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90-142 Łódź, Kopcińskiego 31
tel. 48 42 635 63 05, fax 48 42 635 45 50
e-mail: turyzm@geo.uni.lodz.pl; e-mail: kwom@geo.uni.lodz.pl

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Mirosław Furmanek

Jagiellonian University
Institute of Geography and Spatial Management
Department of Tourism and Health Resort Management
sekretariat@geo.uj.edu.pl

OUTBOUND TOURISM BY THE PHYSICALLY DISABLED INHABITANTS OF KRAKÓW: CURRENT SITUATION AND FUTURE NEEDS

Abstract: The article is an analysis of outbound tourism by those with locomotor disabilities living in Kraków. Two aspects were compared: their tourism activity before and after the occurrence of the disability. The article describes seasonality, length of stay and destinations, limitations encountered, preferred forms of tourism, organisation of travel, preferred accommodation, means of transport and expenditure. It also presents motivations, expectations and the impact of their experience on future travel behaviour.

Key words: Kraków, locomotor disability, tourism for the disabled, outbound tourism.

1. INTRODUCTION

People with disabilities represent a significant proportion of each nation's population. Despite the development of medical care systems, the number of people with special needs is constantly growing and will continue to increase in the future. One of the largest groups of the disabled, and certainly the most visible, are those with locomotor disabilities. The many ways of rehabilitation include recreation and tourism, and they play an important role. Physical activity, which is an element of active tourism, is an attractive form of physical rehabilitation. For disabled people, a tourism trip is often the only chance to leave their home, to establish and maintain social contacts and to fulfil a passion to explore. These elements increase self-esteem and ultimately contribute to their social rehabilitation.

This article presents the results of research on outbound tourism by people with disabilities living in Kraków and an analysis of the tourism-related expectations of those with locomotor disabilities. The research was conducted for a doctoral thesis entitled "Tourism by the physically disabled inhabitants of Kraków: situation and needs".¹

Outbound tourism is understood as a trip outside the home country. But for the purposes of this study, this term was extended and also includes trips outside Kraków but within Poland. Trips outside Poland by those with disabilities are relatively rare, so limiting the study to only foreign trips would not sufficiently reflect tourism by the disabled. A physically disabled person is one with impaired locomotor function causing mobility problems, regardless of the cause of the damage. A physically disabled person is also a one with a complex disability including a further type in addition to the locomotor system. It is not important whether their locomotor disability is the main or secondary cause.

2. THE MAIN ITEMS OF LITERATURE ON TOURISM BY THE DISABLED

Issues related to tourism by people with disabilities began to appear in the Polish literature as early as the 1960s, and pointed out opportunities for recreational

activity (KABSCH 1958, 1960, LIBEROWICZ 1958, OGIELSKI & WĘGRZYN 1967). In subsequent years, research perceived tourism as a form of physical, psychological and social rehabilitation (DEGA 1972, DZIEDZIC 1981, HULEK 1973, WEISS 1976, 1979, 1980). The first comprehensive approach to tourism and recreation can be found in publications by ŁOBOŻEWICZ (1991, 2000), and since the beginning of the 21st century, there has been an increasing interest (MIDURA & ŻBIKOWSKI 2005, KULECZKA 2008). However, few publications present results on the scale and determinants of such tourism activity (SKALSKA 2004, GRABOWSKI & MILEWSKA 2008, KAGANEK 2009).

Both in the national and international literature, most authors do not treat this kind of tourism in a comprehensive manner. Work by BUHALIS (2006) and BUHALIS & DARCY (2010) deserves particular attention, presenting accessible tourism research from various disciplines such as geography, disability studies, social policy, psychology, economics and marketing.

Up to now, there has been nothing on tourism by the disabled inhabitants of Kraków. The author's research fills this gap, with an emphasis on understanding tourism activity by those with mobility problems.

3. DEFINITION OF DISABILITY

Disability, despite its prevalence, has not yet been uniformly defined and classified. Generally we can assume that disability is a condition resulting from a lack of health, i.e. a condition in which the functioning of the body is inconsistent with the norm.

The *Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities* adopted by the UN (2006) states that "...a disability is (...) the result of interaction between persons with impairments and attitudinal and environmental barriers. Such a situation hinders their full and effective participation in society on an equal basis with others". The *Convention* defines the disabled as "people who have long-term physical, mental, intellectual or sensory impairments which in interaction with various barriers may hinder their full and effective participation in society on an equal basis with others."

4. POPULATION OF THE DISABLED

According to the World Health Organization estimates, 10% of the global population experience various forms of disability (*World report...* 2010). In European Union countries, there are about 81 million with disabilities

(16.2%), and the percentage of the disabled ranges from 3.3% in Bulgaria to 32.2% in Finland.² The number of disabled in Poland was 5.47 million in 2002 according to the National Census of that year, which accounted for 14.3% of the population (*Osoby niepełnosprawne...* 2004). When compared to the national average, the province of Małopolska has one of the highest rates – 18.2%, while in Kraków there were 144.900 with disabilities in 2002, or 19.1% of the city's population (*Osoby niepełnosprawne...* 2004). The most common cause is musculoskeletal disorder. In 2010, those with this type of dysfunction accounted for over 36% of the disabled, and 38% among the over 16s. Disorders of the musculoskeletal system are twice as often the basis for obtaining a certificate of disability than respiratory diseases and disorders of the cardiovascular system, which together are the next most frequent.³

5. INSTITUTIONS AND ORGANIZATIONS FOR THE DISABLED

The disabled are a social group requiring special support. In order for them to function on a par with the non-disabled, both national and local government and NGOs have to work for their benefit. Activities of national and local government institutions are carried out based on the regulations contained in the act on social and vocational rehabilitation of persons with disability of 1997 (*Act...* 1997). A 'Plenipotentiary for Persons with Disabilities' has been appointed to supervise the implementation of the act, and it requires regional governments to formulate and implement provincial programmes for equal opportunities, to prevent social exclusion and to assist in employment. In order to support activities in provinces, 'Provincial Councils for Persons with Disabilities' were appointed which serve as consultative and advisory bodies for provincial governors. At the *powiat* level, services are performed by 'Powiat Councils for Persons with Disabilities', 'Powiat Family Assistance Centres' (for social rehabilitation) and 'Powiat Labour Offices' (for vocational rehabilitation). Tasks performed by provincial and *powiat*-level governments can be financed by the 'State Fund for Rehabilitation of Persons with Disabilities'. Institutions acting on behalf of people with disabilities include supported employment enterprises, occupational therapy workshops, professional activity facilities and community centres for people with special needs. NGOs play an important role too in the form of associations, organisations and foundations and more than 10%, i.e. about 7400, carry out activities for people with disabilities.

6. TOURISM ACTIVITY OF THE RESEARCH GROUP: INHABITANTS OF KRAKÓW

In order to learn about the tourism activity of physically disabled inhabitants of Kraków it was necessary to conduct a survey, based on the information collected in 396 questionnaires. Every questionnaire consisted of two parts: the first concerned the tourism activity of respondents in 2010, the second – their tourism activity prior to their disability. Respondents chosen to complete the survey were members of institutions and organizations for people with disabilities, such as therapy workshops, community centres for people with special needs, associations, foundations, associations of pensioners and invalids, patients of rehabilitation and therapeutic centres, and students in the records of higher education institutions in Kraków. Questionnaires were distributed in printed form (370) and via e-mail among students. Of the 416 collected during the period from 1 February to 31 September 2011, 396 were correctly completed. The respondents were 16 or above; the age group most represented was 26-30 year-olds; the least represented were those above 70 or below 20 years of age.

The aim of the study was to collect information on:

- activity level,
- destinations,
- forms of tourism,
- seasonality and duration of tourism trips,
- ways of organizing trips,
- preferences for modes of transport and accommodation,
- financing of trips and expenditure on tourism,
- factors influencing the decision to go and the choice of destination, as well as the manner of organization.

The survey also allowed the exploration of the significance of barriers hindering tourism and to obtain information on the limitations encountered during travel.

In addition to determining the conditions surrounding tourism in the study group, the purpose of the research was also to answer questions about future travel behaviour, i.e. intended destinations, forms of tourism, means of transport and accommodation facilities. The last group of questions concerned factors determining travel plans and expectations regarding future tourism trips.

6.1. TOURISM ACTIVITY WHILE DISABLED

Previous studies show a growing, though still lower than the average, level of tourism activity for the disabled. According to research carried out in 2007 in

Lodz, a city with a population comparable to Kraków, 30% of the disabled population were involved in tourism (GRABOWSKI & MILEWSKA 2008). This article does not indicate the percentage involved in tourism in Kraków because the survey covered only those who were involved at least once in tourism this year, thus being active tourists. On the other hand, the article answers the question about the level of their tourism activity: 37.1% travelled more than once a year, 27.3% only once, and 35.6% only occasionally, once every few years.

The seasonality of tourism is shown by the dominance of summer. A tendency in the trips of the disabled is the high number in the months immediately preceding the summer holiday months, and in those following. In those months, attractive tourism destinations are not yet crowded providing convenience and sightseeing. The lower cost of trips during this period is also important (Fig. 1).

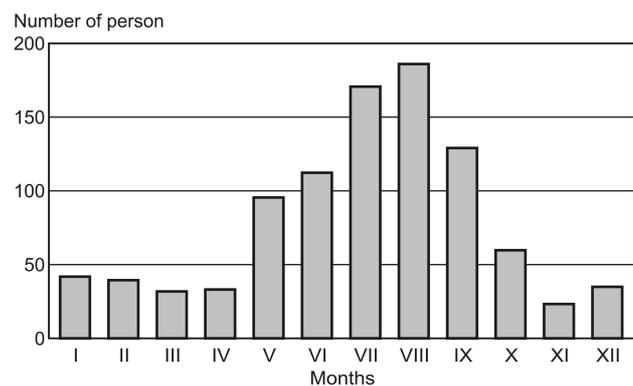


Fig. 1. Seasonality of respondents' tourism
Source: author based on survey

Almost 95% of respondents took a trip in Poland, while more than 30% went abroad. Both domestic and foreign travel was the experience of more than 28%.

Trips to the mountains and trips to the countryside were the most popular. The least popular destination were lake districts.

The surveyed took trips mainly in the province of Małopolska, which is particularly evident in the case of short-term visits (Fig. 2). Trips outside the province were usually short-term trips to the neighbouring Podkarpackie and Silesian provinces, and slightly less frequently to Kujawsko-Pomorskie. When it comes to long-term travel, that is lasting over four days, the most popular provinces, excepting Małopolska, were West Pomeranian, Świętokrzyskie, Warmia-Mazury and Silesia (Fig. 3).

Within Małopolska province, respondents travelled primarily to the Kraków and Tatra *powiats* during both short- and long-term trips. Other short-term destinations were mostly the mountainous *powiats* of

Myślenice and Nowy Sącz, and for long-term, also Limanowa, Sucha Beskidzka and Nowy Targ.

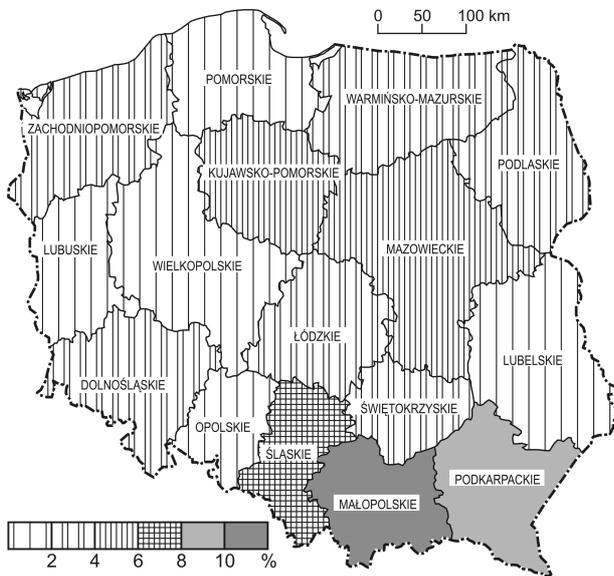


Fig. 2. Domestic short-term trips from Kraków by destination province
Source: author based on survey

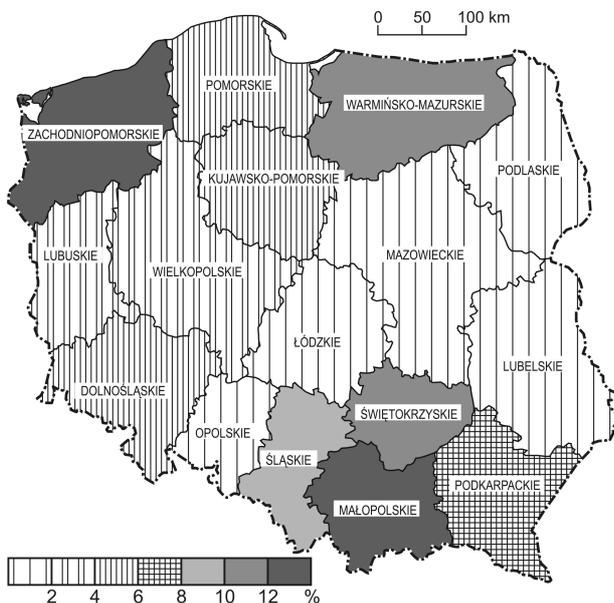


Fig. 3. Domestic long-term trips from Kraków by destination province
Source: author based on survey

Disabled inhabitants of Kraków travelled mainly within Poland, however, their involvement on foreign trips is not without significance. In 2010, 31.3% of respondents declared having taken a trip abroad visiting Slovakia, Hungary, France, Belgium, Italy, Lithuania, Croatia, Greece, Great Britain, Austria, Ukraine, Sweden, Switzerland, Germany, Spain,

Malta, Northern Ireland, and the non-European countries of Georgia, Turkey, Israel, Egypt, Tunisia, the Asian part of Russia, Canada and the United States. The decisive factors in the choice of destination were cost, the method and the time of travel.

Domestic trips were usually short-term, up to four days, however most trips abroad were for a period of 8 to 14 days.

Forms of tourism are related to preferred destinations, and the length of stay. Trips to the mountains, to the sea and to rural areas are good for relaxation, which was the most common form of tourism. Slightly less popular were sightseeing and adventure tourism. A large proportion of domestic trips were for visiting relatives and friends. The low popularity of agritourism might seem surprising, as it would seem to be an attractive due to its friendly atmosphere and low cost. However, only a few farm households are adapted to accommodate disabled guests. Although health issues are one of the most important barriers to tourism, spas and health resorts were chosen as destinations by only every fourth respondent, (and only one in five for a domestic trip), and only every tenth respondent travelling abroad (Fig. 4).

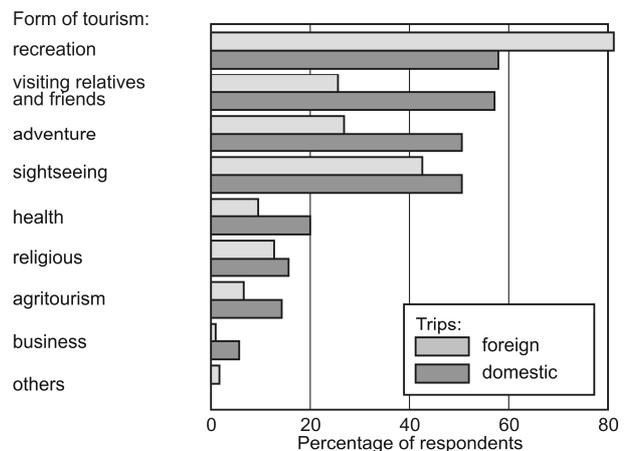


Fig. 4. Preferred forms of domestic and foreign tourism
Source: author based on survey

More than 50% of respondents organized their own tourism trips (Fig. 5). Help by family members or friends were of great importance, and it was particularly evident in the case of domestic trips. Every fourth respondent participated in trips organized by associations, foundations, occupational therapy workshops and other organizations for the disabled. There is a noticeable lack of trips prepared for people with disabilities in travel agents' offers (FURMANEK 2010). The services of travel agents were used by 24% of respondents going abroad, and only by 3% travelling within Poland.

