agency employees' opinions demonstrate exactly the same hierarchy of probability. Among Faculty of Tourism Economy (FTE) employees, opinions on impacts 5, 6, 7 were slightly different, though they still did not differ by more than one position in the ranking.

Table 8. Trend 4 – 'information technologies' – impact rankings compilation

	FTE employees	Students	TA employees
Impact 1	I	I	I
Impact 2	II	II	II
Impact 3	VI	VI	VI
Impact 4	VII	VII	VII
Impact 5	IV	III	III
Impact 6	IV	V	V
Impact 7	V	IV	IV

Source: authors.

As regards opinions about technological trends, the results for trend 9 ('Experiences') were completely different with the opinions in the impact rankings were clearly more diversified. Without going into much detail, let us just note (Table 9) that even if in all groups the respondents above all pointed to impact 1, the least probable were impact 5, indicated by students; impact 3, indicated by the FTE employees; and impact 4, indicated by travel agency employees.

Table 9. Trend 9 – 'experiences' – impact rankings compilation

	FTE employees	Students	TA employees
Impact 1	I	I	I
Impact 2	IV	III	IV
Impact 3	VI	IV	III
Impact 4	II	V	VI
Impact 5	IV	VI	V
Impact 6	V	II	II

Source: authors.

It appears, then, that the students' intuitive indicators did not differ much from those based on the knowledge and experience of university and travel agency employees who professionally deal with monitoring the situation on the tourism market.

4. CONCLUSIONS

The discussion presented in the article shows characteristic features of students who can participate in research on the identification and forecasting of transformations in tourism. However, before we present the profile of a student as a 'specialist', let us note that the results of the study positively verified the questions at the beginning of the article. The students included in the study critically assessed the world around them, which was expressed by allocating a low probability to some impacts considered by specialists to be significant. Moreover, the students were able to refer to what they had learned during their university study as well as to their observations of surrounding reality, and supplementing the set of impacts they had been presented with by their own indicators and ideas. Although this particular theme was not developed as part of the research results analysis presented here, it is worth adding that student respondents were willing to add their own impacts concerning the trends which they analysed as part of their chosen specialisation (this was particularly clear among students specializing in 'SPA centres management' who gladly expressed their opinions about the 'Health' trend).

Research question 1 ('Does the student have objective knowledge and analytical skills which allows her/him to reflect on the complex and multifaceted sphere of tourism?') can be answered affirmatively, with two reservations. The results confirmed that students had knowledge which enabled them to approach the extremely complex reality of tourism with understanding, and they were, to a large extent, able to assume attitudes to its various dimensions. It could be detected, however, that there are areas in which they felt more confident and were more willing to express their views (e.g. demography, information technologies) than other fields where the statements were more limited (e.g. those regarding experiences), but this may be regarded as quite natural. Moreover, the analytical skills, mentioned above, can be classified (at least on the basis of the research presented here) as rather soft, connected with the ability to associate and connect certain phenomena or facts. In the course of our research, hard skills, connected with an aptitude to perform tasks related to market analysis, were not verified.

Question 2 ('Is the student capable of taking a critical attitude to the trends, identified by specialists, which define transformations in the sphere of tourism?') can also be answered affirmatively. Students' assessments oscillated between answers 'strongly agree' and 'agree' (which was confirmed in comparative studies among students, university employees and travel agency employees) which can hardly be criticised. We should note, however, that students relatively rarely chose the answer 'undecided', so they turned out to be decisive as regards holding their own position.

The answer to question 3 ('Is the student able to creatively develop the set of trends describing the transformations identified by specialists, supplementing it with accurate indicators based on their own knowledge, personal experience, intuition, etc.?') cannot be confirmed. On the one hand, the picture that emerged from the entire sample seems quite optimistic, as the students extended the set of impacts they had been given with several dozen indicators of their own with reference to each of the trends. On the other hand, however, those additional indicators were from the whole sample. For instance, with reference to trend 5 ('Information technologies'), students added 60 impacts but they were individual indicators. Thus, taking into consideration the number of respondents (n=95), it is easy to notice that there were only 0.6 original ideas per student. This result must be regarded as quite modest, considering the fact that we are talking about long-term phenomena and not only in tourism. Leaving aside the respondents' potential unwillingness to make a mental effort by writing an individual, well thought-out, entry in the questionnaire (typical for a survey), it seems that students collectively are creative and their observations may accurately supplement specialists' opinions, but an average (statistical) student does not present a satisfactory level in this respect. As a group, students seem to be valuable participants for a brain storm type of study, but in order to prepare more specific projections, it seems necessary to conduct a selection among the students' collective. Hence, we consider engaging students in preliminary, project, pilot, etc. research to be sensible.

Based on our observations, we may positively, though with caution, verify the research hypothesis proposed in this article ('Tourism students are able to notice trends in tourism which fit in with specialist indicators'). The general picture of students, emerging from the several studies presented here, is on the whole positive. Students collectively turned out to be decisive and creative, making many valuable observations of their surrounding reality and were able to articulate them convincingly. The average picture of a student as an individual is slightly different. It shows a person with considerable knowledge, but not very willing to formulate extended statements regarding the predicted impacts of individual trends. It must be remembered, however, that this last conclusion may be, at least partly, the result of the method that was chosen which might have encouraged only some students to express their opinions. In the light of this, it seems that engaging students in the role of 'specialists' skilfully (organizing team research, an attractive research formula, raising respondents' self-appreciation, etc.) may prove to be a valuable element in research by specialists.

Finally, it must be emphasised that the trends and impacts assessed by the students were somewhat 'historical', i.e. established by specialists about ten years earlier (in the first decade of the 21st century). The original research method gradually evolved and from the point of view of the aims of this work, it made sense to present the results using an extended questionnaire. It should also be remembered that even if the trends and their impacts have lost their clarity, they have not become outdated in any significant way. This is proved by the long-lasting nature of trends themselves, the relatively generalised way of formulating them, as well as the confrontation with more current sets of trends presented in the literature on the subject. In recent years, many new prognostic reports and works analysing trends on the tourism market have been published (e.g. Amadeus, 2020; CREST, 2019; CTD, 2018; EU, 2017; Expedia, 2017; Future Fundation, 2009; Geerts, 2018; Harwath HTL, 2015; KPMG, Movat, 2013; Mazars, 2018; Nordin, 2005; OECD, 2018, 2020; Scott, Gössling, 2015; UNWTO, 2011; WT&TC, Bloomberg, 2019). However, their analyses indicate that the forecasts and trends presented earlier were basically correct and, in most cases, we can expect them to continue.

ENDNOTES

[1] The essence of a megatrend was aptly expressed by Muszyński (2006, p. 89), who wrote that "…the term is defined by phenomena, processes and events referring to the main domains of human life, i.e. economic, social, political, cultural relationships, as well as human awareness, which, in the process of development, acquire the character of stable tendencies, increasingly influencing and penetrating the whole humanity; they were formed in different conditions and depended on different factors and causative mechanisms, as a result of the civilizational development of mankind and, starting from the second half of the 20th century, they have been gaining in importance and penetrating deeper and deeper into the life of societies". This issue has been discussed more broadly by Naisbitt (1982). A microtrend, in turn, signifies phenomena occurring in small communities (often as opposed to the mainstream), while the term "vogue" refers to phenomena of varying range of influence, but short-term and often generated by business, celebrities, etc. (Hajdas, Izabela-Pasierbińska, 2016).

[2] Many authors quote the classification proposed by Cole (2007), including forecasting, predicting, survey and specialist research.

[3] The review of universities and courses with respect to tourism is included in: Długosz, Biały (2011).

[4] The question of the multidisciplinary character of tourism studies is discussed in: Ozimek, Rutkiewicz (2011).

[5] Let us stress that the multifacetedness of tourism studies is not a new phenomenon – it has always been typical (see, e.g.: Kruczek, 1998).

[6] As it was mentioned earlier, the questionnaire modifications are the reason why the authors of this article did not include the analysis of one of the 11 studied trends – "Economy". The notes regarding the impacts/implications of this trend were changing in subsequent years.

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UNIVERSITY EDUCATION AND LEVELS OF SOCIAL COMPETENCE IN TOURISM AND RECREATION STUDENTS

Abstract: Social competences are one of the most important areas of an individual's functioning in the surrounding environment. They are so important that, apart from knowledge and skills, they have become one of higher education's outcomes. The level of social competence depends not only on the internal qualities of an individual but also on environmental factors. This article aims to present the findings of research concerning the level of social competences attained by students of tourism and recreation throughout their higher education and comprises quantitative and qualitative research methods. The results indicate that students show only average levels of social competence even though their academic teachers declare that education outcomes have been accomplished in this field.

Keywords: social competences, higher education, students of tourism and recreation.

1. INTRODUCTION

Social competences are an essential element (ability) that makes it possible for an individual to function effectively in society (Argyle, 1998; Goleman, 1997). However, it is quite difficult to define social competences, and this has caused much controversy among psychologists from various fields who disagree on its definition, such as the one stated above. In the literature, the term is frequently used interchangeably with social, interpersonal, interactive, or communication skills (Jakubowska, 1996). According to Argyle (1999), social competence is an ability, the mastery of social skills, which make it possible to generate the desired effect in social relationships. The author also points to two categories of social skills: common social skills that every person needs, and professional social skills that are necessary for many occupations. Jakubowska (1996) assumes that social competences comprise such elements of a relationship as mental dispositions and the ability to receive and send messages that are congruent with a situational pattern or an individual's set goal. This is, therefore, the communicative dimension to social competence. The interpersonal approach has been conceptualized by Spitzberg and Cupach (2002) who proposed static and dynamic understandings of social competence. The former assumes that interpersonal skills are behaviours that aim at establishing, maintaining and ending human relationships, while the latter describes them as intentional behaviours, adapted to the situation, learned, and controlled by the individual.

Greenspan (1981) defines social competence as a disposition that determines success in interpersonal relationships, and that it depends on intellectual abilities and personality traits. Matczak (2001), on the other hand, extends the concept and adds the interaction of personality and intellectual factors with the environment in which a person functions where a significant role is played by so-called social training, i.e. the actions taken by an individual during the course of their lives. It is, therefore, an interactive model.

2. SOCIAL COMPETENCES AS A PART OF UNIVERSITY EDUCATION

Social competences do not only play a key role in the modern world, but they also constitute one of the three main elements of higher education outcomes under the Recommendation of the European Parliament and the Council of 23 April 2008 on the establishment of the

European Qualifications Framework (EQF) (*Europejskie Ramy Kwalifikacji…*, 2008; see also: Bereźnicki, 2011; Nowakowska, Pietkiewicz, 2016)[1].

Learning outcomes express what an individual knows, understands, and is able to do at the end of a learning process, and are characterized by three categories – knowledge, skills and competences (*Europejskie Ramy Kwalifikacji…,* 2009). In Poland, these categories have been defined by the Polish Qualifications Framework (PQF) (Chłoń-Domińczak, Sławiński, Kraśniewski, 2015; Rydzewska-Włodarczyk, 2017; Sławiński, 2017).

Learning outcomes offer a means by which attention can be focused on the actual achievements of students, and this represents a more realistic and genuine measure of the value of education than measures of teaching input (Maher, 2004). Learning outcomes are strongly integrated into the study programme, and as Kraśniewski (2009) points out, because of their meaning for the educational process, outcomes should be measurable and measured by the educational institution. Therefore, the student's qualifications are confirmed by an appropriate diploma.

This research aimed to determine the levels of social competence among students of tourism and recreation at the University of Physical Education in Kraków (AWF), and its characteristics have been included in a document entitled *Description of learning outcomes (Opis kierunkowych efektów kształcenia dla studiów I stopnia…*, 2020; *Opis kierunkowych efektów kształcenia dla studiów II stopnia…*, 2020).

The description of learning outcomes for first degree studies states that students who, within the adopted educational framework, attend lectures and participate on exercises, camps and internships should attain social competences that include the skills to:

- complement and improve qualifications through the autonomous acquisition of knowledge and skills in the selected professional specialty;
- realistically assess their abilities and competences, in particular, perform reliably and safely tasks in the field of tourism and recreation;
- be guided by the principles of professional ethics;
- demonstrate care for the safety of those participating in recreational activities and tourist events;
- work in a team;
- communicate effectively with people, including under stress, provide them with information related to a programme of activities and ensure safety, as well as correctly interpret the expectations of participants in the activities;
- make participants with different educational backgrounds, interested in tourist events and recreational activities using appropriate knowledge, and methodology;
- express opinions on professional matters related to tourism and recreation (*Opis kierunkowych efektów kształcenia dla studiów I stopnia…*, 2020).

Whereas, the learning outcomes for second-degree students should include:

- autonomously complement their knowledge, realistically assess competences, be aware of their limitations, but also those that result from the need to protect the interests of others;
- perceive and formulate ethical problems related to their work;
- demonstrate leadership towards a team as well as towards participants in tourist and leisure activities;
- assess the conditions of task realization and define priorities for the activities aimed at their achievement;
- take responsibility for a team carrying out a task;
- manage tasks in a way that ensures the safety of co-workers and participants of tourist events and recreational activities;
- formulate independent opinions on selected aspects of professional activity in the field of tourism and recreation, based on factual arguments;
- be enterprising (*Opis kierunkowych efektów kształcenia dla studiów II stopnia…*, 2020).

Such a definition of academic learning outcomes in the context of social competences clearly indicates how broad, but also how incoherent and intuitive at times, is the understanding of this category in higher education.

There are discrepancies between the description of social competences realized within the tourism and recreation course at the University of Physical Education in Kraków (AWF) and the definitions proposed by Argyle (1999), Jakubowska (1996) and Greenspan (1981), which require further unification and a clear and unambiguous definition.

Social competences stated in the Polish Qualifications Framework (Chłoń-Domińczak, Sławiński, Kraśniewski, Chmielecka, 2017) refer to a wide range of pro-social or even ethical behaviours. In the tourism and recreation courses at the University of Physical Education in Kraków (AWF), social competences refer to practical dimensions and focus on a graduate's functioning in the industry related to their field of study (*Opis kierunkowych efektów kształcenia dla studiów I stopnia…*, 2020; *Opis kierunkowych efektów kształcenia dla studiów II stopnia…*, 2020) which involves a wide range of situations requiring interpersonal and relational skills.

In the current study, the biggest challenge, however, was to define the social competences shaped in a group of students. Should we assume their purposefulness (Argyle, 1998), i.e. social effectiveness, or the interpersonal approach (Spitzberg, Cupach, 2002), i.e. the ability to create healthy and effective social relationships. Indeed, a precise definition of social competences within the learning outcomes framework would facilitate a better design of the pedagogical means and methods needed to acquire them.

Given such a broad and fuzzy conceptualization of social competences, the analysis of this phenomenon in the context of academic education implies the inclusion of the concept that is a) most universal, and b) covers the broadest range of social situations. Their understanding, following Greenspan (1981), as an individual variable of personality that determines interpersonal success, based on the interaction of temperamental, social, and intellectual factors, best meets these needs. Additional experiential value is provided by the development of the model developed by Matczak (2001) which proposes an interactive approach extending it to the interaction with the environment. In her concept, the author defines social competences as complex skills that enable individuals to regulate emotions and cope with various social situations effectively. Thus, it has been chosen for the present study where social competences are acquired based on individual predispositions and social training. According to this model, academic influence as broadly understood, is structured and purposeful, and is considered one of the elements of social training. It is worth noting that its intensity is determined by individual characteristics (personalityth and temperament), and its effectiveness is moderated by the level of intellectual development. These factors work in interaction with each other, and the individual is formed by education and socialisation, while at the same time manifesting his or her activity in shaping personality and identity.

3. UNIVERSITY EDUCATION AS A FORM OF SOCIAL TRAINING

Insight into the role of academic education as social training is the key to understanding the diversity of social competences in a group of tourism and recreation students. In the interactive concept of shaping social competences, academic education is conceived as an element of training which, together with student temperamental and personality traits, determines the effectiveness of these activities. Thus, the analysis of the interaction of social competences and academic influences in a tourism and recreation course requires the inclusion of, at least to some extent, situational and personal perspectives while taking into account developmental dynamics.

Accordingly, social competences can be shaped during so-called training which, at the academic level, relates to the implementation of the educational programme. Interaction with academic teachers and the teaching methods used during lectures, exercises, laboratories, camps and fieldwork, as well as interaction with potential or current employers during internships, and also participation in the Erasmus programme, are key factors. As Nowak-Dziemianowicz (2012) puts it, education is the type of social training that must meet local, national, and global needs.

Nevertheless, it is surprising that the assessment of learning outcomes in the context of the continuously growing role of social competences, is performed without any external criteria, at a subjective and arbitrary level. There is only limited feedback in the form of student self-assessment and lecturer assessment. This is perhaps due to the fact that the formation of study programmes based on the European and Polish Qualification Framework gives universities far-reaching autonomy to determine faculties, study plans, and educational outcomes (Chmielecka, 2010; Nowak-Dziemianowicz, 2012). As a result, there is no objective system that would provide their adequate evaluation at the academic level and at the later stage of a graduate»s life. What is more, there is a surprisingly limited number of publications on such an important issue (Pacana, Woźny, Sobczyńska, 2016; Piróg, 2016; Rocki, 2018; Smółka, 2008), and in the case of the tourism and recreation area, they require updating (Rozycki, 1998).

One of the key factors that determine the effectiveness of training is knowledge about the initial level and quality of competences already acquired as well as accurate and reliable feedback on performance. While we possess some knowledge of the social competences of employees in the tourism sector (Alejziak, 2014; Burzyński, 2019), the initial level of these competences in students admitted to the university is unknown. Academic education should aim to prepare students for the labour market, i.e. to meet the needs and expectations of employers, and while we know what knowledge and skills the student has after secondary education, the levels of social competence can only be based on assumptions.

4. PURPOSE AND METHOD

The research aimed to determine the levels of social competence of students of the tourism and recreation faculty and their interaction with educational experiences at an academic level. It was assumed that the level should increase throughout the academic course, in particular through participation on professional practice and the Erasmus international exchange programme in a culturally diverse environment. The study sought to answer to what extent higher education differentiates the levels of social competence of tourism and recreation students between undergraduate and

graduate studies. To further clarify the problem, some detailed research questions were posed:
1. What are the levels of social competence of those studying tourism and recreation?
2. Does the experience of academic education differentiate students of tourism and recreation in terms of social competences?
3. What is the relationship between participation on the exchange programmes for international student education, such as the Erasmus programme and others, and the levels of social competence?
4. What is the relationship between the internships of tourism and recreation students and their levels of social competence?

In order to determine the levels of social competence, Matczak's (2001) Social Competence Questionnaire (SCQ) was used to determine the levels and scope of students' social competence in three areas:
– effectiveness of behaviour in social exposure situations (S.E.),
– effectiveness of behaviour in situations requiring assertiveness (A),
– effectiveness of behaviour in intimate situations (I).

The SCQ is a standardised psychological tool[2] that is used to analyse the selected social competences. It has been tested for validity and reliability. The SCQ contains self-description questions about social activities (60 items) and other non-social activities (30 items).

The author's own questionnaire for the Self-Assessment of Student's Professional Achievement, to determine the following elements of education: type of secondary school completed and class profile, year of study, grades obtained, participation in internships (their length and the grade received), participation on international educational exchange programmes such as Erasmus and others, involvement in a second field of study. The questionnaire included categorised questions on a 5-point Likert scale and open-ended questions about students' professional development perceptions[3].

In order to determine the levels of social competence in the group of tourism and recreation students, the results of the research were subjected to statistical analysis and the Statistica 10 program (StatSoft Polska) was applied to carry it out. Intergroup differences were examined using a Student's t-test for independent variables, Mann-Whitney U test (when the numbers were too small, or the distribution of results was not close to a standard), single-factor analysis of ANOVA variance (when comparing more than two groups) and two-factor analysis of MANOVA variance to examine group × gender interaction. For correlational analysis, Pearson's r and Spearman rho tests were used. A test probability at the level $p < 0.05$ was assumed to be significant, and a test probability at the level $p < 0.01$ and $p < 0.001$ was considered to be highly significant.

Preliminary analysis of the findings of the Social Competence Questionnaire consisted in calculating the results obtained from the SCQ scales: Intimate Contacts Scale (I), Social Exposure Scale (E.S.), Assertiveness Scale (A) and calculation of the total raw result (Total R.R.).

The selection of the research group was purposeful, based on the selected, full-time field of study. Thus, the participants were full-time students of tourism and recreation at the University of Physical Education in Kraków (AWF). The research was conducted in 2019, face to face during classes, using the traditional paper version of research tools. The researcher aimed to attract as many respondents as possible. In total, 660 students were enrolled in the course that year but participation in the research was voluntary. After presenting the purpose of the study and its rationale, the questionnaire "Self-assessment of Student's Professional Achievements" was filled in by 511 students, and the Social Competence Questionnaire by 442.

The respondents were therefore divided into three groups: 1st year (1 BA), 2nd and 3rd year students of undergraduate studies (2-3 BA), and the 1st and 2nd year of supplementary MA studies (MA). This division facilitates greater transparency in the presentation of results. However, the analysis conducted for each group did not show the intended effect as differences between the groups were not significant.

5. RESULTS

5.1. THE SAMPLE

The majority of participants were female (73%), and only one in three respondents was male (27%). The pattern was repeated in all three groups (1 BA: 69.6%; 30.4%; 2-3 BA: 77.0%; 23%; MA: 71.2%; 28.8%) – Figure 1.

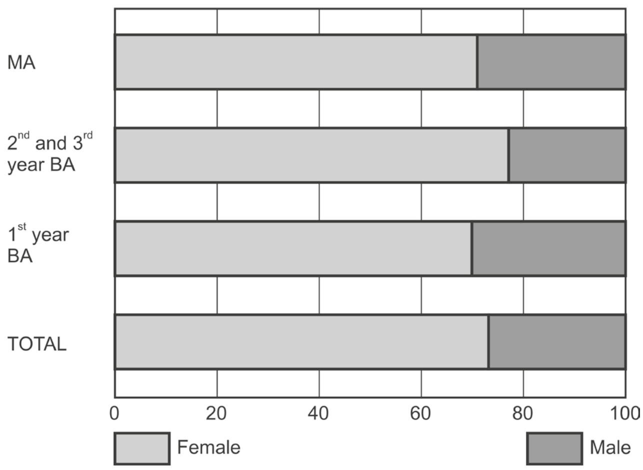

Figure 1. Gender of participants
Source: author

Most of the respondents graduated from a *liceum* (74.21%), but a quarter of students had completed a technical secondary school (25.79%). A similar pattern was observed at 1 BA (70.06%; 29.94%), 2-3 BA (74.88%; 25.12%), and MA (78.26%; 21.74%) levels Figure 2.

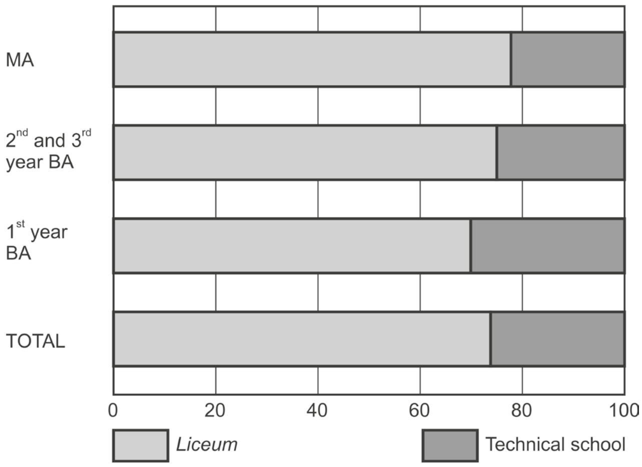

Figure 2. Type of secondary school completed
Source: author

As far as learning achievements (Figure 3), most of the students had received 'good' (60.2%), 'sufficient' (26.2%), or 'very good' grades (13.6%). A similar pattern was repeated in all three groups: 1 BA (62.7%; 22.3%; 15.1%), 2-3 BA (58.9%; 29.7%, 11.4%) and MA (59.0%; 25.9%; 15.1%). Therefore, the students of tourism and recreation, in general, can be classified as achievers. It is worth highlighting that more than every tenth surveyed student (15.46%) was also enrolled on a second course (thus, only 84.54% studied only tourism and recreation at AWF). The group who attended another course, consisted of MA students (28.1%), almost every third one. On the other hand, on BA studies, it concerned about every tenth respondent (1 BA: 9.5%; 2-3 BA: 11.8%) – Figure 4.

