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Warsaw 2014
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ISSN 2084-5162

Typesetting and imposition
Anna Jarząbek

Printing and binding
Mazowieckie Centrum Poligrafii
ul. Duża 1, 05-270 Marki
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Issues of Tourists and Locals Behaviour: the Case of International Kotka Maritime Festival

Abstract

This paper is aimed to differentiate types of visitors’ behavior at one of the biggest event in Finland - International Kotka Maritime Festival. Based on 367 questionnaires the research revealed that behavioral practices of local residents, domestic and international tourists differ, though not radically. Despite its international character the festival is more significant and interesting for locals, who spend more money and participate in more activities of the festival comparing to other groups. These trends can be explained by involvement of local residents and their families or friends into organisation of some of the festival’s events and possibility to spend time together. While developing a concept of the festival, organisers should consider a context and features of international tourists arriving to Kotka, but focus on raising level of satisfaction of the local community through more active engagement in preparation and conduction of the festival, diversification of the events and taking into account interests of all the stakeholders.

Key words: Festival, community engagement, locals, tourists.

JEL codes: Z13, Z32

Introduction

Festivals are one of the most popular events held in urban and rural areas around the world. They play vital role in attracting tourists to a destination (Backman et al., 1995; Anwar and Sohail, 2004; Gursoy et al., 2004; Boo and Busser, 2006; Mackellar, 2006; Chirieleison et al., 2013), bringing economic benefits as well as social and cultural impacts for local residents (Arcodia and Whitford, 2006; Rollins and Delamere, 2007). However, festival organisers do not often distinguish visitors based on their geographic background that may decrease the effectiveness of promotion strategies and adversely affect festival’s impacts.

The present study is devoted to International Kotka Maritime Festival held in Finland. The purpose of this study is to explore the features of the festival’s visitors differentiating as local residents, inner tourists and international tourists. This paper highlights such issues as...
choice of events to visit within the festival, expenditures, revisit intentions, and willingness to recommend the festival.

Overview of research on festival visitors, segmentation between tourists and residents and its practical implication is first given in the literature review section. The next section outlines features of Kotka and International Kotka Maritime Festival to provide background information. The methodological section follows. Next section reports the findings. Types of the festival’s visitors, their characteristics and peculiarities in behavior are identified and described. The discussion section comments on the results of the study and their implications. Finally, conclusions and prospects for the further research are presented.

Tourists and locals at festivals

In tourism and event studies special events, in particular festivals have been attracting attention of scholars for recent decades as a source of new, unique experiences that enhance portfolio of a destination (Getz, 1997; Axelsen, 2006; Quinn, 2006; Crook, 2009; Singh et al., 2010; Oh and Lee, 2012). Festivals are featured by creation of special atmosphere, variety of highly interactive activities and possibility to get to know local culture and people. Especially the last attribute is typical for community festivals as they represent values shared within the community and help locals to preserve their identity (De Bres and Davis, 2001; Delamere et al., 2001).

Much of academic literature is devoted to exploration of motivation of festivals’ visitors (Uysal et al., 1993; Kim et al., 2002; Lee et al., 2004; Thompson and Schofield, 2009), their satisfaction (Baker and Crompton, 2000; Cole and Illum, 2006; Kim, 2008; Kim et al., 2008; Lee and Beeler, 2009; Yoon et al., 2010) and behavioral intentions (Baker and Crompton, 2000; Cole and Illum, 2006; Thompson and Schofield, 2009).

As festivals provide unusual experiences that differ from day-to-day living, they attract both attention of tourists and local residents. For tourists, visiting an event can be the only reason for travelling to a destination (Prentice and Andersen, 2003; McKercher et al., 2006). Meanwhile, participation of local residents not only increase attendance rates, but also contributes to sustainable development of a festival (Getz, 1997). By expressing their culture, beliefs and traditions, locals contribute to continuous evolution of an event arising from genuine spirit of a hosting community. In the same time, festivals serve as a tool for strengthening social capital of a community (Arcodia and Whitford, 2006; Rollins and Delamere, 2007), creating and enhancing sense of a community (Attanasi et al., 2013; Van Winkle et al., 2013) and making locals become “proud locals” (Kozorog, 2011; Small et al., 2005). Thus, hosting a festival is mutually beneficial for locals and festival management and provides a lot of new opportunities for social and cultural life (Raj and Vignali, 2010).
Target audience of an event varies significantly depending on such factors as event’s theme, scale, history, etc. Thus, marketing efforts should be targeted at particular groups of visitors, who can be interested in gaining various experiences at a festival. Festival management should employ appropriate information channels to disseminate information effectively and satisfy visitors’ needs and expectations (Ritchie and Smith, 1991; Fodness and Murray, 1999; Fyall and Garrod, 2005). Products and services provided within a festival should also meet the demands of attendees to ensure sustainability and continuity of an event. Through understanding of information sources used by visitors, their motivations, evaluations of event’s services and satisfaction, festival’s organisers can guarantee successful development of their project.

The present study seeks to explore features and attitudes towards the festival of groups of visitors differentiated by their origin: destination’s local residents, inner tourists from Finland and international tourists representing primarily countries in the Baltic Sea region. Consideration of local residents is of high importance as their acceptance of events or negative perception can significantly influence development of event tourism in a destination (Blešić et al., 2014).

City of Kotka and International Kotka Maritime Festival

Kotka is a city located in the province of Southern Finland and is part of the Kymenlaakso region on the coast of the Gulf of Finland. Population of the city is about 54,000 people. City position along the shore of the Baltic Sea has defined its role as one of the most important ports in Finland. Originally the city port was built for timber transportation. Today, port of Kotka serves the foreign trade not only of Finland, but also of Russia as a transit port. However, being an industrial center Kotka is experiencing economic difficulties. High proportion of seniors and unemployment rate exceeding the national average are structural problems for economy of the city. Under these circumstances tourism has become a significant industry for city development. Located only 50 km from the border to Russia, Kotka is the most rapidly growing destination for Russian tourists.

International Kotka Maritime Festival is one of the top tourist attractions in the region. The festival has been taking place since 1962. The festival is among the biggest festivals in Finland. In 2013, the festival had more than 230,000 visitors [Yle, 24.02.2014]. In total, approximately 200 different activities and events, most of which are free of charge, are organised during the festival. They are devoted to the maritime-themed heritage, food and music; include performances of top artists, street theatre performances, yacht events and sea cruises, the Baltic Sea Village and international Europe market, diverse sports competitions, maritime-inspired foods and Children’s Maritime Festival.
In 2014, when data within the research project were collected, the Gangut regatta devoted to the 300th anniversary of the victory of the Russian fleet took place during the festival. The regatta was a race for traditional sailing boats and tall ships from the Baltic Sea region. Not only speed, but also environmental aspects were taken into account. The winner of the main race, which was called Greening race, was the one, whose sailing had been the most ecological. Such indicators as the carbon footprint, the recycling and storage in waste management as well as use of the septic tank were measured to find the winner.

Variety of activities and events organised within International Kotka Maritime Festival provide possibilities for different groups of local population and tourists to get enjoyable experiences. Distinction between local residents and inner and international tourists in perception of the festival and level of engagement in its events defines a research interest in studying it.

**Methodology**

The research project was implemented by the Laboratory of Economics of Culture of the National Research University Higher School of Economics in St. Petersburg (Russia). The group of researchers together with students of the master programme “Experience Economy: Management in Hospitality and Tourism” collected data during International Maritime Festival in Kotka in 2014.

The main aim of the research project was to reveal festival effects, which influence city area and local community development. Mixed methods (qualitative and quantitative), namely semi-structured interviews with stakeholders and visitor survey with a questionnaire, were employed within the study. The present paper is focused on exploration of the features of local residents, inner tourists and international tourists as visitors of the festival, that’s why only the quantitative part of the research was used for analyses.

The survey was based on the research tool developed by the Association for tourism and leisure education and research (ATLAS), in particular Cultural Tourism Research Group, which is the part of the ATLAS interested in visitor studies. The questionnaire for this research was elaborated for an event monitoring project. It can be applied for different types of cultural events and measures behavior and motivations of cultural tourists.

The questionnaire contains groups of questions on motivation for visiting the event, sources of information about it, event visiting patterns (visiting days and choice of visitors’ activities during the event), visitor satisfaction level of the experience gained during the event, festival’s performance level and visitor’s opinion on region promotion by the event, expenditures rate and social and demographic characteristics of visitors.

To take into account the most part of visitor behavior patterns during International Kotka Maritime Festival the sample was formed on a few grounds presenting different types of
events and high level of visitor accumulation. The interviewers worked in the park, at the regatta, city mall, harbor, city Maritime museum, international Europe market, concert stages located in different parts of the city. Collected database consists of 367 questionnaires of visitors. The database was formed and analyzed in software package SPSS.

**Findings**

*Visitor type description*

The sample consists of 367 cases. There are 54.8% females among respondents and 45.2% males.

Age variables were enlarged and transformed into two categories: visitors younger than 29 years and those, who are older than 30 years. There are 43.6% of visitors, whose age is less than 29 years and 56.4% of more than 30 years old.

Income structure categories were enlarged. As consequence two income categories were made: more than 20 000 euro per year for a household and less than 20 000 euro per year. Among the festival visitors there are more of those, whose income exceed 20 000 euro per year. This type of respondents amounts 62.5% in the sample. Those, who earn less than 20 000 euro per year, are twice fewer (37.5%).

The data demonstrate that there is a little bit high percentage of visitors, who have no higher education, namely 51.9%. Percentage of respondents with higher education is 48.1%.

According to the data three types of visitors can be distinguished on the basis of their origin. Namely there are 50.1% citizens of Kotka (172 persons) in a sample, 37.9% inner tourists from other regions of Finland (130 persons) and only 12% tourists from other countries (41 persons). As number of tourists from other countries is not very high in some types of analysis this category is joined with the category of inner tourists.

Among locals in the sample there are more women (62.2%) and fewer men (37.8%). Number of men and women among inner tourists is almost equal – 51.9% and 48.1% respectively. Tourists from other countries consist of 50% women (20 persons) and 50% men (20 persons).

The ratio by age among locals is more equal compared to other groups. There are 47.1% of those, who are 29 years old and younger and 52.9% of local visitors are 30 years old and older. Inner tourists consist of 42.3% of those, who are 29 years old and younger and 57.7% of those, who are 30 years old and older. There are more visitors, who are 30 years old and older among tourists from other countries, namely 68.8% (28 persons). This visitor type contains 31.7% of those, who are 29 years old and younger (13 persons).

Percentage proportion of tourists from other countries differs from other visitor types by education. There are more persons with higher education (68.3%) (28 persons) compared to
other groups. Among them there are 31.7% visitors without higher education (13 persons). On the contrary, among local residents, who were questioned there are more persons without higher education, namely 58%. Persons with higher education amount for 42%. There is almost equal proportion of persons with higher education and without it among inner tourists (50.4% and 49.6% respectively).

As for income, the locals and inner tourists proportion with annual household income of more than 20 000 euro is higher than tourists from other countries proportion. There are 62.6% of questioned locals, who earn more than 20 000 euro and 37.4%, who earn less. 65.8% of inner tourists’ households earn more than 20 000 euro per year and 34.2% earn less than this sum. Among tourists from other countries the proportion is equal: 50% for each of the category. These income differences between visitors from other countries and Finnish visitors can be explained by country living standard and salary rates. In our sample visitors from other countries is presented mostly by tourists from Russia, where salary rate is lower than in Europe.

Analysis of Finnish tourists’ structure demonstrates that there are visitors from 12 regions of Finland (out of 20 country’s regions). The majority of tourists are from nearby Uusimaa region (50.2% of inner tourists), where such cities as Helsinki (35.4%) and Vantaa (5.4%)

Figure 1
Festival attendance by inner tourists’ location
are located. A little bit fewer visitors are from the region Kymenlaakso, where festival takes place (24.6% of inner tourists). There are 14.6% citizens of Kouvola and 4.6% of Hamina presented in the sample. Among other nearby regions Päijänne Tavastia and South Karelia regions can be emphasized. The sample consists of 4.7% and 4.6% of inner tourists respectively. There are also visitors from the more distant regions, which are situated on the west and northwest of Finland. There are 5.5% from Pirkanmaa region and 3.9% from Southwest Finland. There are a few visitors from other distant regions, which are situated on the north and north-east of Kymenlaakso. 1.6% of visitors come from Central Finland region; 1.5% – from Northern Ostrobothnia and the same number of visitors – from Southern Savonia. The lower number of visitors came from the west part of Finland. It is only one west region (Northern Savonia), which is represented in the sample. There are 0.8% of visitors, who came from there to the festival. The same percentage of visitors came from Tavastia Proper and Ostrobothnia regions, although it is more close to Kotka (see figure 1).

There are 12% (41 persons) tourists from other countries in the sample. The most part of them are from Russia – 23 persons. Nine persons are from other countries of the Baltic Sea Region (namely Lithuania, Latvia, Estonia, Sweden), four persons are from the USA, two persons are from Europe (namely France and Belgium), the same quantity of tourists are from Asian countries (Japan, Thailand) and one person comes from Belarus.

Visitor pastime at the Festival

In this part of the analysis two types of tourists – inner and international, who visited the festival are joined as their attendance pattern is almost equal.

The data demonstrate that the number of persons for the first two days of the festival is lower compared to other days. It is 13.3% for the local residents and 30.1% for the tourists. The peak of attendance of the locals (66.7%) falls on the third festival day accompanied by the parade and the beginning of the concert programme. Then attendance level of the locals decreases slowly attained 62.7% for the fifth day of the event. For the tourists it rises from the first day of the programme to the end of the regatta until 46.3%. Afterwards tourists’ attendance compared to locals continues to rise slightly attaining its peak on the fifth day of the programme (60.1%). At the last day of the event attendance rate for the locals and tourists falls down until 42.1% for the former and 27.1% for the last.

It is important to note that the peak of attendance for tourists is related with a week-end (Saturday is the fifth day of the festival). It can mean that for this type of visitors the programme proposed by the festival organisers is less important than their leisure time, when they can come (Figure 2).

The question about events that respondents are going to visit is a multiple choice question. This question was transformed into two variables: events, which are related to the main
festival programme (namely, music programme and regatta) and events, which include not only the main festival programme, but other activities (namely, walking around the city and the park, sport events, Children’s Maritime festival, bar, museum, amusement park, international Europe market and shopping, visiting parade).

Figure 2
Attendance of Maritime Festivale in Kotka (%)

According to the data there are more people, who prefer to visit the main festival programme (56.9%), whereas there are 40.7% of those, who visit other activities during the festival and some main programme activities.

The most part of respondents prefer to visit only the main programme during the Festival. Among those, who visited only the main festival programme, there are 55% (104 persons) of local residents, 37% (70 persons) among inner tourists, 8% of tourists from other countries (15 persons). Among those, who visited not only the main festival programme, but some additional activities there are 51.5% of locals (70 persons), 36.8% of tourists from Finland (50 persons), 11.8% tourists from other countries (16 persons).

Visitor type expenditure structure

There was expenditure division into two types, namely admission expenditures, connected with directly festival organisation and other incidental costs during the festival (merchandise/souvenirs, food and drink, shopping).
The festival visitors spent on average 14 euros for admission and 25 euros for incidental costs per person during the event.

Anova analysis demonstrates absence of statistical significance between visitor types and admission expenditures (F-test - 1.2; sig - 0.299). Locals spend a little bit more for this expense type (17 euro per person during the event). Tourists spend almost the same amount of money: 11.6 euros for inner tourists and 11 euros for tourists from other countries.

There is statistical significance between visitor types and other incidental costs (F-test - 4.6; sig - 0.01). It is inner tourists, who spend more money for this type of expenditures compared to other groups (30 euros per person during the event). Tourists from other countries spend less (23 euros per person during the event), but a little bit more than locals (21.5 euros per person during the event) (see table 1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Specification</th>
<th>Locals (mean, SD)</th>
<th>Inner tourists (mean, SD)</th>
<th>Tourists from other countries (mean, SD)</th>
<th>F-test (sig)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Admission expenditures, euros</td>
<td>17.05 (35.4)</td>
<td>11.57 (27.3)</td>
<td>11.00 (22.1)</td>
<td>1.2 (0.299)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other incidental costs (merchandise/souvenirs, food and drink, shopping), euros</td>
<td>21.5 (19.7)</td>
<td>30.3 (28.9)</td>
<td>22.9 (22.8)</td>
<td>4.6 (0.01)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Visitor satisfaction with the festival

Questions about likelihood to advise the festival to the friends or family and visit again this event in the future consist of ten-point scale. The respondents chose answers mostly from 7 to 10 in this question. As a consequence the scale was transformed into binary variable, where 1 is more likely to recommend the festival or visit it again and 0 is less likely to do it.

According to the analysis there is statistical significance between visitor types and likelihood to recommend the festival to the friends and family (chi sq=19.794; p < 0.05). Tourists from other countries are less likely to recommend it for their friends compared to locals.

Almost the same results demonstrate the comparison of visitor types by desire to return to the festival. There is statistical significance (chi-square=25.541; p < 0.05). There is less possibility for the tourists from other countries to visit the festival again. The locals, on the contrary, will come more possibly.

The data demonstrate that there is no statistical significance between visitor types and emotions and experience gained during the festival. The sample mean of this indicator is 4.1.
Statistical significance absence also was found between visitor types and satisfaction from the festival organisation. A mean in the sample is a little bit higher than mean of previous indicator. It is equal to 4.9. Statistical significance was found between visitor types and satisfaction with promotion of Kotka within the festival ($F=3.818; \text{sig}=0.023$). The local residents in general agree with positive influence of this event on image of Kotka (mean=4.9). Tourists from other countries agree to a larger extent with this parameter (mean=4.5) compared to inner tourists (mean=4.4). Such an error among tourists from other countries can be explained by cases insufficiency in this group (Figure 3).

**Discussion**

To increase positive impacts of a festival – both the social-cultural and economic – it is vitally important to identify requests of target audience of a festival to develop a list of expected services. From this perspective, analysis of behavioral intentions and practices as well as segmentation of visitors can give food for thoughts.

Using existing tool – the ATLAS questionnaire aimed at studying visitors and effects of the festival, the behavioral aspects are analysed in order to understand, whether segmentation of visitors (into locals and tourists) is needed and should these segments be taken into consideration by the festival organisers for planning the programme and services of the event.

International Kotka Maritime festival is actually of national character as more than a half of the sample is locals and in addition approximately 40% of visitors are inner tourists.
Maritime theme in its „blurred” form, when everything connected with the sea is comprised within the concept, is more interesting and important for residents of the city and country rather than for tourists. Sea is an integral part of the life of the city: its history, economy, daily life, self-consciousness of local residents. This enhances interest and engagement of locals in the festival.

Analysing the findings of the research on attendance of various events and activities within the festival one should point out that neither the music concerts, nor the regatta, being key events, do not become reasons to visit the festival for any of attendees’ groups. Locals are attracted mostly by the variety of offered events and amusements. For other categories of visitors disparity between concerts and other events is not so significant. One can assume that there are several explanations.

First of all, the programme of the festival does not take into account specificity of tourists’ behavior; most of them come only for the weekend (peak of tourists’ attendance to events falls on Saturday). The peak of locals’ attendance falls on the opening of the festival and the parade, which take place on Thursday. Thus, the regatta and the music concerts are neglected.

The most part of the festival’s events is free; it creates sustained interest to the festival for all groups of visitors. However, the locals are more engaged in sports tournaments than tourists (particularly those, who arrive only for one day and unlikely feel comfortable after the scamper, while locals can return home and brush up). Locals can also have additional motives to see the parade, wherein different local communities, associations, clubs take part to see their own friends, family members or colleagues. Especially in case of their involvement into preparations for the parade through building platforms, creating costumes, etc.

As for the music programme and concerts, they are not attractive for international tourists due to domination of performers known only in Finland and performance of Finnish songs. Tourists also try to save money under the conditions of incidental expenses preferring not to pay entrance fees. On the contrary, locals tend to be more interested in music concerts.

One should also consider the context and features of international tourists arriving to Kotka. Geographical location of the city, its proximity to the border of Russia makes it more amiable for one day or weekend tours. For Russians, who live not far from the border – generally for residents of St. Petersburg a trip to Finland for one or two days by their own transport or by coach (within an organised tour) is quite popular type of break. The aims of these short tours may be camping, visiting aqua parks or shopping. Especially this is the case of South and Southeast Finland, where Russian tourists generate the most part of tourist flows. According to available statistics, in 2013, approximately 5.5 million Russians crossed the border over to southeast Finland [The Kotka-Hamina Region]. The choice of events within International Kotka Maritime festival is defined to a large extent by existing tourists’ practices as the majority of the sample is Russian tourists.
Tourists arriving to Kotka do not often have any information about the festival. Coming there incidentally, people usually want to add to their leisure programme visits to different outdoor cafes, fairs and other events, if they have enough time for this. In particular, this is relevant not for individual tourists, rather than for organised groups of tourists: their schedule is tight. Some travel agencies collect information about main cultural events, festivals and inform tourists on them to promote their services and create additional motivations to visit one or another city. However, in most of the cases such events will not be the main reason for travelling. On the other side, promotion issues of International Kotka Maritime festival abroad aimed at increase of tourist flows lie beyond the scope of the present paper.

Short-term and spontaneous visits of Russian tourists may reflect their expenditures at the festival; on average they spend less than other groups of the festival’s visitors. Perhaps they simply have no time. In matters of food participants of organised tours show the propensity to save, often preferring to take food from home. As for inner tourists, the excess of their expenditures over the other groups of visitors can be explained to some extent by existing constraints. Local residents have opportunity to dine at home, rather than at the festival, tourists are deprived of this opportunity. At least those, who stay in hotels and not in apartments or with friends, tend to have lunch in a café or restaurant. Nevertheless, they try to reduce costs at the festival (this type of spending is less than among locals), preferring some free entertainment as they already had to pay for travel and accommodation.

Despite of the fact that all groups of the festival’s visitors were satisfied with it, the likelihood of returning to the festival among tourists is much lower comparing to locals. Obviously locals visit the festival every year, for them it is the significant event in social and cultural life of the city. Inner tourists also see it as a good reason to travel and tourists from other countries come there by chance and are unlikely to make plans for this event in the future. The vague concept of the festival might affects. Although there is the theme, the festival is not focused on certain niche, a certain segment of consumers. It is difficult to find fans of everything that is related to sea. If the festival is more closely linked to the regatta in the future, it has a potential to attract a certain category of visitors. On the whole, in contrast to, for example, the Savonlinna Opera Festival or Pori Jazz Festival, there are no fans of the festival, who return every year for a new programme.

In the same time, the festival is of great importance for local residents due to their engagement. Such type of engagement may influence satisfaction with the festival’s impacts on image of the city. Mean value of this indicator is higher among locals than tourists. Despite the scale of the festival, in the eyes of tourists it does not contribute to the brand of the city, but it increases magnitude and value of the community in the eyes of locals. People learn about new places to visit in their city, they receive valuable information on its history and culture. The festival helps to realize local residents that in their own city they can have a good time.
Conclusion

Behavioral practices of local residents, inner and international tourists differ, but not radically. Selection of events for attending within the festival and distribution of costs depend on time that a visitor spends in the city; existence of any additional motives (relatives and friends participating in the parade, participation in sports competitions, etc.); total cost of the festival (including travel and accommodation budget). The features of inner tourists and tourists from other countries are more noticeable due to peculiarities of international tourists (primarily from Russia) and their visits to Kotka. The festival is one of the largest in the country in terms of number of visitors and, therefore, plays an important role for local residents and residents of the surrounding regions. The organisers should in the first place focus on needs of these groups of visitors to increase the level of satisfaction through more active engagement in the preparation and conduction of the festival, diversification of the events and so on. The event greatly affects different aspects of life in the community and the fact that the organising committee of the festival includes employees of the municipality is of great importance. Despite of the fact that due to the crisis the number of tourists in Finland fell, international tourists still may be considered as potential visitors, but the appeal of this category in terms of getting the benefits by organisers is not very high (especially considering the infrastructure problems etc.).

