

Źródła finansowania „Studia Periegetica” 2(30)/2020



Ministerstwo Nauki
i Szkolnictwa Wyższego



WYŻSZA SZKOŁA BANKOWA
w Poznaniu

Projekt współfinansowany ze środków Ministerstwa Nauki i Szkolnictwa Wyższego stanowiących pomoc *de minimis*, przyznaną w ramach programu „Wsparcie dla czasopism naukowych” na lata 2019-2020 na podstawie umowy nr 475/WCN/2019/1 z dnia 31.07.2019 r. oraz ze środków Wyższej Szkoły Bankowej w Poznaniu

The project is co-financed from the funds of the Ministry of Science and Higher Education constituting *de minimis* aid, granted under the “Support for scientific journals” program for the years 2019-2020 under agreement no. 475/WCN/2019/1 dated 31.07.2019 and from the funds of the WSB University in Poznań

Studia Periegetica

2(30)/2020

volume editor
Marek Nowacki



The WSB University in Poznań Press
Poznań 2020

Redaktor naczelny czasopisma / Editor-in-chief
Marek Nowacki (WSB University in Poznań, Poland)

Kolegium redakcyjne / Associate Editors
Arnold Bernaciak (WSB University in Poznań, Poland)
Agata Basińska-Zych (WSB University in Poznań, Poland) – sekretarz redakcji / Editorial Secretary

Rada naukowa / International Editorial Advisory Board
Alexander Adamovsky (Ukrainian National Forestry University, Lviv, Ukraine)
Ryszard Asienkiewicz (University of Zielona Góra, Poland)
Thomas Fletcher (Leeds Beckett University, United Kingdom)
Wanda M. Gaczek (Poznan University of Economics and Business, Poland)
Brian King (The Hong Kong Polytechnic University, China)
Zygmunt Kruczek (University of Physical Education in Krakow, Poland)
Anne-Marie Lebrun (University of Burgundy, France)
Lina Pilelienė (Vytautas Magnus University, Lithuania)
Tatjana Põlajeva (Tallinn University of Technology, Estonia)
Miroslava Pridalova (Palacky University, Olomouc, Czech Republic)
Lars Ryden (Uppsala University, Sweden)
Ewa Szczepanowska (University of Szczecin, Poland)

Czasopismo znajduje się na liście punktowanych czasopism naukowych Ministerstwa Nauki i Szkolnictwa Wyższego (wykaz z dn. 31 lipca 2019 r. poz. 28175 – 20 punktów).
Czasopismo indeksowane w bazach: Index Copernicus, BazEkon, PBN, POL-Index, BILGINDEX, Google Scholar, DOAJ, ERIH Plus.
Czasopismo recenzowane według standardów Ministerstwa Nauki i Szkolnictwa Wyższego.
Lista recenzentów na stronie [www.studia-periegetica.com](http://studia-periegetica.com) oraz w ostatnim numerze czasopisma z danego roku.

The journal included in the list of ranked scientific journals published by the Ministry of Science and Higher Education (dated 31 July 2019, item 28175 – 20 points).
The journal indexed in: Index Copernicus, BazEkon, PBN, POL-Index databases, BILGINDEX, Google Scholar, DOAJ, ERIH Plus.
The journal reviewed in compliance with the standards set forth by the Ministry of Science and Higher Education.
A list of referees is available at studia-periegetica.com and published in the last issue of the journal each year.

Procedura recenzowania / Review procedure
<https://studia-periegetica.com/resources/html/cms/FORAUTHORS>

Redaktor naukowy (tematyczny) numeru / The volume's managing editor
Marek Nowacki (WSB University in Poznań, Poland)

Weryfikacja tekstów w języku angielskim / English texts revised by
Grzegorz Grygiel

Redaktor prowadzący / Text editor
Elżbieta Turzyńska

Redakcja, skład i łamanie / Copyedited and typeset by
Elżbieta Turzyńska

Projekt okładki / Cover design by
Martyna Dawidziak

Projekt współfinansowany ze środków Ministerstwa Nauki i Szkolnictwa Wyższego stanowiących pomoc *de minimis*, przyznaną w ramach programu „Wsparcie dla czasopism naukowych” na lata 2019-2020 na podstawie umowy nr 475/WCN/2019/1 z dnia 31.07.2019 r. oraz ze środków Wyższej Szkoły Bankowej w Poznaniu

The project is co-financed from the funds of the Ministry of Science and Higher Education constituting *de minimis* aid, granted under the “Support for scientific journals” program for the years 2019-2020 under agreement no. 475/WCN/2019/1 dated 31.07.2019. and from the funds of the WSB University in Poznań

Wersja pierwotna – publikacja elektroniczna / Source version – electronic publication

© Copyright by Wyższa Szkoła Bankowa w Poznaniu, 2020

ISSN 2658-1736

Wydawnictwo Wyższej Szkoły Bankowej w Poznaniu
ul. Powstańców Wielkopolskich 5, 61-895 Poznań, tel. 61 655 33 99, 61 655 32 48
e-mail: wydawnictwo@wsb.poznan.pl, dzialhandlowy@wsb.poznan.pl, www.wydawnictwo.wsb.poznan.pl

Contents

Piotr Zmyślony, Marta Pilarczyk

Identification of overtourism in Poznań through the analysis of social conflicts 9

Alina Zajadacz, Anna Lubarska

Sensory gardens as places for outdoor recreation adapted to the needs of people with visual impairments 25

Agnieszka Niezgoda, Izabela Wyszowska

The significance of the Renaissance in Poland according to tourists' opinions on TripAdvisor concerning three major Renaissance landmarks 45

Daniel Borodeńko, Olga Ilona Smoleńska

Identification of benefits and challenges associated with the work of a hotel animator ... 61

Bartłomiej Walas, Zygmunt Kruczek

The impact of COVID-19 on tourism in Kraków in the eyes of tourism entrepreneurs ... 79

Małgorzata Kurleto

The impact of climate change on tourism in Australia – a case study relating to bushfires in Australia in 2019/2020..... 97

Aleksandra Łapko, Roma Strulak-Wójcikiewicz, Aleksander Panasiuk

Air quality as a factor affecting urban tourism 109

Józef Perenc

Factors determining the improvement of hotel service quality as seen by customers of Sheraton Hotel in Warsaw..... 125

Editorial requirements..... 137

Spis treści

Piotr Zmyślony, Marta Pilarczyk

Identyfikacja zjawiska *overtourism* w Poznaniu poprzez analizę konfliktów społecznych .. 9

Alina Zajadacz, Anna Lubarska

Ogrody sensoryczne jako przestrzeń rekreacyjna dostosowana do potrzeb osób z niepełnosprawnością wzrokową 25

Agnieszka Niezgoda, Izabela Wyszowska

Znaczenie renesansu w Polsce w opinii turystów na portalu TripAdvisor na przykładzie Krakowa, Poznania i Zamościa 45

Daniel Borodeńko, Olga Ilona Smoleńska

Identyfikacja korzyści i wyzwań związanych z pracą animatora czasu wolnego w hotelu .. 61

Bartłomiej Walas, Zygmunt Kruczek

Wpływ pandemii Covid-19 na turystykę w Krakowie w świetle opinii przedsiębiorców turystycznych 79

Małgorzata Kurleto

Wpływ zmian klimatu na turystykę w Australii – studium przypadku w związku z pożarami w Australii na przełomie 2019/2020 97

Aleksandra Łapko, Roma Strulak-Wójcikiewicz, Aleksander Panasiuk

Jakość powietrza jako czynnik wpływający na turystykę miejską 109

Józef Perenc

Czynniki determinujące poprawę obsługi hotelowej w opinii gości hotelu Sheraton w Warszawie 125

Wymogi edytorskie 139

PIOTR ZMYŚLONY*, MARTA PILARCZYK**

Identification of overtourism in Poznań through the analysis of social conflicts

Abstract. The purpose of the article is twofold: to diagnose tourism-related conflicts occurring in Poznań by identifying their intensity and key parties, and to determine the capacity of the key stakeholders in the city's tourism system to mitigate these disputes. Because of its complex nature, overtourism in cities is a dangerous phenomenon, which is very hard to measure. Like other social conflicts, the intensity and development of overtourism can be measured by analysing tourism-related conflicts in the urban space, using tools offered by conflict management theories, especially Christopher Moore's Circle of Conflict model. Conflict issues identified by the author are associated with the uncontrolled consumption of the city's overall offering, which is manifested by the behaviour of city inhabitants, visitors from the metropolitan area, and tourists. The article contributes to the literature on overtourism by proposing an alternative method of identifying the scope and intensity of overtourism in the absence of objective measures and data. The author also proposes a method of evaluating key stakeholders' capacity for conflict management in Poznań.