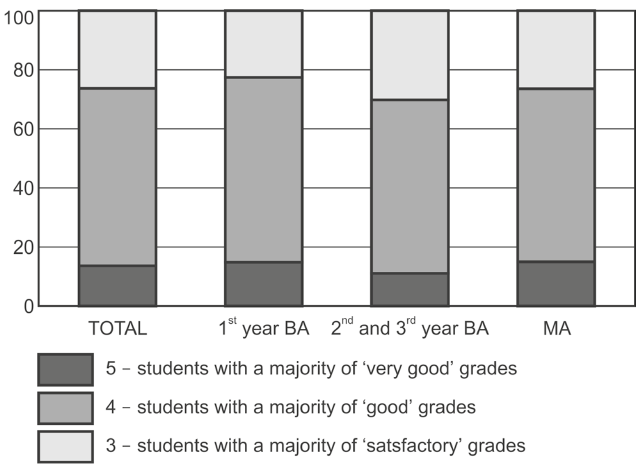

Figure 3. Grades obtained according to respondents
Source: author

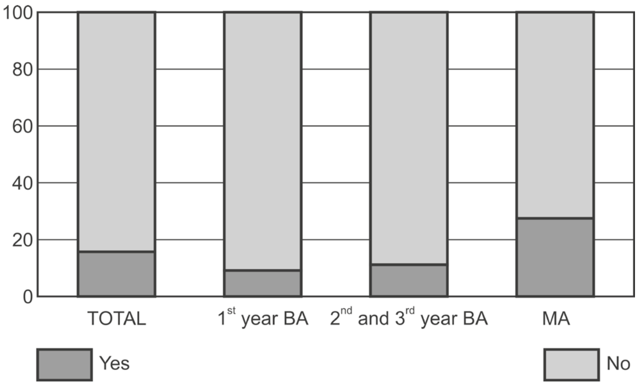

Figure 4. Participation in the second course
Source: author

5.2. THE LEVELS OF COMPETENCE AMONG STUDENTS OF TOURISM AND RECREATION

A MANOVA analysis was used to determine the differences in the levels of social competence between the examined groups, i.e. BA and MA students (with simultaneous consideration of their gender). The results indicating statistically significant differences between the examined groups on an ICS scale (competences determine the effectiveness of behaviour in intimate situations) ($F(2, 442) = 3.129$; $\eta^2_p = 0.014$; $p = 0.045$). Post hoc analysis showed that 2-3 BA students have a statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) higher level of these competences as compared to 1-2 MA, the value of the sub-segmentary eta square ($\eta^2_p > 0.014$) indicates a strong effect (Miles, Shevlin 2001; Cohen 1988; Cohen, Cohen, West, Aiken 2003). No statistically significant differences were found between students of particular years of study, as regards gender, and interaction: group × gender ($p > 0.05$).

Descriptive statistics from the SCQ questionnaire are presented on Table 1. The results of statistical analysis presented in the next part of the study refer to these values (averages and standard deviations) in order to indicate intergroup differences.

Additionally, the results were converted into standard (sten) results for the student population. At all scales, the mean sten scores were between 5-6. This confirms that the students of tourism and recreation show an average level of social competence which is in line with another group of students in Matczak (2001).

Interestingly, a similar result, i.e. an average level of social competence, had been obtained in a study conducted by Wierzejska (2016), who used the same research tool among graduates of humanities (journalism and social communication, sociology, psychology, and pedagogy), and science (chemistry, biology and biotechnology, geography) at Maria Curie-Skłodowska University in Lublin.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics for the SCQ in the studied groups

		BA studies						MA studies			Total		
		1st year			2nd and 3rd year			1st and 2nd year					
Scale SCQ		F (N=82)	M (N=33)	T (N=115)	F (N=149)	M (N=45)	T (N=194)	F (N=96)	M (N=37)	T (N=133)	F (N=327)	M (N=115)	T (N=442)
ICS	M	46.8	45.0	46.3	46.7	47.6	46.9	45.7	44.7	45.4	46.4	45.9	46.3
	SD	6.1	7.0	6.4	6.4	5.3	6.1	5.2	5.8	5.4	6.0	6.1	6.0
SES	M	54.1	53.0	53.8	52.6	50.1	52.0	52.1	52.1	52.1	52.8	51.6	52.5
	SD	9.6	10.0	9.7	9.3	10.3	9.6	7.5	7.3	7.4	8.9	9.4	9.0
AS	M	49.1	49.4	49.2	47.8	47.2	47.7	47.0	47.6	47.2	47.9	48.0	47.9
	SD	8.3	9.3	8.6	8.6	7.7	8.4	7.2	7.1	7.1	8.1	8.0	8.1
Result Total	M	181.8	178.3	180.8	179.2	176.4	178.5	176.4	176.0	176.3	179.0	176.8	178.4
	SD	24.1	27.6	25.1	23.9	23.3	23.7	19.3	20.4	19.5	22.7	23.6	22.9

Key: F – females; M – males; T – total; I – competences determining the effectiveness of behaviour in intimate situations; E.S. – competences determining the effectiveness of behaviour in social exposure situations; A – competences determining the effectiveness of behaviour in situations requiring assertiveness.

Source: author.

5.3. INTERNSHIPS

Internships are integral element of university education and the educational programme in the field of tourism and recreation and students are placed in companies that provide tourist or recreational services. The aims of the internship are to acquire further practical skills, develop key graduate attributes and skills, gain working experience, and accept responsibility for tasks, develop attitudes and standards appropriate to career objectives (Busby, 2003), but also provide important opportunities for training that can affect students' expectations and perceptions of career choices in the tourism industry (Kim, Park, 2013). What is more, the internship helps students to confront theory with practice (Busby, 2003) and prepare the student to enter the labour market.

The most frequently mentioned social competences in this category are teamwork skills, communication skills, and ethics (e.g., awareness and taking responsibility for one's actions), which are the elements of learning outcomes (Klimkiewicz, 2015; Maertz, Stoeberl, Marks, 2014; Narayanan, Olk, Fukami, 2010; Templeton, Updyke, Bennett, 2012; Ward, Yates, 2013).

Therefore, this study also sought to determine whether the internships related to the respondents' level of social competence. The length of the internships accomplished by the participants depended on the year of study, and type of secondary school, i.e. *liceum* or technical school[4]. The results have shown that the majority of students (41.9%) completed internships that lasted one month, and the sample consisted of 3rd year BA who had completed a *liceum*. Other respondents took part in slightly longer internships. One out of five students participated in a two-month internship (19.0%), a three-month internship (10.0%), a four-month internship (3.1%), and a five-month internship (2.5%). The most extended internship, i.e., the five-month one, was carried out by second-year MA students who had graduated from a technical school of hotel, catering and tourism. However, 23.5% of the respondents did not complete any internship at the time of the research.

The vast majority of respondents (87.8%) received a 'very good' grade (A) from the internship, others (11.0%) received a 'good' grade (B), and a small group (1.2%) received a 'sufficient' grade (C).

The analysis using Pearson's r test did not find any statistically significant correlation between the internship completed by students at secondary school (technical school), at the university or on any of the Social Competence Questionnaire scale.

5.4. INTERNATIONAL EXCHANGES AND SOCIAL COMPETENCES

Another dimension of academic experience is participation on an international exchange programme such as Erasmus or other. A multicultural environment might significantly influence the differentiation of social competences among the students who have participated. The Erasmus programme, as confirmed by many studies, facilitates the acquisition of knowledge, provides opportunities for gaining international experience and professional qualifications, supports versatile personal and social development (Alejziak, 2018a; 2018b; Cvikl, Artic, 2013; Dhiman, 2012; Dolga, Filipescu, Popescu-Mitroi, Mazilescu, 2015; Krawczyk-Bryłka, 2014; Milne, Cowie, 2013).

The research shows that more than one out of ten students (12.4%) participated in an exchange. Thus, 87.6% did not take advantage of this opportunity.The following criteria were taken into account: the stay in general, the duration, the aims (educational, educational plus internship, internship). The results showed that, on average, the stay lasted from one-ten months at secondary and university levels. However, an educational exchange for university students usually took one or two semesters, and internships and practice varied in length and depended on the needs of employers abroad.

The 1st year students declared they usually had spent one to three months abroad while at secondary school. The longest time (5-10 months) was found in the group of MA students. The aims of the stays were diverse. The highest number of outgoing students had participated in educational stays abroad (65.8%), every fourth student (23.7%) went on an internship, and every tenth (10.5%) combined education with an internship. As far as the groups of undergraduate and graduate students are concerned, the distribution of percentages showed similar pattern (1 BA: 61.8%; 20.6%; 17.6%; 2-3 BA: 69.6%; 26.1%; 4.3%; MA: 68.4%; 26.3%, 5.3%).

No statistically significant differences were found between the levels of social competence on any dimension between students who participated in exchange programmes and those who did not ($p > 0.05$). Moreover, the length of stay did not indicate any significant correlation with the results of the SCQ ($p > 0.05$). The aim of travel (educational, educational plus internship, internship) did not differentiate the respondents in terms of their social competences.

6. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The level of social competence determines the quality of relations with other people as well as interpersonal effectiveness and attractiveness. People who possess a high level of social competence have the ability to cooperate, are able to work in a team, solve conflicts and work more effectively (Bandach, 2013; Smółka, 2008). Social competences are, in particular, useful in tourism and recreation services where work is based on the so-called soft skills (Yururur, Koc, Taskin, Boz, 2018) – the role of which is expected to grow (Czarnik et al., 2019). Soft skills are perceived as critical skills for employment in general, but they also enhance the employability of graduates within the tourism and hospitality industry. Employers seek to take on comprehensively educated employees that are not only knowledgeable but also competent in both technical and interpersonal skills (Chan, 2011).

The present research assumed that academic activity, the educational programme, and the learning outcomes in the area of social competences constitute an effective form of social training for students of tourism and recreation. It was also asserted that quantitative and qualitative changes to social competences take place in the course of Bachelor's and Master's degree programmes. Therefore, older students are expected to score more highly on the Social Competence Questionnaire scales than their younger counterparts. This study has not confirmed that notion. Nonetheless, social training is just one of the dimensions that determine the acquisition and effectiveness of social competences. The other two comprise the temperamental and intellectual traits of an individual. According to Matczak (2001), the interplay of all three factors constitutes a category that a curriculum and its effectiveness aspire to. Consequently, without knowledge about students' temperamental traits, or level of intelligence (in particular social intelligence), only a specific part of the resulting variability in the social competence category can be explained reliably.

Surprisingly, the students with shorter academic experience scored higher in social competences only on the I scale (competences determining the effectiveness of behaviour in intimate situations). However, it should be noted that the present study had a cross-sectional design, and in this particular education context, the students did not constitute a homogeneous group. Additionally, the verification that learning outcomes, in particular, social competences have been attained in an academic context, is declarative and based on the subjective evaluation of an academic teacher, rather than an external criterion.

It was asserted that students' participation on international exchange programmes (educational and internships) is associated with a higher level of social competence. Interestingly, the findings did not confirm this notion for any of the considered criteria, such as the type of stay (to study, work, or study and work), nor the length of the programme (from 1 to 10 months). Thus, participation on international exchange programmes was unrelated to the development of social competences among students.

Other benefits of foreign exchange programmes have been identified in Alejziak's research (2018a) such as improvement in foreign languages, acquiring and broadening general knowledge, learning the culture of the visited country, knowing other educational methods, improving the ability to cope with difficult life situations, and becoming more responsible. The experience of learning and working abroad has been found to predict an increase in cultural sensitivity (Yurur, Koc, Taskin, Boz, 2018). Additionally, Jacob, Kühhirt, Rodrigues (2019) pointed to the superiority of academic education in Western Europe in the opinion of young people. Other research revealed that students who go abroad do not consciously consider their personal development goals (Petzold, Moog, 2018), and sometimes treat the exchange programme as a great adventure and entertainment (Alejziak, 2019). It should also be noted that these participants had not filled out a standardized psychological tool examining social competences, but a survey concerning their opinions.

Professional practice is an integral part of academic training, and it reflects the working environment of a selected profession. Therefore, it was assumed that the length of internship and the grade obtained by students would mediate their level of social competence. However, the majority of the students received 'very good' grades from internships, and the groups were hard to differentiate. Also, the acquisition of social competences is considered a process, and thus the duration time of internships that are 1 to 5-months long is undoubtedly too short to notice any effects. Nevertheless, the internships constitute an important stage in the life of a young person (although very short), and affect their development.

The findings of the present research seem quite surprising in light of the existing data and interestingly, no differences across the three groups of students were found. Having assumed that social competences are shaped in the course of academic education, it could be expected that these skills would develop along with the academic seniority of the students. The average score obtained by the participants in terms of social competences might result from a shared conviction that the role of a university is to educate. What is more, many academic teachers believe that their role is to 'teach'. Wasielewski (2014) points out that, even though academics declare and assume the importance of academic teaching, it is clear that they focus more on academic work which determines their development and professional advancement.

On the other hand, Brzezińska and colleagues (2011) noticed that the contemporary young exhibit features of 'deferred adulthood', which leads to entering adulthood later in life. Thus, the period of study is considered as additional time to shape their identity and personality (Brzezińska, Kaczan, Piotrowski, Rękosiewicz, 2011).

The present research had a cross-sectional design. For this reason, results that indicate a lack of differences between groups in subsequent years, and the levels of social competence attained assumed by academic teachers, should be interpreted very carefully. The two-stage system of education and recruitment at universities results in the fact that the students in the third group (MA) are potentially graduates of other universities, and sometimes even other faculties. Thus, the finding confirms the initial assumption concerning the need for evaluation of these competences. Also, the forms for the assessment of social competences should have methodological validity and reliability while assuming student privacy. The criteria for self-evaluation and the arbitrary assessment by lecturers are too subjective to flexibly modify the objectives related to the development of social competences in the student population.

Another discussion area is the nature of the goals. Social competences are personality traits, and their development requires targeted actions that are developing or corrective, but sometimes only intensive, workshop-like interventions can produce desired results (Muralidhar et al., 2016). The goal should be autonomy for the students themselves who must demonstrate not only motivation but also readiness for change.

ENDNOTES

[1] Instead of the term 'learning outcomes,' the term 'teaching outcomes' is also used, which are often treated as synonyms. The prime goal of the modern educational process is to make – the student 'learn', as opposed to 'be taught,' as a result of appropriate teaching methods. In this sense, the term 'learning outcomes' is more relevant to contemporary educational requirements than the more commonly used and accepted name 'teaching outcomes' (Chmielecka, 2010; Poczmańska, Stęchły, 2018). Sławiński (2016) explains, however, that in the Act (2005) – Law on Higher Education, there is a distinction between teaching outcomes that are attained in the teaching process within the study system and learning outcomes that are achieved in the learning process outside the study system. This distinction does not exist outside higher education (*Ustawa*, 2005).

[2] Research and psychological consultations in the interpretation of the results: Katarzyna Supernat, M.Sc. Katarzyna Supernat, assistant at the Faculty of Physical Education and Sport, Institute of Social Sciences, Department of Psychology AWF Kraków.

[3] The Questionnaire for the Self-Assessment of Students' Professional Achievements aimed to determine students' the professional development at various stages of education, including: professional plans, motives for studing tourism and recreation, foreign languages, educational, professional, sporting achievements, professional interests, professional courses and trainings, obtained qualifications confirmed by diplomas or certificates, level and scope of professional experience, i.e. seniority, positions held in the tourism industry sector and other sectors of economy, etc.

[4] In accordance with Annex No. 8 to the Regulation of the Minister of National Education of 7 February 2012 on framework teaching plans in public schools (*Załącznik*, 2012), apprenticeships in a technical school shall be implemented in the dimension specified in the curriculum basis for education in professions, in the class determined by the headmaster of the technical school. The dimension of hours of apprenticeship for individual professions is specified in the Regulation of the Minister of National Education of 7 February 2012 on the core curriculum of education in professions (*Rozporządzenie*, 2012). The student shall be directed to complete a professional practice in the dimension specified in the said Regulation. The provisions of the Regulation of the Minister of National Education of 15 December 2010 on practical vocational training (*Rozporządzenie*, 2010) also apply to vocational training. In accordance with the provision of § 4(3) of the aforementioned regulation, apprenticeships are organised for students in order to apply and deepen the acquired knowledge and professional skills under real working conditions. However, in accordance with the provision of § 4.6 of the said regulation, the scope of knowledge and skills acquired by students during practical classes and apprenticeships, as well as the hours of such classes and apprenticeships shall be determined

by the curriculum for a given profession approved for use in a given school by the headmaster (*Praktyka zawodowa*, 2020). On the Tourism and Recreation course at the Academy of Physical Education in Kraków, the number of work placement hours is stated in the syllabuses that are followed by students who started university studies in 2013-2018 (see: *Plany studiów AWF Kraków*, 2013-2018). At the bachelor's and master's degree courses, the student completed 160 hours of practical training each, which was due to the general academic profile of both the bachelor's and master's courses (*Plany studiów AWF Kraków*, 2013-2018). It is worth explaining that since 2018, undergraduate Tourism and Recreation studies at AWF in Kraków have been of a practical nature. Therefore, students who began in that particular year were obliged to complete their 720 hours during their sixth term. This is a substantial change as regards professional skills compared to the general academic profile that was examined and presented in this article.

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IDENTIFYING STUDENTS' ENTREPRENEURIAL ASPIRATIONS IN THE TOURISM AND RECREATION INDUSTRY1

Abstract: The aim of the article, in theoretical terms, is to investigate aspirations for entrepreneurship among students. In empirical terms, the objective is to determine the levels of aspiration in the field of entrepreneurship among students with a tourism and recreation profile in the business area related to their degree. In other words the scale of their willingness to set up their own business in the tourism and recreation industry. To achieve its goal, primary research was conducted using the questionnaire method (114 students of Tourism and Recreation took part). Moreover, desk research was used in the form of literature analysis, 'logical operations' and observation (especially in referring to practical aspects). The article consists of four substantive parts, an introduction and a conclusion. The results of the research show that the level of entrepreneurship aspiration among the students surveyed is high. The majority (89%) plan to set up their own business in the future in the area of tourism and recreation (76%), most often in the accommodation industry, event organisation or catering.

Keywords: entrepreneurship, business, tourism, recreation.

1. INTRODUCTION

Due to the low unemployment rate in Poland at 5.1% (*Bezrobotni zarejestrowani…*, 2019), the contemporary labour market seems to be attractive for potential employees. Such a situation means a large number of work offers, i.e. the ease of finding one from the perspective of job seekers. However, when analysing the work offers more closely, it can be seen that a large number of them concern line positions with a rather low level of pay. This is particularly evident in the tourism and leisure industry where, due to its service nature, a large number of people are needed to perform basic activities. Therefore, students studying in tourism and recreation related faculties are usually at the end of their education faced with the choice of employment in a company at such a position associated with low pay, or starting their own business which is associated with recognition[2] and a chance for high financial status.

The aim of the article is to investigate the theoretical aspects concerning aspiration for entrepreneurship among students. In the empirical area, the objective is to determine the level of aspiration in the field of entrepreneurship among students with a tourism and recreation profile in the business area related to their degree, in other words the scale of their willingness to set up their own business in the tourism and recreation industry.

The reason for undertaking these objectives is to draw attention to the lack of (cyclical and comprehensive) research on aspirations for student entrepreneurship in the tourism and recreation business which could then be aggregated on a national, regional or university scale.

To achieve this goal, primary research was conducted using a questionnaire. Respondents were students of Tourism and Recreation, at the former Faculty of Management and Economics of Services (now the Faculty of Economics, Finance and Management) and the Faculty of Physical Culture and Health Promotion (now the Faculty of Physical Culture and Health) of the University of Szczecin. Desk research was also used for an analysis of the literature on the management and economics of tourism, and industry reports on entrepreneurship. Moreover, 'logical operations' (mainly deduction and induction) and observation (especially in referring to practical aspects) were used as well.

2. THEORETICAL ASPECTS OF STUDENTS' ENTREPRENEURIAL ASPIRATIONS

The content of this part will be theoretical considerations of aspirations for entrepreneurship among students. Therefore, the notions of aspirations and of entrepreneurship, with particular emphasis on the participants, i.e. students, will be discussed.

The notion of aspiration is often associated with some kind of desire for the future, a willingness to achieve planned goals, or to realize some life ideals. According to Kopalinski (1989), aspiration is a desire (to achieve something) or a desire (to reach a goal, to break down something). Janowski (1977) considers aspiration to be an individual's relatively permanent and strong desire concerning the properties or states that are to characterise life in the future and the objectives to be achieved in that life.

As far as the reflections on entrepreneurship are concerned, it should be noted that this phenomenon is not new and has always existed, but its importance has evolved over the years. The concept is widely known and most commonly seen as a feature of energetic, active people who are ready for various undertakings (Kowalewski, 2018). According to the definition of the *Dictionary of Polish Language*, entrepreneurship is the ability to be enterprising, i.e. to have a spirit of initiative, resourcefulness, willingness to take up various matters and the ability to deal with them successfully (Doroszewski, 1966; Drabik, Kubiak-Sokół, Sobol, Wiśniakowska, Stankiewicz, 2018).

Entrepreneurship, as a concept widely present in the academic literature, is not clearly defined. This is mainly due to research perspectives on entrepreneurship in various disciplines, e.g. economics (where entrepreneurship is treated as a regulatory function of the market which is reflected in the ability of enterprises to destroy creatively, take risks, use market opportunities), management sciences (where entrepreneurship is most often treated as the use of entrepreneurial opportunities in the process of creation and functioning of an enterprise), sociology (where entrepreneurship is considered through the prism of socio-cultural conditions), or psychology (where entrepreneurship is analysed in the context of characteristics and character of an entrepreneurial person) (Korpysa, 2016).

The first entrepreneurial concept in 1730 was outlined by Cantillon who called it the ability to see an opportunity and use one provided by the market in order to achieve a motivating profit for further effective action (Siemiek, 2010). In 1776, Smith saw entrepreneurship as the activity of a person who has a high propensity to save and use the money saved for specific ventures. Around 1800, Say understood this issue as the behavior of an entrepreneur who moves resources from an area of lower productivity to one of higher, allowing a profit to be made (Gołębiowski, 2014 after: Mazur, 2015; Piecuch, 2010). Schumpeter (1931, after: Wechta, 1997), on the other hand, linked the concept of entrepreneurship with innovation, i.e. with action aimed at creating a new product or service. According to Drucker, on the other hand, entrepreneurship is a feature of a given person or institution but it should not be limited only to the sphere of economic institutions, "entrepreneurship is neither science nor art. It is a practice" (Drucker, 1992 after: Gąsiorowska-Mącznik, 2017). Entrepreneurship is a philosophy of people, a functioning of enterprise, a driving force and factor in the development of companies, regions and economies (Piepiech, 2010).

Currently, in the economic literature, entrepreneurship is most often identified with establishing and running a business. This applies both to setting up small, family businesses as well as medium-sized enterprises (Łochnicka, 2016). Additionally, Siemiek describes entrepreneurship as taking related risk in order to obtain certain benefits, mainly of a material nature (Siemiek, 2010).

Entrepreneurship aspirations among students should not be confused with student entrepreneurship. This is because it is a component of academic entrepreneurship (Korpysa, 2016) defined very broadly as the business activity of students, graduates and academics to set up a business, to create spin-off companies (if there is no involvement of the university in the business) and spin-out companies (if there is involvement of the university in the venture) or possibly as part of a 'business on trial' in the legal formula of the Academic Business Incubator (Czyżewska, 2018), in order to commercialise research results (Poznańska, 2014; Tamowicz, 2006).

Academic or even student entrepreneurship is a subject of research by many academics, as evidenced by the works of Ćwiek (2019), Kilar & Rachwała (2014), Kunasz (2008), Siemieniak & Rembiasz (2019) or Wójtowicz (2014). However, there are definitely fewer studies on the issue of entrepreneurship among students in the context of the tourism and recreation business (Bednarska, Majewska, 2008; Buchta, Skiert, Sikora, 2012).

The formation of entrepreneurial aspirations among students at universities is to introduce young people into a knowledge-based society and prepare them for the labour market. In addition, appropriate knowledge management and the skillful use of resources (capital), combined with the ability to take advantage of emerging opportunities, can ultimately contribute to building a more competitive society (Multan, 2015).

To summarise the theoretical issues presented, for the purposes of this study, the aspirations for entrepreneurship among students will be understood as the potential (in the future) aspirations of students in the professional sphere to start and run a business.

