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KLAUDYNA KOWALSKA*, AGNIESZKA NIEZGODA**

COVID-19 as a tourist activity inhibitor as evidenced by Poles' holiday plans

Abstract. As a result of the global COVID-19 pandemic, we are facing challenges of the social and economic crisis. Its effects are difficult to estimate, but the impact on the tourism industry is undeniable. This is also true of the behavior of consumers of tourism services, whose attitudes towards travel are likely to change radically. The aim of the study presented in this article is to determine how Polish tourists have changed their travel plans and the way they organize their travels during and after the COVID-19 pandemic. The authors argue that the pandemic is an inhibitor of tourist activity. Data for the study were collected using an online pilot survey of 190 Polish adults. The first part of the questionnaire included general demographic questions about the respondents. The main part was divided into three sections related to COVID-19 and regarding: 1) changes in their occupational status and financial well-being, 2) their travel plans, and 3) their willingness to use peer-to-peer accommodation (e.g. Airbnb). The results show that the pandemic is not only an inhibitor of tourist activity, but can also trigger the substitution effect in the tourism market. Potential tourists can choose not to buy tourism services and instead spend their money on other forms of leisure ("external" substitution outside the tourist market) or can choose a more competitively priced tourism service ("internal" substitution). The COVID-19 pandemic has negatively affected the financial well-being and occupational status of some respondents and the vast majority of respondents have had to modify or cancel their holiday plans. While the pandemic may help to stimulate domestic tourism, the preference for self-organized holiday trips, expressed by the respondents, herald further problems of tour operators. Although the financial well-being of many respondents has deteriorated, the number of those interested in cheaper accommodation for future trips was much smaller compared to those who reported such a preference before the pandemic.

Keywords: tourist activity inhibitors; COVID-19; consumer behavior; peer-to-peer accommodation

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1. Introduction

Consumer behavior is part of the general theory of behavior. In a broad sense, 'behavior' describes a set of reactions to environmental stimuli, and in a narrow sense, it is a reaction or the totality of reactions that make up activities and actions (Kufel & Mruk, 1998, p. 9). Through these reactions, a person responds to or transforms external factors. Consumer behavior, in general, is defined as all activities and modes of action aimed at obtaining and handling the means of satisfying needs (Rudnicki, 2010, p. 8). According to Hansen (1975, p. 23), consumer behavior encompasses all the activities and perceptions of the consumer that lead to choosing a product or service for use or consumption. In tourism, the product is very complex and most of its elements can be classified as a service. Most of the literature on consumer behavior in tourism is dedicated to the problem of decision making models because of the complexity of this process. The most frequently discussed models include those formulated by Gottfried Schmoll (1977), Victor T. C. Middleton (1988) and Seoho Um and John Crompton (1990). These models emphasize external factors of consumers' actions, ignoring the influence of random, sudden and unforeseen factors, such as the COVID-19 pandemic, which has affected the global economy, especially the tourism market.

The situation caused by COVID-19 is the worst crisis that international tourism has faced since 1950 (UNWTO, 2020a). According to the data presented by UNWTO (2020b), in July and August 2020, the peak of the tourist season, the number of international arrivals decreased by 81% and 79% respectively, compared to the previous year. The crisis developed suddenly, on a large scale, and changes in mobility, socialization and consumption patterns, work and leisure or many different socioeconomic dimensions are very likely (Romagosa, 2020). This is also true of the behavior of consumers of tourism services, whose attitudes towards travel have changed radically. The aim of the study presented in this article is to determine how Polish tourists have changed their travel plans and the way they organize their travels during and after the COVID-19 pandemic. The authors argue that the pandemic is an inhibitor of tourist activity.

2. COVID-19 and tourism – research review

A number of studies about the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on tourism have appeared in a relatively short period of time. Research in this area covers various more specific topics, such as the impact of COVID-19 on the global

tourism industry (Uğur & Akbıyık, 2020), the impact on tourists' behavior (Chebli & Ben Said, 2020; Chua et al., 2020; Sánchez-Cañizares et al., 2020; Shin & Kang, 2020) and effects on tourists' psyche (Kock et al., 2020), a comparison of the current pandemic to previous ones and other types of global crises (Gössling, Scott, & Hall, 2020), the social costs of tourism during the pandemic in urban destinations (Qiu et al. 2020), sustainability issues (Higgins-Desbiolles, 2020) and preferred research agenda (Zenker & Kock, 2020). The pandemic is also becoming increasingly popular with Polish researchers (Table 1). Topics of interests include, among others, declines in tourism expendi-

Table 1. COVID-19 and tourism in Polish research literature

Author	Subject/aim	Overall results
Grabiński & Borkowski, 2020	The study estimated lost tourism revenue in the municipality of Krakow in 2020 in relation to 2019.	Three estimates of lost revenue were offered (in PLN): 6528 billion (pessimistic), 5783 billion (neutral) and 4225 billion (optimistic).
NapieralaLeśniewska-Napierala, & Burski, 2020	The study described the short-term impacts of reported new cases and deaths of the COVID-19 disease on hotels' performances in Poland's nine major urban hotel markets: Kraków, Warszawa, Poznań, Wrocław, Gdańsk, Lublin, Łódź, Katowice, and Sopot (p. 1).	The biggest negative impact of the pandemic on hotel performances is confirmed at the European level; the negative influence of national cases of COVID-19 is more evident in less internationalized or less-populated urban destinations.
Niewiadomski, 2020	The COVID-19 crisis as a possible opportunity to renew tourism towards sustainability.	The world is currently experiencing a temporary de-globalization, which provides the global tourism industry with a unique chance for a reboot and reconfiguration towards sustainability.
Profitroom, 2020	The study examined the holiday plans of Poles.	Almost 80% of the respondents were planning to go on vacation despite the pandemic, but 75% did not make any reservations. About 30% considered going abroad, and 25% were planning to spend less on vacations than a year ago.
Walas & Kruczek, 2020	The study collected opinions of Krakow's tourism entrepreneurs about the impact of the pandemic on their activities and their expectations concerning tools of marketing communication that could facilitate recovery (p. 79).	The results of the survey reveal the level of economic losses anticipated by tourism entrepreneurs and their predicted occurrence over time, opinions about the likely sequence in which particular tourism products in Krakow are going to recover, as well as expectations concerning the tools of marketing communication that could facilitate the recovery (p. 92).

Source: own research.

ture (Grabiński & Borkowski, 2020), the impact of the pandemic on the supply of tourism (Napierała, Leśniewska-Napierała, & Burski, 2020; Walas & Kruczek, 2020), prospects for a change of direction in the development of tourism (Niewiadomski, 2020) and a change in consumers' behavior after the pandemic (Profitroom, 2020).

The behavior of consumers of tourist services during the COVID-19 pandemic is an extremely interesting research topic. The direction of research conducted by Profitroom (2020) seems to be very promising but does not take into account the change in respondents' attitudes, i.e. their plans before and after the pandemic. Additionally, a quarter of respondents in that study said they were planning to spend less on vacations. It is necessary to verify whether consumers intend to look for cheaper accommodation, which represents a considerable component of all expenses during tourist trips. The sharing economy, involving the use of underutilized assets, became very popular as a result of the financial crisis of 2008 (Böcker & Meelen, 2017, s. 30), when people experienced significant financial difficulties, which prompted them to reassess their consumption patterns (Belk, 2014; Böcker & Meelen, 2017; Gansky, 2010; Stępnicka & Wiączek, 2018). Similar difficulties occur during the COVID-19 pandemic, which is why it is worth investigating whether people intend to use peer-to-peer accommodation, which is the most popular form of accommodation offered by the sharing economy – especially since one of the most important reasons for choosing this option, as confirmed in the literature, is the desire to cut expenses (Pawlicz, 2019). The following pilot study is aimed at covering the identified research gap.

3. COVID -19 as an inhibitor of tourist activity

Roman Frydman and Michael Goldberg (2009) developed a model of imperfect knowledge, arguing that mathematical models are unable to accurately reflect the behavior of markets in the modern economy. The unpredictability of the effects of COVID 19 is confirmed by a review of the most popular models of consumer behavior, which do not account for such a situation. One of the basic “black box” models is the one proposed by Philip Kotler (1994), which does not account for any external factors, which could include situations like a sudden pandemic. A more detailed model of the consumer decision-making environment (Phipps & Simmons, 1997) does not mention such factors either. The inclusion of emergency situations and external factors, which do not depend on supply or consumer characteristics, is particularly important for the tourism market, because tourism essentially involves the movement of consumers, which was limited during the pandemic.

Similarly, external factors are not included either in the model proposed by Middleton (1988) or in the one developed by Um and Crompton (1990), and the model designed by Schmoll (1977) only contains “assessment of objective and subjective risks” in the category of “external variables”. This deficiency was noticed by Wiesław Alejziak (2009), who postulated the need to study tourist travel inhibitors, which he called “reasons for not leaving” (Alejziak, 2009, p. 384). The author points to an impressive number of theories and models explaining the causes or limitations of tourist activity with a modest body of research on barriers and activity inhibitors. However, most inhibitors are directly related to tourists themselves (e.g. disability, age). While researching the barriers of recreational and tourist activity, Jacek Gracz and Tadeusz Sankowski (2001) distinguished external non-personal barriers, which included time deficit, organizational obstacles and weather conditions. However, crisis situations, such as the COVID-19 pandemic, were not mentioned. Such situations, however, affect consumer behavior, possibly causing them to change their holiday plans in different ways. The results of the study described in this article show how varied such reactions can be.

4. Materials and methods

The empirical part of the study was devoted to the relationship between COVID-19 and tourists' behavior. Answers collected in the survey were used to determine the impact of the pandemic on Polish tourists' travel plans during and after the pandemic. With this general goal in mind, three specific research questions were asked:

1. How has the financial well-being and professional situation of the respondents changed?
2. Did the respondents have to change their plans concerning holiday trips?
3. Do the respondents intend to use peer-to-peer accommodation and look for cheaper accommodation in the new post-COVID-19 reality?

Data for the study were collected using an online pilot survey of 190 Polish adults, who completed a self-administered questionnaire in May 2020, during the lockdown. As it was a pilot study, non-probability sampling was considered to be an adequate choice („Nonprobability Sampling”, 2008). Only adults were included in the sample because of their full legal capacity and ability to make purchasing decisions. Taking into account the exploratory nature of the study, its aim was to collect initial data and to establish preliminary relationships between tourist behavior and the COVID-19 pandemic.

The questionnaire consisted of close-ended questions. The first part contained 7 demographic about respondents' sex, age, education level, place of residence,

marital status, having children, occupational status. The main part of the questionnaire, including 14 questions, was divided into three sections related to COVID-19 and regarding: 1) changes in the respondents' occupational status and financial well-being; 2) their travel plans; 3) and their willingness to use peer-to-peer accommodation (e.g. Airbnb). Basic descriptive statistics were computed using SPSS Statistics. Since it was a pilot study, no attempt was made to determine the appropriate sample size (which is the commonly the case in this type of study) („Pilot Studies”, 2018) and no hypotheses were tested.

5. Study results

5.1. Characteristics of the respondents

The sample consisted of 190 respondents (70.5% women and 29.5% men). The youngest one was 20 years old and the oldest – 73. The majority of respondents were aged between 20 and 39. More than a half were employed (59.5%), and the vast majority were in a relationship (32.6% – cohabiting, 43.7% – married). 63.7% of respondents did not have any children. A detailed breakdown of the demographic characteristics of the respondents is presented in Table 2.

5.2. Changes in occupational status and financial well-being

One of the questions concerned changes in the occupational status due to the pandemic. 32.6% of respondents said their occupational situation had not changed (Fig. 1). 40% reported from home (in contrast to having worked in the office previously), 8.4% did not work owing to a temporary closure of the workplace. 3 respondents (1.6%) had to close their own company, 3 others were laid off, and only 1 person (0.5%) took childcare leave. 15.3% of respondents reported other situations. The most frequently mentioned included reduced working hours (6.3%), loss of job due to COVID-19 and finding a new one (2.6%) or unpaid leave (1.6%). A small percentage reported being part of a hybrid workforce model (a mix of working from home and the office – 1.6%).

Respondents were also asked whether their overall financial situation had deteriorated as a result of the pandemic (Fig. 2). 58.9% answered that the situation remained unchanged, 37.4% admitted that they were indeed worse off financially and 3.7% could not decide how to answer this question.

Table 2. Characteristics of the respondents in the sample

Variable		<i>n</i>	%
Sex	Female	134	70.5
	Male	56	29.5
Age group	< 1951	1	0.53
	1951-1960	7	3.68
	1961-1970	10	5.26
	1971-1980	15	7.89
	1981-1990	82	43.16
	1991-2000	75	39.47
Education level	Primary	0	0.0
	Secondary	36	18.9
	University	152	80.0
	Vocational	2	1.1
Place of residence	Town with up to 50,000 inhabitants	48	25.3
	City with 50,000-500,000 inhabitants	25	13.2
	City with 500,000 or more inhabitants	96	50.5
	Rural area	21	11.1
Occupational status	Unemployed	4	2.1
	Retiree / Pensioner	2	1.1
	On leave (maternity, post-maternity)	9	4.7
	Undeclared work (no contract)	1	0.5
	Self-employed	28	14.7
	University student	15	7.9
	Primary or secondary school pupil	1	0.5
	Employed under an employment contract	113	59.5
	Employed under a contract of mandate or contract for specific work	17	8.9
Marital status	Cohabiting	62	32.6
	Married	83	43.7
	Single	43	22.6
	Widow/widower	2	1.1
Having children	No	121	63.7
	Yes	69	36.3

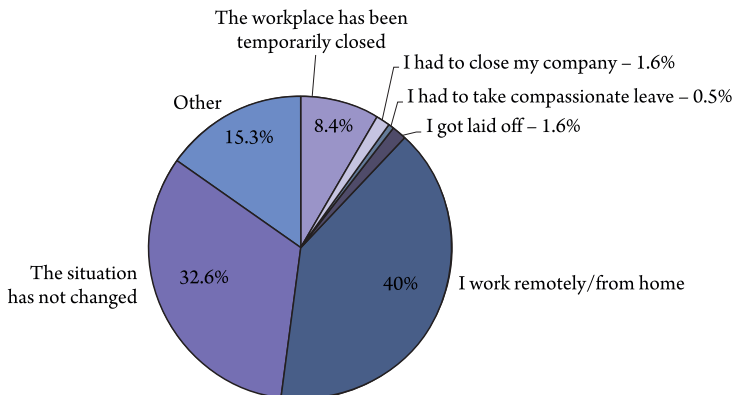
Source: own research.

5.3. Travel plans before, during and after the pandemic

Before the epidemic, 75.3% of respondents had plans to go abroad that year, and 55.3% wanted to spend vacations in Poland. Only 2.6% did not plan any trips, while a similar percentage chose the “I don’t know” option.

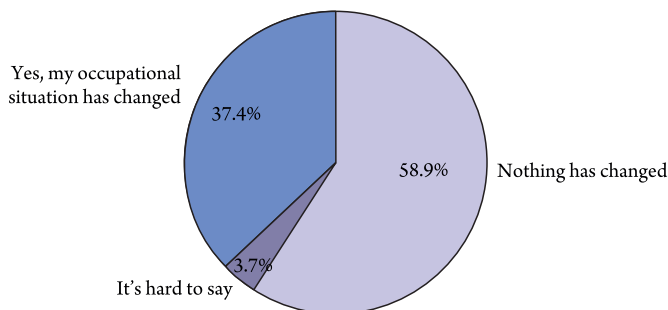
Of those planning a domestic tourist trip, 18.9% cancelled their reservations and 13.7% postpone them. 34.2% of the respondents had not managed to book places by the time the pandemic started, and 17.9% did not take any actions because they hoped that by the time they were supposed to go on vacation, the situation would have stabilized. 4.2% went through with their holiday plans despite the pandemic.

Fig. 1. Changes in the occupational situation



Source: own research.

Fig. 2. Changes in the respondents' financial well-being



Source: own research.

As regards plans of holidays abroad, 35.3% of people cancelled their reservations. 12.1% postponed them and 28.4% had not booked anything when the pandemic started. 7.9% hoped that by the time of departure the situation would have settled down. None of the respondents went through with their travel plans during the pandemic (owing to closed borders, cancelled flights, etc.).

The respondents were also asked if they were planning any tourist trips that year after travel restrictions were lifted and the borders reopened. 61.1% said they wanted to go on a self-organized trip in Poland and 27.4% were planning a self-organized trip abroad. Only one person said they were planning a domestic trip organized by a travel agency; 7.9% respondents wanted to go on package holidays abroad. 13.2% decided not to go anywhere that year, while 15.8% had not made a decision yet.

When asked whether they were planning to make any tourist trips after the epidemic ended (i.e. when the virus stops spreading in Poland and abroad, when there are no new cases and travel restrictions have been lifted), 87.4% of respondents answered positively, 2.1% said they were not going to travel and 10.5% chose the "I don't know" option.

68.2% of respondents who expressed willingness to go on holiday trips after the pandemic was over (166) were planning self-organized stays in Poland. 50.3% wanted to organize their own trip abroad, while 23.1% of respondents thought about booking a foreign holiday through a travel agency. Only 1.2% of respondents (2 persons) were considering an organized trip in Poland. 2.9% chose the option "I don't know" option.

5.4. The type of accommodation chosen before and after the pandemic

Respondents who were planning to travel after the end of the pandemic and who were still undecided were asked what kind of accommodation they used most often during their holidays. 64.5% of respondents indicated hotels, 56.5% – apartments, 38.7% – guesthouses, 33.3% – guest rooms, 25.3% – hostels, 14% – agritourism farms, 12.9% – holiday resorts, 10.2% – camping sites, 8.6% – mountain hostels, 8.1% – travel lodge, and 3.2% – motels. 16.1% of respondents reported staying overnight in the homes of their relatives and friends. Additionally, one person indicated a boat, and 5 mentioned Airbnb as a separate accommodation type.

When asked about the use of Airbnb, 55.4% of respondents (103) said they had not used accommodation offered through this platform during their previous trips. 44.1% indicated they had made reservations through Airbnb, and one person chose the "I don't know" option.

As for respondents' plans to use the Airbnb platform after the end of the epidemic, 25.3% replied they did not intend to use it, 30.1% wanted to use the platform, and 44.6% were undecided. Respondents who answered positively to this question were asked why they intended to use Airbnb after the pandemic. The following categories were selected: prices (73.3%), booking (51.2%), quality (39.5%), location (39.5%), amenities (24.4%), safety (24.4%), interaction with the host (23.3%). A few respondents mentioned wanting to support people who earned income from the application and local experiences.

Among those not intending to use Airbnb after the pandemic, the most frequently selected categories included unfamiliarity with the platform (61.7%), safety (19.1%), interactions with the host (12.8%), quality (8.5%), booking method (6.4%), amenities (4.3%) and price (2.1%). Four people preferred other booking platforms, one wanted to feel anonymous on vacation, one preferred more comfortable conditions offered by hotels (e.g. catering), and one did not use Airbnb because she travelled with a small child. No one indicated the location of Airbnb lodgings as a demotivating factor.

There was also variation regarding the intention of using cheaper accommodation in connection with the epidemic. Only 2.7% of respondents said that

Table 3. Occupational status and willingness to use cheaper accommodation

Occupational status / cheaper accommodation										
		Unemployed	Retiree / Pensioner	Leave (maternity, post-maternity)	Undeclared work (no contract)	Self-employed	Student	Primary or secondary school pupil	Employed – employment contract	Employed – contract of mandate / contract of a specific work
Definitely not	%	25	0	22.2	0	3.6	20	100	12.4	5.9
Probably not		25	0	66.7	0	46.4	46.7	0	35.4	29.4
I don't know		50	0	11.1	100	25	6.7	0	33.6	41.2
Probably		0	0	0	0	17.9	26.7	0	14.2	23.5
Definitely		0	100	0	0	0	0	0	2.7	0
<i>n</i> = 186*		4	2	9	1	26	15	1	111	17

* The total number of responses (186) is smaller than the sample size (190) because the respondents who answered that they did not intend to travel after the pandemic did not give further answers.

Source: own research.

Table 4. Deterioration of respondents' financial well-being and their willingness to use cheaper accommodation

Do you intend to use cheaper accommodation		Has your financial well-being got worse?		
		No	I don't know	Yes
Definitely not	%	14.7	0	10.0
Probably not		49.5	14.3	24.3
I don't know		22.9	85.7	37.1
Probably		11.0	0	24.3
Definitely		1.8	0	4.3
<i>n</i> = 186*		109	7	70

* The total number of responses (186) is smaller than the sample size (190) because the respondents who answered that they did not intend to travel after the pandemic did not give further answers.

Source: own research.

they definitely intended to look for something cheaper, 15.6% answered that they would probably do so, 30.6% were undecided. 38.7% indicated that they would probably not look for cheaper accommodation, while 12.4% would definitely not consider such an option. Those with a strong intention of looking for cheaper accommodation were either retired or employed under an employment contract (Table 3). The group of respondents who would probably consider using cheaper forms of accommodation included self-employed, students and pupils, as well as those employed under various types of contracts. A relative large percentage of respondents were undecided or did not intend to look for cheaper accommodation.

Only 4.3% of respondents whose financial well-being had changed for the worse indicated that they would certainly look for cheaper accommodation. 24.3% considered this a possibility and 37.1% were unsure (Table 4). The remaining 34.3% of respondents in this group were more or less convinced they were not going to look for cheaper accommodation. It should be noted that 12.8% of respondents whose financial situation had not changed also intended to choose cheaper accommodation.

6. Discussion and conclusions

As a result of the COVID-19 pandemic most respondents switched from office work to working remotely (mostly from home). The occupational situation of more than a half of the respondents had changed to a greater or lesser extent, and more than a third reported that their financial well-being had deteriorated. The

pandemic can therefore be regarded as an inhibitor with a direct impact on consumers' behavior. If this impact is not economic, it is manifested by consumers' choices motivated by their concerns about health or shaped by external restrictions.

The vast majority of respondents had to modify or cancel their domestic and foreign holiday plans. This means that the pandemic is not a typical travel inhibitor, but only triggers a certain substitution of tourism products; in other words, for many tourists the prospect of a holiday trip was too valuable to cancel their holiday plans completely. One can agree with Anna Mazurek-Kusiak (2019, p. 197) that consumers do not want to give up their holiday plans, because they are necessary for mental, physical and social well-being. On the one hand, the pandemic, because of the uncertainty associated with foreign travel restrictions, has created a growth opportunity for domestic tourism. On the other hand, many respondents expressed a preference for self-organized trips in the future, which indicates further problems for tour operators, as a result of internal substitution, which increases the market's competitiveness and can help to improve the quality of tourism products (Dziedzic & Skalska, 2012; Mazurek-Kusiak, 2019).

The most frequently given reason why consumers choose peer-to-peer accommodation (Airbnb) are economic benefits (Niezgoda & Kowalska, 2020, s. 9) including peer-to-peer accommodation. On the one hand, knowledge of lifestyle changes can help adapt the product offer to the requirements of consumers. On the other hand, products that consumers use can reflect lifestyle changes. The following classification of motivations for sharing economy activity selection resulting from the subjects' lifestyles has been proposed: personal motivations—related to economic advantages; social (conformist, so one of the survey questions was whether the respondents were going to use Airbnb, even if they had not used it before, and whether respondents generally intended to look for cheaper accommodation in the future (after the pandemic). Only 30.1% indicated they wanted to use Airbnb after the pandemic (44.1% of all respondents had used such services at least once before), while 44.6% were not sure. Those who expressed their willingness to use Airbnb in the future indicated price, booking method, quality, and location as the main reasons. For those not intending to use Airbnb, the biggest obstacle was their lack of familiarity with the platform (61.7%). This may mean that some respondents did not find Airbnb services attractive just because they don't know the platform and not because of other features of this type of accommodation. It should also be underlined that although 37.4% of respondents had suffered a deterioration of their financial well-being only 18.3% of people declared their willingness to look for cheaper accommodation in the future than what they had used before the pandemic.

While the results of the study cannot be generalized to the whole population (because the sample was too small and not representative), but can be helpful for

an exploratory investigation of the phenomenon. The study has provided preliminary knowledge about the dynamic changes in consumer behavior regarding tourism caused by the pandemic, which is a good starting point for further questions and in-depth research. The study was carried out at a time when travel restrictions were in place in Poland, including border closures, mandatory lockdown, etc. It is necessary to repeat the survey to see how attitudes have changed after border restrictions are lifted and the holiday season starts. Further research could involve an in-depth analysis of individual factors influencing the choice of accommodation during the pandemic, such as type and price. In addition, respondents' attitudes may have changed as a result of getting used to the situation.

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COVID-19 jako inhibitor aktywności turystycznej – przykład wakacyjnych planów Polaków

Streszczenie. W wyniku globalnej pandemii COVID-19 światowa gospodarka staje przed wyzwaniami kryzysu w wymiarze społecznym i gospodarczym. Jego skutki są trudne do oszacowania, jednak wpływ na branżę turystyczną jest niezaprzeczalny. Dotyczy to również zachowań konsumentów na rynku turystycznym, których stosunek do podróży uległ radykalnej zmianie. Celem badania przedstawionego w artykule jest odpowiedź na pytanie, w jaki sposób Polacy zmienili plany podróży oraz ich sposób organizacji w trakcie i po zakończeniu pandemii COVID-19. W pracy postawiono tezę, że pandemia jest inhibitorem aktywności turystycznej. Dane badawcze zostały zebrane za pomocą internetowego badania pilotażowego, w którym udział wzięło 190 dorosłych Polaków. Celem pytań w pierwszej części kwestionariusza było określenie ogólnej charakterystyki respondentów. Właściwa część kwestionariusza została podzielona na trzy części związane z CO-

VID-19, dotyczące: 1) zmian w statusie zawodowym i materialnym respondentów, 2) ich planów odnośnie podróży oraz 3) gotowości do korzystania z zakwaterowania typu *peer-to-peer* (Airbnb). Wyniki badania wskazują, że pandemia jest nie tylko inhibitorem aktywności turystycznej, ale może również wpływać na zjawisko substytucji na rynku turystycznym. Potencjalni turyści mogą zrezygnować z zakupu dóbr i usług turystycznych na rzecz innych form wypoczynku (jest to substytucja zewnętrzna w stosunku do rynku turystycznego) lub wybrać inną ofertę na rynku turystycznym, czyli produkt substytucyjny wewnętrzny. Pandemia COVID-19 wpłynęła negatywnie na status materialny i zawodowy części respondentów, a zdecydowana większość z nich musiała zmienić lub anulować swoje plany wakacyjne. Pandemia może stać się szansą na pobudzenie krajowej turystyki, jednak indywidualny sposób organizowania podróży może wskazywać na dalsze problemy touroperatorów. Pomimo pogorszenia się sytuacji finansowej dużej grupy respondentów, zdecydowanie mniej osób deklarowało chęć poszukiwania tańszych noclegów w przyszłości niż przed pandemią.