Keywords: overtourism, social conflict, conflict analysis, circle of conflict, urban tourism, Poznań, Poland

JEL Codes: R58, Z32, Z38

* University of Economics and Business (Poland), Institute of International Business and Economics, Department of International Economics, Email: piotr.zmyslony@ue.poznan.pl, orcid.org/0000-0002-1168-0254.

** Landbrand Place Marketing Agency (Poland), Email: mpilarczyk@landbrand.pl, orcid.org/0000-0003-1749-285X.

1. Introduction

Overtourism is a phenomenon affecting a growing number of top destinations; in the narrow sense, mostly with urban characteristics [Amore, Falk, Adie 2020; Dodds, Butler 2019a; Koens, Postma, Papp 2018; Zemła 2020]. Because of its complex nature, dynamic development and barely controllable effects, overtourism poses a dangerous challenge for those involved in destination management. The problem is also recognised in cities with a moderate intensity of tourist traffic, which have not yet experienced excessive tourist pressure but are interested in ways of assessing the potential threat or the real scope of overtourism. Poznań, an emerging urban destination in the European tourism market, catering to those interested in cultural tourism and to business travellers [Bródka, Zmyślony 2012], is one such destination.

A number of universal and feasible methods of dealing with overtourism have been proposed that involve various techniques of preventing or mitigating the problem [McKinsey, WTTC 2017; Peeters et al. 2018; World Tourism Organization 2018]. Nonetheless, since so much in this phenomenon depends on the local context, it is difficult to precisely identify its constituent elements and processes [Dodds, Butler 2019a; Koens, Postma, Papp 2018]. However, given that social impacts of overtourism have been discussed in the literature [Martín, Guaita Martínez, Salinas Fernández 2018; Milano, Novelli, Cheer 2019a; Novy 2019], with emphasis on tensions and conflicts related to the development of tourism, there is an alternative way of diagnosing the phenomenon. Many researchers dealing with the problem argue that protests and social conflicts are an integral constituent of overtourism [Dodds, Butler 2019b; Novy, Colomb 2019; Postma, Schmuecker 2017; Zmyślony, Kowalczyk-Anioł, Dembińska 2020]. Moreover, overtourism-related disputes expose problems within the local tourism system and shortcomings of urban tourism policies. They should be seen as warning signs signalling the need for corrections [Kowalczyk-Anioł, Włodarczyk 2017; Romero-Padilla et al. 2019].

Therefore, the aim of this article is twofold. First, it presents an attempt to recognise tourism-related conflicts occurring in Poznań, determine their intensity and identify key parties. Second, it provides an assessment of the capacity of key stakeholders in the city's tourism system to mitigate these conflicts. These objectives are phrased in the form of two research questions: (1) what conflicts related to the development of tourism have appeared in Poznań and what is their current stage; and (2) what is the capacity of the city's key actors to mitigate or resolve these conflicts. Christopher Moore's [2014] circle of conflict model provides the conceptual framework for the study because it is universal enough for analysing complex conflicts. According to Moore, such conflicts are usually caused by many

coinciding factors, only a few of which are actually related to the main problem. They must be identified before any appropriate methods and tools of intervention can be selected. The approach recognizes perspectives that conflict parties should become aware of in order to understand the issues and objectives of the conflict.

2. Literature review

According to Ko Koens, Albert Postma and Bernadett Papp [2018], overtourism is “an accumulation of different impacts and perceptions that relate both to tourist behaviour as well as actions by, and encounters with stakeholders as well as changes to the social, economic and physical environment” (p. 5). Overtourism leads “to overcrowding in areas where residents suffer the consequences of temporary and seasonal tourism peaks, which have enforced permanent changes to their lifestyles, access to amenities and general well-being” [Milano, Cheer, Novelli 2018]. Thus, it is the quality of the residents’ life which is at stake in the overtourism struggle [Dodds, Butler 2019b; Postma, Schmuecker 2017]. As overtourism is a negative manifestation of the recent development of tourism in destinations, already existing conflicts and deficiencies could be the cause of this unsustainable form of development. Thus, urban tourism can be perceived as a conflict trigger or one of its context dimensions, given that frequent protests against tourism have deeper roots in broader urban change and social issues, i.e. “city rights, cost of living, housing affordability, the exclusion of precarious groups, and corporate developments damaging the fabric of local communities” [Milano, Cheer, Novelli 2019a; Novy 2019; Novy, Colomb 2019; Oklevik et al. 2019]. The residents’ attitude often refers to objections or refusal to the further growth of tourism, manifested through social movements’ activity [Blanco-Romero, Blázquez-Salom, Cànoves 2018; Martín, Guaita Martínez, Salinas Fernández 2018; Milano Cheer, Novelli 2019b].

Some researchers argue that overtourism is limited to few world-famous destinations and urban centres [Dodds, Butler 2019a; Koens, Postma, Papp 2018]. However, there is more evidence indicating that the phenomenon also affects less popular destinations, with less recognizable tourist brands, and its scope and intensity are always determined by the local context. Indeed, there are studies whose authors propose universal indicators of overtourism and techniques for limiting or preventing its development, ranging from the supranational to local level, some of which concern Polish cities [Amore, Falk, Adie 2020; Eckert et al. 2019; Fedyk et al. 2020; Koens, Postma 2018; McKinsey, WTTC 2017; Peeters et al. 2018; Pilarczyk 2019; Song, Kim, Park 2020; Szromek, Kruczek, Walas

2020; World Tourism Organization 2018; Zmysłony, Kowalczyk-Anioł 2019]. Proposed measures include residents' perceptions of encounters with visitors and their attitudes towards tourism development, changes in the cost of living and the local quality of life, number of visitors, the visitors' willingness to pay, seasonality of arrivals, nuisance behaviours of visitors, social media opinions and comments, transport intensity, increase in congestion, number and spatial distribution of tourist accommodation and short-term rentals, historic site prevalence, contribution of tourism to GDP, degradation of historical sites and environment. However, these measures refer to causes, development and effects of overtourism. Moreover, they require various and diffused data sources and primary research. Owing to financial and temporal constraints and limited sources available to destination managers, this approach is unfeasible in many cities. Besides, tourism destination researchers have not settled on one universal set of indicators.

Considering the above, given that social conflicts are both the most acute manifestation and the result of overtourism, the intensity of this phenomenon could be alternatively be measured using a tool developed in conflict management theories. As Gary T. Furlong [2010] notes, "managing conflict effectively is a simple two-step process that starts with how we assess the conflict we are facing, followed by what action (or inaction) we decide to take to address it". The circle of conflict, proposed by Moore [2014], is usually used to identify the structure of complex and multilevel disputes. The approach helps to recognise attitudes of conflict parties, relationships between them, shared and opposing values and the extent to which they can access and interpret information, while emphasising that revealed interests and structural conditions of conflicts are more important than the recognition of their actual merits. Also, the approach is also used to choose the entity with the highest capacity for managing the conflict and mitigating its causes.