One of the biggest festivals in Finland should take into account the features of the behavior and interests of local residents and residents of the surrounding areas to adjust organisational and programmatic issues and increase profitability. In this regard, qualitative analysis of data obtained during interviews with the festival’s stakeholders is one of the most prospective directions for the future research. Exploration of positive and negative impacts of the festival and stakeholders’ behavior within the festival will help to develop recommendations for changing the concept of the festival to consider different parties’ interests and raise the event’s efficiency. In addition, investigation of the possibilities and potential for the event promotion on the Russian market seems to be promising. The proposed study can become a basis for conducting research on comparison of various Finnish festivals in terms of their attractiveness for international and Russian tourists. Review of existing worst and best practices will allow elaborating recommendations for festival tourism development in Finland, promotion of niche festivals on the Russian market, development of new tourist products, etc. Given the decline in tourist flows as a result of the crisis, this is of special significance.

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Zagadnienia zachowań turystów i tubylców: przypadek międzynarodowego Festiwalu Morskiego w Kotce w Finlandii

Streszczenie

W opracowaniu scharakteryzowano rodzaje zachowań uczestników jednego z największych wydarzeń w Finlandii - Międzynarodowego Festiwalu Morskiego Kotka. W badaniu, na podstawie 367 kwestionariuszy stwierdzono, że behawioralne praktyki mieszkańców oraz turystów krajowych i międzynarodowych różnią się, choć nie radykalnie. Mimo międzynarodowego charakteru, Festiwal jest bardziej atrakcyjny dla mieszkańców, którzy wydają więcej pieniędzy i aktywniej uczestniczą w Festiwalu niż przyjezdni uczestnicy. Można to wytłumaczyć zaangażowaniem mieszkańców i ich rodzin lub przyjaciół w organizację niektórych wydarzeń festiwalowych i możliwością spędzania czasu razem. Rozwijając koncepcję Festiwalu, organizatorzy powinni brać pod uwagę nie tylko spe-

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2 Artykuł przygotowano w ramach programu Funduszu Akademickiego w Narodowym Uniwersytecie Badawczym „Wyższa Szkoła Ekonomii” (HSE) w roku 2015 przy wsparciu w ramach dotacji przyznanej HSE przez rząd Federacji Rosyjskiej ds. wdrażania programu globalnej konkurencyjności „Badania kreatywnego potencjału rozwoju turystyki kulturowej”.
cyfikę i cechy zagranicznych turystów przybywających do Kotka, ale skupić się też na podnoszeniu poziomu satysfakcji lokalnej społeczności.

Słowa kluczowe: Festiwal, zaangażowanie społeczności, mieszkańców, turystów.

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The Role of Travel Agencies in Poles’ Travels Abroad

Summary

The aim of the article is to show the role of travel agencies in Poles’ trips abroad. The author made use of results of the surveys carried out by the Institute of Tourism, as well as data contained in published and unpublished source texts. In the article, she applied both the quantitative and qualitative methodology to illustrate changes that have occurred in Poles’ tourist travels abroad through travel agencies over the years. Almost every fourth trip (23.5%) means trip abroad organised with participation of a travel agency. Compared with the previous year, there was noted the growth of percentage of trips organised fully or partly by the travel agency by 3.5%. Collapses and bankruptcies of agencies did not affect the decline in the number of clients making use of travel agencies.

Article category: research.

Key words: travel agency, travel abroad, way of organisation.

JEL codes: Z31

Although tourism is a branch sensitive to economic fluctuations, socio-political turmoil or natural disasters, which were quite often in the recent years, the number of travel agencies has not been decreasing at all. After the drop noted in 2009, the number of tourists travelling abroad has been slowly growing, what encourages opening new travel agencies.

In connection with Poland’s accession to the Schengen area, since 22 December 2007 the Border Guards have abandoned the registration of outward and inward movement at the border crossing points with Germany, the Czech Republic, Slovakia, and Lithuania (as well as to the Schengen area countries in the air and sea border crossing ports), hence in subsequent years the border movement is estimated on the grounds of research surveys (till 2012, in eight rounds per year and in 2013 – in five rounds per annum). Based on that as well as having assessed the border movement being registered by the Border Guards, it is estimated that in 2013 Polish citizens going to other countries crossed the Polish border 52.6 million times. It was by 8.9% more than one year before.

The level of participation of Poles aged 15 and more in travels abroad accounted for 17%, by 1% more than a year earlier, and was the highest over the last five years.

According to the estimates of Activ Group, in 2013 in tourist purposes (i.e. with at least one overnight stay) went abroad 5.5 million Poles, of which in the at least 5-day travels took part 4.6 million, while in the 2-4-day trip – 1.3 million individuals. We can observe the growth of only the number of long-term travels abroad (from 4.3 million in 2012 to
4.6 million in 2013). The share of Poles in short-term travels abroad remained unaltered. The average duration of stay amounted to 10.1 overnight stays (in 2012 – 9.8).

For years, the most popular destinations of Poles’ trips abroad have been neighbouring countries. Particularly popular is Germany which, owing to the proximity and a significant group of Polish migrants living there, attract with visit members of their families. Moreover, Polish tourists most often visited the United Kingdom, Italy, and the Czech Republic.

In 2013, half (50%) of travels abroad made by Poles was constituted by tourist and holiday trips. Their number increased by 6%. The second most important purpose of Poles’ trips abroad was business trips (26.5%).

According to the estimates of Activ Group, in 2013 there grew the number of travel abroad made by Poles for the typically tourist purposes; there also grew the share of trips organised completely by travel agencies, from 16% in 2012 to 20% in 2013. The share of foreign trips partly organised by travel agencies decreased by 0.5%.

**Table 1**

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</table>

Source: surveys of the Institute of Tourism.

Almost every fourth trip (23.5%) means a travel abroad organised with participation of the travel agency. Compared with the previous year, there was noted the growth of the percentage of trips organised entirely or partly by the travel agency by 3.5%.

Analysing the number of travels of Poles with travel agencies since 2004, both those entirely and partly organised, we may observed that apart from the years 2006 and 2009, when the number of trips declined, the number of Poles’ trips with travel agencies has been regularly increasing. Different was the number of trips entirely organised by travel agencies. The growth of those trips took place by turns with decline. Thus, in 2005, there took place the growth of trips entirely organised but already in 2006 there occurred the drop thereof. In the subsequent years, there took place the growth to drop again in 2009. Similarly in 2011, the number of entirely organised trips decreased. On the other hand, the last two years (2012-2013) brought a slight increase of the number of entirely organised travels.
Collapses and bankruptcies of travel agencies did not affect the reduction of the number of those making use of travel agencies. Part of tourists went to other travel agencies as there were disappearing from the market the agencies with which the clients had planned to spend their holidays. Some of them, observing the situation in the market, immediately were deciding to travel with the company with the established position and well-known brand.

**Resumption**

There has increased the number of Poles’ trips both domestic and abroad, there has also increased the role of travel agencies in organisation of those trips. In general, the position of travel agencies is good and there is nothing what could threaten it, even collapses of dishonest entrepreneurs. The fact that the years 2012-2013 have shaken the position of some of travel agencies, others has enabled a further development. Collapses have damaged the image of the branch but, at the same time, have allowed the brands with the established position still better activities.

On the other hand, it has been noted that despite the 11 per cent growth of arrivals of tourists to Poland there has declined the interest of foreign tourists in trips entirely organised by travel agencies. However, there has grown the interest in trips partly organised.
For comparison, it is worthwhile to note that in Germany the intermediary of travel agencies is used by more than 30% of tourists, in the United Kingdom about 25%, and in France, this indicator accounts for only some 12%.

Despite the collapse of 15 firms in 2012 and a few in 2013, there have still been operating many good firms, with solid economic bases. Collapses in outward tourism are not more numerous than in other industries. However, they are far-famed as the information about them is easier reaching the mass media.

In 2014, the threat of collapse may concern rather only small, unknown in the market travel agencies. Quite to the contrary, big ones are succeeding better and better from one year to another. The well-known tour operators improve their finance, too. The quality of sales has improved. Profit margins are higher and travel agencies are better prepared in terms of organisation. The profit margin level is affected by the more favourable zloty rate of exchange as well as stable and lower prices for fuels. Prices for tours are a little bit higher. However, those better results are enjoyed, first of all, by large travel agencies as they exploit tourists’ fears of bankruptcy of the tour operator. Since the time-period when travel agencies were collapsing, the share of the best recognisable in the market brands in sales of tours has been systematically growing.

People are afraid of buying events from small and unknown firms. Upon the insolvency of the travel agency called GTI Travel Poland those fears have even increased. Under the terms of such competition, small companies may have greater and greater troubles. The carried out survey by the business information company D&B Bisnode Polska has shown that more than one half of small travel agencies are in bad and very bad financial condition. Among the agencies hiring from 10 to 25 persons, more than one fifth is threatened by bankruptcy and one third has serious problems with keeping liquidity. There is growing the number of indebted travel agencies and tour operators in the National Debt Register: as of the end of May 2013, there were registered 454 firms with bad debts for the total amount of almost 8.9 million zlotys.

References


Rola biur podróży w zagranicznych podróżach Polaków

Streszczenie

Celem artykułu jest pokazanie roli biur podróży w zagranicznych podróżach Polaków. W artykule wykorzystano wyniki badań przeprowadzonych przez Instytut Turystyki. W artykule wykorzystano
dane zawarte w publikowanych i niepublikowanych tekstach źródłowych. Zastosowano w artykule zarówno metodologię opisową oraz zastosowano metodologię liczbową np. obrazując zmiany zachodzące w zagranicznych wyjazdach turystycznych Polaków za pośrednictwem biur podróży na przestrzeni lat. Prawie co czwarty wyjazd (23,5%) to podróż zagraniczna organizowana przy współudziale biura podróży. W porównaniu z poprzednim rokiem zanotowano wzrost odsetka wyjazdów organizowanych całkowicie lub częściowo przez biuro podróży o 3,5%. Upadki i bankructwa biur nie miały wpływu na zmniejszenie się liczby klientów korzystających z biur podróży.

**Kategoria artykułu:** artykuł badawczy.

**Słowa kluczowe:** biuro podróży, wyjazd zagraniczny, sposób organizacji.

**Kody JEL:** Z31

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Tourist Aspects of the Health Resort Infrastructure in Poland

Summary

The main aim of the article is to discuss the tourist aspects of the health resort infrastructure in Poland and to show the resources of health resort base in Poland. In her article, the author applied both the qualitative methodology explaining various meanings of the term ‘statutory health resort’ and the quantitative methodology, e.g. illustrating the state of base, i.e. health resort establishments in individual voivodeships (provinces), poviats (districts or counties) and gminas (municipalities or communes). The resources of the medical base of Polish health resorts include the following types of facilities: spa hospitals, spa sanatoria, natural therapy centres, health resort outpatient clinics, rehabilitation sanatoria and preventoria, the first four of which are included into the group of the so-called health resort centres. The majority of statutory health resorts are located in towns, mostly in small. In the spa tourism, there are carried out activities by both public establishments and those belonging to the non-public sector. There prevails the non-public sector which concentrates the biggest number of them in the form of sanatoria and spa hospitals. In 2013, in Poland, there were operating 198 health resort establishments in 41 municipalities – the localities which have the health resort status. They were located in the territory of 11 provinces.

Article category: case study.

Key words: infrastructure, statutory health resort, sanatorium, public sector.

JEL codes: Z31

Statutory health resorts, i.e. such whose area or part thereof is assigned with the health resort status or the status of the area of spa protection, occur in all the landscape zones of Poland. However, the overwhelming part of health resort municipalities is in the regions with the greatest tourist and recreational values in the areas attractive in tourist terms, where there prevail the areas assign to the first and second category of attractiveness on the national scale. These regions include primarily the Carpathians and Sudeten Mountains, the Baltic Coast as well as the Drawa and Suwałki and Augustów Lake Districts. The biggest number of health resorts is in the Beskids and Sudeten Mountains (22). In terms of location, there are the following health resorts: mountainous, submontane, lowland, and coastal. The most appreciated by tourists are mountainous, submontane, and coastal health resorts, largely visited both for health and therapeutic purposes and for wonderful medical, recreational, and landscape values.
The mountainous health resorts (above 500 meters above sea level) are: Duszniki Zdrój, Jedlina Zdrój, Krynica Zdrój, Łądek Zdrój, Muszyna, Rabka Zdrój, Szczawnica, Świeradów Zdrój, and Wysowa. The coastal spas include Świnoujście, Kamień Pomorski, Kołobrzeg, Ustka, and Sopot. The most well-known Polish health resorts are, first of all, Busko Zdrój, Ciechocinek, Kołobrzeg, Krynica Zdrój, Łądek Zdrój, Nałęczów, and Ustroń. The spas and mountains and in the seaside are mostly popular tourist and recreational localities.

A great value of Polish spas is their direct landscape and natural milieu. Many of them are located within or in vicinity of the most valuable protected areas such as national parks: Gorczański, Magurski, Pieniński, Woliński, and Stołowe Mountains National Parks as well as areas of outstanding natural beauties: Kazimierski, Nadnidziański, Popradzki, Beskid Śląski, and Puszcza Knyszyńska. There are especially distinguishable the municipalities where the national parks (7 municipalities) and areas of outstanding natural beauties (12 municipalities) are located. That neighbourhood, often in the form of vast forest complexes and other biologically active areas, ensures retention of high ecological parameters and allows for extension of the tourist offer by interesting programmes of alternative tourism, particularly of the natural and specialist character. And the very spas, contrary to other holiday resorts, have their own special zones and protective regulations, ensuring the high quality of the environment and leisure.

The therapeutic base’s resources of Polish spas are comprised of the following types of establishments: spa hospitals, spa sanatoria, natural therapy facilities, spa outpatient clinics, rehabilitation sanatoria and preventoria, the first four of which are included into the so-called spa treatment establishments. Accommodation services for spa patients and tourists are provided by spa hospitals and sanatoria, rehabilitation sanatoria, and preventoria.

The majority of statutory health resorts (32) are located in towns, mostly small ones. Others are rural localities, four of which are communal villages (Goczałkowice Zdrój, Horyniec Zdrój, Krasnobród, and Solec Zdrój). Of a specific nature are three spas: Konstancin, Sopot, and Śwoszowice, located within large urban agglomerations: Warsaw, Tri City, and Krakow.

In the spa tourism, their activities are carried out by both public establishments and those belonging to the non-public sector. There prevails the non-public sector which aggregates most facilities in the form of sanatoria and spa hospitals. This sector owes its advantage to spa companies which are, in the reality, commercialised ownership of the State Treasury. In the non-public sector, gestors of spa facilities include, besides the already mentioned State Treasury’s companies, trade unions, employers, and the so-called other bodies and institutions. The public gestors are: State Treasury Minister as well as self-governments of the voivodeship (province), powiat (county or district), and gmina (commune or municipality).
Some spas and health resort facilities deal with children treatment, some of them provide their services with care of their mothers. Therapy of paediatric diseases is a specialty of the selected spa facilities and rehabilitation sanatoria in 13 health resorts, inter alia, in Ciechocinek, Czerniawa Zdrój, Goczałkowice Zdrój, Kołobrzeg, Kudowa Zdrój, Rabka Zdrój, and Rymanów Zdrój (in the latter two, also with maternal care).

Paediatric therapy was carried out, except for Podlasie and Warmia and Mazury, in all other provinces with health resorts. The leading is Małopolska. Moreover, a considerable number of such beds take place in the following provinces: Zachodniopomorskie, Podkarpackie and Dolnośląskie. Rehabilitation sanatoria for children were operating in 4 provinces: Dolnośląskie, Lubelskie, Pomorskie, and Zachodniopomorskie.

The state of the base – health resort establishments

In 2013, in Poland, there were operating 198 health resort establishments in 41 municipalities – the localities which have the health resort status. They were located in the territory of 11 provinces. The terms and conditions, which the municipality must meet to obtain the status of spa for its locality, are regulated by the Act of 28 July 2005 on health resort medicine, spas and spa protection areas as well as on health resort municipalities. The region with the biggest number of spas is Dolnośląskie (Lower Silesian) Voivodeship. There are 9 spas in its territory with 37 accommodation facilities. The next provinces with a considerable number of spas are Zachodniopomorskie with eight spas (43 accommodation facilities) and Małopolskie with seven (36 accommodation facilities). Five provinces do not even one spa. These are the following provinces: Lubuskie, Łódzkie, Mazowieckie, Opolskie, and Wielkopolskie.

In 2013, the number of people making use of health resort facilities amounted to 634,896, of which 5.4%, or 34,340 individuals, were foreign tourists. The biggest number, as almost 30% of all making use of health resort facilities, i.e. 178,861 spa patients, were in Zachodniopomorskie Province, of which 15.6%, or 27,970 people, were foreign tourists, as well as in Kujawsko-Pomorskie Province, where there came almost 20% of all users of health resort facilities, or 123,762 individuals, of which 0.9%, or 1,092 individuals, were foreign tourists. Next, the biggest numbers of arrivals to spas were noted in the following provinces: Małopolskie, where 92,906 people arrived, i.e. 15% of all users of health resort facilities, including 616 individuals, or 0.7%, were foreign tourists, and Dolnośląskie Province, 55,799 people, i.e. 9% of all users of health resort facilities, including 5% of foreign tourists. In other provinces, the number of spa visitors was significantly lower. The least number of spa visitors was in Podlaskie Voivodeship – 2,472 visitors, and in Warmińsko-Mazurskie Voivodeship – 9,082 visitors.
### Table 1

Health resort establishment in Poland as of 31 July 2013 by **voivodeship, powiat** and **gmina**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Voivodeship</th>
<th>Number of accommodation facilities</th>
<th>Number of year-round accommodation facilities</th>
<th>Number of accommodation places</th>
<th>Number of year-round accommodation places</th>
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### TOURIST ASPECTS OF THE HEALTH RESORT INFRASTRUCTURE IN POLAND

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Source: Own calculations based on KT-1, GUS, Warsaw 2013
Table 2
Number of people (total and foreign tourists) making use of health resort facilities as well as the number of accommodation stays provided for them in 2013 by voivodeship, powiat, and gmina

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Source: Own calculations based on KT-1, GUS, Warsaw 2013
Environment pollution by health resorts

The emerged after treatments in health resorts sewage containing, *inter alia*, sulphates, if disposed improperly damages the sewage system and degrades the environment, informs in the recent report the Supreme Audit Office (NIK). In Poland, there are operating 45 health resorts. Having carried out in them treatments with the use of hydrotherapy, the spas form the so-called after-bath sewage which may contain chemicals dangerous for the environment.

This problem *was neglected* in the majority of controlled establishment. In the published report, the Supreme Audit Office (Najwyższa Izba Kontroli in the Polish language) notes that “from year to year, the services rendered by spas are used by more and more people: in 2012, there were already more than 670 thousand spa patients”. NIK adds that in Poland the most popular are the so-called sulphide baths, with the use of curative waters containing sulphur and chlorine compounds. “Such sewage should be – in the opinion of scientists – qualified as industrial wastewater, there should be investigated its composition and, depending on the degree of invasiveness, properly purified. Part of sewage will really be able to be included to low-invasive and be disposed in a controllable way to the municipal sewer system, though in a safety manner for the environment it can be done only having adequately investigated samples” – adds the NIK’s report. However, NIK indicates that there are health resorts who fail to do so and without whatever expertise consider sewage outflowing from them as municipal sewage. “Only some municipalities were undertaking measures reducing onerousness of sewage for the environment” - admitted.

Resumption

At present, the market for resort services has been undergoing through far reaching transformations. In many countries, the traditional, based on natural raw materials, health resort treatment in the ‘classical’ approach undergoes through regress or at least an apparent stagnation caused by the development of science and technology of the modern conventional medicine. However, more and more important becomes in health resorts the comprehensively understood health tourism and its new forms and products of the wellness, spa, beauty, and fitness type as regards ‘public health’. In the European market, there has appeared enormous demand for such services, what causes that some resorts are changing into service centres connected with a complex of commercial activity as regards care of health, beauty and fitness as well as in the field of wellness and physical recreation.

Also Polish spas, guided by the consumers’ needs and demand, begin to change the model of the hitherto activity, adjust their image to the clients’ needs and expand the range of provided services, developing the infrastructure.
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Dane z KT-1 (2013), GUS, Warsaw

Turystyczne aspekty infrastruktury uzdrowiskowej w Polsce

Streszczenie


Kategoria artykułu: studium przypadku.

Słowa kluczowe: infrastruktura, uzdrowisko statutowe, sanatorium, sektor publiczny.

Kody JEL: Z31

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The genesis and concept of the sustainable development in meetings and events industry

Abstract

The term “sustainable development” as a popular media slogan is often used in the context of the classic approach to environmental protection and solutions, thus failing to highlight its innovative properties in approach to environmental matters. Although actions leading to keep the level of quality of the environment are desirable, it is the restoring of the environment that should be in the scope of the new paradigm of sustainable development. The conducted research observes that the meetings industry in Poland has good record in this context, especially considering that it is a relatively new area of business activity that has only recently implemented the concept of sustainable development. Results obtained show that on average 45% of event companies in Poland are involved in sustainable programs, with solid prospects for future improvement.

Key words: meetings industry, sustainable development.

JEL codes: M14, O44, Z32

Introduction

The term “sustainable development” has become an excessively used media slogan. It is often applied in the context of the classic approach to environmental protection and solutions known as “end of pipe”. In that way, the meaning of sustainable development is limited and also there is no highlight of its innovative properties in environmental matters. Although actions leading to keep the level of quality of the environment are desirable, more attention in the aforementioned concept is linked to preventive measures and other actions in the field. Restoring the value of the environment that it lost due to human activities is a further goal that remains in agreement with the new paradigm of environmental safety as well as with balanced development.

The notion of sustainable development can be considered mainly in three different ways (Adamowicz 2006):
1. As a socio-philosophical concept (calling for a change in the human values system),
2. As a new direction of economic development (which assumes new ways of organizing and managing the economy),
3. As an emerging scientific discipline.
Toruński (2010) states that sustainable development is not a set measurable goals, but a process stretched over many years and generations. It also takes on importance, expanding out of the concept of development to even outside of a certain ethical measure. It is also a certain “popular fashion” and ecological products connected to it are a symbol of novelty. Even in Poland we can say about a certain stigmatization of persons, companies or institutions which are not achieving sustainable goals or use unsustainable tools. Sustainable development organizes known values and combines them in a single system, whose main advantage is reconciliation of seemingly contradictory ecological and socio-economic interests.

The term of sustainable development was defined and understood in the Polish law as socio-economic development integrating certain political, economic and social activities, and maintaining natural balance and permanence of basic natural processes, in order to guarantee the ability to meet basic needs of communities and citizens of both the current and future generations. It can therefore be stated, that the above definition contains all basic aspects of balanced development. It highlights its key aspect – the need to integrate the three components: human development, economic development, and healthy environment.

Sustainable development is a concept which focuses on the quality of human life. Reaching the desirable state in that matter is made possible thanks to proper management of five types of assets: environmental, economic, human, social, and other. The management process should be done in alignment with ecological, economic, social, institutional and spatial harmony.

Sustainable development in Poland

In Poland, the idea of sustainable development as the basis for growth was accepted already at the „Round Table” series of talks between the communist government and the opposition movement. The sustainable development assumptions were considered consistent with the ideals of democracy. Moreover, the awareness of a poor condition of the environment resulting from decades of ignorance of the Polish Republic legal establishment, called for a firm stand. Acceptance of the guidelines of sustainable development as early as in 1991 through the adoption of the National Ecology Policy demonstrated particular openness towards making sustainable development an established policy in Poland (Trzepacz 2012). It must be noted here, that Poland did not record any delay in adopting the then increasingly popular concept of sustainable development. The perceived importance of and commitment to the concept of sustainable development in Poland was further proved in the wording of the new Polish Constitution, adopted in 1997. Already in the preamble to the Basic Law it was noted that the Polish Republic will observe the rule of sustainable development, which would mean the following:

– Endeavour to restore natural resources;
- Rational usage of all non-renewable resources and replacing them with substitutes;
- Limiting negative effects of development on the environment, and not crossing the boundaries set by its resistance;
- Maintaining the biological diversity;
- Ensuring the environmental safety of all citizens;
- Creating conditions for companies for fair competition in access to limited resources and the ability to reduce waste.

Poland should also ensure protection and rational shaping of the environment, and create conditions that would help realize the citizen rights to fair access to environmental assets. The acceptance by Poland of the ideals of sustainable development also means a change in approach to protecting the environment. Sustainable development preserves the belief in the need to go beyond the passive approach to protection, focusing on preservative tools. Polish opening on the need to raise ecological awareness and countermeasures means realizing the base assumptions of the concept (Rosicki 2010).