3. IDENTIFICATION OF THE TOURISM AND RECREATION BUSINESS AREA

A definition of a tourist or recreation business is difficult to find in the academic literature and the use of these terms by researchers in academic works is rather intuitive. For the purpose of the objective here business will be understood as the activity of enterprises providing tourism and recreation services.

There are many definitions of tourist services in the literature on tourism economics. According to Gaworecki (2000) these are any socially useful activity aimed at satisfying material and non-material (spiritual) tourist needs. Tourist services are connected with satisfying needs not only during travel and tourist stays, but also before (Kornak, Montygierd-Łoyba, 1985) and after (Łazarek, 1999) and do not serve directly to produce material objects (Kornak, Montygierd-Łoyba, 1985).

Taking into account these definitions of tourism services, a set of enterprises providing them can be listed:
- accommodation providers,
- catering providers,
- travel agencies,
- guide service providers,
- courier service providers,
- transport service providers,
- event organisation providers.

Recreational services are, in the academic literature, much less frequently defined compared to tourist services. In general, they can be defined as useful intangible products in the process of individual and collective consumption, meeting the needs of society for recreation. They are all activities which enable people to renew their physical and mental strength by other means than those resulting from the duties of everyday life (Panasiuk, 2011).

Given the accepted understanding of recreational services, those providing them can be counted as:
- entities providing event animation services (e.g. hotel animations, escape rooms (Stasiak, 2016, 2019, etc.),
- entities providing physical recreation services (e.g. gyms, dance schools, etc.).

Summing up the discussion on the identification of tourism and recreation as a business area, it should be noted that the quoted examples of enterprises constitute a set of possible answers for respondents. They could also indicate the type of business which, in their opinion, could be included in the analysed profile of a business.

4. RESEARCH METHOD

The article was prepared on the basis of a critical analysis of the literature on the subject (theoretical part) and a questionnaire survey conducted among students (empirical part). The empirical part of the research is aimed at answering the question of what the level of entrepreneurship aspiration is among students with a tourism and recreation profile in the area of business related to their degree.

All the students of Tourism and Recreation (each mode, type and year of study) conducted at the former Faculty of Management and Economics of Services (now Faculty of Economics, Finance and Management) and the Faculty of Physical Culture and Health Promotion (now Faculty of Physical Culture and Health) of the University of Szczecin were invited to participate in the research.

The survey was conducted between 6.04.2019 and 16.05.2019 during classes and was preceded by information from the interviewer during which its aim was presented and their course discussed.

On the basis of the information received from the teaching staff concerning the number of students in the field of Tourism and Recreation, 125 questionnaires were prepared. Finally, 114 correctly completed questionnaires were accepted for analysis, i.e. 91.2% of the population.

The survey questionnaire consisted of five substantive questions covering eight aspects. The diversity of the studied group was indicated by gender (76.3% women and 23.7% men), age (students aged 18-29), mode of study (93.9% of respondents studying full-time and 6.1% part-time), level of study (84.2% of respondents studying at bachelor level and 15.8% at the master's) and year of study (47.3% were first year students, 20.2% second year, 16.7% third year; and 15.8% were first year master's), place of residence (39.5% came from a city with over 100 000 residents, 33.3% from a town below 100 000 and 27.2% from smaller settlements), professional experience based on an employment contract, a commission or a project (91.2% of students with such experience and 8.8% without) and professional experience in the area of tourism and recreation (59.6% of respondents with such experience and 40.4% without).

5. RESEARCH RESULTS

This part of the study will present three aspects concerning entrepreneurship aspiration among the surveyed students:
- the respondent's declaration of an intention to run a business,
- the relationship of the respondent's hypothetical business activity with the degree,
- the respondents indication of a specific business objective, in the area of tourism and recreation, in which they saw their professional activity.

In relation to the respondent's declarations concerning intentions to run a business, the vast majority, as much as 89% (102), considered running one immediately after graduation (37), or not immediately but in the future (65) (Figure 1). Such a high result of entrepreneurship aspiration among students does not differ significantly from the results of surveys conducted in 2018 by the Polish Agency for Enterprise Development on a group of 8000 adult Poles. Their analysis showed that 86% of those surveyed perceive entrepreneurship as a "good career path, i.e. that one's own company is a good way to make a career" (*Raport z badania…*, 2019, p. 13). According to the cited report, the attitude of Polish society towards entrepreneurship is currently the highest since the beginning of the GEM (Global Entrepreneurship Monitor) survey in Poland, i.e. since 2011 (*Raport z badania…*, 2019).

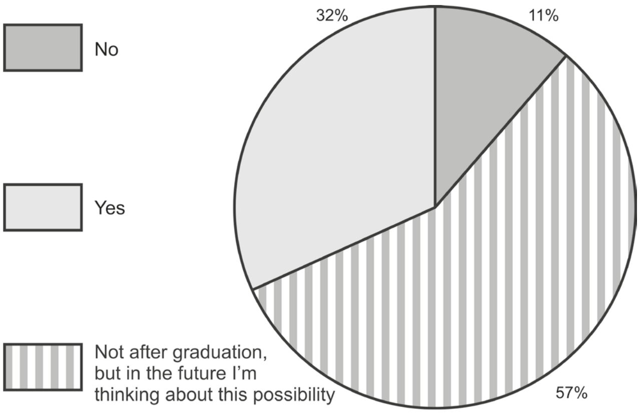

Figure 1. Declaration of the respondents' intentions to conduct their own business activity
Source: author based on a survey

With regard to the relation between the respondent's hypothetical business activity and their education, more than 75% declared that the activities of their potential company would have a tourism and recreation profile (Figure 2). Such a result is not surprising and is probably related to the area of expertise (Tourism and Recreation) in which to pursue professional activity and the specialist knowledge acquired. The arguments hypothetically allow respondents to believe that it will be easier for them in the tourism and recreation industry than in one in which they have no basic knowledge. Moreover, most of them, about 60%, have already had professional experience in the area (either in the form of employment on a contract or in the form of a 140-hour apprenticeship), so they know the problems and challenges, but also the opportunities that characterize the tourism and recreation business.

As regards the respondents' indication of a specific subject for a tourism and recreation business activity, opinions varied (Figure 3). It is worth noting that during the survey the students were willing to mark several variants, however they were asked to indicate as few activities as possible and of the closest interest

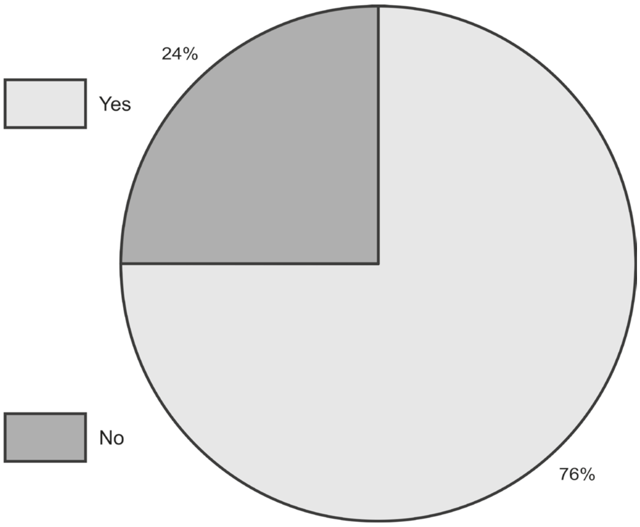

Figure 2. Relationship between the respondent's hypothetical business activity and degree
Source: author based on a survey

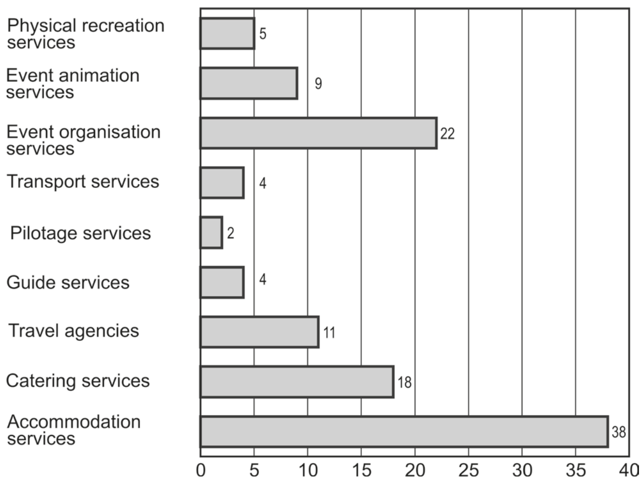

Figure 3. Subjects of business activity by respondent
Source: author based on a survey

to the respondent. The survey shows that the most often indicated related to the provision of accommodation services, event organisation and catering, and the least frequent to activities related to the provision of courier, guide and transport services. Such a great interest in providing accommodation services may be related to the large proportion who were first year students (47.3%), who in the semester during which the research took place, were doing classes on the "Hospitality" course. However, the highest rank, the provision of accommodation services, seems to be only a declaration, as the capital requirements for establishing this type of business do not translate into real financial possibilities for over 37% of respondents. The second activity in terms of respondents' interest, the provision of event organisation services, may also be related to the specific group of students, as in the academic year 2018/2019 a course on "Management of sports and tourist events" started for the first time. Unlike other specializations such as "Tourism Manager", "Tourism Business", "Health Basics of Tourism and Recreation" or "Motion and Ecotourism Animator", it is one referring to a specific type of activity in the area of tourism and recreation business. However, the provision of catering services may be related to the fact that catering as an industry is one of the most frequently chosen places for students to do their apprenticeship. It should also be noted that the respondents had the opportunity to indicate their own leisure activities outside the list, but none of them took advantage of this opportunity.

To conclude, the level of entrepreneurship aspiration among the surveyed students can be assessed as high. Most (89%) are planning to set up their own business in the future in tourism and recreation, specifically in the accommodation industry, event organisation or catering. As the research is not representative, its results cannot be generalised. However, the data obtained provide interesting information on the level among students, thus providing a basis for academic and business discussion. A continuation of the author's research on student entrepreneurship, including additional aspects (e.g. self-assessment of aptitude for managing a business), as well as an extension of the scope of the study (generalizing it for the whole of Poland), is also being considered.

6. CONCLUSION

The process of forming aspiration for entrepreneurship among students, which has positive rather than negative associations in a business context, is a serious challenge for universities and the entire higher education system in Poland. It requires both a personal and team approach to the student in order to provide comprehensive support.

The conducted research seems to be satisfactory from the point of view of an assessment of the university's activity in the field of entrepreneurship, as evidenced by the high level of aspiration among students with a tourism and recreation profile related to their degree program.

However, reality must be taken into account. According to the research carried out by the Academic Career Office of the University of Szczecin on monitoring the professional careers of graduates in all faculties, only 4.4% run their own business of which 37.5% is consistent with their field of study and 25% only partly (Akademickie Biuro Karier Uniwersytetu Szczecińskiego, 2017). Similar results were obtained by Jelonek, Kaspark and Migrowski (2015) claiming that in the case of young people (under 30) only 4% of them are "self-employed". Therefore, a conclusion can be drawn about the rather low level of entrepreneurship among the young.

In conclusion, it should be emphasized that this study presents only a small part of the issue of entrepreneurship aspiration among students. The subject matter requires further exploration on the basis of theoretical considerations and empirical research. An interesting aspect will be to find a cause-and-effect relationship between the results obtained concerning the plans of students after graduation to run their own business, and statistical data on the implementation of these plans.

ENDNOTES

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[2] Nearly 8 out of 10 (76%) Poles are of the opinion that those who have set up their own companies and have been successful should be recognised – *Report from the survey Global Entrepreneurship Monitor 2017/2018 Polska*, PARP 2019, s. 8.

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CUSTOMER SATISFACTION IN SLOVAK SPAS: CASE STUDIES OF RAJECKÉ TEPLICE, PIEŠŤANY AND BRUSNO[1]

Abstract: This work aims to present a customer satisfaction model using selected examples from the spa industry. Specifically, it is a presentation of the satisfaction of spa customers and visitors to the Slovak spa of Rajecké Teplice, in comparison with Piešťany and Brusno. Customer satisfaction is a multiple phenomenon which is evaluated mainly by qualitative methods. Our motivation is to draw attention to the difficulty and subjectivity of qualitative research concerning such satisfaction, especially at in-service facilities in selected Slovak spas. Customers ranked them and created a 'top 12', according to their importance in the subjective perception of spa environments, services, health services and attractions in terms of satisfaction. In addition, the result is a comparison of the individual satisfaction of spa customers in heterogeneous spa towns. Piešťany is the most important Slovak spa center, Trenčianske Teplice is a medium-sized spa town, and Brusno a small stagnant spa.

Keywords: Rajecké Teplice spa, Piešťany spa, Brusno spa, customer satisfaction, elements of customer satisfaction.

1. INTRODUCTION

There are 23 official spas in Slovakia (Fig. 1): Bardejovské kúpele, Bojnice, Brusno, Číž, Dudince, Horný Smokovec, Dolný Smokovec, Štrbské Pleso, Vyšné Hágy, Lučivná, Lúčky, Nimnica, Rajecké Teplice, Sklené Teplice, Turčianske Teplice, Trenčianske Teplice, Štós, Sliač, Vyšné Ružbachy, Novoľubovnianske kúpele, Smrdáky, the National Rehabilitation Center at Kováčová, and Piešťany. Water is their basic locating factor, and thermal and mineral springs have been known in Slovakia since prehistory. The literature highlights both mineral and thermal springs (e.g. Bel, 1735; Čuka, 2004; Gregorová, 2010; Heksch, 1881; *Hydrological and phenological conditions of Czechoslovakia*, 1970).

The level of their services varies, but customer satisfaction is important for all. The sources for this article are:

- individual spas,
- health insurance company,
- field research.

The results differ according to the year, but also according to sources and methodology. The starting points of the customer satisfaction research methodology used are described and research on customer satisfaction in Rajecké Teplice is presented as a model. At the same time, however, a comparison of research on satisfaction in Brusno and the most famous Slovak spa, Piešťany, is also presented.

Field research was undertaken among visitors based on several sources from the following ranking of Slovak spas according to customer satisfaction:

- Ranking of a health insurance company (*Dôvera zverejnila prvý rebríček kúpeľov*, 2009): 1. Brusno, 2. Dudince, 3. Nimnica, 4. Číž, 5. Piešťany.
- Ranking according to research by Nagyová (2009): 1. Brusno, 2. Číž, 3. Bardejovské kúpele, 3. Piešťany, 4. Nimnica, 5. Dudince, 6. Sliač.
- Ranking according to field research (Čuka, Matušíková, Šenková, 2013): 1. Brusno, 2. Piešťany, 3. Rajecké Teplice, 4. Kováčová, 5. Bardejovské kúpele.

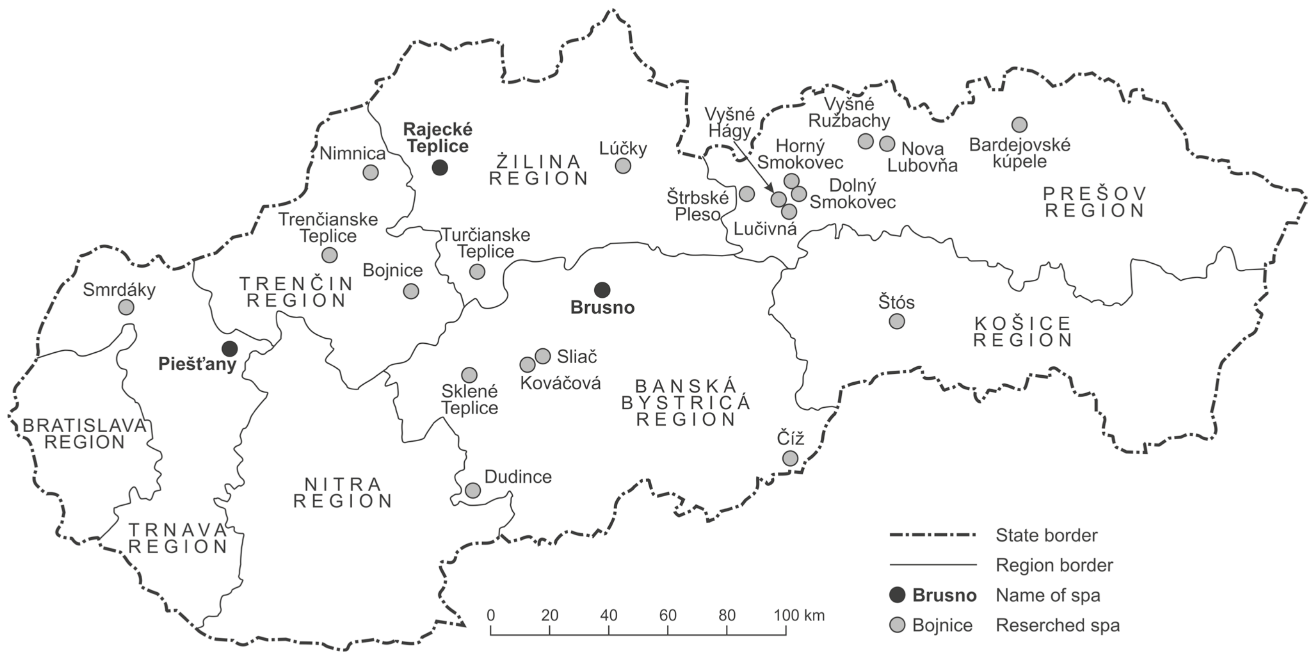

Figure 1. The location of Slovak spas
Source: authors

2. METHODS AND AIMS OF THE RESEARCH

This work aims to present a customer satisfaction model using selected examples from the spa industry. Specifically, it is a presentation of the satisfaction of spa customers and visitors to Slovak spas, especially Rajecké Teplice. Another aim is to point out the complexity of the decision-making processes which directly influence customer satisfaction results. Furthermore, a survey and comparison of customer satisfaction based on this methodology in the spa towns of Piešťany and Brusno is presented. Comparison of research in Rajecké Teplice with the results for Piešťany and Brusno spas also has value.

In the market and planned mixed economic space of the EU, in which Slovakia finds itself, supply, demand and profit are among the most decisive market forces. Profit is expressed not only quantitatively but also qualitatively. Customer satisfaction can be included in the quantitative element as profit, but it is subjective as well and can take many forms such as emotional satisfaction, or repeated return to a product that is found satisfying. Emotional satisfaction is currently measured, for example, in the Slovak banking environment where Tatra Banka uses artificial intelligence software that is capable of autonomously identifying an 8-degree range of emotions (Tatrabanka používa AI technológiu, 2017).

Research of spa customer satisfaction is often overlooked within the Slovak academic literature. In Poland, such research is conducted using the KANO method (Walas, 2018) and comprehensive qualitative research has been provided by Szymańska (2013). As can be inferred from the works of many researchers, satisfaction is to a large extent reflected in customer behaviors (Gotowska, Jakubczak, 2012; Mont, Plepys, 2014; Rudnicki, 2015; Zmyślony, Nawrot, 2009). There are several opinions and definitions of customer satisfaction, and that of the quality standard STN EN ISO 9000:2006 explains the concept as the level at which customer demands are fulfilled. From these definitions, it can be said that customer satisfaction is connected with emotions and feelings but these are very difficult to grasp. Satisfaction as a whole is made up of specific partial satisfactions and these can have different weightings. Customer satisfaction and its measurement is one of the tools for getting feedback and this measurement is part of the quality management of an organization. One of the activities that fosters satisfaction is customer-oriented attention which means approaching each person individually (Foster, 2002; Kärnä, 2014; Rudnicki, 2015).

3. METHODOLOGY

Satisfaction is manifested by complex multi-element phenomena. Rudnicki (2010) described a) external (socio-cultural and economic) and b) internal (psychological, personnel-demographic) factors of consumer behavior. These factors shape customer satisfaction simultaneously.

This work proceeds from the complexity of psychological and cognitive processes which are best described by Evans (1982, 2004), and it develops this knowledge in the psychological field according to Beach, Connolly

(2005). From newer socio-economic-marketing studies, the results of Foster (2002) and Kärnu (2014) have been used. Finally, our own original methodology for evaluating the satisfaction of spa customers is presented. This takes into account:

- Health services – these are an absolute priority for a spa because its main goal is to improve a customer's health.
- Business services – spas have profiled themselves as trade centers, business services and congress centers in recent decades.
- Geographical potential – the immediate urban and natural environment assets.
- Other values - socio-cultural such as the presence of international customers and the social activities provided.

Satisfaction has emotional and rational components. Emotional satisfaction is expressed by a good feeling when using a product (spa services in this case), or by a variety of feelings such as dissatisfaction, reservations, bad feelings, etc. Rudnicki (2010) describes emotional satisfaction as the "satisfying of emotional and aesthetic needs". Of course, the main element concerning spas is the satisfaction associated with the therapeutic effect of a spa stay.

Rational satisfaction is expressed either verbally, for example in a survey, in the form of a written 'inquiry', an appreciation (e.g. for the staff), but mainly it is expressed by a repeated selection of the product (spa services in this case). Rational satisfaction is thus a form of product profit (Evans, 1982).

Both types of satisfaction are found at varying levels through restaurants, accommodation, medical and additional services, but they also reflect the complex nature of a spa town and its background (culture, architecture, business infrastructure, natural environment assets and so on).

All of these forms of satisfaction can be derived from the decision-making processes. Recent research shows that these processes, and hence spa customers, are much more complex than was thought decades ago. It is important to understand that the objectification of research on satisfaction considers the neuropsychological processes addressed by neuropsychology and partially by neuromarketing as a branch of economics. This duality of thinking is also pointed out in the classic works of Evans (1982, 2004) which have been later developed by many authors including Bačová (2010), Beach, Connolly (2005), and Glimcher, Fehr (2008). These works also highlight what conditions thinking and decision making which has ultimate consequences for satisfaction.

These conditions are also manifested through the influence of financial stimuli, personal (actual and reminisced), the ability to create dopamine in the body, and so on (Bačová, 2010). The duality of thinking is shown for instance in dual decision-making which may be 1. automatic, non-implicit, uncontrolled, or 2. explicit, conscious, and controlled (Evans, 1982). In practice, this duality means that many factors in the spa product are exposed to the biased, non-cognitive, uncontrolled or emotional influences of human thought. Therefore, the results of spa customer satisfaction research will be always largely determined by both of these, however neuromarketing, and the psychological research based on e.g. 'brain-scanning', is beyond the scope of this work.

Of course, we wanted to know the results of satisfaction surveys from the PR management of the spas in our research, but these referred only to the reviews of spa guests available on the internet, for example on the website: *Rajecké Teplice liečebný pobyt* (2019) or Tripadvisor (2019). However, survey results published on the internet can be filtered (negative ratings can be deleted). Similarly, such texts are usually narrow, with the customer describing and evaluating only one part, reducing their value.

In principle, it can be argued that although spa managements monitor customer feedback on satisfaction internally, but research based on personal contact with managers responsible has shown that they are generally more interested in the spa's economic condition and its profit financially. It has been shown that there is no interest in a deeper study on the satisfaction of spa customers.

After an analysis of the current state of research on customer satisfaction in spas, rankings were created on the basis of a survey carried out by the health insurance company *Dôvera zdravotná poisťovňa a.s. Dôvera zverejnila prvý rebríček kúpeľov* (2009). There are also other satisfaction surveys from the accommodation facilities at Hotel *Afrodita* (c.f. *Hotel Aphrodite,* 2019, *Referencie hostí*, 2019). In the case of Rajecké Teplice spa, not only these surveys (c.f. *Hodnotenie klientov*, 2019) are used, but also the results of the authors' own research on customer satisfaction (conducted by qualitative methods) are available.

A survey of customer satisfaction in the form of questionnaires was undertaken in Rajecké Teplice and then results were compared with Piešťany and Brusno. The survey consisted of five steps:

1. The first step was for part A of a questionnaire to be filled in to determine which factors are most important for customer satisfaction. At this stage 50 possible satisfaction factors were presented to the respondents. Customers ranked them and created a 'top 12', according to their subjectively perceived importance. At this level, customers identified: 1. level of health services, 2. attractiveness of the spa environment, 3. price level, 4. attractiveness of the natural environment of the spa area, 5. cultural background of the spa, 6. cognitive activities, 7. social activities, 8. events, 9. attractiveness of the town, 10. transport

accessibility, 11. international customers, 12. business background.
2. The second step (part B) was scoring the specific spa centers by customers (namely Rajecké Teplice, Piešťany, and Brusno, by their assessment on a 1-10 scale. Thus, the three spa centers were directly compared.
3. Customers were then asked to indicate their overall satisfaction with the spa in the third step (part C) on a 6-degree scale.
4. In the fourth step (part D), customers who had visited other spas besides Rajecké Teplice were asked to order them according to degree of satisfaction.
5. Finally (part E), the customers were asked to rank spas they had yet to visit in the order in which they would like to visit them in the future.