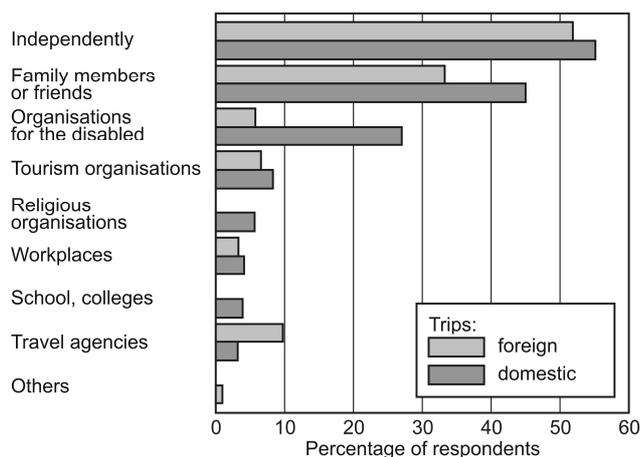


Fig. 5. The organization of tourism trips of people with disabilities

Source: author based on survey

The disabled inhabitants of Kraków spent a large part of their leisure time in an active way. About 50% reported sightseeing, running, swimming, gymnastics, walking and other forms of physical activity. Fewer indulged in passive relaxation. About one fifth participated in cultural events. The least popular ways to spend time were forms of entertainment, shopping, mushroom picking, and family meetings.

Involvement of the disabled is largely dependent on ease of access to their destination and the availability of tourism facilities, including accommodation. Public transport is mostly not appropriately designed, hence the transport of choice was the car. Trains, coaches and buses were often chosen for domestic trips, while air transport and tour coaches were used for trips abroad.

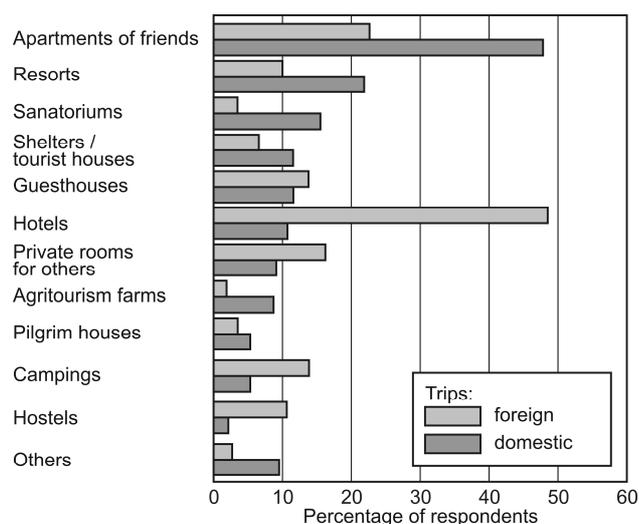


Fig. 6. Accommodation used by people with disabilities when travelling

Source: author based on survey

On domestic trips, the most frequently used accommodation was in homes or apartments of friends or relatives, a less common type of accommodation were resorts and sanatoriums used, inter alia, for rehabilitation camps. On foreign trips, the most popular types of accommodation were hotels and apartments or the houses of relatives and friends (Fig. 6).

The vast majority of respondents financed their trips, both for preparation and the trip itself, from their own savings. Other sources of funding included subsidies for participation in rehabilitation camps provided by institutions for the disabled some with funding from the 'State Fund for Rehabilitation of Persons with Disabilities'. The most important item in the budget in domestic and foreign trips was expenditure on travel, accommodation and meals; the lowest on entertainment, the purchase of tourism equipment and the purchase of orthopaedic equipment and its adaptation to the requirements of the trip.

6.2. TOURISM ACTIVITY PRIOR TO DISABILITY

One of the objectives of this study was to compare the tourism activity of Kraków inhabitants with locomotor disabilities during their disability with that in the time before. Most respondents were disabled from birth or their disability had already appeared in their childhood. Comparing tourism activity between adults and children is inappropriate, therefore a comparative analysis was applied only to those whose disability occurred after the age of 16.

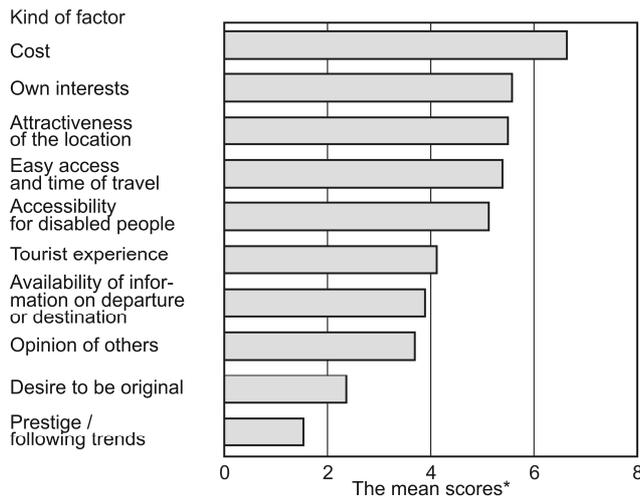
The survey shows that before the beginning of locomotor disability, the frequency of tourism trips was significantly higher than during the disability. This period is characterized by a concentration of trips during the summer and a relatively high intensity in the winter months. Compared to tourism activity during disability, trips to the sea and to lake districts were more frequent. Most trips to domestic destinations lasted 8 to 14 days, while trips abroad – from 5 to 7 days. Recreational tourism was the most popular objective while the percentage of visits to relatives or friends and trips for sightseeing did not change much. A much higher proportion of respondents took part in various forms of adventure tourism.

Trips were often organised by workplaces, schools and universities, and travel agencies; and foreign trips by tourism and religious organizations as well. The use of regular buses and trains, and when travelling abroad, the use of coaches, was more common. The use of such modes of transport as bicycle or motorcycle, water transport and hitch-hiking, which require relatively good physical fitness, was several times higher. Prior to disability, as well as later, the most

popular accommodation facilities were homes of family and friends. It should be emphasized that the changes in the organization of the trip, in the choice of means of transport and accommodation facilities are not merely the consequence of the emergence of disability, but also stem from changes in the structure of accommodation, transport infrastructure, ways of travelling and the wealth of the tourists. Prior to disability, trips were mainly financed from the respondents' own savings while they benefited more often from subsidies provided by workplaces or schools, which was characteristic of the model of tourism at that time. The percentage of loans was also higher.

7. NEEDS AND EXPECTATIONS RELATED TO TOURISM

The survey allowed the author to identify the factors motivating Kraków's inhabitants with locomotor disabilities to travel and the crucial factors. For respondents, the highest motivation to make a decision about a trip was the need for relaxation and cognitive needs. The need to improve their health was significantly less important, and the least important factor proved to be following trends. The choice of destination and mode of transport was however influenced most by the economic factor, expressed as the cost of the trip. Other important factors were interests, attractiveness of location, easy access and time of travel as well as accessibility for people with disabilities (Fig. 7).

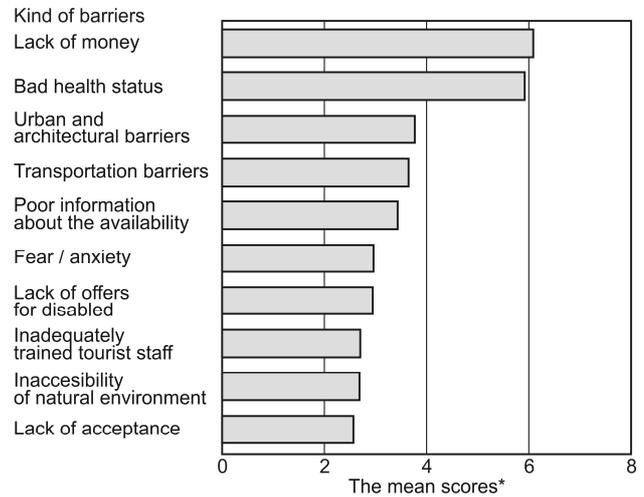


* Method of ranking: importance was evaluated on a scale of 1 to 10, with a score of 1 indicating no importance and 10 indicating the greatest

Fig. 7. Factors influencing the decision to travel with a disability
Source: author based on survey

Out of all barriers hindering tourism, the most noticeable were financial constraints and limitations

imposed by health (Fig. 8). Subsequently, there were architectural and urban barriers and transportation barriers too. The least important, on average, were social barriers expressed by fear of lack of acceptance by people without disabilities.



* Method of ranking: importance was evaluated on a scale of 1 to 10, with a score of 1 indicating no importance and 10 indicating

Fig. 8. The relevance of barriers when making the decision to travel
Source: author based on survey

During trips in 2010, respondents were often forced to cope with such barriers. In Poland, the most common problem was the accessibility of public space with nearly 50 % noting urban barriers. Accessibility to transport was also unsatisfactory while a common problem was poor information about the availability of tourism facilities for people with disabilities or a lack of such information. The specific needs such people are rarely taken into account by tour operators. Barriers impeding travelling were remarked on several times during trips abroad. The most common difficulties were the consequence of an inadequate adaptation of public space to the needs of the disabled (Fig. 9).

In the light of previous tourism experience, both being disabled as well as prior to it, more than 50% of respondents were determined to take a domestic trip next year, and a further 25% did not rule it out. An intention to travel outside of Poland was declared by five times as many as those who had ruled it out (Fig. 10). The vast majority of respondents could not decide whether they would decide to travel abroad, with their decision dependent on their financial situation and, to a lesser extent, on their health. Factors determining future tourism trips are most frequently health and financial situations. This confirms earlier observations on the importance of individual factors in taking a decision to travel.

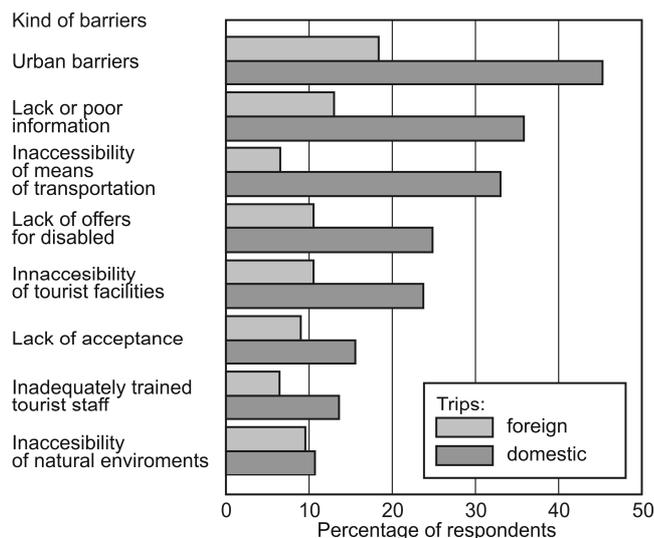


Fig. 9. Barriers encountered on domestic and foreign trips
Source: author based on survey

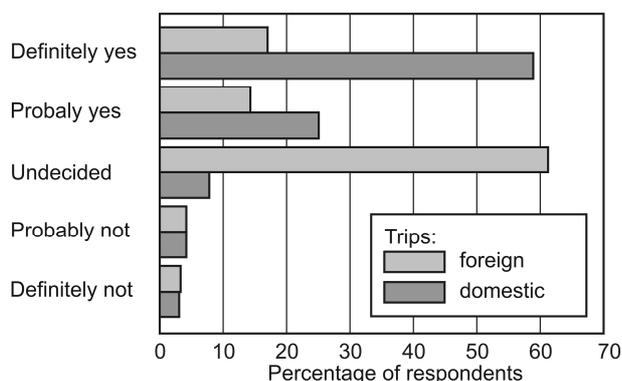


Fig. 10. Plans for tourism trips in the year following the survey
Source: author based on survey

Respondents expressed their expectations related to tourism trips and most frequently pointed to the need to eliminate, or at least mitigate barriers surrounding them. Their expectations also included improved information about tourism attractions, reliable information about the accessibility of tourism facilities for wheelchairs, adequate preparation of staff, support for people with disabilities by other trip participants and reduction of the cost of travel.

8. SUMMARY

Tourism is of great importance for all the disabled, albeit its role slightly varies for different types of disability. However, many factors continue to hamper their tourism activity. Health limitations affect physical fitness, but a surprising conclusion of the survey is that health is not the most important determinant. For

the study group, economic factors are of much greater importance. People with disabilities are usually not wealthy, often the only sources of their livelihood are pensions or social security benefits. In the case of those with locomotor disabilities, a tourism trip may require them to purchase or adapt equipment and measures to facilitate movement. Many physically disabled people need the help of others, which further increases the cost of the trip.

In Kraków, there are many institutions and organizations for people with disabilities, therefore the disabled inhabitants of the city have easier access to organised trips than those living in small towns. On the other hand, despite the large number of travel agencies operating in Kraków, their openness to customers with disabilities is minimal.

For tourists with locomotor disabilities, it is important to eliminate the physical barriers present at every stage of the journey. Not all barriers can be removed and the elimination of some requires a large expenditure. However, most of the barriers can be eliminated with a modest financial outlay.

The importance of the opportunity to participate in tourism for people with disabilities is reflected in their desire to travel in the future, a desire expressed by the great majority. It is interesting that when planning future trips, they pay little attention to the comfort of tourism facilities. More important are timing, good company and the attractiveness of the destination. At the same time, the expectations of tourists with physical disabilities are dominated by expectations that are associated with the elimination of barriers to mobility. They also expect solutions that reduce the cost of travel. The weak point is the lack or unreliability of information on the accessibility of facilities and attractions as well as adequate signage. To encourage tourism, it would be also helpful to increase awareness of the needs of people with disabilities among employees in the tourism sector and an appropriate education in servicing this group of tourists.

FOOTNOTES

¹ This doctoral thesis written under the supervision of Prof. Danuta Ptaszycka-Jackowska, PhD, and it was defended in July 2013 at the Institute of Geography and Spatial Management of the Jagiellonian University. In 2014, the thesis was awarded the Prize of the City of Krakow and a distinction in the national competition "Open Door" run by PFRON for the best dissertations regarding disability.

² Data of the European Statistical Office: www.epp.eurostat.ce.europa.edu, accessed on 20.05.2011.

³ Data obtained from the District Disability Determination Office in Krakow.

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Monika Kordowska

Sylwia Kulczyk

Uniwersytet Warszawski

Wydział Geografii i Studiów Regionalnych

monika_kordowska11@gazeta.pl

skulczyk@uw.edu.pl

CONDITIONS AND PROSPECTS FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF ORNITHOLOGICAL TOURISM IN POLAND

Abstract: The article describes the present condition and the development trends of ornithological tourism in Poland. A questionnaire survey, participant observation and interviews have produced a description of Polish bird-watchers and ornithological tourism organizers. A partial distribution of bird-watching sites and needs for development have also been described. Polish ornithological tourism is at an early development stage, however, as in other countries, a dynamic growth of interest in this activity is found.

Keywords: ornithological tourism, wetlands, Poland.

1. INTRODUCTION

Ornithological tourism is an important part of wildlife tourism (KOWALCZYK 2010) for several reasons. First, it has a wide spatial extent – observations can be made in every landscape zone and in different ecosystems. As well garden birds, more exotic field and forest species are interesting too. Secondly, bird-watching develops an eco-friendly attitude and often results in a serious engagement in nature protection. This is why ornithological tourism is often pointed out as one that not just can but should be undertaken in highly protected areas (BUSHELL & EAGLES 2007).

The importance of bird-watching as a tourism activity has systematically grown (CONNELL 2009, COLLINS-KREINER *et al.* 2013). The reason for this is believed to lie in the isolation of modern man from his 'natural roots'. Attempts to get closer to nature during free time are a form of compensation for everyday life in a highly urbanized, technological environment (COCKER 2001, JANEZKO & ANDERWALD 2011). Ornithological tourism has also gradually gained popularity in Poland however this requires further research (CZECHOWSKI *et al.* 2008, JANEZKO & ANDERWALD 2011). The recognition of the diversity and the present state of ornithological tourism is a basic condition for its sustainability (meaning appropriate to the needs of both bird-watchers and the natural environment).

2. METHODS OF RESEARCH

Participant observation on bird-watching trips, interviews with organizers and a questionnaire survey have been used to describe who Polish bird-watchers are and the range of their interests. The study focuses on wetlands as, because of their great species diversity, they are the most attractive bird-watching areas in Poland. The spatial pattern of popular observation sites, the level of their development and response to the needs of users is described.