**The term of meetings industry**

The meetings industry is a relatively new phenomenon with barely ten-odd analyses existing, both in terms of studying this issue and of the community culture and its behaviours. The meetings and events industry is an interdisciplinary field, which is most often identified with tourism. In European, American and Australian literature various terms are used to describe it, such as: business tourism, meetings market, event industry, MICE industry, congress tourism, conference market, business travels and business events in Australia. The industry in question is most frequently described as the Meetings, Incentives, Conventions and Exhibitions (MICE) Industry - a term that gives rise to a negative impression that it is a non-continuous set of disjointed elements rather than an industry as such. UNWTO applies the terms ‘meetings industry’ and ‘international meetings industry’ which can be used interchangeably, and which denote organization, promotion, sales and provision of services for purpose of organizing association, government and corporate meetings, motivation travels, seminars, conventions, technical visits and shows.

UNWTO suggested create category of business activity related to an industry which includes in the International Standard Industrial Classification (ISIC). The category defines industry through an additional class entitled “Convention and trade show organizers”. According to UNWTO recommendations, this industry covers the organization, promotion and management of such events as trade shows, conventions, congresses and conferences, irrespective of whether they are or are not connected with management by and commission for the staff of the facility where the given event is taking place (UNWTO 2006).
The report partners, UNWTO, ICCA and Reed Travel Exhibitions, suggested introducing an official name: “meetings and events industry”. However, after consultations with other international organizations, the “meetings industry” term won greater acclaim. Additionally, it was stated that the term “event” is too broad to be used in this context. The definition put forward by the aforementioned partners is broader than ISIC’s definition; it specifies the customers and covers incentive travels (ICCA 2014).

Sustainable development in meetings industry

The sustainable development in meetings industry is also well-known and more and more often used globally. There are plenty of examples how it can be implemented. At the request of the organizer of the event, souvenir products can be made from recycled materials, and the delegate ‘goody bags’ - of biodegradable materials. Active participants of “green” meetings proposed to abandon the delegate bag in favour of using your own bag, or reusing those from other conferences. Thus, during a “green” event, all service providers are encouraged to adhere to the three basic principles: waste reduction, reuse, and recycling of materials.

Following an event, customer receives a certificate indicating what eco-results were achieved in the preparation and implementation of the “green” event. It should be noted, however, that the transition to sustainable development of the industry meetings and congress and exhibition activity is impossible without the introduction of innovations in the field of organization and activities through the use of advanced, modern technology.

Conducting “green” activities does not require significant financial input, but rather offers opportunities to make budget savings, it is also an excellent PR and marketing tool, and it has a positive effect on the company’s image.

Customer “green” event requires catering companies to use seasonal and organic food. It is recommended to choose suppliers that offer products from local producers, with the abandon of imported products. Leftover food should be transferred to institutions that help the poor and the homeless, or to charities. Any food waste is recycled into compost on the site, or transferred to specialized companies. It should be demanded of catering companies and restaurants catering to conference participants to use reusable cutlery, glassware, tablecloths, to minimise the use of plastic bags, containers, and plastic bottles. If there is no way to offer a reusable container, a recyclable container should be used instead. It is also highly recommended to dispense water in glass bottles, or water coolers.

The concept of sustainable development is a new trend for domestic companies, but in the coming years it will become a priority. The use of “green” practices in Polish meetings industry will have a positive impact on the development of the industry as a whole.
Analysis of the conducted research

The scientific research is based on the event companies’ follows of sustainable development. Fifty companies had completed the questionnaire with thirteen questions. This questionnaire has four main topics such as audio action, event organizer action, transportation, and beverage. Each main topic has subsections: waste, community, energy and human recourse.

The main idea of creation of questionnaire was to collect as much information as possible about companies’ actions towards sustainable development in events industry. The questionnaire was designed as simple and understandable for event managers. Questions were put clearly and short. The three kinds of questions like “yes”, “no” and “start implementation” are supposed to limit inaccuracies. It allows event managers to choose only from three multiple questions, thus reducing complexity and the time needed to fill in the form. The questionnaire was anonymous and voluntary.

These questions are basic statement for sustainable development in events industry. That basic program is economized material, time and eco-friendly. Sustainable development knowledge in the events industry seems to go hand in hand with effectiveness and increased professionalism. Collecting data directly from event managers allows to reflect on the current provision, as well as areas for possible improvement and change in such aspects like proper use of electrical devices, reduced use of transportation, reduction and segregation of waste, and awareness of staff members about the sustainable development regulations. All those things do not require significant input of money and time, however, they could significantly change the popular attitude towards the meetings industry.

The questionnaire was sent to 65 agencies by e-mail. The feedback was collected from 50 agencies.

As shown in the Figure 1, questions 1, 8, 10 and 11 demonstrate that more than 30 agencies follow the rules of sustainable development. It means they offer separate bins for paper, plastic, metal, batteries, glass and food waste, and have eliminated plastic bottled water. Questions 2, 5, 6, 12 indicate that 10-20 agencies (which amounts to only 30% of the researched population) use energy efficient solutions (such as LED lighting), reduce the usage of paper, offer venues that are closely linked with transport hubs, and use recyclable venue decoration.

The remaining questions 3, 4, 7 and 9 show that a limited number of event companies do not offer a “sustainability” focused menu options at events, do not use electrical cars, do not support any community organizations, do not share sustainability policies or conduct with staff regularly. To sum up, it can be concluded that only 30% of surveyed agencies support sustainable development.
Figure 1
Positive answers

![Diagram of answers "Yes"]

Source: own study based on questionnaire data.

Figure 2
Negative answers

![Diagram of answers "No"]

Source: like in figure 1.

Figure 3 shows which agencies have started implementing sustainable development practices.

Figure 4 shows the high negative indicators for implementation sustainable development in the event organizations. Only a few of the event companies provide eco-programs and
some of them mention sustainable development. Most organizations concentrate on innovations at work and in customer relations, as well as on a creative event idea.

**Figure 3**
The start of implementation

![Diagram of answers "Starting implementation"](image)

Source: like in figure 1.

As can be seen, Figure 1 nearly negates the Figure 2. Almost the same numbers have been obtained to compare positive answers, because in that case were including the answers of companies which have just started implementing sustainable development ideas in the events industry. A closer look at Figure 3 shows the highest scoring question 4, that reads: “Supports a community organisation, local charity or NGO either financially or through more than 50% of staff involvement in an activity of at least 2 hours”. As could be seen the result, financial interest placed event agencies to take part in sustainable development programs.

Figure 3 shows that there is only 7% implementation of sustainable development in live for events companies. That is not much at all for knowledgeable sustainable development in meeting industry in Poland.

Figure 4 makes it easier to paint the picture of numbers of answers. Answers “Yes” are represented by the blue colour, the violet colour shows “No” responses, and finally the beige colour represents companies that have only just started implementing sustainable development concepts in organization of meetings. Generally, the diagram shows that some events companies actively take part in sustainable program, and some agencies are just starting to follow sustainable program for event. It is not possible to say that Poland is ignoring sustainable development altogether. In that case the number of agencies will likely be growing as long as the meeting industry in Poland keeps growing too.
To summarize, the research shows that sustainable development in event industry becomes more and more popular in Poland. The said industry is gaining on popularity and growth rate. It could be said that sustainable development in the meetings industry in Poland has been embraced by for more than 40% of companies. That is a good result for a country that has just begun to progress in the field towards a more stable recognition of sustainable development in the meetings industry.

**Conclusions**

This analysis covered 279 positive answers. This means that data obtained from 50 events agencies were replayed for 13 questions, resulting in 279 answers. Comparably, the negative answers totalled at 329. As a result, the difference between the negative and positive answers equals only 50 answers. Additionally, the companies which indicated that they are just working out the program of sustainable development numbered only 42. It is low indicators of research. Now we can calculate all kind of answers to better understand the whole picture of the research. The final sum with negative, positive and start implementation program is 652 answers across 13 questions. It helps more to understand all diagrams at research.

Generally, it means that sustainable development of the meetings industry in Poland has good result at 45% of companies that include sustainability ideas in their practice, especially taking into account that the meetings industry is one of the youngest fields of business activity to apply the concept. If Polish event agencies could increase their positive result to 20%
after 10 years, it could be possible to say that the market of sustainable development in the events industry in Poland is providing a successfully sustainable program. The result which has been received from this research shows quite positive results for Poland.

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Geneza i koncepcja zrównoważonego rozwoju w spotkaniach i wydarzeniach branżowych

Streszczenie

Określenie „zrównoważony rozwój”, jako popularny slogan mediów, jest często używane w kontekście klasycznego podejścia do ochrony środowiska i rozwiązań, w przeciwieństwie do podejścia podkreślającego jego innowacyjny charakter w odniesieniu do kwestii środowiskowych. Choć działania prowadzące do utrzymania poziomu jakości środowiska są pożądane, to powinny one mieścić się w zakresie nowego paradigmatu rozwoju zrównoważonego. Przeprowadzone badania wskazują, że przemysł spotkań w Polsce ma dobre wyniki w tym kontekście, szczególnie biorąc pod uwagę, że jest to stosunkowo nowy obszar działalności gospodarczej.

Słowa kluczowe: przemysł spotkań, zrównoważony rozwój.

Kody JEL: M14, O44, Z32
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Traditional Food in Culture and Tourism

Summary

An aim of the study is to analyse the role played by traditional food in the culture and tourism. The research confirmed that the notion ‘traditional food’ is commonly known to consumers. Information on traditional food was received by respondents from TV programmes, the press, food bazaars and fairs. Traditional food is described as food of better quality, based on original recipes passed on from generation to generation. It is food which is often connected with customs, holidays, definite symbols. As an analysis of the subject literature and surveys show, traditional food plays its role in the culture as an element of the cultural heritage and the role in tourism, with a particular consideration of culinary tourism. Food of this type is played the role of brand product whose features and origin are strictly connected with a definite region or place.

Key words: food, tradition, tourism, culture, brand.

JEL codes: Z32, Q18

Introduction

The tradition, understood as the passed on from generation to generation behaviours, customs, beliefs, and rituals considered by a given community as important for its present and future, refers to many domains of the human life.

The cultural heritage is the grounds of the local, regional, national, and European identity. The preservation and protection thereof as well as reinforcement of the social identity at the local and regional level are the basic elements of permanence, which will allow maintaining the community’s values for future generations and the specific traditions and knowledge.

The local cultural values mean the artistic, literary, audio-visual, and architectural work, creative activity, contemporary culture, handicraft, folklore, archaeological, historical, religious, and ethnographic heritage, dialects, music, landscape and nature, specialist and traditional knowledge as well as agricultural products, farm animals, food products and catering. All the mentioned values are connected with the identity which, in turn, has its roots in the material, non-material, and natural heritage of the community.

The local specialties and traditional food, related to the customs, beliefs, and history, are considered as an important component of the culture, which attracts tourists. Significant for the traditional culinary products occurring locally, is giving them names connected with the
place of their emergence, e.g. karp zatorski (Cyprinus carpio) or jabłka łąckie (Łącko apples).

The increasing exchange of tourist services as well as the changing form and content of the tourist travel mean that tourism may be contemporarily defined as the flow of people, capital, images, and cultures. The interdisciplinary nature of tourism allows analysing this phenomenon as a phenomenon of contacts between people. Such contacts are of the intercultural nature if the tourist visits the area different in terms of culture than the one of their origin.

The regional specificity and qualities of the cultural environment become in the European markets an element of search. There becomes quite unbelievable the fact that the branded product in tourism is not based on the regional specificity of the area as entire tourism is based on the regions cultural heritage or contains at least its element. Therefore, it is important to see how great value can be entailed in the traditional culinary products of the regional nature.

An aim of the study is to analyse the role which is played by the traditional food in the culture and tourism.

**Defining traditional food**

The term ‘traditional food’ is not protected and is differently interpreted. In the face of ever growing demand for traditional food in Europe, it seems important to recognise the way the traditional food is perceived as an element strictly connected with the culture and playing a significant role in tourism (Żakowska-Biemas 2012, p. 6).

The tradition, understood as passing on from generation to generation of behaviours, customs, beliefs, and rituals considered by a given community as important for its present and future, refers both to food production and consumption thereof (Gawęcki, Swulińska-Katulska 2008).

The European Commission defines the traditional food as the one which is in turnover in the community’s market for at least the time-period indicating the passing on from generation to generation, what is defined as at least 25 years.

Food of such a type is characterised by the specific feature or features which distinguish it from other similar products within the same category as regards the ‘traditional components’ from which it is manufactured, the ‘traditional composition’ and the ‘traditional method of production and/or way of processing. As the traditional methods of production and/or processing are considered the methods which have been passed on from generation to generation (Żakowska-Biemas 2012, p. 6).
The cited definitions of the traditional food contain the basic criteria deciding recognition of the food product as traditional but they do not consider the way of perception of this category of food by consumers. As the carried out research\(^1\) shows, in the conceptualisation of the traditional food consumers refer to the most frequently consumed products, but also the ones connected with specific circumstances (e.g. family celebrations, holidays), passed on from generation to generation, manufactured by traditional methods, less processed, and distinguishing with sensory features and the place of origin. Such a way of defining of the traditional food by consumers indicates that the notion ‘traditional’ is identified with the products which belong both to the commonly consumed, quite often less processed and the meals which are prepared in connection with celebrating family and religious events. Consumers interpret the traditional food not only distinguishing its quality but also emphasising its relationship with culinary traditions in a broad sense (Żakowska-Biemas 2012, p. 6-7).

The traditional food will include the products strictly dependent on the conditions prevailing in a definite area: these are the commodities connected with a given area, being a part of its customs, traditions, culture. Their specificity is that they are produced in a given place and based on traditional recipes. They have their own, traditional name and composition as well as the features distinguishing them against the background of other products and regional cuisines. They are unique as they are an element characteristic for a given area, manufactured in another place they do not have their traditional specificity, they are not an original product then.

In the literature, we may encounter many definitions of the traditional food. G. Russak describes the traditional food as the products whose value added is the cultural heritage (Russak 2005, p. 62). The traditional food also include the products with a relatively high price whose exceptional taste is achieved in result of the use by producers of natural and traditional technologies, specific for a given region, with the use of unique raw materials (Gaśiorowski 2006, p. 4). According to the view presented by Z. J. Dolatowski, the traditional food is connected with the history and beliefs of a given tribe. Though it is difficult to reconstruct the migration movements of subsequent communities, the fact is that menu of a given ethnic and civilizational group is a record of its history. The components therein may witness trade and neighbourhood contacts, nutritional needs related to the climate conditions and even the temporal places of residence of communities, e.g. during wars or disasters, as with the alteration of the milieu there also changed raw materials (Dolatowski 2008, p. 47).

As the traditional components are considered those which were used in a limited area in the past and have remained in use till now, and the use thereof must comply with the binding rules of national and EU regulations (Grębowiec 2012, p. 131). The traditional content means a unique, identifiable composition of components, which had been set forth yet before the II World War and was passed on from generation to generation both orally and through

\(^1\) The project Traditional United Europe Food (Truefood); 6FP, contract number 016264.
another means of communication. Additionally it must clearly differ from other, commonly
known recipes of food of the same type. The final determinant of the traditional food, pursuant
to the definition, is the use of the traditional way of production or the method of processing. This means that the process of production or processing was passed on from generation
to generation and its history dates back to the period before the II World War, provided that
the microbiological and hygienic safety of the processes as well as the organoleptic features
of the so manufactured products are compliant with the EU requirements.

From the sociological point of view, the traditional food includes the products most often
consumed in a given community or connected with celebration of the cultivated in a given
group holidays. It is made a reservation here that despite the applied traditional recipes,
passed on from generation to generation, it is allowable to introduce innovations, both in
the manufacturing technology and the components used (Jeżewska-Zychowicz 2009, p. 12).

The way of traditional food manufacturing is also an ideal counterbalance to the mass
production subjected to an ongoing chemicalisation, giving consumers an alternative. With
the growth of consumer’s awareness and thickness of one’s wallet, there was observed an in-
creased interest in natural food, local and traditional, which would be produced in a sustain-
able manner, ideally in the organic way. There grows the demand for traditional bread, pro-
duced of spelt flour on natural leavening, or meat products traditionally corned and smoked,
from the endemic breeds of animals (Swulińska-Katulska 2006, p. 9).

**Traditional food and cultural heritage**

In each culture, there function the cultural patterns, *inter alia*, connected with the mate-
rial sphere (e.g. models of tableware), with the non-material sphere (e.g. beliefs and supersti-
tions related to food, nutritional knowledge) as well as with the sphere of social phenomena
(e.g. pattern of behaviour during meals preparation and consumption, use of signs and sym-
bols). From the viewpoint of impact of the past on the present, beside the material sphere,
covering the traditional food, and non-material one, representing views on the traditional
food, important is also the sphere of social phenomena, including, *inter alia*, the acknowl-
edged and implemented ways of conduct related to food and use thereof for meeting human
needs, which create the cultural models of behaviour.

Culture is an integral part where the sphere serving hunger engulfing is only a part of
other functions it fulfils. Culture not only decides the use for nutrition of definite plants
and animals, but also that which part of a given plant or animal is edible. Moreover, culture
also describes how the product should be prepared for consumption and how consumed
(Jeżewska-Zychowicz 2008, p. 87).

The traditional food stems from the culture, in which it has originated and is consumed. The
definition of the notion ‘tradition’ allows for determination what part of the currently
consumed food may be treated in the categories of traditional food. In the broadest sense
tradition is identified with the entire past of a given community; in the narrower sense,
as tradition there is considered only that part of elements from the past which have a di-
rect impact on the present, i.e. it is the “past existing in the present”. In the narrowest
sense, tradition comprises only those elements from the past which have been chosen and
specially distinguished by the contemporarily living people (Sztompka 2007). As the tra-
ditional food there can be considered food products frequently consumed in a given com-
munity or connected with celebration, which are passed on from generation to generation,
prepared in accordance with old recipes, distinguish themselves and, at the same time, are
known for their sensory properties and, first of all, are connected with the local, regional
or national community.

What is consumed, how often it is consumed, the way of preparation, time of meal and its
dose are an integral part of culture, and individual products may have a symbolic meaning.
The very notion of edible product is not universal as it depends on patterns of a given cul-
ture. The product considered as edible in one cultural group may be considered as inedible
in another. Culture not only determines the nutritional usefulness of a given product but also
indicates which parts thereof are edible and which are not. Also the way of preparation and
consumption is determined by the cultural terms and conditions (Narojek 1993, p. 24). The
-cultural diversity manifesting itself in the existence of various religions and customs empha-
sises the distinction of individual communities and determinants thereof are also regional,
ethnic or national cuisines being the culturally defined regulations concerning a relevant
manner of dishes preparation and meal organisation as well as defining the scope of edible
substances called the traditional food (Jeżewska-Zychowicz 2008, p. 98).

Traditional food in tourism

Presence of the traditional food available for tourists is undoubtedly an asset of the re-
gion or the place being visited. This is the occasion to get acquainted with the national
traditions through the culinary art. The tourist has a chance to learn the culinary diversity of
a given destination. Food and drinks become the main reason for the trip to the chosen place.
Tourism authorities across the world see the potential of culinary tourism as a powerful tool
for identifying and promoting places, regions, and countries. The global trends show that
culinary tourists more and more often expect experience from the vacations that meets their
interest in meals and drinks and, moreover, they will contribute to their individual develop-
ment and will have caused improvement of their social status and extension of their cultural
capital. At present, there is perceived the change in the way of getting experience, from the
form of passive observation they pass to an interactive commitment, in result of which the
tourist learns local dwellers and their lifestyle. In the market for tourist services, we encoun-
ter the notion of tourist product as an economic category. The tourist product is a mix of the
three components: tourist attraction and infrastructure in the place of destination as well as accessibility thereof. Due to the complexity of the tourist product, there is presented a simplified classification:

- **The tourist product** as a **thing** may function independently or is usually an addition to other products.
- **The tourist product** as a **service** comprises a single tourist service.
- **The tourist product** as an **event** is characterised by a high thematic and organisational cohesiveness as well as a concrete placement in time and space. Typical for this product is uncommonness, uniqueness, sometimes cyclic nature.

The tourist product as an event may exist independently; it also may be a component of the tourist product as a party or the tourist product as a place.

- **The tourist product** as a **party** consists of a set of few services or services and tangible goods (things) being offered by tourism organisers.
- **The tourist product** as **premises** is characterised by the occurrence of one main attraction (service) and, additionally, a few accompanying services clustered in one place (premises) being, from the cartographic viewpoint, of the point nature.
- **The tourist product** as a **trail** consists of many places or facilities related to a certain superior idea, combined with one another with the marked out, usually signposted trail, and of a diversified tourist infrastructure, located along the route.
- **The tourist product** as an **area** (region, county, locality). This name is assigned to an internally complex set of elements distinguished for their concrete location in the space, characterised by tourist values.

The tourist product as an area is connected with a definite territory. Here, there is the division into:

- **The local tourist product** as an **area** – a single locality, municipality, unions of municipalities, county.
- **The regional tourist product** as an **area** is characterised by a considerably bigger territory than the local tourist product.
- **The national tourist product** as an **area** – the whole country, Poland.
- **The continental tourist product** as an **area** – a few or several neighbouring states.

The traditional food may have a strict connection with each of the forms of the tourist product.

**The notion of the branded product**

In tourism, an important role is played by the brand and the branded product. According to the American Marketing Association, the brand is a name, term, symbol, trade mark of
The basic elements of identification include:

- The graphical sign (logo, trade mark) – a simplified, graphical picture presenting through
  the mental shortcut the most important features of the product or firm for the purpose of
  its identification and distinguish from among competitors.
- The name – a verbal description of the product/firm.
- The slogan – a verbal maxim arousing an association with the product/firm.
- The sound – an acoustic motive, a musical phrase, call sign applied for the purpose of
  a better perception of the logo and name of the product/firm.

The branded tourist product is, at the same time, the product with a unique personality,
something what distinguishes it from other. The brand allows for achieving an advantage
over the competitors, distinguishing the product in the market and causing that it will be
chosen by customers. The branded tourist product, which has already gained its position in
the market, informs tourists through its name and logo of its unique values as a product, of
its attributes. For the potential purchaser, it is guarantee of keeping the product’s quality at
a definite level.

The food, met by the tourist, can be divided into the following categories: modern and
traditional. The former is characterised by the world-wideness, is based on industrial food,
offers consumption of ‘fast food’, and innovative, new flavours. The traditional cuisine is
formed by the traditional regional cuisine, natural (ecological) crops, traditional culinary
recipes (‘natural food’), natural flavour (Russak, Hutnikiewicz 2010, p. 77). This is the very
food which will intrigue the tourist who, also through unique products, will get rid of the
prosaic day. Accomplishing their tourist trip, its participants are more sensually open on
new experience, unique and memorable. One should take care of the quality of the culinary
products offered in the region. It is particularly important from the viewpoint of meeting the
tourist’s needs as:
- almost every tourist eats dinner during their travel;
- having meals is one of the favourite tourist activities;
- culinary dishes are the product which, as one of few, appeals to all the five senses of the
  client;
- the tourist, tasting a new meal, becomes a discoverer – he learns new flavours, the local
  culture;
- culinary dishes are not prone to seasonality – one may taste them in any period of the
  year;
- there is a strict relationship between the desire to learn culinary traditions and the needs
to expand one’s knowledge of the region’s culture;
- the local cuisine may be a prime factor determining the choice of travel’s destination
  (Agri-Tourism Workbook 2003, p. 98).
The need to rely the branded product on the regional specificity of the area

The regional specificity, properties of the cultural environment become in the European markets an element of search. Nowadays, there becomes unimaginable the fact that the branded product in tourism is nor based on the area’s regional specificity as the whole tourism relies on the region’s cultural heritage or includes at least an element thereof. Therefore, it becomes important to see how great value can entail regional products (Kostarczyk 2001, p. 30). The greater and greater ecological awareness, the desire and need to take care of the environment and, what stems therefrom, the trend of return to the nature causes that more and more often travelling as tourists we decide on rest in green, unpolluted areas. Hence, it is worthwhile to undertake all measures which will provide tourists with the value in form of traditional products or tasty ecological dishes. Realising and promoting the existence of traditional, valuable, unique products will enable the buyer purchasing of a genuine and exceptional product. Producers must, therefore, learn to make use and present the assets of prepared in the region meals, preserves, and products. Poland has enormous cultural potential which should be exploited for the purpose of attracting to this country foreign tourists and to encourage Poles to rest in the country. Promotion, popularisation of the rich cultural heritage of the country, therefore, also the culinary heritage, will allow, inter alia, retaining (preserving) the skills connected with the culinary art, preserving in Poles’ memory the fact of existence of that wealth, reinforcing or improving the tourist image of particular regions, and emphasising their peculiarity.