Słowa kluczowe: inhibitory aktywności turystycznej, COVID-19, zachowanie konsumentów, zakwaterowanie *peer-to-peer*



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FRANCESC FUSTÉ-FORNÉ*

From armchair to table: online supermarkets as potential post-pandemic tourist attractions

Abstract. Food consumption is one of the most popular leisure and tourist activities, and is essential when traveling. This article discusses online supermarkets as a food tourism attraction in the context of the pandemic-related crisis, which is increasingly dominated by digital tourism and virtual travel. The study specifically focuses on online cheese tourism. The author analyses the cheese offering of an online supermarket in Spain, consisting of 120 kinds of cheese products. Results reveal the potential of online cheese tourism, predominantly based on quality cheeses. Various types of cheeses are described, with emphasis on their country of origin. The article contributes to the conceptualisation of digital food tourism practices in post-pandemic tourism. Online supermarkets are not only potential tourist attractions but they could also contribute to the growth of specific forms of food tourism, such as cheese tourism. The author argues that virtual experience is a driver of future trends in food tourism.

Keywords: cheese tourism, digital tourism, gastronomy, regional development

JEL Codes: L83, M31, Z32

1. Introduction

This following study examines virtual food tourism during the pandemic, in particular, cheese tourism, which is a segment of culinary tourism (Fusté-Forné, 2015), looking at supermarkets as potential tourist attractions. The purpose of the article is to discuss the role of online shopping as a way of obtaining gastro-

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conomic knowledge. In recent years, cheese has emerged as a significant element of identity, leisure and tourism. Cheese has become an important part of the offering of many tourist destinations and can be enjoyed in the context of various kinds of experience, such as festivals, markets or restaurants. At the same time, shopping for food is an essential activity for all tourists.

Nowadays, as a consequence of the spread of the Covid-19 all over the world, many countries were severely affected by the second wave since late summer 2020, and travel restrictions are still in effect. Social distance measures are changing hospitality and tourism industries and urging them to be creative and resilient. Both public and private tourism businesses are updating their operations and are increasingly offering virtual experiences – for example, food services and restaurants are reimagining the gastronomic experience in response to the crisis. While international tourism activity is limited because of borders closures (Gössling, Scott, & Hall, 2020), actions taken by regional and national governments to stimulate the recovery of tourism have contributed to the development of domestic tourism which, in turn, represents an opportunity to make the tourism industry more sustainable (Chang, McAleer, & Ramos, 2020). One way this manifests itself is through growing online presence (see, for example, Konys, 2020; Pencarelli, 2020), with e-commerce having an increasing impact on tourism and tourist behaviours (Majeed et al., 2020; Petr, 2009). The following study is based on the analysis of the cheese offering of an online supermarket in the context of virtual food tourism.

The main aim of the study was to find out if online supermarkets can function as tourist attractions in the post-pandemic world? The rest of the article is divided into 4 parts. The following section provides the theoretical background. The next two parts describe the research method and the results, which are followed by the conclusion, which provides limitations and implications of the study as well as opportunities for further research and practice.

2. Theoretical background

Food is a meaningful expression of culture and nature, and a significant identity marker (see Berno & Fountain, 2020). According to Sims (2009), food can symbolise specific places, and various forms of culinary heritage communicate and promote community lifestyles. According to the World Tourism Organization, “food-making as well as wine-making represent an integral part of their history and identity and have become the key element in the nation’s brand image. Gastronomy and wine tourism represent an opportunity to revitalize and diversify tourism, promote local economic development, involve many different professional sectors and bring new uses to the primary sector” (UNWTO, 2012). The

same report affirms that “gastronomy and wine tourism contribute to promoting and branding destinations, maintaining and preserving local traditions and diversities, and harnessing and rewarding authenticity”. According to the World Food Travel Association, food tourism can be defined as “the act of traveling for a taste of place in order to get a sense of place” (WFTA, 2020).

Looking for connections between food and culture has become an increasingly valorised leisure practice (in recent decades Jones & Taylor, 2013; Ravenscroft & Van Westering, 2001). Food tourism refers to the discovery of a culture through its food (Long, 1998; Henderson, 2009), which is placed at the centre of tourist experiences and motivations (Kim, Park, & Lamb, 2019; Su, Johnson, & O’Mahony, 2020). In this sense, Hall and Sharples (2003) described the ‘food tourism’ concept as the journey to culinary and gastronomic regions in order to visit food producers, farmers markets, food fairs and festivals, to taste food products or participate in other food-related activities. This also includes supermarkets. While very few researchers have previously investigated supermarkets as potential tourist attractions, some studies have discussed their role in food and gastronomy tourism (Bertella, 2011; Everett & Aitchison, 2008; Fusté-Forné, 2020a). By taking an innovative approach to the study of cheese tourism, this article contributes to this research field.

Food tourism has been widely investigated and recent publications have been devoted to exploring various dimensions of food tourism (Ellis et al., 2018), addressing such topics as authenticity and culture, motivation, and destination management and marketing. The tension between ‘local’ and ‘global’ and ‘authentic’ and ‘inauthentic’ is recurrent in food tourism research (Cohen & Avieli, 2004; Jolliffe, 2019; Zhang, Chen, & Hu, 2019). Also, the role of food tourism in regional development is acknowledged by previous publications (see, for example, Rachão et al., 2019) in different geographical contexts all over the world. In relation to the visitor motivation, McKercher (2020) identifies tourists with a strong cultural motivation as *purposeful* tourists. This term can also be applied to food tourists: food as part of cultural tourism “is the primary motive for visiting a destination and the individual has a deep cultural experience” (McKercher 2020, p. 127). In this sense, Okumus (2020) notes that food tourism research must delve into aspects such as the design of *unique* local food and beverage tourism experiences, culinary events, the significance of sustainability, and the effects of social media and technology on the promotion of food tourism experiences.

Nowadays, food tourism is not limited to hands-on experiences enjoyed in specific destinations and gastronomic knowledge can be acquired without physical mobility (Fusté-Forné & Masip 2019). Connections between food and tourism can be discovered through lifestyle and travel journalism (Hanusch, 2012; Pirolli, 2019), food journalism (Fusté-Forné & Masip, 2018; Hughes, 2010; Naulin, 2012) and, recently, armchair tourism (Damkjær & Waade, 2014). It can be argued that reading

a cookbook or watching a television show are also examples of food tourism activities. The same can be said about digital tourism practices (Benckendorff, Xiang, & Sheldon, 2019), where the Internet and social media are popular and useful sources of knowledge for tourists (see, for example, Sigala, Christou, & Gretzel, 2012).

Being a specific example of food tourism, cheese tourism explores links between places and people and reflects an integration of multiple landscape values through cheese. Cheese tourism is the process of awarding tourism value to cheese (Fusté-Forné & Mundet, 2020). Cheese tourism “comes from the concern with the process of developing a product closely linked to a territory, and drift towards a typology that includes not only the tourist visit to the craft workshop, but also a set of synergies from complementary food consumption and leisure” (Fusté-Forné, 2015, p. 91). While previous studies have approached cheese tourism from a territorial perspective (see, for example, Ermolaev, Yashalova, & Ruban, 2019), no attempts have been made to study supermarkets as a specific asset of cheese tourism.

In a 2016 article published in *Time*, Ross describes the origin of supermarkets as we understand them nowadays. According to her account, the first modern supermarket (Piggly Wiggly) was opened in America more than a hundred years ago in 1916. While old-style groceries relied on shop-assistants to complete orders, customers at Piggly Wiggly did the shopping directly on their own. This caused a radical change in how customers bought foods and goods. This new model requires that companies to devise new ways of attracting customers’ attention while they are shopping. It was not until the end of the twentieth century that businesses started to offer products online, which slowly triggered a revolution.

While the impressive increase that online grocery shopping has seen during the last couple of decades, this is still an area with growth potential (Wegener, 2017). The current situation makes this analysis even more relevant in the context of the health crisis caused by the spread of Covid-19, followed by severe lockdowns and travel restrictions all over the world, with a wide impact on the tourism industry (Hall, Scott, & Gössling, 2020; Jamal & Budke, 2020). As a consequence, two factors can be identified as growing trends: digital tourism and virtual travel (Kwok & Koh, 2020; Thomas 2020), and e-commerce and online supermarkets (Keyes, 2020; Stern, 2020). The current study focuses on Spain, where these trends can also be observed (Sevillano, 2020; Tomasi, 2020).

3. Research objective and method

Recognising the phenomenon of cheese tourism and understanding online visits to supermarkets as a digital form of food tourism, the following study aims to analyse the cheese offering in the Spanish e-commerce market. For this purpose,

the author studies cheese products sold online by Mercadona, the most successful supermarket chain in Spain (Moreno, 2020), with the largest share (25%) of the domestic grocery market (Forte, 2020). According to Forte (2020), Mercadona is the country’s leading supermarket with a growing number of stores in recent years. It “grew from 1.3 thousand in 2010 to over 1.6 thousand shops in 2018, which represents an increase of more than three hundred stores during the period considered”. In addition, “sales value of the Spanish supermarket chain has only increased in the past years, peaking in 2018 at approximately 22.26 billion euros”. During the lockdown period purchases made at Mercadona accounted for about 40 per cent of total supermarket sales in Spain (Europa Press, 2020).

Mercadona was founded in 1977 (Mercadona, 2020) and it has 1,636 stores. They are mostly located in Spain, but the company also has ten stores in Portugal. It was only in 2018 that it started selling its products online. This study focuses on the supermarket’s online offering of cheese products. The data were collected by entering the term ‘cheese’ in the search field of the supermarket website on 6 May 2020.

The collected data included information about product name, brand, weight and price. The most significant issue is where cheese sold online comes from (Fig. 1), which is a critical attribute for analysing the connection between cheese and tourism in the digital environment – in this case, in an online supermarket. Figure 1 illustrates the relationships between food and tourism are manifested in the case of cheese sold online and how cheese products communicate the taste of place.

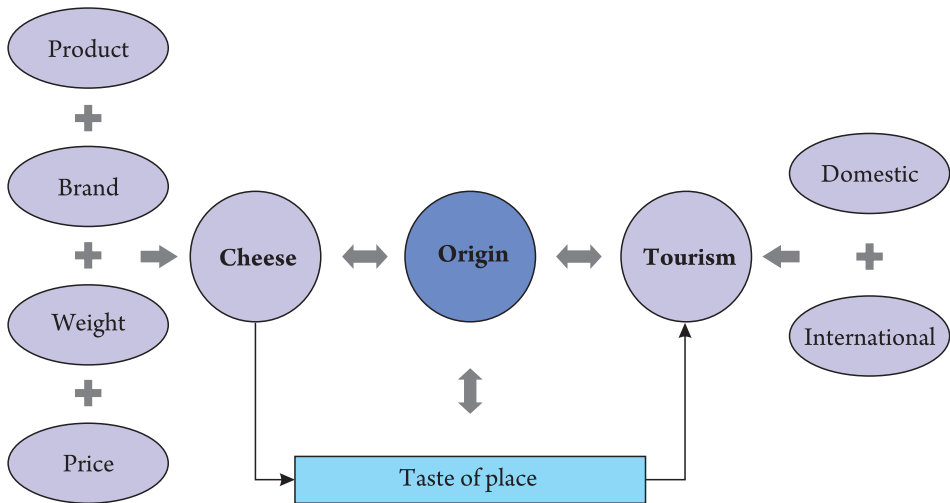


Fig. 1. A proposal to study online cheese tourism in Spanish supermarkets

Source: own research.

4. Results

The search carried out on the supermarket website returned 120 kinds of cheese (Table 1). This study focuses on the role played by cheese sold online in food tourism, with emphasis on its place of origin.

The mean weight of a cheese product was 347,60 grams and the mean price – 3.78 €. The largest piece on offer is cured sheep's milk cheese (1.6 kilograms) and the smallest – a Roquefort style cheese (100 grams). The most expensive cheese is old sheep's milk cheese (13.13 €) and the cheapest – a 180-gram cheese cake (0.89 €). A total of 50 cheeses (41.6%) are sold under the supermarket own brand (*Hacendado*) and 26 (21.6%) are made by a national cheese company (*Entrepinares*). Altogether, 25 different brands are on offer and one-fifth of them are sold in slices. Cheese products also include frites (2.5%), pizzas (4.16%) and sauces (1.6%).

As regards the geographical origin of cheeses, there are several examples that are associated with different local traditions of cheese-making in many European countries. However, first of all, the offering of Spanish cheeses must be highlighted. Some of them are identified with Protected Designations of Origin (PDO), such as the Galician Arzúa-Ulloa and Tetilla cheeses. Another example of a Spanish cheese on offer is Tronchón, an artisan cheese from the Maestrazgo area, which was referenced in the work *Don Quijote de la Mancha*. Cheese is not only an element of national identity but also a vehicle for the promotion of cultural and natural idiosyncrasies of a given territory. On the one hand, cheese-making and its culinary uses communicate a cultural tradition based on heritage and history. On the other hand, there is a close relationship between cheese and landscape, because of the connection between animals that produce milk for cheese production and the environment where they live and graze. These characteristics are the basis for the attractiveness of cheese.

Those interested in products of other origins can explore the supermarket's cheese offering as if participating in a virtual tour across Europe. From the Mediterranean area of Greece, with Feta cheese, customers are taken to Italy to taste Mascarpone or Mozzarella, and then up north to Switzerland, the home of famous cheeses such as Emmental, Gruyère or Raclette. The European cheese making tradition would not be complete without French brands, like Brie, Camembert and Roquefort or without a selection of famous Dutch cheeses, such as Edam, Gouda and Maasdam. As previously mentioned, the local environment is key to the creation of a strong cheese brand, and many cheeses in Europe have achieved an international relevance, not only in terms of the sale of their local cheese varieties, but as significant gastronomic destinations, which rely on cheese to offer a selection of activities and experiences, exemplified for example by Dutch cheese markets. This creates both a motivation to visit and to taste a *unique* place.

Table 1. Cheese types sold online

Product name		Brand	Weight (g)	Price (€)
Cheese	petit blu	Bergader	150.00	1.85
Cheese		Burgo de Arias	216.00	2.19
Cheese	0% fat	Burgo de Arias	216.00	2.19
Cheese		Cantorel	100.00	1.45
Frites	Pandilla	Cheetos	100.00	1.20
Frites	Pelotazos	Cheetos	130.00	1.20
Cheese	slices	Corona	300.00	1.70
Cheese	slices	Corona	300.00	1.70
Cheese		Corona	400.00	2.50
Cheese	slices	Corona	300.00	2.00
Cheese		Corona	455.00	2.90
Cheese 'bola' (ball-shaped)		Corona	430.00	3.65
Cheese	slices	El Caserío	300.00	1.83
Cheese in portions		El Caserío	375.00	2.50
Cheese in portions		El Caserío	250.00	1.70
Cheese	slices	Entremont	400.00	3.85
Cheese	slices	Entrepinares	250.00	1.90
Cheese	slices	Entrepinares	210.00	2.03
Cheese		Entrepinares	350.00	2.62
Cheese	slices	Entrepinares	220.00	2.46
Cheese		Entrepinares	350.00	2.99

Table 1 – cont.

Product name		Brand	Weight (g)	Price (€)
Cheese	cut into wedges	semi-cured	300.00	3.18
Cheese	slices	light	210.00	2.13
Cheese	cut into wedges	cured	280.00	3.29
Cheese	slices	tender cow's milk	320.00	2.21
Cheese	la reserva	cured sheep	350.00	3.41
Cheese	cut into wedges	old sheep's milk cheese	340.00	3.69
Cheese	slices	tender cow's milk	300.00	1.92
Cheese	cut into wedges	Sheep's milk	210.00	2.32
Cheese	30% less fat	tender	330.00	3.22
Cheese		light	330.00	2.82
Cheese		tender	1200.00	7.68
Cheese		old sheep's milk cheese	350.00	3.88
Cheese		semi-cured	1000.00	7.40
Cheese		semi-cured	1600.00	2.72
Cheese		cured	1000.00	8.50
Cheese		old sheep's milk cheese	1500.00	13.13
Cheese		cured sheep's milk cheese	1000.00	9.10
Cheese		Gran Reserva	400.00	4.46
Cheese		low-sodium	330.00	2.66
Cheese		cured sheep	1600.00	13.04
Cheese	creamier	tender	360.00	2.47

Cheese			old sheep's milk cheese	Flor de Esgueva	265.00	4.35
Cheese	sheets		blue	Formatges de Valencia	220.00	2.53
Cheese			semi-cured	García Baquero	320.00	3.84
Cake			cheese classic	Granja Rinya	180.00	0.89
Cheese	slices		Havarti	Hacendado	300.00	2.50
Cheese	slices		Havarti light	Hacendado	300.00	2.58
Cream cheese	white pasteurized		soft	Hacendado	300.00	1.00
Cheese	Burgos natural		fresh	Hacendado	375.00	1.49
Powdered cheese			special pasta	Hacendado	150.00	1.30
Cheese	slices		Mozzarella	Hacendado	200.00	1.35
Melted cheese	slices		sandwich	Hacendado	200.00	1.00
Cheese	roll		goat	Hacendado	200.00	1.90
Diced cheese			Feta	Hacendado	370.00	1.70
Cream cheese	white pasteurized		light	Hacendado	300.00	1.00
Cheese	slices		Cheddar	Hacendado	200.00	1.59
Melted cheese	slices		soft	Hacendado	555.00	1.85
Cheese	Burgos natural		fresh	Hacendado	500.00	1.59
Cheese			Mascarpone	Hacendado	250.00	1.70
Cheese			fresh goat	Hacendado	250.00	2.20
Cheese	slices		without lactose	Hacendado	150.00	1.80
Cheese	skimmed-milk 0% fat	Burgos	fresh	Hacendado	375.00	1.49
Melted cheese	slices		burger	Hacendado	300.00	1.40

Table 1 – cont.

Product name		Brand	Weight (g)	Price (€)
Cheese		Hacendado	480.00	1.49
Cheese		Hacendado	200.00	1.80
Cheese		Hacendado	300.00	2.30
Diced cheese		Hacendado	200.00	1.60
Cheese		Hacendado	180.00	1.75
Melted cheese	slices	Hacendado	300.00	1.40
Cheese	white pasteurized	Hacendado	200.00	1.20
Cream cheese	white pasteurized	Hacendado	200.00	1.25
Cream cheese	white pasteurized	Hacendado	200.00	1.25
Cheese		Hacendado	250.00	1.80
Cheese		Hacendado	250.00	1.55
Cheese		Hacendado	250.00	3.00
Cheese	Burgos low-sodium	Hacendado	250.00	1.29
Cheese		Hacendado	200.00	1.15
Cheese	0% fat	Hacendado	500.00	1.59
Powdered cheese		Hacendado	100.00	1.50
Grated cheese	special for melting	Hacendado	200.00	1.00
Grated cheese	pizza-Roma	Hacendado	200.00	1.20
Grated cheese		Hacendado	150.00	1.65
Cheese	0% fat	Hacendado	500.00	1.09
Frites	Cuquitos	Hacendado	100.00	0.90

Pizza		family-size with 4 kinds of cheese	Hacendado	580.00	2.99
Pizza		4 cheeses	Hacendado	410.00	2.39
Flan		cheese	Hacendado	400.00	1.69
Diced cheese		cured and Cheddar	Hacendado	125.00	0.99
Cream		Camembert	Hacendado	150.00	1.35
Sauce		fresh cheese	Hacendado	180.00	1.29
Pizza		4 cheeses	Hacendado	420.00	2.35
Focaccia		cheese, rosemary and thyme	Hacendado	300.00	1.50
Sauce		cheese	Hacendado	300.00	1.25
Pizza		4 cheeses stuffed with Gorgonzola	Hacendado	540.00	2.99
Pizza		4 cheeses without gluten and without lactose	Hacendado	410.00	2.99
Cheese		tender Gouda	Holland	450.00	2.60
Roll		pineapple cheese and almond	Liptana	100.00	1.20
Cheese		Camembert	Marçillat	240.00	1.25
Cheese		semi-cured goat's milk	Montesinos	360.00	4.16
Cheese		tender Tronchón	Montesinos	260.00	2.56
Cheese		goat's milk	Montesinos	200.00	2.70
Cheese		Emmental	Natural	350.00	2.15
Cheese		Emmental	Natural	200.00	1.60
Cheese		Gruyère	Natural	200.00	2.60
Cream cheese		white pasteurized	Philadelphia	270.00	2.10
Cream cheese		white pasteurized	Philadelphia	270.00	2.10

Table 1 – cont.

Product name		Brand	Weight (g)	Price (€)
Cheese		Brie Marcillat	200.00	1.10
Cheese	snack	soft	180.00	2.38
Mediallon		goat's milk cheese	200.00	2.65
Cheese		Tetilla	700.00	5.18
Cheese		Arzúa-Ulloa	800.00	5.88
Cheese		in portions	375.00	1.39
Cheese in portions		light	250.00	1.25
Cheese in portions		Quesilete	250.00	1.00
Cheese	aged	sheep's milk cheese	375.00	4.11
Cheese		smoked cured cheese	330.00	3.88
Cheese		old intense flavor	350.00	3.32
Cheese		Grana Padano	230.00	3.45
Cheese	slices	Provolone	200.00	1.95
		Plaisir de Roy		
		Président		
		Président		
		Punteiro		
		Punteiro		
		Quesilete		
		Quesilete		
		Quesilete		
		Valle de San Juan		
		Valle de San Juan		
		Valle de San Juan		
		Zanetti		
		Zanetti		

Source: own research.

5. Discussion and conclusions

The study described above has analysed the potential role of digital food tourism as a practice in post-pandemic tourism. Recent studies have highlighted the growing role of slow food tourism (Fusté-Forné & Jamal, 2020), which can be expected to increase even more as a result and in the aftermath of the pandemic (see, for example, Ioannides & Gyimóthy, 2020; Stankov Filimonau, & Vujičić, 2020). The analysis of the cheese offering of a Spanish online supermarket shows that the country of origin could be a key factor in making food products attractive for online food tourism (Fusté-Forné, 2020b). While the author argues that online supermarkets can potentially function as food tourist attractions in the post-pandemic context, this assertion needs to be confirmed by taking into account customer opinions and data from other supermarkets and other product categories.

This study has both theoretical and practical relevance in the context of domestic online tourism. From a theoretical perspective, the analysis of an online supermarket's offering as a potential food, and cheese, tourism attraction is relevant during the pandemic. From a more practical point of view, the study provides a preliminary conceptualisation of online food tourism as exemplified by the cheese offering. Also, results of this study could be of interest to public and private tourism organisations, which are planning and promoting food-related activities. As pointed out by Okumus, "the tourism industry has witnessed the latest trends among tourists who are willing to spend more time and money on unique food and beverage experiences through food tours, food- and beverage-focused events and marketing efforts" (Okumus, 2020, p. 2). It can be expected that social media and technology will play an increasingly crucial role in food tourism.

While the type of cheese sold is a key determinant in consumers' purchasing decisions, the demand aspect requires further investigation. Previous studies have focused on the relationships between e-commerce and tourism. In particular, recent research has reviewed the impact of online information on tourist behaviour (see, for example, Xiang et al., 2020). Further analysis of this problem would help to understand the online grocery experience taking into account customers' purchasing decisions (see Damkjær & Waade, 2014) and motivations. In addition, it is evident that cheese offers multiple opportunities for tourism-like experiences, associated with domestic and foreign destinations (depending on the brand of cheese) that could enable consumers to engage in the act of virtual travel. Another question worth investigating in future research is how cheese or cheese-based products offered online communicate a specific place of origin?. As shown in this study, the online supermarket offering is an opportunity for customers to discover regional cheeses, made from the milk of different animals, in addition to well-known national and international brands.

The potential of cheese in online food tourism fits in well with the growing demand for 'online' food products in the context of consumption displacement (Hall, Prayag, Fieger, & Dyason, 2020). As a very recent study has acknowledged, e-tourism must lead the recovery of the industry (Gretzel et al., 2020). Future research is expected to further engage with the implications of online tourist attractions for the development, planning, management and marketing of food tourism, in an ever evolving local-global environment where new food experiences are rapidly emerging to transform the future of food tourism.

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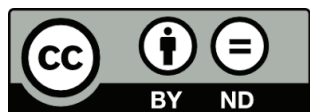
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Od fotela do stołu: supermarkety internetowe jako potencjalne atrakcje turystyczne w dobie pandemii

Streszczenie. Konsumpcja żywności jest jedną z najpopularniejszych form spędzania czasu wolnego i aktywności turystycznej oraz niezbędnym elementem podróżowania. Tematem artykułu są supermarkety internetowe jako potencjalna atrakcja turystyczna w dobie pandemii, kiedy wzrasta rola turystyki cyfrowej i podróży wirtualnych. Opisane w artykule badanie dotyczy wirtualnej turystyki serowej. Autor analizuje ofertę serów w hiszpańskim supermarkecie internetowym, która obejmuje 120 rodzajów wyrobów serowych. Badanie pokazuje potencjał wirtualnej turystyki serowej, głównie na podstawie oferty serów wysokiej jakości. Opisano różne rodzaje serów, ze szczególnym uwzględnieniem kraju pochodzenia. Artykuł przedstawia koncepcję praktyk wirtualnej turystyki żywnościowej w warunkach pandemii. Supermarkety internetowe nie tylko stanowią potencjalne atrakcje turystyczne, ale także mogą się przyczynić do rozwoju określonych form turystyki spożywczej, np. turystyki serowej. Zdaniem autora doświadczenia wirtualne to czynnik kształtujący przyszłe trendy w turystyce kulinarnej.