4. THE RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE TOOL

The customer satisfaction assessment questionnaire designed by the writers was composed of five parts with the following instructions:

A. Write as many elements of spa customer satisfaction as possible (for example, satisfaction with the spa medical treatment, food, accommodation, price, etc.) and arrange them in an order of 1-12 according to their importance.

B. Score the following elements of spa customer satisfaction from 1 to 10 (10 being the most satisfying):
   1. level of health services,
   2. the attractiveness of the spa environment,
   3. price level,
   4. the attractiveness of the natural environment spa facilities,
   5. the cultural background of the spa,
   6. cognitive activities,
   7. social activities,
   8. events,
   9. the attractiveness of the town,
   10. transport accessibility of the spa,
   11. international customers,
   12. business background.

C. Mark the degree of your overall spa satisfaction:
   1. absolute satisfaction,
   2. high satisfaction,
   3. medium satisfaction,
   4. low satisfaction,
   5. dissatisfaction,
   6. absolute dissatisfaction.

D. If you were a customer of other spas in the past, please order them according to your degree of satisfaction (the order in which you would recommend them).

E. Write down other spas in Slovakia which you have not visited, but would like to do so in the future, and arrange them in order starting from the most desired.

Please give your own observations and notes on spa customer satisfaction………

5. COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS

This is for the comparison of the authors' survey with similar available satisfaction measurements. The selection of analyzed spas was determined by three fundamental factors:
1. Rajecké Teplice – a spa town in the hinterland of the town of Žilina, near the residence of the authors and having their greatest empirical knowledge. This spa is one of the most attractive in Slovakia.
2. Piešťany is the most significant Slovak spa.
3. Brusno – the authors have been researching this spa for a long time, are co-authors of a monograph (Čuka, 2004) and have empirical experience. Brusno was discovered to be the spa giving the greatest satisfaction to spa customers.

Fig. 2 represents the relationship of the most important elements of customer satisfaction in Rajecké Teplice, Piešťany and Brusno. Rajecké Teplice interestingly on average received the least points for medical procedures (9, compared to 10 in Piešťany and Brusno), but a 10% standard deviation value is not significant. Rajecké Teplice received similar or higher ratings than other spas for attractiveness of the spa environment, attractiveness of the natural environment, spa facilities, transport accessibility and, surprisingly, business background. On the other hand, the biggest drawback of Rajecké Teplice compared to Piešťany was 'international customers', at just 40%.

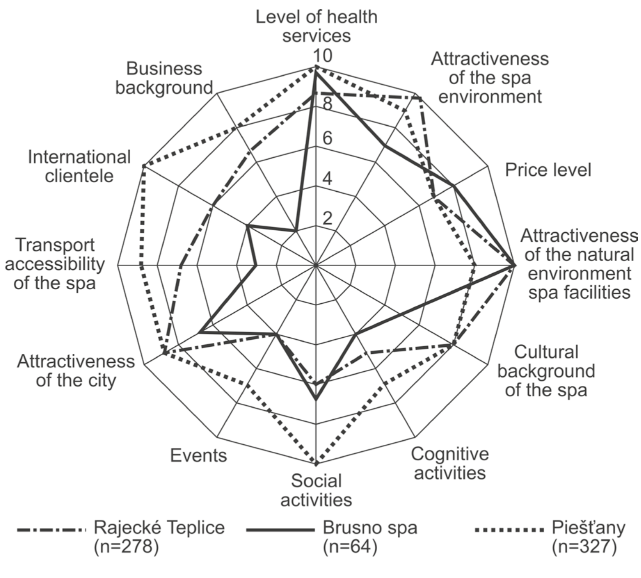

Figure 2. Evaluation of customer satisfaction factors in spas
Source: authors

Fig. 3 shows desired spa destinations. Out of those spas which have not been visited by respondents, but which they would like to visit in the future, Piešťany received 57 responses, Trenčianske Teplice 32, and Turčianske Teplice 28. Brusno was marginalized.

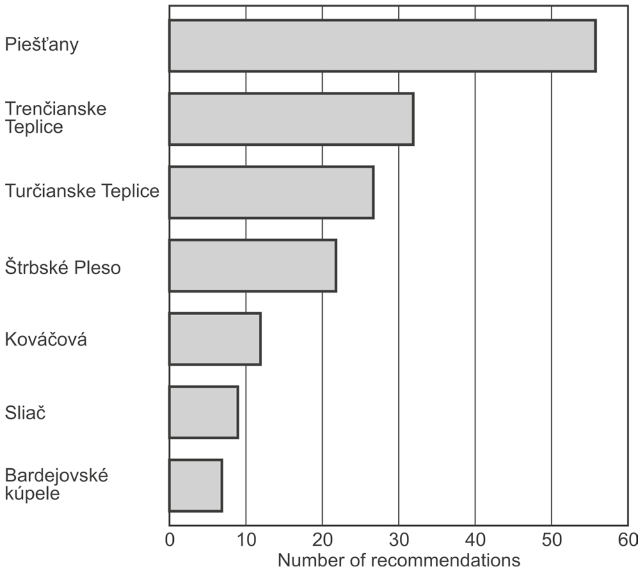

Figure 3. Recommendations for other Slovak spas
Source: authors

Fig. 4 shows the ranking of spas visited according to order of customer satisfaction representing a customer's empirical reflection of their stay at a spa. The first places were taken by Piešťany, Rajecké Teplice and Kováčová all of which are spas focusing on the 'locomotive' system. The ranking confirms results in the field of medical treatment, but also of positive memories (Nilson, Mariott, Be, Player, 2017).

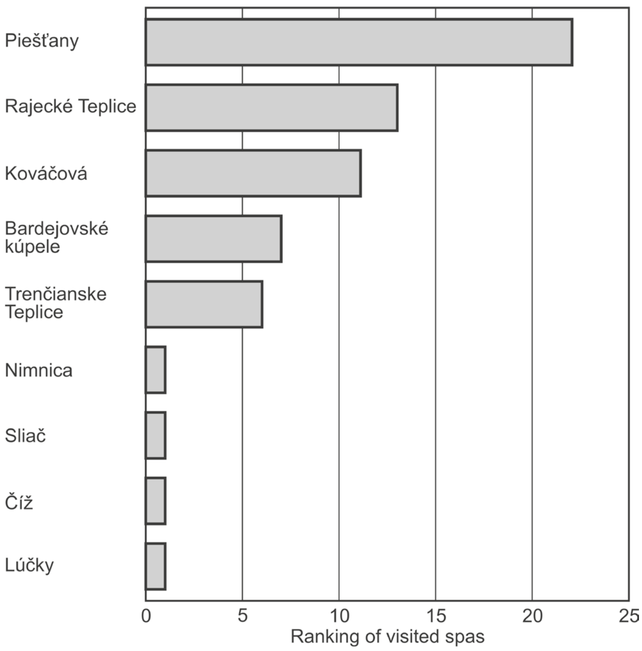

Figure 4. Ranking of spas visited
according to customer satisfaction
Source: authors

Fig. 5 illustrates the scale of overall satisfaction with Rajecké Teplice compared to that of customers at Piešťany and Brusno. A high level of satisfaction dominated the compared spas, reaching 85.25 % in Rajecké Teplice, 86.54 % in Piešťany and 87.3 % in Brusno.

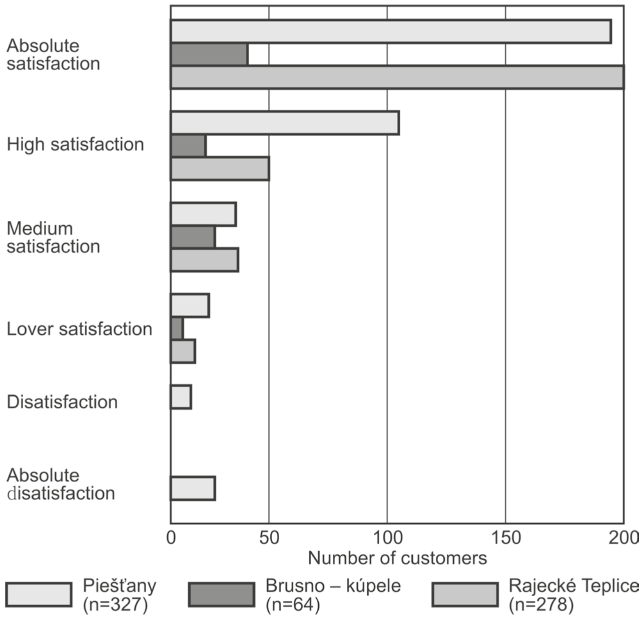

Figure 5. Overall customer satisfaction
Source: authors

Lack of parking space and the unqualified practice of the service staff (especially in restaurant services) appeared most frequently as a problem in the last part of the survey where customers could list their positive or negative experiences.

6. CONCLUSION

The research covered three heterogenous spas (in terms of size, function and spa value) and showed that customer satisfaction in these spas differs significantly. Profit is partially an economic reflection of satisfaction, however there is no direct link between customer satisfaction and profit in the economic condition of Slovakia. Many spas are owned by private companies, for example, the spa complex and Hotel *Afrodita* in Rajecké Teplice, and financial profit is measured as a mix of the products offered and the investments made by private managers. Rajecké Teplice made a profit of 471 833 euros in 2018 and employs up to 250 people (*Slovenské liečebné kúpele Rajecké Teplice* a.s., 2018). Customer satisfaction however is not reflected by the financial stability or actual profit as Piešťany had a profit of approx. 175 000 EUR in 2018 (Kúpele Piešťany a.s.,

2018) while Brusno is now in bankruptcy with about 620 000 EUR of debt (Kúpele Brusno a.s., 2018).

The factors of customer satisfaction dominant in Piešťany were the attractiveness of the spa environment, the cultural background of the spa, cognitive activities, social activities, events, the attractiveness of the town, transport accessibility, international customers and business facilities. On the contrary, Brusno was rated more highly in the attractiveness of the natural environment and prices. All spas were awarded top rank for the level of health services.

The ranking of customer satisfaction of spas within Slovakia was last publicly presented in 2009. The insurance company *Dôvera a.s.* published a ranking where the highest level of satisfaction was expressed by customers of Brusno with Piešťany being ranked 5th. In Nagyová (2009), similar results were found with Brusno in the first place and Piešťany ranked third. Health insurance companies do not publish rankings; only customer satisfaction questionnaires or feedback forms are available (Maria M – Hotel Rubín, 2019). The issue of customer satisfaction with services is a complex problem that has solutions mainly in sociological, psychological, and sophisticated qualitative measurements (Angrosino, 2010; Przecławski, 1996).

ENDNOTE

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THE PROFANE SPHERE OF ALL SAINTS' DAY AND THE SOCIAL ASPECTS OF CEMETERIES

Abstract: The modern pop-culturization of All Saints' Day has encouraged the author to explore the profane sphere of this festival, using selected examples from Łódź cemeteries, as well as to write a short comparative description of a Latin American festival honouring the dead celebrated in early November. In the 20th century, visiting cemeteries in Poland on 1st November acquired some attributes of recreation and cultural tourism, visible in the atmosphere of a country fair and the ludic character of the cemetery surroundings, as well as the visitors' commemorative, contemplative and cognitive motivations. Due to cultural changes, All Saints' Day is increasingly perceived as a tourist event or even a cultural tourism product. The article presents a comparative description of the All Saints' Day celebrations in Poland and the Day of the Dead in Latin America, and an analysis of visitors at selected Łódź cemeteries along with a description of the cemetery surroundings on 1st November 2019. The author has used unpublished research results from 2004, as well as discussing the secular and recreational aspects of All Saints' Day.

Keywords: All Saints' Day, Day of the Dead, Łódź, Latin America, cemetery.

1. INTRODUCTION

In European, Central- and South-American cultures, 1st and 2nd November are a time when people visit the graves of Saints and the beatified, as well as their own ancestors, family members and close friends. The purpose of visiting cemeteries at the end of October and the beginning of November is to fulfil commemorative and religious needs. Festivals in honour of the dead originated mostly from religion, rituality, faith in an afterlife and, which is very important from the geographical point of view, cultural syncretism.

All Saints' Day and All Souls' Day (*Zaduszki*) celebrations in Europe belong to the religious sphere but have always included folk and secular components as well, observed in beliefs, rituals and social traditions (Ariés, 1989; Kolbuszewski, 1996).

In the Middle Ages, European cemeteries were located close to churches and brought together local people around graves (remembering the deceased, faith in an afterlife), rites (processions, prayers, ceremonials) and events (trade, fairs, courts, executions). The cultural revolution that took place at the turn of the 19th century, which included changes in cemetery location and organization, placed the deceased person in the centre of social life again. From then onwards, he or she was to remain close to the living, not only through prayer and memory, but above all through the grave, situated at a nicely located cemetery, surrounded by greenery (cemetery-park) and art (cemetery – a sepulchral sculpture gallery). A consequence of these changes was the social redefinition of All Saints' and All Souls' Days, earlier less popular in urban areas but very common in rural ones where they had a strictly religious and ludic character. All Saints' Day became a time for visiting individual graves according to established ceremonial of a fixed but geographically diversified cultural code, itself undergoing regular modifications as a result of socio-economic transformations. Thus, the changing way of living in an urban area had a direct influence on the social dimension of All Saints' Day making those interested aware of the cultural and religious sources of the tradition in secular cemeteries. The sphere of *profanum* started to interfere with the *sacrum* of tradition and rituality with cultural development (see also: Eliade, 1996; Jackowski, 2003).

The festival in honour of the dead, celebrated in early November in the countries of Latin America, displays a number of characteristic features: at cemeteries and around them, picnics are organized, food and drink are enjoyed, while graves decorated with flowers and candles are common practice. Moreover, parades are organized of people dressed up as Death in a colonial style costume with a characteristic hat. It is a tradition to construct and fly colourful kites which connect the living to the souls of the deceased. Even dancing parties are held. As regards the culinary aspect of the festival, traditional cakes are enjoyed, including sugar sculls with icing. These traditions, so different from those present in European cultures, are strictly connected with church ceremonial, Holy Mass and prayer, as well as the memory of the dead. The different character of the Day of the Dead in Latin America has encouraged the inhabitants of the United States and Europe to travel, especially to Mexico, where the carnival-like October/November celebrations to honour the dead have become a well-recognized tourism product.

These were the reasons for the author's choice of a geographical area with which he compared a Polish festival in honour of the deceased, which not only has the features of a religious festival, but is also full of ludic elements used in a recreational manner. The rituals and traditions have a strongly syncretic character, combining Christian traditions with pre-Columbian beliefs, just like All Saints' and All Souls' Days in Europe combine Christian traditions with pagan rituals (Arias, 1989; Brandes, 1998b).

All Saints' Day and All Souls' Day in Poland have a slightly different dimension than the Mexican Day of the Dead. On these days, the people who visit graves are immersed in deep thought and prayer. The atmosphere of a carnival and festivity, so typical of Latin America, is missing. Meals are eaten together during family dinners at homes and not at cemeteries. In Poland, nobody flies kites, organizes street parades or displays symbols of death, there is no tradition of preparing cakes or dishes for the dead. However, in some places, special sweets are sold: *pańska skórka* in Warsaw, *turecki miodek* in Kraków and *szczypki* in the Lublin region.

Elements observed in both festivals in honour of the dead include cleaning graves and decorating them with flowers, burning candles for the souls of the dead and the visiting of graves by large numbers of people. The crowds coming to cemeteries, the decorative character of the graves and the special evening atmosphere created at candle-lit cemeteries has turned All Saints' Day in Poland (like the Day of the Dead in Mexico) into a tourism product among the important national and religious festivals promoted by the Polish Tourism Organization.

During the transformation period in Poland after 1989, attempts to return to the mode of celebration practiced earlier in the 20th century were made. The country fair atmosphere and ludic character of the stalls set up around cemeteries, food stands, balloons, ice-creams, candy floss and pretzels, and toys for children, pointed to the secular character of its celebration among family and friends. This is of course disapproved of by the Catholic Church and a part of the conservative society, but the Generation 'Z' of today treat All Saints' Day differently in a pop-cultural way, increasingly combining it with the night before November 1st – the secular, carnival-like Halloween, which has gained a commercial character.

2. THE CEMETERY AS A VENUE

People and the culture they create are strongly interconnected, determining the character of cognitive and recreational spaces and a site which displays the attributes of both is a cemetery (Stasiak, Tanaś, 2005).

In 18th and 19th century Europe, guided by the Enlightenment and later ideas, those who organized cemeteries in cities had to consider not only their practical aspect (the need to bury dead bodies) or religious motivations, but also the inhabitants' needs that resulted from a growing amount of leisure time[1]. A cemetery became a place where people could rest from the bustle of the city and recover physical and mental strength, as well as a place of Romantic contemplation and aesthetic and emotional experience. Similar to the parks and gardens set up at that time, cemeteries became urban enclaves, suitable for walks and other purposes quite different from those originally intended.

The cemetery is a collection of graves and this is the main purpose for visits. The grave is a social and emotional space created around the deceased which has its own conventional symbolism of the dead person's home after death, composed of a number of external attributes such as form, sculpture, epigraphs or plant decoration. Thus, the cemetery is a particular cultural text (Kolbuszewski, 1985). Its character and its semantic expression are defined through its cultural-emotional features and interpretation which depend on cultural roots, and may explain to what extent it constitutes a link between the present and the past, between the living and the dead.

In the second half of the 19th century, a fashion started for the cult of the tomb which changed the society's attitude to the grave and the cemetery. The grave stopped being anonymous and the cemetery became a text of artistic culture, an object worthy of exploration as well as for literary, academic and travel description (Ariés, 1989). This generated the concept of a cemetery space which would facilitate practicing the cult of the dead and defining one of the basic elements of a sense of citizenship as well. This idea was propagated by the Catholic Church which, after many centuries of remembering the deceased only in a prayer at a shrine, returned to the cult of the individual dead and to the practice of visiting their graves. This was supported by the Catholic Church which returned to the cult of the dead, and the individualization and cult of the grave, after many centuries of honouring a dead person exclusively through prayer.

Thus, in the 19th century, the cemetery became a place of a new ritual through the duty of regularly visiting graves. Due to the new organization, burial space became a kind of a memorial park intended for individual and family visits, an open-air museum and a place fostering thoughtfulness and reflection. In Britain, France and the United States, the idea of 'cemetery gardens' and 'cemetery parks', designed with visitors in mind, were to combine landscape assets including greenery and architecture, with social assets such as history, tradition, art and religion. The form of a park or garden was to be a proper background for reflection and memories of the deceased, a place for mourning after losing someone close, supportive psychotherapy and encouraging regeneration in a sympathetic environment. The urban cemetery became an alternative to a park – a green area, particularly significant in the rapidly growing urban centres of the 19th century when they were undergoing uncontrollable industrialization (Długozima, 2011; Tanaś, 2008). The cemetery was not supposed to be a place of medieval, chaotic burial, but a space of remembrance, calming thoughts and emotions, a space of regeneration, and a component of recreation. Due to the popularity of sepulchral sculpture, the cemetery also became an 'art gallery', i.e. a place of aesthetic experience where artistic trends were created.

The cemetery is a ritual space where religious and secular, burial and commemorative ceremonies are an important component. Depending on established cultural norms, cemeteries are venues for events and celebrations which attract local communities at given times during the year, and tourists who want to witness unusual events. These events are mostly burial ceremonies, geographically diversified as regards their character and rituals, as well as commemorative festivals such as the European All Saints' and All Souls' Days, the Mexican Day of the Dead or the Japanese festival called Bon, as well as Easter festivities including the tradition of visiting the graves of the closest family and friends, similar to visiting Christ's sepulchre, or the tradition of visiting graves during Pentecost commonly practiced in the Eastern Orthodox Church.

Due to its natural and architectonic decor, the cemetery can be a venue for artistic events such as classical music concerts in memory of certain individuals who have passed away (e.g. that held at the Central Cemetery in Szczecin, the Ohlsdorf cemetery in Hamburg, or the Skogskyrkogården cemetery in Stockholm).

Religious and secular events organized at cemeteries have become the aim of tourist trips, and are often promoted as tourist attractions or even tourism products. Is this a sign of modern times? Certainly not – in the Middle Ages, and in the centuries which followed, the public gathered at graveyards next to churches where religious and secular festivals were celebrated. The graveyard was a place for public trials, community meetings, regional council assemblies, or where pilgrims and participants of parades and processions could pause for rest. It was also a place of interrogation, torture and execution. During festivals, the graveyard and its surroundings functioned as a market place where fairs were organized.

The graveyard, similar to the church, was, and in a sense still is, an asylum. With time, this function transformed the graveyard into a public meeting site and a place used by the living – it was a refuge for runaways and the homeless who lived in ossuaries or in small, rickety huts (Ariés, 1989). In Latin America, there are still sepulchres adapted to the needs of their inhabitants, especially in the poor districts of large cities, such as the Northern Cemetery in Manila (the Philippines). Situated close to the church, the graveyard often performed the function of a market place, busy and noisy both in the city and the countryside because the church building (the centre of urban and rural life) sometimes could not hold all the local believers. Hence, the graveyard located next to the church was used in a variety of ways for instance, beautifully decorated for the occasion, it was used for Palm Sunday or Corpus Christi processions.

The Church disapproved of these practices but, as for burials in churches, the rules it imposed were regularly broken. After all, in the Middle Ages, the graveyard belonged to the community and such practices were not considered reprehensible. In Poland, fairs, meetings, rallies, or even loud parties (e.g. on All Saints' Day) were common despite the regulations introduced by the Church (synods banned the organization of secular events in graveyards).

The graveyard was and still is an active and significant public space, despite the fact that from the 16th century, its function as a public place was gradually shifted to an adjacent or market square. Looking at contemporary Polish cemeteries at the time of church festivals, including All Saints' Day, various ways of using cemetery surroundings can be found. There are stalls with toys or food, people taking a walk, evening strolls and 'playing at ghosts'. Since the Middle Ages, excepting the period from the 16th to 18th century, the cemetery has been not only a sacred space, but also a public, profane, cognitive and, consequently, recreation and tourism space (Tanaś, 2008).

Along with the European colonization of Latin America, and the Christian canon imposed on the indigenous population, the native residents of cities founded by Europeans gradually adopted European rituality regarding the dead and the ways of organizing cemeteries, while retaining elements of Indian traditions at the same time. Strongly rooted in the indigenous community, the beliefs made the sacred sphere, including cemeteries, a space of cultural syncretism. In modern times in Latin America, a cultural melting pot can be seen, a conglomerate of Indian and Christian symbolism. The distinctiveness and, at the same time, affinity to European culture were the reason why Latin American cemeteries have become a cultural tourism destination (Cano, Mysyk, 2004; Miller, Space, 2006).

3. NOVEMBER FESTIVALS IN HONOUR OF THE DEAD

All Saints' Day is a Christian festival in honour of all the saints and all those who have been redeemed and now live in heaven. It started to be celebrated in the 4th century when on the first Sunday after Pentecost, a festival was celebrated dedicated to all martyrs. In the Eastern Orthodox Church, the tradition of remembering saints on this day is still continued. In Polish folk tradition, Pentecost, celebrated 50 days after Easter Sunday, is dedicated to the memory of dead ancestors (especially in the Eastern Orthodox Church). In 609, Pope Boniface IV brought the idea of the festival into life when he dedicated the ancient Roman shrine in honour of all gods (the Pantheon) to the Virgin Mary and the holy martyrs, and the main celebrations were set for 13th May. In 835, Pope Gregory IV established another festival in honour of the saints celebrated on 1st November. The idea of All Souls' Day, dedicated to the memory of the faithful who died and suffered in Purgatory, was conceived by Abbot Odilon from Cluny, who ordered in 998 that all monasteries in the Clunaic tradition must hold an Office for the dead. With time, the festival was adopted in the whole of the western Church and celebrated on 2nd November. At present, All Saints' Day in the Catholic Church is in fact strictly connected with All Souls' Day (Kupisiński, 2007).

In the Polish tradition, All Saints' and All Souls' Days are a time for reflection and remembering the deceased. However, the custom of visiting graves has ecumenical and commercial features as well. Poles travel long distances to return for a short time to their place of birth, or to places related to the stories of their lives, family, friends or nation.