3. Study Area and Method

Poznań is one of five major cities in Poland, with a population of over half a million living in the urban core and over 1 million in the metropolitan area [Statistics Poland 2020]. In 2018, 1.4 million overnight stays were recorded, with international tourists accounting for 27% of that figure [Statistics Poland 2020]. Five most frequently visited tourist attractions are located in the old town or in the city centre [Poznań Tourism Organisation 2018: 24]. The strategic management of tourism started in 1995 when the city's development strategy was formulated, including plans to build a balanced economy, open to investors, economic partners and tourists [Parysek, Mierzejewska 2006]. 2003 saw the establishment of

a public-private partnership called Poznań Local Tourism Organisation, which has become a crucial element of the local tourism system. However, since then, little has been done to assess the negative impacts of the development of tourism on other spheres of urban life. Initiatives in this area have been limited to academic studies [Kotus, Rzeszewski, Ewertowski 2015; Zmysłony 2011, 2012] or a general assessment of the quality of life in the city [Poznań City Hall 2013]. Consequently, still relatively little is known about the threat of overtourism and tourism-related issues in Poznań.

The study described in this article represents a qualitative approach, based on secondary and primary data sources. The local context of tourism development in the city was examined using information from grey and academic literature [cf. Bródka, Zmysłony 2012], electronic local press and informal interviews. Given the complexity of the subject, this stage was followed by a series of structured interviews to collect information enabling a more in-depth diagnosis [Yin 1994: 85].

Informants were selected purposefully on the basis of the researcher's detailed knowledge of the local government system and the state of tourism development in Poznań. In addition, informants were also selected using snowball sampling [Dragan, Isaic-Maniu 2013; Noy 2008] where first informants were asked to indicate other essential entities. This approach made it possible to identify informants representing seven key public, private and non-profit organisations that have an influence on the development of tourism in Poznań and are potentially parties to conflicts: the city council; the old town district council; the city administration; the city tourism organisation; tourism entrepreneurs representing local tourism associations; the social movement of local residents; the main publicly-funded cultural institution responsible for the offering and maintenance of the Old Market Square infrastructure [Pilarczyk 2019]. All the informants were ensured that their responses would be anonymised.

The interview questionnaire consisted of 14 questions. In order not to limit the scope of responses, most questions were open-ended. 8 questions also included a five-point Likert scale, a rating scale or a single-choice option. They were used to elicit opinions on the impact of tourism on the city's development and about problems and challenges arising from the development of tourism in Poznań. The other questions concerned the assessment of identified conflicts, i.e. their characteristics and intensity. This part of the interview was based on Moore's [2014] circle of conflict model. The causal factors of disputes were grouped into the following categories: values, relationships, data, structural matters, and interests [Moore 2014]. The self-assessment of predispositions referred to respondents' resources classified as autonomy (i.e. reliability as an impartial partner and the lack of authoritative or formal power), reputation (i.e. authority resulting from the knowledge of the causes and nature of the conflict; experience in tourism management; mediation and conflict management skills; staff quality), as well as organisational, financial, and time resources.

The survey was carried from May to June 2019 and included 9 interviews with 12 informants, lasting from 31 to 80 minutes. The descriptive and substantive content analysis was conducted to collate the results [Pilarczyk 2019]. Given the relatively low number of interviews, their design, and the complex nature of overtourism, the use of advanced methods of data analysis was deemed to be unjustified.

4. Results

Most informants said that tourism had had a positive impact on the development of Poznań, and there was still some untapped potential that could be exploited. Nevertheless, each interviewee was asked to indicate at least one issue or challenge concerning tourism. Nine problems and challenges arising from the development of tourism in Poznań were identified. Five of them were categorised as the most important for the entire city development (see Table 1): city nightlife; growth in short-time rentals; pollution of public spaces; the loss of local authenticity of the urban leisure offering; and anti-visitor policy of public cultural institutions.

Table 1. Problems and challenges related to the development of tourism in Poznań identified by the informants

No.	Problem/Challenge	Number of indications (overall / as the most important problem)	Informants who mentioned a given problem/ challenge	Average assessment of the importance of the problem/challenge for the city's development (on a five-point scale)
1.	City nightlife	8/5	1. Poznań Tourism Organisation 2. The Old Town district council 3. Tourism entrepreneurs (2 informants) 4. The city council (3 informants) 5. The cultural institution	3.5
2.	Growth in short-time rental accommodation	5/1	1. Poznań Tourism Organisation 2. The Old Town district council 3. The city administration 4. The residents' social movement 5. The city council (1 informant)	3.6

Table 1. cont.

No.	Problem/ Challenge	Number of indications (overall / as the most important problem)	Informants who mentioned a given problem/ challenge	Average assessment of the importance of the problem/chal- lenge for the city's development (on a five-point scale)
3.	Pollution of public spaces	4/3	1. The Old Town district council 2. Tourism entrepreneur 3. The residents' social move- ment 4. The cultural institution	4.5
4.	Transport infra- structure issues	4/0	1. Poznań Tourism Organisation 2. Tourism entrepreneur 3. The city council (1 informant) 4. The city guides association	2.625
5.	The loss of local authenticity of the urban leisure of- fering	2/1	1. The city administration 2. The cultural institution	4
6.	Anti-visitor policy of public cultural institutions	1/1	The city guides association	4
7.	Mass and low- budget tourism causing the crowding out of individual culture- oriented visitors	1/0	The city guides association	2
8.	Restricting tourists' entry to religious buildings	1/0	The city guides association	3

Source: own study.

Further analysis refers only to those issues considered to be the most important at least once (listed as 1-3 and 5-6). According to the informants, there were no conflicts directly caused by the excessive growth of tourism. According to the majority of the respondents, the conflicts were at an initial stage, which made it difficult to determine their scale and further development. Only three out of twelve informants claimed that the conflicts were in their manifest state. Asked to assess the relevance of various conflict features, the informants identified conflict length (4.1 on average), the complexity of the core conflict (3.66), and the number of parties involved (3.61) as the most significant. (see Table 2). They also

Table 2. The intensity of conflicts in Poznań

The complexity of the core conflict	Conflict length	Number of parties involved	The emotional level of the dispute	Parties' ability to resolve the dispute	Advanced negotiation procedures used by the parties	Inequality between the parties
3.66	4.10	3.61	3.05	2.69	2.03	2.88

Source: own study.

assessed that the negotiation procedures used in the dispute were not advanced (2.03) and that the inequality of the parties was not perceived as significant.

The conflicts identified by the interviewees were most often generated by party-goers and entrepreneurs (except the conflict related to the anti-visitor policy of public cultural institutions), located around the Old Market Square and the banks of the Warta River. The informants found it difficult to determine what percentage of night-time entertainment enthusiasts were tourists. According to them, this group included residents of the city and the Poznań metropolitan area. For them, tourists were only one category of people involved in these issues.

The nature and dynamics of the conflicts described as the most significant by at least one informant was mainly influenced by factors, such as different goals and expectations of the parties involved, different value systems, faulty communication (or lack of communication) among stakeholders, conflicting and competing interests, and intense emotions. Factors such as personal aspirations and particular interests of individual people, incorrect information on the subject of the conflict or varying degrees of access to this information were assessed to be of least importance. It can therefore be concluded that, according to the circle of conflict model [Moore, 2014], the conflicts were driven mainly by values and relationships.