The quantitative data was obtained by questionnaire surveys from September 2011 to August 2012 directed at Poles interested in bird-watching regardless of age. The questionnaire was emailed to members of groups on Facebook: Polish Society for the Protection of Birds, Lublin Ornithological Society, 'Kulig' – Research Group on Water Birds, Radom Region Naturalists Club, Avestom – an internet portal on birds in the northern Podlasie region, 'Drapolicz' – Society for Migratory Bird Observation, Opole Ornithology Group, 'Salamandra' – Polish Society for Nature Protection, 'Unitis Viribus' – Society of the friends of Słońsk, 'and the Warsaw Society for Bird Protection. 145 replies were obtained and another 85 respondents completed the questionnaire during ornithological meetings and bird-watching trips: a meeting of the Warsaw group of the Polish Society for Bird

Protection (Warsaw, 18.11.2012), 43th Convention of South-East Poland Ornithologists (Krakow, 26-27.11.2011), a meeting of the Warsaw Society for Bird Protection (Warsaw, 17.01.2012; 11.07.2012), World Day of Wetlands (Warsaw, 04.02.2012), Polish Birds Rally at Goniądz at Biebrza river (18-20.05.2012), 9th survey of corncrakes at Całowanie Marsh (Podbiel, 07.07.2012), trip to Zawadowskie Islands (Warsaw, 26.08.2012) and the Convention of members and friends of the 'Bocian' Nature Society (29-30.09.2012). In total 230 respondents completed a survey of 26 questions (mainly closed-choice type).

3. WHO ARE BIRD-WATCHERS?

Relative to the total population of the country, there are few bird-watchers in Poland. One of the most popular ornithological societies – Polish Society for the Protection of Birds (OTOP) in 2013 had 4000 members (OTOP website). The number of those who support the society is much higher and is growing dynamically – based on Facebook it was estimated at 6000 in July 2013.

Bird-watchers can be classified depending on their experience and involvement; J.J.VASKE *et al.* (2001) has distinguished four types: 'highly involved', 'creative', 'generalists' and 'occasionalists'. The high number of pro-ecological organizations and the growing interest in voluntary activity for environmental protection shows that most Polish bird-watchers are 'highly involved' or 'creative' (e.g. nature photographers). 'Generalists' and 'occasionalists' seem to be less numerous since bird-watching is still not a mainstream activity.

Bird-watchers are both male (60% of respondents) and female (40%) and their ages are mostly between 21 and 40 (63%), those over 40 are less numerous (32%) and the smallest group are children and teenagers (5%). These results differ from those obtained in the USA, according to DWYER (1993) and WILLIAMS & LA MONTAGNE (2001) bird-watchers are typically middle aged (45-65) or older. Data from Poland is similar to that from Turkey (CAKICI & HARMAN 2007), a country which, like Poland, has a young and still developing bird-watching market. Because ornithology is still gaining in popularity, half of respondents have been involved in bird-watching for less than 10 years (the other half for more). The record belongs to those members of the Polish Society for the Protection of Birds for whom bird-watching has been a hobby for more than 50 years.

Most bird-watchers live in big cities (more than 500 000 inhabitants – 43%) explaining the popularity of bird trips from Warsaw and Poznań, 24% live in

towns from 100 000 to 500 000 inhabitants, while 13% come from settlements up to 10 000. The smallest groups are those from medium-sized towns 10-50 000 inhabitants – 12%, and 50-100 000 – 8%.

73% have higher education and another 20% secondary level which is similar to results obtained in other countries (WILLIAMS & LA MONTAGNE 2001, SIMANGO 2011, CONNELL 2009). 60% have a degree related to natural sciences and their interest in bird-watching resulting from a general love of nature (58%), their degree (14%), and from family and social experience (8% each).

4. FORMS OF ORNITHOLOGICAL TOURISM

The most popular (49%) is the traditional form of bird-watching: observation, often followed by taking notes. At the same time, easier access to high quality equipment makes bird photography increasingly popular – 32%. Another form is listening and recording birds' calls (7% of answers) with the most popular being the recording of males during the mating season. 5% film bird behavior.

As for duration, it is often limited to one-day trips – 64%; trips longer than three days are seldom taken (11%).

Every form of bird-watching has its own specific practice. Usually bird-watchers make their observations alone (80%), rarely in small groups, parties larger than 20 are almost nonexistent with the exception of trips where observation is just one among other attractions. Those who photograph or film are determined solitaires because time and frequency cannot be scheduled. Another disadvantage of taking photos in a group is the risk of disturbing the birds. Group observation is possible (and often pleasant from a social point of view) during spring and autumn migration where birds are often observed at a considerable distance.

5. ORGANISATION OF ORNITHOLOGICAL TOURISM

As stated above, bird-watchers prefer self-organized, solitary trips. However, they are keen to take a part in meetings – lectures, presentations etc, usually attended by up to 100 participants. Such events, usually organized by clubs, offer bird-watchers an opportunity to present and discuss their achieve-

ments. Website forums and mailing lists are another way of staying in touch.

Organized trips are far less common and only 12% took part in trips organized by ornithological societies and just 5% in commercial trips by tourism agencies. The most important reasons for this are the limitations to freedom caused by group size and the high costs of commercial trips. The offer of organized bird-watching trips seemed to be poorly propagated as well – some respondents did not realize that such trips existed.

In Poland bird-watching trips do not fit into the formal structure of tourism organization. Those involved in creating this offer (tourism organizers) often do not figure in the Central List of Tourism Organizers and Agents (*Centralnej Ewidencji Organizatorów Turystyki i Pośredników Turystycznych*). Among organizers of ornithological tourism in Poland are, besides some tourism agencies, clubs, guides and others, for example registered businesses.

In 2012 32 organizers of ornithological tourism were discovered by the authors. There are nine tourism agencies that cater for Polish and foreign tourists, twenty clubs, two guides and one business.

The best known tourism agency, with a national and international bird-watching offer, is 'Horyzonty' from Warsaw, while another popular one is 'Biebrza Eco-Travel' agency from Goniądz working almost exclusively in the Biebrza National Park and nearby. More popular are trips organized by clubs, the first organizers of bird-watching trips in Poland. Attending such events is frequently free of charge or the costs are almost symbolic. The most active clubs are located in the biggest cities or their surroundings. Bird-watching can be combined with other attractions, for example a river cruise (Warsaw Society for Birds Protection website) or bike trip ('Bocian' Nature Society website).

Compared to those countries where bird-watching is well developed, the Polish offer is very poor and little commercialized. Assuming that pro-environment trends will – sooner or later – reach Poland, a deeper specialization and widening of the catalogue to trips abroad should be expected. However, it should be underlined that bird-watching will remain a tourism niche. Ornithological tourists, a relatively small group of well-educated and usually well-to-do people, can select foreign offers as well. A necessary condition for the existence of Polish bird-watching agencies is therefore their competitiveness in quality as well as in price.

6. POLISH WETLANDS AS AN ORNITHOLOGICAL TOURISM SPACE: RESPONSE ANALYSIS

Bird-watching is possible everywhere, but less transformed areas assure an experience of 'getting closer to the nature' (CONNELL 2009). In Poland these are forests, parts of some mountain areas and, above all, the wetlands (JANECZKO & ANDERWALD 2011) that form 13% of the country (SWIANIEWICZ 2006). It should be noticed that a large part of wetland areas are not suitable for the development of common forms of tourism. Wetlands are often protected by law. Even if not, they deserve special management due to their environmental fragility.

According to the respondents two highly protected areas are the best for bird-watching: Biebrza National Park (12% of responses) and Ujście Warty National Park (9%). Both of them have been known as ornithological sites long before the establishment of formal protection. Biebrza National Park has 270 bird species (almost 70% of the Polish avifauna) including more than 180 nesting (CZACHOWSKI *et al.* 2008). Within Ujście Warty National Park 245 bird species have been recorded, including 160 nesting (MĄDRAWSKA & WYPYCHOWSKA 2002). The valley of the River Barycz, and Siemianówka, Turawa, Nysa and Rakutów Lakes are also popular bird-watching areas. Narew National Park, Sobieszewo Island and Całowanie Marsh are well known likewise (Fig. 1).

Besides the most popular sites, 70 more wetlands were indicated as good for bird-watching. The majority

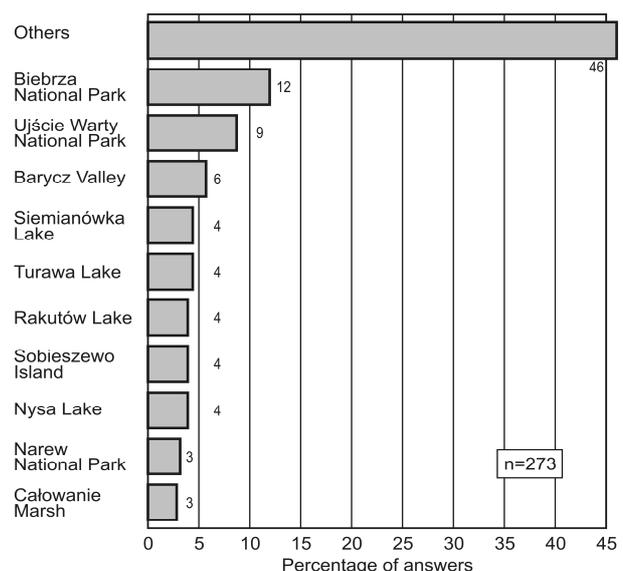


Fig. 1. Wetlands declared as visited in 2011 and 2012; more than one site could be indicated

Source: author

Table 1. Regions with more than one attractive bird-watching area

Region	Bird-watching area	Approx. number of observed species	Species listed in the annex to CE 79/409/EWG directive	Details
Upper Narew Valley	Siemianówka Lake	281	176	One of Poland's most important nesting areas for little crane, white-winged black tern, little tern, whiskered tern and black-headed gull. Important migration stop for Anseriformes and Charadriiformes
	Narew National Park	230	45	One of the most important national refuges for great snipe, aquatic warbler, corncrake, little crane and Montagu's harrier
Upper Vistula Valley	Goczałkowice Lake	200	29	Migration stopover for great crested grebe, great white egret and shoveler, the most important nesting place for night heron
	Zator Ponds	No data	16	One of the few nesting places for ferruginous duck
Middle Vistula Valley	Całowanie Marsh	109	19	An important regional site for Montagu's harrier and corncrake, migration stopover for big groups of grey lag and bean geese
	Vistula Valley	300	22	Winter refuge for wetland species; up to 20 000 individuals
Warsaw Valley	Kampinos Forest	225	58	Important (national level) nesting area for black stork, spotted crane and corncrake
	Confluence of Wkra, around Pomiechówek	60	No data	Important nesting area for corncrake and black-tailed godwit; significant migration stopover point
Vistula Spit	Sobieszewo Island	300	36	The most important site for Sandwich tern; nearly 100% of the national population
	Vistula Lagoon	230	27	One of the biggest breeding colonies of cormorants in Europe (up to 11500 pairs)
Otmuchów Depression	Nysa Lake	200	15	Marsh sandpiper observed during migration
	Otmuchów Lake	215	27	Winter refuge for up to 3000 bean and white-fronted geese
Rożnów Foothills	Czchów Lake	160	No data	Species of natural river valleys, eg. kingfisher, common sandpiper; grey gull, Caspian gull; white-tailed eagle
	Rożnów Lake	180	No data	Species of natural river valleys, eg. kingfisher, common sandpiper; grey gull, Caspian gull

Source: author; regions from J. KONDRACKI (2000); ornithological data: Natura 2000 database, T. WILK *et al.* 2010, B. MRÓZ (2006).

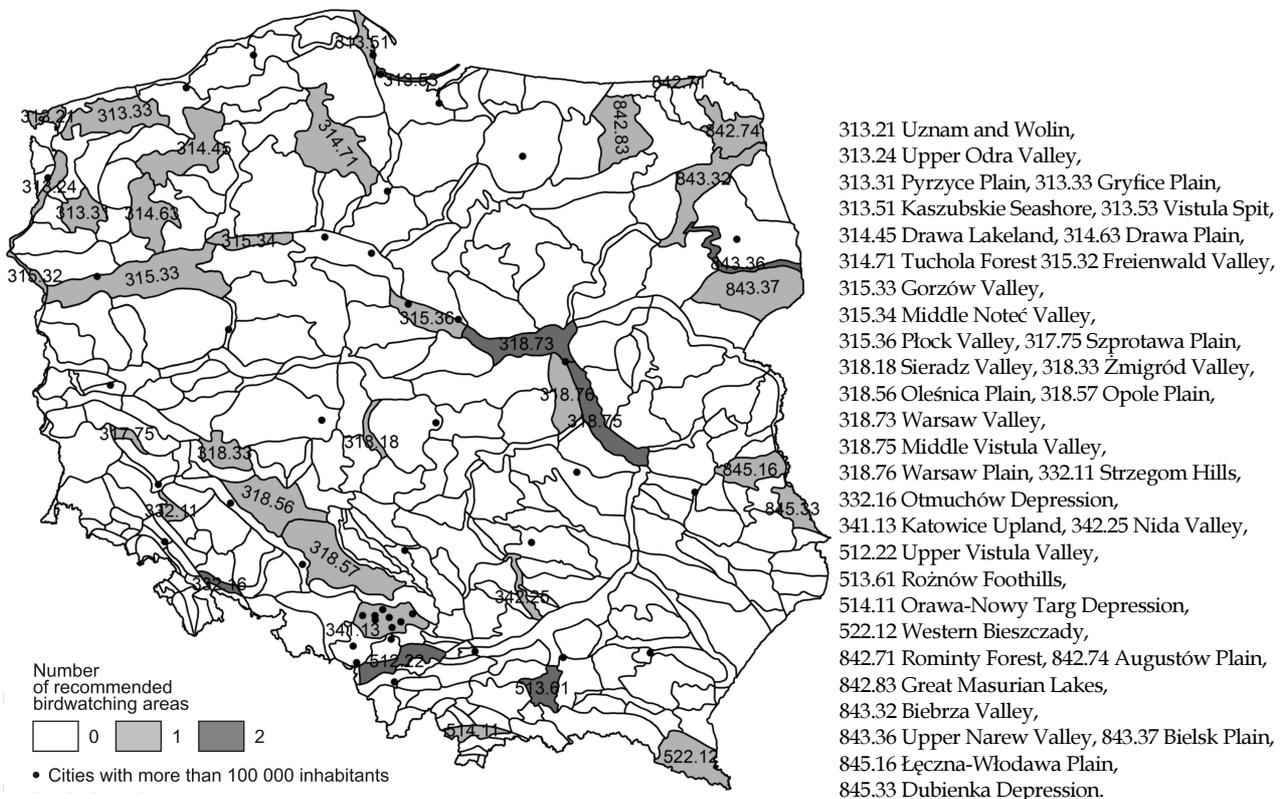


Fig. 2. Regional attractiveness for ornithological tourism (regions by J. KONDRACKI 2000)

Source: author

(75%) of them are protected, mostly as Natura 2000 nature reserves. 25% are small and close to major cities, or are artificial reservoirs.

The spatial distribution of areas considered attractive for bird-watching has been analyzed using the survey data with natural regions (KONDRACKI (2000) – meso-regional level) being used as reference units. This regional division reflects the natural diversity at national level and has served as reference in tourism research (BARTKOWSKI 1986, KISTOWSKI & ŚLESZYŃSKI 2010). The number of sites indicated by respondents as interesting has been recognized as an attractiveness indicator. The attractive areas are dispersed throughout the country (Fig 2.), reflecting the spatial diversity of natural regions including a high number of wetlands (including large river valleys). Table 1 lists the regions for which more than one bird-watching area was identified. It should be noticed that many of them are relatively close to big cities as accessibility is probably the second most important factor (after natural value) of judging the attractiveness of bird-watching areas.

7. THE ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACT OF BIRD-WATCHING

Bird-watchers are environmentally conscious and their environmental sensitivity is further developed thanks to their hobby. The respondents are aware of their impact on wildlife but they try to minimize it. Trampling, littering and noise has been mentioned as the most common negative impacts.