1st and 2nd November in Latin America, when the Day (or Festival) of the Dead (*Dia de los Muertos, Día de los Difuntos, Fiesta de las Ñatitas, Fet Gede, Araw ng mga Patay*) is celebrated, are a syncretic combination of All Saints' and All Souls' Days with pre-Columbian rituals in honour of the ancestors. In Mexico, Guatemala, Peru, Bolivia, Haiti or the Philippines, they have distinctive features of a carnival where the cemetery is a place of joyful family meetings with the deceased, however retaining the atmosphere of the afterlife mystery (Jaszczak, Dreksler, 2013).

Celebrations in Latin America vary, depending on the country and region, but they all include some practices such as renovating, cleaning or repainting family graves, gravestones and crosses, decorating them with flowers and candles, building symbolic altars at home or on the graves, preparing special meals and drinks, praying for the souls of the dead and participating in Holy Mass. In native regions of Latin America, such as southern Mexico, territories inhabited by Mayans, or the Andes regions, families take part in complicated rituals at cemeteries, which involve singing, dancing, picnics, leaving food for the dead on, by or inside graves, a vigil for the spirits and ritual games. In Guatemala, people fly kites to welcome the souls of the dead. Many native inhabitants arrange special altars dedicated to the deceased, decorate them with flowers, candles, incense and souvenirs, prepare special dishes. Mexican cakes in the shape of a scull, produced from white sugar and ornamented with icing, have become a symbol of the Day of the Dead and recognized all over the world.

Maintaining harmony between the worlds of the living and the dead was a key element in the beliefs of the Aztecs, Mayans, Olmecs and other farming peoples of America before the arrival of the Europeans. Festivals in honour of the dead took place throughout the year playing an important role in maintaining social relationships. In Latin America, rituals such as renovating graves, building altars or preparing special dishes require the cooperation of family members and friends who meet and pray for the souls of the dead together, visit the altars they have prepared and share festival dishes to show respect to the dead. Another aim of these activities is to confirm collective identity and solidarity, pointing to the secular character of the tradition at the same time (Brandes, 1998a, 1998b; Marchi, 2013).

4. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND RESULTS

In 2004, the author conducted research in Łódź in order to estimate the number of people who visited selected cemeteries on 1st November. The scale of visitors was estimated by counting those entering cemeteries at two-minute intervals, every half an hour, between 6.00 and 22.00. The cemeteries considered in the study were the largest necropolises in Łódź. In 2019, the author decided to check the results of the research conducted 15 years earlier, using the same method. The study involved counting those who visited selected cemeteries and also inventorying cemetery surroundings. Moreover, the author used the methods of participant observation and photographic documentation. At both times the weather was comparable as it was sunny and the temperatures encouraged people to take a walk.

The comparative study concerned two cemetery complexes in Doły and Zarzewie (Fig. 1).

The history of the cemeteries in question was connected with two villages, Doły and Zarzew, which were joined to Łódź in 1906 and 1915, respectively. In 1896, in the village of Doły, a cemetery for Protestants and Catholics was created (currently St Vincent's Cemetery), and soon after that further ones for the followers of the Eastern Orthodox Church (1905), Baptists (1910) and Mariavites (1906). There was also a military cemetery (St George's Cemetery, 1910) and a burial place for Muslims and non-believers. In this way, Doły became a major necropolis in Łódź. In 1947, most of the Evangelical cemetery was replaced by the municipal cemetery. In 2003, Pentecostals gained their own burial ground. In 1886, in the village of Zarzew, St Ann's Cemetery was established (in today's Lodowa St), and in 1975 – a municipal cemetery was added. The total area of the cemeteries in Doły is 37.5 hectares and in Zarzew – 29.9 hectares. Table 1 is a comparative presentation of cemeteries in Łódź, with 'Doły' and 'Zarzew' cemeteries highlighted.

In the study of visitor numbers, the author focused on establishing the number of person-entries to the cemeteries. He proposed to adopt the coefficient α as a multiple of cemetery entries during the day. Multipleentries to a given cemetery usually resulted from its transit location and the visitors' preference to take a shortcut on their way to a grave situated at the adjacentcemetery. They also resulted from visiting the same graves more than once during the day (Tanaś, 2008).

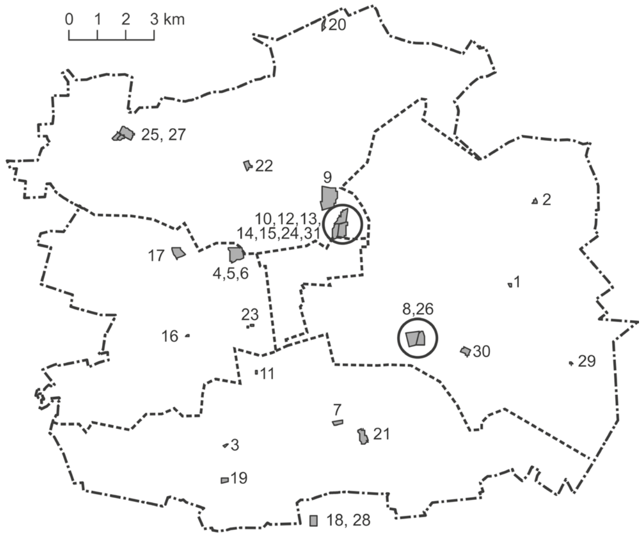

Figure 1. The distribution of cemeteries in Łódź in 2005

1 – 'Mileszki'' (St Dorothea and John the Baptist Cemetery, Catholic) – Frezjowa St, 2 – 'Nowosolna' (St Andrew Bobola Cemetery, Catholic) – Kasprowicza St, 3 – 'Sopocka' (Evangelical) – Sopocka St, 4, 5, 6 – 'Old Cemetery' (St Joseph's Cemetery, Catholic, Evangelical, Eastern Orthodox) – Ogrodowa St, 7 – 'Rzgowska' (St Francis, Catholic) – Rzgowska St, 8, 26 – 'Zarzew' (St Ann's Cemetery, Catholic, municipal) – Lodowa, Przybyszewskiego Sts, 9 – 'Bracka' (Jewish) – Bracka St, 11 – 'Piękna' (Evangelical Reformed) – Piękna St, 10, 12, 13, 14, 15, 24, 31 – 'Doły' (St Vincent's Cemetery, Catholic; St George Cemetery, military, municipal, Eastern Orthodox, Mariavite, Baptist, Catholic, Pentecostal) – Wojska Polskiego, Smutna, Telefoniczna Sts, 16 – 'Retkinia' (Catholic) – Retkińska St, 17 – 'Mania' (St Anthony, Catholic) – Solec St, 8, 18, 28 – 'Starowa Góra' (St Maximilian Kolbe war cemetery, Catholic), 19 – 'Ruda' (Catholic) – Mierzejowa St, 20 – 'Łagiewniki' (Catholic), 21 – 'Kurczaki' (St Adalbert Cemetery, Catholic) – Kurczaki St, 22 – 'Radogoszcz' (Catholic) – Zgierska St, 23 – 'Poniatowski Park' (war cemetery) – Żeromskiego St, 25, 27 – 'Szczecińska' (Our Lady of Perpetual Help Cemetery, Catholic, municipal) – Szczecińska St, 29 – 'Andrzejów' (Our Lady of the Immaculate Conception Cemetery, Catholic), 30 – 'Zakładowa' (Catholic) – Zakładowa St

Source: author

Table 1. Cemeteries in Łódź

Cemetery	Founded	Area (ha)
St Dorothea and John the Baptist – Mileszki	19th c.	1.0
St Andrew Bobola – Nowosolna	1846	2.0
Evangelical – Sopocka St	1850	1.1
St Joseph – Ogrodowa St	1855	10.6
Eastern Orthodox – Srebrzyńska St	1855	0.7
Evangelical – Ogrodowa St	1855	9.5
St Francis – Rzgowska St	1882	4.8
St Ann – Lodowa St (Zarzew)	1886	18.5
Jewish – Bracka St	1892	42.0
St Vincent – Smutna St (Doły)	1896	17.0
Evangelical Reformed – Piękna St	1904	0.6

Table 1. Cemeteries in Łódź

Cemetery	Founded	Area (ha)
Eastern Orthodox – Telefoniczna St (Doły)	1905	1.9
Mariavite – Wojska Polskiego St (Doły)	1906	0.8
St George – Wojska Polskiego St (Doły)	1910	2.7
Baptist – Telefoniczna St (Doły)	1910	1.5
Retkinia parish cemetery – Retkińska St	1913	1.0
St Anthony – Solec St (Mania)	1914	11.0
World War I cemetery – Gadka Stara	1914	5.2
Ruda parish cemetery – Mierzejowa St	1917	3.3
Łagiewniki parish cemetery – Okólna St	1918	1.1
St Adalbert – Kurczaki St	1924	15.0
St Roch – Zgierska St (Radogoszcz)	1925	5.5
World War II cemetery –Józef Poniatowski Park	1945	0.3
Municipal cemetery – Smutna St (Doły)	1947	12.0
Our Lady of Perpetual Help– Szczecińska St	1949	22.0
Municipal cemetery – Przybyszewskiego St (Zarzew)	1975	11.4
Municipal cemetery – Hodowlana St (Szczecińska)	1988	5.6
St Maria Kolbe – Gadka Stara	1991	5.5
Our Lady of Immaculate Conception– Andrzejów	1992	2.9
All Saints – Zakładowa St	2000	7.0
Pentecostals – Smutna St (Doły)	2003	2.5

Source: author based on data provided by the cemetery administration and the Provincial Monument Conservation Office.

Table 2. The number of person-entries to the cemeteries in question on 1st November 2004 and 1st November 2019

Cemetery	Cemetery area (ha)	Multiple entries to cemeteries (α) in thousands					
		1		1.5		2	
		2004	2019	2004	2019	2004	2019
Doły	37.6	270.0	264.0	180.0	176.0	135.0	132.0
Zarzew	29.9	203.0	162.0	135.3	108.0	101.5	81.0

Source: author based on Tanaś (2008).

In the author's opinion, based on the observation of visitors at Łódź cemeteries in 2004, 2005 and 2009, coefficient α falls into the range of 1.5 to 2. This means that the visitors entered the cemetery 1.5-2 times during the day, on average (they visited the cemetery once, twice or several times a day). In the case of the cemeteries in question, coefficient α was rated at 1.5 (Table 2).

Doły cemeteries are located in the northern part of the city. In 2004, about 27,000 people entered the cemeteries at the peak of the visits (10.00-12.00), and in 2019 – about 26,500. In 2004, about 270,000 person-entries were recorded at seven cemeteries in Doły, during the whole day (6.00-10.00), and in 2019 – 264,000. The number of person entries over a period of 15 years had decreased only by 3%. At α=1.5, on 1st November, the Doły cemeteries were visited by ca. 180,000 people in 2004 and by 176,000 in 2019. The results are then highly comparable, allowing for a statistical error of 3-5%.

Zarzew cemeteries are located in the south-east part of the city, close to Widzew a large housing estate. At the peak of the visits (10.00-12.00) in 2004, about 22,000 people entered the cemeteries within one hour, and in 2019 – about 18,000, which was a decrease by about 20% over the period of 15 years. Jointly, at the Zarzew cemeteries, about 203,000 entries were recorded on All Saints' Day (6.00-10.00), while in 2019 it was 162,000. Thus, the number of person-entries decreased by about 20% over a period of 15 years. At α=1.5, on 1st November, the Zarzew cemeteries were visited by ca. 135,000 people in 2004 and 108,000 people in 2019.

All together, in 2004, the cemeteries in question (at α=1.5) were visited by about 315,000 people, and in 2019 by 284,000, which was a decrease by about 10%. It should be noted that in 2004, Łódź was inhabited by 774,000 and in 2019 by only slightly over 685,000, which means that Łódź's population had decreased by 11.5% between 2004 and 2019.

In 2004, the author conducted research on the main motivations to visit cemeteries on 1st November[2]. This showed that in Doły cemeteries, 8% of the respondents indicated a walk (3%) and a cognitive motivation (5%), while in the Zarzew cemeteries, similar declarations were made by 7% of the respondents (5% and 2%, respectively). These were people who did not have relatives or friends buried at those cemeteries. The differences were small, but cognitive motivation was more common in Doły, probably due to the fact that the graves of distinguished inhabitants are located at municipal and military cemeteries. For comparison, at the historical Old Cemetery in Ogrodowa St, a walk for recreational and cognitive purposes on that day was indicated by 12% of the respondents who were not visiting the graves of their family members or friends. The results of the study clearly point to the tradition of recreational walks and the exceptional atmo sphere at cemeteries at that time as motivations to visit them.

Apart from verifying the number of people visiting cemeteries in 2004 and 2019, the author also conducted an inventory of the retail outlets and food kiosks located near the cemeteries in question. The number of stalls may point to the role of trade and gastronomy on All Saints' Day both for traders and inhabitants and most sold flowers, grave candles or decorative elements (including devotional items). The visitors were interested in the food kiosks which offered hot dishes, grilled *oscypki* (smoked cheese made from sheep milk), hamburgers, hot dogs, ice creams, candy floss, cakes and bagels a traditional specialty on All Saints' Day. Stalls where you could buy toys and balloons provoked various comments. Participant observation, particularly in Smutna St in Doły and Przybyszewskiego St in Zarzew, allowed the author to experience the noise, the festival atmosphere, the smell of fried food, and the sight of children with balloons, eating candy floss and icecream. This clearly suggests the country fair character of the festivity, with its atmosphere of a parish church fair or festival.

Although the atmosphere of a country fair and a church fair felt around the cemeteries sometimes provoked behaviour and comments suggesting disapproval of the food and toy stalls, the author believes that they were generally accepted. It should be stressed that eating the food sold from the stalls was not observed inside the cemeteries, contrary to cigarette smoking.

In the peak hours at the cemetery in Lodowa Street, a musician playing the violin and using portable loudspeakers was heard, and in the complex of Zarzew cemeteries (Lodowa, Przybyszewskiego and Smutna Sts) five beggars were observed.

The cemeteries in Doły were surrounded by 230 retail outlets selling flowers, grave candles and decorations, including eight stands selling toys, balloons and devotional objects, as well as 30 food stalls offering hot dishes, bread, hot dogs, warmed *oscypki*, popcorn, candy floss, ice cream and bagels (7) (Fig. 2). For comparison, on three Sundays in May 2020, an average of 22 retail outlets were recorded including 10 permanent shops and 12 temporary stalls selling flowers, candles and decorations.

The Zarzew cemeteries were surrounded by 229 retail outlets selling flowers, grave candles or decorations, including six selling toys, balloons and devotional

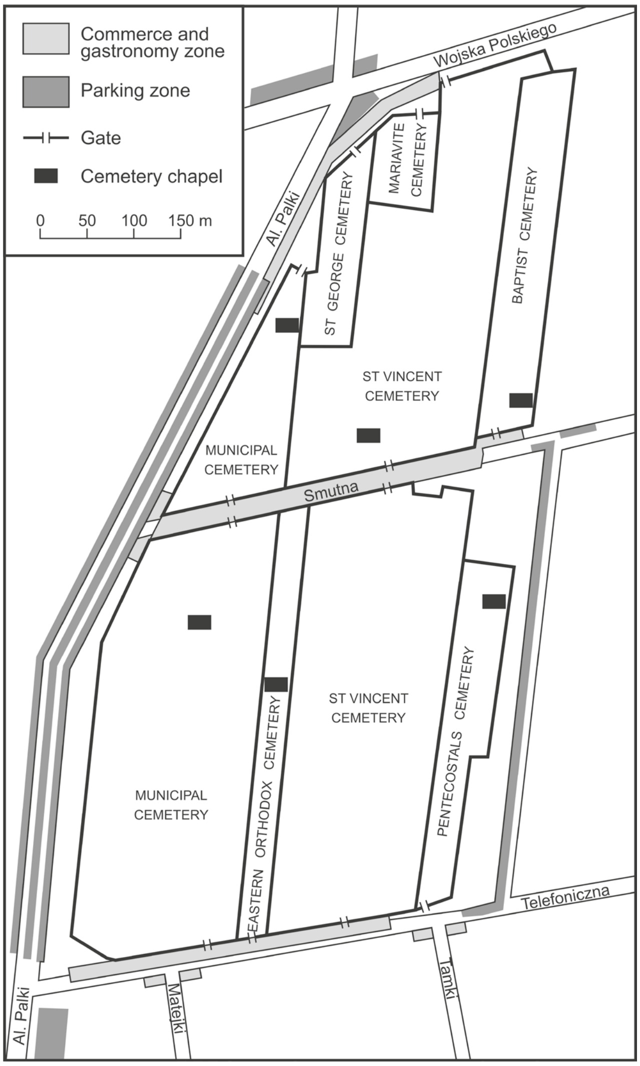

Figure 2. The development of 'Doły' cemeteries surroundings
Source: author

objects, as well as 18 food stalls offering hot dishes, bread, hot dogs, warmed *oscypki*, popcorn, candy floss, ice cream and bagels (7) (Fig. 3). For comparison, on three Sundays in May 2020, 12 permanent shops and 8 temporary stalls selling only flowers, candles and decoration articles were recorded (20 retail points, jointly). There were no food stalls.

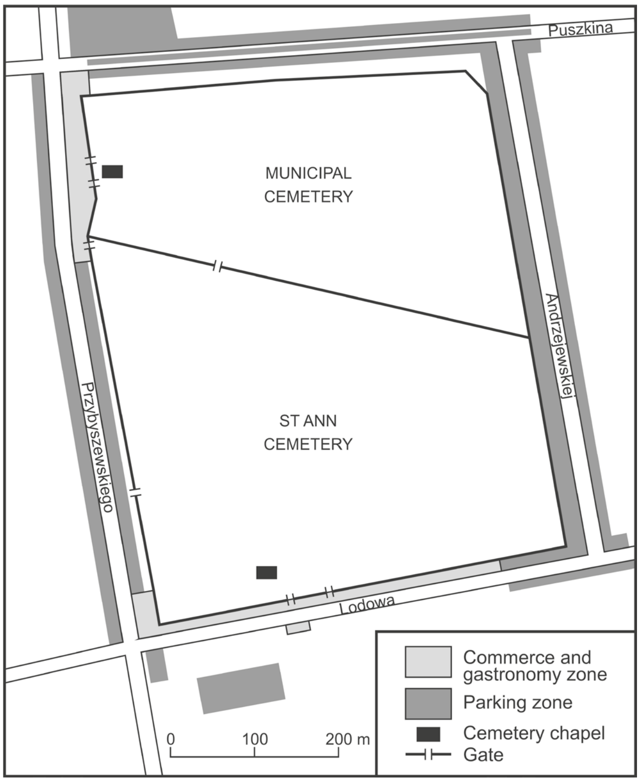

Figure 3. The development
of 'Zarzew' cemeteries surroundings
Source: author

At the car parks in the streets adjacent to the Zarzew cemeteries (Lodowa, Przybyszewskiego, Puszkina and Andrzejewska Sts), about 3000 cars were parked in the 10.00-12.00 period.

Comparing the number of retail and food outlets offering their services around both cemetery complexes on 1st November and on a Sunday in May, 10 times more facilities were available on All Saints' Day than in May.

The research conducted by the author in 2005 shows that about 85% of adult respondents visited the cemetery at least once on All Saints' Day. In Poland, on 1st and 2nd November, cemeteries and graves are visited not only out of the sense of religious, civil or family duty, but they are also a place of cognitive and recreational walks taken by people in their free time. This issue has been presented in the author's study regarding motivations for cemetery visits (Tanaś, 2008; see also: Kulczyńska, Marciniak, 2018).

5. SUMMARY

Nowadays, the character of the November festival in honour of the dead is a consequence of cultural diffusion, i.e. the distribution of cultural elements by way of borrowing which results in their cultural syncretism. The author has tried to show that although the nature of All Saints' Day in Poland and the Day of the Dead in Latin America is different, both festivals share a number of features.

Globalization, the commonality of information distribution, the development of mass culture and the influence of other cultures on Polish customs certainly have caused a growing secularization and commercialization of All Saints' Day.

All Saints' Day is a Christian Church festival, celebrated by all its denominations, though it does not always include the tradition of visiting graves. The atmosphere of this day and the power of tradition are shared by the majority of Polish society, believers and non-believers alike. In the era of developing global communication and commercialization of life, the character of the festival in honour of the dead is constantly changing.

It should be remembered that All Saints' Day is the most important day in the process of promoting the educational function of cemeteries, developing cultural awareness, building local communities and the sense of civic ties based on respect for ancestors and history. While the festival lasts, necropolises are the focus for media attention, a place for walks, family and patriotic education, as well as a cultural tourism destination. A significant role in preserving the artistic and historical heritage of Polish cemeteries is played by charity collections as money that is raised at cemeteries on All Saints' Day is used for preserving historical monuments. This type of charity collection was started by Jerzy Waldorf, who founded the Social Protection Committee for the Preservation of Old Powązki in 1974 and initiated the tradition of the 1st November collections.

The pop-culturization of All Saints' Day is a fact. A change in motivations to visit cemeteries at the beginning of November is strictly connected with socioeconomic and cultural transformations including growing social secularization. Visiting a cemetery displays the features of a country fair, cultural globalization and commercialization, or even a fete. This confirms the thesis that, like the Mexican Day of the Dead, Polish All Saints' Day can be treated as a cultural tourism product.

The author has tried to present the social significance of cemeteries, focusing not only on religious but also secular values, including the underestimated therapeutic and regenerative function of cemeteries, as well as their role in shaping valued community attitudes such as patriotism and citizenship. The social function performed by cemeteries is particularly visible at the beginning of November both in Poland and in Latin America. Despite the fact that the ideology of the cult of the dead, both in sacred and profane spheres, undergoes constant cultural change, the mass character of visiting graves on All Saints' Day in Poland and on the Day of the Dead in Latin America proves the significance and need for strengthening local social ties e.g. building up religious, family and civil communities based on the memory of the deceased. In this context, the assets of cemeteries and the cult of the dead may be a significant component of the cultural tourism product.

ENDNOTES

[1] One of the first works dedicated to cemetery planning, cited later by many authors, is that by Loudon (1843), broadly described by Curl (1980) in *A Celebration of death*. Curl analyses the idea of a "cemetery garden" conceived by Loudon, a Scottish botanist, and doyen of the British school of landscape design. Studies on the evolution of cemetery architectonic designs have been conducted by Etlin (1984) and Ragon (1983), among others.

[2] So far unpublished research results. Data was collected during the survey by the students of the Theological Seminary in Łódź during a charity collection organized on 31 October and 1 November 2004, at the cemeteries in question.

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EXPLORING DESTINATION IMAGE, FAMILIARITY, INFORMATION SEARCH BEHAVIOUR, INVOLVEMENT AND TRAVEL MOTIVATION AS INFLUENCERS OF ECOTOURISTS' DESTINATION LOYALTY[1]

Abstract: This work aims at exploring the influence of selected factors that have received little attention in the past on ecotourism destination loyalty within the context of a developing country. The factors are destination image, familiarity, information search behaviour, involvement and travel motivation. The research was conducted on ecotourists visiting Malaysia who were approached on site and assisted to complete the survey instrument. The sample size was 813, representing a response rate of 47%. Hypotheses were tested using Structural Equation Model. It was found that while there are no linear relationships between the tested variables and destination loyalty, there are findings from the study that offer some managerial implications towards the industry.

Keywords: destination loyalty, destination image, familiarity, search behaviour, involvement, travel motivation.

1. INTRODUCTION

Understanding what could have an impact on destination and brand loyalties may be valuable in formulating destination management and marketing strategies, as well as on service delivery (Prayag, Ryan, 2012). This work attempts to examine the impact of several destination loyalty factors that past studies may have not investigated simultaneously i.e. destination image, familiarity, information search behaviour, involvement and travel motivation. The context of the study, i.e. Malaysian ecotourism, may also add to the newness of the findings. Its rich cultural and natural biodiversity has led Malaysia to win an award as the Best Ecotourism Destination in two consecutive years (2007-2008) at the Travel Weekly (Asia) Industry Awards. Hence, ecotourism is clearly an asset to Malaysian tourism, and understanding what contributes to loyalty to ecotourism destinations in Malaysia could help the country improve its ecotourism offering.

Attracting and retaining a target market is a challenging endeavour particularly if not much is known about the market to begin with. This is more so because invoking customer loyalty involves knowing the factors that could shape destination and brand loyalties. The same applies to ecotourism destinations in Malaysia. With so many tropical destinations globally offering ecotourism attractions, it is important that ecotourism marketing managers in Malaysia understand what will influence customers to be loyal. Promoting ecotourism as a tourism product contributes not only towards the economy (Sangpikul, 2017) but also towards destination sustainability because the nature of ecotourism encourages minimal development, low impact activities and local economy enhancement. Ecotourism also plays an educational role in sustainable development by enhancing stakeholder collaboration networks and contributing towards the educational system (Mondino, Beery, 2019). This aligns with sustainable the consumption and production that SDG11 aims for.