Słowa kluczowe: turystyka serowa, turystyka wirtualna, gastronomia, rozwój regionalny



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Increasing the socio-cultural influence of immovable cultural heritage on local communities – the case of historic residential buildings in Wielkopolska used as hotels

Abstract. The article presents results of a study of how immovable cultural heritage used for commercial purposes of tourism affects local communities. The study is based on data collected in direct interviews with property owners and representatives of local authorities and a questionnaire survey of local residents concerning sixteen historic buildings used as hotels, which are located in rural areas of Wielkopolskie province. It was found that the provision of additional, free cultural functions for local communities by property owners and/or local authorities exerts a greater socio-cultural impact and contributes to local, sustainable development. Based on the results of the study, it can be concluded that when historic buildings of this kind are used for commercial purposes it is important to ensure that they are part of the cultural experience not only for hotel guests but also for the local community. In this way, entire communities can appreciate their local cultural heritage (socio-cultural impact), which in turn strengthens cultural sustainability.

Keywords: cultural heritage, heritage management, sustainable development, impact assessment, adaptive reuse, cultural economics, socio-cultural development

JEL Codes: R11, Z32, Q01

1. Introduction

Many historic buildings are currently being adapted to serve contemporary purposes. These new uses are often related to the tourism market, which means they many of these buildings are converted into hotels. As the stock of cultural heritage objects, including immovable ones keeps growing, not all of them can be used

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as museums and maintained with public funds (Szmygin, 2009, p. 5). Therefore, in line with the contemporary approach to immovable cultural heritage, such resources can be adapted to serve purposes other than those they were created for. They are treated as a catalyst for sustainable local development (JPI CH Report, 2019; Kobyliński, 2011; Purchla, 2013; Szmygin, 2016; Veldpaus Pereira Roders, & Colenbrander, 2013). Reuse of immovable cultural heritage is also a consequence of the current policies in the field of the use and management of cultural heritage (Council of Europe, 2005, 2015; Council of the European Union, 2010, 2013, 2014a, 2014b; European Commission, 2018; ICOMOS, 2014, 2016; United Nations, 2015). These policies result from research on cultural heritage and the role it plays in socio-economic life. In recent years, both research and policies related to cultural heritage have focused on the impact of cultural heritage resources on sustainable local development, including the socio-cultural component (Ashworth & Tunbridge, 2000; Gabrielli & Farinelli, 2017; Labadi, 2011; Licciardi & Amirtahmasebi, 2012; Murzyn-Kupisz, 2013; Murzyn-Kupisz & Działek, 2013; Purchla, 2013).

Immovable cultural heritage can be traded like any other real estate, which is not legally protected. For example, in Poland in many cases such buildings can be bought and sold without any limitations and sometimes such transactions are even facilitated by various types of discounts (Ustawa z dnia 21 sierpnia 1997 r. o gospodarce nieruchomościami). Potential buyers are thus incentivised to acquire such buildings and repurpose them for contemporary, often commercial, functions. In this way, historic buildings get a “second life” and can be preserved for future generations without the need to spend public funds on protecting and maintaining them. Unfortunately, once such buildings start to be used for commercial purposes, are often “excluded” from the life of the local community or their role in this respect is considerably limited. For their new owners, profit becomes the key rationale for their operation in the new format. When historic properties are sold to private owners, buyers’ intentions are rarely taken into account. Under private ownership, the use of historic buildings for cultural and social functions is usually limited to paying customers, i.e. those who have purchased a service offered at a given historic site. However, it should be emphasized that such buildings, although privately owned, still constitute *public goods* (Mathews, 2010; Navrud & Ready, 2002; Navrud, 2005) and as such should be part of the local community’s socio-cultural life, contributing to its sustainable development. Therefore, it is worth investigating whether historic buildings that constitute local cultural assets and provide additional cultural functions for local communities affect their socio-cultural development. One category of buildings that are frequently made to serve new functions are historic residences in rural Poland converted into hotels. These buildings no longer serve their original purposes as centres for managing their owners’ land or as manifestations of their wealth and status. The author investi-

gated additional cultural functions played by such buildings, namely the impact of organizing free cultural events (of various types) for local communities. The study focused on sixteen historic residences located Wielkopolskie province in Poland. It is part of broader research on the impact of historic buildings on sustainable local development and ensuring their cultural sustainability.

2. The research problem

Research on the impact of immovable cultural heritage on sustainable local development has been undertaken since the 1990s (see: Bollo, 2013; Frey 1997a, 1997b; Greffe, 2004; Lazzaretti, 2012; Mason, 2002; Matarasso, 1997; McLoughlin, Sodagar, & Kaminski, 2006; Murzyn-Kupisz & Działek, 2013; Nijkamp, 2012; Rypkema, 2008; Van der Auwera, 2014; Yung & Chan, 2012). Most of these studies focus on the socio-economic effects of using immovable cultural heritage, such as job creation, local government revenue, influx of tourists, etc. (Ashworth & Tunbridge, 2000; Gabrielli & Farinelli, 2017; Labadi, 2011; Licciardi & Amirtahmasebi, 2012; Murzyn-Kupisz, 2013; Murzyn-Kupisz & Działek, 2013). There are no studies accounting for any factors that might strengthen or weaken the impact of particular uses of immovable cultural heritage on various dimensions of sustainable development, particularly the socio-cultural dimension. The element of culture is essential in this context because heritage is, as a rule, culture-forming and creative and is the basis for creating so-called cultural income (Throsby, 2005; UNESCO, 2013). Therefore, it is important that the impact of cultural heritage should be as big as possible and any initiatives to repurpose it should benefit the maximum range of recipients, including the local community where a given cultural heritage object is located. However, repurposing of cultural heritage resources is very often associated with commercial use as a source of income (hotels, residential real estate, etc.). On the one hand, in this way historic buildings can generate profit, with which they can be maintained without the need to use public funding. On the other hand, using a historic building for commercial purposes often means that the majority of the local community can no longer use it because the price of services offered is too high. This is frequently the case with historic buildings converted into hotels. Such facilities are often of a high standard, which is reflected by relatively high prices of services offered. An earlier study (Niemczewska, 2020) carried out by the author indicates that the socio-cultural impact on customers who use the services provided in historic buildings is greater than that experienced by members of local communities, who have limited opportunities to use them. However, this influence exists if the local community can experience a given building on other

occasions. As mentioned in the introduction, immovable cultural heritage objects are often sold to private owners, without much regard for their intentions, which are usually associated with profit generation. However, certain initiatives taken by both property owners and local authorities can increase the role such buildings play in the socio-cultural development of local communities. In view of the above, the author hypothesized that additional non-profit cultural initiatives associated with cultural heritage objects used for commercial purposes contribute to increasing their impact on the socio-cultural dimension of sustainable development of local communities.

3. Theoretical background

Broadly understood cultural heritage is perceived as an important factor of sustainable local and regional socio-economic development (Kogut-Jaworska, 2011, p. 190; Murzyn-Kupisz, 2013, pp. 156-162; Purchla, 2013, p. 5). Cultural heritage is a development fostering resource, which, if properly used, can bring multifaceted benefits. It can be a tourist product, a tool to combat poverty, a branding tool, a tool to promote social cohesion and an economical alternative to creating new buildings (Purchla, 2013, p. 54). Some researchers also refer to it as a kind of cultural capital (Shockley, 2004, pp. 75-102; Throsby, 1997, 1999). Interpreting cultural heritage as cultural capital is clearly in line with the definition of the environment as natural capital (Licciardi & Amirtahmasebi, 2012, p. XXII; Navrud & Ready, 2002, p. 5; Throsby, 2005, p. 3). For this reason, cultural heritage (both tangible and intangible) began to be considered and studied in the context of sustainable development. It means that studies in this area aim to answer the following questions: does the new use of a given heritage object ensure sustainable local development, does it positively affect such economic categories as employment growth, multiplier effects, but also whether it affects socio-cultural development. Also in practice, cultural heritage is seen as a catalyst for creativity and a factor contributing to the attractiveness of regions and cities, which translates into economic growth and job creation (European Commission, 2014; 2018). Both states and organizations influencing policy making have perceived the need to transform cultural heritage sites and give them a different, contemporary meaning in order to limit the use of public funds by increasing their chances for self-financing. In 2019, the Register of Monuments included 844,588 entries for immovable monuments (Narodowy Instytut Dziedzictwa, 2020, p. 13). The number of historic buildings increases every year (although some of those previously listed, due to the loss of their historic value – which is often the result of adaptation works – are deleted from the register). Therefore, even professional monument conservators agree that only the most valuable buildings can function

as museums and only some can be renovated and restored using public funds. Most historic monuments have to be maintained by their owners or users, which means that they must fulfil new functions (Szmygin, 2009, p. 5).

One category of immovable monuments in Poland includes residential buildings, such as palaces and manors. They are an important part of the national immovable heritage, both in material and symbolic terms (Kozak, 2008, p. 93). They are situated in towns and villages, although in most cases, they are a feature of the rural landscape, which is a reflection of the original purpose they were created for. Manors and palaces were centres of land administration and served as a symbol of their owners' wealth and social status. Some of them are now located in urban centres because over the centuries cities have grown, and some of these buildings have been "absorbed" into the urban fabric. Some of them were originally built inside cities, such as palaces of factory owners in Łódź, which saw a rapid development of the textile industry at the turn of the 19th and 20th centuries. Regardless of their location, many are currently neglected or are used for other purposes (Narodowy Instytut Dziedzictwa, 2017, pp. 125-126). Depending on their state of preservation and location, they have been used as offices, schools, orphanages, nursing homes, penitentiary institutions, hotels, boarding houses, etc. How those buildings have been treated and used over the years also depends on the prevailing political or socio-economic conditions. The accession of Poland to the European Union was an important moment for the Polish stock of monuments. As a result, cultural heritage resources (including immovable ones) began to be perceived not only in the light of national policies but also in the context of European regulations. The goal of these policies is not only to protect cultural heritage as a valuable resource from the point of view of local communities but also to enable its use for new purposes and shape its role in society and the economy. Contemporary use of cultural heritage, according to EU and national policies, should contribute to economic growth, employment and social cohesion, social and cultural development, i.e. to the implementation of the main goals of sustainable development. For, as underlined by the European Commission, "Europe's cultural heritage, both tangible and intangible, is our common wealth – our inheritance from previous generations of Europeans and our legacy for those to come. It is an irreplaceable repository of knowledge and a valuable resource for economic growth, employment and social cohesion" (European Commission, 2014).

4. Methodology

To confirm the hypothesis, the author conducted a study using qualitative and quantitative methods to characterize the socio-cultural dimension of sustainable local development and the resources of immovable cultural heritage. The use of

Table 1. List of historical residential buildings analysed in the study

Name of the historical place	Data from the Polish Register of Monuments
Antonin Palace	Hunting palace complex, register nos: KS.Z.I.2/28/48 dated 6.03.1948, 906/A dated 20.07.1970, 719/A dated 25.09.1995, no: 732/A dated 27.09.1996
Będlewo Palace	Palace complex register no: 1493/A dated 27.11.1973
Biedrusko Palace	Palace complex, register no: 1778/A dated 19.01.1978
Brodnica Palace	Palace complex, register no: 1715/A dated 23.04.1975
Bugaj Palace	Palace complex, register no: 455/A dated 16.07.1988
Dębogóra Manor	Manor house complex XVIII/XIX century, register nos: A-762 dated 22.03.1995, A-564 dated 29.09.1987
Drzewckowo Palace	Palace complex, register no: 228/1-4/Wlkp/A dated 2.04.1957, 11.04.1974 and 4.07.2002
Iwno Palace	Palace complex, register no: 767/Wlkp/A dated 29.10.1968, 4.02.1988, 5.02.1981, 23.11.1994 and 20.10.2009
Jeziorki Manor	Manor and farm complex, register no: 1413/A dated 7.05.1993
Kobylniki Palace	Manor complex, register no: 1432/A dated 11.04.1973
Obrzycko Palace Complex	Palace complex, register no: 1430/A dated 11.04.1973 and 2249/A dated 5.10.1992
Podstolice Palace	Manor complex, register nos: 2154/A dated 22.04.1988, 1987/A dated 16.01.1985
RzęszkowoPalce	Palace complex, register nos: A-525 dated 27.08.1985, A-797 dated 15.12.1997
Tarce Palace	Palace complex, register no: 1390/A dated 24.02.1973
Wąsowo Palace Complex	Palace complex, register no: 1689/A dated 4.04.1975
Witaszyce Palace	Palace complex, register no: 474/Wlkp/A dated 11.11.1974

Source: The Register of Immovable Monuments of Wielkopolskie Province [January 2020].

quantitative research methods is often preceded by the application of qualitative methods (Bryman, 2006; Creswell, 2014), which is the approach adopted by the author. The preliminary qualitative data for were collected using direct interviews and quantitative data were collected by means of a questionnaire survey. The study consisted of two stages: the purpose of the first one was to examine the socio-cultural impact of historic residential buildings used as hotels on local communities. All of the analysed buildings are located in rural areas of Wielkopolskie province.

The sample of buildings was selected from the Register of Immovable Monuments for Wielkopolskie Province¹, which were listed as residential buildings (including the following subcategories: manor or palace complex, manor house,

¹ <http://www.poznan.wuoz.gov.pl/rejestr-zabytkow>

palace) and were located in rural areas. Online information was used to check which of the selected buildings functioned as hotels. Only buildings that had been used as hotels for at least 8 years were included in the sample. 31 buildings that met this condition were found, of which one had become a retirement home, one was owned by the Marshal's Office of Wielkopolskie province and did not provide accommodation for non-institutional guests, while five others were no longer in operation and their owners could not be contacted (the buildings were put up for sale). Owners of another three buildings refused to participate in the study, while

Table 2. The questionnaire concerning the socio-cultural impact of repurposed historical buildings on local communities

Education and knowledge / creating the image and regional symbolism:				
1.	Do you know that (name of a given historic place) is a cultural heritage object protected by law?	yes	no	no opinion
	<i>How do you know about it? (school, Internet)</i>			
2.	Do you know what the original purpose of this place was?	yes	no	no opinion
	<i>If you do, please specify what it was. How do you know that? (school, Internet, etc.)</i>			
3.	Do you know any historical events associated with this place or what role it played in any period of history?	yes	no	no opinion
	<i>If you do, say what event you know about? How do you know that?</i>			
4.	Do you think that the historical significance of this place is important for the country (region)?	yes	no	no opinion
	<i>Could you justify your answer?</i>			
5.	Do you think that this historic place is something special or distinctive only for your country, region?	yes	no	no opinion
	<i>If you do, could you explain why?</i>			
Skills / Creativity:				
6.	Has the fact of living in (near) this historical place prompted you to start doing something related to art, craft, collectables?	yes	no	no opinion
	<i>If the answer is "yes", could you specify what it is that you do:</i>			
7.	Has the fact of living near (or visiting) this historic place encouraged you to acquire new skills?	yes	no	no opinion
	<i>If the answer is "yes", specify what skills?</i>			
8.	Does the new function of this historical place enable you to participate in certain cultural events organized periodically (e.g., festivals, shows, art shows)?	yes	no	no opinion
National, regional, local identity / social participation:				
9.	Do you feel proud that this type of place is located in the area you live in?	yes	no	no opinion
10.	Would you recommend this historical place for the purpose of promoting your country, region or place of residence abroad?	yes	no	no opinion
	<i>If the answer is "yes", could you explain why?</i>			
11.	Have you had an opportunity to participate in local and community initiatives that were somehow connected with this historical place?	yes	no	no opinion
	<i>If you have, could you give an example:</i>			

Source: own research.

five others did not respond to the request to participate in the study (which was treated as a refusal). As a result, the final sample included 16 buildings, which are listed in Table 1.

The study was carried between January and September in 2020. It should be noted that the reference period started before the outbreak of the COVID-19 pandemic, while other works, e.g. the survey of local government representatives, were conducted via e-mail during the lockdown (the respondents were asked to take into account the time before the pandemic).

Data for the analysis of the socio-cultural impact of repurposed historical buildings on local communities were collected using simple random selection, where each member of the population has an equal chance of being included in the sample. Fifty people were examined in each of the village communities where the 16 historic buildings converted into hotels were located. Table 2 presents the content of the survey questionnaire.

Relative percentages of positive answers were calculated for each question. These percentages can be interpreted as representing the level of appreciation for each of the 16 cultural heritage objects analysed in the study. Table 3 shows an arbitrary scale used to classify the level of appreciation or the strength of the socio-cultural impact.

Table 4 shows the assessed impact of the historic buildings on the socio-cultural dimension of sustainable local development. In the case of 6 buildings, the socio-cultural impact was assessed as considerable; with regard to 5 others, it was assessed as moderate, and in the case of the last five – as weak.

To investigate whether the lack of additional non-profit cultural initiatives affects the level of cultural appreciation by local communities and, consequently, the socio-cultural dimension of development, the author interviewed the buildings' owners and representatives of local government. The author divided additional

Table 3. Level of general appreciation for the 16 cultural heritage objects, the strength of the socio-cultural impact on representatives of local communities

Range (percentage scale)	Impact strength
0	no impact
1-20	very weak
21-40	weak
41-60	moderate
61-80	significant
81-100	strong

Source: own research.

Table 4. The socio-cultural impact of the analysed historic buildings on local communities

Name of the historic building	Socio-cultural impact
Antonin Palace	significant
Będlewo Palace	moderate
Biedrusko Palace	significant
Brodnica Palace	significant
Bugaj Palace	weak
Dębogóra Manor	significant
Drzeczkowo Palace	weak
Iwno Palace	significant
Jeziorki Manor	moderate
Kobylniki Palace	weak
Obrzycko Palace	moderate
Podstolice Palace	weak
Rzęszkowo Palace	weak
Tarce Palace	significant
Wąsowo Palace	moderate

Source: own research.

Table 5. The correlation between the presence of additional non-profit cultural activities and the assessed level of the socio-cultural impact on the local community

Additional non-profit cultural functions + (present), - (absent)		Strength of socio-cultural impact	Number of buildings where additional non-profit cultural func- tions were present
organised by the owner	organised by local authorities		
Socio-cultural involvement on the part of both sides			
+	+	significant	6
+	+	moderate	2
Socio-cultural involvement on the part of one side			
+	-	moderate	3
-	+	weak	2
No socio-cultural involvement on the part of any side			
-	-	weak	3

Source: own research.

non-profit cultural initiatives into two subcategories: additional non-profit cultural functions/activities organised by the building's owner and, cultural events organised by local authorities for the local community.

At this stage, the data were collected during structured interviews in which respondents were asked about the organization of free socio-cultural initiatives and events for the local community. In the case of building owners: "Do you ever organise any non-profit cultural events in the hotel? If so, please provide examples" and, in the case of local government: "Do the local authorities organize any cultural events in the historical site, which can be attended by members of the community where the site is located)? If so, please provide examples".

Information about socio-cultural activities mentioned above was compared with the previous assessment of the socio-cultural impact. The results of this comparison are summarised in Table 5.

5. Findings

As shown in Table 5, the presence of additional non-profit cultural activities is clearly correlated with the socio-cultural influence of historic buildings on local communities. Cultural heritage objects where both owners and local authorities were involved in organising such events have a stronger socio-cultural impact on the local community. 8 buildings (50% of the sample) where such activities are organised by both sides were assessed as having a considerable or moderate level of socio-cultural impact. 5 historic buildings where cultural events were only organised by one side were assessed as having only a moderate or weak level of socio-cultural impact. 3 objects where neither the owners nor the local authorities provided additional non-profit cultural activities, were only assessed as having a low level of socio-cultural impact. Interestingly, in 8 cases, socio-cultural activities involving the historic buildings are organised by public-private partnerships between building owners and local authorities, with the participation of local schools. The latter fact confirms the results of earlier studies (Belova & Korshuk, 2017, p. 71) that by getting to know local cultural heritage, children and adolescents learn to appreciate and preserve it. Historic buildings where such activities are organised have a moderate or considerable impact on the socio-cultural development of local communities.

6. Conclusions

Immovable cultural heritage in the form of residential buildings located in rural areas is undoubtedly a valuable historical resource in Poland. Because the cost of maintaining such buildings, which are frequently in poor condition, has to be

borne by local governments and taxpayers, it is reasonable to use them for other purposes, which practically means exploiting them as sources of profit for their owners. Such buildings are usually converted into hotels. As elements of cultural heritage, they are a common good and valuable resource for local communities and can potentially contribute to local sustainable socio-cultural development. The study described above has shown that historic buildings converted into hotels can make a considerable contribution to local sustainable development in the socio-cultural dimension provided that their owners and local authorities organise additional non-profit activities enabling local communities to benefit from their cultural values, which confirms the initial hypothesis put forward by the author.

On the one hand, the results of the study provide the basis for recommending more cooperation between owners of heritage objects used for commercial purposes and local authorities in order to develop their socio-cultural function. On the other hand, they show it is necessary to impose the requirement of undertaking such initiatives on prospective owners of such buildings as a way of making sure that their cultural values can be appreciated not only by paying guests but also by members of local communities. From the perspective of sustainable local development and cultural sustainability, it is particularly important to ensure the participation of local schools.

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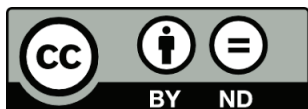
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Zwiększanie społeczno-kulturowego wpływu nieruchomego dziedzictwa kulturowego na społeczności lokalne – przykład zabytkowych obiektów rezydencjonalnych Wielkopolski zaadaptowanych do funkcji hotelowych

Streszczenie. W artykule przedstawiono wyniki badań nad wpływem nieruchomego dziedzictwa kulturowego zaadaptowanego do komercyjnych celów turystycznych na społeczności lokalne. Opracowanie opiera się na danych zebranych w wywiadach bezpośrednich z właścicielami nieruchomości i przedstawicielami władz lokalnych oraz badaniu ankietowym mieszkańców dotyczącym 16 zabytkowych obiektów hotelarskich zlokalizowanych na terenach wiejskich województwa wielkopolskiego. Stwierdzono, że zapewnienie dodatkowych, bezpłatnych funkcji kulturalnych społecznościom lokalnym przez właścicieli nieruchomości i/lub władze lokalne wywiera większy wpływ społeczno-kulturowy i przyczynia się do lokalnego zrównoważonego rozwoju. Na podstawie wyników badań można stwierdzić, że w przypadku wykorzystywania tego typu obiektów zabytkowych w celach komercyjnych ważne jest, aby były one częścią doświadczenia kulturowego nie tylko gości hotelowych, ale także społeczności lokalnej. W ten sposób społeczności mogą docenić swoje lokalne dziedzictwo kulturowe (wpływ społeczno-kulturowy), co z kolei wzmacnia zrównoważony rozwój kulturowy.

Słowa kluczowe: dziedzictwo kulturowe, zarządzanie dziedzictwem, zrównoważony rozwój, ocena wpływu, adaptacyjne ponowne wykorzystanie dziedzictwa, ekonomia kultury, rozwój społeczno-kulturowy



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BARTOSZ KORINTH*

The impact of COVID-19 on foreign travel plans of Polish tourists in 2020

Abstract. The aim of this article is to analyse foreign travel plans of Polish tourists in 2020 and how they were affected by the COVID-19 pandemic. The study is based on information collected through an online survey involving 355 respondents. The survey was anonymous and consisted of 6 questions. It was found that the outbreak of the pandemic significantly changed foreign travel plans of Poles in the analysed period. Only a third of the respondents said they were planning a tourist or recreational trip abroad. There was much less interest in countries like Turkey, Egypt or Tunisia, in favour of European countries, mainly those located in the Mediterranean area, such as Spain and Italy. The study has also shown that domestic tourism can be expected to increase, as indicated by data collected by the Polish Chamber of Tourism.

Keywords: COVID-19, Poland, tourism, survey, travel plans

JEL Codes: O52; Z13; Z32

1. Introduction

The tourism literature addressing issues related to the COVID-19 pandemic keeps growing, especially regarding reports trying to explain the importance of the whole situation for the global tourism industry. One can find first economic analyses, forecasts and proposals of corrective actions, which are intended, at least to a small extent, to compensate for financial huge losses caused by the pandemic (Baldwin, Mauro, 2020; Czech et al., 2020). Authors already discuss the

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negative effects on tourism brought on by the introduction of quarantine, travel restrictions or even border closures (Gössling, Scott, & Hall, 2020; Linka et al., 2020). However, it is argued that all those restrictions were necessary to slow down the spread of the coronavirus around the world, as reported by Chinazzi et al. (2020).

Tourism in Europe, which is a highly tourism-intensive region, has been particularly affected in its western, southern and central parts. From the moment of the first case of COVID-9 infection or the first outbreaks (Goniewicz et al., 2020), those parts of Europe recorded a considerable decrease in the number of visitors. On the one hand, this situation was related to border closures in Asian countries; on the other hand, a growing fear of traveling could be observed among inhabitants of other countries, which was associated with the introduction of various types of restrictions (Bonaccorsi, et al., 2020). Based on Skyscanner data, it can be estimated that interest in foreign travel among Europeans decreased by about 30% compared to the same period in the previous year (Gallego & Font, 2020).

The situation related to the COVID-19 pandemic also affected the Polish tourism sector, which was manifested, among other things, by the decline in occupancy rates (Napierała, et al., 2020). In March 2020, the occupancy rate of all forms of accommodation fell by approximately 40% compared to the same period last year (Korinth & Ranasinghe, 2020). After Poland's borders were reopened, the situation of the hotel industry improved, but the higher occupancy rate was mainly related to the increase in tourist traffic in the country. A similar situation could be observed when analysing passenger statistics for Polish airports, which were hit by the closure of the country's borders from March 15, 2020 (Orzechowska & Bednarek, 2020).

The purpose of this article is to present the results of an online survey conducted from June 1 to June 15, 2020. The study was intended to illustrate how the COVID-19 pandemic had affected Poles' interest in foreign travel in 2020. The findings provide an insight into the impact of the pandemic on foreign travel plans of Polish tourists and are one of the first publications on the subject based on survey data.

2. Poles traveling abroad in 2017-2019 – the situation before the COVID-19 pandemic

In recent years, the main reasons why Poles have travelled abroad have been tourism and leisure. Each year in the period 2017-2019 saw an increase in the number of foreign trips (Table 1).