It should be underlined that bird-watching is often transformed from leisure to serious activity for the protection of birds and their habitats. Birdwatchers take part in a wide spectrum of environmental action and thanks to their passion they help to protect migration, nesting and rearing sites as well as natural vegetation. Bird-watchers' activities can be divided in two main groups:

- monitoring of birds (counting, ringing, inventory of nesting);
- protective actions (looking after valuable bird areas, maintenance of nesting sites – for example hay making).

As a result of this, bird-watchers attempt to keep the environmental quality of visited areas high.

However, some threats are associated with mass ornithological tourism. Tourism pressure on local environmental conditions can threaten valuable ecosystems that deserve protection (POSKROBKO 2005). Large groups of tourists fascinated with landscape beauty and wanting to see a new bird may unconsciously

destroy bird habitats (ANDERWALD 2007). These threats could be significantly limited by appropriate management of observation areas.

8. TOURISM INFRASTRUCTURE FOR ORNITHOLOGICAL TOURISM

A properly located and designed infrastructure can increase birdwatchers' satisfaction and at the same time lower their environmental pressure. Sometimes its existence is the basic condition that makes bird-watching possible.

The most numerous and useful are watchtowers and platforms (Foto 1.). The towers are usually as much as several meters high while platforms are lower. Helpful in wetlands, they are also protection against trampling while they are often situated in open fields or at a forest border. Inside there are benches that make observation more comfortable.

Hides and walls also play an important role in bird-watching. Hides are usually enclosed and small, embedded in the landscape, from which bird-watchers can observe (responding to their needs), but at the same time limiting disturbance. Hides are equipped with benches and tables displaying the species that can be seen. Apart from permanent elements of tourism infrastructure such as hides home-built constructions exist as well.



Photo 1. Watchtower on the educational trail 'Bird Paradise', Sobieszewo Island (Photo by M. Kordowska)

Observation walls separate bird-watchers and birds, but they have no roof nor place to sit. They are quite popular abroad, for example in Spain, but the first in Poland was constructed in 2012 in the valley of River Barycz (*Nasza Barycz – blisko przyrody* website).

Rental services are also a part of the accompanying base for ornithological tourism, for instance boat or bike hire, and can additionally offer tents, binoculars, waders and other equipment (e.g. portable shelters). In Poland rental services based on bird-watching are almost non-existent while the survey revealed that interest in such an offer is moderate – 38% of respondents considered it necessary. However, one respondent recognized that such services could help to popularize bird-watching. Many people, especially the young, will be happy to gain new experience but they cannot invest in expensive equipment.

An important element of tourist infrastructure is transport. Bird-watchers prefer using cars to reach an observation area as its dimensions and weight allow it to move freely. Passengers form a small group who can be flexible with time while another advantage is that some bulky equipment can be stored in the car. This results in the necessity of providing an adequate number of parking places in the vicinity of bird-watching areas.

Ornithological educational trails are very useful for beginners. They can partly or completely double as tourist trails, or they can be marked separately. The trails are equipped with boards giving information on length, number of stops and level of difficulty, often a map is provided. For some trails dedicated guides are published; for example 'The Bird Trail' in Ujście Warty National Park or the educational trails in the Beka reserve (MARCZEWSKI & BŁASZKOWSKA, no publication date).



Photo 2. The board encourages to attempt first observations. Waterfront of Drwęckie Lake, Ostróda (Photo by S. Kulczyk)

Information boards and signposts are placed alongside trails with information on interesting sites often placed there (e.g. watchtowers or hides). A code of conduct and basic information on flora and fauna are often displayed which are helpful for tourists who do not have a map of the visited area or are not able to

name bird species. The boards can encourage ornithological observations from passers-by (Photo 2.). However, their number and dimension should not have a negative aesthetic influence or interfere with contact with nature.

The technical level of the transport and information infrastructure of Polish wetlands has been assessed as moderate to poor (70% of answers) while 30% perceive it as good or very good. Signposts and information boards are the most highly. Existing viewing platforms and watchtowers were assessed as moderate while hides were rated lower. This is probably caused by their scarcity and uneven distribution, limited mainly to highly protected areas. The technical state is poor because of the material used for construction and the lack of funds for renovation.

9. CONCLUSIONS

Ornithological tourism in Poland is increasing dynamically, but in comparison to the UK or USA it is still in an early stage of development. This is demonstrated by the relatively small level of the commercial offer, compared to the popularity of ornithological trips and other events organized by clubs such as the Polish Society for the Protection of Birds and similar local organizations which are attracting growing support.

Polish bird-watchers are relatively young and well educated which makes them opinion leaders and suggests further development of this form of tourism. This will take place in a variety of areas and according to a variety of interests.

Two types of bird-watching area can be distinguished based on the survey. The first are unique natural areas, usually highly protected and widely recognized as worth a visit (for example Biebrza National Park and Ujście Warty National Park). They are well prepared for environmental tourism and frequently visited, even if they are in remote locations. The second are areas located near the homes of birdwatchers irrespective of their natural value, infrastructure and level of protection. The key to their popularity is easy access. However, if this feature is accompanied by a high natural value, their popularity can extend beyond the local area (e.g. Sobieszewo Island near Gdańsk, or Całowanie Marsh near Warsaw).

Little research has been undertaken into ornithological tourism in Poland and mainly focusing on natural values which are best recognized and managed within highly protected areas, mainly in national parks. The conducted research shows that beside this demand is the most important factor for

bird-watching development. The majority of bird-watchers live in big cities and have to fit their hobby around daily duties. This corresponds to trends from other countries (e.g. USA – WEIDENSAUL 2007). More detailed recognition of this would help to bring interests and environmental protection requirements together.

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Justyna Mokras-Grabowska

University of Łódź

Institute of Urban Geography and Tourism Studies

Department of Leisure and Qualified Tourism

justyna.mokras_grabowska@op.pl

ART-TOURISM SPACE IN ŁÓDŹ: THE EXAMPLE OF THE URBAN FORMS GALLERY

Abstract: Łódź, as a city of huge post-industrial and modern art potential, has become in recent years a unique Polish tourism destination whose urban fabric constitutes a perfect background for street art. Examples are the murals of the Urban Forms Gallery (large format artworks) which contribute to revitalisation as well as the creation of new tourism assets to form a new tourism space: art-tourism space. The paper describes both the process of creating this space as well as its distinctive features.

Key words: tourism space, art-tourism space, street art, murals of the Urban Forms Gallery in Łódź.

1. INTRODUCTION

In contemporary tourism, one remarkable phenomenon is the continuously expanding spectrum of new assets functioning as objects of tourism interest. This includes city offers, particularly those seeking new ways of economically activating a city after the collapse of industry. After their urban status has been reduced and degradation has progressed they are perceived as unattractive, neglected and face a number of social and economic problems. They are often regarded as places not worth any tourism interest and often require the creation of new tourism attractions (KACZMAREK 2001, p. 32).

It may be concluded that until the 1990s, concerning tourism, cities in Poland were mainly perceived in recreation, cognitive and pilgrimage terms (LISZEWSKI 2008, p. 29). Along with the growth of a market economy, new ways of economically activating cities have occurred. A new tourism landscape is being created and new geographical spaces are incorporated for tourism purposes, connected with a new tourism trend: the search for new experiences (STASIAK 2013, p. 66).

Łódź is such a city – a place with a specific tourism potential associated with its post-industrial character. 19th c. textile industrial development has left its mark on the cultural landscape of the city and has become its symbol. Industrial complexes with their red-brick factories are a dominant feature and constitute a significant tourism asset both before and after re-

talisation (e.g. *'Manufaktura'* shopping mall) distinguishing it from other Polish cities.

Activities connected with street art, contemporary art, creative industries¹ and so-called 'off-culture'² perfectly fit into its post-industrial sphere and constitute an alternative to mainstream culture.

Łódź is in fact a city of modern art – the Łódź avant-garde flourished here in interwar period, mainly due to such great revolutionary artists as Władysław Strzemiński and Katarzyna Kobro who created an avant-garde image of the city (*Strategia zarządzania marką...*).

Łódź is a city looking for new trends – the first neo-avant-garde exhibition 'Construction under process' took place in 1980 in Łódź and it continues as the interdisciplinary, contemporary art exhibition 'Łódź Biennale'.

Łódź is finally a city of murals (large format artworks). Urban Forms Foundation (set up in 2009) promotes independent artistic initiatives, of which the most important and remarkable is the Urban Forms Gallery, an exhibition of street art set in an urban space.

All these activities, in association with the post-industrial, urban fabric of the city, mean that Łódź is a place of creative exploration, a distinctive Polish tourism destination, in which the creation of a new urban space is currently being experienced. Art-

tourism space being understood here as both a contemporary and modern art space.

This article refers only to a selected area of modern art; to the street art activities of the Urban Forms Foundation known as the Urban Forms Gallery (a gallery of large format artworks, murals).

2. STREET ART – SOME BASIC TERMS

Reflections on the development of a new urban space (art-tourism space) should begin with the presentation of some important definitions. It should be emphasised too that street art does not appear in the geography of tourism studies, including that connected with tourism space. Street art is usually recognized as an art, in terms of new aesthetics and dialogue in an urban space (NIŻYŃSKA 2011, STĘPIEŃ 2010).

Street art has its roots in graffiti. In former times a graffiti meant a pattern scratched onto a surface (NIŻYŃSKA 2011, p. 67). The history of graffiti in Poland includes anti-Russian inscriptions which appeared in Warsaw in the 19th c. During World War II graffiti meant descriptions on walls ridiculing the occupant. Anti-communist opposition activities in Poland had a similar context (especially in the 80s). One early major initiative in the field of street art was the so-called 'Orange Alternative' in Wrocław, during which a figure of a dwarf was added to anti-communist slogans on the sides of buildings. The 'Orange Alternative' consisted of a series of street art activities such as happenings and performances in which the most important element was a surrealism breaking the rules of the communist system.

While graffiti is the marking of the presence of its producer in a public space, not communicating an idea and not having high artistic value or aesthetic, street art is much more advanced and operates within a number of forms and ideas (NIŻYŃSKA 2011, p. 74). There is no single definition of street art – it is open to new projects and ideas. Visual and performance street art can be singled out.

Visual street art operates with such techniques as templates³, stickers⁴, cut-outs⁵ and murals⁶.

Mural is a word of Spanish origin meaning decorative wall painting (STĘPIEŃ 2010, p. 5) and its origins date back to the 1920s and 30s when it gained particular fame in Latin America. The first mural artists included David Alfaro Siqueiros, Jose Clemente Orozco and Diego Riviera.

Performance street art, in turn, means activities in a public sphere. An example are flash mobs aiming at involving as many random people as possible to do the same, absurd, surprising activity in an urban space.

The essence of street art is a public space in which the ideas and opinions of artists are being expressed. Moreover, the creation of the space takes place, including its ability to renew and transform unattractive, degraded landscapes. It is because of these, in old, mature, and new tourism spaces, as well in non-tourism space, that restructuring processes take place which lead to change in the public sphere (WŁODARCZYK 2011, p. 62).

In a review of concepts associated with the creation of large format artworks in Łódź, the term 'revitalization' is crucial. In analysing its etymology ('re' - again, 'vitalis' - giving life) it can be seen that creating murals is a kind of revitalization.

As DOMAŃSKI claims (2010, p.23) revitalization is a process of creation in the public sphere. It is also a kind of reaction to degradation (technical, social and economic).

Although the most important role of revitalization is to equip an area with new functions it also means its revival (after collapse, crisis, degradation) and adding new value (KACZMAREK 2001, p. 17). These qualitative changes lead to a rise in the status and prestige of urban space – a new image of the city is created.

For such activities, however, it seems appropriate to use other terms: regeneration, revival, renewal; which are often used interchangeably in the English literature. These terms better reflect the process of restoring the former splendour of neglected sites and give them a new quality (but not function). According to S. KACZMAREK (2001, p. 32) the revitalization process includes that of its image.

Areas formerly perceived as unattractive and dangerous, after renewal start to be distinguished as a positive element in the city and thus become a symbol of modernity, creativity and development, enriching the city with a new aesthetic (KACZMAREK 2001, p. 36). The quality and meaning of its space changes; it becomes perceived differently by both locals and tourists.

3. MURALS IN ŁÓDŹ: A NEW ELEMENT IN AN URBAN SPACE

The first murals in Łódź were created in communist times and were a kind of huge advertisement confirming the presence of an enterprise. They were also a kind of symbol for artists. In the production of large format artworks in Łódź, an important part of their meaning was to cover the demolition of the entire frontage of streets in particular areas in the very centre of the city – Zachodnia-Kościuszki and Piłsudskiego-Mickiewicza. Elevations of buildings were revealed and enterprises could present their advertisements (in

the form of large became a way of disguising the neglected walls of downtown tenement houses). The most famous artist in this field in Łódź was Andrzej Feliks Szumigaj who created murals inspired by op-art in compositions using multiple, multi-coloured squares (Photos 1 & 2). The group Arabski-Jaeschke-Tranda, in turn, elaborated a style based on a form of lozenge. Other famous artists connected with murals were Zdzisław Fryczka, Zbigniew Łopata, Bogumił Łukaszewski and Roman Szybalski (STĘPIEŃ 2010, pp. 17-19).



Source: www.murale.mnc.pl



Source: www.lodzdesign.com

Photos 1 & 2. Murals by Andrzej Feliks Szumigaj in Łódź

After the collapse of communism in 1989, art projects became more commercial. Most of the original murals were painted over but after a few years were revealed once more as a result of the new paint flaking away. Murals created in those times had a very simplified, computer-designed form (logo and inscription).

The opening of the Museum of Art in the 'Manufaktura' shopping mall in 2008 marked a new beginning for murals in Łódź and the first city tour of the murals in Łódź was organized. Interest in street art was gradually increasing. Amateur artists began to be recognized and gained an increasing audience. The allegory of the city on 152 Piotrkowska St created by Design Futura Group in 2001 was the first large scale street art project in Łódź although significantly differing from the other murals created at that time (Photo 3).



Photo 3. Mural at 152 Piotrkowska St, Łódź
Source: www.panoramio.com

Currently the post-industrial urban space in Łódź constitutes a perfect background for street art activities. The major achievements in this area have been through the Urban Forms Foundation which promotes unique cultural activities devoted to the community in Łódź (social revitalization). The main mission of the Foundation is to saturate the urban fabric with creative modern art to improve the city's image by giving it a new and original character. The aim is therefore to create an artistic urban asset.

The tool used in its mission is the large scale artwork created on the walls of downtown tenement houses and on the elevations of apartment blocks on housing estates. As a result of this Urban Forms Gallery is being created with the project promoting 'living' culture and art. The Gallery is a permanent exhibition of street art created in the urban sphere of Łódź which currently consists of over 30 large format artworks which make up a public art trail.

The project is co-financed by the Town Hall of Łódź under the patronage of the mayor. Over the next few years the project will be extended by further urban artworks (sculpture, installations etc).

An important issue for the project is the high artistic value of the murals created. Their artists are outstanding representatives of large format artworks from around the world presenting a diverse range of

artistic concepts. The most important include GEMEOS (Brazil), ARYZ (Spain), REMED (France), INTI (Chile), SAT ONE (Germany), SHIDA (Australia) and Polish artists: ETAM CREW, M-CITY, LUMP.

The Urban Forms Foundation aims at a long lasting change to the aesthetic of the city of Łódź and associating it with innovative art placed in public space. This 'live gallery' of modern art constitutes a symbol for the city - the activities are not only conceptual, but also clear and understandable for its audience. The present research carried out in 2014 evaluated opinions about the creation of murals in the public sphere and produced interesting results (*Dialogi wokół murali...* 2014). There is a widespread belief that 'murals are beautifying and brightening the streets and reviving neglected areas'. Vivid colour is seen as dominant, therefore, not artistic content and message - many respondents could not describe the theme of a mural. The need for realistic depictions, comprehensible to their audience, was pointed out ('positive content and emotions').

4. ART-TOURISM SPACE IN ŁÓDŹ: THE EXAMPLE OF THE URBAN FORMS GALLERY

As emphasised above, a characteristic feature of modern tourism is the constantly growing spectrum of new assets becoming tourism attractions (LISZEWSKI 1999) contributing to the creation of a new landscape for the city. Such a creative tourism destination gives tourists an opportunity to interact in an urban space. It allows new products to be introduced in a relatively short period of time, to give a place a competitive advantage (NOWACKI 2011, p. 20).