The local government, the local community, as well as party-goers and local entrepreneurs generating this conflict, were identified as conflict parties. Nevertheless, given the identified sources of conflicts and the declared level of the key stakeholders' capacity to engage in managing and mitigating them (see Table 3), the most appropriate institution for this task was the city administration (i.e. the Poznań City Hall), with the Old Town district council and the city council as the best second-choice options. These three entities rated their conflict management capabilities regarding each of the five conflict sources most positively. Representatives of the Poznań Tourism Organisation also rated their capabilities relatively high, especially with reference to data conflicts. Self-assessment ratings given by representatives of local tourism entrepreneurs and the public cultural institution were the lowest.

Table 3. Informants' assessment of their own institution's conflict management capacity

Key stakeholders	Conflict management capacity concerning the following sources of conflict:					
	values	relationships	structural matters	data	interests	All categories (mean value)
The public city administration (Poznań City Hall)	5.00	5.00	5.00	5.00	3.50	4.70
Poznań Tourism Organisation	3.00	2.50	2.67	4.17	3.25	3.12
The city council	3.83	3.33	3.00	4.06	4.08	3.66
Local tourism entrepreneurs	1.75	1.50	1.50	1.42	2.13	1.67
The residents' social movement	3.50	2.00	3.00	1.50	2.25	2.45
The cultural institution	2.00	1.50	1.33	2.33	1.75	1.78
The Old Town district council	4.00	3.50	3.67	4.50	3.50	3.83

Source: own study.

The informants also assessed resources of their own institution regarding conflict management (see Table 4). In this self-assessment, representatives of the city council, the city administration and the Old Town district council gave themselves the highest ratings, i.e. the average of over 3.5 on the scale from 1 to 5. By contrast, representatives of the residents' social movement, tourism entrepreneurs and the cultural institution assessed their resources much less positively, i.e. with an average below 3 on the 1-5 scale. Representatives of the Poznań Tourism Organisation and the Old Town district council had the most balanced assessment of their capabilities. In particular, they gave themselves high ratings on credibility and autonomy, while acknowledging their limited tangible resources. In this context, there is a certain pattern in the answers given by the majority of informants. With the exception of the residents' social movement and the cultural institution, representatives of the other entities valued their intangible resources (autonomy and credibility, knowledge-based reputation, staff qualifications and inter-organisational skills) higher than the tangible ones (i.e. time, financial and organisational constraints).

The informants were also asked to indicate one institution they regarded as best suited to act as a conflict manager in the identified disputes. The city admin-

Table 4. Informants' assessment of their own institution's resources relevant in conflict management

Key stakeholders	Categories of resources			
	Autonomy and credibility	Reputation	Tangible resources	All categories (mean value)
The public city administration (Poznań City Hall)	3.50	4.00	3.00	3.50
Poznań Tourism Organisation	4.00	3.67	2.50	3.39
The city council	3.67	4.22	3.08	3.66
Local tourism entrepreneurs	4.00	2.33	1.00	2.44
The residents' social movement	1.50	2.33	2.00	1.94
The cultural institution	2.00	3.67	2.25	2.64
The Old Town district council	3.50	3.67	2.50	3.22

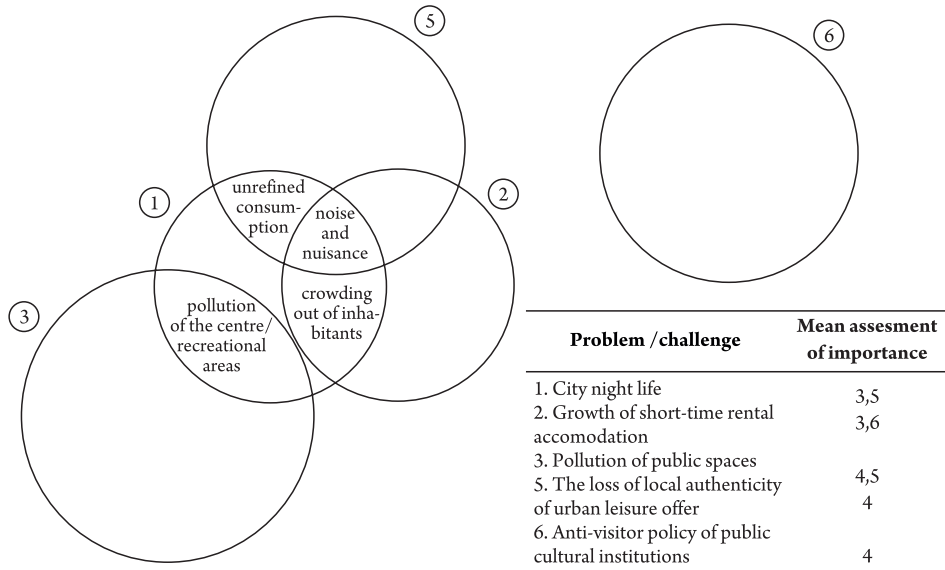
Source: own study.

istration received the highest number of indications (4). Only two informants indicated the Poznań Tourism Organisation. Three respondents insisted on the involvement of external mediators as conflict managers.

5. Findings and discussion

Judging by informants' opinions about conflict-inducing effects of the development of tourism in Poznań, the identified issues were not due to overtourism. Nevertheless, they should be perceived from a wider perspective, i.e. as interrelated factors. City nightlife, the rise of short-term rental accommodation, and, finally, the pollution of public space and the loss of local authenticity of urban leisure offering are substantively convergent and constitute a broader issue (see Fig. 1). Therefore, we argue that these conflicts should be perceived as examples of uncontrolled consumption of the city's overall offering and are not related to the phenomenon of overtourism, as they were evident in the behaviour of city inhabitants, visitors from the metropolitan area and tourists.

Nevertheless, the uncontrolled consumption problem – perceived mainly by residents affected by constant noise and pollution appearing in their area – could also apply directly to the development of tourism. Moreover, on the basis of the literature [Dodds, Butler 2019a; Koens, Postma, Papp 2018], one can argue that almost all the above-mentioned issues could be regarded as drivers or constituents of the phenomenon. However, conflicts of this type are an inevitable effect



Note: The circle size represents the average significance of the problem/challenge.

Fig. 1. Relationships between identified tourism-related conflicts in Poznań

Source: own study.

of the development of the entertainment industry in cities, where local conditions (spatial, infrastructural, etc.) are conducive to the creation of entertainment enclaves, which are particularly attractive for young people.

Taking into account the factors that the respondents identified as having the biggest effect on the dynamics and nature of the conflicts, it was possible to determine their dimensions. According to the informants, the analysed disputes are mainly due to differences in objectives and expectations expressed by conflict parties, differences in their value systems and concepts of city development (especially regarding city nightlife, pollution of the public space and short-term rentals), lack or poor communication among the parties, conflicting or competing interests, and fuelled emotions (expressed mostly towards pollution of the urban space and short-term rentals). According to Moore’s [2014] circle of conflict model, these factors should be viewed as related to values and relationships. The former are difficult to resolve as stakeholders perceive the essence of a conflict in a subjective way. In this case, values are associated with the social valuation of space, i.e. the space of local and national identity, which residents and guests compete for [Zmysłony, Kowalczyk-Anioł, Dembińska 2020]. The aspect of relationships refers to stakeholders’ subjective perceptions of conflict issues. It is likely that some of them underestimated the extent of the threat of overtour-

ism. However, relationship conflicts could be resolved as there is some leeway for compromise, negotiations and collaborative actions [Moore 2014].

The study has some important managerial implications concerning destination governance in Poznań. First, with respect to identified causes of conflicts, any conflict managing body should set overriding goals for tourism development, determine common values, encourage conflict parties to understand different points of view on controversial issues, monitor the quality and culture of communication, and introduce procedures and underlying principles that can improve communication without negative emotions and behaviours. Second, the study has revealed discrepancies between informants' self-assessment of their own capacities and resources for conflict management and the way their ability to act as a conflict manager was assessed by other stakeholders. In particular, the relatively high self-assessment of the Poznań Tourism Organisation (see Tables 3 and 4) stands in contrast to the fact that only two stakeholders indicated it as a potential mediator. On the other hand, the lower self-assessment of the city administration was inconsistent with 4 indications from the other informants.