Table 1. Foreign tourist trips of Polish residents aged 15 or more in 2017-2019 (in thousand)

Trip length	Year		
	2017	2018	2019
Short-term (2-4 days)	2,398.1	2,527.6	2,679.4
Percentage change	–	+ 5.4%	+ 6.0%
Long-term (5 days or longer)	9,560.0	10,219.3	10,865.2
Percentage change	–	+ 6.8%	+ 6.3%

Source: based on data published by Statistics Poland (GUS 2017, 2018, 2019).

The above data show an annual increase in the number of long-term trips, which account for the vast majority of all foreign trips. A similar increase, in percentage terms, was recorded for short-term trips, despite considerably lower absolute figures. This increase could be attributed to the dynamic growth of low-cost airlines in Poland (Bojczuk, 2008) and the rising popularity of so-called city breaks (Balińska, 2020).

In the period between 2017 and 2019, Greece was the most popular foreign destination, although the number of Polish travelers to this country declined by an average of 4 percentage points per year (Table 2). A reverse but much more dynamic trend can be observed for Turkey, which nearly managed to match the

Table 2. Most popular foreign destinations chosen by Polish tourists in 2017-2019 (% of all foreign trips)

Country	Year		
	2017	2018	2019
Greece	30.84	26.26	22.11
Turkey	9.79	15.99	20.44
Egypt	9.78	11.46	12.52
Spain	15.57	12.83	11.14
Bulgaria	10.81	10.77	10.98
Tunisia	1.11	2.49	3.67
Cyprus	1.49	1.97	2.95
Italy	3.98	3.32	2.29
Albania	2.18	2.63	1.85
Portugal	1.93	1.28	1.36

Source: Frydrykiewicz (2020).

share of Greece in 2019. Decreases in the number of Polish tourists were also recorded for Spain (from 15.57% in 2017 to 11.14% in 2019) and Italy (from 3.98% in 2017 to 2.29% in 2019).

3. Material and research methods

In order to analyse holiday plans of Poles in 2020, the author used an online survey, which was carried out in the period 1-15 June 2020. The survey was posted on the Google Forms platform, which was a particularly convenient form of data collection given the pandemic. Responses were obtained from a sample of tourists and one-day visitors selected from among people registered on Facebook.

The survey was anonymous and consisted of 6 questions, both open-ended and closed. Some of the questions could be answered using options on a Likert scale (6- or 4-point). Similar surveys aimed at studying the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on society have been conducted by, among others, Rzymiski and Nowicki (2020) and Ahorsu et al. (2020). The online survey was completed by a total of 355 respondents (275 women and 80 men), with 52% of them aged 18-35.

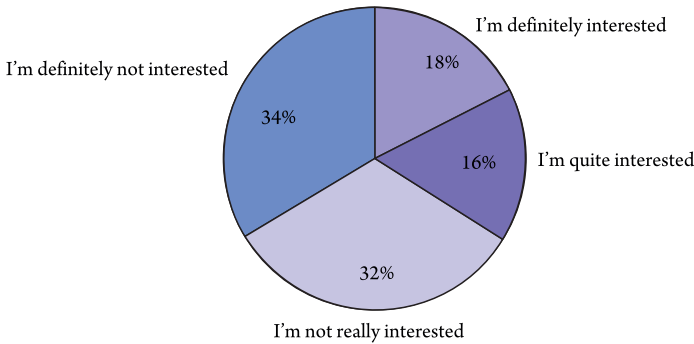
Answers to question 3 (see Fig. 3) were compared with corresponding data for the previous year, obtained from the Polish Chamber of Tourism (PIT). The results collected in the author's survey were also compared with data for 2018-2019 collected by the Public Opinion Research Center (CBOS), in two surveys, each involving a random sample of about 900 respondents.

4. Results

Poles participate in international tourism every year (Anisiewicz, Palmowski, 2014; Fogel, 2017). Statistics on international tourism also show that the number of Poles travelling abroad have been slowly increasing in the last decade (Będzik & Gołąb, 2020; Podemski, 2011). This situation is likely to change considerably in 2020, which is confirmed by the answers provided in the online survey, which are summarised in Figure 1.

It was found that two thirds of the respondents decided not to travel abroad in 2020. If attitudes of the respondents are treated as indicative of the mood of the entire society, one can expect that the situation in 2020 will differ from what could be observed in 2019. Differences can be expected especially in July and August, which is the period when a considerable percentage (28% in 2011) of the annual tourist traffic in Poland takes place (Wendt & Ilies, 2012). The growing interest in domestic tourism will probably produce an influx of tourists in the coastal regions and in the Sudetes and Carpathians, which have traditionally been major domestic

Fig. 1. Respondents' interest in foreign travel in 2020



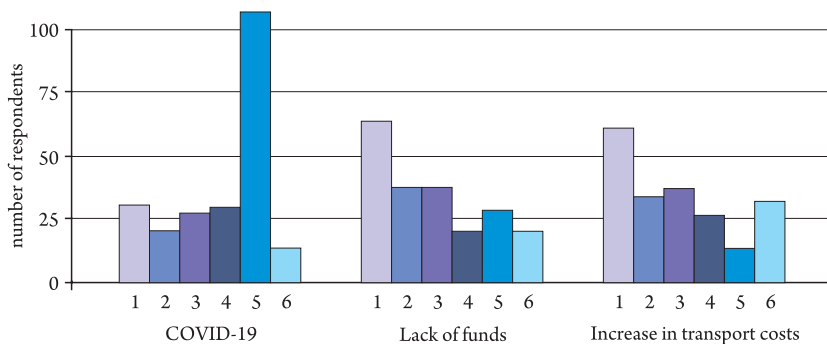
Source: own elaboration based on questionnaire research.

holiday destinations for Poles in previous years (Río-Rama et al., 2019; Rogowski, 2014; Taylor & Ciechański, 2016). A larger number of tourists in these areas will increase the contribution of travel and tourism to GDP, and thus compensate for the losses caused by a smaller number of foreign tourists.

Figure 2 shows illustrates the relative importance of the main factors listed by those respondents who decided not to travel abroad, including higher costs of transport, lack of money or the COVID-19 pandemic.

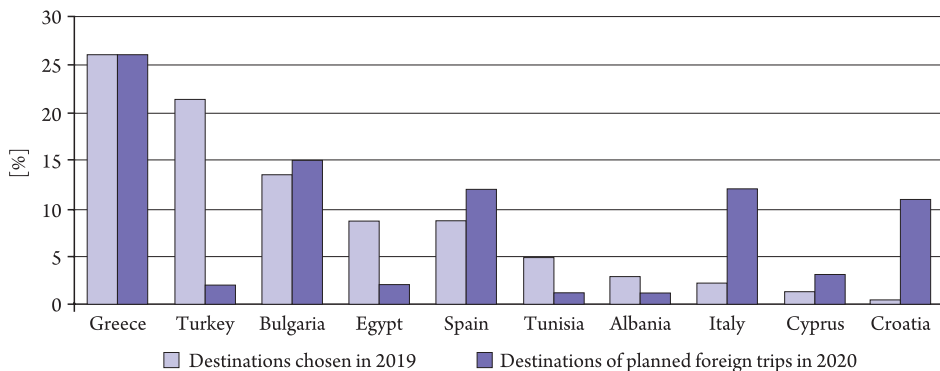
Although all the above-mentioned aspects are related to each other, it was the spread of the coronavirus that was the main motivating factor behind respondents' decision to stay in the country: a considerable influence of COVID-19 (which is represented by responses 4 and 5) was indicated by over 60% of respondents.

Fig. 2. Factors influencing respondents' foreign travel plans in 2020 (1 – no effect, 5 – high impact, 6 – none)



Source: own elaboration based on questionnaire research.

Fig. 3. The main destinations of foreign trips the respondents were planning to take in 2020



Source: own elaboration based on questionnaire research.

Other studies indicate that the decision to give up foreign travel is one of the social and economic costs of the global pandemic (Qiu et al., 2020), which has led to an impoverishment of large parts of society groups as a result of the loss of jobs and increased social (Bonaccorsi et al., 2020; Li et al., 2020).

Figure 3 illustrates how the unprecedented circumstances of the coronavirus pandemic have affected the respondents' choice of foreign tourist destinations in 2020.

Compared to figures for 2019, respondents' willingness to travel to European countries increased. As regards Greece, the percentage of respondents interested in visiting this country was similar to that recorded in the previous years (Łaciak, 2013). In percentage terms, there was much more interest in other Mediterranean countries (including Italy, Spain and particularly Croatia). Compared to 2019, countries outside the European continent, i.e. Turkey and Tunisia, saw a considerable drop in the number of potential visitors among the respondents, which is particularly dramatic in the case of Turkey, which had been recording annual growth in tourist traffic in previous years (Atasoy & Wendt, 2016).

5. Discussion

Foreign travel plans of Polish tourists in previous years have been the subject of other surveys conducted, among others, by CBOS¹ (CBOS 2018, 2019). Data collected in 2018-2019 clearly indicated a growing interest in foreign traveling

¹ CBOS (Centre for Public Opinion Research) is an opinion polling institute based in Warsaw.

among respondents (as evidenced by an increase from 24% in 2018 to 27% in 2019). It is worth mentioning that forecasts regarding domestic and foreign tourism were optimistic given continuous annual growth in previous years, which was halted in 2020. Compared to the results obtained by the author of the study described in this article, the share of those interested in foreign travel declined by 9 percentage points (CBOS 2018, 2019).

Compared to studies conducted in previous years (CBOS 2018, 2019), there were also differences in the reasons given by respondents for not wanting to travel abroad. In 2020, the main factors that led to such decisions were the lack of money, although the frequency of this reason in previous years kept decreasing (from 30% in 2017 to 23% in 2018). This changed in 2020, when the pandemic affected the financial situation of many households (that is how 20% of respondents explained their decision not to travel abroad). The majority of respondents (over 60%), however, indicated the pandemic as the main factor, which is a sign of a reduced sense of security on the part of potential tourists. This aspect frequently plays a fundamental role in the economic and social development of the world's countries (Guhan, 1994). The outbreak of the COVID-19 pandemic can therefore be regarded as one of the events responsible for disrupting the sense of security, especially in countries where the daily increase in the incidence rate was relatively high and contributed to the closing of the global tourism market.

The survey conducted by the author indicates that in 2020 respondents were willing to spend their holidays in the country despite trends recorded in previous studies showing that interest in foreign travel had been growing year by year. As regards foreign destinations selected in 2020, respondents showed a clear preference for European countries located in the Mediterranean basin (including Croatia, Italy, Greece and Spain) and for Germany. According to CBOS surveys, Egypt was the country outside Europe that the largest number of respondents selected as a potential holiday destination (3% of responses in 2018 and 4% in 2019). As a result of the COVID-19 pandemic, in 2020 interest in this country significantly decreased and was expressed by less than 2% of the respondents in the online survey.

6. Conclusions

Based on the presented results, it can be predicted that future participation of Polish tourists in foreign trips is likely to decrease. This can be explained mainly by the COVID-19 pandemic. At the same time, the importance of domestic tourism is likely to increase, especially in areas traditionally known for their recreational values. Respondents' answers indicate that the majority of future foreign

trips will likely be to countries in the Mediterranean basin (mainly Greece and Croatia). This prediction is already confirmed by preliminary data from the Polish Economic Institute (Czernicki, Kukołowicz, & Miniszewski, 2020), which suggest that concerns about the situation in the tourism industry during the summer of 2020 were unfounded.

It should be noted that a study similar to that carried out by the author was conducted by the Polish Tourist Organization (Polska Organizacja Turystyczna, 2020), from June 15 to June 17, 2020. Their report confirmed the findings presented by the author. 76% of respondents in the PTO study indicated they had decided not to travel abroad because of the COVID-19 pandemic. The vast majority (82%) of respondents in the PTO survey who did not give up their desire to travel, were planning a vacation Poland, mainly in holiday destinations in the north and south of the country, which have a well-developed tourism infrastructure, and are known for their recreational values and sights (Pasek & Drożdż, 2017).

At the time of writing the article, it is impossible to make predictions about foreign travel plans of Poles in 2020. The situation in the tourism market in Poland and elsewhere in the world is still very unstable. Most countries, in an effort to prevent the spread of the COVID-19 pandemic, are introducing new restrictions and new travel rules almost on a daily basis, which will have a lasting effect on Polish tourists' foreign travel plans in the coming years. The effects of the pandemic are expected to be felt at least until 2022, so research on this topic has to be continued. The growing interest in domestic tourism expressed by the respondents is an indication for a new direction of research, which should focus on tourism in Poland.

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Wpływ COVID-19 na plany podróży zagranicznych Polaków w 2020 roku

Streszczenie. Celem artykułu jest próba określenia planów podróży zagranicznych Polaków w 2020 roku i wpływu pandemii COVID-19 na te plany. Badanie opiera się na informacjach zebranych w ankiecie internetowej z udziałem 355 respondentów. Ankieta była anonimowa i składała się z 6 pytań. Stwierdzono, że wybuch pandemii istotnie zmienił plany podróży zagranicznych Polaków w analizowanym okresie. Plany wyjazdu turystyczno-wypoczynkowego za granicę zadeklarowała jedynie 1/3 respondentów. Spadło zainteresowanie Turcją, Egiptem i Tunezją, wzrosło zaś ono w przypadku krajów europejskich, głównie położonych w basenie Morza Śródziemnego, m.in. Hiszpanii i Włoch. Na podstawie badań należy spodziewać się także wzrostu zainteresowania turystką krajową w Polsce, na co wskazują dane zebrane przez Polską Izbę Turystyki.

Słowa kluczowe: COVID-19, Polska, turystyka, ankieta, plany podróży



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KRZYSZTOF JÓZEF PARZYCH*

The Polish Baltic coast as a tourist area in the light of tourism indicators

Abstract. The Polish coast is located at a considerable distance from the main areas of leisure tourism in Europe. In recent years this area has seen a significant growth in tourist accommodation and tourist traffic. The aim of this study was to analyse the quantitative and spatial differentiation of tourist traffic in the Polish coast. The analysis is based on statistical data from the Local Data Bank (BDL) maintained by Statistics Poland (GUS) about all seaside municipalities for which there is data on tourist arrivals. The author focuses on the most commonly used indicators of tourism activity: Baretje-Defert's index of the tourism development, Schneider's index of tourism intensity, Charvat's index of intensity of tourist traffic and Defert's index of tourist traffic density (based on data for 2014, except the number of tourist beds for 2019 year). The author found significant differences in the volume of tourist traffic across Polish coastal municipalities and between the Polish coast as a whole and other coastal areas in other European countries.

Keywords: tourist traffic, Polish seaside municipalities, seaside zone, Poland

JEL Codes: Q26; Z32

1. Introduction

Seaside regions are areas characterised by the highest concentration of tourist traffic on the global scale (Agarwal & Shaw, 2007; Birkic, Cubelic Pilija, & Kljaic Šebrek, 2014; Bramwell, 2004; Davenport & Davenport, 2006; Dronkers & de Vries, 1999; Egbuche et al., 2015; Klein & Osleeb, 2010; Pearce & Kirk, 1986;

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Wong, 1993). According to estimates of the World Tourism Organisation (United World Tourism Organization 2020), these regions account for a third of global tourism revenue. Polish seaside regions are also the most popular destinations of tourist traffic. Socio-economic changes in Poland since the 90s have also affected the coastal region. The socio-economic transformation of coastal industries, such as shipbuilding and fish industry, made it necessary to look for new paths of socio-economic development, one of which is tourism.

Tourism services are the main source of revenue for many coastal communes in Poland. Moreover, changes in the organization of tourist traffic associated with a declining role of mass social tourism have triggered structural and quantitative changes in the development of tourism and tourist traffic in the Polish seaside region. Tourism along Poland's Baltic Coast depends strongly on favourable weather conditions, experiencing peak season during short summer holidays (Lijewski, Mikułowski, & Wyrzykowski, 2009). This is the time when the sea temperature is high enough for people to swim and bathe and when the offering of infrastructural facilities regarding transportation, accommodation and catering is the widest (Chabior & Owczarek, 2005; Girjatowicz, 2006). Tourism is particularly important in places, where recreational functions are enhanced by the presence of spa facilities (Hącia, 2016).

Tourism development can be measured by various indicators and synthetic measures. The main advantage of these indicators is that they can be calculated using publicly available statistical data at the national, regional and local level. The use of indicators is associated with the problem of interpreting results depending on spatial and demographic conditions of a given location and the conditions for the functioning of tourism in this area. The most popular indicators are those proposed by Baretje-Defert, Defert, Schneider and Charvat (Szromek, 2013). All of these indicators take into account the size of the accommodation base and the volume of tourist traffic. Baretje-Defert's index is used for measuring the development or density of tourist accommodation. It is defined as the number of bed places per 100 inhabitants and can be used for comparing the level of tourism development of different spatial units. Schneider's index of tourism intensity is the ratio of the number of tourists using accommodation services to the number of permanent residents in a given period. Charvat's index of tourism intensity is defined as the ratio of tourism intensity at accommodation establishments to the number of permanent residents in a given period. The scientific literature confirms the widespread use of these indicators in quantitative and spatial analyses of tourism development for different spatial units (Fernández-Latorre & Diaz del Olmo, 2011; Kyriakou Sourianos, & Vagiona, 2011; Maggi & Fredella, 2010; Niemczyk & Zaclona, 2013; Pearce & Kirk, 1986; Tsartas, 2003; Vojnovic & Knezevic, 2013). The main limitation of these indicators is the fact that their interpretation often depends on the criteria adopted by the researcher. The aim of the following study was to evaluate

the development of the tourist function in Polish coastal communes. The results reveal a variation in the level of tourist accommodation and tourist traffic across coastal communes and can be used for further research on the conditions and dynamics of the development of tourism in Poland's coastal zone.

1.1. The study area

The Polish coast of the Baltic is 528 km long. It covers an area of 19,000 km² and is divided into three macro regions: the Szczecin Coast, the Koszalin Coast and the Gdańsk Coast (Fig. 1). The region includes 91 settlements located within administrative borders of 38 seaside communes. Most of these settlements are classified as rural areas and only 16 have town privileges. There are three cities located in the metropolitan area of Gdańsk (Gdańsk, Sopot, Gdynia) with a total population of 900,000. Other major towns along the coast include Świnoujście, Międzyzdroje, Kołobrzeg, Ustka and Władysławowo.

2. Methods

2.1. Research methods

2.1.1. Sample description

Poland's coastal zone is strongly differentiated in terms of the level of tourism development, which is the result of both natural factors (climate conditions, coast type, length of the bathing season) and historical and socio-economic ones. The aim of the following study was to analyse this variation. The analysis is based on statistical data from the Local Data Bank (BDL)¹ maintained by Statistics Poland (GUS) about the population, tourist accommodation and tourist traffic in seaside municipalities for which there is data on tourist arrivals. Because most recent statistics were only partially available, the indicators of tourism development were calculated for 2014, with the exception of the total number of bed places, which was available for 2019.

2.1.2. Data collection and analysis

Information about the following quantities was collected:

- the number of bed places at tourist accommodation establishments in all coastal communes in 2019,

¹ <https://bdl.stat.gov.pl/BDL/start>

- the area and population of all coastal communes in 2014,
 - the number of tourists who visited all coastal communes in 2014,
 - the number of overnight stays at tourist accommodation establishments in all coastal communes in 2014,
 - the number of foreign tourists who visited all coastal communes in 2014,
- The following indices of tourism development were used (Smith, 2010):
- Schneider's index of tourism intensity (the ratio of tourists using accommodation services to the number of permanent residents in a given year),
 - Charvat's index of tourism intensity (the ratio of nights spent at accommodation establishments to the number of permanent residents in a given year),
 - the average length of a tourist stay at the coast,
 - Defert's index of tourist traffic density (the number of tourists per 1 km²).

Intensity of tourist traffic and the number of overnight stays in the coastal region was described in terms of the Lorenz asymmetry coefficient and was illustrated with concentration maps.

2.1.3. Justification of the methods used and their limitations

The indicators used in the analysis reveal a quantitative and spatial differentiation in tourist traffic recorded in Poland's coastal region and enable comparisons with other selected seaside areas in Europe. One important limitation of such comparisons is the fact that compared areas are of different size. For example, Lundgren found huge disproportions in the values of Defert's index for different Baltic ports (Lundgren, 2006). Many authors recommend using Baretje-Defert's index for analysing tourist development (Borzyszowski, Marczak, & Zarebski, 2016; Defert, 1966), while others (Plettner, 1979) advocate the application of tourist nights index and tourist density index (Plettner, 1979).

3. Results and discussion

3.1 Distribution of the accommodation base

Tourism development is an important element of the socio-economic development of Poland's coastal communes, which is the highest in the country, as evidenced by the biggest number of accommodation facilities (Matczak, 2005; Meyer, 2006; Parzych, 2009). The seaside zone in Poland, like in other countries, experiences a high concentration of tourist traffic (Lundgren, 2006; Tsartas, 2003).

In 2019, bed places in accommodation establishments located in seaside provinces accounted for over 30% of Poland's whole accommodation base. The biggest number of accommodation establishments in the seaside area are situated in Rewal (rural commune – 212), Władysławowo (town – 187), Gdańsk (186), Kołobrzeg (town – 162), Kołobrzeg (rural commune – 153), Łeba (137). Communes with the smallest number of accommodation facilities include Międzyzdroje (the rural part of the urban-rural commune – 1), Smołdzino (2), Kamień Pomorski (the rural aprt of the urban-rural commune – 4), Będzino (rural commune – 6), Kosakowo – rural commune – 6). The majority of accommodation facilities along the Baltic Sea coast are located in the communes of the Szczecin Coast and in the western part of the Koszalin Coast. The seaside communes of the Gdańsk Coast, excluding the region of Tri-City, are considerably less developed in terms of the accommodation infrastructure. This is due to differences in settlement density and a considerably greater number of seaside towns in the Koszalin Coast and the Szczecin Coast. Other important factors include differences in the duration of the sea bathing season (which is much longer on the Szczecin Coast and the Koszalin Coast), the proximity of the German inbound tourism market. In terms of the size of the accommodation base, the seaside communes of Gdańsk, Władysławowo, Ustka, Kołobrzeg, Mielno, Świnoujście (Fig. 1) have the biggest resources (over 10.000 bed places each). Other researchers indicate significant differences in tourism development of other parts of the Baltic coastal zone (Lundgren, 2006; Schernewski & Sterr, 2002). Coastal mass tourism is characterised by the spatial concentration of tourist traffic (Bramwell, 2004). Areas with the highest concentration of accommodation facilities include the Tri-City metropolitan area, the section of the coast between Rewal and Ustronie Morskie as well as the communes

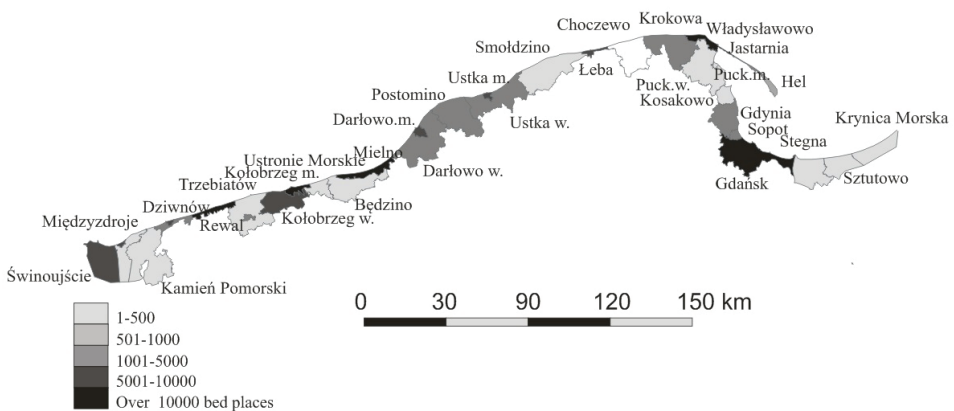


Fig. 1. The number of bed places in Polish coastal communes in 2019

Source: based on data from the Local Data Bank (BDL) maintained by Statistics Poland.

of Świnoujście and Międzyzdroje (Fig. 1). The concentration of accommodation facilities is associated with the proximity of large agglomerations and spas, which is confirmed by other authors (Smith, 2010; Leijzer & Denman, 2013).

3.2. Distribution of tourist traffic

According to data in the Local Data Bank maintained by Statistics Poland, in 2014 the seaside communes received 2,678,538 tourists, which accounts for about 25% of the total number of tourists in Poland. By comparison, the coastal region of Latvia was visited by 856,435 tourists which was about 76.8% of the total number of tourists in Latvia in 2009 (Muska & Bite, 2011). In 2013, the coastal part of the Kaliningrad Region received about 238,700 tourists (Afanasyeva 2014).

Communes with the largest number of tourists in 2014 included Gdańsk (719,412), Kołobrzeg (424,604), Sopot (250,912), Świnoujście (232,825) and Międzyzdroje (148,683), Rewal (144,844) and Gdynia (116,810), while the smallest numbers of tourists were recorded in the rural communes of Międzyzdroje (50), Kamień Pomorski (117), Smołdzino (619 people), Będzino (780) (Fig. 2).

3.2.1. Schneider's index of tourism intensity

In terms of Schneider's index, the highest intensity of tourist traffic was recorded in the communes of Dziwnów (the rural part) – 5671, Rewal – 3750, Krynica Morska – 3403, Łeba 2270 and Międzyzdroje (the urban part) – 2782 (see Fig. 3, Table 1).

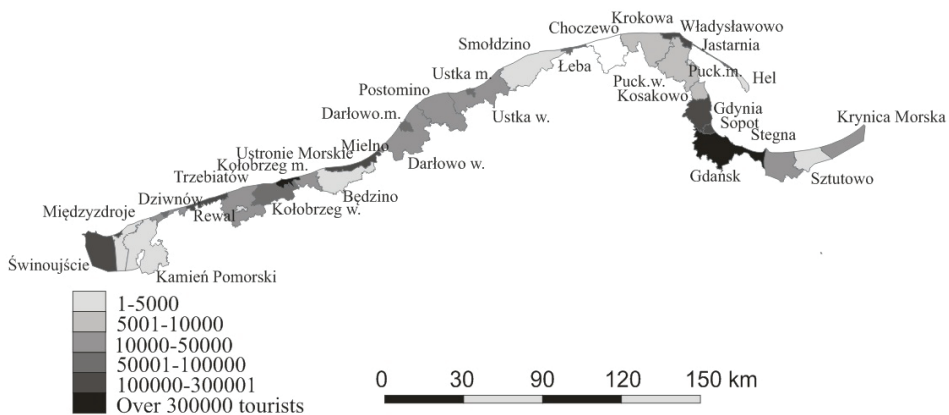


Fig. 2. The number of tourists visiting costal communes in 2014

Source: based on data from the Local Data Bank (BDL) maintained by Statistics Poland.