Bearing in mind that tourism is based on a continuous process of creation its potential is constantly evolving (NOWACKI 2011, p. 21). Such activities may therefore complement tourism products, especially in places poor in tourism resources. The essence here is to allow visitors to create their own narrative based on imagination. The formation of large format artworks gives such opportunities. In urban areas a new tourism space has appeared; a symbol of modernity, fashion, enriching the city materially and raising its status. It covers over the negative, post-industrial landscape of the city, its poverty, negligence and unattractiveness (KRONENBERG 2012, p. 24).

It is worth mentioning that with the passage of time and increased community awareness, the artistic value of post-industrial urban space develops alongside various creative activities (including street art).

The formation of a new tourism space fits into the concept of the experience economy of Pine & Gilmore

who discuss selling emotions and experiences (STASIAK 2013, p. 65). This phenomenon is associated with the exploration of new places and opportunities for recreation to provide the participants with new experience. Thus, areas that until recently did not arouse much tourism interest, have become a tourism destination. Travelling beyond the exploration of 'traditional attractions', is defined as 'tourism-off-the-beaten-track'. For art-tourism space, the scenery of destroyed buildings and the atmosphere of time passing have crucial meanings (STASIAK 2013, p. 69), especially connected with a post-industrial landscape, giving an excellent opportunity to explore unsightly districts of the city.

A new urban aesthetic is being created. In post-industrial cities, in terms of industrial heritage, a kind of 'techno-aesthetic' appears (KRONENBERG 2012). It should be emphasised, however, that it requires a mature audience bringing with it a fresh perspective and also the desire to build something new - something non-sterile, of a new quality often avant-garde and even abstract in message.

The audience has its own sensitivity, aesthetic, set of impressions and experience, subjective identity, self-awareness and knowledge. Important background conditions are lighting, sound, smell and even who you are with (AFFELT 2009, p. 36).

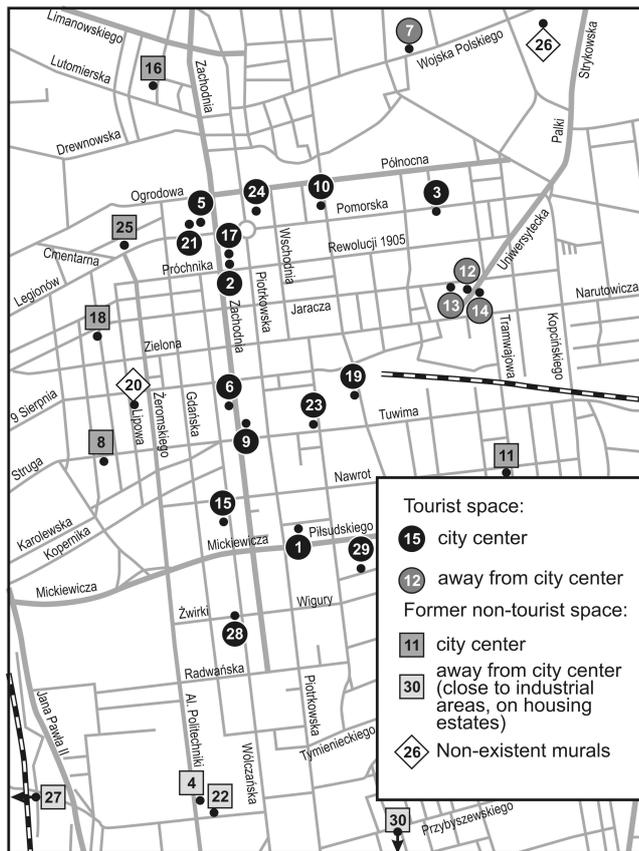
Art-tourism space is a part of an urban tourism space which is distinguished from general urban space. This, in turn, is a distinctive type of geographical space characterized by a specific organization, function, physiognomy and legal status (LISZEWSKI 1999, p. 51-52).

Under certain conditions of city development, urban space is considered interesting in terms of cognitive tourism and recreation. This leads to the formation of an urban tourism space (LISZEWSKI 1999, p. 54) whose basic criterion is the presence of tourism.

In this paper it is important to distinguish, within the limits of tourism space, two types of previously non-tourism space: unknown space (lack of information limits the tourists) and unwanted space (rejected as it is not recognized as touristically valuable) (WŁODARCZYK 2009, p. 93-94).

Considering the mural trail, the artworks are created on the walls of neglected downtown tenement houses or on the elevations of apartment blocks, and before these sites had not constituted a tourism asset. The appearance of large format artwork resulted in an influx of tourists, both individual and in groups (organized by the Urban Forms Foundation). Therefore the former non-tourism urban space has been transformed into a tourism space.

According to the location of murals within the urban fabric, the art-tourism space of the Urban Forms Gallery in Łódź can be divided into four types (Fig. 1):



Key: 1 – 5 Roosevelta St (OS GEMEOS/ARYZ), 2 – 11 Próchnika St (REMEDI), 3 – 67 Pomorska St (ARYZ), 4 – 16 Politechniki St (ARYZ), 5 – 19 Legionów St (M-CITY), 6 – 27 Kościuszki St (SAT ONE/ETAM CREW), 7 – 82 Wojska Polskiego St (SHIDA), 8 – 48 Pułku Strzelców Kaniowskich St (INTI), 9 – 32 Kościuszki St (KENOR), 10 – 28 Pomorska St (KENOR), 11 – 81 Nawrot St (ETAM CREW), 12 – 12 Uniwersytecka St (SAINER), 13 – 59 Jaracza St (GREGOR), 14 – 3 Uniwersytecka St (ETAM CREW), 15 – 109 Wólczajska St (LUMP), 16 – 2/4 Rybna St (OTECKI), 17 – 9 Próchnika St (SEPE), 18 – 25 Pogonowskiego St (MASSMIX), 19 – 73 Kilińskiego St (KRIK), 20 – 44 Lipowa St (no longer existing) (GREGOR/CIACH CIACH), 21 – 27 Legionów St (PENER), 22 – 16 Politechniki St (ETAM CREW), 23 – 5 Nowomiejska St (ROA), 24 – 16 Tuwima St (M-CITY), 25 – 57 Legionów St (TONE), 26 – Academy of Fine Arts (GREGOR), 29 – ‘Łódź Gallery’ shopping mall (PROEMBRION), 30 – 52 Rzgowska St (3TTMAN)

Fig. 1. Location of murals in the Urban Forms Gallery in Łódź by tourism type (as at August 2014)

Source: own work based on www.urbanforms.org

- tourism space in the city centre,
- tourism space located away from the city centre, but important due to significant tourism assets,
- former non-tourism space situated in the city centre,
- former non-tourism space situated away from the city centre, close to industrial areas and on housing estates.

Murals located in the city centre tourism space in Łódź include 5 Nowomiejska St (Photo 4), 5 Roosevelta St (Photo 5), 9 & 11 Próchnika St, 32 Kościuszki St, 109 & 159 Wólczajska St. The murals are located close to Piotrkowska St (main tourism attraction in Łódź) and although they are not directly visible, they constitute a unique and easily accessible tourism offer or the addition to the basic. Moreover, the mural at 5 Roosevelta St also has additional artistic value – near to the OFF Piotrkowska Centre (connected with alternative activities, ‘off-culture’ and modern art)⁷.

An interesting group of murals are those in the former non-tourism spaces in the city centre including such examples as 67 Pomorska St, 25 Pogonowskiego St (Photo 6) and 81 Nawrot St (Photo 7). Their appearance on the walls of downtown tenement houses has resulted in raising the quality and tourism attractive-ness of a previously neglected area.

Another group of murals is situated away from the city centre, but close to significant tourism assets (thus also in the tourism space of Łódź). An example is the mural in 82 Wojska Polskiego St (Photo 8), which is situated in a former Łódź Ghetto area, close to the Jewish Cemetery in Bracka St, Survivors Park and a museum exhibition about the ‘gypsy camp’ in the Łódź Ghetto. Therefore it can be stated that although the tenement house is located in a neglected part of the city, the appearance of the mural has raised its aesthetic value, rank and prestige and has thus enriched tourism space.



Photo 4. Mural at 5 Nowomiejska St, Łódź

Source: www.urbanforms.org



Photo 5. Mural at 5 Roosevelta St, Łódź

Source: www.urbanforms.org



Photo 6. Mural at 25 Pogonowskiego St, Łódź
Source: www.urbanforms.org



Photo 7. Mural at 81 Nawrot St, Łódź
Source: www.urbanforms.org



Photo 8. Mural at 82 Wojska Polskiego St, Łódź
Source: www.urbanforms.org



Photo 9. Mural at 12 Uniwersytecka St, Łódź
Source: www.urbanforms.org



Photo 10. Mural at 16 Politechniki St, Łódź
Source: www.urbanforms.org



Photo 11. Mural at 80 Wyszyńskiego St, Łódź
Source: www.urbanforms.org

An interesting example of the creation of a new, attractive place in Łódź by an accumulation of murals is 3 & 12 Uniwersytecka St (Photo 9) and the mural in 59 Jaracza St situated close by. According to the opinion of local residents they are identified with each other and often mentioned together.

Another example of former non-tourism space (unknown, unwanted) is one located away from the city centre, close to industrial areas (mural at 16 Politechniki St, Photo 10) and on housing estates. The mural at 80 Wyszyńskiego St (wall of an apartment block) constitutes an excellent example of enlarging the

tourism space of the city (Photo 11). Housing estates from the 1980s have not until now been a place of tourism interest.

All murals are an element of art-tourism space, a new one for Łódź, which can be extended by other assets and activities connected with street art. An example is 'art-in-the-meantime' – using the pavements in the front of six bus stops.

They were created by graduates of the Łódź Academy of Fine Arts and are an excellent example of activities that take place both in tourism space (e.g. Kilińskiego/Tuwima bus stop) as well as in non-tourism space which, with tourists, is transformed into tourism space (e.g. Łódź Academy of Fine Arts/Palki bus stop).

5. CHARACTERISTIC FEATURES OF ART – TOURISM SPACE IN ŁÓDŹ: URBAN FORMS GALLERY

Five types of tourism space can be singled out: penetration, exploration, assimilation, colonization and urbanization (LISZEWSKI 1995, pp. 87-103). Three of them appear in art-tourism space:

- tourism exploration space which results from an individual discovering of the city. Tourists not satisfied with sites recommended in guidebooks, seek something interesting, original and unknown. This kind of tourism space is most remarkable for activities connected with modern art (also with street art), with individual tourism exploration and interpretation, as well as with the specific sensitivity of its audience;
- tourism penetration space, a part of cognitive tourism, usually by mass tourists. An important 'convenience' here is tourism infrastructure such as trails, museums and galleries (e.g. guided tours organized along the Trail of Murals in Łódź);
- tourism assimilation space which means mutual contacts between artists (organizers of the space) and tourists. It may refer to observations of artists at work, as well as to participation in street art activities (e.g. performances).

There are different types of comprehension level for art-tourism space and four can be singled out (WŁODARCZYK 2009, p. 80).

The first and the most important is 'real space', actually experienced, a sum of places connected with art and visited by tourists.

The second is perceptual space (also called mental-perceptual space), a kind of memorized space. It is usually incomplete and hierarchical in terms of mean-

ing and value. In the case of modern art, especially large format artworks in an urban space, it is a set of ideas about them. Some experiences are rejected by tourists who over-simplify them and thus distort the art form.

The next is a virtual space, a kind of unreal space arising on the basis of secondary sources. It is not directly experienced, and sometimes faked or blurred. In the case of art-tourism it is well developed due mainly to colourful photos in guidebooks, brochures or on websites. Secondary sources present, however, a strongly idealised image – full of colours and strong visual stimuli.

The last kind is mental space, symbolic, resulting from consciousness, mind, thoughts and feelings and a derivative of the other three. It is also an expression of the tourist's system of values on the basis of strong associations, e.g. 'Łódź - city of murals', 'Łódź - city of contemporary art' etc.

6. SUMMARY

The development of new tourism spaces results in new motivations for tourists who, apart from 'traditional sightseeing', increasingly want to know areas 'off-the-beaten-track' and explore the urban fabric in a new way. Art-tourism space in Łódź is an expression of new activities connected with modern art including in particular the Urban Forms Foundation project of a 'live gallery' of murals. Their perfect background is the post-industrial landscape of the city and its traditions of the avant-garde, dating back to the interwar period. This space, singled out from general tourism space, colonises new areas, perceived previously as not attractive. Through the renovation of the neglected walls of tenement houses or through the appearance of murals on the elevations of apartment blocks on housing estates, tourism space expands.

Tourism space, as discussed in the paper, is not an easy space. Although murals are perceived mainly through their colour composition, interpretation requires mental effort, the engagement of the audience and a sharpening of the aesthetic senses.

FOOTNOTES

¹ A new sector of the economy based on innovative activities in the field of art, media and design. Among creative industries: film, video, architecture, music, performing arts, craft and design can be singled out (www.kreatywna.lodz.pl).

² Independent, alternative culture.

³ Patterns are cut, then sprayed and placed on the walls of buildings.

⁴ Handmade stickers.

⁵ Pieces of paper cut into appropriate shapes stuck on the walls.

⁶ Large format artworks on the walls of buildings.

⁷ www.offpiotrkowska.com.

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Sławomir Sobotka

Department of Landscape Architecture and Agri-tourism,
University of Warmia and Mazury in Olsztyn
slaw116@wp.pl

A PROPOSAL FOR A TOURISM REGIONALIZATION OF POLAND BASED ON THE HIGHEST LEVELS OF TOURISM IN A REGION

Abstract: The paper presents a brief review of twenty proposals for tourism regionalization of either a part of or the whole of Poland (or attempts to delimit the most attractive areas in terms of leisure), formulated between 1938 and 2012. It also analyses selected definitions of tourism regions and discusses the indicators which are proposed for the delimitation of tourism regions. Moreover, the paper attempts to indicate areas with the highest levels of tourism, in part modelled on Maria Mileska (1908-1988). It includes academic (precise) criteria for the designation of tourism regions. Some researchers' comment that Mileska's work is (partially) outmoded not so much from the methods employed as in the number of tourism regions and the areas covered. This should be regarded as understandable given that this regionalization was formulated at the beginning of the 1960s. Another important issue raised is the most recent tourism regionalization of Poland as prepared by Durydiwka.

Key words: tourism regions, tourism regionalization, criteria for the designation of tourism regions, tourism function indicators

1. INTRODUCTION

Delimitation of tourism regions is an important issue in contemporary tourism geography. The issue, although relatively demanding, is of great theoretical and practical importance, however no single and valid definition of a tourism region has been offered. This is confirmed by J. POTOCKI (2009) who states that even though the term 'tourism region' is indeed often used, it raises numerous doubts as to its nature and characteristics.

As regards the source literature, the vast majority of authors consider a tourism region to be an objectively existing category: M. ORŁOWICZ (1938), M.I. MILESKA (1963), A. BAJCAR (1969), Z. FILIPOWICZ (1970), J. WARSZYŃSKA & A. JACKOWSKI (1978), W. DEJA (1982), Z. KRUCZEK (2002), S. LISZEWSKI (2009).

2. LITERATURE OVERVIEW

A tourism region may be considered within three contexts (Mazurski 2009):

- a region of tourism development (investment),
- a region of tourism activity,
- a region of tourism attractiveness.

Numerous (more or less precise) definitions of a tourism region have been formulated. M.I. MILESKA (1963) defines a tourism region as an area of high tourism value, within which tourism is concentrated. In turn, according to K. MAZURSKI (2009), a tourism region is a part of space where tourism occurs, or is likely to. The most comprehensive definitions of a tourism region are offered by the following authors: J. WARSZYŃSKA & A. JACKOWSKI (1978), A. KORNAK & A. RAPACZ (2001) and S. LISZEWSKI (2002).

J. WARSZYŃSKA & A. JACKOWSKI (1978) conclude that a tourism region is an area with tourism functions on the basis of certain uniformity of features of the geographical environment and internal service links. It comprises areas of high tourism value with a well-developed tourism infrastructure and transport accessibility. A. KORNAK & A. RAPACZ (2001) mention tourism value, transport network and tourism development.