6. Conclusion

The article contributes to the literature on overtourism by using a method adopted from conflict theory to determine the intensity of this phenomenon on the basis of objective measures and data. By applying Moore's [2014] circle of conflict model to the field of urban tourism, it was possible to analyse the intensity, functional structure and causes of conflicts induced by the development of tourism in Poznań. The main finding of the study is that overtourism has not appeared in Poznań as a public issue, but the city is facing similar problems as a result of the uncontrolled consumption of the city's offering by its inhabitants, residents of the metropolitan area and visitors. In this respect, the article has a diagnostic relevance by highlighting emerging problems related to the development of tourism. As noted by many authors [Dodds, Butler 2019b; Novy, Colomb 2019; Postma, Schmuecker 2017], emerging conflicts expose dysfunctionalities of local tourism systems and reveal differences between key stakeholders.

Moreover, the article also contributes to destination governance theory and overtourism studies by proposing a method of evaluating capacities and resources of key stakeholders regarding their involvement in managing tourism-related conflicts depending on their causes. The Poznań study continues and verifies research started in Cracow [Zmyślony, Kowalczyk-Anioł 2019]. The method also helps stakeholders choose a leader or mediator in the conflict management process.

Nevertheless, the study has certain limitations. First, it involves a single case with strong managerial implications, and, consequently, its findings can hardly be generalized [Yin 1994]. Second, without the use of advanced reputation methods, the interview technique is prone to biased response owing to the subjectivity of self-assessment questions. Third, the findings and conclusions may have been affected by the limited number of informants.

References

- Amore A., Falk M., Adie B.A., 2020, One visitor too many: assessing the degree of overtourism in established European urban destinations, *International Journal of Tourism Cities*, 6(1): 117-137.
- Blanco-Romero A., Blázquez-Salom M., Cànoves G., 2018, Barcelona, housing rent bubble in a tourist city. Social responses and local policies, *Sustainability*, 10(6): 2043.
- Bródka S., Zmysłony P. (eds.), 2012, *Turystyka w aglomeracji poznańskiej*, Poznań: Bogucki Wydawnictwo Naukowe.
- Dodds R., Butler R., 2019a, The phenomena of overtourism: A review, *International Journal of Tourism Cities*, 5(4): 519-528.
- Dodds R., Butler R.W., 2019b, Introduction, in: R. Dodds, R.W. Butler (eds.), *Overtourism: Issues, Realities and Solutions and Solutions*, Berlin: De Gruyter, 1-5.
- Dragan I.-M., Isaic-Maniu A., 2013, Snowball sampling completion, *Journal of Studies in Social Sciences*, 5(2): 160-177.
- Eckert C., Zacher D., Pechlaner H., Namberger P., Schmude J., 2019, Strategies and measures directed towards overtourism: a perspective of European DMOs, *International Journal of Tourism Cities*, 5(4): 639-655.
- Fedyk W., Sołtysik M., Olearnik J., Barwicka K., Mucha A., 2020, How Overtourism Threatens Large Urban Areas: A Case Study of the City of Wrocław, Poland, *Sustainability*, 12(5): 1783.
- Furlong G.T., 2010, *The conflict resolution toolbox: Models and Maps for Analyzing, Diagnosing, and Resolving Conflict*, Ontario: John Wiley & Sons.
- Koens K., Postma A., 2018, *Understanding and Managing Visitor Pressure in urban Tourism*, Breda: CELTH Centre of Expertise Leisure Tourism & Hospitality.
- Koens K., Postma A., Papp B., 2018, Is overtourism overused? Understanding the impact of tourism in a city context, *Sustainability*, 10(12): 4384.
- Kotus J., Rzeszewski M., Ewertowski W., 2015, Tourists in the spatial structures of a big Polish city: Development of an uncontrolled patchwork or concentric spheres?, *Tourism Management*, 50: 98-110.
- Kowalczyk-Anioł J., Włodarczyk B., 2017, Przestrzeń turystyczna przestrzenią konfliktu, *Prace i Studia Geograficzne*, 62(2): 53-72.
- Martín J.M., Guaita Martínez J., Salinas Fernández J., 2018, An analysis of the factors behind the citizen's attitude of rejection towards tourism in a context of overtourism and economic dependence on this activity, *Sustainability*, 10(8): 2851.

- McKinsey, WTTC, 2017, *Coping with Success: Managing Overcrowding in Tourism Destinations*, <https://www.gstcouncil.org/coping-success-managing-overcrowding-tourism-destinations-mckinsey-wttc/> [accessed: 3.01.2020].
- Milano C., Cheer J., Novelli M., 2018, *Overtourism is becoming a major issue for cities across the globe*, World Economic Forum, <https://www.weforum.org/agenda/2018/07/overtourism-a-growing-global-problem> [accessed: 3.01.2020].
- Milano C., Novelli M., Cheer J.M., 2019a, Overtourism and degrowth: a social movements perspective, *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 27(12): 1857-1875.
- Milano C., Novelli M., Cheer J.M., 2019b, Overtourism and Tourismphobia: A Journey Through Four Decades of Tourism Development, Planning and Local Concerns, *Tourism Planning and Development*, 16(4): 353-357.
- Moore C., 2014, *The Mediation Process: Practical Strategies for Resolving Conflict*, San Francisco: Jossey Bass.
- Novy J., 2019, Urban tourism as a bone of contention: four explanatory hypotheses and a caveat, *International Journal of Tourism Cities*, 5(1): 63-74.
- Novy J., Colomb C., 2019, Urban Tourism as a Source of Contention and Social Mobilisations: A Critical Review, *Tourism Planning & Development*, 16(4): 358-375.
- Noy C., 2008, Sampling knowledge: The hermeneutics of snowball sampling in qualitative research, *International Journal of Social Research Methodology*, 11(4): 327-344.
- Oklevik O., Gössling S., Hall C.M., Steen Jacobsen J.K., Grøtte I.P., McCabe S., 2019, Overtourism, optimisation, and destination performance indicators: a case study of activities in Fjord Norway, *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 27(12): 1804-1824.
- Parysek J.J., Mierzejewska L., 2006, City profile Poznań, *Cities*, 23(4): 291-305.
- Pilarczyk M., 2019, *Konflikty w przestrzeni turystycznej – przykład Poznania*, master thesis, unpublished material, Poznań: PUEB.
- Peeters P., Gössling S., Klijs J., Milano C., Novelli M., Dijkmans C., Eijgelaar E., Hartman S., Heslinga J., Isaac R., Mitas O., Moretti S., Nawijn J., Papp B., Postma A., 2018, *Overtourism: Impact and Possible Policy Responses*, Brussels: European Parliament, Policy Department for Structural and Cohesion Policies.
- Postma A., Schmuecker D., 2017, Understanding and overcoming negative impacts of tourism in city destinations: conceptual model and strategic framework, *Journal of Tourism Futures*, 3(2), 144-156.
- Poznań City Hall, 2013, *Wskaźniki jakości życia mieszkańców Poznania*, Poznań, UMP, <https://www.Poznań.pl/mim/s8a/badania-jakosci-zycia,p,24818,25221.html> [accessed: 3.01.2020].
- Poznań Tourism Organisation, 2018, *Stan turystyki w Metropolii Poznań w latach 2016-2017*, Poznań: PLOT.
- Romero-Padilla Y., Cerezo-Medina A., Navarro-Jurado E., Romero-Martínez J.M., Guevara-Plaza A., 2019, Conflicts in the tourist city from the perspective of local social movements, *Boletín de La Asociación de Geógrafos Españoles*, 83: 1-35.
- Song H., Kim M., Park C., 2020, Temporal Distribution as a Solution for Over-Tourism in Night Tourism: The Case of Suwon Hwaseong in South Korea, *Sustainability*, 12(6): 2182.
- Statistics Poland, Local Data Bank, <https://stat.gov.pl/en/> [accessed: 10.01.2020].