Traditional food as the basis of national catering

The traditional cuisine is based on raw materials and products originating from a given region and the ways of meal preparation comply with the traditional recipe. A characteristic feature of traditional and regional products is the quality being an effect of the traditional way of production, values of a given place, the specific climate or soil composition – these factors have a basic impact on the quality of raw material. Important are also the cultural factors traditionally passed on from generation to generation, which cause that a given culinary tradition, and thus traditional and regional products, are present in the definite communities in the definite area. A specific example is festive customs and connected with them meals and ways of consumption thereof.

The present shape of the Polish traditional cuisine is a result of:

- an access to natural resources dependent on the geographic location;
- an impact of cuisines of the nations neighbouring with individual regions;
- a degree of preservation and cultivation of the traditions and customs related to nutrition;
– in the past, an impact of cuisines of other nations what was directly connected with different degrees of the economic development of individual regions;
– trade contacts, population migrations, etc. Cuisines of particular regions of Poland differ from one another with raw materials as well as the way of cooking meals.

**Discussion of the research findings**

In order to analyse how consumers, and especially tourists, understand the notion of traditional food, next, how they assess such food, and how they assess the role of traditional food in culture and tourism, there was carried out a survey on 200 people, randomly selected, of different age groups.

Most often traditional food is bought by the individuals aged 35-45 years. The research findings confirm that the notion ‘traditional food’ is commonly known to consumers. 95% of the respondents confirmed they were aware of the notion. The respondents received the information on traditional food from TV programmes (50%), the press (20%), food kermises (20%) and fairs (5%), and other (5%). The respondents assessing traditional food described it as food of a better quality (40%), based on original recipes passed on from generation to generation (20%). They also indicated that it was the food which is often connected with customs (10%), festivities (10%), and definite symbols (10%). They emphasised its role in culture as an element of the cultural heritage. Defining the role of traditional food in tourism, they emphasised its presence in culinary tourism, but also the role of such food as the branded product whose features and origin are closely related to the definite region or place. The consumers, who had an opportunity to buy and consume traditional food, explained their choices with curiosity in a new, typical for a given region, flavour (60%), the desire to change the daily bought conventional food (20%), and health-related values (20%). They assumed that traditional food had a positive impact on their health, through to the used traditional raw materials and additives, the way of manufacturing and preserving. Traditional food was described as the desired tourist product, being both a form of englutting tourists’ hunger and the material evidence of reaching the places where that food originates in authentic conditions. Traditional food may be treated both as a product of general consumption or it also can be consumed during special occasions such as religious festivities or family meetings. The contemporary consumer becomes multi-cultural; on the one hand, there occurs the trend to be subjected to the global actions of enterprises and, on the other hand, the endeavour to preserve the cultural identity. The symbolic value, which stems from the cultural identity of a given region or the traditional way of traditional food production, reflects invisible attributes of food, which importance in making choice of food is growing. The factor limiting frequency of purchasing traditional food is the level of its prices, which was by the overwhelming majority of respondents considered as ‘too high’. Another factor limiting
purchasing such food is the problem with availability thereof and the lack of awareness of such products’ existence.

**Resumption**

Undertaking the theme of traditional food in culture and tourism, we were guided by the thesis that such type of food plays a specific role both as the branded product being an attraction for tourists and a specific image product of the definite destination. Emphasising inseparability with the local and regional culture, one should treat traditional food as the product being shaped through years, centuries, generations in a given area, which shape had been influenced by a number of geographical and cultural as well as sociological and economic factors. This is the traditional food what is a ‘carrier’ of what during many centuries people expressed with specific food. The cultural diversity can be seen in the existence of various religions and customs, emphasising the peculiarity of individual communities, which determinant is the traditional food being the culturally defined regulations concerning the proper way of dishes cooking and meal preparation as well as defining the scope of edible substances called the traditional food.

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Celem opracowania jest analiza roli jaką żywność tradycyjna odgrywa w kulturze i turystyce. Badania potwierdziły że pojęcie „żywność tradycyjna” jest powszechnie znana konsumentom. Informacje na temat żywności tradycyjnej respondentci uzyskali z programów telewizyjnych, prasy, kiermaszy i targów żywności. Żywność tradycyjna określana jest jako żywność lepszej jakości, bazująca na oryginalnych recepturach przekazywanych z pokolenia na pokolenie. Jest to żywność, która często związana jest z obyczajami, świętami, określoną symboliką. Jak dowiodła analiza literatury przedmiotu oraz badanie ankietowe, żywność tradycyjna odgrywa rolę w kulturze, jako element dziedzictwa kulturowego oraz rolę w turystyce, ze szczególnym uwzględnieniem turystyki kulinarnej. Tego typu żywność pełni rolę produktu markowego, którego cechy i pochodzenie ściśle związane jest z określonym regionem czy też miejscem.

Słowa kluczowe: żywność, tradycja, turystyka, kultura, marka.

Kody JEL: Z32, Q18

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Time is not the easiest thing: reflections on leisure, social capital and public policy

Abstract

This conceptual article is based on research data collected as part of a written assessment exercise, concluding a postgraduate teaching module ‘Leisure time consumers: tourism and recreation challenge’, attended by home and international students at Warsaw School of Tourism and Hospitality Research in the academic year 2014/15. The module, in accordance with guidance issued by the Education Commission of the World Leisure Association, was an interdisciplinary lecture and workshop combination, encompassing leisure time aspects such as pedagogy, economics and public policy. The assessment comprised of a written group report, answering the following question: ‘What and why - should be done or should happen in [a country of your choice] so that young people there could make a more efficient and a more constructive use of their leisure time?’ The reports collected illustrate deep and thorough understanding and analysis of the economic, social and political situation by module participants – young people mostly – supported by their willingness and determination to take action in order to change the status quo where necessary. The solutions offered in the reports exhibited young people’s readiness for co-operation and their positive attitude towards volunteering for the benefit of a community, as well as their sober awareness of limitations and barriers created by the current political and legal situation in their respective countries. The observable social and political awareness and willingness to bring about change for common benefit suggest a higher than average accumulation of social capital in the observed social group.

Key words: leisure time, social capital, public policy.

JEL codes: D12, H40, I31, J22, Z13

Introduction

This exploratory article had two direct inspirations. Firstly, it was a set of responses given by postgraduate students at a concluding assessment of a module ‘Leisure time consumers: tourism and recreation challenge’. The module was introduced at Szkola Główna Turystyki i Rekreacji (SGTiR) in the current form in the academic year 2014/15. Two identical versions of the module were delivered in Polish and in English languages to mixed groups of Polish and international students.

In line with the position of the Education Commission of the World Leisure Association to widen and to promote leisure education programmes (World Leisure Commission on Education 2000), the module was designed to encapsulate a range of contemporary issues and ideas: from the evolution of the concept of leisure time, through pedagogy of leisure, to
contemporary threats and challenges to various forms of tourism and recreation, to economy of leisure, and leisure policy. The broad range of themes required a flexible, inclusive module delivery method that was styled in the form of a seminar. The assessment concluding the module - in order to match the style of the lecture - was designed as a team report-writing assignment whose objective was to find an answer to the following question: ‘What - and why - should be done or should happen in [a country of your choice] so that young people there could make a more efficient and a more constructive use of their leisure time?’

The resulting twenty reports exhibited a striking collection of critical thought and reflection. Apart from mature, informed and realistic critique of the current situation in their countries of choice - in many cases supported with real-life examples - the reports also contained a handful of interesting solutions to a variety of identified problems. It was decided that the effort was worthy further analysis and a general consent was obtained from the participants that - on the condition of anonymity - their reports would be used as a basis for an academic study, possibly followed by a publication in a journal.

The other inspiration for the article was Clifford Simak’s classic, 1961 science fiction book titled ‘Time is the simplest thing’. An acclaimed American author, Simak explores in his work the phenomena of power, control, prejudice and society’s fear of alternative points of view, ideas and above-average abilities, veiled in a space and time travel metaphor. Simak’s protagonist finds the established, oppressive system impossible to deal with on his own, and having found precious few allies in his quest opts for an escape. It only felt appropriate to adopt the novel’s travestied title for an article that discusses a contrary, collective and determined intention - to confront the system in order to reform it - as reflected in the student reports.

**Methodology**

Three groups of students participated in the module (n=131), and at the time of the assignment were randomly divided into the total of 20 teams, between 6 and 9 members each (see Table 1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Team no</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
<th>10</th>
<th>11</th>
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<th>14</th>
<th>15</th>
<th>16</th>
<th>17</th>
<th>18</th>
<th>19</th>
<th>20</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of students (n=131)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
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<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Each team was free to choose a country, that would be subject of their subsequent discussion and report. As presented in Table 2, twelve teams chose Poland, four teams chose
Ukraine, and single teams chose Belarus, Cuba, the UK, and the USA as subject of their report.

Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No of teams</th>
<th>Country of choice</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Poland</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Ukraine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Belarus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Cuba</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>USA</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Specific wording of the question - the ‘what?’ and ‘why?’ components - was not only meant to elicit responses that would reflect knowledge obtained throughout the module but also to encourage realism, criticism and creativity in analysing the current situation in the chosen countries. Students were actively encouraged to focus on practical solutions - of which the responses received are a fair and thorough reflection, as will be elaborated in more detail in the Discussion section of this paper.

Criteria of assessment grading included evidence of team effort, depth of analysis, and quality of argument. Students were clearly informed that there were no incorrect responses, as long as the argumentation was logical and the proposed solutions realistic. Team-work was encouraged in the form of discussion and brainstorming, students were also allowed to use any reference material - on- or off-line - they would deem necessary. Students were given a time limit of 1hr30mins and a space limit of two A4 pages of handwritten text; the latter they found challenging but no team exceeded the limit. They had freedom of choice of where they would like to work - in or outside the classroom - in order to remove any formal constraints to efficient collaboration.

Subsequently, the reports were subject to textual analysis for patterns and keywords. The most commonly occurring themes have been listed in Table 3 in the Findings section, divided into two categories: problems, and solutions, and three thematic groups: education and individual development, work and politics, and tourism and recreation. Each of those categories inevitably slightly overlaps the two others, but majority of responses fit in well. Upon careful consideration it was decided to avoid splitting the results into ‘country’ categories in the face of notably little variation in response patterns between the Poland and Ukraine country teams (which itself would be worth further analysis, alas beyond the scope of this article), and the little number of other country groups.
Findings

Student reports varied in quality and content, depending on the team’s attitude and language ability. Nevertheless, every report provided a selection of key words and topics. All identifiable themes have been grouped and categorised in Table 3.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Problems</th>
<th>Solutions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Education and individual development</td>
<td>curriculum reform to include knowledge, skills and abilities necessary to keep up with the changing times, available from the earliest years at school; improved content of physical education classes; improved qualifications of school teachers; institutional reform to create student clubs and centres develop soft skills, to provide inspiration, support and direction in decision-making; promotion of Erasmus-type travel and exchange; programmes to limit talent leakage to more developed countries such as creation of volunteering opportunities and business incentives; organisation of non-profit social events, hobby centres, clubs and other facilities open to the public; promotion of ‘real’ forms of spending leisure time as opposed to ‘virtual’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work and politics</td>
<td>promotion of cooperation and entrepreneurial skills and ideas among young people; opening up pathways to a generational change in the echelons of power; higher minimum wage, shorter working week, higher wages on weekends; improved job security and satisfaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism and recreation</td>
<td>promotion of international travel and cultural exchange; incentives for the private sector to invest in the tourism and recreation market; improved leisure infrastructure, open-air gyms, cycle trails etc.; improved accessibility of libraries and other institutions of culture (e.g. museums) through government funding; proliferation of student discounts; community engagement schemes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Individual country groups reported several country-specific issues that have not been incorporated in the above table. Notably the political situation in Cuba and in Belarus does not seem replicable anywhere else, and the associated problems in leisure time use seem rather limited to those countries only.
Politics and politicians have been omnipresent in the reports, both as sources of problems, but also as vehicles of change and repositories of solutions. With no exception, students engaged with specific policy problems with vigour, and offered constructive critique.

Discussion

Leisure has been increasingly recognised as one of the major life functions (Bender et al. 1984, Sivan 2006). As such, leisure education programmes have become increasingly valued and promoted as part of curricula internationally (World Leisure Commission on Education 2000). In consequence, leisure education has been broadened to reach audiences beyond the initial focus on minorities with special needs (Sivan and Ruskin 1997), eventually to include new, major components that could be categorised as follows (Sivan 2006: 439):

- leisure appreciation
- self-awareness in leisure
- self-determination
- social interaction
- leisure resources
- decision making
- recreational skill development.

Several of those categories - notably social interaction, decision making, and self-determination - also fall within the interest of leisure policy. Public policy has been traditionally concerned, amongst others, with increased participation of individuals in the society - an activity perceived as a central element of citizenship, and also as a driver of social and economic development in general (Coalter 2006, Janoś-Kresło 2012). Bywalec (2012) highlights that leisure policy is no less important in this context, since an effective use of leisure time is one of fundamental factors of economic growth through consumption of goods and services. It is of particular importance at times of economic crises such as in Western and Central Europe in years 2008-10, and currently in Ukraine.

It could be argued that the notions of citizenship, community participation, social cohesion and socio-economic development all tend to converge around a phenomenon of social capital. The concept of social capital itself can be traced back to Durkheim’s theory of group life and Bourdieu’s network of relationships (Bourdieu 1986, Portes 1998); it rose to prominence across the social sciences in 1990s (Woolcock and Narayan 2000), and has since enjoyed much attention in economics, urban studies, leisure studies, heritage studies, and in particular in policy-oriented research (see for example Forrest and Kears 2001, Throsby 2001). Coulter (2006: 169) describes social capital as ‘various social and moral relations that bind communities together’, and adds that high levels of social capital are typically reflected
in developed social networks, stronger social norms and higher than average levels of mutual trust within a community. Communities with high levels of social capital are usually characterised by their ability to cooperate voluntarily, formally and informally, to spontaneously rally behind a cause or an idea, and to accept and facilitate knowledge exchange as a vehicle of growth and development (see also Attlee and Reed 2015). Governments are increasingly under pressure to create conditions that will assist in development of such defined social capital. One way of doing so is by facilitating social regeneration and community cohesion as strategic social outcomes of leisure policy (Coulter 2006: 171). More recently, leisure has joined the range of fields where the building of social capital has also been increasingly supported - alas with mixed results - by various applications of information and communication technologies (Matthews 2015).

The students’ perception of leisure time - as reflected in the analysed reports - and their awareness of the constraints and opportunities associated with leisure time use, is a striking example of what one could possibly expect of a community with a high level of social capital. Indeed, before the assessment students were given very little guidance that would direct their responses towards the notions of social inclusion, community cohesion, or participation, let alone the critique of any specific elements of public policy. In spite of that, responses received indicate that students’ interests are well founded in those areas.

Student reports show a serious preoccupation with issues that seem paramount to all student groups, with little variation between countries: unhealthy lifestyle choices, limited information and/or opportunities with regard to leisure time, sport and recreation, insufficient promotion of existing facilities, underfunded and poorly managed educational, leisure and cultural institutions. Nevertheless, students also highlight a general trend among young people to cooperate, to exchange information and knowledge, and to address the more pressing issues by engagement in various forms of the third-sector activities.

As it should be expected of young people in the 21st century, it hasn’t escaped the students’ attention that information and communication technologies (ICT) can - and indeed should - be employed to attain the goals they proposed in their reports. However, ICT clearly serves the role of a means to an end, but not of an end itself, which is an encouraging sign in the light of the recent criticism of the youth’s attachment to mobile technologies and social networks at the expense of real-life interactions. Indeed, many reports contained a balanced critique of the domination of the ‘virtual’ forms of spending leisure time and of building social relations, as opposed to the more traditional, ‘real’ ones.

The most striking observation, however, is the breadth of interests, the variety of topics, and the vivid awareness of the current political, social and economic situation in the chosen countries that students exhibit in their reports. Issues such as institutional barriers to international travel, or social policies in selected countries have been described in relative detail.
Conclusions

The discussed module assessment exercise seems to serve a dual role of an evaluation tool, and a social analysis tool. It does not only enable grading of students enrolled on the module, but it also paints an vivid picture of interests, values and needs of the participating students as a particular social group, perhaps also partially representative of the student community at large. The context of leisure time seems to effectively elicit serious statements that help to understand the positive and active disposition that the analysed group exhibits towards the concepts of self-development, healthy lifestyle, social cohesion, community involvement, and active citizenship. It is also remarkable - although not entirely unexpected - that the group is characterised by a higher than average level of social capital, and a clear willingness to raise it further.

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Czas nie jest najłatwiejszą rzeczą: refleksje na temat wypoczynku, kapitału społecznego i porządku publicznego

Streszczenie

Artykuł koncepcyjny oparto na doświadczeniach i materiale badawczym, zebranym w ramach zaliczenia wykładów, realizowanych w SGTiR (Grupa Uczelni Vistula) w roku akademickim 2014/2015 z udziałem krajowych i zagranicznych uczestników studiów drugiego stopnia w ramach przedmiotu „Konsumenci czasu wolnego jako wyzwanie dla turystyki i rekreacji”. Zgodnie z zaleceniami Rady ds. Edukacji World Leisure Association, wymieniony przedmiot stanowił interdyscyplinarne ujęcie tematyki czasu wolnego, obejmując szereg zagadnień od pedagogiki, przez ekonomię, po politykę.

Pisemne, grupowe raporty w odpowiedzi na pytanie „Co i dlaczego powinno się wydarzyć / zmienić w Twoim kraju, aby młodzi ludzie mogli bardziej efektywnie i konstruktywnie spędzać czas wolny?”, które stanowiły formę zaliczenia przedmiotu, kreślą obraz zainteresowań i trosk młodego człowieka na początku XXI wieku. Wypowiedzi studentów charakteryzuje uderzająco dogłębna i wielopłaszczyźnowa analiza sytuacji społecznej, politycznej i gospodarczej oraz determinacja i gotowość do podjęcia działań, zmierzających w kierunku zmiany status quo. Zaproponowane w badanych raportach rozwiązania wskazują na gotowość młodych ludzi do współpracy, pozytywny stosunek wobec wielu form zaangażowania na rzecz różnorodnie rozumianych społeczności, świadomość ograniczeń i możliwości, wynikających z porządku prawnego i politycznego w danym kraju. Zaobserwowana wrażliwość społeczna, świadomość polityczna, oraz wola osiągnięcia zmiany z korzyścią dla większości sugerują wyższy, niż przeciętnie, poziom akumulacji kapitału społecznego w opisywanej grupie społecznej.

Słowa kluczowe: czas wolny, kapitał społeczny, porządek publiczny.

Kody JEL: D12, H40, I31, J22, Z13

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Preferences of Russian Incentive Tourists in Finland

Summary/abstract

This research article is analyzing incentive travelling as a topic. Also it analyzes the current trends in intensive tourist flows from Russia to Finland. The purpose of the research was to find out the form of Russian outbound MICE tourism and the needs of Russian companies in Finnish incentive services. The report is based on various sources and numerous discussions with different parties over the last years. The study investigates if there is any demand from the Russian market for Finnish supply of MICE services. As a tool 2 individual interviews with the representatives of Russian and Finnish MICE service providers and purchasers were used. The results show what kind of needs Russian companies have in Finnish supply of MICE services. The work also gives recommendations on how to work with Russian incentive travelling market using a holiday resort Järvisydän, which is situated on lake Saimaa South Savo region of Finland as an example. Moreover, the research revealed important aspects in MICE tourism development in Russia such as the influence of the economic crisis and a young age of MICE tourism in Russia.

Key words: incentive tourists, MICE tourism, preferences, Finland, Russia, inbound tourism.

JEL codes: J33, Z31, Z33

Introduction

Tourism is very important for Finnish national economy. According to the latest statistics (Visit Finland, 2014) tourism and travel industry provides 5,1% to the whole GDP in Finland and the influence of this sector is expecting to grow till 2024 up to 7,7%.

In 2013, the value added generated by tourism amounted to €4.3 bn, i.e. 2.5% of Finland’s GDP. This was larger than the food industry and almost twice as high as agriculture. In 2013, a total of €14.4 billion was spent on tourism in Finland. This includes the consumption expenditure of Finnish and foreign tourists. Foreign travellers accounted for 31% (EUR4.4bn) of total tourism consumption.

According to Visit Finland Visitor Survey (2015) Finland received 7.6 million foreign visitors in 2014 which brought €2.5 billion. Russians topped the list of foreign tourists visiting Finland with 1,3 million people. But after the collapse of the Russian rouble and the Ukraine crisis the number of Russian tourists visiting Finland has significantly dropped. According to Asikainen (Asikainen, 2015) the overall fall in the number of Russian tourists...
was as high as 50%, several popular border towns reported a 70% drop in Russian tourists over the Christmas and New Year holidays compared to previous years. A ski resort near the border with Russia reported an 80% drop in Russian visitors.

No doubt that leisure tourism is forming quite big in number of Russian trips to Finland. But business MICE (Meetings, Incentives, Conventions and Exhibitions) tourism could bring much bigger financial benefits to the accepting country (The business travel, 2011). Finland can have a fair share of growing touristic Russian potential and of MICE tourism as well. Regarding the destination for international meetings Finland was ranked as 22 out of 104 in 2013 (ICCA, 2014.).

The commissioner of this research is Järvisydän – a hotel and SPA resort on the Saimaa lake in South Savo region of Finland. This holiday center is well known in Finland since it was founded in 1658 and is a member of the Saimaa holiday club. In summer 2015, they opened a new hotel right next to the main building and later in 2015 the SPA center will host its guests (Järvisydän, 2015). This research was made in winter 2014-2015 before those renovations. This holiday center wanted to diversify into a new market of incentive tourism. Therefore the purpose of this research article is to analyze what Russian incentive tourists would prefer when choosing Finland as a MICE destination.

**Why Incentive Tourism?**

The industry of MICE tourism is a complex and diverse one. This sector is associated with planning, travel and participation in different kinds of programmes and events. The incentive travel is a kind of agreement between a company and its employees and/or customers. The wording of the agreement may be the following: “You do this for us, and we will reward you in a way you will never forget”. The sector of MICE also includes a leisure tourism part, which is added to the main business programme. And this contributes highly to the development of the destination and brings benefits to it. (Buhalis, 2009). MICE tourism usually consists of a well-planned agenda centered on a particular theme, such as a hobby, a profession, or an educational topic. The majority of traditional incentive trips imply a group of people for whom an activity and entertainment programme is tailored.

Most components of MICE are well understood, perhaps with the exception of Incentives. Incentive tourism is usually undertaken as a type of employee reward by a company or institution for targets met or exceeded, or a job well done. Unlike the other types of MICE tourism, Incentive tourism is usually conducted purely for entertainment, rather than professional or educational purposes.

As far as 2014 has been a good year for incentive travel, the outlook for future is very positive, due to increasing popularity of business travel and recovering of the global economy (Eurostat, 2014.). According to Kevin M. Hinton (2014) who is the president of SITE
(society for incentive travel excellence) after the global economic downturn companies started to renew their interest towards incentive programmes. Moreover, several researches show that incentive travel is a good tool for companies which are willing to reach the highest targets and revenues, motivating their employees. Incentive travel is a business-related travel tailor-made for members of the company in order to motivate and inspire them and help to become more successful in business (Kelly D, 2014).

Different categories of MICE tourism can merge into one another. Thus, for instance a meeting can be added to an exhibition and an incentive programme can be joined to a conference. And by doing this MICE tourism generates much higher volumes of visitors and finance occupied than in any form of leisure tourism.