In the literature, the many identified antecedents of destination loyalty (such as satisfaction, perception of services, perception of value, travel motivation, destination image, destination knowledge, information search behaviour, level of involvement, number of previous trips) have been studied separately. Such an approach impedes a more comprehensive or holistic look at the issue of destination loyalty.

In addition, not much of the literature has focused on the relationships between important factors such as satisfaction, perceived quality, perceived value and destination image on destination loyalty in the context of nature-based or ecotourism. Instead, most discourse on the issue of destination loyalty has been explored only in the context of general tourism. Hence, finding guidance on targeting the potentially loyal ecotourist segment in the academic literature is difficult since not many destination loyalty studies focus on ecotourism. Hence, this work is probably one of the few that attempts to look at the influence of several destination loyalty antecedents simultaneously to see the bigger picture as not many past studies have focused on such a combination.

Hence, this study attempts to expand the research focus by extending the proposition that individual components of a destination can influence tourists' overall destination satisfaction and loyalty (see Chi, Qu, 2008; Neal, Gursoy, 2008). This approach is considered necessary because of the multi-faceted and hybrid experience offered by the tourism industry. It also aims to close gaps presented by past research that focused individually on each aspect of the service experience, and offers another perspective on destination loyalty because it studies a selected number of destination loyalty antecedents for ecotourism in the Malaysian context. The following main research question was asked: How do ecotourists' destination image, familiarity with the destination, information search behaviour, level of involvement and travel motivation influence their destination loyalty? To answer this, the remaining sections of this article are organized as follows: first, a review of relevant literature is presented; then the methodology used to gather data is explained, followed by a discussion of the findings. Finally, the article concludes by presenting possible theoretical and managerial implications of the findings.

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

Ecotourism is now a concept that has grown widely (Dowling, Fennell, 2003; Hawkins, Lamoureux, 2001; WTTC, 2004). It has managed to draw the interest of many stakeholders because it has the potential ability to produce benefits for the economy and ecology of a destination (Sitar, May-Collado, Wright, 2017; Weaver, 2005; Wight, 1993). Ecotourism has also managed to attract the attention of many scholars who have attempted to give perspectives on the complexities and confusions often linked to the understanding of ecotourism (Weaver, 2005). Nonetheless, little consensus has been achieved despite the mounting numbers and time devoted to unravel the true meaning of ecotourism (see Blamey, 2001; Honey, 1999; Hvenegaard, 1994). Instead, the various interpretations of ecotourism have caused difficulties for managers and planners who want to find guidance to assist their duties (Donohoe and Needham, 2005a; Dowling and Fennell, 2003). As the debate on the true definition of ecotourism is not the focus of this study, one definition has been adopted to suit its purpose and that is the one by the International Ecotourism Society (TIES, 2006), as improved by Honey (2008), which said that ecotourism involves responsible behaviour that conserves natural resources and surrounding communities. It is an all-encompassing concept that includes aspects such as nature travel, environmental awareness, minimisation of negative impacts, direct monetary benefits to nature and culture, local empowerment, local jobs, human rights and democratic activity.

Visitors that visit ecotourism destinations are known as ecotourists. Even in the 1990s, there were already no less than five million eco-tourists recorded globally, most of whom were from North America, Europe and Australia (Kamauro, 1996). According to Wight (1996), eco-tourists can often be divided based on factors such as demography, background, motivation and preferences. They can also be divided based on other factors such as environmental attitudes (Sangpikul, 2020; Uysal, Jurowski, Noe, McDonald, 1994), cultural values (Blamey, Braithwaite, 1997) and benefits sought (Palacio, McCool, 1997). Jamieson (2001) contends that ecotourists are more concerned about causing distress during travel as they value different things and have different lifestyles and this may have an effect on their demand. For example, most North American eco-tourists look for cultural and educational values (Plog, 1974) whilst Singaporean eco-tourists look for business opportunities and new things (Swarbrooke, Horner, 1999).

3. LOYALTY

Some past researchers (such as Chen, Gursoy, 2001; Oppermann, 2000; Yoon, Uysal, 2005) have defined loyalty as tourists' propensity to choose the same destination for their future visits and their willingness to suggest it to others. Some authors refer to it as an intention to revisit or return to a destination they have visited before (Quintal, Polcynzski, 2010). Previous studies reported many factors that could influence destination loyalty including visit experience level (Chi, Qu, 2008; Neal, Gursoy, 2008), perceived destination services (Chen, Tsai, 2007; Chi, 2012; Chi, Qu, 2008; Cole, Illum, 2006) perceived destination value (Sun, Chi, Xu, 2013), destination image (Castro, Armario, Ruiz, 2007; Chen, Gursoy, 2001; Chen, Tsai, 2007; Chi, 2011; Chi, Qu, 2008), travel motivation (Yoon, Uysal, 2005), destination knowledge (Gursoy, McCleary, 2004a, 2004b; Konecnik, Gartner, 2007), information search behaviour (Chen, Gursoy 2000, 2011), involvement level (Gursoy, Gavcar, 2003; Havitz, Dimanche, 1999), and past trips to the destination (Gursoy, McCleary, 2004a, 2004b).

The studies on tourists' loyalty described above are in the context of general tourism. Within the context of ecotourism, not much discourse on the subject can be found. However, as Ezebilo (2014) has found, even in the context of ecotourism, a revisiting decision is directly linked to satisfaction on the first visit. In other words, building loyalty depends on a positive and satisfactory experience during a first visit. The author's contention is consistent with an empirical finding of Plessis, Merwe & Saayman (2012) that shows the link between tourist satisfaction and tourist loyalty. The authors' study on visitors to South African National Parks indicate that there are five factors that could influence satisfaction in a national park setting i.e. tourism product offer, pollution, park violation, tourism impact and environmental management. Among these factors, pollution (from restaurants, litter and noise) contributes the most towards negative experience, followed by tourism impacts (the presence of alien plant species, trampling and erosion level along tourist routes) and park violations (overcrowding and speeding). They conclude that if ecotourists have a perceived positive experience, the level of ecotourist satisfaction will increase and the level of loyalty will also increase at the same time. Since ecotourists differ from regular tourists especially in the factors influencing their motivation and satisfaction (Kasim, Gursoy, Chi, Sreenivasan 2014), more empirical evidence is needed before more can be concluded about factors influencing their loyalty.

4. DESTINATION IMAGE

Destination image is one of the most frequently examined topics in tourism literature (Sun, Chi, Xu, 2013). It became a focus of tourism research in the early 1970s and attention increased in the 1990s. This momentum coincides with the realization by both academics and industry practitioners of the importance of a destination's image in its promotion. It has been a relatively well-studied line of inquiry in the field of hospitality and tourism for more than 30 years.

Destination image is an essential factor because a good image could bring more tourists (Hsu, 2004). Crompton (1979) defined destination image as the sum of beliefs, ideas and impressions that a tourist holds of a place. These have been divided in the literature into two dimensions i.e. cognitive and affective. The cognitive component consists of beliefs and knowledge about the physical attributes of a destination, while the affective component refers to the feelings towards the attributes and the environment (Baloglu, McCleary, 1999; Hosany, Ekinci, Uysal, 2007). Destination image plays a significant role in influencing destination choice, the decision-making process and in the selection of on-site activities such as lodging, attractions and activities to participate in. A positive image enhances a tourist's decision to visit a particular destination (O'Leary, Deegan, 2005). If the tourist perceives a positive and favourable destination image in their mind then they are likely to desire to visit it (Beerli, Martin, 2004; Laws, Scott, Parfitt, 2002)

Destination image is also likely to have significant influences on post-trip assessment such as perceived value, satisfaction and future behavioural intentions (revisit intentions and recommendation to others) (Chen, Tsai, 2007; Lee, Lee, Lee, 2005). If any tourism authority can create a positive image in a tourist's mind then it is easier to be successful in a tourism business (Hankinson, 2004). Hall & O'Sullivan (1996) propose that there are three essential factors that help to build a destination: word of mouth, a good image, and good governance. In terms of word of mouth recommendations, tourists are more likely to spread a positive word or story to their family, relatives and friends if their experience was satisfactory. In addition, the destination's good image, inculcated through good relations with the media in particular, can help influence potential tourists' decision making. Finally, good policies and proper implementation of those policies will ensure the destination lives up to its image and help provide tourists with a satisfactory experience from their visits. There is no doubt that destination image management is one of the most important aspects of marketing because travellers' images are likely to have a rather strong effect on their decision making and selection behaviour (Chi, 2012).

Tourists' subjective evaluation of a destination, their choice and consequent behaviour tend to be influenced by destination image (e.g., Castro, Armario i Ruiz, 2007; Chi, 2011; Chi, Qu, 2008). Destinations with positive images tend to be selected as those of choice because the positive image influences tourists to assume that the destination's products and services will be of high value as well (Chen, Tsai, 2007; Chi, Qu, 2008) and that will contribute towards their overall satisfaction. This indicates the positive relationships between image and satisfaction, as well as between image and quality. However, it is also suggested that the relationship between image and satisfaction is reciprocal, tourists' actual experiences affect their post-trip subjective evaluations as well as their image of the destination (Chi, 2012). Studies also suggest that there may be a direct relationship between destination image and perceived value (Mahasuweerachai, Qu, 2011). However, previous work that examined this relationship reported contradictory results. For example, Andreassen & Lindestad (1998) contend that while image is likely to have significant impact on other outcome variables, such as perceived quality and satisfaction, there was no significant relationship reported between image and value. Their findings suggested that the impact of image on value was moderated by perceived quality.

There is a general consensus that destination image also affects the behavioural intentions of tourists (Castro, Amario, Riuz, 2007; Chen, Gursoy, 2001; Chen, Tsai, 2007). For example, Mahasuweerachai & Qu (2011) found that the image positively affects visitors' intentions to revisit in the future. Further, Andreassen & Lindestad (1998) suggest that image tends to have significant impact on customer satisfaction, quality, and loyalty in a service context. On the other hand, Castro et al. (2007) found that the influence on loyalty of a destination's image is likely to be moderated by service quality and/or tourist satisfaction. Chen & Tsai (2007) also support the notion that destination image is likely to have the most important effect on behavioural intentions (i.e. intention to revisit and willingness to recommend). Based on the preceding discussion, this work proposes that destination image is likely to have significant impact on quality, satisfaction, and destination loyalty.

Hypothesis one: Ecotourists' destination images can influence their ecotourism destination loyalty

5. DESTINATION KNOWLEDGE/ FAMILIARITY

Destination knowledge can be described as all destination-related information stored in a traveller's mind (Gursoy, 2011a) especially in their long-term memory (Gursoy, McCleary, 2004a, 2004b). Knowledgeable consumers will use their prior product knowledge or information to facilitate their decision making more effectively (Gursoy, 2011a). The process starts with retrieval of information from long-term memory (Ramkissoon, Nunkoo, 2008) to evaluate something in terms of utility, attributes, and applications (Ratchford, 2001). Prior product knowledge enhances a consumer's internal memory and facilitates the decision-making process (Gursoy, 2011b). It also influences the nature of information search and storage in long-term memory (Gursoy, 2011a). According to Gursoy & Gavcar (2003), consumers tend to acquire information to reduce expected risk within an uncertain situation (Gursoy, 2003) and to reduce the discrepancy between external information and prior knowledge to protect themselves and maximize their satisfaction (Gursoy, McCleary, 2004b). Ramkissoon & Nunkoo, (2008) have broadly defined knowledge as brand awareness, attributes, benefits, images, thoughts, feelings, attitudes and experiences. In the context of ecotourism, the knowledge that a potential ecotourist has about a destination has been found to influence its choice (Ezebilo, 2014).

Alba & Hutchinson (1987) suggest that a consumer's knowledge is likely to have two dimensions: 1. Familiarity – the amount of exposure to the product through past purchases, past use, indirect experiences, on-going participation and learning; and 2. Expertise – the ability to perform product-related tasks. Familiarity reflects the initial stages of learning and expertise reflects the more advanced phases of learning. Alba & Hutchinson, (1987) suggest that increased familiarity with a product increases expertise about the product as well. On the other hand, Keller (2003) suggests that knowledge is the basis and precursor of brand equity or "the sum of factors (or dimensions) contributing to a brand's value in the consumer's mind" (Konecnik, Gartner, 2007, p. 401). Keller (1993, 1998) also suggests that brand knowledge potentially has two major components: brand awareness and brand image. Brand awareness is akin to Alba & Hutchinson's (1987) familiarity construct. In this study, destination knowledge is to have two components: destination familiarity/ awareness and expertise. Destination familiarity/ awareness refers to "what someone knows or thinks they know about a destination" (Konecnik, Gartner, 2007, p. 403) which is likely to influence image and loyalty.

Hypothesis two: Ecotourists' destination knowledge can influence their destination loyalty

6. INFORMATION SEARCH BEHAVIOUR

There is a consensus that destination selection and onsite trip decisions begin with information search (Chen, Gursoy, 2000; Gursoy, 2011a; Gursoy, McCleary, 2004a, 2004b; Ramkissoon i Nunkoo, 2008). Information search behaviour is defined by Engel, Blackwell & Miniard, (1995) as the wilful initiation of knowledge inside the memory or the retrieval of data from the surroundings. This means that information search can take place internally or externally (Engel, Blackwell, Miniard, 1995).

Information search is triggered whenever travellers need to make a decision, and is often started internally i.e. from a memory of past experience (Gursoy, 2011b). Internal information refers to first hand experiences about a destination or one that is similar to it, and cumulative knowledge (Fodness, Murray, 1997). If internal search proves sufficient to help decision-making, then an external search becomes unneeded (Gursoy, McCleary, 2004b). However, in cases where internal sources are incomplete or insufficient, then tourists would seek external supplementary information. Gursoy, (2011b) contends that travel decisions often require supplementary information from external sources to ensure a good final decision.

According to Fodness & Murray (1997), external information search has been conceptualized in the literature in terms of degree and direction. How much external information is gathered depends on the number of sources used and the amount of time devoted to the search (Gursoy, 2011a). The intensity of pre-purchase external information searching depends on the type of product in question. The higher the price, visibility and complexity of the product, the more the perceived risk and the more information searching required (Ramkissoon, Nunkoo, 2008). Researchers such as Fodness & Murray (1997), Chen & Gursoy (2000) and Ramkissoon & Nunkoo (2008) contend that travellers to international and new destinations have a tendency to use external information searching. However, not much is yet known on the influence of information search behaviour on ecotourists' levels of knowledge, destination image, perception of quality and loyalty.

Hypothesis three: Ecotourists' information search behaviour can influence their destination loyalty

7. INVOLVEMENT

The concept of involvement has been widely utilized in the consumer literature particularly on leisure, recreation and tourism (Dimanche, Havitz, Howard, 1993; Gursoy, Gavcar, 2003). It refers to "personal relevance" (Zaichkowsky, 1985) or a consumer's level of participation in relation to an object, situation or action. Personal relevance to a product is represented by a perceived linkage between needs, goals and values, and product knowledge. A consumer's feelings of personal relevance or involvement with a product depend on the extent that product characteristics are associated with personal goals and values (Chen, Li, Chen, 2013).

When an individual is highly involved in decision making, he/ she will invest time and resources to identify the problem, search for more information, and evaluate available options before making a purchase (Gursoy, Gavcar, 2003). Consumers who are highly involved are likely to use more criteria to search for more information. They will use more external information sources, evaluate fewer alternatives, and examine the importance and relevance of the information in detail (Fatima, Razzaque, 2013), produce more product-related thoughts and make more product inferences, want to know the strengths and weaknesses of possible alternatives in more detail, and will form attitudes that are more resistant to change. Not much is yet known about the influence of involvement on a consumer's information search behaviour, knowledge, perception of quality, destination image and their loyalty particularly within the context of ecotourism.

Hypothesis four: Ecotourists' level of involvement can influence their destination loyalty

8. TRAVEL MOTIVATION

Studies suggest that the motivation of travellers is likely to influence their satisfaction with the destination and therefore have an indirect influence on traveller loyalty (Prebensen, Woo, Chen, Uysal, 2013; Yoon, Uysal, 2005). According to Pizam, Neumman, & Reichel (1979), tourist motivation refers to an individual's impulse to engage in a tourism activity. It is the consequence of internal and external drivers (Gursoy, 2011b; Prebensen, Woo, Chen, Uysal, 2013) and is often an initiator to a traveller's purchase decision (Chi, 2011). Knowing the reasons why a destination is chosen is important for tourism marketeers (Lee, Hsu, 2013) because it helps them understand travel motivation and factors influencing a destination choice. As one of the most frequently studied topics in the field of hospitality and tourism, theories developed in other fields such as Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (Maslow, 1943) and Murray's (1938) classification of human needs have been used to study why people travel. This then evolved into a call for the development of travel motivation theories by Lundberg in 1971 and Dann in 1981. Consequently, numerous theories have since emerged including social psychological (Iso-Ahola, 1982), content (Witt, Wright, 1992), and expectancy (Witt, Wright, 1992).

In examining the tourist motivation literature, it is clear that there are four main approaches, each of which can be linked back to earlier motivation theories in the consumer behaviour literature (Prebensen, Woo, Chen, Uysal, 2013). These include the work of Maslow (1943) which can be linked to needs-based theory, the work of Rokeach (1968) which can be linked to value-based theories, expectancy theory (e.g., Witt, Wright, 1992) and benefits-sought theory (e.g. Frochot, Morrison, 2000; Pearce, Caltabiano, 1983). Iso-Ahola (1982) proposes that tourism and recreation are motivated by a seeking for personal and interpersonal escapes.

According to Gavcar & Gursoy (2002), push-pull theory has been one of the most frequently used to understand why people travel because it studies travel motivations from a two-dimensional perspective i.e. the assumption that travel choices are influenced by either their desires (push factor) or by being attracted to specific destination attributes (pull) (Prebensen, Woo, Chen, Uysal, 2013). While internal forces such as the desire to escape from routine, relax or seek entertainment are related to tourist wishes, pull motivations such as a beautiful environment and cheap prices are related destination attributes (Prebensen, Woo, Chen, Uysal, 2013). Push factors are mostly intangible needs inside an individual traveller (Gavcar, Gursoy, 2002) or socio-psychological, socioeconomic and demographic variables, as well as the 'Attitudes, Interests and Opinions' (AIO) of travellers (Prebensen, Woo, Chen, Uysal, 2013). In contrast, destination specific factors are the pull factors that could influence travellers' destination choice (Prebensen, Woo, Chen, Uysal, 2013) and are either tangible or intangible destination attributes (Lee, Hsu, 2013). To be effective, pull factors must be perceived and valued by the travellers (Yoon, Uysal, 2005).

Kasim, Gursoy, Chi & Sreenivasan (2014) have proposed that ecotourists are essentially different from regular tourists, particularly in relation to what could influence their travel motivation and trip satisfaction. Ecotourists' travel motivation focuses include environmental and adventure-based motivations (Fennell, 1990; Kretchman, Eagles, 1990; Williacy, Eagles, 1990; Eagles, 1992) covering aspects such as learning about nature, understanding local culture, taking photos of unique and scenic areas or objects and outdoor sightseeing (Eagles, 1992). What motivates ecotourists, according to Crossley & Lee (1994) and Wight (1996), are preferences for 1) quieter locations, 2) isolated areas of wilderness, 3) wildlife education, 4) the physical environment, 5) community benefit, 6) viewing plans and animals, and 7) physical challenge. A study by Eagles & Cascagnette (1995) for example, has identified 'desire to visit wilderness' as the top-ranked travel motivation for Canadian ecotourists. Bastic & Gojcic (2011) refer to this as 'ecological motivation'. Their study on Slovenian hotels (without an eco-label) and Austrian hotels (with an eco-label) found four factors affecting ecological motivation: bio-food, efficiency of water use and energy, the eco-behaviour of the hotel's staff, and healthy and environmentally-friendly equipment. Their findings showed that guests at Austrian hotels are more loyal compared to those who stay in Slovenian hotels because the former had higher ecological motivation than the latter. In addition, Austrian hotel guests perceived a higher level of service quality which indicates that an eco-label may attract tourists to a higher level of ecological motivation (Bastic, Gojcic, 2011).

Meanwhile, Kasim, Gursoy, Chi & Sreenivasan's (2014) review of the literature has identified that in understanding motivation in an ecotourism context, most studies have mostly focused on physical motivations. For example, Peruvian Amazon ecotourists look forward to the likelihood of seeing particular species that are unique, such as mega fauna (Okello, Manka, D'Amour, 2008; Naidoo i Adamowicz, 2005; Okello, Wishitemi, Mwinzi, 2001; Walpole, Leader-Williams, 2002). In Africa, ecotourists are driven by the possibility of watching flagship species because they are easily observed due to their large size. Meanwhile, Moscardo & Woods' (1998) study on ecotourists from Taiwan, Australia and Japan, found a predisposition towards 1) touring water-based nature attractions such as lakes and rivers; 2) engaging in nature-related activities at national parks and ecological sites. Clearly, ecotourists enjoy engaging in physically active lifestyles and new experiences when visiting the ecotourism sites of their choice (Kasim, Gursoy, Chi, Sreenivasan, 2014). In such cases, ecotourist satisfaction is largely built on image and expectations of various experience elements such as destination setting and landscape, opportunity to learn, uniqueness of cultures, an interpretative education program and guides (Bowen, 1999; Mackoy & Osland, 2004). On the other hand, ecotourist travel motivation has a social dimension. Eagles (1992) proposes that ecotourists prefer to travel in groups (social motivation) and are motivated by factors that are nature-oriented (attraction motivation). Moscardo & Woods (1998) found that ecotourists also seek social gratifications in terms of nature education, nature photography, activity and lifestyle, a new social circle and adventure while making full use of the limited time they have on a particular trip.

For this study, motivation is operationalized using push factors (under 'relaxation', 'excitement', 'pleasure', 'socialization', 'bonding', 'culture', 'education/learning', 'nature', 'self actualization' and 'wildlife sighting'). It proposes via the following hypothesis that even in an ecotourism context, the motivation of travellers is likely to have a significant impact on their satisfaction with the destination.

Hypothesis five: Ecotourists' travel motivations can influence their loyalty

9. METHOD

The study explores the following relationships: 1. The influence of ecotourists' travel motivations on their destination loyalty; 2. The influence of ecotourists' destination image on their destination loyalty; 3. The influence of ecotourists' information search behaviour on their destination loyalty; and 4. The influence of ecotourists' level of involvement on their destination loyalty. This followed the procedures recommended by Churchill (1979) and DeVellis (1991) in developing its instrument. To develop the item pool, the first step involved a review of the literature and focus group interviews with 1. travellers to ecotourism areas of Malaysia (10 people) and 2. industry professionals (4). Issues on content validity of the items, clarity, readability, and content validity were resolved at this stage. Targeting international ecotourists as respondents, the next step involves translating the instrument back to back from English to Mandarin to ensure that Mandarin speaking tourists were not excluded from the study. Mandarin was given priority to cater for the increase of Chinese tourists in Malaysia. Translation to other languages was not conducted due to lack of resources and language experts. Hence the strategy was to approach only English and Mandarin-speaking international ecotourists.

The instrument was pre-tested, revised accordingly and finalized based on the pre-test results. The study was conducted on-site using a self-administered survey approach in important ecotourism destinations i.e. 1) both marine and terrestrial in Sabah (Mt. Kinabalu, Crocker Range and Tawau Hills, Turtle Island, Tunku Abdul Rahman and Pulau Tiga); 2) Taman Negara Pahang; 3) Belum National Park; and 4) Penang National Park. These four constitute the primary ecotourism destinations in Malaysia. Using information on the population of international visitors from these sites, a target sample of 1721 was determined (95% accuracy at confidence interval of ±4). The outcome was a total of 813 samples, giving the study a response rate of 47%, a number considered sufficient for the purpose of the analysis because for a structural equation modelling (SEM), approximately only 200 responses are required to fulfil the assumptions and parameters of a survey project (Bennekom, 2000). Wolf, Harrington, Clark & Miller (2013) propose that the sample size for SEM should ideally be from 30 (for Simple CFA with four indicators and loadings of around 0.80) to 450 cases (for mediation models).