- Szromek A.R., Kruczek Z., Walas B., 2020, The Attitude of Tourist Destination Residents towards the Effects of Overtourism – Krakow Case Study, *Sustainability*, 12(1): 228.
- World Tourism Organization (UNWTO), 2018, 'Overtourism'? – *Understanding and Managing Urban Tourism Growth beyond Perceptions. Executive Summary*, Madrid: UNWTO, <https://doi.org/10.18111/9789284420070> [accessed: 3.01.2020].
- Yin R.K., 1994, *Case Study Research: Design and Methods*, Thousand Oaks: SAGE Publications.
- Zmyślony P., 2011, Application of the destination life cycle concept in managing urban tourism: Case of Poznań, Poland, *International Conference on Tourism (ICOT 2011): Tourism in an Era of Uncertainty*, 27-30 April 2011, 867-878.
- Zmyślony P., 2012, Wykorzystanie metod heurystycznych w analizie strategicznej miasta w zakresie rozwoju funkcji turystycznej, *Zeszyty Naukowe Uniwersytetu Ekonomicznego w Poznaniu*, 225: 75-98.
- Zmyślony P., Kowalczyk-Anioł J., 2019, Urban tourism hypertrophy: who should deal with it? The case of Krakow (Poland), *International Journal of Tourism Cities*, 5(2): 247-269.
- Zmyślony P., Kowalczyk-Anioł J., Dembińska M., 2020, Deconstructing the overtourism-related social conflicts, *Sustainability*, 12(4): 1695.
- Żemła M., 2020, Reasons and Consequences of Overtourism in Contemporary Cities – Knowledge Gaps and Future Research, *Sustainability*, 12(5): 1729.

Identyfikacja zjawiska *overtourism* w Poznaniu poprzez analizę konfliktów społecznych

Streszczenie. Artykuł ma dwójaki cel: zdiagnozowanie konfliktów występujących w poznańskiej przestrzeni turystycznej poprzez określenie ich intensywności i kluczowych stron konfliktu, a także ukazanie potencjału kluczowych interesariuszy miejskiego systemu turystyki w zakresie zarządzania konfliktem. Złożona natura nadmiernego ruchu turystycznego w miastach powoduje, że jest to zjawisko zarówno niebezpieczne, jak i trudne do pomiaru. Jest ono jednak zawsze związane z konfliktami społecznymi. Jego natężenie i przebieg można zatem mierzyć poprzez analizę konfliktów w miejskiej przestrzeni turystycznej, wykorzystując narzędzia znane z teorii zarządzania konfliktem, przede wszystkim model koła konfliktu autorstwa Christophera Moore'a. Na podstawie przeprowadzonego badania stwierdzono, że zidentyfikowane obszary konfliktowe odnoszą się nie do overtourismu, ale do niekontrolowanej konsumpcji oferty wolnego czasu w mieście, uzewnętrznionej w zachowaniu mieszkańców miasta i odwiedzających jednodniowych przybywających z okolic miasta, a dopiero następnie turystów. Wkład artykułu do studiów nad nadmiernym rozwojem turystyki w miastach polega na zaproponowaniu alternatywnej metody identyfikacji zakresu i intensywności overtourismu w warunkach braku obiektywnych miar i danych dotyczących tego zjawiska. W opracowaniu zaproponowano także metodę oceny dyspozycji kluczowych interesariuszy do zarządzania konfliktami w Poznaniu.

Słowa kluczowe: overtourism, konflikt społeczny, analiza konfliktów, turystyka miejska, Poznań, Polska



Copyright and license: This article is published under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution – NoDerivatives 4.0 International (CC BY-ND 4.0) License, <https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nd/4.0/>

Suggested citation: Zmyślony P., Pilarczyk M., 2020, Identification of overtourism in Poznań through the analysis of social conflicts, *Studia Periegetica*, 2(30): 9-24, DOI: 10.5604/01.3001.0014.3169.

ALINA ZAJADACZ*, ANNA LUBARSKA**

Sensory gardens as places for outdoor recreation adapted to the needs of people with visual impairments

Abstract. The article addresses the question of adapting public spaces, including parks and gardens, to the needs of people with disabilities for the purpose of outdoor recreation. According to the principles of universal design, public spaces should enable social inclusion, which implies respect for current needs of diverse populations. The study described in the article focuses on the needs of people with vision impairment regarding outdoor recreation and adjustments that need to be made in the infrastructure of parks and gardens. The aim of the study was to answer three key questions: (1) How can outdoor experiences be made accessible to people with visual impairments? (2) How can outdoor experiences be encouraged, rethought and redesigned for people with visual impairments? (3) What barriers stop people with visual disabilities from participating in outdoor leisure in sensory gardens? These questions are answered using insights from desk research, data from an inventory of selected sensory gardens and interviews with blind and partially sighted respondents. The study, conducted between June and August 201, covered 15 gardens located in various parts in Poland: in cities, rural areas and areas of natural value. The interviews, involving 32 respondents, were held directly in the gardens in cooperation with the Polish Association for the Blind. The results were used to formulate recommendations for good practice in the field of universal garden design, which can provide sensory experiences for everyone, including people with visual impairments. The observed development of sensory gardens seems to reflect a great interest in this type of outdoor sites, which are conducive to recreation, education, integration, and social inclusion. Solutions applied in sensory gardens should provide inspiration for creating universal gardens, accessible to everyone.

Keywords: sensory gardens, outdoor recreation, people with visual impairments, people with disability, universal design

JEL Codes: Q01, R53, R58

* Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznań (Poland), Chair of Tourism and Recreation at the Faculty of Geographic and Geological Sciences, Email: alina@amu.edu.pl, orcid.org/0000-0002-6743-8192.

** Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznań (Poland), Chair of Tourism and Recreation at the Faculty of Geographic and Geological Sciences, Email: anna.lubarska@amu.edu.pl, orcid.org/0000-0003-2298-1076.

1. Introduction

Outdoor recreation, with its many benefits (i.e. relaxation, education, health, integration), can have a very positive effect on the person's psycho-somatic condition, which is enhanced when recreation takes place in green areas, including parks and gardens, especially those designed with a multisensory effect in mind. These so-called sensory gardens foster perceptions and experiences other than optical ones, which makes them particularly attractive as place of outdoor recreation for people with a visual disability (PwVD). The way they are designed can provide a blueprint for universal design of outdoor recreation areas.

Up until now, the needs of people with disabilities (PwD) have not necessarily been considered when planning areas of outdoor recreation. In order to implement more inclusive solutions in outdoor recreation areas it is necessary to obtain feedback from people with disabilities regarding their experiences, needs, and – especially – already tested, recommended practices. The study described in this article focuses primarily on the needs of people with vision impairments regarding outdoor recreation and adjustments that need to be made in the infrastructure of parks and gardens. Key research problems are expressed in the following questions:

Q₁ – How can outdoor experiences be made accessible to people with visual impairments?

Q₂ – How can outdoor experiences be encouraged, rethought and redesigned for people with visual impairments?

Q₃ – What barriers stop people with visual disabilities from participating in outdoor leisure in sensory gardens?