Incentive travel is that discipline of sales and marketing and management, which uses promise, fulfillment and memory of an exceptional travel related experience to motivate participating individuals to attain exceptional levels of achievement in their place of work or education (Fischer 2005, 138).

One more advantage of the incentive travel for the rewarded is better understanding from their partners and family of extra time and effort they had to invest in order to be rewarded. When they take their family members on a holiday with them, the family will tolerate extra working hours more.

In every person, there are 4 types of the motivation to travel (according to McIntosh, 1984), and the incentive travel can cover all of them:

- Physical motivation (rest, health, sport, etc.)
- Cultural motivation (desire to get to know and experience other cultures)
- Interpersonal motivation (meeting and connecting with other people)
- Status and prestige motivation

Incentive travel is “a global management tool that uses an exceptional travel experience to motivate and /or recognize participants for increased levels of performance in support of organizational goals” (Davidson & Cope, 2003, 158). As far as incentive tourism is considered to be a part of an employee motivation, we could suspect that non-cash rewards are more valuable than just an average cash reward (Watson 2012). The incentive travel impacts those employees who have not been among the rewarded as well. When rewarded colleagues return from their trips excited and with fascinating descriptions of events and the complete experience, other colleagues will be stimulated to work harder in order to be rewarded next time.

Everybody has the need to be respected and to belong. People feel calm, safe and satisfied when they feel wanted and important. To be rewarded a trip for your effort invested and results achieved, creates certain pride and the feeling of victory and success in the rewarded. Social status is improved, not only because he/she is recognized as a top salesperson, but because he/she is one of a few to be able to experience this special reward.
Incentive Travel in Finland

There has been a relatively small amount of research about Incentive Travel in Finland. Since the foundation of the Finnish Tourist Board in 1973, it was the aim to collect tourism related data to develop the inbound travel, however the majority of stored data was of the summer season, mainly defined as recreational- and fitness-, as well as congress- and incentive- travel.

The national marketing strategy for the foreign market till 2020 includes the reference of incoming agencies and congress travel. This market area was seen as a growing part of incoming business travel, which meant an operational incoming activity and know-how in marketing and selling of travel services.

Recently most foreign groups came from Germany and Spain. Most of the individual visitors came from France, Germany and Russia. 59% of the incentive travel task came through foreign agencies. Almost 80% of incentive groups consisted of less than 50 persons and only 3% of groups had more than 200 persons. The most popular destinations in Finland were the regions of Lapland, followed by Pirkanmaa, Eastern Finland and South Karelia. (Finnish Tourist Board, 2014).

Most international corporate events still came from Germany, Russia and Spain. In terms of numbers of participants, the main countries of origin were Spain, France and Germany. The majority of events, 71 percent, involved less than 50 people, and their main destinations in Finland were Eastern Finland - 48% and Lapland - 33%. The most popular season for events was January-March. The total value of the economic impact of international corporate events was thus 125.1 million euros, of which incentive groups accounted for 32.7 million. Among the incentive groups 36% included a meeting or training event. The average duration of all corporate events was 3.2 nights and of just incentive programmes 2.8 nights. The average price of programme packages per person and per day, excluding incentive groups, was 198 euros. The corresponding average price for incentive programme packages was 332 euros (Finnish Tourist Board, 2014).

Russian Incentive Travelling

Russia is the country where tourism is actively developing now. MICE and business tourism are quite new forms of tourism in Russia. Vadim Zelenski from Business Travel Agencies Association (BTAA) in his interview to “Russian Business-Newspaper” (2010) has told that MICE tourism in Russia is very young comparing to Western European countries where such form of tourism has already existed for 40-50 years.

Incentive tourism is quite unpopular in Russia now. Russian companies prefer to travel for MICE purposes abroad rather than using domestic market services. Financial crisis
also affects already a small amount of incentive trips. If few years ago companies could afford a big celebration abroad, now this is one of the first issues where they cut the expenses down. Due to financial circumstances such trips have been reduced by 60%. (BTAA, 2009).

There are numerous destinations with rich cultural and historical heritage, intact landscapes, top selection of food and drink and friendly people. However, each destination in the world is unique in its history, people and happenings.

Regarding Finland as a destination for incentive tourists there is a tiny obstacle. The price average in Finland is rather high in comparison with other European countries. According to Eurostat statistics report (2014) Finland ranked as the fifth most expensive county in EU, regarding services and consumer goods. In addition, Finland is a not very well-known country amongst others, due to lack of appropriate marketing. Nevertheless, Finland has remarkable nature and unique atmosphere combining with customer-oriented high services, constant innovations and modifications of offered services, thus we could suggest that using good marketing it could become a popular European destination for Russian incentive travelers.

Most of the Russian tourists, willing to enjoy Finnish nature and lake Saimaa, are driving through the South Savo, which increases the chance for more visitors in the region. This passive impact of growing incoming tourism might be another method of promotion for the region. The awareness level of the region grows and increases possibilities to be recognized as an incentive travel destination on the Russian market.

South Savo as an Incentive Travel Destination

South Savo is an easily accessible and linked region, which offers and develops its high quality tourism products and events, all year long. Their products and services are adequate for individual-, group-, and corporate travellers. Incoming tourism has grown to one of the most important industries in the region. The variety of cultural attractions and tourism related services in the archipelago are the cornerstones of the region’s tourism, which are also permanently developed. The focus of the regions business strategy is to support the development of tourism related business operations and strengthen the independence, competence, investment skills, as well as the responsibility for further actions in the development of the region’s private and public sector.

Järvisydän, a hotel and SPA resort on the Saimaa lake is situated in the South Savo region of Finland. It is situated in a distance of only half an hour by car way from the town of Savonlinna, one of the most popular destinations for holiday in Finland. (Savonlinna Ltd, 2015.) The region suggests its guests a huge variety of outdoor activities, starting from a beach holiday to the world famous Opera Festival and high - class concerts and perfor-
It is an interesting fact that these opera festivals take place on the ground of the medieval Olavinlinna Castle, (Savonlinna Ltd, 2015.)

The holiday resort suggests a variety of accommodation types from an ordinary room to exceptional villa with a suite. They have 8 hillside villas with a wonderful view over the lake for 10 guests in double rooms. Additionally, there are three log cottages, which have a beautiful view over a birch grove and the lake. Moreover, there are also 2 lakeside villas, which are situated on the same shore next to each other, with a distance between each other of about 50 meters. The distance to the other cottages and other services of the Holiday Resort is about 300 metres. Lakeside Villas have their own beach, small pier, Jacuzzi and 2 saunas, one is an electric inside sauna and another is an outdoor lakeshore wood stove sauna, which opens only for summer time. In addition the resort is ready to offer its guest 3 private cottages nearby the Saimaa Lake which are only 1km from Järvisydän. The two of them are ready to host up to six guests while the third one provides a fine holiday for ten customers. (Järvisydän, 2015)

There are two different restaurants. First one is the medieval restaurant Piikätyttö at the holiday resort Järvisydän, which offers unique issues for dining and different in the medieval atmosphere. There is a room for 150 guests to come and be served by hospitable people of Järvisydän – the main hall seats 120 persons and the smaller room 30 persons. In this restaurant guests can enjoy healthy breakfasts, appealing lunches and delicious dinners. Certainly, the ambience here play very important role and makes this place attractive and unique for many people. Moreover, this restaurant, also offers its guests buffet choices with a rich choice of various meals. The second restaurant, Tepee, is situated in the midst spruce forest, not far away from the cottages of the holiday resort. The restaurant is well suited for groups of 50 people. Restaurant works only by arrangement and it offers open fire dishes made by a chief in front of them. (Järvisydän, 2015)

There is one more remarkable place where guests of the holiday resort can try something special, is The Wine Hall with the biggest wine cellar in the area. It is situated in connection with the medieval restaurant Piikatyttö. It was built right in the natural rock and offers new premises for festive occasions and dining. It can host about 200 persons, (Järvisydän, 2015)

And additionally, the national parks and protected nature reserves of Lake Saimaa make tranquil, wild and watery destinations for experienced and novice paddlers alike. They also are home to one of the world’s most endangered sea mammals, the Saimaa Ringed Seal. Travelling along the fjords of Kolovesi National Park either in a kayak or canoe will lead a guest to the Linnansaari National Park with excellent opportunities for kayaking and camping on small islands. A lot of activities - fishing safaris, canoeing trips, lake safaris, Saimaa ringed seal watching trips to the Linnansaari National Park, cycling, hiking, rowing boats, different winter activities could be suggested to an incentive tourist.
Research Results and Discussion

We must start with a few words we would like to say about Russians as incentive tourists. Some information might be outdated and certain assumptions can be made, about the expected way how Russian customers might act and behave. We did those conclusions using Geert Hofstede’s theory on cultural dimensions. (Dimensions of national culture, 2012.)

The Russian business society is not highly democratic; workers and management do not share a canteen, car parks and washrooms. Russia is ranking 93 points from 100 in power distance dimension. This point is showing a very huge distance in between management and ordinary workers. So, representatives from both level groups must be divided.

Regarding uncertainly avoidance and indulgence scales, Russian respondents show 95 points and 20 points of 100. It means that Russians prefer risk-taking and adventure types of vacation rather than a peaceful type of vacation. For many Russians it is very important to have any exotic happenings during the vacation because they could tell about them to their friends and colleagues. So, if suggesting Finland it is needed to have any specialties included.

The working day is rather long and even business meetings may continue in sauna or during the dinner together with people with whom they started early in the day. Regarding incentive tourism, it can be said, that Russians are a high demanding customer group when participating in incentive elements like meetings, conferences or team-building activities. Russians will not doubt the effectiveness of a conference, in case of unusual and exceptional locations with any extraordinary activities which match the usual standards. The best choice for after-work activities for Russians might be an overnight stay in a group tent or any other activity, where they might feel comfortable with their friends and colleagues. Comfort is very important for Russian incentive customers. They would prefer hotels and resorts 4* - 5*, they should impress the consumers in the best way.

Generally, the largest buyers of incentive programmes come from the automotive industry, financial services, pharmaceutical industry, office equipment industry, electronics, telecommunications, food processing and tobacco industry, etc.

We performed interviews with the representative of Järvisydän holiday resort and the Russian company Aeroclub which is considered to be a Russian leader in corporate travelling. Aeroclub is the representative of the global travel management company BCD in Russia. (Aeroclub, 2015). In Finland we had met the person who is in charge of Russian sales. In Russia the interview was conducted with the head of the department of Russian corporate events and incentive programmes. We discussed with them possible group and the trip (size of the group, duration and intention of the trip, expectations, amount of money used, etc.)

Annually Järvisydän accepts about 20% of Russian customers. Mostly they are coming with leisure purposes from Moscow and Saint-Petersburg. Those cities are in preference
because of easy accessibility. There are train and plain connection existing, also attractive since the motorway E-5 leads directly to the Russian metropolis Saint Petersburg. Scheduled busses of local and private bus-companies, as well as Finland’s most known bus-company Savonlinja, go daily from Saint-Petersburg to Savonlinna.

An interesting fact both companies never heard about each other. Even though, both are working on the Finnish Russian travel market for many years. Before the meeting photos and web link were sent to the interviewees. Both companies expressed their readiness for co-operation.

Talking about preferable destinations among Russian customers, Aeroclub pointed out that Hong Kong, Singapore, Shanghai, Dubai and Seoul were the top countries for Russian MICE travelers in 2014. Many corporate travel companies choose India, Thailand and Vietnam because of low prices and high quality of service. All these choice of destinations could prove that Russians prefer exotic countries. On the other hand, many of tourists mentioned a very long flight – about 7 hours or longer. Here Finland could win the game – the trip could take only about 4-5 hours by car. One more way of transportation is traveling from St. Petersburg to Järvisydän by a water route. Furthermore, cruise is a very nice way to start a trip because such way of transportation has a few romantic points which always well for tourists who need to change the atmosphere of their lives.

As for the duration of incentive trips, mainly they last four days and three nights. Commonly the trip begins on Thursdays with the average number of tourists from 30 to 50 persons. It is possible to take a family member for the trip if the person is paying himself for services. All seasons are suitable for incentive trips except summer.

Regarding the type of incentive programmes, the majority of Russian clients are likely to purchase all-inclusive options, so their employees shall not spend any additional money either for entertainment activities or for food and accommodation. The average money spent by a company per person is 200-400 EUR per day.

The second interview was devoted to analyze what the holiday resort could suggest for an incentive group. We described accommodation and restaurant facilities of the holiday resort and could suspect that a group of 30-50 persons could be easily served in Järvisydän. Easy access to the destination is already described. The only point that we wanted to discuss is what kind of activities are suggested in the area. They organize different kinds of competitions, such as fishing, hunting, shooting and so on. Also, regarding group activities, they offer the biggest variety of entertainment in the whole region, started from hiking to safaris and paddling. Also natural and cultural attractions that are situated in near distance could be used for incentive programs as well. If the amount of outdoor activities is growing in the region, the demand for those services might grow as well and thereby, the need for other services like food and accommodation will also experience a growth.
Conclusion

We believe that incentive kind of quality tourism has the highest potential in Finland, compared to mass tourism products. We recognized that Finnish hospitality companies understand the difference between regular products and incentive products, and are ready to offer the Russian customers certain upgrades, which they regularly suggest to their ordinary target group, which is formed by Finnish business travellers, as well as cruise guests arriving from Helsinki.

We found out that Järvisydän, a holiday resort in South Savo, would be interested in an example incentive programme that they might be able to use for their Russian customers. According to that research, most of the customer groups are under 50 people and they are mostly staying three nights and four days. The travelling time is from September to May, but most groups come in September, January or May. Furthermore, it must be an activity-based incentive trip focusing on team-work as well as individual skills and well-being.

We also could assume that the Russian customer group coming to Finland will consist of employees of a Russian company operating abroad, and therefore, a meeting with colleagues could be included in the programme. The main reason for this is that international employers will get the chance to talk to their employees about work related things.

The potential place for incentive group should be unique and impressive, as well as, has an acceptable price. The Russian company is ready to spend about 200-400 EUR per person per day. Considering services provided by a suitable destination, they should include various outdoors activities, such kayaking, hiking, fishing and so on. The main demand of corporate clients is exceptionality of an activity which brings a lot of joy and satisfaction to the consumers.

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The Market for Travel Agencies in Europe

Summary

An aim of the article is to present the situation in the European market for travel agencies. In his article, the author made use of the contents of published and non-published source texts. An analysis of the texts leads to conclusions on the ongoing processes of concentration and globalisation in the market for travel agencies. This phenomenon also comprises the sector of online tourist agencies.

The growing competition of large groups of tour operators in Europe forces smaller companies to search market niches and actions aimed at gaining small but stable groups of clients. At the same time, in the last fifteen years the tourist market has seen fluctuations of the value of its products in line with the general economic situation worldwide.

Article category: research article.

Key words: tourist market, travel agencies, tourism economics.

JEL codes: J22, Z31

The present tour operator market is characterised by high and systematically growing costs of new firms’ entrance into the market for mass tourism. There are several reasons. The most important include the introduction of new state’s regulations, inter alia, the new, more restrictive directive of the European Union on organised trips or the introduction of mandatory insurance against civil responsibility in the United States. Experts assess that there is also growing the financial risk of medium-sized tour operators. Not having their own charter lines or own sales network, they are exposed to bankruptcy in the period of significant drop of demand.

In Europe, the tour operator market is characterised by the development of large tour operator groups (TUI, Thomas Cook) which have developed activities in many European markets. The biggest tour operator firms have their residence in Germany and the United Kingdom, what issues from the size of the outbound tourism markets in these countries as well as demand for rest foreign tourism. The typical phenomena observed in Europe in the recent years include the ongoing concentration of major tour operators.

The growing competition of large tour operator groups forced minor firms to look for market niches.

The processes of concentration and globalisation are also observed in the sector of online tourist agencies. Concentration and globalisation take place around the four biggest...
American online travel agencies: Expedia, Travelocity and Travelport/Orbitz, and Priceline. Due to the cultural and linguistic barriers, the processes of concentration occur in Europe a little bit slower than in the United States, and the launch of local services kept in the local language and local call centres is costly.

Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ranking</th>
<th>Company’s name</th>
<th>Country of incorporation</th>
<th>Sales in billion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>TUI Travel</td>
<td>Germany/UK</td>
<td>18.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Thomas Cook AG</td>
<td>Germany/UK</td>
<td>11.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Kuoni</td>
<td>Switzerland</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>DER Touristik</td>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>4.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Costa (cruises)</td>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>FTI</td>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Alltours</td>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Club Med</td>
<td>France</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Alpitour</td>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>1.0</td>
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Source: fvw, 3 March 2014

Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Market share</th>
<th>Owner</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Expedia</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>Expedia, Inc. (IAC)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lastminute.com</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>Sabre (Travelocity)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opodo</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>Amadeus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ebookers</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>Travelport (Orbitz)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Priceline Europe</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>Priceline</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: like in Table 1.

The European travel industry represents one of greater and dynamically developing markets, though it was exposed to turbulences in the global market that took place in 2001-2003, then in 2009-2010. In 2008, the travel market noted its apogee. The market’s value was then evaluated for 260 billion euros. In the next, 2009 year, there was noted the drop in value by approx. 10%, while in the subsequent, 2010 year, by more than 3%. Only the next three years brought a repeated slight growth of the sales value.
Figure 1
The European travel industry. Market volume in billions euros


Figure 2
Way of organisation of leave and holiday trips in 2013

Source: Flash Eurobarometer 392, European Commission
It is worthwhile to mind that, according to PhoCusWright Inc., the constant trends in the tourist market include the growth of the share of online sales. This share grew from 31% in 2009 to 41% in 2013. There also definitely grew the share of online tourist agencies (OTA) from 11% in 2009 to 16% in 2013.

According to the surveys carried out by TNS Political & Social commissioned by the European Commission Enterprise and Industry Directorate-General in 2013 among citizens of all the countries of the European Union, trips with minimum one overnight stay were completed by 70%, and in leave and holiday trips (lasting minimum 4 nights) by 59% of adult inhabitants of the European Union countries.

How did the European Union countries’ inhabitants organise their leave and holiday trips? Directly through the visit in the travel agency there organised their trips 18% of the European Union countries’ citizens.

It is worthwhile to mind that among the purposes of leave and vacation trips as much as 34% of respondents mentioned visits to relatives or acquaintances.

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Streszczenie

Celem artykułu jest przedstawienie sytuacji na europejskim rynku biur podróży. W artykule wykorzystano treści zawarte w publikowanych i niepublikowanych tekstach źródłowych. Analiza tekstów prowadzi do wniosków o postępujących procesach koncentracji i globalizacji na rynku biur podróży. Zjawisko to obejmuje również sektorze internetowych biur turystycznych.

Rosnąca w Europie konkurencja wielkich grup touroperatorskich zmusza mniejsze firmy do szukania nisz rynkowych i działania na rzecz pozyskiwania niewielkich, lecz stałych grup klientów. Jednocześnie, w ostatnich piętnastu latach obserwuje się wahania wartości rynku turystycznego zgodne z ogólną koniunkturą gospodarczą.

Słowa kluczowe: rynek turystyczny, biura podróży, ekonomika turystyki.

Kody JEL: J22, Z31

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Cultural policy principles on the examples of France, Great Britain, Germany, the United States of America, and Poland – a general system analysis

Streszczenie

In the text, there are described in a general form the principles of conducting the cultural policy both in some European countries and in the United States of America. The democratic states, in order to implement the assumptions of the cultural policy, establish cultural institutions and set forth the laws regulating activities of cultural institutions determining their culturally active mission. The organisation, management as well as financing the cultural institutions issues directly from the political and constitutional systems of individual countries. Culture is one of important commitments of the state related to its citizens. The so-called higher-level cultural needs of societies are permanently introduced not only into the Constitutions, national laws but also in local legal acts concerning small communities. In Europe and in the United States of America, the functioning of artistic institutions and institutions popularising and promoting cultural events is based on various, distinct systems and structures of the public administration - cultural institutions running by private persons are functioning in a different way. In France, the most centralised public administration on the continent, assumptions of the cultural policy are formulated at the governmental level and the cultural active institutions are subsidises both by governmental and local administrative structures. The Great Britain’s cultural policy is characterised by variability which stems directly from the economic programmes of the ruling parties. Financing of cultural events takes place on the arm’s length principle. In Germany, this is the Constitution which points out to the state’s duty to support culturally active activities (in some Lands, culture is one of the most important tasks of the public administration related to citizens). The United States of America is a real cultural melting pot. Though Americans divide the sphere of culture into the commercial culture and high-level arts, nevertheless US metropoles have the largest, prestigious across the world galleries, symphonic orchestras and the best-known in the world opera scene is the New York Metropolitan Opera. In Poland, the state provides creators and animators of culture with a full freedom. Cultural institutions are functioning on the grounds of the Act on Organising and Conducting Cultural Activity of 25 October 1991. This legal act defines the state’s cultural policy, the principles of state patronage and that of local self-governments, treating their public tasks in the field of culture as mandatory. The Act also contains the rules of financing cultural events carried out by private entities.

Key words: cultural policy, economics and culture, high culture, commercialization.

JEL codes: Z1

Since the dawn of history, culture has been a part of the human life. It can simply be assumed the veracity of statement that what we call culture (in a broad sense: cognitive, aware-
ness-related, spiritual – including religious, aesthetic, mental – also philosophical, and social) is a set of phenomena and notions distinguishing our species from among other species and qualifying it to that specific and binding status called the Humanity. For ages the elites of humanity – of power and spirit – kings and princes, high priests had kept close to them artists of all arts, sages, and thinkers, theatre groups, music bands and musicians, who many a time were not only virtuoso instrumentalists but also composers, and their works have remained till now. Rich principals (also hierarchs of the Church) used to pay for construction of palaces, gardens, and shrines, ordered from artists literary works, musical works, pictures, and sculptures. Recipients of culture were they themselves and persons befriended with them (elite). People from other social strata could only be able when working or going to the church to receive the privilege of contact and communion with beauty; they had to suffice with their own, amateur works. With the social transformations, accessibility of culture was becoming the increasingly common good. Contemporarily, cultural heritage governance, providing the culture creators and recipients with opportunities means the cultural policy.

The cultural policy of the contemporary democratic states stems from the prevailing in a given country from the system-founding as well as legal and administrative rules. The organisation, governance and financing of cultural institutions are determined by diverse legal acts setting forth the state’s political system’s rules. By the policy we understand the art of state governance also in the activity concerning the community. In modern Europe, there exist different political and legal systems. The most important is the state system, but along with systems changes there is also changing the nature and principles of the public administration. Contemporarily, administration in European democratic states should organise its activities for the common good and they should acquire various forms. Besides the traditional commanding activities of the public administration, nowadays there has appeared its function of providing. The German doctrine of social rule of law had greatly influenced the change of activity, status, and tasks of the European modern public administration. There had grown the role of the welfare state and the assumptions related thereto had assigned a specific role to the administration. Today, the return to the liberal concepts of the state and its administration has caused limitation of this role in the social life; however, the scope of the so-called providing administration has been broadened. Environmental protection, development of spatial order, education, and culture are also contemporarily important administrative tasks. There have also changed the proportions determining the legal direction of administration’s activities, while the administration itself, not only the governmental, but also local one, has started to set forth the law for itself. Of an enormous share in the formation of the public administration is the international and EU law. The ratified international agreements, regulations, and directives enforce the new law, while the related to local self-governments administrative law of the European countries must comply with the European Charter of Local Self-Government. There have also been shaped various systems of the public administration. The Anglosphere, French, German, central European models are different
in their structures systems which will hardly be merged in a single community’s system. Besides the common European standards, there exist differently organised principles of action of individual administrative models, not only historically determined. The organisation of states and activities of their administrative apparatus are also affected by political and legal doctrines (Leoński 2001 p. 31-34).

States, approaching the social needs, implement various visions and objectives of the cultural policy – through building institutions of culture and setting forth the rules of their functioning. Although rulers have often enough different view of the organisation and financing of cultural activity, nevertheless one may assume that culture also for them is one of major obligations of the state in relation to the citizen. Culture originates from the nation’s identity and human personality, it concerns their so-called higher needs and is a permanent element of the life of societies. The accompanying for years politicians in the democratic systems question of “how much of the state in the state” also concerns the organisation of cultural life of citizens in a broad sense. Contemporarily, managing the so delicate matter, which is culture and financing thereof, should be based on unconventional, uncommon, unprecedented, and responsible thinking of it by patrons thereof. It should also force the rulers to make the state participate in its organisation. In Europe and in the USA, the diversity of the systems of organisation of the public administration directly affects governance and activity of public institutions of culture in a given state. There also differently function cultural establishments being the responsibility of private persons.