The sample was randomly selected and divided into two sub-samples. An exploratory factor analysis (EFA) with a principal component method with varimax rotation was performed to detect scale dimensionality on the first sub-sample (from now on referred as Sample One). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (with a value of 0.60 or above) and a significant Bartletts test of sphericity (Tabachnick, Fidel 1989) were used to detect the appropriateness of factor analysis. Attributes that had factor loadings of lower than 0.40 and attribute loading on more than one factor, with a loading score of equal to or greater than 0.40 on each factor, were eliminated from the analysis to ensure that each factor identified by EFA has only one dimension and that each attribute was loaded on only one factor (see Hattie 1985). This is followed by a Cronbach's Alpha reliability test to evaluate the reliability of each measurement scale using the first sub-sample (Zaichkowsky, 1985). Lastly, a confirmatory factor analysis was performed on the second sub-sample followed by an examination of chi-square (*c2*) statistics and associated *P* values to determine the fit of the measurement model. Jöreskog (1993) contends that the test is the most objective method of testing the fit of a confirmatory model. However, there are also other fit indices often utilized because of the problems associated with the test (Hu, Bentler 1995). The theoretical model that examines ecotourists' destination loyalty to Malaysian ecotourism destinations, and the factors that are likely to influence it was tested using the Structural Equation Model (SEM) approach. SEM enables the testing of multiple equations with multiple dependent variables to provide parameter values (i.e. path coefficients) for each of the research hypotheses and determines their respective significance.

10. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A total of 813 international tourists participated in this study. Table 1 shows the detailed of descriptive statistics of the respondents' demography.

Table 1. Background of the respondents

	Frequency	Percentage
Purpose of the trip		
Business	108	13.3
Shopping	288	35.4
Pleasure in any setting	87	10.7
Relaxation in natural setting	226	27.8
Learning about local nature and culture	104	12.8
Number of ecotourism sites visited		
One site	670	82.4
2-5 sites	129	15.9
6-10 sites	10	1.2
11-15 sites	4	0.5
Gender		
Male	409	60.1
Female	271	39.9
Age (years)		
18-25	13	1.6
26-33	177	21.8
34-41	446	54.9
42-49	146	18.0
≥50	31	3.8
Marital status		
Single	334	49.1
Married	333	49.0
Other	13	1.9
Employment		
Students	145	27.4
Professional	93	17.5
Business	194	36.6
Other	98	18.5
Origin		
Asia	180	35.4
Africa	38	7.5
Europe	114	22.4
North America	24	4.7
South America	48	9.4
Oceania	104	20.5
Travelling		
Alone	96	18.1
With friend	191	36.1
With colleagues	50	9.5
With family	140	26.5
Other	52	9.8
Number of previous trips to this destination		
None	192	41.6
Once	125	27.1
Twice	94	20.4
More than twice	50	10.8

Table 1. (cont.)

	Frequency	Percentage
Type of accommodation		
Hotel	292	57.6
Motel	71	14.0
Guesthouse	75	14.8
Homestay	69	13.6
Length of stay		
Less than 3 days	260	49.1
4 days to a week	198	37.4
8 days to 2 weeks	37	7.0
More than 14 days	34	6.4
Been in Malaysia before?		
Yes	388	80.2
No	96	19.8
Plan to revisit		
Yes	427	84.9
Plan to volunteer on the next visit		
Yes	287	54.2
Plan to make a donation		
Yes	259	48.9

Source: authors.

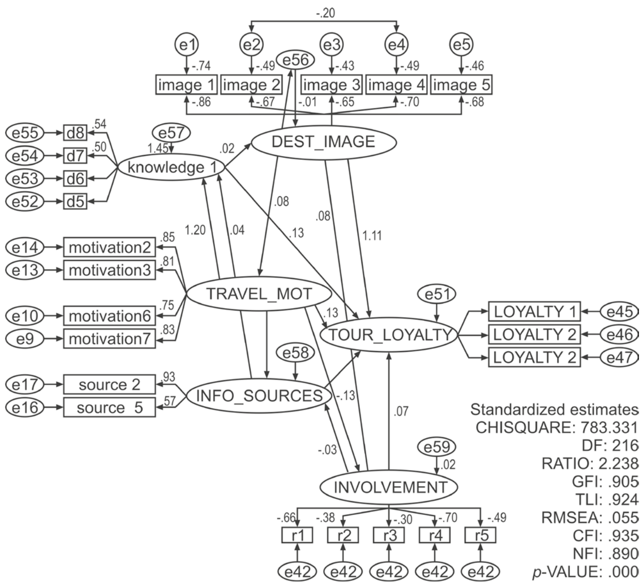

Figure 1. Structural equation modelling of tourist destination loyalty
Source: authors

Table 2. Goodness-of-fit results of second order confirmatory factor analysis model

Goodness-of-fit indices	Value
Chi-square (χ^2)	483.331
Degree of Freedom (*df*)	216
Normed Chi Square (χ^2/df)	2.238
Goodness-of-Fit Index (GFI)	0.905
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	0.935
Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI)	0.924
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	0.055
Sig. (*p*)	0.000

Source: authors.

Coefficient alphas for all study variables were above the acceptable level of 0.60 (Cavana, Delahaye, Sekaran, 2001) ranging from a minimum of 0.701 to 0.802. Accordingly, no items were deleted from the presented scales. All the variables in this study have values above 0.60. In addition, the SEM model fit results indicated a good model fit for the sample data since most of the indices sufficiently fulfilled their relative recommended thresholds. Reasonable rules of thumb as suggested by many researchers are greater than 0.9 for Normed Fit (NFI), Tucker-Lewis (TLI), Comparative Fit (CFI) and Goodness fit (GFI) indices. Meanwhile MacCallum, Browne and Sugawara (1996) have used 0.01, 0.05, and 0.08 to indicate excellent, good, and moderate fit, respectively. As exhibited in Figure 1, all of the fit index values were more than satisfactory, except for NFI (NFI = 0.890). However, Kenny & McCoach (2003) suggested that this measurement is not recommended as it affected by the number of parameters. Hence, the proposed model is assumed to have achieved good fit indices.

11. HYPOTHESES TESTING

Five major hypotheses were developed to be tested by the Structural Model. The results of variance estimation of CFA are summarised in Table 3. Results indicated that the overall structural model explained 45 percent of Destination Loyalty Formation (R^2=0.45). The path analysis showed only three latent variables: Destination Image (B=0.17, CR=2.549, $p<0.05$), Level of Destination Knowledge/familiarity (B=0.17, CR=3.527, $p<0.01$) and Travel Motivation (B=0.32, CR=4.678, $p<0.01$). Thus, the results of CFA have successfully supported only H1, H2 and H5 (Table 4).

Table 3. Regression weight of the structural model

	Variables	Estimate	CR	Sig.
Loyalty (R^2 = 0.45)	Destination image (H1)	0.168	2.459	0.014
	Destination knowledge/ familiarity (H2)	0.174	3.257	0.001
	Information search behaviour (H3)	0.035	0.596	0.551
	Level of involvement (H4)	0.094	1.601	0.109
	Travel motivation (H5)	0.320	4.678	0.000

Source: authors.

Table 4. Hypothesis testing results

Hypotheses	Results
H1: Ecotourists' destination image can influence their ecotourism destination loyalty.	Supported
H2: Ecotourists' destination knowledge can influence their destination loyalty.	Supported
H3: Ecotourists' information search behaviour can influence their destination loyalty.	Not supported
H4: Ecotourists' level of involvement can influence their destination loyalty	Not Supported
H5: Ecotourists' travel motivations can influence their loyalty.	Supported

Source: authors.

12. DISCUSSION

This study admittedly offers little theoretical contribution as it could not find any support for contentions on the relationships between destination loyalty with travel motivations, image, information search, and involvement as found in past studies (for example Castro, Armario, Ruiz, 2007; Chen, Gursoy, 2001; Chen, Tsai, 2007; Chi, 2011; Chi, Qu, 2008; Gursoy, Gavcar, 2003; Gursoy, McCleary, 2004a, 2004b; Havitz, Dimanche, 1999; Konecnik, Gartner, 2007; Yoon, Uysal, 2005). On the other hand, it does offer some managerial implications that could be used by destination marketing managers working in a similar context. For example, it found that ecotourists' level of involvement can influence their destination image. The managerial implication of this is that destination managers must formulate various interesting and meaningful activities that ecotourists could engage in during their visit so they could perceive better image of the destination which could influence their future travel decision. This is because past studies have found that a positive destination image can influence a tourist's visit decision (O'Leary, Deegan, 2005) and that a positive and favourable one is likely to influence their desire to visit the destination (Laws, Scott, Parfitt, 2002). In short, active involvement of ecotourists in their first visit can influence their destination image. Destination managers need to make ecotourists feel involved during their stay to the extent that the destination characteristics are linked with ecotourists' personal values and goals (Chen, Li, Chen, 2013) so that they will feel that the destination has "personal relevance" (Zaichkowsky, 1985) to them. If this is achieved, ecotourists' positive experience will likely lead to positive destination image and influence their future decisions to revisit.

Another managerial implication that could be drawn from the finding is that there is a positive relationship between ecotourists' information search behaviour and their level of familiarity or knowledge about a destination. Perhaps oversea ecotourism destinations are perceived as a complex product with greater risk that make people engage in more searches (Ramkissoon, Nunkoo, 2008). If this were true, then ecotourists are more likely to utilize external information search (Chen, Gursoy, 2000; Fodness, Murray, 1998; Ramkissoon, Nunkoo, 2008). One managerial implication of this is evident: destination managers should leverage on ecotourists' information search behaviour by presenting interesting, positive images. Since tourists are often pulled by destination attributes that are expected to provide them satisfaction (Prebensen, Woo, Chen, Uysal, 2013), enhanced destination knowledge will contribute towards a future motivation to visit.

Finally, the finding that there is a significant relationship between ecotourists' motivations and their involvement implies that destination managers must develop strategies that could enhance both push and pull factors (Gavcar, Gursoy, 2002) and influence travel motivations. While the push factors may not be so easy to manipulate, destination managers/marketeers can still try to ensure that the destination attributes (pull factors) are positively perceived and valued by travellers (Yoon, Uysal, 2005). They need to make ecotourists feel more involved because being involved means feeling that a destination has personal relevance to one's own goals and values. This feeling is important to cultivate because it could influence information processing and decision making (Fatima, Razzaque, 2013) which can lead to positive destination image.

13. CONCLUSIONS

In conclusion, this study has attempted to look at the influence of several destination loyalty antecedents simultaneously with the intention to see the bigger picture as not many past studies have focused on a combination and offers new information for destination managers on how to manage destination loyalty within their work context. Hence the findings have industrial relevance and could be found useful by destination managers.

Admittedly this study has many limitations that can and should be addressed by future researchers who should try to replicate the study to find linear relationships between the selected antecedents and destination loyalty within their respective study contexts by perfecting the sampling strategies to get better or bigger sample to enable better analyses. In addition, they could engage in a qualitative or mixed-method approach to get more meaningful results. A mixed method approach for this study could help answer not only the 'what' questions but also the 'why' questions to enhance understanding on the issue. In addition, future studies should focus on both domestic and international ecotourists to see if differences exist between them. Finally, it is recommended that future studies use a longitudinal approach to generate results that could be better than the cross-sectional one that this study offers.

ENDNOTE

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HOPELESSNESS AGAINST DESIRE TO PURSUE A CAREER IN TOURISM: AN EMPIRICAL ANALYSIS OF SINOP UNIVERSITY, TURKEY

Abstract: The aim of this work is to demonstrate the relationship between the level of hopelessness of students in tourism education and their desire to make a career in tourism. The data was collected from bachelor-level students in Sinop, a city at the top of Turkey's life satisfaction and happiness index, by using a survey technique. In order to describe the data collected, frequency and arithmetic mean tests were used, whereas t-tests and variance analysis were used to determine differences between variables, and correlation was used to determine the relationship. As a result of the research, it was found that there is a negative relationship between the desire to make a career in tourism and level of hopelessness amongst the students.

Keywords: tourism education, careers of tourism students, careers in tourism, level of hopelessness and desire, tourism students.

1. INTRODUCTION

Individuals in society see a professional career as a tool to meet needs such as gaining social status, creating a social identity, and self-realization. In an economic system, a career can be considered as a factor that affects the commitment of employees to an organization, a reduction in managerial problems and an increase in organizational productivity. Therefore, the relationship between career and internship (Gault, Redington, Schlager, 2000), family business experience and career choice (Zellweger, Sieger, Halter, 2011), personal preferences and career expectations (Jarlström, 2000), career choice and gender identity (Eddleston, Powell, 2008), foreign education and career goals (Orahood, Kruze, Pearson, 2004), job failure and career choice (Simmons, Wiklund, Levie, 2014) have been subjects of important academic studies. In addition to these, it is thought that one of the factors that can affect a career is hopelessness. Its effect in the tourism sector is especially a matter of curiosity because this sector is seen as one with low career opportunities due to its flexible and fragile structure, a seasonal perception by both employees and consumers, and labor-intensive, so even students who receive an education in tourism are less likely than average to pursue a career (Akagündüz, 2017).

It is stated that a career is an outcome of social roles not only in working life but throughout life (Amil, 2015; Yeşilyaprak, 2012). From this point of view, interacting environments such as social, technological and economic can also affect an individual's despair. When geographical location, economic status and the intensity of social relationships are considered, Turkey is as a place where young people have a high level of despair. There is some research related with this, for example Yıldırım and Toker (2017) found a negative relationship between hope and future expectations.

In addition to these statements, the relationship between hopelessness and career tendencies should be examined from different perspectives. Revealing this relationship among tourism students is seen as important for the development of the tourism sector. As a matter of fact, the standard of service provided for tourist satisfaction is important, as tourists establish close relationships with tourism staff during consumption (Heskett, Jones, Loveman, Sasser Jr, Schlesinger, 1994) because it is difficult to ensure customer satisfaction without the positive attitude of employees towards their jobs and the company (Rosentbluth, 1991). In the context of the relevant literature, there is very little work on this relationship. With such studies, the development of tourism theories, the integration of theoretical foundations within different disciplines and the positive development of the sector could be achieved. Based on this information, this work aims to reveal the relationship between the level of hopelessness of students who receive tourism education and their desire to pursue a career in tourism. The results of the research are expected to contribute to the issues faced by qualified staff and also to the tourism literature in Turkey.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

A career means "stages to be overcome in a profession, the chosen direction in life" (Aydın, 2007), and the stage, success and expertise achieved in a profession through time and work (Türk Dil Kurumu Sözlükleri, 2020). However, as with most social sciences, there are different perspectives on the concept of career. Raymond (2009) states that a career is seen by some authors as the promotion and professional progress that a person has achieved throughout his/ her working life, and that others authors see it as progress in the profession itself. On the other hand, it is stated that a career is an output of roles that continues throughout the life of the individual, not merely working life (Amil, 2015; Yeşilyaprak, 2012). A career can provide benefits such as gaining social status for employees, creating identity, meeting the need for self-realization, and can be a positive factor for organizations to increase efficiency and loyalty and decrease administrative problems. For this reason, the creation of a career and the desire of employees to make one should be among the subjects on which the academic community places importance both in terms of practice and theoretically.

A career, which is the subject of many studies (Akagündüz, 2017; Bamford, 2012; Selvi, Demir, 2007; Solmaz, Erdoğan, Türkay, Korkutata, 2012; Watson, Drew, 2015) has an important place in the tourism sector in spite of the expectations and satisfaction levels of tourism students (Manhas, Dogra, 2011). Proof of this situation is found in a work where the perceptions of tourism students towards the industry were investigated (Bamford, 2012) and their perceptions towards the tourism sector and the desire to pursue a career in it were found to be negative due to reasons such as low wages, long working hours, low respect between employees and the need for education. It is stated that 73% of the graduates work in the tourism sector but, due to the high turnover of personnel not only during the university period but also after graduation, only 21% of them complete their career plans and work in managerial positions (O'Leary, Deegan, 2005). While most of the students studying tourism are eager to choose the tourism sector, they do not want to work there after graduation due to 'lack of spiritual satisfaction' and working conditions (such as dissatisfaction with social conditions, insufficient wages). In fact, whenever possible, they want to end their education in tourism and study something else (Pektaş, 2019).

One of the factors affecting the desire to make a career in the tourism sector is the internship carried out during the tourism education process. Even participants who appear to be committed to a career in tourism are not sure if they want their careers to develop after this (Walmsley, Thomas, Jameson, 2012). Roney and Öztin (2007) supported this statement by revealing that students who study tourism are reluctant to work in the industry after graduation after having experience working in it. Although the perception within the community is that the careers of individuals who are diligent in their educational lives are more positive; planning and working has only a 9.3% explanatory power over tourism career intentions. Therefore, it is stated that not only work but also 'professional care' affects career development because diligence is not the only factor in a career (Baltacı, Çakıcı, Dönmez, 2019).

Yildirim and Toker (2017) found no meaningful relationship between the level of despair and the career choice of students studying tourism at an undergraduate level, but found a negative relationship between hope and expectations about the future. Rottinghaus, Jenkins, and Jantzer (2009) found that students who did not make a career decision were in more depressed moods than those who had taken one. It is also stated that there is a positive relationship between the level of hopelessnes and the negative attitudes of students towards the tourism sector (Çelik, Akgemci, Korkmaz, 2017). It has been suggested that the education levels of workers in the tourism sector are lower than in others (Purcell and Quinn, 1996) and that it is seen as a low-status profession and therefore perceived as a low-career value (Cooper, Shepherd, 1997). In addition to these reasons, it has been stated that individuals who have studied tourism have left due to sectoral conditions, having no motivation to pursue a career in tourism further (Koko, Guerrier, 1994).

The desire to pursue a career in the tourism sector shows fragility and flexibility just like the structure of tourism itself. Bamford (2012) revealed that students' perceptions of the tourism sector and the desire to pursue a career in it are negative due to reasons such as low wages, long working hours, low respect among employees, and the ability to do things without training. It has been revealed that students who have received tourism education are reluctant to work in the sector after experience working in it after graduation (Roney, Öztin, 2007). From the perception of tourism students, the industry has the poor image of either lacking or having few qualified staff who work for longer periods of time (Jenkins, 2001). In addition to these factors, demotivating ones such as low job satisfaction, waste of qualified personnel, a high personnel turnover rate also lead to a decrease in the desire to enter the sector as an employee (Jenkins, 2001; Pavesic, Brymer, 1990).

All these statements show that a desire to make a career in tourism is related to many factors. One of these and perhaps the one that bridges social life and career is hope/despair. As a matter of fact, students often experience psychological problems while making a career decision (Fouad et al., 2006). As proof of this, Rottinghaus, Jenkins, and Jantzer (2009) found that students who did not make a career decision were more depressed compared to students who had taken one. It is also stated that there is a positive relationship between the level of hopelessness of students and their negative attitudes towards the tourism sector (Çelik, Akgemci, Korkmaz, 2017). It has been suggested that the education level of those working in it is lower than in other sectors (Purcell and Quinn, 1996), and it is perceived as a low-status profession and therefore one with a low career value (Cooper, Shepherd, 1997)

In addition to these reasons, it is also stated that individuals who have received tourism education leave due to sectoral conditions, feeling unmotivated and without hope about making a career in tourism (Koko, Guerrier, 1994). Therefore, it can be said that the variables of 'making a career in tourism' and 'hopelessness' are effective on students who receive tourism education. In this context, this research is based on Beck's cognitive depression model where Beck (1987) states that individuals' behavior is shaped by three factors: "individuals' negative views towards themselves, towards the world and towards the future." Individuals who see themselves inadequate and flawed are individuals who criticize and feel worthless. Those who negatively evaluate the world are the ones who cannot cope with the obstacles they face throughout their lives. He further stated that individuals who look negatively towards the future are those who think that the obstacles they face will continue and there is no hope. Career desire and action for the future due to university education, is the third factor in Beck's Cognitive Depression Model based on negative thinking.

All these suggest that factors that may be related to the desire of tourism students to pursue a career should be studied in different sample groups and at different times. Moving on, in this study from Turkey, the happiest and highest quality of life as found in the city of Sinop, is contrasted with the tourism education of students and their level of hopelessness, and is intended to reveal the relationship between this and a career. It is thought that the results obtained from the research will contribute to the literature, the educational processes of the institutions providing tourism education and the management of tourism enterprises.

3. METHOD

According to the Turkish Statistical Institute (TUIK, 2020), the tourism sector has the least confidence among the all sectors in Turkey with a rate of just 55.5%. On the other hand, acccording to Acer (2019) and TUIK (2019), Sinop has the highest level of life satisfaction and happiness in Turkey. Based on this information, undergraduate students at Sinop University School of Tourism and Hotel Management constitute the population of this research. Its aim is to reveal the relationship between the level of hopelessness of tourism students at undergraduate level and their desire to pursue a career in tourism sector. In 2019, there were 803 registered students studying in five different departments: Accommodation management, Tour guidance, Food and Beverage management, Recreation management, Gastronomy and Culinary arts (School of Tourism and Hotel Management, 2020).

The data was collected through questionnaires from 395 students selected by a simple random sampling method between 1st to 15th October 2019. However, as incorrect and incomplete questionnaires were excluded from the analysis, only 380 were evaluated. The questionnaire consisted of three parts. In the first there were 11 statements asking for demographic characteristics (age, gender, etc.) and other information (reason for choosing the tourism department, your choice of tourism department, etc.). In the second part, there was a "Desire to Make a Career in Tourism Scale" consisting of 10 statements and a single dimension regarding students' desire to pursue a career in tourism: a 5-point Likert type (1 = never agree, 2 = less agree, 3 = moderately agree, 4 = highly agree, 5 = totally agree). The 'Scale of Willingness to Make Careers in Tourism' was developed by Kusluvan and Kusluvan (2000) and it was adapted to Turkey by Duman, Tepeci and Unur (2006). In the third part, there are 20 statements developed from Beck, Weissman, Lester and Trexler (1974).

4. RESULTS

The data obtained from the questionnaires were analyzed using SPSS 22 to reveal the relationship between levels of despair of university tourism students and their desire to pursue a career in the tourism sector. In the first stage, demographic characteristics and other information on the students were described with frequency analysis and an arithmetic mean. In the second stage, t-test and variance analysis were used on two independent samples to reveal the differences in level of despair, and desire to have a career in tourism according to demographic and other information. At the last stage, in order to reveal the relationship between students' level of despair and their desire to pursue a career in tourism, a correlation analysis was made to conclude the findings.

According to the data in Table 1, 50.5% of the students participating in the research are female and 49.5% are male. 27.4% of these students are in "accommodation management", 24.5% "food and beverage management", 32.9% "tourist guidance", 7.1% "recreation management" and 8% in "Gastronomy and Culinary Arts". Concerning reasons for choosing departments, it was found that the highest rate with 37.4% was "according to my results" and the lowest was "relatives' advice" with 7.6%. In addition, the rate of those who choose the department voluntarily is 68.7%. While 46.1% of the students participating in the research see themselves as mid-level managers in five years, 74.5% see themselves as top-level managers in fifteen.

As given in Table 2, students have an average of 7.4395, with a maximum score of 20, while desire to pursue a career in tourism, with a maximum of 5, has an average of 3.2303.

On Table 3, there was no significant difference in the students' desire to pursue a career in tourism based on demographic characteristics such as gender. However, among other features, a significant difference was found according to information on "voluntarily choosing the tourism department" and "a relative who works in tourism". According to those who choose tourism voluntarily, those who have a relative working in the tourism sector are more willing to have a career in tourism than those who do not.

Table 1. Demographic profile and other information

Demographic features and other information	Variable(s)	N (380)	% (100)
Gender	Female	192	50.5
	Male	188	49.5
Age	17-19	118	31.1
	20-22	208	54.7
	23 and Above	54	14.2
Department	Department of Hospitality Management	104	27.4
	Food and Beverage Management	93	24.5
	Tourism Guidance	125	32.9
	Recreation Management	27	7.1
	Gastronomy and Culinary Arts	31	8.2
Class	1. class	161	42.4
	2. class	156	41.1
	3. class	44	11.6
	4. class	19	5.0

Table 1 (cont.)

Demographic features and other information	Variable(s)	N (380)	% (100)
Reason for choosing the department	Based on my results	142	37.4
	Loving this job	116	30.5
	This job is valid for the tourism ındustry	55	14.5
	I had no other choice	38	10.0
	Relatives' advice	29	7.6
In which order was the tourism department in your university preferences?	1-5	222	58.4
	6-10	96	25.3
	11 and above	62	16.3
Did you prefer the tourism department voluntarily?	Yes	261	68.7
	No	119	31.3
Do you have any relatives working in the tourism sector?	Yes	218	57.4
	No	162	42.6
Where do you see yourself in the tourism sector within 5 years?	Senior Manager	139	36.6
	Mid-level Manager	175	46.1
	Sub-Tier Manager	12	3.2
	Nowhere	54	14.2
Where do you see yourself in the tourism sector within 15 years?	Senior Manager	283	74.5
	Mid-level Manager	40	10.5
	Sub-Tier Manager	7	1.8
	Nowhere	50	13.2

Source: authors' elaboration.