The analysis of the empirical study is preceded by a review of the literature, addressing specific facets of outdoor recreation for PwVD, ideas and concepts associated with the creation of sensory gardens and universal design. The next section (Data and methods) includes a detailed description of research problems related to the three research questions and information about the scope of the study and the research methodology. The third section is devoted to the analysis of the results. The part regarding the inventory of gardens includes information about (1) elements facilitating spatial information, (2) infrastructure facilitating the mobility of blind and partially sighted persons, (3) techniques for communicating information to blind and partially sighted people in sensory gardens. Information collected during the interviews with blind people made it possible to recognise: (1) the role of the senses in individual perception and spatial orientation, (2) the role of the senses in spatial orientation in a given garden, (3) the possibility of moving independently (spatial orientation and safety) in a known environment; in a new, unknown environment; in a sensory garden, (4) facilitation of

spatial orientation in a given sensory garden, (5) factors contributing to the sense of security in a given sensory garden, (6) favourite, most interesting places in a given sensory garden, (7) barriers and restrictions hindering sightseeing or stay in a sensory garden. In the discussion of the research results the authors highlight beneficial changes that improve convenience for PwVD, i.e. thanks to universal solutions in the form of screen readers, audiobooks, etc. The study also shows the need to change the stereotypical point of view, whereby information needs of blind people are limited to Braille inscriptions, since the ability to use this alphabet – especially among the younger generation – should not be taken for granted these days. The article ends with conclusions referring to the three research questions, which provide useful guidelines for universal design of outdoor recreation taking into account the needs of PwVD.

2. Literature review

People with visual impairments encounter many difficulties in free outdoor recreation. Studies conducted among young people by Jessup, Cornell and Bundy [2010] have shown that “Young people who are visually impaired have fewer social interactions with friends and are more likely to spend their free time alone. They are involved in less varied and more passive activities, have less independence, and are usually accompanied by their parents. Their out-of-home activities are more likely to be structured than spontaneous” [Jessup, Cornell, Bundy 2010: 419]. Sometimes surrounded from childhood by excessive care, and often extremely cautious themselves, they do not fully benefit from the rest and leisure activities, although the benefits are similar for people with and without visual deficiencies [Bashir, Bano, Sajan 2014] whereas, some leisure activities require only substantial mental effort such as playing chess and painting a picture. These physical and mental activities also overlap too much. School is place where the students with visual impairment can enhance their physical, mental emotional, social skills by which they can adopt the changing conditions of the progressive world. In this study the efforts have been made 1. Later in life, engaging in leisure activities becomes a challenge for PwVD, since even their daily activities take more time because of their disability [Berger 2011]. Given the complexity of disability, as well as its social aspects, disabled people struggle to ‘have fun’ and meet social expectations regarding engagement with outdoor play even if their real feelings are mixed or even unambiguously negative [Horton 2017] widely circulated discourses about the value of outdoor, natural play for children overwhelmingly marginalize the experiences of families with disabled children, who can often experience outdoor/natural play as a site of hard work, heartache,

dread, resignation and inadequacy. This paper presents findings from research with 60 North London families with children aged 5-16 who have a statutory 'Statement of Special Needs'. Focusing on these families' experiences of visiting designated, newly refurbished accessible natural play-spaces in two local country parks, the paper highlights: (i. Many are afraid of the social stigma associated with disability and therefore try to conceal it [Goffman 1963]. The same strategy – minimising the visibility of the disability – is often used by PwVD when they do not want to stand alone in a public place and would like to be seen as competent spatial actors. Other strategies to achieve this goal involve using a guide dog or a white cane [Worth 2013]. They need a safe, trusted space that they can use independently, to have a good time without assistance from others and social coercion, and be able to satisfy their natural curiosity and acquire new information.

Sensory gardens, or more broadly – all gardens, can be used for this purpose and often serve as a natural background for therapy. Horticultural therapy “includes interventions mediated by nature-oriented views and spaces such as gardens and everything associated with them, the plants and material related to them, garden tools and garden occupations performed among disabled people for healing and for restoring or improving health and well-being or for rehabilitation or simply for general benefit” [Söderback, Söderström, Schäländer 2004: 245]. There are three ways to engage in horticulture: interaction, action, and reaction [Relf 1981]. A garden can be the place of active (when doing something) or passive (just being there) therapy [Latkowska, Miernik 2012]. Outdoor activities undertaken in gardens (like walking, playing, sunbathing) can be interpreted differently. Hagedorn [1988] regards them as passive uses of a garden, while for Gonzalez and Kirkevold [2015], they are active forms of using this space. The therapeutic influence of being in a garden seems to be stronger when the visitor has a bond with the place and uses it actively [Adevi, Mårtensson 2013]. Even a visit to a small garden can bring relaxation and joy, and if the space is well-designed, it can be not only a place of therapy but also of mental relief. Nowadays, therapeutic outdoor spaces can be found anywhere, as their positive impact is widely known, but historically the first healing gardens were planned especially for patients in hospitals or other health care centres [Finlay 2018; Reeve, Nieberler-Walker, Desha 2017]. The origin of sensory gardens is very similar. The idea of a sensory garden – or rather a field of sensory experience, originally came from Hugo Kükelhaus. He designed a space in which there were different stations demonstrating various physical laws but also forcing visitors to confront their own inner world, prompting them to use their senses to perceive the world. The idea was to learn through the body [Luescher 2006]. In the field of sensory experience designed in line with Kükelhaus' assumptions, visitors should be able to experience the space i.e. through their feet, by walking on different kinds of surfaces, prefer-

ably barefoot; through their ears, listening to the sounds of various instruments, gongs, bells, buzzers etc.; through the contrast of light and shade; through scent, touch, swaying etc. [Lotz 1997].

According to Pawłowska, every garden is in some way a sensory garden because the surrounding reality is perceived with all senses [Pawłowska 2008: 143]. Regardless of the creators' intentions, any garden is a place where scents, tastes, and tactile sensations are combined in a unique pattern. Sensory gardens are very diverse; some depend on interactive toys; others are characterised by rich vegetation; still others have a special educational value.

Based on the above review of the literature, it is possible to list a few key features of an ideal sensory garden:

- it must be designed with a certain purpose in mind;
- it should constitute a closed whole, separated from the surrounding space;
- it should stimulate all human senses;
- it should focus on non-visual experiences;
- in addition to vegetation, it should also have other stimulating elements [Dąbski, Dudkiewicz 2010; Gonzalez, Kirkevold 2015; Hussein 2009; Sensory Trust 2003; Szczepańska et al. 2013; Ujma-Wasowicz, Fross 2014].

Because the notion of 'a sensory garden' has not been clearly defined, visitors do not always know what is hidden behind this concept. There seems to be a need for more precise descriptions. A very similar need for some kind of management regarding the granting of special status, and perhaps even certification, can be observed in the case of so-called 'healing gardens', which also lack any formal specifications [Cooper Marcus 2016]. It should also be remembered that sensory gardens are not the only form of providing sensory experience in open spaces. Dąbski and Dudkiewicz [2010] distinguish:

- Sensory gardens as independent areas,
- Sensory paths providing sensory experiences, but also involving movement and opportunities to learn orientation skills and discover one's own abilities,
- Enrichment of open landscapes implemented in diverse and easily accessible areas to make them suitable for developing the entire sensory range [Dąbski, Dudkiewicz 2010: 8].