The most centralised public administration is in France. The idea of state governance has practically not changed since the epoch of absolutism. The set up by Louis XIV, based on strong tradition system has survived till the year 1982. Though today the executive power in the hands of President and Government, and it is the Prime Minister as the chief of the government directs the country’s administration – “he is jolly smart who will say the Prime Minister’s name”. The trials with reforms in the 1980s provided a hope for a certain freedom of organisation also in the field of managing local institutions of culture. Despite the strong decentralisation trends and attempts to introduce systems and legal changes and to transform the structure in the public administration, still in the area related to culture whatever assumptions of local cultural initiatives must be convergent with the cultural policy of the state. The Ministry of National Education and Culture administratively comprises all the domains of cultural life.

The French Constitution of 27 October 1946 in its preamble guarantees the nation entertainment and equal access to cultural goods (www.lib.sejm.gov.pl of 16.01.2015). A consequence of that wording was the establishment in the 1970s of the National Development Plan. In the French model of the cultural policy, that body played an important role in governance and organisation of cultural institutions. Its most important competencies included the distribution of tasks for the government and self-governments in the field of culture. Within the last 50 years, the Ministry of Culture in France expanded the range of types of art
and culture. The previous division into elite culture and mass culture has been discharged. Its function has also principally changed. The common access to art and to cultural projects previously served democratisation and sensitiveness to the socially crucial matters. In the new look, the message of culture had to build agreement between people through their joint participation in reception thereof. The project’s main assumption was to build bridges between the varieties of cultures issuing from the national identities. The notion and term ‘culture’ in its singular form was replaced by the notion and term in its plural form, ‘cultures’. It was aimed not only at the egalitarisation in the area of cooperation of creators of individual national cultures, but also their mutual approximation, apprehension, and diffusion. Culture had to reach all. Decisions on the issue of budget funds on cultural projects, preservation of relics as well as the means on popularisation of activities carried out by culture animators are made by the Minister of Culture together with the Minister of Finance. However, in result of the increasingly dominant social demanding attitudes, public sources for culture subsidising were reducing from year to year. Gradually the organisation of cultural projects involved (this takes also place in other European countries) enterprises and private individuals. That sponsorship supported not all artistic initiatives. Sponsors focused mostly on subsidising music projects, the fine arts, and museology. Since the 1980s cultural activities in certain sectors may be implemented only in cooperation of the government and the self-government. This limitation concerns the permanent subsidising of archives, care of libraries, museums, and art schools. Besides that, the joint patronage of the government and self-government comprises music associations, dance and choreography schools, theatre national stages, the main art galleries, regional opera houses and symphonic orchestras, the agencies dealing with cultural heritage protection and readership. One may notice that the terms and conditions for such cooperation are implemented by way of contracts between the government and self-governments as well as the contracts (commissioned tasks) carried out by the governmental administration for self-governments in Poland. There are also implemented one-time projects which are destined for local communities. The standard is seven-year agreements between the government and the self-government as well as urban contracts concerning the development of cultural institutions. One needs to note that those contracts are focused on one-off projects and often enough they serve the promotion of particular local authorities. The cultural policy of France relies mainly on carrying out the cultural activity indicated in the directives of the Ministry of Culture. Albeit the regions have certain autonomy, nevertheless it happens that the projects related to cultural activities submitted by self-governments often enough are denied by the Ministry of Culture of financial support. However, it is proper to pay attention to the important role in implementing projects in the sphere of culture played by the Regional Funds for Modern Art, by way of their inclusion in non-profit cultural undertakings. At present, in the cultural policy of France, there is continuously growing the role of local authorities of the state power. Financing of cultural projects, pursuant to the assumption of the French cultural policy, is mainly based on actions
of the Regional Directorates. Although the Directorates were established in 1969, only in the 1970s there were determined the principles of their functioning. In practice, the Regional Directorates for culture are the state’s offices which have been continually working out new techniques and tools serving monitoring activities of cultural self-governmental institutions. Their activity is not limited to the programme sphere. These bodies help the local culture institutions in acquiring not only public but also private funds. The popular form if financing culture in France was in the 1980s the so-called cross-financing. It consisted in a transfer of funds ultimately by two shareholders to another, the third beneficiary which might be both the municipality and the cultural institution. However, it appeared that the functioning of that financial construction entailed drawbacks leading to dispersion of organisers’ competencies of the programme participants and to diminishing their responsibility for specific cultural projects. With the strong decentralist tendencies, there originated the regional cultural policy. In result of those changes, the cultural activity won for good an important place in local communities (Gierat-Bieroń, Kowalski ed. 2005, p. 87-107).

The French state, through its bodies such as the Ministry of National Education and Culture, not only coordinates the projects and programmes originated in local self-governments, but through its specialist boards at the regional level controls their fulfilment also in financial terms. The ministerial administration directly controls the most important in France cultural institutions: the two best known in the world museums: Louvre and d’Orsay, the National Library, the Palais Garnier (the Paris Opera), the National School of Dramatic Arts, the Industrial Design High School. The state’s direct care comprised also five theatres which acquired the status of National Theatres. There are also permanently connected with the set up by the Ministry board Centre national d’Art et de la Culture Georges Pompidou (the Pompidou Centre) and the Cultural Intervention Fund. The systems reforms in the 1980s were not, however, sufficient and they did not provide chances for a full independence of local cultural and artistic activities. The elective representatives of local communities in implementation of cultural projects must apply the imposed by the governmental administration instruments concerning those projects, while the ways of construction of institutional systems and the principles of spread over years subsidising of cultural activity do not foster freedom in art and culture. As a consequence of such significant presence of the state, the regional cultural initiatives are subjected to permanent control by the government administration not only in terms of project financing but also their form of message and the content of the message (Harasimowicz, Wódke 1996, p. 25-26).

In England, the foundations for activity of the modern administration were the formed in the 17th and 18th centuries principles of organisation of the classical public administration, developed and supplemented over next ages till now. The administration had to act within the law, and the nature of that legal framework was binding not only for the citizen but also administrative bodies. In England, after the bourgeois revolution, the position of the legislative body greatly strengthened; the territorial self-government developed, too. At the end
of the 19th century, there were formed in England the central departmental structures, and the self-governmental administration had a wide, based on self-reliance, scope of activity. Self-governments enacted laws and they were not subject to centralisation, so till now the organisational form of governmental administration remains different from the administrative structures of most states in Europe (Malec, Malec 2001, p. 16-39, 45-48, 139-140).

The most important constitutional feature in Great Britain is the lack of a written, formalised constitution in the continental meaning. Although Great Britain is a unitary state, legal and administrative systems are diversified and there is no continental division to the public and private law, nevertheless there have been worked out the procedures concerning proceedings of the public, administrative law that have affected the shape of institutions of the executive power and the British public administration. The philosophy of organisation of work of the administration in Great Britain relies mainly on the individual state responsibility and on the chiefs of executive agencies. Those agencies are directly subject to ministers, while the decentralised, independent self-governmental administration substitutes the state in many domains. The upturn is the delegation of tasks by way of tenders to private entities, associations and NGOs, and the guiding motto in the administration’s activity may be: “the administration is steering, not rowing”. In Great Britain, the system of financing cultural activities, therefore, relies primarily on the free market principles.

“God forbid the government that mixes art” - those famous words were uttered in 1835 by one of Great Britain’s Prime Ministers, Lord William Melbourne. Already then, in Great Britain (otherwise than on the continent), the idea of the state arts sponsorship was unfamiliar to the rulers. The place of culture crystallised only in the times of early capitalism. There emerged a free market for cultural projects. The attempts of the institutional state’s care of culture were born in 1898, when the House of Commons passed a bill on the bringing into being and financing by state’s resources public libraries and museums. For many years in Great Britain there were clashing diverse attitudes towards the systems supporting cultural institutions. In the 1920s and 1930s, a consequence of the state’s censorship measures was interference in the activities carried out by culture creators in a broad sense. There were controlled contents of plays and film productions, while works of Henrik Ibsen, Oscar Wilde, John Millington Synge, and James Joyce were banned for many years. In 1911, there was enacted the regulation determining the activity of the University Grants Commission whose task was to initiate, inter alia, cultural projects and to assign funds for them. It was an example of the still applied in Great Britain “extended-arm principle”. Of the fundamental importance for development of the cultural policy was the establishment in 1940 of the Council for the Encouragement of Music and the Arts (CEMA). Although the founders thereof were outstanding British politicians, the organisation was not a governmental institution and was registered as a charitable private foundation. However, the Council was also supported financially the government, and since 1941 the foundation’s account was regularly fed by state’s subventions. After the war, in Great Britain, there was established the Arts Council
which was the first non-governmental organisation free of the state’s interference and censorship. But also that organisation over time stopped to be fully independent – the board of directors was elected by the government members; when the configuration of political powers was changing, the attitudes towards culture in the Council also was changing. The role of the state in financing cultural activity increased. The government more than before was subsidising not only the nation-wide projects in the field of culture, but also local ones. In 1965, there was established the Ministry for the Arts (then the Ministry for Culture) headed by Jenny Lee. For the first time, there was set up a three-year plan of the state’s cultural policy. During the four-year term in office of Jenny Lee, there were singled out 100 constructions, of which more than 90 outside London, destined for theatre residences. Those measures played a positive role in the cultural life of local communities. There were springing up amateur school theatre groups; many of those cultural initiatives have survived till now (Gierat-Bieroń, Kowalski ed. 2005, p. 9-13).

The attitude of Tories, including Margaret Thatcher, Iron Lady, towards the British state policy supporting cultural activities was explicit. Thatcher’s views on culture financing: “Economics is a choice”, “Economics and culture, and not culture and economics” spoke for themselves. At present, although the state enters the sphere of organising cultural projects incidentally, but it also tries to collaborate with other institutions in some domains of the public life. Culture was subject to the market rules and was largely based on the private sponsorship. However, also in Great Britain there rose the need to set up a single, national, central body whose activity was aimed at administering the activity for culture. There was set up the Arts Council of Great Britain and though it was established on the structural bases of self-governmental organisations, nevertheless the Council’s members were appointed and revoked by the government, and the budget was subject to be accepted by the parliament. The Council had freedom to act and it played the role of the bridge between the government and the community. Its main task was to coordinate cultural education in Great Britain. However, that model of the state’s cultural policy met criticism. In the 1970s and 1980s, there appeared the centralistic tendencies. There was postulated greater cooperation in the field of culture between the Arts Council and independent agencies. There were blames for the lack of coordination of actions taking place with big cultural projects. It particularly concerned cinematography and audio-visual arts. There were also uttered voices indicating the necessity to introduce changes pursuing the stance of increasing the role of Parliament and limiting to some extent the competencies of the Arts Council as well as to widen the boundaries of autonomy of the Regional Arts Associations (Harasimowicz, Wódke 1996, p. 26-28).

Today, this is the British government and parliament who are responsible for implementation of the cultural policy. Organisation of this segment of the public life belongs to the competency of the British Department for Culture, Media and Sport. In the first years of the 21st century, the government appointed the Regional Cultural Consortia whose task is to
implement the strategy of the local cultural policy. The consortia have also to initiate cooperation of local authorities with business organisations as well as local enterprises. One may notice that in the political programmes of both the Conservative Party and the Labour Party a crucial point is, in compliance with the idea of political correctness of the western world, promotion of and support in Great Britain of cultural diversity (Gierat-Bieroń, Kowalski ed. 2005, p. 20-21).

In Germany, the traditions of the concept of legality, rooted in the rule of law and the Max Weber patterns of governance, were the basic element of public administration’s activity. Contemporary Germany is a federal state where each federal state (Land) has its own government. The governments of Lands organise their own public administration. Due to the historical determinants and different specificities of the needs of Lands, the organisation and administrative structures as well as their activity are diversified. In the majority of Lands in the Federal Republic of Germany the administration is three-tier. The administrative control over the Land is carried out by bodies and institutions of a higher level, which, by way of their direct subordination to the Ministries, implement the state’s policy directly. In smaller by their territory Lands, the middle-level administration is absent, whereas the administrative bodies of the lowest level perform tasks of the specialised administration. The legal acts being a part of the Constitution of Germany and in constitutions of individual Lands guarantee the full autonomy to local communities as regards governance of their affairs. Local self-governmental bodies perform the tasks meeting the social needs (Hauser scient. ed. 2003, 2005, p. 73-76).

The cultural policy of Germany is, in a way, a reflection of the political system based on the federation. On the two sides of the Berlin Wall there had existed, till the unification of Germany, diverse views of the authorities concerning the organisation of cultural activity. After the World War II, in the western part of Germany, the cultural policy was carried out on the principles of pluralism and decentralisation. And the German Democratic Republic was politically subordinated to the communist ideology. The set up in 1954 Ministry of Culture used culture for propagandist and political purposes, and the state controlled projects and activities of culture creating institutions (Gierat-Bieroń, Kowalski, ed. 2005, p. 145-147).

Local self-governments in Germany have grown from their long historical tradition. In practice, particular levels of the public administration play the role of the bridge between the central bodies and the local public administration. In the Federal Republic of Germany, otherwise than in France, the competency of bodies of the self-governmental authority includes not only taking care of basic needs of the local communities, but also care of the so-called higher needs. Decentralisation in the administration in the western part of Germany allowed for a robust development of locally autonomous culture creating institutions. Upon the unification, the German government had to invest in the east of Germany not only in the neglected, ineffective, centrally steered economy, but also in the sphere of cultural activity.
There were involved vast funds in order to rebuild cultural institutions important for the state’s cultural policy. In the Constitution of Germany, there are imbedded the guarantees of access to culture goods for all citizens. The legal acts concerning the cultural policy guarantee the art and culture creating activity freedom and full intellectual independence. The German Constitution clearly indicates the state’s duty to support culture. Those regulations also are binding for the eastern Lands which, pursuant to the Treaty of Unification, have been included in the Federal Republic of Germany. The laws setting forth the rules of cultural activity are fit not only in federated constitutions. Some Lands, the so-called ‘culture states’, put into their legal acts the solutions raising the issues of culture to the rank of the most important tasks in federal states (Länder). In the German Constitution, there are also provisions determining the scope of competencies in fulfilment of the tasks of organisation of culture entrusted to Lands by the federal government. For instance, in order to provide creators with retirement security of living, Germany has introduced into the legal acts concerning these issues beneficial for them solutions. Creators pay as the social security premiums half of the premium charged for them, whereas other funds are from the federal government’s subsidy and from the contributions of operating in the free market entrepreneurs trading in arts (Gierat-Bieroń, Kowalski ed. 2005, p. 148-153).

After the unification of Germany, the economic situation in the country was complicated. The problem stemmed primarily from diverse political and legal systems of the two German states emerged after the Second World War. Fundamentally different were also the legal and administrative solutions related to the cultural policy. Upon the systems changes in eastern Lands, the culture creating institutions were on the threshold of bankruptcy. It was directly related to enormous interference of the communist GDR with the matters of organisation of cultural projects. For years there had been subsidised unprofitable projects, often enough at a low intellectual and artistic level. From one day to the next there ceased permanent subventions on the part of the state and Lands to all public cultural institutions. An outcome of political debates and discussions was the introduction in all the Lands of the interim in issues of culture organisation. It was a difficult time for cultural activity in the whole unified Germany. The adoption of new, free-market solutions by the post-communist, ossified, cost intensive institutions of culture was extremely difficult. To lead to calming things down the new solutions were introduced gradually, successively. The ongoing in the state political changes also enforced amendments in the legislation related to the cultural policy. For the culture development, important legal solutions were, inter alia, reform of the law on foundations and donations, revision of the act on copyright protection, the act on binding prices of books, amendment of the act on social insurance for artists. Besides, there was obligatorily introduced the system controlling the adopted acts as regards their harmlessness to culture. The German state supports culture from public sources not only at the governmental level. Creators and culture creating organisations receive a solid support on the part of regional and municipal authorities. Culture (in the broad sense thereof) is also largely supported finan-
cially by the private business. Those means are significant. Private investors supporting culture receive tax exemptions. Numerous foundations offer the cultural institutions long-term grants and regular cash inflows. An important element of support for the culture creating activity is the popular, beneficial for parties – authors and entrepreneurs – form of sponsoring and advertising. We may assume that culture in Germany is financed from many sources. However, having in mind the assumed budget discipline both at the federal level and individual Lands as well as in self-governments, organisation of culture will be subject in a long run to the plans to include the culture creating activity also into the market processes (Mazur, Orlowski, Wagińska-Marzec 2011, p. 13-72).

Having completed his four-year journey across the nineteenth-century United States of America, the French lawyer and politician, ‘Republican involuntarily’, count Alexis de Tocqueville, wrote his opus magnum, De la Démocratie en Amérique: (“Democracy in America”). He was describing and analysing the social processes occurring there. He perfectly perceived the differences between the prevailing in European states political systems and the newly built foundations of democracy in America. He stated: “If in a democratic society live enlightened people, then they are aware of the fact that nothing constrains them and there is nothing to force them to be pleased with the hitherto achievements”. Paraphrasing his words one may say that only “a free mind in a free body”. Tocqueville also believed that if people had equal opportunities in acquiring the social position and tangible goods, they would like to satisfy their ambitions also in the field of science, culture, and art (de Tocqueville, transl. into Polish by Janicka, Król, vol. 2, 1996, p. 40-44).

Alexis de Tocqueville understood that early Americans were mainly interested in entertainment. However, he also noticed a gradual maturing of Americans to participation in building and consumption of the so-called elite culture. Notwithstanding, for the so-called American average recipient, art and cultural experience should be rather served in an easy, short, and pleasant form.

“The theatre is governed by the same rules as the shop” – this is a quote from the utterance of Roger L. Stevens, the producer of West Side Story, who was “the first minister of culture” of the American government. This statement concerns the position of theatres and cultural institutions in one of the New York streets. In the United States of America, culture is based primarily on commerce. However, it also happens that the needs and tastes of dwellers of big American agglomerations are more sophisticated and culture is treated seriously. The metropolises are proud of having great, at the world’s level symphony orchestras, e.g. in Boston, and the best known around the world music cultural institution which is the Metropolitan Opera in New York. In New York, there are also located the biggest prestigious galleries which dictate the trends in the fine arts world-wide. It is worthwhile noting that the city’s budget every four years assigns vast funds on the development and modernisation of artistic institutions. Those resources finance creativity related to the so-called sublime elite culture, Arts, for a more demanding audience. It is proper to note that in New York, in
Broadway and Time Square, elite culture and popular culture, the mass one, are mixed with one another. Only in Broadway, there are 42 theatres which function on the commercial principles. The cultural pot of the United States, issuing from the variety of nations living in the US territory, has an enormous impact of the formation of needs and participation in culture. Here there are clashing, mixing, and interpenetrating cultural trends and needs. For Americans, commerce means ‘culture’, while the high quality vanguard is ‘arts’ (Martel, transl. by Czarnacka, Majcher 2008, p. 9-12).

The Constitution of the United States of America ensures the principles of separation of powers: legislative, executive, and judicial. The state’s systems principles (federalism) cause that the government has limited powers in relation to state governments, and the Tenth Amendment clearly stipulates that certain powers not delegated to the federal government are reserved for the state governments. However, in the case of collision of the federal law with the state’s law, the Supremacy Clause assumes the underlying priority of federal authority (Frankowski, Goldman, Łętowska, transl. by Krahelska 1997, p. 17).

Pursuant to the Constitution, the US government does not affect directly the cultural life of its citizens. The originating from Protestantism strong tradition, implying the development of public benefit organisations, various foundations as well as universities, causes a universal participation of those organisations in creating culture and affects the variety of activities in cultural creativity. It is difficult to assess what conditions and stimuli cause that this not subsidised directly by the state culture is omnipresent in the USA. And may be the secret lies just in the lack of permanent subsidies of the federal government and states governments, and may be just the lack of interference of the public administration stimulates so actively citizens to create the cultural life.

An important caesura in the state’s policy was the election of John F. Kennedy (the Democratic Party) as President. Kennedy excellently felt the social moods and needs. He perfectly entered the binding in the world stream and tried to exploit culture politically, primarily in opposition to the USSR where the place of culture was on the flags of propaganda. Personal contacts of President’s wife Jacqueline with the French minister of culture gave birth to a fresh look at the issues of culture and art, especially on the need to promote art in such a way that the timeless work could be watched and admired by as many recipients as possible (Martel 2008, p. 34-36).

During the Kennedy’s presidency, there diametrically changed the rulers’ attitude towards the cultural policy. And though the US government did not directly subsidise (as we understand it) culture creating projects, nevertheless the atmosphere connected with cooperation with the French Ministry of Culture exerted an enormous impact on the participation of the administration of the federal government, states governments, and authorities of particular towns and cities in promoting measures for culture financing. Hiring by France of the Leonardo da Vinci’s painting *Mona Lisa* was a turn in the perception of
culture creating activity not only by the US authorities. Each American wanted to see the painting, and that curiosity resulted in healthy snobbery of American citizens about the permanent ‘associating’ with arts. There also changed the relation to art and culture of the American rulers and financial circles. In New York, there were springing up like mushrooms galleries, and over some time French art dealers with their offers of exhibitions fell heavily behind. Today, New York is the world’s capital of fine arts – classical and modern. President Kennedy believed in power of his nation and wanted, through conscious cultural policy, to raise the status of intellectuals and artists to the rank of the nation’s elite. However, he opposed the plans of complex participation of the state in the cultural policy. He was consistent in his vision of financing the sphere of culture. He considered that this sphere of life belonged to citizens and it is them who should decide how they want to finance cultural projects. Notwithstanding, he alleged that it was the government who should set forth conditions facilitating the development of arts and culture, by way of implementing a skilful tax policy. Kennedy was pragmatic. In his plans concerning the culture affairs, he did not see the need to set up in the government the position of the minister of culture. Till the end of the 20th century, as well as nowadays, in its administrative structures the United States of America does not have the Ministry of Culture in our, European sense. However, it was possible to fulfil the postulates contained in President Kennedy’s ‘testament’. In 1964, there was enacted the first draft of law on culture. Republican from Illinois, Paul Findley, protested against passing that law. He scoffed: “(...) from Haendel to folk music, from Brahms to Beatles, from symphonic concerts to cheese-cakes”. The cheese-cake was also an epithet of the striptease artist. Nevertheless, the law was enacted and President Lyndon Johnson gave an impassioned speech. In its final part, he stressed that the strength of American culture was its variety, institutional freedom as well as its independence. Despite the fact that President publicly announced the motion to set up the National Theatre, Opera, and Ballet as well as the American Film Institute, those boisterous announcements gave only rise to the American Film Institute. America has yet not got any artistic institution that could have in its name the term ‘National’ (Martel 2008, p. 79-83).

We should remember that the John F. Kennedy’s administration’s policy in the sphere of culture has left a lasting impression in creating the cultural life in the USA.

When the world was waking to life after disasters of the World War II, Poland appeared to be in the situation of vassal state in relation to the USSR – like the German Democratic Republic and most nations of Central and Eastern Europe. The binding, imposed by force communist ideology levelled freedom, also freedom of thought, spiritual one, and creative freedom. In economics, it resulted in the chronic inefficiency leading to a permanent collapse. The systems principles of the PPR directly affected the enacted law, also the shape of the public administration functioning in the state. It was strongly centralised, permanently tied up to the structure of the communist party. The municipal self-government did not fulfil
its functions in our present sense, while the cultural policy implemented by municipalities ought to be based on the principles indicated in the communist Constitution (OJ of 1976, No. 7, item 36, Constitution of the Polish People’s Republic of 22 July 1952).