Table 2. Arithmetic average and standard deviation according to students' levels of despair and the pursuit of a career in tourism

Variable	Arithmetic mean	Standard deviation	N	%
Level of hopelessness	7.4395	4.19121	380	100
Willingness to make careers in tourism	3.2303	0.91441	380	100

Source: authors' elaboration.

Table 3. T-test findings on differences in willingness to pursue a career in tourism according to demographic and other information

Demographic features and other information		Average	Standard deviation	Sig.
Voluntarily choosing the tourism department	Yes	3.4609	0.79169	.000
	No	2.7244	0.96375	
Any relatives working in tourism	Yes	3.3096	0.85967	.050
	No	3.1235	0.97583	

Source: authors' elaboration.

According to Table 4, while a significant difference was found between voluntarily choosing and level of hopelessness of the students, there was no significant difference between the other demographic variables. The t-test findings reveal that female students are more hopeful than male students, while those who choose voluntarily are more hopeful than those who did not.

Because of the analysis of variance carried out within the scope of the research, it was found that the desire to have a career in tourism varies significantly according to the reason for choosing the department. As given in Table 5, while students with the highest desire to pursue a career in tourism are in "gastronomy and culinary arts", students with the lowest willingness are in "food and beverage management". On the other hand, those who chose the department because of a love of the profession are more willing to have a career in tourism than those who chose for other reasons. Those who had to choose this department without any choice are the most reluctant to pursu e a career in tourism.

It was also revealed as a result of Variance Analysis that there was a significant difference in the level of hopelessness of the students according to the reason for choosing the department. As given in Table 6, students studying in the "gastronomy and culinary arts" department are more hopeful than in others, while students who study "accommodation management" have a lower level of hope than the others. On the other hand, students who chose a department without any other option have high levels of hopelessness, while students who chose a department with a love of the profession have lower levels. In the context of level of hopelessness, no significant difference was found with other variables.

Table 4. T-test findings on differences in level of hopelessness relative to demographics and other information

Demographic features and other information		Average	Standard deviation	Sig.
Gender	Female	6.9010	4.43281	.011
	Male	7.9894	3.86398	
Voluntarily choosing the tourism department	Yes	6.8199	4.14754	.000
	No	8.7983	3.97573	

Source: authors' elaboration.

Table 5. Variance analysis findings on differences in the desire to pursue a career in tourism according to demographic and other information

Demographic and other information		Average	Standard deviation	Sig.
Department	Department of Hospitality Management	3.1885	1.00613	.008
	Food and Beverage Management	2.9774	0.88540	
	Tourism Guidance	3.3400	0.90785	
	Recreation Management	3.4037	0.63759	
	Gastronomy and Culinary Arts	3.5355	0.73962	
Reason for choosing the department	Based on results	2.9634	0.93266	.000
	Loving this job	3.7086	0.72646	
	This course is valid for the tourism ındustry	3.3873	0.67441	
	I had no other choice	2.6605	0.85852	
	Relatives' advice	3.0724	1.04639	

Source: authors' elaboration.

Table 6. Variance Analysis regarding differences in levels of hopelessness according to demographic features and other information

Demographic and other information		Average	Standard deviation	Sig.
Department	Department of Hospitality Management	8.9135	3.18403	.000
	Food and Beverage Management	8.2688	3.87618	
	Tourism Guidance	6.5760	4.51746	
	Recreation Management	5.8519	4.65505	
	Gastronomy and Culinary Arts	4.8710	4.00618	
Reason for choosing the department	Based on results	7.8944	4.37223	.004
	Loving this job	6.4310	3.97651	
	This course is valid for the tourism ındustry	6.9818	4.04828	
	I had no other choice	9.0000	3.22155	
	Relatives' advice	8.0690	4.67464	

Source: authors' elaboration.

Table 7. Correlation analysis findings regarding the relationship between level of hopelessness and a career in tourism

Variables	Pearson correlation	Sig.
Level of despair	-0.214	.000

Source: authors' elaboration.

As given in Table 7, a significant and negative relationship was found between the level of hopelessness in students and their desire to pursue a career in tourism. In other words, as the level of hopelessness of students increases, there is a decrease in pursuit of a career in tourism.

5. DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

In this work, which was conducted to reveal the relationship between the level of hopelessness in students who received tourism education at the undergraduate level at Sinop University and their desire to pursue a career in tourism. It was concluded that the increase in the level of hopelessness negatively affected the desire to pursue a career in tourism. Contrary to this result, Yıldırım and Toker (2017) could not detect any relationship between level of hopelessness and career choice. However, Dieringer, Lenz, Hayden and Peterson (2017) revealed that level of hopelessness influenced career thinking. In this context, it can be said that the findings here do not match Dieringer, Lenz, Hayden and Peterson (2017), but do not correspond with Yıldırım and Toker (2017) either.

In the research, it was also revealed that the students had a level of hopelessness of 7.4395. Considering that a maximum of 20 can be obtained, this level is below average. Similarly, it has been suggested that associate tourism program students have a despair level of 7.2033 in the Black Sea Region (Türkoğlu, Misican, 2018). Tanriverdi, Yilmaz, Pala and Ercan (2019) found the average of a desire to pursue a career in tourism as 3.590 and interpreted this as a high desire to pursue a career in tourism since five was the maximum. The result obtained from this research is 3.2303, therefore it can also be said that students' desire to have a career in tourism is high.

The research revealed that both the level of hopelessness and the desire to pursue a career in tourism differ according to the reason for choosing the tourism department. Students who have no choice but to come to this department have less interest in pursuing a career in tourism than students who selected other educational courses. In addition, it was revealed that the level of despair of these students was higher than for others. As a result of the research, it was determined that students with the highest desire to pursue a career in tourism and the lowest level of hopelessness were students of "Gastronomy and Culinary Arts" and "Recreation Management". Henceforth, considering the reasons for this situation in Turkey, then a new chapter should open with preferences for active learning as compared to other options where practical exposure is less.

Considering these results, specific suggestions were developed. As this work is limited to Sinop University's School of Tourism and Hotel Management, it is recommended that this research is carried out within other institutions to expand its range. Career days where universities can network with the sector should be organized more frequently in order to maintain the students' desire to pursue a career in tourism and to decrease their levels of despair. During tourism weeks or similar co-curricular events, it can be ensured that tourism students throughout the province organize and manage activities related to their fields and be rewarded for this process. It is thought that introducing similar activities and giving students responsibility will increase their desire to pursue a career in tourism and decrease their level of hopelessness. Considering that recreation increases the quality of life and reduces hoplelessness, it is thought that tourism-based social, sporting, cultural and individual activities offered to students will positively affect their hope and desire to pursue a career in tourism. Low levels of despair in Gastronomy and Culinary Arts and Recreation Management departments and a high desire to pursue a career in tourism are seen as a result of better opportunities for the future offered by these existing departments in comparison to new departments. Therefore, the state administration should create employment for students graduating from these departments which will simultaneously contribute to student career plans.

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ARMIN MIKOS VON ROHRSCHEIDT

ZARZĄDZANIE W TURYSTYCE KULTUROWEJ

[*MANAGEMENT IN CULTURAL TOURISM*] *(VOL. I & II)*

Bogucki Wydawnictwo Naukowe
Poznań 2020

It could seem that the publication of *Management in cultural tourism* in the spring of 2020 during the pandemic of the coronavirus (COVID-19) is either a little late or a bit premature. However, the writer of this review became convinced that this is not the case after reading this work.

The author is A. Mikos von Rohrscheidt, and it is published in two volumes by Bogucki Wydawnictwo Naukowe from Poznań, a publisher with a long tradition in the works of Polish geographers. The monograph fully deserves the title of a 'work' since it has (both volumes) as many as 1166 pages. In addition to this, it contains very extensive coverage of the literature (divided into *Bibliography* and *Netography*), as well as 51 figures, 11 tables and 76 case studies.

A. Mikos von Rohrscheidt has been a leading figure in cultural tourism research for several years. During this time, he has published several significant books (Mikos von Rohrscheidt, 2008, 2010, 2014), dozens of articles and made contributions to collective works which has enabled him to become an undisputed authority in Poland in the field of cultural tourism. Importantly in his publications, apart from methodological and theoretical matters, practical issues occupy an important place which is the result of the author's many years of experience as an academic teacher, expert, tourism organizer, pilot and guide, and – last but not least – running a tourism business.

As already mentioned, the work consists of two volumes. The first entitled *Management in cultural tourism: contexts, concepts, strategies* consists of an introduction and seven chapters. In addition to the 585 pages of the main text, it includes 22 figures, 6 tables and 22 short sections called case studies exerpted from the text. The whole is completed by a table of contents and a reference list which consists of several hundred items. Publications in the form of books, articles, chapters in monographs, official documents, etc. were included in the part called *Bibliography* (it covers as many as 44 pages), and sources from the Internet were included in the 13-page part called *Netography*. As the author writes on page 24, Volume I is addressed „[…] mainly to academics in the fields of national tourism, culture (and more specifically: participation in culture) and management as well as students specializing in these fields."

Readers following the publishing activity of A. Mikos von Rohrscheidt may remember that he has already dealt with the problem of management in cultural tourism in an article published in the on-line journal „Cultural Tourism" („*Turystyka Kulturowa*" in Polish) in 2017 (Mikos von Rohrscheidt, 2017). This article, which presents his vision of cultural tourism management, can now be seen as an outline of the work now being reviewed.

The first volume opens with a 27-page section entitled *Introduction: Context, objectives and methods of analysis,* *content*. Already by the second line you can find that A. Mikos von Rohrscheidt understands cultural tourism as „[…] a specific type of travel undertaken in leisure time, motivated by the desire to confront its participants with human values and implemented with the assumption of increasing understanding" (p. 7). From this definition it follows that for the author the purpose of a trip (human values) is not only very important but that cultural tourism is included as part of a wider cognitive tourism. This declaration is very important because in the literature you can find views that cultural tourism includes leisure time related to entertainment and thus arising from human ludic needs (for fun) (Kowalczyk, 2008).

As the author writes on page 18, the main research issue he decided to tackle is to find an answer to the question:

> […] what is the specificity of contemporary management in cultural tourism against the background (or unlike) other types of tourism, what forms of organization are optimal, and what are the elements and management actions necessary, to achieve (objective) the goals of cultural tourism and to achieve (subjective) the satisfaction of those participating, while guaranteeing the authenticity of the message and the benefits expected by its organizers and other active stakeholders?

In addition to this very long main question, there are 30 detailed research questions (on pp. 18-20), and the answers are reflected in the organisation of both volumes.

Chapter 1 continues the discussion contained in the introductory part and is entitled *Management in cultural tourism: The concept, its scope and key conditions.* This extensive chapter (71 pages) creates a framework for further reflection not only in its internal structure, quoting the views of other researchers, but also in numerous references to subsequent parts of the work. It consists of six sub-chapters, with particular attention being given to sub-chapter 1.5 *Interpretation of heritage as a specific and key management component in cultural tourism*. Experience shows that the issue of heritage interpretation has for many decades been the leitmotif of the so-called 'historical policy' implemented by the governments of some countries, or the Black Lives Matter movement which has been active for several years and refers to the legacy of the colonial era, especially slavery. In the case of cultural tourism, interpretation of heritage is of particular importance in so-called slave tourism (or slave heritage tourism), not only by the African Americans who were initially the main participants of trips to Africa in search of their roots. It is also found during trips as so-called sentimental tourism (often undertaken by Poles and Germans among others) and diaspora tourism (popular especially among the ethnic Chinese living in Singapore and Malaysia, but also in the United States), not to mention holocaust tourism which is associated with visiting the extermination sites of the Jewish people during World War II. A further sub-chapter (1.6) *External Impact on the offer of cultural tourism and the problems generated by it* is worth noting, particularly the sections (from 1.6.4 to 1.6.8) devoted to these issues: the phenomenon of overtourism, tourist colonization and gentrification, as well as offers of accommodation services via couchsurfing and Airbnb platforms, along with the concept of a sharing economy. These processes, which have roused strong feelings in recent years in the academic literature and mass media, have been signaled in sub-chapter 1.6.7 under the significant title *Problems of (alleged) sharing and cultural tourism in cities* (pp. 102-104). Since the reviewer is a geographer, he welcomes the inclusion of sub-chapter 1.6.8, in which attention is drawn to the adverse impact of cultural tourism on the natural environment.

The following chapters are a logical extension of the ideas contained in Chapter 1 and are entitled *Entities involved in management and their mutual relations* (Chapter 2) and *Basic management functions in the context of the specificity and needs of cultural tourism* (Chapter 3). At the same time, these chapters (covering 150 pages in total) are like an introduction to Chapter 4 *Concepts and approaches useful in managing cultural tourism*. In this 87-page chapter, the author presents 17 concepts that he believes may be useful in managing cultural tourism with a separate subsection devoted to each concept and research approach. In addition to the presentation in Chapter 4 of „classic" theories (such as product concepts, network approaches and territorial marketing), sections about new public governance, co-creation and the idea of sustainable tourism are given special attention (4.14).

Since I consider the entire sequence of chapters to be strictly logical, it is not surprising that Chapter 5 *Management strategies in cultural tourism* with 87 pages closely refers to the preceding one. Here A. Mikos von Rohrscheidt tries to maintain a uniform internal structure of individual sub-chapters (dedicated to a given strategy) which consists (sequentially) in description, application, mode of operation, methods and tools used, advantages, disadvantages and risks, and recommendations for researchers. In this part, one can only express regret that when discussing some strategies specific examples of their use in Poland are given, while when presenting others the author merely gives his own views as well as the opinions of other researchers. A very big advantage of this chapter is Table 5 with a very long title *Main stakeholders and the most common forms of organization, the dominant types of resources exploited, and the use of specific concepts and strategies in managing selected types of tourist and cultural offers (proposition)*, in which the previously described concepts and strategies are presented in relation to various types of cultural tourism: cultural heritage tourism, cultural tourism in cities, rural cultural tourism, cultural events and their tourist products, etc (pp. 423-430).

According to the reviewer, Chapter 6 *New forms of cultural tourism and their conceptual assumptions* needs to be given special attention. Although it is relatively 'short' (61 pages), we once again have evidence not only of the author's thorough knowledge of the literature, but also a deep knowledge of the global tourism market. This chapter contains and discusses several case studies that come from Guinea-Bissau, Fiji, Germany (but applies to Prague in Czechia), Poland, the United States, Belgium, Portugal, Italy, Bhutan and France. The cited examples, although all relate to cultural tourism, show its internal diversity resulting not only from the diversity of tourist attractions, but also from the differing needs of older tourists (versus "millennial tourists"), women, non-heterosexual tourists, immigrant tourists, children.

Similar to earlier parts of the book, the „natural consequence" of Chapter 6 is Chapter 7 entitled *On the management of cultural tourism in the near future*. Although the uncertain future of cultural tourism that has taken place with the COVID-19 pandemic makes some of the solutions proposed by the author outdated, other proposals seem to be independent of the situation in which global tourism finds itself in 2020, while others may become less predictable under the new conditions. Currently (end of June 2020), it is not known whether the phenomenon of overtourism will continue to be a problem for the residents of Prague, Barcelona and Venice, or whether Tallinn and Kraków will continue to be visited as part of a weekend city break, but it is known that the idea of interpreting our heritage in terms of domestic tourism and even to visiting a nearby area (described on p. 515) is „timeless". In Chapter 7, the discussion on the relationship between cultural tourism and new technologies in the IT sector is particularly important. Although it is not known whether Airbnb, Booking.com and TripAdvisor portals or the Trivago search engine will continue to work in their current form, it can be assumed that, due to a possible global economic recession and the crisis in the tourism sector, technologies connected with virtual reality and augmented reality may become more and more important. The examples cited by the author from Israel and Seoul in South Korea prove that in the case of cultural tourism, the use of new technologies can be of great cognitive and educational significance.

The second volume is entitled *Management in cultural tourism: Areas, relationships, offers.* It consists of five chapters and *Endings* (581 pages in total), *Bibliography* (43 pages) and *Netography* (13 pages), list of figures (there are 28 of them), tables (five) and case studies (of which there are as many as 53).

The title suggests that – in relation to Volume I – it is more devoted to practical issues, not to theory or methods. Despite the author's declaration on page 25 in Volume I that it is a textbook „[…] addressed to another group of recipients. In the first place, they are authors of new ideas for CT programs and products [CT means cultural tourism – ed. AK], management and informal leaders of tourist and cultural organizations", the number of references to academic literature shows that this is not a typical 'textbook'.

Volume II opens with Chapter 8 *Managing cultural tourism: Tour operators* which has 81 pages and seven sub-chapters and seems to resemble a guide or manual. Although there are references to literature (relatively few) and several case studies are presented, the thoughts it contains are primarily the result of the author's personal experience as a tourism organizer. Thus, the chapter *Managing cultural tourism: Tour operators* refers to the idea that the second part of the work should have a practical dimension.

Chapter 9, entitled *Area management in cultural tourism* and consisting of 142 pages, has a similar character. Because the term „area management" can be understood in different ways, it is very good that in the first sentence the author writes that it concerns „[…] management of cultural tourism programs and products based on resources located on a specific territory […]". By this understanding of the term 'area', this chapter can be particularly useful for representatives of local governments as well as specialists in spatial planning. Although, as a professional studying the geographical aspects of tourism and recreation, I am generally familiar with the topics covered in this chapter, I was particularly interested in sub-chapter 9.3.2 with the intriguing title *Local Gap – its main types and methods of elimination*. As the author writes on p. 109, a 'local gap' is „[…] a deficit in some areas of the tourist offer of a specific small area (town, microregion or at most subregion), which is permanent and noticeably weakens its offer in a significant dimensions". Although the 'local gap' understood in this way resembles what can be called a 'weakness' in a SWOT analysis, I think it is very good that in his work A. Mikos von Rohrscheidt has devoted nearly 20 pages to this issue, because I think that many failures in the development of the tourist function are due to the fact that local authorities (and experts) pay more attention to existing tourist attractions (i.e. 'strengths'), and not to what reduces the attractiveness of a place and should be removed.

Chapter 10 is entitled *Managing cultural events addressed to tourists and their tourist products* and is also extensive with 97 pages. As the title indicates, this section is devoted to various events, as the author calls them, whose popularity has increased in recent decades despite the fact that mass cultural events have attracted tens of thousands of visitors during outdoor music festivals such as the Woodstock Festival and Atlanta International Pop Festival (1969) or the Isle of Wight Festival (1970). In Poland, undoubtedly, the popularity of cultural events has increased in recent years due not only to music events, but also reconstructions of the past, often of a military nature. Since this phenomenon has spread not only in places of major importance for the history of Poland, but also in cities that had nothing to do with the events, it is quite acceptable for the author to treat such events as tourist products.

According to the reviewer, Chapter 11 closely corresponds to the one that follows, *Managing the tourist and cultural offer by local governments, territorial tourism management organizations and ecomuseums*. It has 87 pages and presents various models for these offers by local governments and non-governmental organizations which deal with tourism and culture in their statutes. I find it interesting above all (and maybe even – in the era of 'post-pandemic tourism' – more significant than before) that sub-chapter 11.4 *Ecomuseums – network organizations for heritage management with an equivalent tourist function*, combines cognitive, educational and entertainment functions. 'Ecomuseums' not only refer to the concept of a 'little homeland', but to an approach taking into account mutual human-nature relations, and that the idea behind them should be treated as an important pillar of tourism in terms of sustainable development. In the context of Chapter 11 I have one reflection. It may be a pity that the author has not made an attempt to propose the solutions presented in sub-chapter 11.3. (*Tourism and the cultural offer in comprehensive tourism management in cities and microregions*) with reference to a single territorial unit. With the same municipality or city as an example, the reader could learn more about the advantages and disadvantages of different management models which could prove useful when local authorities make decisions as part of their tourism policy.

The Chapter 12, the last of the work, *Managing the tourist function in facilities constituting cultural tourism attractions* is very extensive with 167 pages. I, as a geographer, correspond to the order, Chapter 11 (spatial aspect) and Chapter 12 (functional aspect), but I admit that from the point of view of tourism as a sector of the national economy, the order could be reversed. Referring to the internal structure of Chapter 12, I would like to point out that it is partly a development of the author's discussion contained in earlier parts of the work. This applies in particular to sub-chapter 12.2. (*Management strategies preferred by facility managers in shaping their tourist function*), but also some parts of others. I consider its division into subsections dedicated to various categories of cultural tourism attractions (museums, religious objects, monuments) as a great advantage of Chapter 12, because their management has many specific issues.

After reading the entire work by A. Mikos von Rohrscheidt, the reader may be surprised that the 'Ending' is only three pages long. In the opinion of the reviewer, such a short ending avoided repetition, and the author's division of the final section into parts entitled *Contribution to tourism research and organization*, *restrictions* and *The need for future research and potential fields* allowed himspace for self-reflection of the thoughts presented in over 1166 pages of text.

Despite some polemical comments, I consider the monograph *Management in cultural tourism* to be a fully mature presentation of A. Mikos von Rohrscheidt's views on cultural tourism in general, and issues related to its functioning in particular. Is what I wrote tantamount to the fact that I do not see any shortcomings in the reviewed publication? There are several, however, some of which relate to issues that are not the responsibility of the author but the publisher. My first comment concerns some of the abbreviations used. While the meaning of the abbreviations 'TK' and 'ZTK' [in Polish 'TK' – means cultural tourism, and 'ZTK' means management in cultural tourism) when appearing for the first time on pp. 8-9 in Volume I and very often used subsequently ('ZTK' was explained on p. 8), the entry 'DMO' used in the scheme on p. 42 (Figure 1) was only explained on p. 70 as „destination marketing organization". Of course, for people dealing with tourism management, tourism policy or territorial marketing, the abbreviation DMO is well known, but for some readers it may not be. The second point I want to raise is those parts of the text that are separated from the whole. In addition to the typical boxes for case studies (their description is limited to the box), Volume I uses a solution based on separating part of the text from the rest with horizontal lines. This is the case in subsection 3.3.3 *Recommendations relating to the implementation of the management function in cultural tourism* (pages 213-216). In Volume II I did not notice the use of this which may mean that the editors of the individual volumes were different people, which of course is not surprising, but I would prefer that unified editorial solutions were adopted for the work as a whole. Initially, it was a surprise for me to find a list of references (bibliography and netography) separately in Volumes I and II. However, I then decided that it was the only solution for someone reading a specific volume, and not to have to refer to a bibliography contained in another volume. Of course, adopting such an idea means that some books and articles are repeated and the whole work is longer, but from the reader's perspective it seems to be optimal.

Concluding the review of *Management in cultural tourism* I want to highlight a few issues. First of all, the work by A. Mikos von Rohrscheidt is devoted to a very important part of tourism, both in the context of tourist supply (tourist attractions) and also tourist demand (tourist motivations).

Secondly, it covers the phenomenon of cultural tourism not only in the context of management, *sensu* *stricto*, but also takes into account its numerous conditions (mainly socio-economic and technological, but also natural). This means that *Management in cultural tourism* may be of interest to researchers dealing with various aspects of tourism: economists and sociologists, anthropologists and cultural specialists, as well as geographers.

Thirdly, in both volumes of *Management in cultural tourism* numerous examples of strategies and practical solutions can be found which makes A. Mikos von Rohrscheidt's work valuable both for theoreticians and practitioners. Moreover, in the opinion of the reviewer, many parts may be useful not only for researchers and those professionally involved in cultural tourism, but also for visiting places attractive in natural terms. Some sub-chapters can be successfully used for this e.g. for strategies for developing the tourist function and planning tourism in protected areas (national parks, landscape parks, etc.), coastal and lake areas, etc.

Finally, fourthly, if we can think about the future of tourism in the world in coming years (not only so-called all-inclusive or holiday tourism, but also business and congress tourism), it is cultural tourism whether in a version similar to the *Grand Tour* ('maximum' option), or in the form of sightseeing as traditionally understood ('optimal' version), or in a form that comes down to exploring your own 'little homeland' ('minimal' option) – will continue to be realized.

Concluding – *Management in cultural tourism* is in academic terms a fully mature work and contains numerous descriptions of organizational solutions tested in the real world that can be applied in practice. This means that it can be valuable for a wide range of readers, not only those closely related to cultural tourism.

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