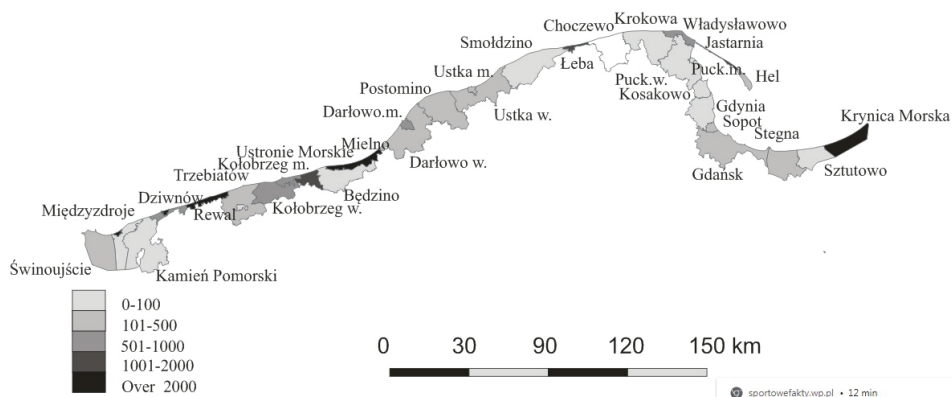


Fig. 3. Values of Schneider's index in coastal communes in 2014

Source: based on data from the Local Data Bank (BDL) maintained by Statistics Poland.

Table 1. Communes with the highest values of Schneider's and Charvat's indexes

Commune name	Commune type	Schneider's index	Commune name	Commune type	Charvat's index
Dziwnów (rural area)	urban-rural	5671.1	Dziwnów (rural part)	urban-rural	38285.1
Rewal	rural	3750.5	Rewal	rural	22374.7
Krynica Morska	urban-rural	3403.4	Krynica Morska	urban-rural	17092.8
Międzyzdroje (town area)	urban-rural	2782.8	Łeba	town	13336.7
Łeba	urban	2270.3	Ustronie Morskie	rural	12904.9
Ustronie Morskie	rural	1780.3	Międzyzdroje (urban part)	urban-rural	12130.8
Kołobrzeg	urban	917.9	Kołobrzeg	urban	7018.8
Kołobrzeg	rural	767.8	Trzebiatów (rural part)	urban-rural	4835.7
Sopot	urban	702.5	Kołobrzeg	rural	4604.9
Trzebiatów (rural area)	urban-rural	697.5	Dziwnów (urban part)	urban-rural	4235.8

Source: based on data from the Local Data Bank (BDL) maintained by Statistics Poland.

High values of Schneider's index were also obtained for the communes of Łeba, Dziwnów, Ustronie Morskie and Jastarnia. The lowest values were recorded for the commune of Choczewo (0.65), the rural part of Kamień Pomorski (2.1), the

rural part of Międzyzdroje (4.5) and for rural communes of Będzino (9.0) and Smołdzino (18.0). By comparison, in Europe the highest values of Schneider's index can be observed in coastal regions of Mediterranean countries. For example, the average value calculated for the Italian coast in 2008 was about 3800 (Maggi & Fredella, 2010).

3.2.2. Defert's index of tourist traffic density

The biggest number of tourists per 1 km² was recorded for the communes of Rewal – 3368, Łeba – 4809, Ustka (urban commune) – 7506, Jastarnia (urban part) – 8223, Sopot – 14,759, Kołobrzeg (urban commune) – 16,330 and Międzyzdroje (urban part) – 29,736. The lowest values of the index were recorded for the communes of Międzyzdroje (rural part) – 0.45, Kamień Pomorski (rural part) – 0.59, Smołdzino – 2.38, Będzino – 4.69, Choczewo – 13.0 and Wicko – 19.74. Values of Defert's index density for coastal communes are many times higher than those for the remaining part of the country: the average value for Poland in 2010 was 77.74 (Niemczyk & Załona, 2013).

3.2.3. Inbound tourism in the Polish Baltic coastal region

Inbound tourism plays a very significant role in the tourism industry of Poland's coastal region. The last several years have seen an growing number of foreign tourists who decided to visit the Polish coast. In 2014, seaside communes were visited by almost 587,000 foreign tourists, accounting for 25% of all visitors in this region. This figure is much lower compared to other coastal areas in Europe,

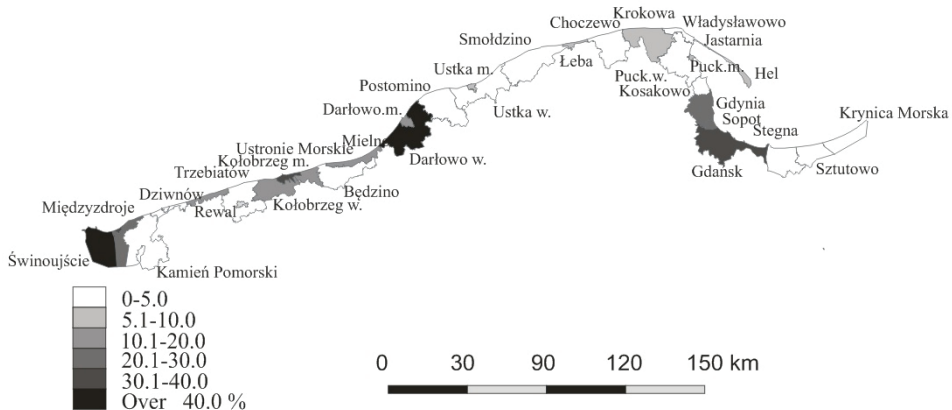


Fig. 4. The percentage of foreign tourists in the total number of tourists visiting coastal communes in 2014

Source: based on data from the Local Data Bank (BDL) maintained by Statistics Poland.

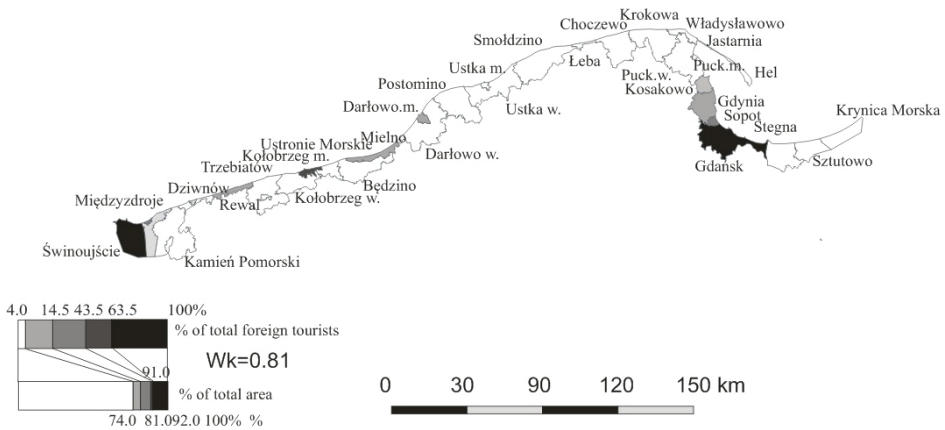


Fig. 5. Concentration of foreign tourists in coastal communes in 2014

Source: based on data from the Local Data Bank (BDL) maintained by Statistics Poland.

especially those around the Mediterranean Sea. For example, in 2006 foreign tourists represented 85% of all tourist arrivals to the coast of the Balearic islands (Garín-Muñoz & Montero-Martín, 2007) and in the case of Greek islands and other coastal areas of Greece, foreign tourists accounted for about 40% of all tourists in 2002 (Tsartas, 2003).

In 2014, the highest share of foreign tourists in the total number of tourists was recorded in the rural commune of Darłowo and in urban communes of Świnoujście, and Kolobrzeg (over 40% of all tourists). The lowest share of foreign tourists was recorded in communes situated along the coastal belt from Postomino to the metropolitan area of Gdańsk, where the share of foreign tourists did not exceed 5% (Fig. 4 and 5).

Most foreign tourists visiting the Polish coast are German – in 2014, they accounted for over 60% of all foreign tourists in Polish coastal communes (Fig. 6). Other foreign visitors came from Scandinavian countries, especially Norway, Denmark, Russia and Great Britain. The structure of foreign tourist traffic in the Polish coast is similar to that recorded in the Balearic islands and Greek islands and other coastal areas of Greece (Garín-Muñoz & Montero-Martín, 2007; Tsartas, 2003).

In 2014, the biggest number of foreign tourists visited the communes of Gdańsk 265,635), Kolobrzeg (urban commune) – 141,220, Świnoujście – 111,690, Sopot – 69 329. The communes least popular with foreign tourists included Choczewo, where official statistics indicated no foreign tourists, the rural commune of Kosakowo (6), the rural part Kamień Pomorski (3), Smołdzino (15), and rural communes of Choczewo (113), Kamień Pomorski (140).



Fig. 6. Foreign tourists visiting coastal communes in 2014 by country

Source: based on data from the Local Data Bank (BDL) maintained by Statistics Poland.

As regards the density of foreign tourists in Polish coastal communes, the highest concentration of foreign tourists was recorded in the metropolitan area of Tri-City, in the region of Kołobrzeg and in the communes of Rewal, Międzyzdroje and Sopot (see Fig. 5). The distribution of foreign tourists in coastal communes is characterized by a high spatial disproportion, as shown by the map of concentration and the Lorenz asymmetry coefficient. As can be seen in the map, 63.5% of all foreign tourists who visited the Polish coast in 2014 stayed in communes that

occupied only 9% of the total area of the coastal region, which indicates a high degree of spatial concentration. The highest concentration of foreign tourists was recorded in Kołobrzeg, Gdańsk and Świnoujście. The Lorenz asymmetry coefficient was equal to $Wk = 0.81$, (0-0.25 – low concentration, 0.25-0.5 – moderate, 0.5-1.0 – high, Ziolo 1968). Besides, in 2014, the more intense tourist traffic in the Tri-City agglomeration and Kołobrzeg was due to the influx of visitors in connection with to the European Football Championships.

3.2.4. Analysis of overnight stays and the average length of stay in the Polish coastal region

Another dimension that needs to be taken into consideration in the analysis is the number of overnight stays (see Fig. 7).

In 2014, 12,938,473 overnight stays of which 3,000,044 were nights spent by foreign tourists. Communes with the biggest numbers of overnight stays include Kołobrzeg (urban commune – 3,246,825), Gdańsk (1,688,650), Świnoujście (1,454,669), Rewal (864,111) and Sopot (686,390). Relatively high numbers of overnight stays were also recorded in Władysławowo, Ustka (urban commune), Sopot and Międzyzdroje (the urban part). The smallest number of overnight stays was recorded in rural areas of communes: Kamień Pomorski (658), Międzyzdroje (750), Smołdzino (2816), Będzino (3332). The Lorenz asymmetry coefficient of the cumulative distribution function describing the number of overnight stays of foreign tourists in individual communes amounted to $Wk = 0.84$.

Communes with the highest concentration of overnight stays include Gdańsk, Kołobrzeg (urban commune) and Świnoujście (see Fig. 8). Tourists resting in

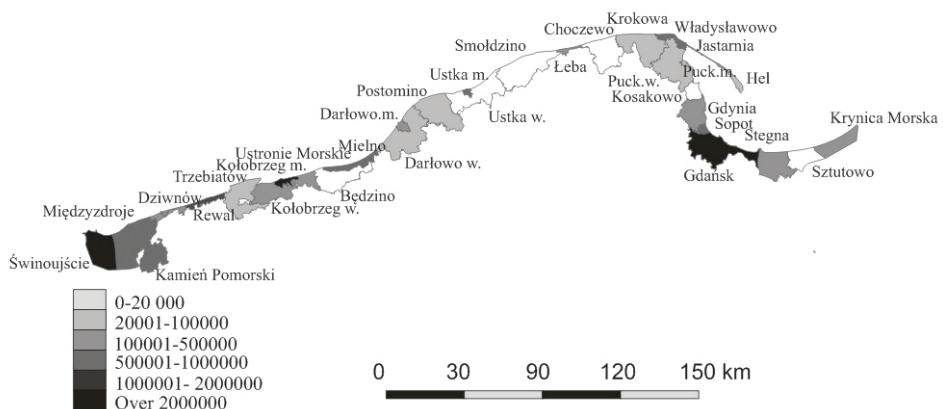


Fig. 7. The number of overnight stays recorded in coastal communes in 2014

Source: based on data from the Local Data Bank (BDL) maintained by Statistics Poland.

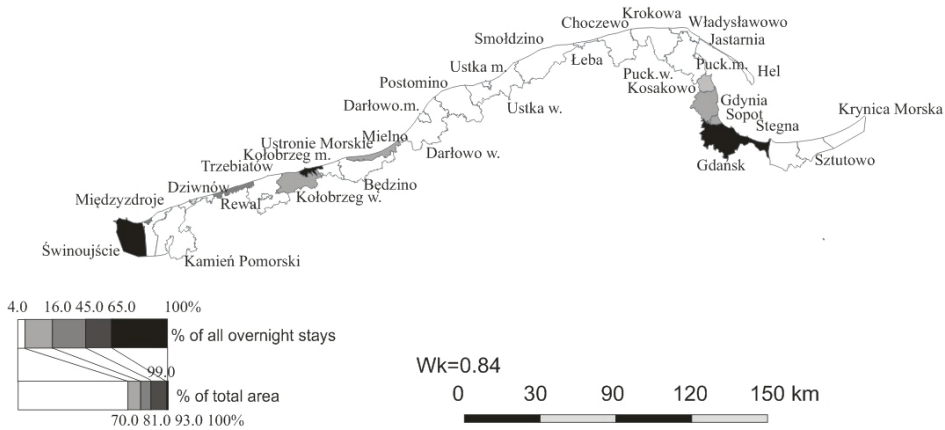


Fig. 8. Concentration of overnight stays by foreign tourists in coastal communes in 2014

Source: based on data from the Local Data Bank (BDL) maintained by Statistics Poland.

coastal communes spent about 12 million nights. Schernewski quotes a similar figure of about 13 million of overnight stays with regard to tourists visiting the German Baltic coast in 1998 (Schernewski & Sterr, 2002). The average length of stay calculated by dividing the number of overnight stays by the number of tourists amounted to 4.8 nights per 1 tourist. Muska and Bite (2011) show similar results for the Baltic coast in Latvia: 4.7 nights per 1 tourist in 2010. A much longer average period of stay of 9.7 nights was observed for tourists visiting Greek islands (Kyriakou Sourianos, & Vagiona, 2011). Similar figures have been recorded in coastal regions of Spain (Artal Tur, García Sánchez, & Sánchez García 2012) and in the Istrian Peninsula (Vojnovic & Knezevic, 2013). In the Italian coast the average length of stay is about 5 nights per 1 tourist (Maggic & Fredella, 2010). The results clearly indicate the length of stay depends on climatic conditions. The longest average stays were recorded in Świnoujście – 10.5 nights, Stegna – 9.1, Kołobrzeg – 9.3, Mielno – 7.8, Ustka – 7.4, Dziwnów and in the rural commune of Darłowo – 7.5. The reason why tourists, on average, spend more days in these places is connected with the fact that they are all popular holiday and benefit from a longer bathing season. Communes with the shortest average length of stay include Trzebiatów (1.23 nights per tourist), Ustka (0.54), Kosakowo (1.05), Dziwnów (1.96), Gdańsk (2.54) and Gdynia (2.17). These places are either big urban centres or have a less developed tourism infrastructure.

3.2.5. Analysis of Charvat's index of tourism intensity

Table 1 shows two measures of tourism intensity: Schneider's index, which is the ratio of tourists using accommodation services to the number of permanent resi-

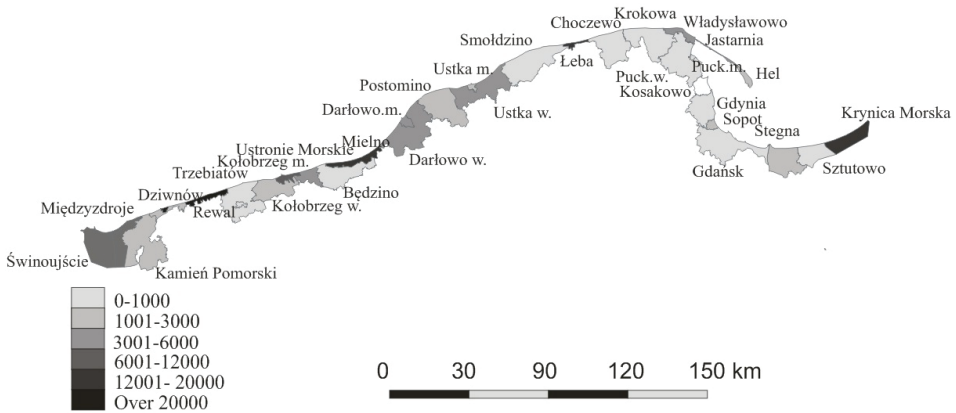


Fig. 9. Values of Charvat's index for coastal communes in 2019

Source: based on data from the Local Data Bank (BDL) maintained by Statistics Poland.

dents in a given year, and Charvat's index, which is the ratio of nights spent at accommodation establishments to the number of permanent residents in a given year.

Communes with the lowest values of Charvat's index include Kamień Pomorski (the rural part), Będzino, Smołdzino and Kosakowo (Fig. 9).

The index reaches its highest values for communes with the highest concentration of accommodation establishments in the coastal region. Values of Charvat's index for Polish communes are much lower compared to other coastal areas, especially Mediterranean coastal areas (Maggi & Fredella, 2010; Tsartas 2003). For example, Charvat's index for the Greek island of Rhodes was 82 982 in 2010 (Kyriakou Sourianos, & Vagiona, 2011).

3.2.6. Seasonality of tourist traffic

Tourist traffic in Polish seaside communes is highly seasonal. This fact is confirmed by results of many studies conducted over the years (Durydiwka, Duda-Gromada, 2014a, b; Matczak, 2005; Meyer, 2006; Parzych 2009). According to Hącia (2016), indicators of tourist traffic in Świnoujście are 34% higher in the summer months than in the remaining months of the year, and this difference is even higher in other coastal towns. One important additional element of the tourist offering provided by seaside towns during the holiday season is a wide range of festivals and other cultural events: e.g. the Sunrise Festival in Kołobrzeg, the Stars Festival in Międzyzdroje, the Light Festival in Ustka, the International Kite Festival in Łeba. The majority of tourists come in July and August. In 2014, tourist arrivals recorded in these two months in the two seaside provinces, Zachodniopomorskie and Pomorskie, represented 25.8% and 24% of all annual ar-

rivals, respectively. In some coastal communes of Italy tourist arrivals recorded in August account for 60% of the annual total (Maggi & Fredella, 2010). High seasonality of tourist traffic in most coastal communes in Poland is due to the weather conditions, which determine the relatively short bathing season. The only exceptions are communes which are known as popular spa destinations (Kołobrzeg, Świnoujście, Dąbki, Sopot).

A comparison of index values calculated for Polish coastal municipalities with results obtained for other European regions did not provide conclusive results because the compared areas were of different sizes. For this reason, it would be more appropriate to use synthetic measures that take into account not only quantitative data about tourist traffic but also the size of a given area and its population.

4. Conclusions

The analysis of tourist traffic in the Polish Baltic coast presented above reveals its main spatial and quantitative characteristics. The development and tourist traffic in seaside municipalities in 2014 was characterized by a considerable degree of variation in both quantitative and spatial terms. This variation reflects the number and quality of the accommodation establishment, as well as the length of the tourist season in the Polish Baltic coastal zone.

For one thing, it can be seen that accommodation establishments and tourist traffic were concentrated around big metropolitan areas and spa resorts. The intensity of tourist traffic (in 2014, except for data about the number of bed places in 2019) is similar to those recorded in other areas of the Baltic coastal zone but is significantly lower than that found in Mediterranean coast areas. This is due to less favourable climatic conditions, a shorter tourist season and the number and diversity of tourist accommodation establishments. It is also worth noting that in some Polish seaside communes there is a large percentage of foreign tourists.

Tourist traffic in the Polish seaside is highly seasonal, with most tourists arriving in July. Because of climatic conditions the bathing in most seaside destinations is relatively short.

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Polskie wybrzeże Bałtyku jako obszar recepcji turystycznej w świetle wskaźników funkcji turystycznej

Streszczenie. Polskie wybrzeże położone jest w znacznej odległości od głównych obszarów turystyki wypoczynkowej w Europie. W ostatnich latach na tym obszarze nastąpił znaczący wzrost bazy noclegowej i ruchu turystycznego. Celem pracy była analiza ilościowego i przestrzennego zróżnicowania ruchu turystycznego w polskiej strefie przybrzeżnej Bałtyku. Analizę przeprowadzono na podstawie danych statystycznych Banku Danych Lokalnych Głównego Urzędu Statystycznego dla wszystkich nadmorskich gmin turystycznych, dla których istnieją dane o frekwencji odwiedzających. Wykorzystano najczęściej stosowane wskaźniki rozwoju funkcji turystycznych: wskaźnik funkcji turystycznej Baretje i Deferta, wskaźnik natężenia ruchu turystycznego Schneidera, wskaźnik natężenia ruchu turystycznego Charvata oraz wskaźnik gęstości zaludnienia Deferta. Wyniki wskazują na znaczne różnice w ruchu turystycznym między różnymi gminami nadmorskimi w Polsce oraz między polskim wybrzeżem a wybrzeżami innych krajów europejskich.

Słowa kluczowe: ruch turystyczny, polskie gminy nadmorskie, Polska



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ANETTE OXENSWÄRDH*

Micro-business entrepreneurs and bricoleurs on their way towards sustainable practice – implications for learning processes

Abstract. The purpose of the study was to investigate how some micro-business entrepreneurs and bricoleurs experience their learning processes through workshops, especially with respect to sustainability issues. This qualitative and explorative study focuses on learning processes during the GreenBizz course, which are analysed on the basis of inquiries and observations of discussions among course participants and on documents describing the course design and assignments. It was found that entrepreneurs are aware and are familiar with sustainability issues but they have neither proper tools nor the knowhow for implementing sustainable changes in their businesses. To be successful, the learning process needs to sufficiently heterogeneous, should involve the transmission of tacit knowledge and provide opportunities for participants to learn about their motivations and should include both theoretical and practical elements. Participation in the course enables entrepreneurs to network with other entrepreneurs, give support and share knowledge about sustainable solutions in their businesses. The study shows that such courses not only must allow for a certain degree of flexibility but also require a course or team leader with a solid and practical knowledge in entrepreneurship and sustainability.

Keywords: co-creation of learning, co-creation of values, bricoleurs, study circle, sustainability, tourism, micro-entrepreneurs

JEL Codes: A29, D91

1. Introduction

In recent decades sustainability issues in the tourism industry have become increasingly important. Sustainable innovation plays an important part in all micro-businesses involved in tourism. This is also true for the Swedish island of Gotland,

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where tourism has been an important economic factor for more than 150 years (Friis & Scholz, 2013). A big challenge for the future development of tourism is to find ways in which it can be made more sustainable. There has been a new wave of tourism research that calls for the co-creation of sustainable values and solutions through the involvement of local stakeholders and communities (Li & Hunter, 2015). A core of small businesses, particularly micro-businesses (with fewer than 10 employees), is required to build and maintain sustainable development of communities in the social, cultural, environmental and economic dimension. However, the entrepreneurial role of micro-businesses has not been really recognised by communities because entrepreneurship has been regarded as an economic rather than human and cultural behavioural concept (Rae & Carswell, 2000).

To become a successful entrepreneur today, a person needs to be able to come up with sustainable solutions, services and products. This article outlines the importance of educating entrepreneurs who run micro-businesses and so-called bricoleurs about sustainable solutions. The author presents results of a study conducted in Gotland concerning learning processes of micro-business entrepreneurs and bricoleurs participating in what is known as a study circle in order to learn how to transform their businesses into more sustainable enterprises.

2. Theoretical perspectives

2.1. Innovative entrepreneurs as bricoleurs

Innovative entrepreneurs who create value in environments with scarce resources are called ‘bricoleurs’ by Baker & Nelson (2005). The concept of entrepreneurial bricolage was introduced by Lévi-Strauss (1966) and can be defined as “making do by applying combinations of the resources at hand to new problems and opportunities” (Baker & Nelson, 2005). This process involves three complex sets of behaviours. Firstly, making do which could refer to creating something from nothing. Secondly, it means refusing to accept limitations, such as accepted definitions, practices and social conventions. Thirdly, it means appreciating action and improvisation as well as taking part in several projects and always responding to new opportunities (Baker & Nelson, 2005; Davidson, Baker, & Senyard 2017; Fisher, 2012). Still, there is always a risk of falling back on local and cheap solutions, which do not prioritize knowledge and tools. Growth can be retarded due to the inclusion of bricolage as a company’s identity (Fisher, 2012). On the other hand, companies seeking long-term survival

solutions can benefit from the mindset of entrepreneurial bricolage (Stinchfield, Nelson, & Wood, 2013). Another related term is spatial bricolage, which is defined as: a) spatial practices which involve engagement with local communities in order to get access to local resources (Di Domenico Haugh, & Tracey, 2010); b) a specific place, a local resource for developing products and services (Kang, 2017). With respect to spatial bricolage, Korsgaard, Mueller, & Welter (2018) identifies three connected sets of activities: local sourcing, commodification through storytelling and community involvement, which all can help entrepreneurs to overcome resource constraints.

Local searching includes both non-material and physical resources. Nature, landscapes, infrastructure as well as different raw materials available can all be regarded as physical resources. Non-material resources include culture, heritage, traditions, and distinctive local identities (Kang, 2017). Commodification, transformation of products and services into objects of trade occurs through storytelling and refers to how entrepreneurs create narratives. Entrepreneurs include local physical and non-material resources into their offerings. Storytelling and commodification of local heritage increase the value of products and services (Anderson, 2000).