In Chapter 2 of the Constitution – The socioeconomic system – there are inserted the principles concerning the cultural policy organisation. The directives issuing from individual articles were defining the aims and functions of culture, which ought primarily to play the role of socialist, communist propaganda and indoctrination. For the same reasons, the ‘people’s’ authority took care of readiness to serve by creators, particularly writers and publicists, to be eulogists of the Marxist-Leninist idea and the socialist system. The principles concerning functioning of cultural institutions in the PPR were contained in the National Development Plan. There came down from the centre the so-called “leisure time management” of citizens, e.g. through famous firms’ mushroom picking trips or the format of the so-called employee holidays and mandatory participation of vacationers in outburst of creative diarrhoea of the so-called cultural-educational instructor. To fulfil the annual plan of firms’ ‘cultural’ trips, the personnel departments and sections of factories and other working establishments, for example, state collective farms (PGR), as well as trade unions were organising for their employees group trips to the Warsaw Opera House, e.g. on the extremely difficult Wagner’s musical drama “The Ring of the Nibelung”. Employees ‘for free’ were pilgrimaging to the concert hall to ‘listen’ to the concerts performed within the framework of the International Festival of Contemporary Music Warsaw Autumn – the music which even for connoisseurs happens to be difficult in reception. ‘Cultural’ trips were organised pursuant to the directives of the Constitution of the Polish People’s Republic, which in its provisions required to ‘liquidating’ cultural backwardness of masses. However, it appeared that the planned, forcible ‘raising of culture’ of the society sometimes yielded an adverse than the expected effect, while the almost compulsory participation in spectacles and concerts many a time drew away from the mass participation in high-flying cultural events. Writing about the PPR and its ‘cultural policy’ one may not, however, omit the positive elements – the development of art education, setting up community centres, care about amateurs, and financing valuable theatre and film productions, festivals and contests.

At present, in free Poland, the legal and administrative system is decentralised. Art. 73 of the Constitution of the Republic of Poland of 2 April 1997 (OJ of 1997, No. 78, item 483) ensures everybody the right to freedom of artistic expression and the use of culture goods. Cultural institutions in Poland are managed by the public administration on the grounds of the Act of 25 October 1991 on the organisation and implementation of cultural activities. This legal act determines the state’s cultural policy, the principles of sponsorship executed by the state and territorial self-governments, treating their tasks in the sphere of culture as obligatory. Besides, it also defines the forms of artistic and cultural institutions as well as the status of art employee. It also regulates the system of subsidising cultural institutions and projects by the state and self-governments as well as – by way of commissioned tasks
and projects – of specific cultural projects carried out by private institutions of culture creating (OJ of 1991, No. 114; item 493; of 2012, item 406; of 2014, item 423; of 2015, item 337).

Within the meaning of legal acts, the Polish State provides culture creators and animators with full freedom in carrying out their cultural projects. Directors of cultural institutions may freely (of course, within the law in force) define artistic projects and repertoire plans. In Poland, there are more than 100 cultural institutions. Among the theatres, which have rendered great service to Polish culture, the status of National Scenes is attributed to following: the National Theatre in Warsaw, the Helena Modrzejewska National Stary Theatre in Krakow, and the Grand Theatre and National Opera in Warsaw (www.bip.mkidn.gov.pl 16.01.2015). This status is currently contested – with a chance for success – by Teatr Polski from Wroclaw.

Being in touch with culture exerts a strong impact on education of the human being and his attitude towards the world around him. Owing to culture, the human being has been developing over years the sense of aesthetics and beauty as well as sensitivity to needs of every creature. People continuously are seeking for new emotional sensations and stimuli and the so-called high culture gives them an opportunity for intellectual development as well as social and financial advancement. Today, in the world without borders, western culture penetrates our emotions and minds unrestrainedly. Apart from the pop culture, flowing in the widest stream overseas – however, Europe is approached (also through the newest mass media) by a much wider offer, comprising also the segment of sublimed culture, at the highest artistic level, from the best known around the world contests, festivals, vernissages of the magnificent classical and contemporary works in galleries, till the richly staged opera spectacles. An example of the application of the latest technologies, also computer sciences, for popularisation of high art is global live broadcasts of opera spectacles from the most important stages in the world.

We may assume that in the modern democratic world exist various models of the cultural policy. As once monarchs so nowadays states’ governments have ambitions to support great national cultural events. The example of Great Britain shows incessant changes in the principles of state’s interference in the sphere of culture (when Tories are in power, culture is subjected to the market terms and the state subsidises cultural project incidentally; on the other hand, when the power is seized by the Labour Party, the state’s care of culture is increasing). However, one may ask the question: Is there, under the conditions of vast state control and outgrowth of administration expenses in public institutions of culture, still the place for creativity which stems from the authentic talent, withstands temporary fashions and which, being free of whatever ideologies, will not surrender any political influences and give the recipient an intellectual and aesthetic pleasure?
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Zasady polityki kulturalnej na przykładzie Francji, Wielkiej Brytanii, USA i Polski – ogólna analiza

Streszczenie

W tekście zostały opisane w formie ogólnej zasady prowadzenia polityki kulturalnej zarówno w niektórych krajach europejskich jak i w Stanach Zjednoczonych Ameryki. Państwa demokratyczne,
aby zrealizować założenia polityki kulturalnej, powołują do życia instytucje kultury oraz ustanawiają przepisy regulujące działalność instytucji kultury determinujące ich misję kulturotwórczą. Organizacja, zarządzanie, a także finansowanie instytucji kultury wynika bezpośrednio z systemów politycznych i ustrojowych poszczególnych krajów. Kultura stanowi jedno z istotnych zobowiązań państwa w stosunku do obywateli. Tzw. wyższe potrzeby kulturalne społeczeństw są na stałe wpisane nie tylko w Konstytucje, ustawy ogólnokrajowe, ale także w lokalne akty prawne dotyczące małych społeczności. W Europie i w Stanach Zjednoczonych Ameryki funkcjonowanie instytucji artystycznych i instytucji upowszechniających i promujących przedsięwzięcia kulturalne opiera się na różnych, odmiennych systemach i strukturach administracji publicznej - inaczej funkcjonują instytucje kulturalne prowadzone przez osoby prywatne. We Francji, najbardziej na kontynencie scentralizowanej administracji publicznej, założenia polityki kulturalnej formułowane są na poziomie rządowym, a instytucje kulturotwórcze są subwencjonowane zarówno przez organy rządowe jak i lokalne struktury administracyjne. Politykę kulturalną Wielkiej Brytanii cechuje zmienność, która wynika bezpośrednio z programów ekonomicznych partii rządzących. Finansowanie przedsięwzięć kulturalnych odbywa się na „zasadzie przedłużonego ramienia”. W Niemczech to Konstytucja wskazuje na obowiązek państwa wspierania działalności kulturotwórczej (w niektórych landach kultura jest jednym z najważniejszych zadań administracji publicznej w stosunku do obywateli). Stany Zjednoczone Ameryki Północnej to istny kulturalny tygiel. Chociaż Amerykanie dzielą sferę kultury na komercyjną „culture” i wysoką „arts”, to metropolie USA posiadają największe, prestiżowe na świecie galerie, orkiestry symfoniczne, a najbardziej znaną na świecie sceną operową jest nowojorska Metropolitan Opera. W Polsce państwo daje twórcom i animatorom kultury pełną swobodę. Instytucje kultury funkcjonują w oparciu o ustawę z dnia 25 października 1991 r. o organizowaniu i prowadzeniu działalności kulturalnej. Ten akt prawny określa politykę kulturalną państwa, zasady mecenatu państwowego i samorządów terytorialnych, traktując ich zadania publiczne w dziedzinie kultury jako obowiązkowe. W ustawie zawarto także reguły finansowania przedsięwzięć kulturalnych realizowanych przez podmioty prywatne.

Słowa kluczowe: polityka kulturalna, ekonomia i kultura, kultura wysoka, komercjalizacja.

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Role of Hotels’ Affective Factors in Formation of Territory Image

Abstract

The study is devoted to the role and influence of hotels on tourists’ impressions of the visited territory. Taking into account an increasing tourist trend to get unique impressions and experience in the trip, it is assumed that hotel management tries to involve territory’s character (territory’s characteristics) and identity into their everyday activities and suggests creative forms of accommodation. While hotels’ cognitive attributes are constantly used by hotels and easier to measure and regulate, the analysis of affective attributes, understood as a set of feelings and assumptions about the hotel environment and its features, become the object of the study. The theoretical model of atmospherics is tested for the analysis of hotels’ affective attitudes and the creative potential of hotels in the formation of territory image. The Hermitage Museum Official Hotel and Grand Hotel Europe, both located in Saint Petersburg, are considered in case-studies.

Key words: atmospherics, territory brand, hotels, cognitive and affective attributes.

JEL codes: M37, Z31

The number of places and territories that become popular among tourists is permanently growing. Tourists have more and more options to visit (among countries, cities or regions). Considering this fact, territory management organizations have to seek for new ways to form such an image of the place (territory) that will represent its different features and attract tourists (Sevin 2014). Territory image as a term firstly was used in studies on destination branding. This concept appeared in the discussion on origins of the territory brand, in application of common brand creation theory (Aaker 1991; Keller 1993). Further researches on the topic led to the expansion of this theory and later other features of territory were added such as factors affecting actors of touristic activities: territory identity, territory personality (Lin & Worthley 2012; Jani & Han 2014). Moreover, authors started to research territories and destinations as a complex subject and distinguish organizations that take part in creation of the required touristic infrastructure - stakeholders forming territory’s image (Buhalis 2000; Garcia, Gómez & Molina 2012).

1 The article was prepared within the framework of the Academic Fund Program at the National Research University Higher School of Economics (HSE) in 2015 and supported within the framework of a subsidy granted to the HSE by the Government of the Russian Federation for the implementation of the Global Competitiveness Program “Research on creative potential of cultural tourism development”
A significant amount of time tourists spend in accommodations, therefore, it can be supposed that hotels can affect tourists’ impressions about the territory in a whole. It is obvious that in any kind of accommodations first impressions are based mostly on quality aspects. Nowadays, physical environment in hotels is mostly stimulated by international requirements. For this reason, it is important to understand how they can influence tourists’ emotions and ideas about the place on affective level. Taking into account an increasing tourist trend of changing preferences in favour of impressions and unique experience, it is assumed that hotel management tries to involve territory’s character (territory’s characteristics) and identity into their everyday activities and suggests creative forms of accommodation. Such nonstandard approach brings up the question whether hotels can help to form the territory image not just in terms of its status (qualities of services), but by its atmosphere and affective attributes. Such things like atmosphere and emotions are abstract concepts that cannot be represented in any factual measures. For this reason, there must be other models for estimation of hotels work and its effectiveness as a tool in image formation.

This study is a pilot study that tests a theoretical model of atmospherics for the analysis of the influence of affective attributes and the creative potential of hotels on the territory image. This study identifies the interconnection between the affective attributes of hotel image and the affective attributes of territory image exploring them in framework of the atmospherics model.

Territory brand, image and personality

Territory brand is a combination of unique qualities, imperishable human values, which reflect singularity and unrepeatable consumer characteristics of the territory and its community. These features are well known, socially accepted and are highly demanded among consumers of the area (Vazhenina 2011). Territory brand is a tool of the place identification and diversification. It is supposed to help city, country or region to distinguish itself from other familiar areas (Qu, Kim & Im 2011). In terms of branding theory the territory as a product can be described as a geographical object that possesses a range of physical (nature, architecture, sight-seeing objects etc.) and intangible (history, customs, culture) features (Schaar 2013). Creation of a particular brand is a way to conduct all the desired characteristics of the place to the final consumer (Clifton 2014). In long-term aspect this task becomes more complicated since there are many similar territories and it gets harder to find out those specific features of the territory that could attract visitors.

Territory as a product differs from goods and common services, because it is a versatile object that usually is described in different terms: territory can be both cultural and business centre; be pro eco-life and develop manufacture etc. Diversity also may be connected with particular qualities of residents’ behavioral issues, their mentality or political and social
conditions. Inherently, brand represents a compilation of the most important and attractive features of a territory and eliminates all the negative ones (Qu, Kim & Im 2011).

However, territory brand is not just an appealing description of place’s features. One of its goals is to show the quality of the services suggested by territory’s touristic infrastructure (Hankinson 2004). In order to create a holistic brand for the tourist market, territory management organizations must define the basis of it – territory’s image and identity (Riza, Doratli & Fasli 2012). These two elements represent different sides of touristic processes: tourists and their concerns about the territory and residents’ feelings about their homeland. Considering this fact, it can be concluded that for some territories important actors are both: foreign tourists and domestic tourists (Anholt 2010). As it was mentioned, the term ‘territory’ can define areas of different size from a country to a small town. Territory image is a combination of people’s figurative, emotionally coloured ideas about the place, that are based on their knowledge of its natural climatic, historical, ethnographic, socio-economic, moral and psychological features (Crompton 2007; Vazhenina 2011). Tourists get information about the territory from different sources (Nicoletta & Servidio 2012); but some of them are misleading or practically wrong that can cause misunderstandings and generate false estimations and stereotypes (Rosenbloom 2009).

The territory image is also considered as a complex concept that consist of two measures – cognitive and affective (Beerli & Martin 2004; Hosany, Ekinci & Uysal 2006; Tasci & Gartner 2007). Cognitive attributes represent consumers’ knowledge and estimations of physical features of the territory, affective attributes are understood as a set of feelings and assumptions about the environment and its features. Researchers prefer to concentrate on cognitive attributes of image, because it is easier to measure and regulate. Nevertheless, affective attributes play an important role in development of territory’s image, since they represent overall impressions that were impacted by the place.

There is another concept closely related to territory image, which includes the territory personality (Hosany, Ekinci & Uysal 2006). Territory personality is a set of human qualities associated with touristic area (Jani & Han 2014). Any number of personality traits attributed to the place, for instance 'friendly', 'hospitalite', ‘conservative’ etc. can describe it. The idea of territory personality is based on consumers’ tension to symbolism: identification of the place as a human being with its own traits gives tourists an opportunity to choose those places that obtain qualities they would like to have themselves. This concept is a subject of dispute, since some authors consider territory personality to be a part of territory image and other distinguish it as an independent factor of influence (Parker 2009). Nonetheless, territory personality is strongly connected with an affective part of the image, because it relates to an emotional estimation of the territory.

Some authors adhere to the view that cognitive image is more effective as a tool than affective one (Haugland 2011; Garcia, Gomez & Molina 2012), so that the cognitive des-
tination image is more influential on the overall image. However, taking into account all the processes connected with a trip, first wish to visit a place is mostly caused by sensuous factors. It happens when during preparations tourists revise different stories and comments filled with emotional visitors’ background, who have already visited that particular territory. However, image formed after the trip is highly influenced by the quality of services that the tourist received. In this case, strong cognitive impressions can overshadow affective component and change final estimation of the place (Nicoletta & Servidio 2012).

In fact, creation of a proper image is one of the most important tasks in the process of brand creation. When a place already has a bad reputation or tourists share strong misleading stereotypes about the territory, it is crucial to change this image and form the desired one [Kaplanidou, 2003]. In case image and identity of the place radically differ, there can appear controversies that can ruin the whole marketing strategy (Qu, Kim & Im 2011). Equal identity and image of a territory are perfect conditions to create a strong brand. For this reason, territory management organizations should take into consideration not only desires and ideas of the potential consumers (image) but investigate how residents depicture the place (identity).

Among attributes that form territory image there are politic and economic factors, natural resources, touristic leisure areas, overall territory infrastructure, and organizations responsible for touristic services, atmosphere, physical environment etc. (Beerli & Martin 2004). In addition, this group of factors includes stakeholders, whose opinion about the image is core in brand creation, since they take part in the creation of the territory identity (García, Gomez, Molina 2012). Stakeholders are usually divided into groups according to their importance or strength of their influence on the image (García, Gomez & Molina 2012). According to Hankinson’s classification (Hankinson 2004) there are four major groups: consumers (local people, employees of local organizations and tourists), primary services (hotels, tour agencies etc.), secondary services (infrastructure, access services, hygiene facilities etc.) and media relationships (marketing, publicity, public relations etc.).

Relatively few authors try to investigate primary services, even though these services are an integral part of any trip. Leonard Dioko and Siu-Ian So (2012) compare consumers’ loyalty to territory brand and loyalty to hotel’s brand. Andreea Căruntu and Mihail Dițoiu (2014) tried to build a branding strategy for Targu-Jiu basing on the qualitative characteristics of hospitality sector in this town. Timothy Lee (2011) hypothesized about the importance of hotel design in enhancing of a destination brand. Lorn Sheehan, Brent Ritchie and Simon Hudson (2007) research how the city, hotels and destination management organizations can interact and interdepend. These and other studies, which in any way are connected to the topic of territory image formation, usually have rather specific and narrow focus and are limited by the subject of research. From their conclusions it can be stated that hotels do play an important role in image formation, but it has not been analyzed how it happens and what mechanisms of influence are involved. In addition, these studies do not provide knowledge about differences between affective and cognitive attributes. These attributes were re-
searched as either one compiled subject or just one by one. For this reason, it is necessary to find out at what levels hotels can affect their guests and what methods are used to do so.

**Hotels as an attribute in territory image formation**

Physical characteristics, which are components of cognitive attributes of territory image, influence the impression about the place both before and after the trip. In other words, while choosing where to go and where to stay, tourists get to know infrastructure, attractions and services suggested and compare their quality (Govers, Go & Kumar 2007). The quality can be an important point in final choice. The main goal of any hotel is to provide basic services aimed to fulfill physical needs of tourists, and substitute them home. Considering the Maslow pyramid of needs it can be supposed that those tourists, whose basic needs are satisfied, will be more open for new information and experience (Tascia & Gartner 2007).

As a service, hospitality also shares two types of attributes: cognitive and affective. Basic functions (bed, shower, dining etc.) and physical surroundings are cognitive attributes (Ki & Perdue 2013). High quality of services in hotels increases attractiveness of territory in whole. It can be one of the factors that determines tourists’ final decision (Dioko & So 2012). Affective attributes are emotions and feelings induced by features of the hotel, regardless of whether they are real qualities of it, imposed by its management, or imagined by a tourist (Cohen, Pham & Andrade 2008). They are also connected with sensuous attributes that are represented as objects influencing organs of sense: vision, hearing, smell, taste and tactile sensations. These factors create a certain atmosphere that is supposed to stimulate emotions and greatly influence the estimation and impressions from the hotel (Kim & Perdue 2013). Among affective attributes, authors usually name such things as coziness of furniture, design and spaciousness of rooms, music, light, taste of the food. Also in smaller hotels, some elements of local culture can be added: commons, religious attributes, beliefs etc. High-class hotels can present national peculiarities and culture through special events featuring local holidays. Such elements are an important part of image formation, since it introduces them to the real features of local life and establish their emotional connection with the culture they get to know (Sumaco, Imrie & Hussain 2014).

Assuming that cognitive group of attributes is a basis of an image (both for hotel and territory), it can be supposed that taking into consideration of affective attributes can be a logical continuation of the marketing strategy. Cognitive factors depict mostly common ideas/common duties of hotels and affective attributes are more flexible in changes. Variating them with the use of territory image requires at least minimal creativity. Investments in affective attributes are supposed to provide hotel with a desired atmosphere, which will satisfy guests and form desired ideas and impressions. Nevertheless, affective attributes cannot be treated as elements that can be added or removed; they are inseparable factors influencing tourists’ concerns about the place of visit.
While choosing a place to stay during the trip, tourists pay attention on both cognitive and affective attributes. Considering the fact that cognitive elements can be equal (as well as price for a room) the final choice is made based on atmosphere of a hotel. It can help to bring positive emotions to guests and invest into their future loyalty (Jani & Han 2015). Moreover, well-created atmosphere allows to increase guests’ compliance and extraversion and reduce their neurosality (Jani & Han 2015).

Even though the importance of affective factors for territories and hotels is acknowledged, the problem of place’s commonness remains. The concept of placelessness was developed upon the idea of similarity of places and weakening of territories features (Smith 2007). Concerning cognitive factors, which can be equal in different territories, this problem is even more vexed. In fact, territory branding is supposed to solve this problem. As well as areas, hotels also face this phenomenon. In hospitality sector, there are lists of requirements and services, which are suggested in every other hotel: hotels function in the same way, offer similar dishes, staff uses international languages etc. Chain hotels even apply one design everywhere to strengthen the brand (Dick 2013). These factors lead to the fact that hotels become objects that could exist anywhere.

After spending time outside tourists come back to the hotel. If the room a tourist lives in, does not have any features that can remind of the place, tourist’s impressions are sterilized. If emotions from the trip are set to zero every time a person returns to the hotel, branding effect decreases (Lee 2011). In such hotels, guests cannot tell where they are, moreover, they pay more attention to the cognitive factors – quality of the provided services – instead of gaining even more impressions about the territory. Therefore, it can be supposed that during the stay in a hotel affective factors come to the second place, and the effect of territories brand is not prolonged. Since tourists spend a lot of time in hotels, hotel management should pay attention to both components of the territory’s image: maintenance of high quality services (cognitive factors) and creation of atmosphere that resembles territory’s image (affective factors).

Affective attributes of hotels can be investigated in the framework of the atmosphere concept. This concept firstly was suggested by Kotler as a tool for creation of environment that could increase possibility of purchases (Kotler 1973). Later researches developed this idea investigating various factors that create ambience and final atmospherics model was formed in classifications of Bitner (1992) and Baker (1986). Referring to the classification suggested by Baker (1986) there are three major groups that form atmosphere: design and layout, social factors and ambient factors (Bitner 1992) that will be considered in next paragraphs.

**Design and layout**

The easiest way to influence tourists’ impression about the visited place and his ideas about it is to show the desired image literally. This group of attributes includes hotels inte-
rior, design, colour palettes, light (its brightness and colour) and architecture of the building (Pullman 2005). Layout of rooms and public spaces, furnishing and decorations also are part of these attributes, since guests can estimate them only visually while choosing a hotel. Interpretation of territory’s image in hotel design can be reflected in implementation territory sights, architecture elements, symbols etc. (Ayala 1991). In addition, this group of attributes can be represented in uniform of personnel and appearance of hotels equipment.

Mentioning creativity in hotels authors usually refer to creativity in interior design or architecture (Epsoy 2010; Lee 2011; Heide, Lærdal & Grønhaug 2007). Design hotels are attractive for consumers because their distinctive features are prominent, that means it is easier to compare different hotels in frames of these attributes. Often there are rooms created each in special design in such hotels. It provides an opportunity to attract people with various tastes and suggest something ‘unique’. Overall, changes in consumers’ preferences explain tendency to create uniqueness: tourists demand extraordinary or just unusual experience, not only common services that hotel is supposed to provide (Lee 2011).

**Social factors**

Services are inextricably linked with social interactions between producers and consumers. In terms of atmospherics theory, social factors are interpreted as interactions between people, communication influenced by the physical environment. It can affect length of the talk, its emotional color and quantity of participants (Bitner 1992). In hotels social factors are reflected in intelligence of personnel, their openness, sociability and ability to convey the idea of territory’s image to guests. Concerning the fact that social factors are affected by physical environment there should be paid more attention to the communication zones. Local people are stakeholders that influence the image of territory that is why hotels should engage residents into communication with tourists by inviting them to special events. Also there can be meetings with professionals from different spheres of interest, because it may be appealing to guests. For example, hotels can provide guided tours, which support the desired territory image. Moreover, if hotel top management chooses tour guides, it can control and maintain the quality of services on high level that will influence cognitive part of the forming image.

**Ambient factors**

This group of factors includes all the elements that cannot be seen but are felt by other senses. Probably, in terms of territory’s image, it is hard to use them occasionally, but for some places such factors can work well. In hotels it can be used scents that evoke associations with the territory (Ertekin & Gürkaynak 2011). For instance, natural scents reminding
about the features of the place, scents of iconic dishes etc. Perhaps, more usual for hotels is music played in public zones. This element can be topical for territories with well-known or distinguishing folklore music. Another possible solution is to use compositions of local musicians. Music can reflect more abstract features of the territory that can be useful if image is based on territory’s personality (Hussain & Ali 2015).

This atmospherics classification provides a wide range of opportunities for hotels to use factors corresponding with the territory image. Probably some of them can be used in hotels of different classes without requiring extra investments. In small and medium hotels, atmospherics can help to smooth flaws in quality of services. As far as this type of hotels cannot provide guests with top-class services and are restricted in resources, they can use more social and ambient attributes. For large hotels and high-class hotels design factors maybe more obvious, since they have more resources. However, social attributes are important too both as a standard of quality and as an element of atmosphere.

Case-study

During the pilot study, several interviews were held with the hotels’ top management located in Saint Petersburg. Collected data was transcribed and coded. In order to find the effect of these factors on visitors and evaluate the feedback, guests’ reviews were examined excerpted from the web site www.tripadviser.ru. For each hotel there were gathered about 50 reviews both from Russian- and English-speaking guests. These comments were analyzed and searched for matches with declared elements of atmospherics.