In turn, S. LISZEWSKI (2002) states that a tourism region is an area attractive to tourism, particularly natural, with appropriate management within which tourism activities are undertaken. Other important features are internal consistency and relation, the level of which delimits a region's boundaries.

Another important (and controversial) issue is whether a tourism region should be considered within geographical areas or administrative units.

M. Durydiwka reports that regions using local administrative boundaries is consistent with an analytical concept of a region. Regionalization is a method of classification in spatial terms, and an analytical region is spatially generalized, not an actual system existing in reality (CHOJNICKI 1996).

Another element is which characteristics should be taken into account when describing the characteristic features of a tourism region. In the source literature, the following are predominant:

- available accommodation (WYSOCKA 1975, DRZEWIECKI 1980, BIDERMAN 1981, JACKOWSKI 1981, MATCZAK & SULIBORSKI 1984, WARSZYŃSKA 1985, FARACIK 2006, DEREK 2008);
- volume of tourists (JACKOWSKI 1981, MATCZAK 1982, WARSZYŃSKA 1985, FISCHBACH 1986, LISZEWSKI 1987, FARACIK 2006, DEREK 2008).

To a lesser extent, the following are also referred to:

- level of employment in tourism services or income earned from tourism (JACKOWSKI 1971, DRZEWIECKI 1980, SWIANIEWICZ 1989, DEREK 2005);
- the size of the area and how it is used (MATCZAK 1982, MATCZAK & SULIBORSKI 1984).

Most of the twenty tourism regionalizations formulated in the 20th and 21st centuries in Poland are actually devoid of academic justification. This is due to the authors being driven by their own intuition (arbitrarily), and generally adopting their own (subjective) criteria unsupported by statistics.

These include the administrative boundaries of provinces (FILIPOWICZ 1970), value for tourism and development (BAJCAR, 1969, BAR & DOLIŃSKI 1970), the physiology of leisure (WYRZYKOWSKI 1975), an assessment of the geographical environment and its management (Tourism Development Plan for Poland, 1973), the type and significance of tourism functions (LEŚKO & KLEMENTOWSKI 1979), historical and administrative necessities, and 'tourismification' (DĘBSKI 1979), evaluation of value and an assessment of accommodation (BARTKOWSKI 1982), an analysis of the tourism product (D'LITTLE 1994), policies of Province Governors (Department of Physical Culture and Tourism 1994), incoming tourism (Institute of Tourism 1994), concentration of tourism (LIJEWSKI, MIKUŁOWSKI & WYRZYKOWSKI 1998), and the predominant type of tourism space, tourism function and the seasonal variability (LISZEWSKI 2009).

Tourism regions in these studies refer to areas which are too large, for instance provinces (FILIPOWICZ 1970, DĘBSKI 1979, KRUCZEK 2002), macro-regions (KRUCZEK & SACHA 1977, Institute of Tourism, 1994, LIJEWSKI, MIKUŁOWSKI & WYRZYKOWSKI, 1998, KRUCZEK

2002), or consideration in a historical perspective (BAR & DOLIŃSKI 1970, DĘBSKI 1979). In turn, S. LISZEWSKI (2009) identifies three types of tourism region: leisure and recreational (15), metropolitan (8) i.e. those associated with the 10 largest Polish cities, and heritage tourism regions (remaining regions).

These proposals could mean the entire or almost the entire area of Poland might be considered to be a single extensive tourism region. Such an approach seems inappropriate for two reasons. Firstly, Poland is characterized by a very uneven level of (or absence of) tourism infrastructure because tourism is spatially highly concentrated. Secondly, the vast majority of regionalization approaches fail to take natural environmental value into account.

The achievements of Polish tourism geography in tourism regionalization are significant, yet a modern, acceptable regionalization is still missing. Those based on academic criteria are the regionalizations proposed by M.I. MILESKA (1963) and M. DURYDIWKA (2012).

A comparison of selected tourism regionalization approaches allows a classification according to the purpose for which they were formulated, for example environmental protection, academic value, or spatial management. To some extent, the ultimate outcome of regionalization is also affected by its purpose (and, primarily, its presumptions).

3. THE TOURISM REGIONALIZATION OF POLAND ACCORDING TO M.I. MILESKA

In 1963, Maria Mileska carried out the first analytical tourism regionalization of Poland. The author relied on three elements: evaluation of value for tourism, tourism development (accommodation facilities), and the volume of tourism. She identified 21 leisure-and-tourism regions (Fig. 1 and Table 1), and 11 potential ones. The potential leisure-and-tourism regions included Olsztyński, Olecko-Rajgrodzki, Drawsko-Szczecinecki, Barlinecko-Myśliborski, Zbąszyński, Kruszwicko-Gnieźnieński, Obornicko-Wągrowiecki, Roztocze, Głucholański including Pokrzywna, Myślenicko-Limanowski, and Bieszczady Mountains.

Figure 1 also presents M.I. MILESKA'S (1963) classification, in terms of identified local government districts with 500 or more beds. Over the course of the last 50 years, the northern and southern parts of Poland have undergone some minor changes. Most local government districts are found in the regions identified by M.I. Mileska

In western Poland, new areas have emerged which may be considered new tourism regions.



Fig. 1. Leisure-and-tourism regions as identified by M.I. MILESKA (1963) against a backdrop of local government districts (with 500 or more beds)
Source: author

The leisure-and-tourism regions as identified by Mileska cover an area of 25,185 km² (8% of the total area of the country). Accordingly, based on her evaluation of the geographical environment, as much as 35% of the area of Poland has an attractive natural landscape. Taking into account the scoring scale, it seems that the author also included areas with an average tourism value. Regardless of the reference frame, areas attractive in natural terms have developed. Mileska also notes in her study: "Tourism-related capital expenditure in Poland coincides, generally, with the most attractive types of natural landscape (...). However, capital expenditure is uneven and disproportionate to the level of attractiveness". Moreover, some of the regions identified are characterized by a low level of capital expenditure. "In the Gorlicki area identified as a region, the levels of tourism and capital expenditure are very low, and therefore the area is hardly used" (MILESKA 1963, p. 106). The situation of the Rymanowski, Święto-

krzyski and Augustowsko-Suwalski regions is similar. The existence of the Brodnicki micro-region may provoke discussion as well.

In turn, her consideration of the tourism development of a region from the perspective of three forms of tourism: leisure-and-tourism, tourism-and-sightseeing, and adventure tourism, is not entirely accurate, since, as the author herself stresses, tourism-and-sightseeing has the widest range, because in addition to the natural environment, it also focuses on the cultural.

It is difficult to agree, however, with statements that this tourism regionalization is entirely outdated. Currently, however, it does require adjustment to the number, location and extent of tourism regions.

In view of the above, it seems that the level of tourism region development is most accurately described by accommodation, and associated levels of tourism development, expressed by the number of beds. In other classifications using additional data, the

Table 1. Leisure-and-tourism regions according to M.I. Mileska

Name of region	Area (km ²)
Szczeciński	470
Kołoński	550
Gdański	500
Suwalsko-augustowski	1 260
Wielkich Jezior Mazurskich	2 800
Ławsko-ostrowski	740
Brodnicki	180
Kościerzynsko-kartuski	3 200
Łagowski	980
Krakowsko-częstochowski	1 270
Świętokrzyski	1 900
Kazimiersko-nałęczowski	250
Żywiecki	2 400
Tatrzańsko-podhalański	600
Sądecki	1 100
Gorlicki	1 050
Rymanowski	1 300
Gorczański-lubański	600
Jeleniogórski	1 250
Wałbrzyski	820
Kłodzki	1 965
Suma	25 185

Source: author based on M.I. MILESKA (1963).

area of tourism regions increases and covers areas for which the level of tourism-related capital expenditure is lower (or zero). This is also true for tourism regionalization as prepared by Mileska. For example, the region of the Great Mazurian Lakes has an area of 2,800 km² but, according to Kondracki's physical regionalisation of Poland, the region has an area of just 1,732 km². In this example the area of the leisure-and-tourism region is overestimated by 38%, and it turns out that the area of 16 regions (excluding this one and poorly developed regions) is 12,087 km² (3.9% of the total area of Poland) – smaller by more the 50%. In view of this, it is also difficult to agree with part of the definition by Mazurski, quoted at the beginning of this section, according to which “a tourism region may be considered the physical space where tourism is likely to be found”.

4. TOURISM REGIONS ASSOCIATED WITH RURAL AREAS IN POLAND

In addition to the regionalization by M.I. Mileska (1963), it is worth becoming familiar with that of M. DURYDIWKA (2012). Using Z. ZIOŁO'S measure (1973, 1985), a figure of $Ft > 0.046$ was proposed in 1995 leading to the identification of 40 tourism regions, while in 2005 it was 34. It should be

emphasized that the measure has been adopted from industrial geography.

Out of 2,168 local government districts under analysis, in the first case there were 493 such districts of which 418 were found in the 40 regions. In the second case there were 476 of which 372 were found within 34 regions.

This regionalisation has several advantages. The most important is the use of a measure (consisting of five categories) which leads to the identification of tourism regions: number of beds per accommodation facility, number of beds per 1,000 inhabitants, number of year-round beds (%), numbers using accommodation per 1,000 inhabitants, and number of overnight stays per 1,000 inhabitants. The sixth category concerned the average duration (in days) of a tourist's stay. Thus, nine categories of tourism region (in terms of duration of tourist stays) were proposed, and this must be considered an original idea. A certain minimum for the designation of a tourism region (an area of three local government districts) was also used, moreover, the data for 1995 and 2005 show change over time.

It should be emphasized that over the relatively short period (1995-2005), the number of regions decreased by six. Furthermore, the number of regions where the area decreased was 16, while the areas of 13 regions increased.

According to M. DURYDIWKA (2012), the decreasing area of tourism regions, as related to rural areas reflects, on the one hand, a weakening of the tourism function (a drop in the number of accommodation facilities) in many local government districts, while on the other, a wider dispersion of those with at least an average level of the tourism function development.

Moreover, in the period mentioned, there was an increase in the number of districts characterized by shorter (1-3 days) tourist stays (from 41% to 55%) but a drop in those with longer (8 days and more) from 27.6% to 7.1%.

In view of this, the following question is still open: What is the minimum that shows that a given region may be considered a tourism region? Another issue is that all indicators (5) refer to one element i.e. accommodation facilities. However, this may be regarded as sufficient, as most of the previously cited authors have used it.

For example, in Warmińsko-Mazurskie province, of all tourism local government districts, the one rated highest in 2005 was that of Ostróda ($Ft > 0.4372$), while the lowest was Godkowo ($Ft > 0.0499$). The difference is nine-fold. In turn, at a national level, the highest rated was Mielno ($Ft > 2.7056$), compared to Godkowo, the difference is 54-fold.

The total area of the regions was, in 1995, 76,345.5 km², while in 2005, it was 73,257.7 km².

A minor drawback of the study is that it fails to include small towns (with up to 5 000 inhabitants) of a tourism nature. In terms of land use, they differ little from well-developed rural areas.

5. PROPOSAL FOR THE DESIGNATION OF REGIONS BASED ON THE HIGHEST LEVEL OF TOURISM

A study published by T. LIJEWSKI, B. MIKUŁOWSKI & J. WYRZYKOWSKI (2008) shows that in Poland there were 206 local government districts with at least 500 beds (as at 2005), including 78 that accounted for 8.3% of the national total in 2013.

It was proposed that local government districts in which the number of beds is at least 500 should be taken into account. At a national level, the variation between these districts (except for major cities) is from less than a hundred to 13,000 beds.

An additional prerequisite is the condition of the natural environment (developed forest areas, town beach), which would allow the development of accommodation. This is the reason for rejecting eight districts neighbouring Warsaw and six Gliwice, Katowice, Rybnik, Sosnowiec, Tychy and Zabrze) near Katowice as tourism regions. The following towns were not included in tourism regions either: Elk, Elbląg, Piotrków Trybunalski, Gniezno, Piła, Bełchatów, Puławy, Lublin, Zamość and Gorzów Wielkopolski.

189 local government districts were included. The criterion adopted (a threshold of 500 beds), despite its arbitrariness, seemed to be optimal and the difference between the 500-bed threshold and the greatest number of beds (i.e. 13,000) is 26-fold.

This allows a redistribution of tourism regions as proposed by M.I. Mileska. In addition an excessive fragmentation of tourism regions (by designating too large a large number) is thus avoided. Moreover, the most commonly applied Baretje-Defert indicator for



Fig. 2. Regions with the highest level of tourism (proposal)
Source: author

Table 2. Proposal concerning regions with the highest levels of tourism

No.	Name of tourism region	Number of districts	District names	Total area of districts (km ²)
1.	Koszalińsko-słupski	22	Darłowo*, Dziwnów, Kołobrzeg*, Mielno, Międzyzdroje, Postomino, Rewal, Świnoujście, Trzebiatów, Ustronie Morskie, Wolin, Jastarnia, Krokowa, Łeba, Puck, Ustka*, Wicko, Władysławowo	2 467.3
2.	Gdański	6	Gdańsk, Gdynia, Sopot, Stęzna, Krynica Morska, Sztutowo	793.5
3.	Wałecki	3	Czaplinek, Polczyn Zdrój, Złocieniec	904.1
4.	Kościerzynski	4	Kościerzyna, Stężyca, Sulęcyno, Karsin	771.0
5.	Chojnicki	6	Chojnice, Tuchola, Śliwice, Osie, Lubiewo, Koronowo	1 244.9
6.	Olsztyński	10	Barczewo, Purda, Pasym, Olsztyn, Gietrzwałd, Stawiguda, Ostróda*, Miłomłyn, Olsztyniek	2 220.5
7.	Wielkich Jezior Mazurskich	9	Giżycko*, Mikołajki, Mrągowo, Piecki, Ryn, Ruciane-Nida, Sorkwity, Węgorzewo	1 983.9
8.	Suwalski	5	Gołdap, Olecko, Suwałki, Płaska, Augustów	1 347.2
9.	Międzyrzecki	7	Drezdenko, Międzychód, Sieraków, Międzyrzecz, Pszczew, Łągów, Lubniewice	1 732.3
10.	Poznański	4	Poznań, Kórnik, Sęszew, Tarnowo Podgórne	725.0
11.	Gnieźnieński	3	Ślesin, Witkowo, Ostrowite	434.2
12.	Wolsztyński	4	Przemęt, Wijewo, Włoszakowice, Sława	741.2
13.	Milicki	3	Milicz, Przygodzice, Kobyla Góra	728.0
14.	Tomaszowski	4	Inowódz, Sulejów, Tomaszów Mazowiecki, Wolbórz	589.9
15.	Roztocze	3	Horyniec Zdrój, Susiec, Krasnobród	518.2
16.	Jeleniogórski	4	Szklarska Poręba, Karpacz, Podgórzyn, Jelenia Góra	305.1
17.	Kłodzki	5	Bystrzyca Kłodzka, Duszniki Zdrój, Kudowa Zdrój, Łądek Zdrój, Polanica Zdrój	528.6
18.	Żywiecki	7	Rajcza, Istebna, Wisła, Ustroń, Bielsko-Biała, Jeleśnia, Zawoja	808.4
19.	Tatrzańsko-pieniński	7	Kościelisko, Zakopane, Poronin, Bukowina Tatrzańska, Łapsze Niżne, Czorsztyn, Krościenko near Dunajec	679.5
20.	Beskid Sądecki	6	Szczawnica, Piwniczna Zdrój, Muszyna, Rytro, Krynica Zdrój, Uście Gorlickie	776.2
21.	Bieszczadzki	5	Lutowiska, Cisna, Baligród, Solina, Ustrzyki Dolne	1 582.7
Total		127	-	21 881.7

* Rural commune and municipality.

Source: author.

the determination of the level of tourism development of a given town/city or a region would not have performed well. Regardless of the fact that it can be criticized for not taking into account second homes within a given area, or the level of utilization of the accommodation facilities, simplicity was its main advantage. Besides, other proposed indicators do not guarantee a more objective description of the level of development of tourism.

In Polish conditions, J. WARSZYŃSKA (1985) proposed a modification, i.e. a decrease from 100 to 50 (as a minimum threshold for a tourism resort). Thus, according to data for 2005, only nineteen local government districts would reach this level: Rewal (314), Krynica Morska (307), Łeba (296), Dziwnów (284), Mielno (262), Stegna (180), Ustronie Morskie (134), Karpacz (134), Międzyzdroje (128), Ślesin (102), Ustka (98), Jastarnia (86), Szklarska Poręba (74), Postomino (71), Mikołajki (71), Władysławowo (61), Darłowo (59), Krasnobród (56) and Włodawa (52).