2.2. Lifestylers

A new type of entrepreneurship, associated with so-called lifestylers, has emerged in the tourism sector. According to Gomez-Velasco & Saleilles (2007), there are numerous definitions of lifestyle entrepreneurs. For Burns (2001), lifestyle entrepreneurs are primarily motivated by their desire to do something they enjoy and that provides an adequate income. However, according to Morrison (2006), the main reason why lifestyle entrepreneurs start a business is not economic. This is confirmed by Ateljevic & Doorne (2000), whose study of small enterprises in New Zealand involved in adventure tourism shows that economic factors were not the driving force for those entrepreneurs. Instead, lifestyle values were central to the success of their businesses and could be best measured in terms of their continuing ability to perpetuate their chosen lifestyles (Ateljevic & Doorne, 2000). In the tourism industry, lifestyle entrepreneurship can be a highly creative and innovative occupation, because it is not a totally profit-driven business but rather provides opportunities to engage with market consumers (Shaw, 2004). Research also shows that in the creation of new tourism products and services as well as in the conservation and promotion of local natural and cultural heritage lifestyle, stakeholders are important actors in creating platforms for understanding sustainable tourism development (Ateljevic & Doorne, 2000).

2.3. Learning

Learning has been looked at from various perspectives and by representatives of different fields throughout history. As a result, the concept of learning is used to refer to a wide range of ideas, which can include both individual and collective learning processes (Minsky, 1988). In this article both processes are taken into account. It is further assumed that the process of value creation is a learning journey.

2.4. Learning individually

Theories of individual learning are central to the understanding of joint learning processes, often emphasizing the concrete experience of learning. According to Kolb, Boyatzis, & Mainemelis (2001), experiential learning takes place when an individual experiences a situation, analyses it and understands its meaning and value from their own perspective. This experience can be understood as a cognitive, affective or behavioural phenomenon. The theory of experiential learning describes how people learn, grow and develop. The theory emphasizes the importance of effective and personal experience (Corbett, 2005; Kolb 1984; Schön 1995). According to Passarelli & Kolb (2011, p. 5) “in the process of learning one is called upon to move back and forth between opposing modes of reflection and action and feeling and thinking”. This perspective is preferable when learning about sustainability issues because it focuses explicitly on the relationship between cognition and action, rather than the individual’s stock of knowledge. The weakness of this theory, however, is that it does not take into account the social context or values and other interests that can influence human action. While learning about sustainability, all these issues are important. According to Schön (1995), values and beliefs can be integrated. He argues that cognition cannot be separated from values and beliefs, and the same is true with respect to the link between cognition and action. A lot of knowledge is tacit and goes unnoticed. This is why, it needs to be brought to the surface: people have to be made aware of their tacit knowledge and the value it may have for others.

2.5. Learning in a group

Group learning is more than merely enhanced individual learning: when several individuals interact, the complexity of learning increases. For instance, issues of motivation and reward, which are an integral part of human learning, become more complicated in a group setting. When discussing processes involved in

group learning, adjectives such as *collective*, *collaborative*, *cooperative* and *collegial* are often used to describe them. Collaborative learning can be defined as a social activity, where learners make progress individually, but not necessarily as a group (Järvelä, Violet, & Järvenoja, 2010; Johnson, Johnson, & Holubec, 2008). Collective learning, instead, focuses on achieving a common understanding and attaining a common goal in the group. Experiences need to be described collectively so that the group has a possibility to problematize and reflect on the experience for accomplishing a learning outcome (Järvelä & Järvenoja, 2011; Ohlsson, 1996; Wilhelmson, 1998).

Action learning is an approach pioneered by Revans (Pedler, 2016), who regards learning as a noticeable change in behaviour. Change can be viewed as a process involving learning and action. These two phenomena are connected to each other and presuppose each other. Action learning has been used as an instructional method in the pursuit of organizational development in both public and private organizations (Boaden, 2006). Bowerman, (2003) and Conger & Toegel (2003) argue that action learning is preferred as a method for problem-solving and a way of changing behaviour because it relates to real-world issues. In the action learning approach, participants try to find satisfactory answers to problems by working in small groups, where they meet regularly in order to solve issues they encounter. They analyse, develop solutions, choose the most appropriate one and finally implement recommendations. Learning and task achievement go hand in hand throughout the process. Learning includes programmed instruction and questioning insight (Pedler, 2016).

2.6. Learning sustainability

Sustainability has become one of the most widely used and discussed concepts (Appelbaum et al., 2016; Dobson, 2008; Rambaud & Richard, 2015). The Brundtland Commission (1987) defined sustainable development as “development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs”. Definitions of sustainability can vary, but the widely common model for sustainable development consists of three, partly overlapping, pillars: economic viability, environmental protection and social equity. In order to produce goods and services that meet our needs and remain within the limits of the carrying capacity of our planet’s ecological systems as well as contribute to economic and societal development, the balanced integration of these three pillars is essential (Appelbaum et al., 2016; Dobson, 2008; Rambaud and Richard, 2015). This model has been adopted as the basis for several Swedish environmental policies. Sustainability has also become a very important quality marker and value for tourists, where it refers to results of the

process of co-creation with different actors and stakeholders, which in turn becomes a crucial factor in developing products and services for the tourism industry (Matthing, Sanden, & Edvardsson, 2004; Thrift, 2006).

Learning and group processes are interdependent and interwoven. Nevertheless, groupwork is a complex multidimensional competency, and its development must be planned carefully. In any groupwork context, good communication skills, the ability to set goals, solve problems and resolve conflicts can benefit the group. Group diversity can be regarded as a positive factor. However, in groups with communicative, cognitive and cultural differences, there is always a risk of conflict. Each group member influences the group process and is affected by what happens in the group (Haslett & Ruebush, 1999; Schultz, 1999; Sunwolf & Seibold, 1999).

2.7. Value creation

Creation or co-creation of values are two concepts that are often used in business and management literature and research. Today the consumer is seen as a participant in the process of creating the meaning of a product. The consumer can thus be regarded as a co-producer, as consumption is seen as an identification marker. The co-creation act adds sense to the product. By being involved as co-creators customers become active participants in the product experience. At the same time, consumers are co-creators of values. This new role is significantly different from the idea of a passive mass-market consumer during the post-war period (Bergman & Klefsjö, 2012). In practice, this co-creation of values happens as a result of individual and collective processes. Interactions between group members involve meaning-making and sensemaking. Meaning-making is described in several scientific disciplines such as in psychology and constructivist learning theory. According to Gillies, Neimeyer & Millman, (2014, p. 208), meaning making can be defined as something people are “retaining, reaffirming, revising, or replacing elements of their orienting system to develop more nuanced, complex and useful systems.” The process of sense-making, in turn, was described in organizational studies in 1970s by Karl E. Weick as a process where individuals give meaning for their collective experiences (Weick, 1995).

One way in which value can be created between entrepreneurs and their customers is the pursuit of sustainability. Value creation can in turn lead to more viable solutions and practices in tourism, thus contributing to the development of a sustainable society. This does not happen without participation in collective and collaborative learning, where both meaning-making and sensemaking occur and where knowledge sharing and learning take place. Figure 1 illustrates how these theoretical aspects are connected.

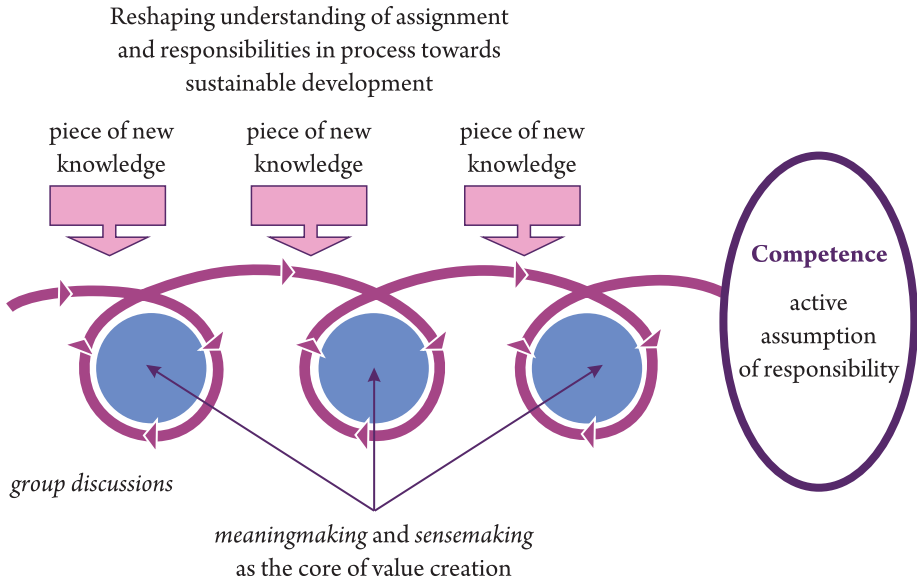


Fig. 1. Learning processes including meaning- and sensemaking

Source: author's work.

All these processes should be treated as interconnected (Pralhad & Ramaswamy, 2004). Furthermore, these processes can be regarded as a framework for understanding the complexity of learning about issues of sustainability in any organizational context.

3. Methodology

The following section describes a qualitative and explorative study of some entrepreneurs and their learning processes. Entrepreneurs were selected from a group participating in the green business course. All course participants ran their businesses on the Swedish island of Gotland. Each course section included between 6-11 entrepreneurs. The author's study is based on responses collected from five entrepreneurs who participated the course regularly.

Primary data collection for this study took place between January and April 2020. The data consisted of documents about the course, observations and exercises completed by course participants and answers to an online questionnaire, which was filled in by participants at the end of the course. It consisted of three sections: about the course in general, (11 questions), about group processes,

how participants experienced the course (10 questions) and about sustainability (general questions about sustainability and how participants have been implementing sustainable solutions in their businesses and about their plans concerning sustainability – 6 questions). As an observer in the course collecting observation data, the author did not participate in course activities or group discussions. Data analysis was based on the theoretical concepts presented in the previous section.

4. Results

4.1. The Green Bizz programme

NatureBizz is a three-year EU-funded Interregional Central Baltic project¹ scheduled to run from March 2018 to October 2021. Green Bizz is part of this project, a pilot training project. The aim of the training programme was to support the growth and competitiveness of subject-specific business competencies necessary for green entrepreneurs to support development of those competencies, and in turn, to contribute their long-term success, competitiveness and customer satisfaction. The training programme was focused on special characteristics of green consumption and green entrepreneurship and business. The programme took place between January and April 2020 on Gotland Island. It consisted of eight study modules: Managing green micro-business, Understanding green consumers, Brand and quality management, Product development and service design, Supply chain management, Communication and export, Communication in customer journey and Green entrepreneurs go international.

4.2. Study participants

Five entrepreneurs chosen for the study completed the whole training course. All of them run a business in the tourism sector. All of them had more than one vocational area of expertise. In their business activity, they offer different services for tourists. Three of them provide bed and breakfast accommodation, offer guided tours, run cafés and sell local products. One offers BnB accommodation, operates a wool scouring mill and a shop selling wool products. One represents a cooperative that owns a camping site, a museum, a restaurant and a café, a harbour for leisure boats and guided tours. Another offers guided tours, traditional cooking and handicraft classes and organises other local events. They run their businesses alone or together with their partners most of the year. But seasonally some of them

¹ <https://www.sh.se/forskning/var-forskning/forskningsdatabas/forskningsprojekt/naturebizz>

hire extra employees, from 1 to 5 persons. Their pathways through the course were documented by observations, exercises completed and their responses to the questionnaire. All of these data sources are presented and analysed below.

4.3. Opinions about the course

Participants said they had decided to participate in the course because they thought it was necessary to become a greener entrepreneur.

„It was an interesting theme that could help to develop our business.“

Respondents indicated that the course content, in general, was good but some of the course material was designed for larger organizations and industries, not for micro-businesses in the service sector. The study participants said they were inclined to use the course parts depending on their own specific needs. In their opinion, discussions with other participants provided the largest stock of knowledge in the course. Comments regarding the content of different modules varied. Here are some opinions:

„The content of the modules helped me to see my own company from several different perspectives.“

„I gained new knowledge about international sustainability goals.“

„There is a large number of different certifications that we, as micro-entrepreneurs, cannot afford or benefit from.“

„I did not learn any new facts but had an opportunity to reflect on green values.“

„I learned nothing new.“

„Parts of the module use traditional reasoning from industrial production. It should be slightly deeper and clearer, more focused on the service sector and experiential tourism.“

„The modules were not adjusted to the needs of the hospitality industry.“

„It was excellent with extra material, which was available as a backdrop and the various links.“

The study participants represented different areas of entrepreneurship, but all of them were active within the hospitality industry. They said the course did not always satisfy their expectation of improving their competencies. These entrepreneurs can be called as bricoleurs not only because they provide tourists with services in different areas but also because they used the course content for their own specific needs (Lévi-Strauss, 1966). They incorporated pieces of knowledge they regarded as necessary and useful into their own business puzzle. They can also be seen as *spatial bricoleurs*, according to Korsgaard, Mueller, & Welter (2018); Di Domenico Haugh, & Tracey (2010) and Kang (2017) because they are engaged with local communities and use available resources, specific places, cultures and commodification through storytelling.

4.4. Group processes and group learning

The study participants seemed to enjoy being part of their group. They pointed out that because the group was heterogeneous, they had an opportunity to learn about the situation and conditions of other entrepreneurs operating in the tourism sector. In addition, they believed that the group was reasonably large and enabled different discussions during the course. (Haslett & Ruebush, 1999; Schultz, 1999; Sunwolf & Seibold, 1999).

The respondents believed the course leader allowed a lot of freedom in discussions, sometimes even too much, so that it was difficult to follow the agenda of the day. However, most of the study participants viewed those discussions as the most rewarding part of the course. Some respondents said that one of the course participants had built a website based on different course themes. The number of participants decreased as the course went on and this was perceived as a disadvantage because in this way they lost several other experiences about entrepreneurship. Other problematic aspects of the course regarding that particular group included the lack of structure, overly long and sometimes excessively diverse discussions. According to two respondents, areas relating to the production of goods and services or conditions in which companies of different sizes operate were covered inadequately, as the diversity of perspectives and values make for a very enriching contribution.

All these skills and ways of learning can be regarded as important in learning sustainability issues. Co-creation of values, such as sustainability, and the processes of meaning making and sensemaking take place and are intertwined with learning processes in the study group (Gillies, Neimeyer & Milman, 2014). The respondents identified strongly with their companies. They showed commitment and interest in developing their companies to become greener and more sustainable. While discussing in the group, the participants shared their narratives, discussed their problems, tried to find solutions together and learn from each other (Abolafia, 2010; Isabella, 1990; Weick, 1995). The respondents extracted context cues that helped them decide what information could be relevant and what explanations could be acceptable (Salancick & Pfeffer, 1978).

4.5. Entrepreneurs and sustainability

The entrepreneurs gave many examples of how they already work on sustainability issues in their companies.

“We try to be sustainable. It is a lifestyle and we try to be as sustainable as possible. Sustainable products or locally produced products are the most important, not a sustainable product that has been flown here from another part of the globe.”

"We work with a sustainable raw material, sheep wool, so this makes our business sustainable. We are also certified as a farm and as a B&B and we usually make conscious choices in construction and purchasing."

The respondents also added that they had solved their rainwater collection, grew their own food, thought about resource management, used conservation methods that include only water and a little salt (lactic acid fermentation), dealt with local suppliers, handled most of the raw materials, minimized and took care of waste, had a solid knowledge of sustainable tourism, cooking, etc. So, in other words, they already applied sustainable solutions in their businesses.

They also stated that they were planning other measures in their companies to step up sustainable actions. All of them wanted to expand the range of sustainable products and services in their companies. They were also curious about new sustainable technologies and wanted to maintain a coherent process with a holistic vision of how to run their business, how their staff should behave, how to dispose of materials, how to preserve natural values. 4 respondents wanted to deepen their understanding of what is meant by sustainable and long-term development. They also learnt about rules and support to become more sustainable, and about things that slow down or speed up the development of sustainability (Matthing, Sanden & Edvardsson, 2004; Thrift, 2006).

The respondents pointed out the breadth of different things that they had learned during the course. Four respondents improved their knowledge about different certification opportunities, others had learned how to better market their company or concept with the help of knowledge acquired during the course. They were interested to find out more about rules and regulations concerning sustainability, where to get help, examples of sustainable solutions in different companies and businesses. One persons wanted to learn more about competitive advantages that sustainability measures can provide. In addition, three study participants wanted help with practical sustainability measures in their specific business areas.

From the perspective of the respondents, the learning process requires certain conditions to be effective:

- the course material needs to be sufficiently diverse and have a greater breadth to better suit the different needs of participants;
- the study group needs to be sufficiently heterogeneous to inspire and function as a knowledge bank for participants;
- learning requires a balanced structure with diverse elements and course leaders who are not too dominant;
- participants are allowed to learn collaboratively, because they have different goals and needs;
- group discussions highlight so-called tacit knowledge
- participants have some prior knowledge of sustainability in order to be motivated to continue their learning;

- participants are curious about practical sustainable solutions;
- participants value and are willing to learn from other participants;
- entrepreneurs need support, particularly practical support, to move towards sustainable businesses.

5. Conclusions

The aim of the course analysed in this exploratory study was to increase the participants' knowledge about sustainable entrepreneurship. Five micro-entrepreneurs, who completed the entire course, can be regarded as bricoleurs and lifestylers because of the way they run their businesses and how they acquired knowledge during the course. In their business activities, they provide different services, are open to new ideas, are innovative and inventive, flexible and enduring. They are constantly in search of new knowledge that can improve their business. They want to interact with other entrepreneurs, share their experiences and create networks. They need both theoretical and practical knowledge. It seems that different learning approaches were useful to these entrepreneurs during different phases of the course. They often switched between individual and group learning modes. In many and long discussions, they seemed to benefit most from the collaborative way of learning.

Results indicate that these micro-entrepreneurs need support and knowledge from different areas of entrepreneurship. Sustainable entrepreneurship should first relate to practical problems that bricoleurs faced with in their everyday life. One possible alternative they would find preferable would be a course where sustainability aspects are linked to everyday problems and are discussed in separate blocks of themes related to specific needs, which participants could choose depending on their preferences. These results indicate that what is really needed is not only a good and flexible course structure but also a course leader with a solid knowledge of both entrepreneurship and sustainability, both in theory but mostly in practice. In future research, it would be interesting to study several different groups of entrepreneurs and their need for knowledge about sustainability issues.

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Mikroprzedsiębiorcy na drodze do działalności zrównoważonej – implikacje dla procesów uczenia się

Streszczenie. Celem badania było rozpoznanie, w jaki sposób niektórzy mikroprzedsiębiorcy odbierają proces uczenia się w trakcie warsztatów, zwłaszcza w odniesieniu do kwestii zrównoważonego rozwoju. W przeprowadzonym badaniu jakościowym o charakterze eksploracyjnym

przedmiotem analizy były głównie procesy uczenia się podczas kursu GreenBizz. Analizowane były odpowiedzi udzielone przez respondentów w kwestionariuszu, notatki z obserwacji dyskusji między uczestnikami warsztatów oraz dokumenty opisujące strukturę kursu i wykorzystane w nim zadania. Stwierdzono, że przedsiębiorcy mają pewną wiedzę na temat kwestii zrównoważonego rozwoju, ale brakuje im odpowiednich narzędzi do wdrażania trwałych zmian w swoich firmach. Aby proces uczenia się był skuteczny, musi być wystarczająco zróżnicowany, powinien obejmować przekazywanie wiedzy ukrytej, dawać uczestnikom możliwość poznania swoich motywacji oraz zawierać zarówno elementy teoretyczne, jak i praktyczne. Udział w kursie umożliwił respondentom nawiązywanie kontaktów z innymi przedsiębiorcami, udzielanie sobie wzajemnego wsparcia i dzielenie się wiedzą na temat zrównoważonych rozwiązań w przedsiębiorstwach. Badanie pokazuje, że tego typu kursy muszą nie tylko zapewniać wystarczający zakres elastyczności, ale również powinny być prowadzone przez osoby posiadające solidną i praktyczną wiedzę z zakresu przedsiębiorczości i zrównoważonego rozwoju.

Słowa kluczowe: współtworzenie wartości, bricoleur, rozwój zrównoważony, turystyka, mikro-przedsiębiorcy



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MAŁGORZATA REJTER*

Tourist destinations in the light of senior citizens' memories

Abstract. The aim of this article is to present biographical narratives about tourist destinations retained in memories of seniors from the period of their youth, i.e. the 60s, 70s and 80s of the last century. The author's intention was to retrieve those distant memories during narrative interviews with respondents and use them to reconstruct information about tourist destinations. The respondents were not asked any specific questions about their holiday memories and were allowed to choose what they wanted to recall. The preferences revealed during the interviews resemble contemporary trends. It can therefore be concluded that despite the passage of time and all kinds of changes that have taken place over several decades, tourists are invariably attracted to the same destinations.

Keywords: tourism, recreation, tourist geobiographies, tourist activity, tourism product, choices

JEL Codes: L83; Z13; Y91

1. Introduction

The aim of the article was to obtain biographical narratives about tourist destinations retained in memories of seniors from the period of their youth, i.e. the 60s, 70s and 80s of the last century. Tourist destinations selected by the interviewees were compared with choices made by modern-day tourist to determine if preferences in this respect have changed over time. The author hypothesized that these preferences have remained largely the same despite the passage of decades.

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Tourist traffic can be defined as a voluntary movement of people looking for a temporary change of environment and rhythm of life. Tourist traffic is associated with a specific area, direction and period. Until 2020, tourism was a rapidly growing industry with huge profits.

Much of tourist traffic was often the result of spontaneous decisions made by tourists who did not always opt for officially recognized tourist destinations. Most tourists organized their own form of transportation to get to their selected destinations. Therefore, apart from aggregated statistical data, information about specific tourist destinations was obtained directly from respondents selected for the study. Because the period in which the respondents made decisions regarding tourist destinations is in the relatively distant past and is not covered by any type of official statistics, the author relied mainly on accounts provided by the respondents. It should also be noted that in the 60s, 70s and 80s many trips, especially those abroad, which were officially described as tourist trips, were in fact undertaken for commercial purposes.

2. Literature review

Following Krzysztof Mazurski and Mirosław Mika, the article focuses on recreational tourism, and a tourism region is defined as part of the physical space, which is or can be visited by (Mazurski, 2009, p. 7, Mika, 2014, p. 19). Michael Hall defines tourism as a form of temporary mobility with both temporal and spatial dimensions (Hall, 2009). According to Stephen Williams, tourism is a complex concept, covering not only the temporary movement of people to destinations that are disconnected from their everyday places of residence, but also the organization and course of their stay, activities, and facilities and services that are necessary to meet their needs. A tourist is defined as a person who makes a trip, for business, pleasure or education, at the end of which they return to the starting point, usually home (Williams, 2003, p. 3). According to the World Tourism Organization defined a traveler “as someone who moves between different geographic locations for any purpose and any duration” (*International Recommendations...*, 2010: 9). James Clifford uses the term ‘travel’ to describe various, more or less voluntary, practices of leaving home to go somewhere else. Such a displacement may be for a material, spiritual or scientific purpose. In both of these definitions, Podemski recognises the social and humanistic aspects of traveling, emphasizing that travel involves movement (Podemski, 2004, p. 7).

Bogdan Włodarczyk believes that research on tourist traffic is difficult because it is impossible to completely register this phenomenon and official statistics are only collected about registered accommodation facilities. For this reason, it is

necessary to use data from various sources, which should complement each other (Włodarczyk, 2011, p. 9).

According to Marek Kozak, tourism develops faster in places selected by tourists on account of their cultural values and well-developed tourism infrastructure, while natural values are of less importance (Kozak, 2008, p. 38). However, destinations are selected by tourists seeking to satisfy their needs, which is an important factor that stimulates spatial mobility and tourist behavior. Also, the choice of destinations is important in the analysis of tourists' spatial behavior, because each trip is a source of utility for the traveller. Also, previous experiences determine tourists' choices of destinations for future trips (Mika, 2014, p. 27-29). In other words, positive physical and mental experiences from past trips encourage tourists to return to the same place in order to experience those feelings again.

Marek Nowacki believes that tourist activity is driven by the search for intrapersonal authenticity, which can be triggered by feelings related to self-realization or bodily sensations. Sunbathing is an example of a tourist activity that evokes a sense of authenticity resulting from bodily sensations. On the beach, the body is relaxed and not subject to social or superego restrictions or controls. The routine of everyday existence is replaced by a state of relaxation, entertainment, spontaneity and fun, i.e., authenticity in an existential sense. In turn, the desire for self-fulfillment is what drives people to undertake adventure tourism, such as sea sailing, paragliding, parachuting, mountain climbing. However, for many people, holidays remain a way to create or strengthen family ties (Nowacki, 2010, p. 13). Because memories of vacations spent together are associated with strong emotions, they are retained for a long time and are often recalled during family gatherings, usually while viewing photos taken during the holidays. In this way, memories of tourist trips provide an insight into a person's world of tourist experiences.

Because such memories tend to fade and be forgotten, it is so important to catch these fleeting moments of a tourist's geobiography and capture them in photos. For Podemski, photos are a way of reporting reality and an expression of power, knowledge and appropriation of the photographed object. Photographing may seem like an objective reflection of reality, but, in fact, is a way of interpreting it and assigning meaning to it. Anyone can take a photo, and the desire to take photos affects the course of a journey. It often determines where people stop and what they look at. In this way, a journey is a strategy for producing a collection of photos, and can be treated as a form of commercializing individual and family memories. It seems that tourists take pictures in order to remember (Podemski, 2004, p. 81). The incentive for taking pictures is that they are tourist attractions, which, according to Nowacki, include all things that interest and pulls tourists from their homes (Nowacki 2000, p. 112-113). We can distinguish three stages of a tourist experience: the preparation phase – including the search for and purchase of a suitable offering as well as any other preparations before the departure

(consumption); the consumption phase – from the moment the tourist leaves the house to the moment of return; and the phase of memories – the so-called “product echo”, which takes place long after consumption has ended (Kaczmarek, Stasiak, Włodarczyk, 2002, p. 49).