The most representative hotels were The State Hermitage Museum Official Hotel that shares the brand with world-known Hermitage museum and Grand Hotel Europe. The first one is a new hotel built in 2013 in a reconstructed building of XVII century. The second one is the oldest hotel in Saint Petersburg with a great history and is associated with many famous people including Romanov’s family. These hotels represent the most spread image of Saint Petersburg – the city of classical culture, city-museum. All the three groups of attributes of atmospherics theory uphold this image.

Analyzing attributes of The State Hermitage Museum Official Hotel, the first thing to mention is a high quality of cognitive attributes. The State Hermitage Museum Official Hotel is a four star hotel and suggests high-class services to its guests. High category of the hotel gives top managers an opportunity to develop affective attributes taking cognitive ones as a rule.

The State Hermitage Museum Official Hotel uses a wide range of affective attributes, which can be revised in frames of atmospherics concept. Firstly, design, architecture and layout of the hotel have a strong connection to the State Hermitage Museum and Saint Petersburg itself. The building itself is an example of architectural style used in the city’s
historical centre. Moreover, interior designs of rooms, halls and lounge zones were created in stylistics of over popular architectural styles that can be found in Saint Petersburg. Some of them are replicas of the Winter Palace halls. It creates value for the hotel as a state of art and depicts authenticity of the city. Grand Hotel Europe also represents historical architecture, moreover the building itself is under governmental protection. It obtains a collection of antiques, which are used in interior designs of halls and rooms. In the State Hermitage Museum Official Hotel, there are also many antiques, paintings brought from the archives of The State Hermitage Museum and some of its most popular showpieces. Managers of The State Hermitage Museum Official Hotel pay attention to small details like tableware and use porcelain of Imperial Porcelain Factory established by Catherine the Great. All these elements create atmosphere of classic chic, opulence and imperial times that was highlighted by visitors («Russian imperial Style», «traditional royal Russian style»). The hotel located in the centre allows to create the feeling of space, because guests can see core sights of the city through the window or near hotel.

Speaking about social factors, they are also represented in a well-planned way. Administrative personnel is trained to be highly polite, respectful and should be ready to give basic information about the city, museums and events. What is more, in The State Hermitage Museum Official Hotel doormen wear uniform that was used in The Winter Palace in the past. Such attention to guests makes them feel special and helps to plunge into the atmosphere of the past and imperial luxury. In addition to live communication, the State Hermitage Museum Official Hotel suggests recorded lessons and films about the Hermitage and Saint Petersburg that can be watched in rooms. Although guests tend to pay a lot of attention to this group of factors, hotels do not fully use their potential. Study of guests’ reviews showed that the greatest impression comes from the staff, their professionalism, friendliness and awareness.

Despite the difficulties in use of ambient factors, these hotels managed to implement a range of elements that affect hearing, taste and sight. The State Hermitage Museum also shares its brand with local radio station – radio Hermitage- that plays jazz, blues and classics in jazz interpretation. This radio station is used in the hotel as a background that also creates atmosphere of high class and great aesthetics. Grand Hotel Europe has a more specific way of music usage. The hotel works in cooperation with philharmonic and every week there is a small chamber concert called ‘Tchaikovsky Evenings’. During these evenings, guests can listen to classic music and watch part of the ballet ‘Swan Lake’. This event is a representation of classic Russian culture of a high taste and luxury that also endorses the stated image of the city.

The State Hermitage Museum Official Hotel suggests guests a special menu that is based on the dishes that were cooked for the Russian imperial family. In fact, such element is not only an ambient element but also is a recognition of historical relevance. As it was mentioned, consumers like to relate themselves to places, events, people and ‘share’ the same type of dishes with emperors that leaves brighter emotional trail.
Another element that can be attached to ambient factors used by this particular hotel is a present given to customers. In both hotels, management gives guests photobooks with sights from the city and the hotel. In fact, it can prolong impressions left by the territory and hotel even after the trip, since consumer will see photos.

These two examples show that in fact both hotels can use elements of atmospherics. However, it also appears that the State Hermitage Museum Official Hotel manages to implement more ways of atmosphere creation and it reflects both on people’s impressions and territory image creation. It can be stated that creation of atmosphere can be implemented as a useful tool for hotel management. It helps to form a special image of hotel and the place. What is more, top managers can obtain not only physical estimation of service qualities but also more an abstract assessment like feelings and impressions. Special atmosphere can be a source of manipulation that helps top managers to form any particular mood among guests. In addition, implementation of atmospherics concept to the management can help to find out the strong atmosphere factors and either concentrate on them or try to improve others.

Conclusions

The study covers issues of the application of atmospherics concept to the hospitality sector and its role in formation of territory image. We have analyzed how the image is formed, what are the core elements that influence it. Hotels appeared to be one of the main parts since they are almost irreplaceable part of any trip. They can affect people’s ideas and considerations about the territory through the quality of services and through special atmosphere. It was stated that cognitive factors that represent material features can be estimated and compared among different hotels and in retrospective in hotel’s development. Nevertheless, affective factors are more difficult to depict and measure, although they are more responsible for image formation than cognitive ones.

For this reason, we suggest to use the atmospherics concept as a managerial tool for creation and estimation of hotel’s atmosphere and its attributes. In addition, we assumed that it is better to use this concept in new hotels at the first steps of creation and development since they are connected to its physical features (especially ambient and design factors). Fieldwork showed that this suggestion was partly relevant, since one of the hotels that took part in pilot research was almost brand-new and used all groups of attributes: design and layout, social and ambient factors. However, it was also found out that old hotels can also imply its atmosphere to the territory image. Reviews showed that guests firstly pay attention to social factors and then to design. The least recognized attributes are from ambient factors, although it can be supposed that it is harder for people to distinguish them directly. However further research with more specific survey can help to define the hierarchy of factor groups more precisely.
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Tourism as a Factor of Local Development

Summary

Tourism is an important factor building the region’s competitive advantage. Proper perception of its role allows for an increase of the direct and indirect impact of tourism not only on the economic but also on the social environment of the region. Both at the local level (gminas, i.e. municipalities) and the regional one (voivodeships, i.e. provinces), self-governments have limited capacity, resources, and instruments for tourism support. Their use and application determine how effectively will tourism be included in the processes of local and regional development.

Key words: tourism, local development, regional development.

JEL codes: R58, Z32

The local level is the base level of changes for an efficient implementation of the mechanisms in the context of economic and social development. Of the greatest importance is in this process the local self-government as a host in a definite territory. This stems not only from the managerial role of the self-government, but also from its statutory functions, in accordance with which the municipality is to fulfil the tasks related to formation of the local social and economic life. The self-governamental structures are best prepared for planning the local development focused on resolution of the crucial socioeconomic problems of a given territory unit and safeguarding the interest of the society as a whole (Parysek 2001, p. 213-228).

Development, understood as a good change, is defined by the Słownik języka polskiego (Polish-Language Dictionary) as a “process of transition to states or forms more complex or in some terms more perfect, or a stage of this process”. Lucyna Wojtasiewicz emphasises that the notion of development should be always associated with the desired, positive quantitative, qualitative, and structural transformations of the features of a given system. On the other hand, development in the local scale takes place when that system will be an independent socio-territorial structure possessing a set of specific for it economic, spatial, and cultural features, expressing its own needs and hierarchies of values (Wojtasiewicz 1996, p. 14). In turn, Jerzy Parysek defines the local development as “the carrying out actions for the economic and social development of a given territorial unit (town, municipality) with the use of its resources, taking into consideration the needs of dwellers and with their participation in the undertaken measures” (Parysek 1995, p. 37). And Ryszard Brol indicates the harmonious collaboration of the local community, authorities as well as other entities functioning in the

municipality leading to a change and improvement of the municipality’s useful values, creation of favourable terms and conditions for the local economy as well as ensuring the spatial and ecological order (Brol 1998, p. 11). The responsibility for the local space development comprises all the areas, including tourism. The self-government is the steering element in the system of local economy. Its role should not only be limited to the sphere of regulations but also include the impact on the shape of the real sphere, especially by way of organising, supporting, and stimulating the economic development, rational landscape planning, protection of the resources of natural environment and cultural heritage (Sztando 2000, p. 79-89).

The so understood development relies on the internal (endogenous) potential with consideration of its external (exogenous) determinants. The scale and rate of the developmental processes depend primarily on the degree of realising by the inhabitants of a given self-governmental unit their capacities as regards problems formulation and resolution. Therefore, the local development may be called as the search for independence and autonomy, or deciding by a definite community on their fate and future (Zalewski 2007, p. 91).

The issues of tourism are within the competence of both the central institutions, whose scope of activity covers the whole country’s territory (e.g. the Polish Tourist Organisation, PTO) as well as entities of the regional (e.g. Regional Tourist Organisations, RTO) and the local level (e.g. Local Tourist Organisations, LTO). These entities have the form of associations and their members can be units of the local self-government, organisations associating entrepreneurs in the area of tourism or, for example, associations carrying out their activities in the field of tourism (Gordon 2003, p. 42-43). The supervision over RTOs and LTOs is carried out by the minister responsible for tourism. It is important that both RTOs and LTOs have the right to carry out business activities in the dimension which serves achievement of their statutory objectives.

However, a specific role is attributed to self-governments which, setting forth the terms and conditions for tourism development, support the development of local entities operating in this sector. Those activities are usually connected with promotion of the region, in which the entities are functioning (the area of gmina or several gminas), with the organisation and development of tourist information, creation of plans of development and modernisation of the tourist infrastructure, creation of local tourist products, development of the staff for the needs of the sector of tourism as well as with carrying out analyses of the local tourist market, its internal and external determinants, and with the preparation of marketing analyses of this area of activity.

Tourism in the municipal strategic documents becomes an important factor of the local development. In order to gain the effect of financial benefits originating from tourism, in the
form of growth of municipalities’ budgetary revenues, there is the need to develop a relevant policy in this respect. That policy, assigned to the category of sectoral policies, is an integral part of the regional policy in the socioeconomic area. This, in turn, decides the shape of the country’s developmental policy (Panasiuk 2004, p. 143-144).

The local policy in the area of tourism is a specific individualised description of the processes and factors affecting the development of the sector of tourist services of a definite local territory, in which there function entities of the municipal self-government, local tourist organisations, tourist and paratourist enterprises, for the benefit of achievement of the expected economic and social advantages.

According to Ryszard Budzalek, the local tourist policy consists in supporting and conscious building the vision of the development of tourism as well as the environment affecting it, e.g. enterprises, organisations or various institutions that affect by their activity the growth of benefits for the local economy and, in effect, for a definite community (Budzalek 2004, p. 121). The so understood tourist policy aims of activation of the local resources as well as at pointing out to the areas of responsibility both for public and private entities. Among the entities committed to implementation of the tourist policy assumptions at the local level are:

- self-governmental municipal or county authorities;
- enterprises operating in the areas directly connected with tourism, e.g. the lodging base, carriers, guides, entities managing the venues of tourist attractions;
- enterprises operating in the tourism-related areas, e.g. producers of souvenirs, publications;
- enterprises operating in the areas indirectly related to tourism, e.g. banks, construction companies, manufacturing firms, insurance companies, handcraft (Panasiuk 2004, p. 145).

Building the system of tourist supply is, therefore, the essence of the local policy in the field of tourism. An important element leading to this aim remains formation of a definite image, building the brand which ensures an opportunity to identify specific, unique and attractive tourist products, which, associated with a specific place, allow distinguishing the municipality or county from other units of the local self-government (Panasiuk 2004, p. 149). The local strategy of tourism development refers, therefore, to the specific activities in many areas, e.g.:

- investments aimed at development of the tourist and para-tourist infrastructure;
- promoting tourism internally (inhabitants’ activity and mobility) and externally (attracting tourists);
- creating new forms of tourism and new tourist products;
- building effective systems of tourist information;
- protecting tourist values, e.g. the landscape, cultural heritage, tradition, and local habits;
- activating the local community for development of tourism, e.g. incentives to set up agritourist farms;
- supporting local NGOs operating in the area of tourism;
- cooperating with enterprises of the tourist branch;
- cooperating with self-governmental units of the county and regional level;
- cooperating with external partners, e.g. within the framework of agreements of cooperation with municipalities of other states, with international tourist organisations (Panasiuk 2004, p. 155).

However, there must be emphasized the need to correlate the local policy in the field of tourism with the policy of the regional level, with which it should be compliant and the aims should be compatible, particularly from the point of view of the opportunities to use the regional means and instruments to achieve the aims at the local level, e.g. the structural funds. The local policy of the development of tourism should, therefore, be a part of the regional vision of the tourism development, particularly as regards the being developed models and patterns contained in the regional strategies worked out, for instance, by regional self-governmental authorities or regional tourist organizations. That coincidence of the aims (while maintaining the local diversity and specificity as well as the means enabling achievement of those aims) also allows for setting up platforms of cooperation with other units of the local self-government, for example, as regards promotion, creation of comprehensive tourist offers, diversification of the tourist product in the region, mutual supplementing the measures in the area of tourism.

Measures taken by the municipal self-government in the field of tourism development are an element of a number of municipal tasks defined by the Act on municipal self-government. Many of them are of the cardinal importance for tourism and directly affect setting up terms and conditions for its development. Among those tasks, the following issues deserve attention:
- spatial order, space and real estate management;
- environmental protection, nature, and water resource management;
- road infrastructure management and road traffic organisation;
- municipal infrastructure management, including water, electricity, heat and gas supply, waste water treatment, removal and disposal of waste, keeping cleanliness of the public spaces, maintaining sanitation and dumps;
- local public transport;
- culture, cultural heritage, care, renovation, restauration of historic buildings;
- physical culture, inclusive of recreation areas and sport infrastructure;
- citizens security, public order;
- flood control and fire protection;
- promotion of the municipality and its resources;
- cooperation with representatives of municipal circles, NGOs, entrepreneurs;
- cooperation with representatives of self-governments, bodies and institutions of other states.

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Inclusion, in 2001, to the municipal tasks of activities in the area of tourism caused a greater interest of local self-governments in this sector of the economy. Andrzej Gordon admits that those tasks can be seen in two ways: as the measures whose aim is to meet dwellers’ needs in the field of leisure, e.g. setting forth conditions for leisure, developing the infrastructure for sport activity or recreation; as the measures whose aim is to set forth conditions for tourism development, e.g. developing the tourist infrastructure, supporting activity of dwellers who undertake initiatives in this area (Gordon 2003, p. 46). However, it is difficult to divide the measures of local self-governments in the area of tourism into those aimed at meeting dwellers’ needs and those which serve visitors. The tourist and para-tourist infrastructure serves all users.

The tasks of municipal units of the territorial self-government, as regards tourism development, can be divided into the two categories:

- mandatory tasks which stem from the obligations put on self-government by relevant legal acts;
- optional tasks which issue from own initiatives of authorities of the local self-government and directly or indirectly influence functioning of the tourist economy in the municipality.

The first category includes the duties stemming from the Act on tourist services. Among them, there can be mentioned the necessity to make by self-governments lists of lodging facilities not being subject to categorisation, e.g. campsites. As regards the municipalities’ competences, there remains control of those facilities. In case of flaws related to building, fire protection, sanitary requirements or requirements concerning the equipment, size of the facilities, staff competence or the scope of rendered services determined for the type and category of classification, municipalities may impose the ban on service provision (for the facilities not subject to categorisation) or notify the bodies keeping the list of hotel facilities, for example, the Voivodeship Marshall. These measures belong to the category of direct instruments in order to retain an adequate quality of lodging services. This question is of a great importance as in many localities those non-categorised lodging facilities constitute the overwhelming majority of accommodation places.

Among the detailed tasks in the field of tourism, impose on municipalities by the national legislation, there should be mentioned the obligation to set forth the conditions of safety of individuals exercising mountaineering or water tourism. Hence, the municipality has the duty to ensure safety for all people staying in its territory, also individuals arriving for tourist purposes.

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5 Ustawa z dnia 29 sierpnia 1997 roku o usługach turystycznych (Dz. U z 2006 r. Nr 220, poz. 1600) [Act of 29 August 1997 on tourist services (OJ of 2006, No. 220, item 1600)].
6 Rozporządzenie Rady Ministrów z dnia 6 maja 1997 r. w sprawie określenia warunków bezpieczeństwa osób przebywających w górach, pływających, kąpiących się i uprawiających sporty wodne (Dz. U. z 1997 r. Nr 57, poz. 358) [Regulation by the Council of Ministers of 6 May 1997 on determination of conditions of safety of people staying in the mountains, swimming, bathing, and exercising water sports (OJ of 1997, No. 57, item 358)].
Of a similar nature are the regulations of the Act on mass events safety, in the light of which self-governments are obliged to issue relevant permits or, in the justified cases, to ban organisation thereof. A similar role, indirectly affecting tourism development in the local space, is played by planning instruments, e.g. strategies of the socioeconomic development, municipality’s area development plan conditions, and local plans of area development (Pawlusiński 2005, p. 26-27).

These documents determine municipality’s activities playing an important role from the point of view of tourism development, but a specific role is played by the strategy of development of the municipality. This document allows for implementation of definite aims of the municipality, *inter alia*, taking into account the needs of the local tourist economy. Its drawing up is voluntary but it testifies professionalism and the considered approach of municipal authorities to the process of formulation of developmental objectives and the selection of proper tools and instruments for their achievement. The strategy is long-term and is detailed in operational plans allowing achievement of definite objectives. Therefore, the strategy for municipality development may be a good starting point for development of sectoral policies of the local nature, including the area of tourism. There may be considered then the specific determinants and capacities for definite types of tourism, tourist products as well as taken into account the constraints issuing therefrom. Such a document, being an element of the overall strategy, should describe weaknesses and strengths, taking into account opportunities and threats connected with the development of tourism in the region. Such an analysis should also illustrate the place of the municipality against the background of other, competitive areas, identifying the indispensable directions and measures for gaining maximum benefits (with use of the resources at hand) stemming from tourism development. The considered and planned strategy for tourism development, being a part of goals of the municipality, allows for a faster achievement of objectives, avoiding needless costs and time wasting, issuing from *ad hoc* activities (e.g. promotions not correlated with the strategy).

An important role in the tourism development in the municipality is also played by the area development plan and the study of terms and conditions as well as directions of the municipality’s area development, which determine the local space policy. The preparation of those documents is an obligation of the local self-government, and the study is of the superior nature, it is mandatory in a longer time span, and contains the directives for local area development plans. Both documents are key from the point of view of tourism development as they contain the indications related to location of the premises, determine the destination of municipal sites, and set forth the area of protected landscape, areas covered by the restorer’s protection. They also impose restrictions for such use of the site which

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8 Ustawa z dnia 7 lipca 1994 r. ozagospodarowaniu przestrzennym (Dz. U. z 1999 r. Nr 15, poz. 139, z późn. zm.) [Act of 7 July 1994 on town and country planning (OJ of 1999, No. 15, item 139 as amended)].
might have reduced tourist attractiveness of the municipality (provided that the gmina puts itself such objectives). The area development plan is an instrument determining location of tourist investments within the gmina, inclusive of the accommodation or catering base. And because the activity related to those premises is an important source of budgetary revenues in the form of property tax, income tax or local charges, the role of planning activities in this respect is a very important and responsible task of the local self-government.

The measures undertaken by the bodies of municipal self-government should set up the optimum terms for emergence of new initiatives in the area of tourism, but also they should guarantee the opportunity for development of tourist enterprises which have already been functioning. Moreover, activity in other domains of life should supplement and support this development, e.g. as regards activation of jobless people setting forth opportunities to gain new qualifications (Zawicki, Mazur 2004, p. 81). In order to support tourism development, the municipality may have also used instruments of the fiscal nature, including reliefs, tax exemptions or diversity in tax amounts, the purposeful destination of local charges, exemptions of the subjective and objective nature, amount of rentals, charges for lease of municipal buildings, etc.

An indirect support for the tourism development in local terms is development of the municipal infrastructure, e.g. sewage treatment plants, electricity and heat distribution grids, water and sewage systems, municipal roads and streets, but also the transportation system, including bridges, viaducts, pedestrian crossings, and the entire organisation of road traffic. The properly developed technical infrastructure is not only the evidence of the living standard of inhabitants but also an important impulse for the development of tourist services, the proper way for formation of the desired image of the municipality in the eyes of tourists and prospective investors. A good technical infrastructure means the essential condition for creating new tourist products.

The managerial manner of seeing the municipal development allows for defining the objectives in the categories: product – customer. It allows for conscious consideration of definite regularities of perceiving the tourist offer by clients, tourists visiting the municipality. One of important issues is the complex nature of the product whose quality is determined by the level of services provided by various entities, e.g. tourist enterprises, region’s authorities, tourist organisations, but also by the social relationships in the local milieu and the commonly recognised values by members of the society. The relationship between components setting up that offer is diversified but complementary (Panasiuk 2005, p. 75). Necessary for the tourism development in the municipality are numerous mutually supplementing measures, including promotion (with a particular consideration of tourist information), creating tourist products, development of the tourist infrastructure, and other technical infrastructure.

The region’s tourist product should be homogenous (hence the need for conscious participation as regards the selection of components creating that product), but, at the same time,
it should distinguish itself, being the unique offer, outstanding among such proposals. The emphasis of that unique nature of the product will issue from the choice of effective means of its promotion, the unique name, coherent message, etc. The above mentioned managerial aspect in creation of the offer should also concern the objective the municipality wants to achieve. The product must be adjusted to the specific needs of the municipality, for instance, in the context of weakening the effects of seasonality of tourism or increasing the opportunities to gain economic benefits stemming from the tourism development in the specific area. An example of such solutions is spa, business, festival, urban tourism which can be a valuable supplement of the traditional holiday tourism.

An example of the so understood role of the municipality is Klimontów whose Development Strategy for 2007-2015 says: “Tourism development is an enormous opportunity both to retain the unique, very valuable for recreation and tourism ecosystem in Klimontów Municipality as well as the overall socioeconomic development of this area. Individual segments of the possessed tourist and recreational potential (e.g. historical buildings, water reservoir, St. Jack’s Fair, and other events promoting Klimontów Municipality), however, require an important transformation and creation from them attractive, the so-called local tourist product of Klimontów Municipality. The planned in this respect measures of the municipal authorities should resolutely refer to the natural determinants, protection of the basic ecological processes, and cultural values; therefore, to be of the sustainable development nature. In this approach, there is particularly emphasised the important role of consultancy with dwellers of Klimontów Municipality in the context of the planned decisions of the municipal authorities concerning the directions of the anticipated tourism development”

Having in mind the fact that the tourist region usually is different than the administrative division of the country, important is also the permanent and effective cooperation of the local, regional, state’s and international system as well as between units of the public and private sectors. It seems that this is the only effective model to achieve measurable benefits from the tourism development for all the stakeholders.

Tourism plays a very important role in the municipality development, affecting other sphere of the economic life, allowing for initiating new forms of economic activities, affecting the development of enterprise among inhabitants, raising the level of employment not only in the tourist sector but also in agriculture, handicraft, transport, banking and insurance services, construction, etc. Revenues connected with tourist activities allow for the development of other branches of the economy translatable into direct and indirect effects, what the subject literature describes as the tourism multiplier. This state is of a particular importance for the level of employment where the multiplier effect may allow for creation of even three working places in the indirect service of tourism for each new job emerged in the sector of tourism (Owsiak 2003, p. 129).

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Turystyka jako czynnik rozwoju lokalnego

Streszczenie

Turystyka jest ważnym czynnikiem budującym przewagę konkurencyjną regionu. Właściwe postrzeganie jej roli pozwala na zwiększenie oddziaływania bezpośredniego i pośredniego nie tylko na sфеrę ekonomiczną, lecz także społeczną w całej przestrzeni regionalnej. Zarówno na poziomie lokalnym (gminy), jak i regionalnym (województwa), władze samorządowe posiadają określony zasób możliwości, instrumentów w celu wsparcia turystyki. Od jego wykorzystania zależy w dużym stopniu skuteczne włączenie tego sektora w działania na rzecz rozwoju lokalnego, a w konsekwencji także regionalnego.

Słowa kluczowe: turystyka, rozwój lokalny, rozwój regionalny.

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