Research by T. LIJEWSKI, B. MIKUŁOWSKI & J. WYRZYKOWSKI (2008) includes information that areas with outstanding tourism value cover an area of approx. 40,000 km² (12.8% of the area of Poland) which should be regarded as more realistic than that proposed by M.I. Mileska.

A tourism region (similar to M. Durydiwka's proposal) was considered to be an area of at least three local government districts with 500 or more beds in each of them. They are either adjacent to each other or separated by no more than one local government district with less than 500 beds. This is the case, for example, within the Suwalsko-Augustowski tourism region. In total, out of 127 local government districts (5.1% of the total in 2013 in Poland), 21 tourism regions were identified. The vast majority are associated with traditional areas i.e. lake districts, the Baltic Sea coast, and mountain areas (Figure 2).

The names of these regions were established on the basis of the town/city being the largest in terms of population (or two with a very similar population) within a given region or physical region (e.g. Great Mazurian Lakes or Roztocze). The total area of such regions (based on local government districts) is 21,881.7 km² (Table 2).

The region with the highest level of tourism, as shown in Table 2, is smaller than that of the theoretically designated area. This was the case both in the 1960s (the study by M.I. Mileska) and currently. This is due to the fact that naturally attractive areas (whether they are considered as physical regions or an administrative unit are only partially suitable for tourism development. This particularly refers to built up areas which are typically in well connected areas, without forests, in the vicinity of large bodies of water

(e.g. lakes or artificial reservoirs), an accessible coastline, or with attractive views (e.g. in the mountains).

6. CONCLUSIONS

1. There is a lack of a single, common definition of a tourism region. Hence, to change this, it is necessary to select, from among current definitions the characteristics of such regions most often mentioned. These are homogeneity of area (in terms of physical features), the volume of tourism, tourism development, and transport connections.
2. There is a discrepancy between the proposed definitions of a tourism region and the opportunities (available statistical data) for research and delimitation.
3. Due to the availability of statistical data, regions must be considered within local government districts, and associated with physical regions. In order to not increase (to not fragment) the set of tourism regions, it seems important to adopt a minimum threshold of the number of local government districts (e.g. three), from which a region may be identified.
4. Most prepared tourism regionalizations are not of an analytical nature. Most often, the tourism regions are too large.
5. Only the studies by M.I. Mileska (partially outdated) and M. Durydiwka aspire to be such tourism regionalizations since they are the least controversial, and based on figures.
6. A significant problem is the selection and significance of indicators (and thus the construction of a measure which, in the case of M. Durydiwka, have been adopted from other geographical disciplines) on the basis of which a tourism region may be identified. It is best described by data (based on general accessibility) concerning accommodation facilities (regardless of the variants as provided by, for instance, M.I. Durydiwka).
7. A constant problem is what the minimum value of the indicator, or measure, should be to allow a decision to be made that a given area is a tourism commune/municipality. It seems that the presence of areas with outstanding natural environmental value should be decisive.
8. The regionalization as proposed by M.I. Mileska is more closely related to an area being environmentally attractive (the assessment of the areas as proposed by the present author is similar), while M. Durydiwka's proposal is also partially

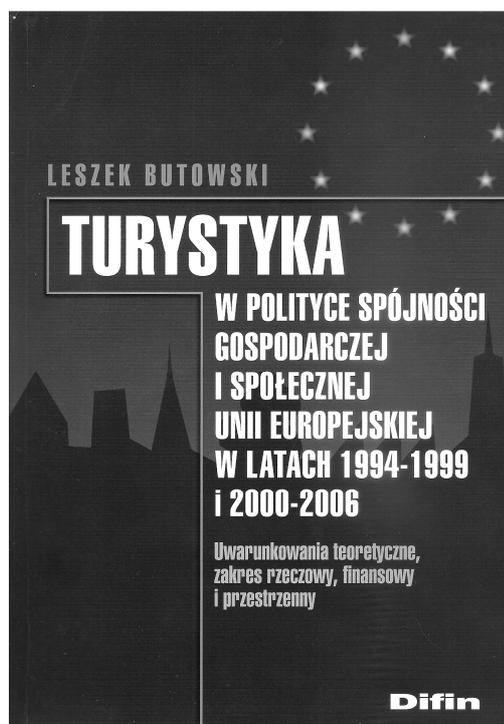
associated with local government districts of average tourism value. Hence, their lower reliability which resulted in a difference in the number of tourism regions between 1995 and 2005.

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REVIEWS

Tourism 2014, 24/2



LESZEK BUTOWSKI

TURYSTYKA W POLITYCE SPÓJNOŚCI GOSPODARCZEJ I SPOŁECZNEJ UNII EUROPEJSKIEJ W LATACH 1994–1999 I 2000–2006. UWARUNKOWANIA TEORETYCZNE, ZAKRES RZECZOWY, FINANSOWY I PRZESTRZENNY

[*TOURISM IN THE EU POLICY OF ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL INTEGRITY IN 1994-1999 AND 2000-2006. THEORETICAL CONDITIONS, FACTUAL, FINANCIAL AND SOCIAL SPECTRUM*]

Difin SA, Warszawa 2009
pp. 232

The author approaches the significant issue of the role tourism plays in European Union's policy of economic and social integration as implemented in 1994-9 and in 2000-6. Generally speaking, the policy is based on a variety of aid activities whose aim is to decrease the differences between individual regions by stimulating development and restructuring economies. Aid is provided for peripheral and less developed regions in order to improve their position and socio-economic integration as a part of the EU. The policy of integration approached in this way is a function of regional and structural policies and it is important to understand the place of tourism in this both from theoretical and practical perspectives.

The theoretical objective is to demonstrate the influence of tourism on economic development, contributing to the aims of the economic and social integration policy promoted by the EU. The author presents a wide review of Polish and foreign literature, focusing on tourism as a field of research, presenting existing theories of regional development in terms of their usefulness in an analysis of the influence of tourism on regional and local development, as well as

a macroeconomic analysis of the significance of tourism in EU economies based on the share of tourism in GNP, exports, employment, investment and the assessment of tourism reception potential. On the other hand, the practical objective is to present the real implementation of the integration policy in the tourism sector. In this respect, the analysis is based on EU and Polish legal regulations, policy papers and regular reports while the author has also used information from European, Polish and regional databases. All in all, several hundred documents were analysed defining the possibilities and extent of implementing the European policy of integration in the context of material and financial support for tourism.

The structure corresponds to the research issues it presents: an introduction, four chapters (including two theoretical and two empirical) and conclusions. In the Introduction, the author formulates the research issue and working hypotheses, as well as the objectives, research procedures and methods, and sources of information. Chapter I presents tourism as both a research discipline and a regional development factor in the light of selected theories (endogenous

development, networks, the economic base, polarization, sustainable development), followed by discussion of the origins and legal framework for tourism as an EU objective. Chapter II considers the achievements of the EU policy of economic and social integration implemented in 1994-9 and 2000-6. The author presents the theoretical foundations, origins and evolution, framework and legislative instruments, aims and rules, budget and financial tools of EU integration policy in these periods. The next two chapters (III and IV) are of an empirical nature, presenting the results of the author's research using primary and secondary sources, showing the actual involvement of the European policy of integration using tourism. Chapter III presents the status and significance of tourism in the integration programs implemented in 25 individual member states. Chapter IV contains a compilation of the results of comparative analyses conducted at a national level in both periods of budget planning, the relations between tourism areas and the regions where European integration policy is implemented, as well as a typology of tourism projects (based on the following criteria: 1. project objective, 2. geographical-functional criteria of the project area and its effects, 3. formal). The analyses are available on a CD attachment containing a brief description of selected projects (14) with photographic documentation. In the Conclusions, the author discusses possible answers to the questions posed, the research hypotheses and the major conclusions from the research.

The research has brought interesting results; however, they show that it is not always possible to provide full and positive answers. Similarly, the answers did not guarantee a full and positive verification of all hypotheses. The literature on the subject, and the theories of regional development discussed, point to tourism as an important development factor in regions with suitable development potential. The significance of tourism as a development factor depends on local conditions in the area of tourism reception and its vicinity. It is justifiable then to support tourism as a part of the European integration policy. In fact, tourism is an economic sector that receives support as a part of this policy, but to a varying extent in specific periods and member states. A spatial

correlation has been found between the areas where integration policy has been introduced and tourism regions, and that supporting tourism development leads to their economic and social restructuring. However, it is not possible to define with full certainty the factors which make tourism an important element of integration policy. The author established a limited relation between the extent of support offered as a part of this policy and tourism attractiveness, in addition to similar environmental and socio-economic factors, temporary and local factors are also of some importance here. It is not always the case that given tourism potential is followed by sufficient EU financial support for tourism. The level of such support in the periods and countries studied has also changed considerably pointing to the fact that decisions concerning the allocation and amount of finance are often specific and occasional, and probably politically-dependent. Spatial analyses show that tourism is not always supported in the most backward areas, and that the finance allocated to the development of tourism compared to that for developing basic infrastructure is small, and this reduces the effectiveness of tourism as a development and restructuring tool.

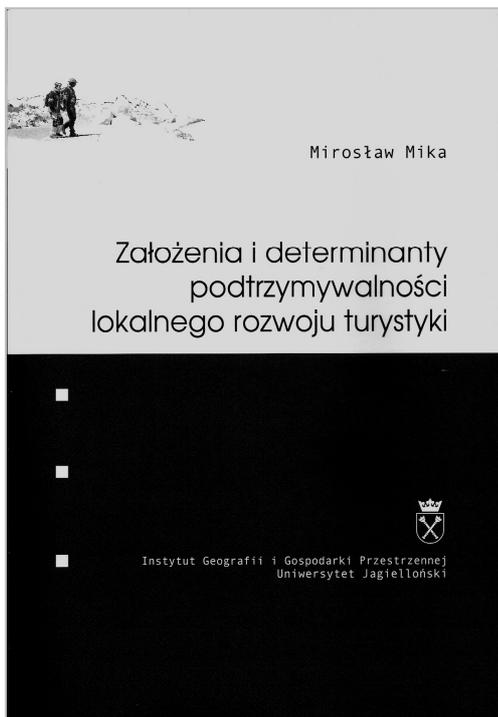
This book is one of the first such publications in Poland, and a wide-ranging attempt to present and assess the role of tourism in EU integration policy. It has considerable cognitive value but we must not ignore its academic and didactic value either, due to its clear way of presenting research issues, hypotheses and research objectives, as well as its logical and well-documented conclusions. The book is an original work which greatly contributes to our knowledge of the role and significance of tourism for the policy of integration promoted by the European Union. This will most certainly make it popular among those interested in these issues, such as students, academics and those who work in political, economic, social, local government and other institutions.

Andrzej Matczak

University of Łódź

Department of Tourism and Urban Geography

Translated by Ewa Mossakowska



MIROSŁAW MIKA

***ZAŁOŻENIA I DETERMINANTY
PODTRZYMYWALNOŚCI LOKALNEGO
ROZWOJU TURYSTYKI***

***[ASSUMPTIONS AND DETERMINANTS OF LOCAL
TOURISM DEVELOPMENT SUSTAINABILITY]***

Instytut Geografii i Gospodarki Przestrzennej
Uniwersytetu Jagiellońskiego
Kraków 2014
pp. 231

The reviewed work is an academic dissertation on local tourism development sustainability in mature reception areas. It consists of four chapters, each containing a large number of subchapters (e.g. 4.4.9.4), as well as an extensive bibliography (18 pages), a list of tables and figures, a summary in English and an appendix presenting the questionnaires used in the tourist surveys for summer and winter, as well as for investors in accommodation.

In the Introduction the author writes that the main objective is “to define the theoretical and methodological bases for the development over a long period of the tourism function in a destination at the peak of tourism”. He sets forth the following hypothesis: “in a destination with a highly developed tourism function, the factors influencing its long-term development are rooted in local infrastructural, natural and cultural resources as the basis of tourism development, as well as in the human and social resources invested in tourism”. We should also remember the author’s assumption that “every local system is an individual and unique, exceptional combination of conditions and circumstances in which tourism needs are satisfied”, referred to several times in different parts of the book. The author also explains the cognitive and practical aims, as well as the conception and methodology of the empirical studies at three tourism centres in Beskid Śląski (Szczyrk, Ustroń and Wisła) as examples of functionally mature reception areas.

In Chapter One, “Tourism development as a subject for geographical studies”, individual subchapters (relatively short, usually 1 to 2 pages) present some terms (tourism, development, tourism development, local tourism development) and research ideas which the author believes to be “the current and potential tourism development analysis at a local level in geographical studies” (as regards social mobility, functionalism and networking in tourism). The chapter ends with general remarks and seven conclusions drawn from a review of research ideas. Compared to the presentation of issues, which does not include too much detail, the conclusions seem too wide, and some seem to be completely detached from the preceding text. Moreover, it seems that the title of the chapter does not fully reflect its contents. The author does not discuss the development of tourism in terms of the range of theoretical conceptions in geographical studies, but only selects some as developed by both foreign and Polish researchers. The author does not make an evaluation of the Polish geographers’ contribution to tourism studies, he only presents a relational assessment, putting names alongside those of Polish tourism researchers from other disciplines (which is not pointed out), as well as foreign authors. With such a compilation, the reader can feel an artificial narrowing, or even a lack of examples of authors dealing with some important issues. The author, however, stresses the geographical point of

view in tourism studies and insists that the contribution of geography in multidisciplinary studies on tourism should be noted. He believes that in the future researchers will have to pay even more attention to "the explication of researched facts by examining relational structures in geographical space which decide the course of the (often invisible) mechanisms powering development processes."

In Chapter Two, entitled "A crisis in the conception in harmonious tourism development", the author presents the theoretical assumption and the results that its implementation has brought about in urban planning and in economic activity all over the world. Based on the examples quoted, mainly from foreign literature, the author systematizes the key arguments against the idea of sustainable tourism from the perspectives of the tourist, the tourism sector and the tourist reception area. The author considers the global consequences of climate change for the development of tourism destinations and regions, in terms of its potential for application. He analyses the methodological weaknesses and points to current changes in international debate. Personally, the author believes that "in a situation when the global economy has entered a development phase conditioned by climatic and economic instability, the most important issue is not the question of harmonious sustainability, but the ability to preserve local economic structures and the benefits of development for the economy and society". He thinks that it is necessary to verify his assumptions. First of all, he stresses that it is necessary to shift the centre of gravity in current debate and research from the global to the local level, as well as to depart from "the interpretation of the functional sustainability of reception areas in their specific ("idealized") state for the benefit of an evolutionary process of transformation, based on rational economic premises and actual social behavior, and not moving towards a particular target set in advance." It can be assumed that such an approach includes both rationality and irrationality which should be considered together in order to fully understand the structural processes in tourism. It is worth adding that the chapter is interesting to read, though it lacks examples from the Polish literature and the discussion is conducted basically on a single plane without showing the advantages. Therefore, it seems that the word "crisis" used in the title of this chapter is an overstatement.

Chapter Three, entitled "Sustainability in local tourism development - theoretical and methodological assumptions", is the most important part of the book where the author presents a conceptual model and describes the relation between the sustainability of local tourism development and the competitiveness of tourism reception areas.

The conceptual model is presented identifying the potential factors of long-term tourism function development in aspects such as tourism attractiveness, competitiveness of tourism entities, optimization of local resources, and the stability and resilience of the local tourism system to external disorder. These problems are considered to be the basic elements of the model's structure, presented in graphic form on p. 76. Each element is discussed following the same pattern containing two categories of explication: (1) first the concept with its key features, and (2) its objective. The process of explication involves the presentation of international and Polish academic discussion of the issues but it does not end with conclusions on each one, which leaves the reader with a feeling of insufficiency. The conclusions are presented in a separate subchapter, some referring to parts of the discussion which the author did not include. Moreover, the summary may surprise the reader by a change in the order of the model constituents presented in Table 7. Here, the local resource optimizing factor comes before the competitiveness of local tourism entities. This change raises the question: to what extent can the order of analysis be changed, i.e. the structural system of the model. The author provides a partial answer on p. 124, writing about the complex and dynamic reality which may produce modifications. However, he believes that sustainability determinants go beyond the tourism development factors established so far, and the development of sustainability is above all about quality. Therefore, the author claims that when searching for the mechanisms for increasing the functional efficiency of local tourism entities it is worth reaching beyond the sphere of tourist activity. He quotes examples in the next chapter, containing the description of the results of empirical studies in Beskid Śląski.