In 2020, Grzegorz Godlewski predicted that in the long term tourism would become the strongest sector of the global economy, with countries spending more resources to promote their tourism potential in order to take advantage of it (Godlewski, 2020, p. 127). However, these predictions did not take into account the collapse of tourism as a result of the crisis caused by the coronavirus pandemic throughout 2020. As Bartłomiej Walas and Zygmunt Kruczek note: “The outbreak of the COVID-19 pandemic has dramatically affected the entire supply chain in the tourism industry, [...] causing a financial breakdown for many companies” (Walas & Kruczek, 2020, p. 94). As Seyfi, Hall & Shabani observe, many countries, “in an effort to contain the advancement of the novel coronavirus (COVID-19) pandemic, many states have introduced unprecedented peacetime measures ranging from border closures and travel bans to the suspension of visa exemptions, as well as internal mobility restrictions, including full lockdowns and quarantine for incoming passengers” (Seyfi, Hall & Shabani 2020). Therefore, 2020 was, in many respects, completely different from all previous years, also as regards tourism.

3. Data and the method

Data for the analysis covering the period 1960-1980 were collected between 2017 and 2019 during biographical interviews. The autobiographical narrative interview method, developed by Fritz Schütze (1983), is a coherent methodological and analytical approach, which is based on certain epistemic assumptions and theoretical framework (Każmierska & Waniek, 2020, p. 11). Biographical information is collected in order to answer questions posed by the researcher. In the process of biographical reconstruction of the interviewee’s life, the researcher looks for factors and important motives. A narrative interview enables the subject to present experiences from specific phases or areas of life in the context of their entire life experience (Helling, 1990, p. 16-17).

The author conducted 17 interviews with senior citizens of Łódź, over the age of 65, who were selected from among her circle of family and friends. The interviewees were asked to talk about their life in general. In the actual analysis parts relating to holiday trips were selected from those biographical stories. As a result, out of 17 interviews, only fragments of 8 were used as research material that could be used for analyzing tourist and recreational activity. The author focused on the period when the narrators started going on tourist trips as adults to the end of the

1980s. One narrative was illustrated with photos obtained provided by one of the interviewee. The other narrators either did not want to share their private photos or did not have any photos from their tourist trips from that period because they had destroyed them.

4. Results

The first interview covers the period of three decades (1960s-1980s.) The interviewee is a woman, born in 1941:

(1) “We used to have a Fiat 126P, and later we bought a Zastava and we would often go on trips to nearby forests to pick mushroom (Fig. 1). Once, my husband and I went to visit his family, who lived in the former USSR in the town of Postawy. [...] My daughter and I went on vacation to the Polish seaside, to Chłapowo, Władysławowo (Fig. 2), and to a forest campsite near Głowno. I also liked going to the mountains (Fig. 3). When I was younger, I would travel with my friends, and then with my daughter (Fig. 4). The trip to Głuchołazy is the most pleasant of my memories. We almost always spent holidays together with my friend and her children.”

The second interview was conducted with a woman born in 1942:

(2) “When it comes to spending time, we would spend most of our holidays either in the Masurian Lake District or on the Sulejów Reservoir, because we had our own sailboat, so we would alternate between sailing holidays and holidays abroad. We’ve been to different places in Bulgaria, Italy, Croatia, Prague, Vienna, so there were many different trips. We went to different places in Italy three times.”

The third interview was carried out with a woman born in 1946:

(3) “Our parents would send us to summer camps or to our family. Then, while I was already working, I went on holidays financed from the Employee



Fig. 1. A car trip to the forest (1980)

Source: private photo archive.



Fig. 2. A trip to the Baltic Sea (1975)

Source: private photo archive.



Fig. 3. A trip to the mountains in my youth (1963)

Source: private photo archive.



Fig. 4. A trip to the mountains with my daughter (Głucholazy 1979)

Source: private photo archive.

Holiday Fund, and later I could also afford to travel abroad, to countries such as Bulgaria, Hungary, Romania. We also travelled to my husband's family, to the village of Grabina in the commune of Zadzim,¹ where we would help on my grandma's farm. In 1969, we went to Dresden. In 1971 we were on vacation in Ustka, and in 1973 – in Kołobrzeg. [...] In 1982, we bought a plot of land in Florentynów near Konstantynów Łódzki, where we went at weekends. [...] We also visited a natural habitat in Chrzastawa, which is a beautiful area surrounded by forests and lakes. [...] In 2007, my husband and I went to the sanatorium in Aleksandrów Łódzki for rehabilitation. In the following years we also spent time in Sopot and Mrzeżyno.”

The fourth interview was given by a woman born in 1941:

(4) “When I was still working, I would always spend my summer holidays in Ustka, because my workplace had a house and an area fenced in with thujas. It felt like we were with the family. Once I also went on holiday to Germany.”

The fifth interviewee was a woman born in 1942:

(5) “My first trip was to Minsk² in the USSR, I was around 30 then, it was an individual trip. The following year I went to Romania, and a year after that – to Hungary. [...] I went on vacation when I was alone. [...] And after the divorce, I was in an open relationship with R., who was a military man, so we went to places where they had military bases, such as Waplewo, Mielno, Ustka and others, but I don't remember now. I went to Slovakia for New Year's Eve, then we spent another New Year's Eve in Austria.”

The sixth interviewee was a woman born in 1949:

(6) “[...] when we were still working, it was possible to take 3-4 days off, including a Saturday, and a Sunday and we would go to Hungary. We didn't go there for tourism, but we travelled as tourists, taking some things you could sell there, so first you had to buy some products in Poland that were in demand in Hungary. [...] Now, every year we go to Turkey professionally, more or less every month, to buy clothes. In the summer we have only a three-month break, from May to August. In addition, we go on vacation. [...] When our son was 3 years old, we went to Władysławowo, then to Łeba, and then somewhere else, to Międzyzdroje. [...] Once we went to France, that was about 20 years ago, we returned in a car that we had bought there. [...] Oh, and then we started going on holidays abroad. We've been going every year. We have been to Turkey, we have been to Spain and France. We also travelled to Hungary before. We mostly go to Turkey, because we like it very much and we feel very good there. It's not just because I go there to

¹ A village 50 km west of Łódź.

² Since 1991, Minsk has been the capital of the sovereign Republic of Belarus.

buy stuff, it's really very nice. I mean the food and also it is a beautiful country, we always choose the all-inclusive option. We can afford it. And this year, for the first time after all those years, we went to Krynica Morska."

The seventh interview was conducted with a woman born in 1916. It should be noted that the narrator was 102 years old at the time of the interview, so some details of her memories may not have been entirely accurate.

(7) "After my grandson grew older, I could spend my free time how I wanted, so I visited my family in Skarżysko Kamienna and Starachowice. Apart from that, with my middle daughter, I went on 10-day trips abroad. I've been to Italy, France and Germany."

The eighth interviewee was a man born in 1949:

(8) "I would like to go somewhere, on some foreign trips, but I don't know foreign languages and I'm a bit afraid. Yes, I have been to Berlin, Prague, Budapest, Copenhagen, Malmö in Sweden, but all those trips were organized, guided tours. [...] My wife and I like to just go away, we go somewhere every year, often twice a year. This year we are looking forward to a stay in a sanatorium. [...] But I suspect that when I return from the sanatorium, we will go to the seaside for a week or two. Basically, we go somewhere every year."

The summary of destinations mentioned during the above interviews is presented in Table 1. The regions mentioned by the narrators are divided into those located in Poland and those located abroad. All foreign destinations are located in Europe.

The destinations mentioned by the narrators are shown in Fig. 5, which contains a map of Poland divided into provinces.

5. Discussion

According to statistical data about domestic trips published by the Ministry of Sport and Tourism, there were 45.9 million domestic trips in 2017, which is 5.5% more than in 2016. Like in the previous years, the majority of those trips (28 million) were short (2-4 days), accounting for 61% of the total. The most visited provinces included Pomorskie (13.5%), Małopolskie (13.1%), Mazowieckie (12.0%), Zachodniopomorskie (11.5%) and Dolnośląskie (7.4%). The average length of stay was 8.5 nights for long-term trips and 2 nights for short-term trips. Tourism and leisure are the official reason of 57.8% of long-term trips and 29.5% of short-term trips (*Coraz więcej Polaków aktywnych turystycznie!*, 2017).

Table 1. List of tourist and recreational directions visited by the narrators from the 1960s, 1970s and 1980s

Narrator's number	Destination	
	Poland	abroad
1	Chłapowo (Pomorskie Province), Władysławowo (Pomorskie Province), Głowno (Łódzkie Province)	Belarus (Postawy)
2	Giżycko, Mazury (Warmińsko-mazurskie Province), Sulejów, Zalew Sulejowski (Łódzkie Province)	Bulgaria, Italy, Croatia, Czech Republic (Prague), Austria (Vienna)
3	Grabina (Łódzkie Province), Ustka (Pomorskie Province), Kołobrzeg (Zachodniopomorskie Province), Florentynów (Łódzkie Province), Chrzastawa (Łódzkie Province), Aleksandrów Łódzki (Łódzkie Province), Sopot (Pomorskie Province), Mrzeżyno (Zachodniopomorskie Province)	Bulgaria, Hungary, Romania, Germany (Dresden)
4	Ustka (Pomorskie Province)	Germany
5	Waplewo (Warmińsko-mazurskie Province), Mielno (Warmińsko-mazurskie Province), Ustka (Pomorskie Province)	Belarus (Minsk), Romania, Hungary, Slovakia, Austria
6	Władysławowo (Pomorskie Province), Łeba (Pomorskie Province), Międzyzdroje (West Pomorskie Province), Krynica Morska (Pomorskie Province)	Hungary, Turkey, France, Spain
7	Skarżysko-Kamienna (Świętokrzyskie Province), Starachowice (Świętokrzyskie Province)	Italy, France, Germany
8	Spa and seaside towns	Berlin, Prague, Budapest, Copenhagen, Sweden (Malmö)

Source: own study based on the interviews.

Compared with destinations mentioned during the interviews (see Table 1), one can partial overlap regarding Pomorskie, with Zachodniopomorskie being more popular with the interviewees.

According to the Ministry of Sport and Tourism, the foreign countries Polish tourists visited the most frequently in 2017 included Germany (2.4 million), Italy and Great Britain (1.0 million each), Greece (0.72 million), Croatia (0.71 million) and the Czech Republic (0.7 million) (*Coraz więcej Polaków aktywnych turystycznie!*, 2017).

Some of these countries were also mentioned by the respondents (Germany, Italy, Croatia and the Czech Republic). It seems that despite the passage of over



Fig. 5. A map of Poland showing tourist destinations mentioned by 8 narrators

Source: own study based on the interviews.

4 decades, preferences of Polish tourists regarding foreign travel have not changed much.

According to data provided by the Polish Chamber of Tourism for 2019, Turkey and Greece were the most frequently chosen destinations of foreign holidays. These two countries were visited by over 20% of travel agency clients. Other countries popular with Polish tourists include Bulgaria, Spain, Egypt, Tunisia, Albania, Italy and Croatia. The last one is most often chosen by tourists who organize their stays on their own. 2019 saw a rise in the popularity of destinations that had experienced a decline in recent years, such as Turkey, Egypt and Tunisia (*Zagraniczne wakacje...*, 2020).

As in the case of domestic destinations, foreign destinations popular with modern-day Polish tourists also partially overlap with those chosen by the interviewees: these include Turkey, Bulgaria, Italy, Croatia and Spain.

6. Conclusion

The case study described in the article shows a small fragment of personal tourist experience recalled by the interviewees. Tourism, by its very nature, is a changing and unpredictable socio-economic phenomenon. However, the tourist destinations presented in the article, visited by the interviewees in the period 1960-1980, partly coincide with destinations chosen by modern-day Polish tourists. Why do people representing different generations keep visiting the same places? Obviously, because they are as attractive as they have been for decades, and because they are located in Europe and, therefore, are relatively affordable. One obvious difference between the period in question and modern times is the ability to move freely across Europe that was seriously limited in communist Poland. This explains why holidays in Poland were by far the most frequently selected type of tourist or recreational trips. However, the research sample (8 interviews) was not representative and any more general conclusions about this topic would have to be supported with much more data.

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Destynacje turystyczne w świetle wspomnień seniorów

Streszczenie. Celem artykułu jest uzyskanie narracji biograficznych o miejscach destynacji turystycznych, które pozostały w pamięci seniorów z lat ich młodości, czyli lat 60-80. XX wieku. Zatem cel artykułu polegał na odtworzeniu tego, co pozostawiło w pamięci narratorów taką wartość, która została zrekonstruowana podczas fazy przypominania w trakcie wywiadu i przekazana badaczowi. Posłużono się metodą wywiadu narracyjnego, a dane źródłowe pozyskano z pierwotnych wypowiedzi, w których z założenia nie wypytywano o kierunki podróży, pozostawiając do decyzji narratorów to, o czym opowiedzą w trakcie przypominania sobie przebiegu całego

swojego życia, ponieważ człowiek w swoim życiu przemierza przestrzeń i zapisuje ten szlak we własnej pamięci. Uzyskane wyniki dotyczące eksplorowanych miejsc turystycznych pokrywają się ze współczesnymi kierunkami. Wnioski z przeprowadzonych badań są takie, że choć ludzie się zmieniają i następuje wymiana pokoleniowa, to jednak dążą oni w swoich destynacjach turystycznych do tych samych atrakcyjnych dla nich miejsc niezależnie od czasu.

Słowa kluczowe: turystyka, rekreacja, geobiografie turystyczne, aktywność turystyczna, produkt turystyczny, wybory



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The impact of Euro 2012 on the development of municipalities hosting national teams – the case of Gniewino

Abstract. The UEFA European Football Championship, held in 2012 in Poland, has brought a wide range of benefits, including the development of the recreation infrastructure and hotel facilities across the country. The championship has changed the way Poland and Poles are perceived by Europeans and has also contributed to improving the standard of living for inhabitants of many Polish towns and cities. The aim of this article is to evaluate the impact of Euro 2012 on the development of the Sports and Conference Centre in Gniewino and how it has affected the quality of life of its residents. The study is based on the analysis of literature and source documents as well as opinions collected in a survey of 450 respondents who answered a questionnaire consisting of 9 closed questions in December 2012. The findings indicate that the Sports and Conference Centre in Gniewino is currently one of the leading training centres for major football clubs from countries around the world. It can also be concluded that the organization of the Euro championship has had a positive impact on the quality of life of residents of Gniewino.

Keywords: sport; hospitality, sports infrastructure, tourism, football, impact of Euro 2012, quality of life, satisfaction of residents

JEL Codes: O18; Z31; Z32

1. Introduction

According to Gratton, Shibli, & Coleman, the UEFA European Football Championship is the third largest sports event in the world after the Summer Olympic

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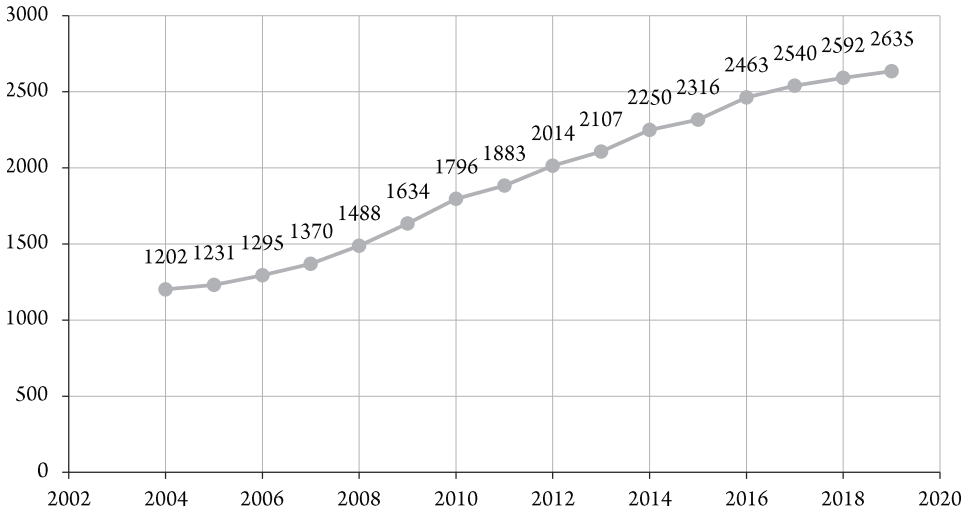
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and the FIFA World Cup (Gratton, Shibli, & Coleman, 2006). The fact of hosting a major international sports event can bring a number of benefits and stimulate changes not only in particular host cities but also in surrounding regions and the country as a whole. In order to even out visible differences between training facilities and social and living conditions in different countries, UEFA organizes cyclical sports tournaments, granting the privilege of organizing them well in advance (about 6 years) to a country that needs an investment boost in the sports and accompanying infrastructure (including the hotel and transport infrastructure) (Jedel, 2013). Poland ranks low in terms of global competitiveness because of its poor and limited infrastructure, which in turn is due to underinvestment (Będzik, & Gołąb, 2020, p. 74). The fact that Poland and Ukraine were selected as co-hosts of the UEFA Euro 2012 tournament stimulated the development of many sectors of the economy. It can be argued that the organization of that tournament was a pivotal moment in the country's recent history, after the transformation of 1989 and the accession to the European Union in 2004. From this perspective, Euro 2012 can be perceived as another milestone – an opportunity to change the whole country (Brand, Niemann, & Spitaler, 2010; Hagemann, 2010; Koller, 2010). The example of the World Cup in 2006 in Germany demonstrated that national macroeconomic effects can be transferred to the regional level and to individual towns (Ahlert, 2005, pp. 3-5). Apart from investments in the road infrastructure, the construction of modern stadiums and other facilities, which represented a significant improvement of the recreation base, Euro 2012 also provided a strong growth impulse for the hotel sector in preparation for the expected increase in demand for hotel services before and during the tournament. A significant increase in the number of hotel facilities could be observed after the announcement in April 2007 of the decision to award the organization of Euro 2012 to Poland and Ukraine (Fig. 1).

According to surveys commissioned by PL.2012 Sp. z o.o., the special-purpose state-owned company (supervised by the Minister of Sport and Tourism), in June 2012, an estimated 650 thousand ordinary spectators and 15 thousand official UEFA guests (VIP, UEFA Family and NFP guests) came to Poland to participate in Euro 2012 tournament. Taking into account the 16 finalists, the largest groups of supporters came from Germany (15% of all foreign fans), the Czech Republic (14%), Russia (14%), and Ireland (13%) (Borowski, 2012).

The impact of sports events on the hotel industry has been the subject of research for a long time. For example, within just two years before the start of the 1992 Olympic Games in Barcelona, 30 hotels were built in the city. The number of incoming tourists continued to increase in the following years (1990 – 1.7 million, 1992 – 1.9 million, 2000 – 3.1 million) (Szwichtenberg & Borzyszkowski, 2008, p. 170). However, in the run-up to the Olympic Games

Fig. 1. The number of hotels in Poland in 2004-2019



Source: based on data published by Statistics Poland.

in Sydney in 2000, hotel bed occupancy decreased from 83% (in March 2000) to 67% (just before the opening on September 15). During the event itself, the occupancy rate rose to 80% and prices increased by 40%. Immediately after the games, the number of hotel customers kept falling for three years (Jesiółowska-Rygas & Rygas, 2013).

Sports events can also provide a significant economic stimulus for cities. Sports activity stimulated by the participation in sports events has a significant impact on the development of tourism (Poczta & Malchrowicz-Moško, 2016). Currently, in an effort to diversify their offering, new facilities are increasingly multifunctional (hotels that can be used as congress and exhibition centres or host commercial events). One example of this trend is the Olympic Park in Munich, where sports events are only part of the offering for tourists and residents of the city. The Park is well integrated with its surroundings (Kozak, 2010, p. 55) and it was one of the inspirations for the Gniewino Sport Centre during the preparations for Euro 2012.

The authors of the study believed that analyses of the impact of Euro 2012 should not be limited to changes observed in the host cities. For this reason they conducted an opinion survey among residents of the Gniewino commune to learn about their perception of the effects of the championship on the quality of life in the commune.

2. Preparations for Euro 2012 in Gniewino

The commune of Gniewino was one of several sports centres that joined Euro 2012 project in 2007 in order to meet UEFA's requirements concerning the organization of the accommodation base for national teams taking part in the tournament. During the five years of preparations, the commune, with a population of just over 6700 residents in 2007, underwent a number of verifications carried out by Euro 2012 company UEFA Poland, the Ministry of Sport and Tourism, the Polish Football Association and UEFA. Gniewino was one of 160 applicants that applied for the status of residence centres in Poland.

In 2012, the sports centre in Gniewino, which was still under construction at the time the application was submitted, was entered into the UEFA catalogue and became one of 13 centres that hosted the national teams that participated in the final tournament.

3. Literature review on the quality of life

The construction of a modern accommodation complex was supposed to improve the quality of life for residents of the commune. The quality of life is one of the most frequently analysed subjects of research and a key aspect of human existence. Depending on the discipline and the scope of research, the quality of life is defined in different terms (Petelewicz & Drabowicz, 2016, p. 7). From the economic perspective, it can be measured by Gross Domestic Product, which is an indicator of the wealth of a given country and the degree of its development (Sompolska-Rzechuła, 2013). According to a definition used by WHO, a person's quality of life is affected by their "physical health, psychological state, level of independence, social relationships, and their relationship to salient features of their environment" (WHOQOL Group 1993, p. 153). The standard of living experienced by inhabitants of a given area depends not only on the degree to which their needs are satisfied but also on the costs incurred to achieve this goal, i.e. the amount of time spent at work, inconveniences associated with work, available ways of spending leisure time, the quality, range and availability of goods and services, etc. From the socio-economic perspective, the standard of living includes all factors that affect material, cultural and social conditions of life in a given community (Piasny, 1993). In order to attract new residents and retain existing inhabitants local authorities must constantly work to ensure a sufficient quality of life. Nowadays, one way of accomplishing this objective is to provide suitable conditions for personal development by exploiting the growing interest in healthy life-

style and sports activity (Wąskowski & Wyciszkievicz, 2019, p. 376). There are two basic ways in which local authorities can do this: by investing in the development of sports and recreation infrastructure and by organizing sporting events. In addition to having a positive impact on the quality of life of residents, such initiatives generate tourist traffic, which enhances economic growth of a given community (Crouch & Ritchie, 1999; Śniadek & Zajadacz, 2014).

4. Aim of the study, materials and methods

In the preliminary phase of the study (before Euro 2012) the authors hypothesized that the organization of a large international sports event would have a positive impact on the development of the Sports and Conference Centre in Gniewino and the quality of life of its residents.

The following research questions were formulated at this stage:

1. How did the Euro 2012 European Championship affect the development of the Sports and Conference Centre in Gniewino?
2. How has the Euro 2012 European Championship affected the quality of life of residents of the Gniewino commune?

To answer the above questions the authors conducted a survey in which they used a questionnaire consisting of 9 closed questions. The survey was carried in December 2012 on a random sample of Gniewino residents. From the population of 7268 persons living in the commune (as at June 30, 2012), the authors selected the sampling frame, consisting of 5625 people aged 18 or older who had lived in the commune since 2005. 1125 persons (20% of the sampling frame) were selected by simple random sampling and asked to complete an online questionnaire. 450 responses were obtained.

5. Results

5.1. The impact of Euro 2012 on the development of the Sports and Conference Centre in Gniewino

For this part of the study, the authors analysed the report prepared by Kuźma-Wasilczyk and Orzeł (2012). In preparation for Euro 2012 tournament, the commune of Gniewino established a Sports and Conference Centre, which involved a number of investments completed in between 2007 and 2012:

- the construction of a four-start Mistral Sport Hotel, located close to the modern Arena Mistrzów Stadium, with 105 double rooms and 8 suites;
- the construction of the Arena Mistrzów Stadium with a 105 × 68-meter top quality grass pitch, with artificial lighting;
- the construction of a 90 × 50 meter additional pitch, with artificial lighting;
- the construction of an athletics stadium with a high quality tartan running track surrounding, the main field with long jump, high jump tracks and throwing grounds (hammer, bullet, javelin);
- the construction of a sports and entertainment hall, one of the showpieces of the Center. Designed in modern style, suited for sports such as indoor soccer, basketball, volleyball, handball, uni-hockey and others.

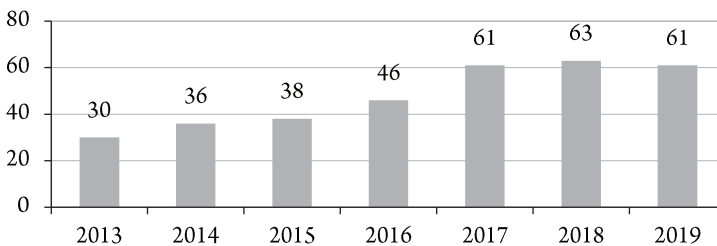
All of the above facilities have been in use since Euro 2012 and are part of the Gniewino Sports and Conference Centre. All this infrastructural development was the most important benefit of Euro 2012 for Gniewino.