Chapter Four is entitled "Determinants of the local tourism development sustainability in the light of research results". Using the examples of three selected destinations (Szczyrk, Ustroń and Wisła), the author tries to identify the factors determining long-term development of the tourism function and point to the main limitations and internal barriers to local tourism development. The methodological research procedure was explained in detail in the Introduction, while in this chapter the author presents an evaluation of local conditions from the point of view of tourists and of ski tourism, together with an analysis of the factors and limitations to the development of accommodation. For the three destinations mentioned, the author applies a comparative analysis with interesting results. An interesting approach is the "tourism transfer index", showing the functional links between the towns and their surroundings. A drawback is that the author

does not present conclusions but only a description of ten functional categories (patterns) of accommodation facility. The conclusions can be found in the final remarks, divided into three: additional comments, detailed conclusions (based on Chapter Four; there are 20 of them) and general conclusions. It is worth saying that the number and meticulousness of the conclusions may slightly disorientate the reader.

Generally speaking, the publication is not an easy one. It is written in rather impenetrable language including long, complex sentences, forcing the reader to concentrate hard on their meaning. Occasionally, the text contains neologisms or inconsistencies, e.g. presenting an issue first on a national and then on an international scale, while its authors are quoted in brackets in an opposite order (e.g. pp. 44-46). It should be noticed that the publication presents a broad overview of phenomena and processes, as well as the opinions of foreign and Polish authors. However, it is highly general. At some places, there are not enough arguments to explain an issue or some authors have been ignored. For instance, the public-private partnership is mentioned in only one sentence on p. 104,

describing it as a tool which is still underused. In several other places the author briefly mentions the tourism offer (pp. 86, 92, 95) but does not make any reference to this, and in the subchapter on local cooperation (4.4.8.1) the author places an unclear classification of organizations as associations based on partner cooperation, specialized (p.173) or even official (p. 174). The first column head in the majority of tables in the appendix is either empty or not even present.

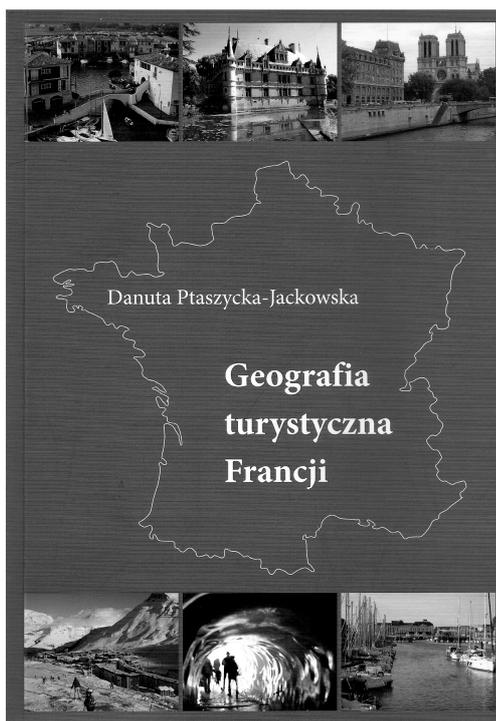
Finally, it should be stressed however that from a cognitive and methodological point of view, the book is interesting, presents an original approach to the issues of local tourism development in the context of sustainable development.

Jolanta Wojciechowska

University of Łódź

Department of Tourism and Urban Geography

Translated by Ewa Mossakowska



DANUTA PTASZYCKA-JACKOWSKA

GEOGRAFIA TURYSTYCZNA FRANCJI
[THE TOURISM GEOGRAPHY OF FRANCE]

Instytut Geografii i Gospodarki Przestrzennej
Uniwersytetu Jagiellońskiego
Kraków 2014
pp. 227

This book is an academic study of the tourism geography of France – one of the most attractive world tourism destinations. Its originality can be best evaluated taking into consideration its structure, organization and content.

It is divided into seven main chapters (each containing subchapters) and opens with a short introduction where the author defines the territorial range of the work, limiting it to mainland France and Corsica.

Chapter I, “The Natural and Cultural Diversity of France as the Basis of Tourism Development”, presents features of the natural environment, paying particular attention to types and areas protected by law. Cultural resources are described more thoroughly, and the chapter ends with a presentation of the effects of globalization in France (settlement network development, population distribution, economic growth, infrastructure, etc.). Personally, I feel there should have been more information concerning three main factors: the natural environment, history and contemporary image; which together naturally determine the position of France as a world tourism region. However, I am aware that the author has not focused on the tourism potential of France, but on its present situation, confirmed in the remaining chapters.

Chapter II (“The History of Tourism in France”) is very interesting as regards organisation and content. It begins with a short list of important dates related to the development of French tourism covering five major periods - from Antiquity to the Renaissance, the

18th c., the 19th c., 1900-50, and after 1950. This short review makes us aware of the long tradition of French tourism.

The second subchapter (“The Development of Organizational Types and Tourism Services”) includes a review of the factors influencing the development of tourism in France. The author discusses the significance of transport development, changes in the amount of free time, and visits from British tourists. She also describes early tourism guides, passport documents, etc.

The chapter ends with a presentation of very interesting large-scale structure plans for tourism development in France. The author presents development plans for four ‘flagship’ regions: Languedoc-Roussillon, Aquitaine, Corsica and the Southern Alps.

The next chapter is devoted to tourism development in France, and consists of four subchapters. The first, “Tourism Destinations and Communes”, presents different classifications of these administrative units according to the role played by tourism in their economic and social life. It is a very interesting review, especially in terms of tourism studies.

In the subchapter devoted to tourism accommodation, apart from presenting traditional facilities, such as hotels, camp sites, etc., the author mentions ‘furnished apartments’ and ‘second homes’ which are not included in statistics, rather like in Poland. The tourism ‘power’ of France may be demonstrated by the fact that in 2010 there were 229 000 commercial

tourism facilities which offered 5 783 000 beds. This figure should be enlarged by 3 028 000 'second homes' (15 139 000 beds).

In a separate chapter, the author discusses the development of nine particular forms of tourism. Apart from ski stations, seaside resorts, spas, etc., she also mentions conference and exhibition facilities, theme parks, golf courses, as well as infrastructure for the disabled. The chapter ends with a short analysis of the gastronomic infrastructure. As shown by the statistics, in 2010 there were 203 000 restaurants in France, employing over 544 000.

Chapter IV is traditionally organized and is devoted to an analysis of tourism. The author discusses French national tourism, trips abroad (in 2011 – 24 million trips), as well as arrivals of foreign tourists (in 2011 – 46.5 m). Each of the issues is presented along with the number of tourists, destinations, accommodation, geographical range, etc.

The author broadly discusses different types of tourism (Chapter V) in a classification based on three criteria: by intention (21 – including golf, wine, nudist, gambling and drug tourism), specific social groups (children, seniors, the disabled), and means of transport (eight).

Chapter VI presents the main directions of tourism in France. The author begins this chapter with a graph in which she shows the percentages of internal tourism: mountain (7.5%), countryside (28.3%), city (29.2%), seaside (35.5%). Further in the chapter, the author discusses specific destinations in the following order: coastal, mountains, cities, rural, natural areas protected by law, sites of tourist interest and tourism trails.

The last chapter (VII) is "Selected Problems in the Contemporary Phase of French Tourism Development". It is an attempt to evaluate the tourism policy implemented by France and its effects. Issues such as tourism management, the socio-economic effects of tourism, the position of France in global and European tourism, and the policy of tourism development in France, are discussed in more detail. It is worth quoting the calculations included in the book concerning

the expenditure of foreign tourists in France in 2011 which amounted to 33.4 billion euros, and the expenditure of French tourists (also in 2011) – 24.5 billion euros. This will enable the reader to see the scale and importance of tourism in the economic life of France.

In the Conclusions, the author recapitulates the content of the book and recommends interesting French ideas on tourism organization, statistics, etc. She also stresses original types of French tourism – food tourism, wine tourism and thalassotherapy.

In my opinion, Danuta Ptaszycka-Jackowska's work is a perfect example of a modern analysis of tourism geography, i.e. a work approaching tourism in a comprehensive way – exactly as defined by Leszczycki in 1937 (*Zagadnienia geografii turystyki*). To me, nevertheless, the title *Geografia turystyczna Francji* (*The Tourism Geography of France*) suggests that we are dealing here with the regional tourism geography of France. This is not the subject of the book.

A very important part is the set of colour photographs (228), in several inserts. They make knowledge about France more complete by presenting wonderful natural landscapes and selected cultural assets of this country. The text contains 56 easily readable statistical tables. At the end of the book, the author has placed a very useful glossary of geographical terms. The bibliography consists of 166 titles, mostly in French (which is understandable) as well as 75 websites.

The book is by all means worth recommending due both to a new and original structure and content range, as well as the factual content itself. It is a pioneering work which allows the reader to rediscover the tourism phenomena analysed by geographers with regard to one particular country.

Stanisław Liszewski

University of Łódź

Department of Tourism and Urban Geography

Translated by Ewa Mossakowska

REPORT

Tourism 2014, 24/2

Robert Wiluś

University of Łódź

Department of Urban and Tourism Geography

robwil@geo.uni.lodz.pl

A REPORT ON THE REGIONAL CONFERENCE OF THE INTERNATIONAL GEOGRAPHIC UNION: 'CHANGES, CHALLENGES, RESPONSIBILITIES', KRAKÓW, 18-22 AUGUST 2014

One of major academic events in recent years concerning Polish geography has been the Regional Conference of the International Geographic Union (IGU), held in Kraków. For geographers from all over the world these regional conferences are the second most important after the international congresses which are held every four years. The previous conference of this type was held in Kyoto, Japan, in 2013 while in 2015 it will be in Moscow. On the other hand, the next IGU congress is planned to be held in 2016, in Beijing.

The IGU conference in Poland was held in 2014, a special year due to the 650th anniversary of the foundation of the Jagiellonian University, Kraków (the main conference organizer) as well as the 25th anniversary of free elections in Poland. Moreover, the date of the conference coincided with the 80th anniversary of the organization of the 14th IGU Congress which took place in 1934 in Warsaw. The Regional IGU conference in Kraków was held on 18-22nd August. It was entitled 'Changes, Challenges, Responsibilities' and stressed those changes taking place in the geographical environment which are a challenge for contemporary geography as a discipline and signify its responsibility for research. Kraków was visited by geographers representing each geographical discipline included in the commissions operating as parts of the IGU. The conference program was divided into plenary sessions for all participants and others related to the IGU commissions. Poster sessions and workshops took place as well. The conference venue was the Biology and Earth Sciences Faculty of the Jagiellonian University, situated on the premises of the new campus in the south-western part of Kraków.

The conference was opened in the *Auditorium Maximum* of the Jagiellonian University and, of the

many renowned official guests invited to the opening ceremony, descendants of the professors of Polish geography who had taken part in the IGU Congress in 1934 in Warsaw were included. They were represented by Prof. Leszek Kosiński who gave a speech entitled 'Relevance in Geography', referring to the main topic of the conference, and presented the reasons why we should be proud of the fact that we represent a discipline which has so much to offer a world affected by numerous environmental, socio-economic and political problems. During the opening ceremony, eleven laureates from a geographical competition were presented with awards and there was a piano concert of Chopin's music.

An additional event on the first day was the opening of an exhibition entitled 'The development of geographical thought in Poland', prepared and organized by the Jagiellonian University Museum in Collegium Maius and opened by Prof. Antoni Jackowski, Chairman of the Polish Geographical Society which had originally proposed the organization of a regional IGU conference in Poland. The society's role involved overseeing the organization which was, in fact, split among selected geographical research centres in Poland but including above all the Institute of Geography and Spatial Economy at the Jagiellonian University as the primary organizer. The Institute of Geography at the Pedagogical University in Kraków, the Department of Geographical and Geological Sciences at Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznań, the Department of Geographical Sciences at the University of Łódź, the Department of the Earth Sciences, University of Silesia in Sosnowiec, the Department of Geography and Regional Studies, University of Warsaw, and the Institute of Geography and Space

Organization, Polish Academy of Science in Warsaw were all involved as well.

The following days of the IGU conference were filled with plenary sessions (one a day), and numerous presentation sessions of IGU Geographical Commissions which took place simultaneously. The plenary sessions took the form of lectures. During the first plenary session, Prof. Benno Werlen from the University of Jena (Germany) talked about traditional and new areas of geographical research. On the third day, plenary lectures were given by Prof. Zbigniew Kundzewicz from the PAN Institute of Geophysics, who discussed the current problem of global climatic changes, and Prof. Gideon Biger from the Faculty of Geography at the University in Tel Aviv (Israel), who asked the question 'Where is the Holy Land?' On the last day (22nd August 2014), plenary session lectures were given by Prof. Julie Winkler from the University of Michigan (USA), who again referred to research into climatic change and geographers' responsibility, as well as Prof. Andreas Faludi from the University of Delft (Holland), who gave a lecture on the human responsibility for nobody's sites.

The enormous scale of the event organized in Kraków was proved by the number of sessions and presentations. In total, 226 sessions organized by IGU geographical commissions were held, which filled both the mornings and the afternoons of individual days, and included a total of 1171 presentations. We should also remember the 227 poster and 4 workshop sessions. The number of participants was equally impressive – the conference hosted 1470 from 60 countries, mainly Germany, Japan, the Czech Republic, China and of course Poland.

Geographical conferences would not be important academic events without field sessions. The offer of field trips organized in connection with the regional IGU conference in Kraków was wide-ranging including many one-, three- and four-day tourist and academic trips offered before, during and after the conference. One-day trips took place in Kraków, Nowa Huta, as well as to Oświęcim, the former Nazi labour camp of Auschwitz-Birkenau, Wieliczka, Kalwaria Zebrzydowska and Wadowice. Before the conference started (14-17 August 2014), a four-day excursion had been organized across Upper Silesia and the Western Carpathians (the Tatra, Pieniny and Beskid Sądecki Mountains) with a theme revolving

around the problems of natural environmental degradation and the attempts at restoration in an area of tourism penetration. The trip was organized and led by geographers from the Polish Academy of Science and the University of Silesia. The second trip took place after the conference, on 23-25th August 2014 to Central Poland, including Ojcowski National Park, Częstochowa, the brown coal mine in Bełchatów, Łódź, the Sulejów reservoir, Tomaszów Mazowiecki and Spała. The topics discussed during the trip included the origins, diversification and protection of the natural and cultural landscape of Central Poland, protected areas in Poland (example of Ojcowski National Park), the influence of the pilgrimage function on the development of cities (example of Częstochowa), the distribution and exploitation of mineral resources in Poland (example of the brown coal mine in Bełchatów), as well as the problems of the revitalization of industrial urban areas (examples of Łódź and Tomaszów Mazowiecki). The excursion was organized and led by the Institute of Urban and Tourism Geography at the University of Łódź.

The regional IGU conference in Kraków ended with a closing ceremony during which Prof. Marek Degórski from the Polish Academy of Science (Chairman of the Organizational Committee) and Prof. Anita Bokwa from the Jagiellonian University (Organizational Committee Coordinator) summed up the whole conference. The organizers of next year's IGU conference in Moscow and the IGU congress in Beijing presented their provisional programs and the venues where the sessions and accompanying events will be held. On behalf of the IGU, Prof. Vladimir Kolosov, the IGU President, thanked the organizers. The closing ceremony was crowned by the Jagiellonian University Choir, 'Camerata Jagiellonica', who sang the student's song 'Gaudeamus Igitur'.

To sum up, the Regional IGU Conference in Kraków enabled its participants to get acquainted with new research and methodological approaches in the field of geography. The scale of this event considerably exceeded the expectations of the organizers and participant. Both, Kraków with its historical, spiritual heritage and academic traditions, and the high standard of organization and content made the IGU conference in Kraków a memorable event.

Translated by Ewa Mossakowska