The second effect of Euro 2012, no less important than the infrastructural development, was the publicity associated with being the official residence of the Spanish national team, the winners of Euro 2008. From May until the moment they left, about 300 shorter interviews were given by representative of the commune. Reports about the Training Center in Gniewino appeared in the main national weekly magazines (*Polityka*, *Wprost*, *Newsweek*) and in the main daily newspapers (*Rzeczpospolita* and *Gazeta Wyborcza*). Several dozen interviews were given by representative of the commune to radio stations (RMF FM, Radio Zet, Radio Gdańsk, RMF Max). During the stay of the Spanish national team, local regional media wrote about Euro 2012 in Gniewino almost on a daily basis. 140 articles appeared on websites dedicated to sports news. Gniewino featured regularly in reports broadcast by nationwide TV stations, such as TVP, TVN, TVN24, Polsat, Polsat Sport, and TVP Info. Apart from the national media, Gniewino was visited by a very large number of journalists from other countries including Sweden, France, Spain and China (over 100 accreditations, the highest number in the history of Gniewino). Thanks to regular reports, Gniewino enjoyed free publicity, which it could later benefit from. On the basis of media valuation, it was estimated that in order to achieve the same media coverage without such an event, the municipality would have had to spend about PLN 8 million on ads in all public media. One of the most frequently analysed effects of organizing international sports events is the short-term increase in demand caused by the influx of tourists, athletes, and guests participating in the event (Ribeiro et al., 2014; Rütter et al., 2004). For small, largely rural communities, long-term effects of such events are much more important. In the case of Gniewino, it is the fact that since the tournament the hotel complex has been visited by football fans, who had a chance to see the Sports and Conference Centre from outside and were motivated enough to return to Gniewino as hotel guests. During the stay of the

Spanish national team in the hotel, its supporters were not allowed inside, so visitors were naturally curious the pitches and other facilities. Fans were also eager to watch open training sessions organized by the Spanish national team during the tournament. More than 8 thousand tickets were distributed to fans from all over Poland for eight training sessions held at that time. Open training sessions were very popular, which is evidenced by the fact that over 6000 fans had to be turned away because no more places were available. Guests eagerly visited other attractions of the commune, including the Kaszubskie Oko Complex with a watchtower in Gniewino, as well as the Nadol marina, where small tourist information centres were set up, with materials printed in Spanish, English and German. The staff of those centres provided information not only about the commune but also about the entire region of Northern Kashubia. Another benefit of the tournament is all the experience and knowledge gained throughout that time. All employees involved in the UEFA Euro 2012 Project in Gniewino from the very beginning remained in the centre after its completion and some of them currently work in the Gniewino Sports and Conference Centre.

The positive impact of Euro 2012 on the development of the Sports and Conference Centre in Gniewino is confirmed by the growing number of sports teams that have stayed at the Centre since 2012. There are still images of famous football players on the doors of rooms in which they stayed, and individual guests still ask for Iker Casillas' or Andres Iniesta's room. In 2012, the management of the Mistral Sport Hotel decided to designate the most important target groups for the centre, with sports teams being the key clients. This strategy has been validated by the growth recorded in the following years: while in 2013, the centre was visited by only 30 teams, in 2019 it already hosted 61 teams (see Fig. 2). The positive reception of the Gniewino brand and the growing trust on the part of the most demanding athletes is a kind of capital built up by the center for the coming years.

Fig. 2. The number of sports groups staying at the Gniewino Sports and Conference Centre between 2013 and 2019



Source: own study.

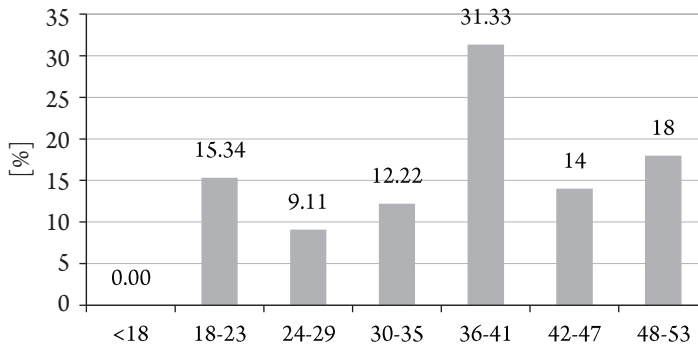
5.2. Residents' opinions about the impact of Euro 2012 on the quality of life in the commune

The analysis of the impact of Euro 2012 on the quality of life of residents of Gniewino is based on respondents' answers to 9 questions asked in the survey. 69% of the 450 respondents were men, 31% were aged between 36-41 years (see Fig. 3), and over 62% had higher education (see Fig. 4).

In the first survey question the respondents were asked if they considered Gniewino an attractive place to live and over 80% answered positively (see Fig. 5).

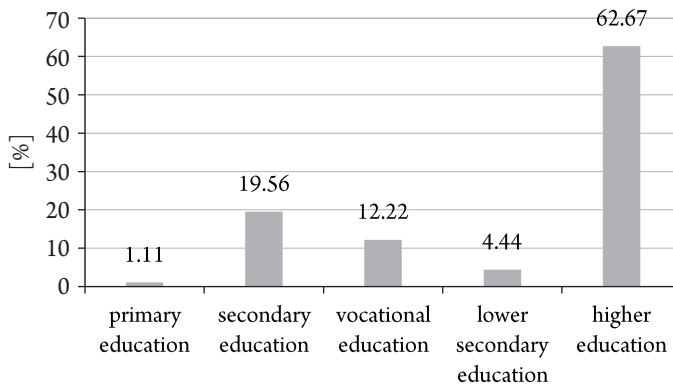
In the following question, they were asked to compare their current place of residence with other communes. 75% of respondents (315 people) considered

Fig. 3. Respondents by age ($N = 450$)



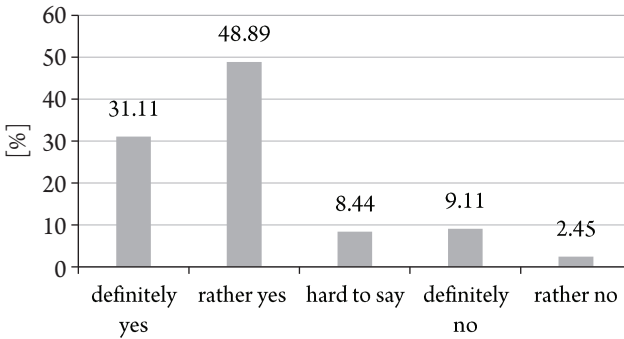
Source: own study.

Fig. 4. Respondents by level of education ($N = 450$)



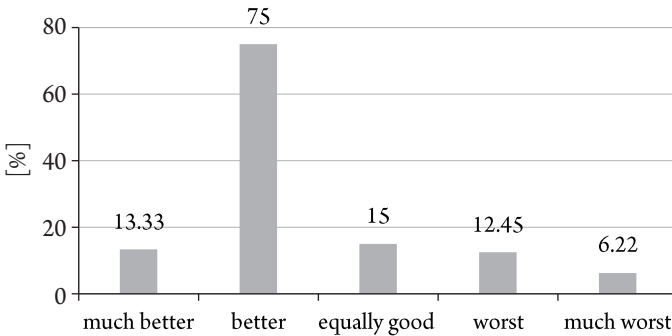
Source: own study.

Fig. 5. Respondents' answers to the question "Do you consider Gniewino an attractive place to live?" (N = 450)



Source: own study.

Fig. 6. Respondents' answer to the question "How do you evaluate the level of development of the Gniewino commune in comparison with the neighbouring communes?" (N = 450)



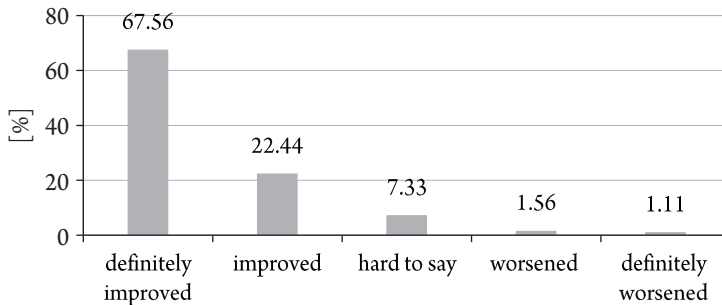
Source: own study.

the development of their commune to be better than that of the neighbouring ones (see Fig. 6).

Asked about changes in the living conditions in Gniewino since the start of preparations for the Euro tournament, 90% of respondents said they had improved (Fig. 7).

In the last three questions respondents were asked to evaluate the impact of Euro 2012 on their quality of life (Table 1). Answers could be provided using a five-point Likert scale (1 – definitely positive, 2 – rather positive, 3 – hard to say, 4 – rather negative, 5 – definitely negative).

Fig. 7. Respondents' answers to the question "How have the living conditions in Gniewino changed since it joined the Euro 2012 programme in 2007?"



Source: own study.

Table 1. Respondents' assessment of the impact of Euro 2012 on the quality of life in Gniewino ($N = 450$)

Question	Scoring				
	1	2	3	4	5
How do you evaluate the impact of Euro 2012 on the development of sports infrastructure in Gniewino?	312 (69%)	67 (15%)	21 (5%)	17 (4%)	33 (7%)
How do you evaluate the influence of Euro 2012 on the economic development of the commune?	251 (56%)	101 (22%)	55 (12%)	31 (7%)	12 (3%)
How do you evaluate the impact of Euro 2012 on the quality of life in Gniewino?	376 (83%)	54 (12%)	12 (3%)	4 (1%)	4 (1%)

Source: own study.

The results of the survey clearly indicate that inhabitants of Gniewino appreciated the changes associated with the Euro tournament and their positive effect on their quality of life, which confirms the hypothesis formulated at the beginning of the study.

6. Discussion

When Michel Platini announced that Poland and Ukraine would host the European Football Championship in 2007, nobody could have guessed what immense consequences that news would have for a small commune, 60 km away from Gdańsk. The commune's involvement in the preparations for the tournament led to the establishment and brand recognition of the Sports and Conference Center in Gniewino and initiated the construction of a modern four-star

hotel in the heart of Gniewino. Thanks to the hotel's clever marketing strategy, which capitalized on the stay of the Spanish national team and the organizational success, the number of teams staying at Gniewino has increased in the following years. The facility benefited from extensive media coverage during the tournament, and as a consequence, guests from all over Poland visit the hotel as a tourist attraction. 2% of the total investment outlays, which were used to prepare Accommodation Centres, turned out to be sufficient for professional athletes, youth academies and amateur athletes from all over the world to learn about the commune of Gniewino thanks to its modern training centre. The Sports and Conference Centre is a showcase of Gniewino and has brought the commune national and international publicity. The investments undertaken as part of the preparations provided residents with additional jobs and boosted the quality of life.

Earlier studies on the impact of large sports events conducted in other countries, such as South Korea and Japan, hosts of the FIFA World Cup in 2002 and Germany, hosts of the same event in 2006, identified a number of mostly positive impacts for residents of host cities (Kim, Gursoy, & Lee, 2006; Kersting, 2007). However, until recently, such studies have mainly focused on measuring economic effects, paying little attention to perceptions and attitudes of residents regarding socio-cultural impacts (Fredline & Faulkner, 2000).

So far no studies have been published on how the fact of being involved in the organization of a large sports event affects the quality of life of residents. It is also not possible to draw comparisons with other residence centres in Poland, because only one of them – the Remes Hotel in Opalenica was specially prepared for Euro 2012. Others, such as Dwór Oliwski Hotel in Gdańsk, used the pitch ground near the hotel for another investment.

7. Conclusions

It can be concluded that Gniewino's involvement in the organization of Euro 2012 has had a positive impact on the quality of life of its residents.

One limitation of the study is the low response rate (below 50%), which resulted in a realized sample size of just 8% of the adult population of Gniewino. Another possible problem was the predominance of male respondents and those with higher education. Finally, in the absence of respondents' opinions about the living conditions in the commune before the Euro, the reliability of the results could not be validated.

The activities carried out by the authorities of the Gniewino commune in connection with Euro 2012 have been appreciated by its inhabitants as contributing to raising the commune's prestige of on the national and international level.

The results of the survey clearly indicate that Gniewino's involvement in the Euro 2012 project was the right decision and has helped to improve the quality of life for its inhabitants.

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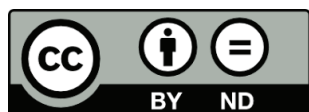
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Wpływ Euro 2012 na rozwój gmin goszczących reprezentacje narodowe – studium przypadku Gniewina

Streszczenie. Mistrzostwa Europy w Piłce Nożnej, które odbyły się w 2012 r. w Polsce, przyniosły wiele korzyści, w tym rozwój infrastruktury rekreacyjnej i bazy hotelowej w całym kraju. Mistrzostwa zmieniły sposób postrzegania Polski i Polaków przez Europejczyków, a także przyczyniły się do podniesienia poziomu życia mieszkańców wielu polskich miast. Celem artykułu jest ocena wpływu Euro 2012 na rozwój Centrum Sportowo-Konferencyjnego w Gniewinie i na jakość życia jego mieszkańców. Badanie opiera się na analizie literatury i dokumentów źródłowych i opiniach zebranych od 450 respondentów, którzy w grudniu 2012 r. odpowiedzieli na ankietę składającą się z 9 pytań zamkniętych. Z ustaleń wynika, że Centrum Sportowo-Konferencyjne w Gniewinie jest obecnie jednym z wiodących ośrodków treningowych dla najważniejszych klubów piłkarskich z całego świata. Podsumowując, można stwierdzić, że organizacja mistrzostw Europy pozytywnie wpłynęła na jakość życia mieszkańców Gniewina.

Słowa kluczowe: sport, gościnność, infrastruktura sportowa, turystyka, piłka nożna, wpływ Euro 2012, jakość życia, satysfakcja mieszkańców



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1. Files with the main part of the manuscript (without authors' data, format *.doc):

- title of the article in English and Polish
- concise and factual abstract in English and Polish, from 150 to 300 words, prepared according to structure:
 - purpose
 - methods
 - results
 - conclusions
- keywords in English and Polish (up to 8 words)
- JEL codes: code 1; code 2; code 3 (maximal 3 codes, according to the website of American Economic Association: <https://www.aeaweb.org/econlit/jelCodes.php>)
- introduction
- body text – organized into chapters/sections, each with a unique title
- conclusion (findings, recommendations)
- bibliography – complete list of referenced sources

2. Files with the title page including authors' data (format *.doc):

- author's first and last name
- academic degree/title
- organization/institution (if applicable)
- ORCID number
- e-mail address
- mailing address

3. Tables

- numbered consecutively and consistently using Arabic numerals
- include a caption and a reference to the data source (e.g. *own research*)
- tables should be referenced in the text by their number rather than expressions such as "above" or "below" (e.g. *cf. Table 1*, not: *see table above/below*)
- do not include blank cells
- any abbreviations used must be expanded below the table

4. Figures, photos and graphics

- editable (formats: *.jpg, *.tif or *.xls)
- photographs – supply source files (preferably *.tif); minimum resolution: 300 dpi
- all figures should be numbered consecutively using Arabic numerals
 - for any artwork that has already been published elsewhere, indicate the original source (or otherwise state Source: *own research*)
 - apply no lettering in white against black background, whether in bold or italics, and no black fills or excess frames
 - if the figure is referenced in the text, use its number rather than expressions such as "above" or "below" (e.g. *cf. Fig. 1*, not: *see figure above/below*)
 - provide explanations of any abbreviations used

III. Body text

- margins: 2.5 cm each
- continuous throughout the text, using Arabic numerals, placed at the bottom of page (footer)
- typeface: Times New Roman, 12 pts
- line spacing: 1.5 line
- highlights or emphasis: apply **bold** print
- foreign (non-vernacular) words and expressions: *italicized*
- people's names: give full name (including all given names and last name) at first mention; for any further references – quote last name only
- abbreviations and acronyms: when first used, give the complete phrase (name), including its abbreviation in brackets; onwards – use abbreviation only

IV. In-text citations – APA style (see: APA reference guide, <https://www.scribbr.com/apa-style/apa-seventh-edition-changes/>)

- are placed within the text and include the author's surname and year of publication:

Jafari (2003) or: (Jafari, 2010)

- Direct quotes should also contain the page number:

Jafari (2003, p. 24) or: (Jafari, 2003, p. 24)

- **In the case of two and three authors**, all surnames should be listed with either „and” or „&” placed before the last one:

Smith and White (2018)... or: (Smith & White, 2018)

Beggs, Ross and Goodwin (2008)... or: (Beggs, Ross, & Goodwin, 2008)

- **In the case of more than three authors** – only the first author's surname should be given, followed by „et al.”:

Jafari et al. (2018)... or: (Jafari et al., 2018)

- **If the author/editor is unknown**, the first few words of the reference should be used:

– **if this is the title of a book, periodical or report**, it should be italicised:

(*Guide to citation*, 2020)

– **if this is the title of an article, chapter or a website**, it should be placed in quotation marks:

(“APA Citation”, 2020)

- Citing multiple works:

– **by the same author**:

Jafari (2015, 2017, 2020) or (Jafari, 2015, 2017, 2020)

– **by two or more authors**, they should be listed alphabetically by the first author:

(Jafari & Black, 2010; White, Green, & Brown 2020)

– **if the author published multiple works in one year**, each work should be cited with consecutive letters of the alphabet following the year, e.g.:

(Jafari, 2014a, 2014b)

- **Other references containing any additional comments or explanations, references to legislation**, court rulings and decisions, as well as links to websites that are provided outside the main body of the text must be numbered consecutively and placed at the bottom of the page (as footnotes) using 10 pts font with single line spacing

- **Citing secondary sources** (only in exceptional cases):

Jafari (2010) as cited in Black (2016) or (Jafari, 2010, as cited in Black 2016)

V. Reference list

A reference list should be ordered alphabetically by first author's / editor's surname or by title, in the case of works whose author/editor is unknown, and in the case of authors with multiple works, they should be listed chronologically by year of publication.

- **Referencing a journal article**

The basic format is: Author surname, Initial(s), (Year), Article title (not italicised), Journal title (italicised), Volume (italicised) (issue or part number), page numbers, DOI:

Oppermann, M. J. (2000). Tourism Destination Loyalty. *Journal of Travel Research*, 39(1), 78-84. <https://doi.org/10.1177%2F004728750003900110>

- **Referencing a book**

The basic format is: Author/Editor surname, Initial(s), (copyright year), Book title (italicised), edition number (in brackets). Publisher. DOI or URL:

Kotler, P., Bowen, J. T., Makens, J., & Baloglu, S. (2017). *Marketing for Hospitality and Tourism* (7th ed.). Pearson Education. <https://doi.org/10.1177%2F0047287507303976>

- **Chapter in an edited book**

The basic format is: Surname of the chapter's author, initial(s), Copyright year, Chapter title (not italicised), In, Editor initial(s), Surname + (Ed.) or Editor initial(s), surnames (separated by "&") + (Eds.), Edited book title (italicised), edition number and page range (in brackets). Publisher. DOI or URL:

Scott, N. R., & Le, D. A. (2017). Tourism Experience: A Review. In N. R. Scott & J. Gao (Eds.), *Visitor Experience Design* (2nd ed., pp. 30-52). CABI. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10645578.2016.1144023>

- **Referencing an e-book**

Mitchell, J.A., Thomson, M., & Coyne, R.P. (2017). *A guide to citation*. <https://www.mendeley.com/reference-management/reference-manager>

- **Referencing a chapter in an e-book**

Troy, B.N. (2015). APA citation rules. In S.T, Williams (Ed.). *A guide to citation rules* (2nd ed., pp. 50-95). <https://www.mendeley.com/reference-management/reference-manager>

- **Referencing an entire website**

Use the following format: author surname, initial(s). (year, month day). Title (italicised). Retrieved from URL:

Walker, A. (2019, November 14). *Germany avoids recession but growth remains weak*. BBC News. <https://www.bbc.com/news/business-50419127>

- **Referencing a single web page**

Mitchell, J.A., Thomson, M., & Coyne, R.P. (2017, January 25) APA citation. *How and when to reference*. <https://www.howandwhentoreference.com/APAcitation>

Wymogi edytorskie

I. Objętość manuskryptu – do 1 arkusza wydawniczego wraz z rysunkami i tabelami (40 tys. znaków ze spacjami, tj. ok. 20 stron). Rozmiar jednego załącznika nie może być większy niż 20 MB.

II. Wymagane pliki

1. Część główna manuskryptu – bez danych identyfikujących autorów (w formacie Word):

- tytuł artykułu po angielsku i polsku
- zwięzłe i rzeczowe streszczenie po angielsku i polsku, od 150 do 300 słów, przygotowane zgodnie ze strukturą:
 - cel
 - metody
 - wyniki
 - wnioski
- słowa kluczowe po angielsku i polsku (do 8 słów)
- kody JEL – kod 1; kod 2; kod 3 (maksymalnie 3 kody, według strony American Economic Association <https://www.aeaweb.org/econlit/jelCodes.php>)
- wstęp
- tekst główny podzielony na rozdziały opatrzone tytułami
- zakończenie (wnioski)
- bibliografia

2. Strona tytułowa manuskryptu, dane autorów (w formacie Word)

- imię i nazwisko autora
- stopień/tytuł naukowy
- afiliacja
- numer ORCID
- e-mail
- adres korespondencyjny

3. Tabele (w formacie Word)

- ponumerowane, opatrzone tytułem oraz źródłem (np. opracowanie własne)
- z odwołaniem w tekście (np. *zob. tab. 1*, a nie: *zob. tabela poniżej/powyżej*)
- każda rubryka wypełniona treścią
- skróty użyte w tabeli – objaśnione pod nią

4. Ryciny, zdjęcia, wykresy itp. (*.jpg, *.tif lub *.xls)

- edytowalne, rozdzielczość zdjęć min. 300 dpi
- opatrzone numerem oraz źródłem (np. *opracowanie własne*)
- pozbawione napisów: półgrubych, wersalikami, białych na czarnym tle, czarnych wypełnień, dodatkowych ramek
- z odwołaniem w tekście (np. *zob. rys. 1*, a nie: *zob. rysunek poniżej/powyżej*)
- z objaśnieniem użytych skrótów

III. Tekst główny

- marginesy: 2,5 cm z każdej strony
- numeracja stron – ciągła, u dołu strony
- czcionka Times New Roman z polskimi znakami, 12 pkt
- odstęp między wierszami – 1,5 wiersza
- wyróżnienia – pismem półgrubym
- słowa obcojęzyczne – kursywą
- nazwiska użyte po raz pierwszy – pełne imię i nazwisko, kolejne przywołanie – samo nazwisko
- skróty – za pierwszym razem pełny termin, a skrót w nawiasie; dalej – tylko skrót

IV. Przypisy bibliograficzne – według stylu APA 7 (zob. reference guide APA, <https://www.scribbr.com/apa-style/apa-seventh-edition-changes/>)

- Umieszczone w tekście, zawierają nazwisko autora i rok publikacji:

Jafari (2003) lub: (Jafari, 2010)

- Cytowanie dokładne tekstów wziętych w cudzysłów:
Jafari (2003, p. 24) lub: (Jafari, 2003, p. 24)

• **Cytowanie dwóch i trzech autorów** – podajemy nazwiska wszystkich autorów, a przed ostatnim wstawiamy „and” lub „&”:

Smith and White (2018)... lub: (Smith & White, 2018)

Beggs, Ross and Goodwin (2008)... lub: (Beggs, Ross, & Goodwin, 2008)

• **Cytowanie więcej niż trzech autorów:**

– podajemy nazwisko pierwszego autora i „et al.”:

Jafari et al. (2018)... lub: (Jafari et al., 2018)

• **Brak nazwiska autora/redaktora** – podajemy kilka pierwszych słów tytułu pracy:
– jeżeli jest to **tytuł książki, periodyku lub raportu** – kursywą:

(*Guide to citation*, 2020)

– jeżeli jest to **tytuł artykułu, rozdział lub strona internetowa** – w cudzysłowie:

(“APA Citation”, 2020)

• **Cytowanie więcej niż jednej publikacji:**

– **jednego autora:**

Jafari (2015, 2017, 2020) lub (Jafari, 2015, 2017, 2020)

– **dwóch i więcej autorów** – należy je wymienić w kolejności alfabetycznej:

(Jafari & Black, 2010; White, Green, & Brown 2020)

– **jeśli autor wydał w danym roku więcej niż jedną publikację**, to po dacie należy dodać kolejne litery alfabetu, np. (Jafari, 2014a, 2014b)

• **Przypisy objaśniające, polemiczne, uzupełniające tekst główny** – numerowane kolejno i umieszczone u dołu strony, czcionka 10 pkt, interlinia pojedyncza.

• **Cytowanie źródeł za innym autorem** (jedynie w szczególnych przypadkach):

Jafari (2010) as cited in Black (2016) lub (Jafari, 2010, as cited in Black 2016)

V. Bibliografia

Uporządkowana alfabetycznie według nazwisk autorów/redaktorów i tytułów prac niemających autora/redaktora, a jeśli jest więcej prac jednego autora, to należy je zestawzić chronologicznie wg dat wydania.

• **Artykuł w czasopiśmie**

Zawiera: nazwisko autora, inicjały imienia, rok, tytuł artykułu (prosto), tytuł czasopisma (kursywą), tom (kursywą) i nr czasopisma, zakres stron, DOI:

Oppermann, M. J. (2000). Tourism Destination Loyalty. *Journal of Travel Research*, 39(1), 78-84. <https://doi.org/10.1177/2F004728750003900110>

• **Pozycja książkowa**

Zawiera: nazwisko autora/redaktora, inicjał imienia, rok praw autorskich, tytuł książki (kursywą), numer wydania (w nawiasie), wydawnictwo, DOI lub URL:

Kotler, P., Bowen, J. T., Makens, J., & Baloglu, S. (2017). *Marketing for Hospitality and Tourism* (7th ed.). Pearson Education. <https://doi.org/10.1177%2F0047287507303976>

• **Rozdział pracy zbiorowej**

Zawiera: nazwisko autora rozdziału, inicjał imienia, rok praw autorskich, tytuł rozdziału (prosto), In, inicjał imienia, nazwisko redaktora + (Eds.), tytuł pracy zbiorowej (kursywą), miejsce wydania, numer wydania i zakres stron (w nawiasie), wydawnictwo, DOI lub URL:

Scott, N. R., & Le, D. A. (2017). Tourism Experience: A Review. In N. R. Scott & J. Gao (Eds.), *Visitor Experience Design* (2nd ed., pp. 30-52). CABI. Warszawa 102-123. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10645578.2016.1144023>

- **E-Book**

Mitchell, J.A., Thomson, M., & Coyne, R.P. (2017). *A guide to citation*. <https://www.mendeley.com/reference-management/reference-manager>

- **Rozdział z E-Booka**

Troy, B.N. (2015). APA citation rules. In S.T. Williams (Ed.). *A guide to citation rules* (2nd ed., pp. 50-95). <https://www.mendeley.com/reference-management/reference-manager>

- **Cały portal internetowy**

Zawiera: nazwisko, inicjał autora. (rok, miesiąc, dzień). Tytuł.

Tytuł portalu internetowego. URL:

Walker, A. (2019, November 14). *Germany avoids recession but growth remains weak*. BBC News. <https://www.bbc.com/news/business-50419127>

- **Pojedyncza strona internetowa**

Mitchell, J.A., Thomson, M., & Coyne, R.P. (2017, January 25). APA citation. *How and when to reference*. <https://www.howandwhentoreference.com/APAcitation>