Each of the above categories requires a certain level of accessibility to serve its purpose. The first factor that needs to be taken into account is safety and easy orientation. For PwVD, the most important aspect during a visit to a garden is comfort and safety. The next crucial factor is the ease of access. Things, such as species diversity or the garden size are less important [Woźny, Lauda 2004]. A clear and simple design of the garden paths makes them easy and comfortable to use. The paths should have rounded corners and should not be obstructed by

any free-standing elements, such as benches or flowerpots, which should be located near them; the use of contrasting colours is also recommended. If possible, railings should be placed in the garden to help blind people find their way around. It is also advisable to mark the central spot of the garden to facilitate orientation. This can be a building, a signpost or a fountain. All the paths must have curbs to prevent PwVD from coming off the path and to facilitate orientation. Variety is the key to success: paths, walls and fences with various types of surface can significantly help visitors find their way. In order to make plants more accessible to people with visual impairments, they should be placed in beds located 50-90 cm above ground level. It is also a good idea to plant and sow plants with characteristic features, e.g. with flowers, fruits, stems or leaves of interesting, unusual shape [Latkowska 2009; Dąbski, Dudkiewicz 2010; Woźnicka, Janeczko, Nowacka 2014; Pudelska et al. 2015].

There are major shortcomings regarding the adaptation of public facilities and spaces for PwVD, since in many countries, including Poland, disabled persons are still mainly associated with wheelchair users [Wysocki 2012]. It is also extremely difficult to determine what solutions should be applied in public spaces, as “people with visual impairment rely on a personal and unique combination of sensory inputs to produce an organised and meaningful understanding and awareness of the spatial experience of public spaces” [Jenkins, Yuen, Vogtle 2015: 8651]. It means that every user perceives a garden in their own, unique way, and each person may need a different adaptation, especially when they have multiple disabilities. That is why, in many cases, instead of introducing special design features to adapt spaces to the needs of people with disabilities, it is more reasonable to follow the principles of universal design. The term, coined in the 1970s, refers to the practice of designing products and environments in such a way so that they can be used as much as possible by people of all ages and abilities without further adaptation [Connell et al. 1997; Story, Mueller, Mace 1998; Wysocki 2012]. According to Żółkowska [2016], one drawback of universal design is the fact that it does not take into account the complex cultural, social, political relationships and processes taking place within the geographical space, institutions and management systems [Żółkowska 2016: 75]. All these factors must be considered when discussing general accessibility of green outdoor spaces. First of all, the best strategy is not to create a space for people with disabilities, but rather with them, listening to their comments and needs. This is the best way of implementing the idea of universal design [Zajadacz 2015; Zajadacz, Lubarska 2019]. Secondly, no garden will become popular with visitors if certain conditions are not met: adequate seating, shading, and greenery are essential to make a garden attractive [Pasha 2013; Dos Santos, de Carvalho 2012].

3. Data and methods

The purpose of the study was to answer three fundamental questions (Q), which are elaborated in the form of specific research problems (P):

Q₁: How can outdoor experiences be made accessible to people with visual impairments?

(P₁) elements facilitating spatial information,

(P₂) infrastructure facilitating the mobility and stay for blind and partially sighted people,

(P₃) techniques for communicating information to blind and partially sighted people in sensory gardens.

Q₂: How can outdoor experiences be encouraged, rethought and redesigned for people with visual impairments?

(P₄) the role of the senses in individual perception and spatial orientation,

(P₅) the role of the senses in spatial orientation during a visit to a garden,

(P₆) possibility of moving independently (spatial orientation and safety) in a known environment; in a new, unknown environment; in a given sensory garden,

(P₇) facilitation of spatial orientation in a given sensory garden,

(P₈) factors determining the sense of security in a given sensory garden,

(P₉) favourite, most interesting places in a given sensory garden

Q₃: What barriers stop people with visual disabilities from participating in outdoor leisure in sensory gardens?

(P₁₀) barriers and restrictions hindering sightseeing, stay in a sensory garden.

To answer Q₁, inventories were made in 15 sensory gardens, located in different parts of Poland. Field research was conducted between June and August of 2018. The garden inventory was based on assessment criteria presented in the study of Jakubowski, Szczepańska and Ogonowska-Chrobrowska [2018]. Data concerning Q₂ and Q₃ were collected during interviews with respondents with visual impairments of various types and levels, which were conducted directly in the gardens. Among 32 respondents, mostly members of the Polish Association for the Blind, were 19 women and 13 men, ranging from the age of 9 to 68 (in the case of 9 respondents aged 9-17, interviews were conducted with the consent of their guardians), from large cities and medium-sized towns. The questionnaire included the same set of questions as those used by [Wysocki 2010] to enable comparisons.

The respondents' levels of visual impairment varied: 9 persons (28.1%) were completely blind, 2 persons (6.3%) had only light perception and 21 persons (65.6%) were partially sighted (with 15 persons utilising the remaining sight

constantly, and 6 persons utilising the remaining sight only with favourable circumstances such as proper illumination, high colour contrast, right time of day). 16 persons were blind or partially sighted since birth, 14 persons had lost sight as a result of an illness, and 2 persons – following an accident. The group also varied in terms of the level education (primary: 10, vocational: 6, secondary: 13, university: 3). Almost half of all respondents were not able to read Braille (15 persons, 46.9%); among the others, 5 (15.6%) only had a basic knowledge of the alphabet, 3 (9.3%) – average knowledge, and 9 (28.1%) claimed to be proficient.

4. Results

To answer the question: ‘**How can outdoor experiences be made accessible to people with visual impairments**’ one needs, among other things, to identify **elements that facilitate spatial information** in the sensory gardens under study. The results of the inventory indicate that the most common elements and conveniences include scents, clear path layout and varied types of path surface (Table 1). These infrastructural features are not targeted at a small minority of visitors. Quite the opposite, they are integral qualities of parks and gardens.

Table 1. Elements of sensory gardens that facilitate spatial orientation

No.	Feature	Number of gardens with this feature	Percentage of gardens with this feature
1.	Clear path layout	12	80.0
2.	Paths with rounded corners	4	26.7
3.	Tactile walking surface indicators	0	0
4.	Various types of path surface	11	73.3
5.	Waypoints described in Braille	4	26.7
6.	Audible information	2	13.3
7.	Spatial models	0	0
8.	Scents	15	100.0
9.	Mobile applications	0	0
10.	Assistance from others	9	60.0

Gardens: 1. Bucharzewo, 2. Owińska, 3. Zawoja, 4. Bolestraszyce, 5. Osmolice, 6. Trzcianki, 7. Bród Nowy, 8. Kraków, 9. Gdańsk, 10. Lublin, 11. Muszyna Ogród Zmysłów, 12. Muszyna Ogród Biblijny, 13. Muszyna Ogród Magiczny, 14. Poddębice, 15. Powsin PAN Ogród Botaniczny CZRB (Warszawa).

Source: Field inventory conducted between July and August 2018.

When adequately implemented, these features can help to create a place where PwVD can also rest and enjoy recreation.

Regarding the **infrastructure to facilitate the mobility and stay for blind and partially sighted people**, the most common infrastructural elements included the use of various surface types, tables, elevated flowerbeds and ramps (Table 2). Such conveniences can be treated as part of default outdoor area development and are beneficial to all users.

Table 2. Infrastructure to facilitate the mobility and stay of blind and partially sighted people in selected sensory gardens

No.	Feature	Number of gardens with this feature	Percentage of gardens with this feature
1.	Site plan	4	26.7
2.	Tables	8	53.3
3.	Curbs (as guides)	5	33.3
4.	Railings	7	46.7
5.	Elevated flowerbeds	8	53.3
6.	Ramps	8	53.3
7.	Various surface types	11	73.3

Gardens: 1. Bucharzewo, 2. Owińska, 3. Zawoja, 4. Bolestraszyce, 5. Osmolice, 6. Trzcianki, 7. Bród Nowy, 8. Kraków, 9. Gdańsk, 10. Lublin, 11. Muszyna Ogród Zmysłów, 12. Muszyna Ogród Biblijny, 13. Muszyna Ogród Magiczny, 14. Poddębice, 15. Powsin PAN Ogród Botaniczny CZRB (Warszawa);.

Source: Field inventory conducted between July and August 2018.

The most commonly used **techniques for communicating information** to blind and partially sighted visitors in sensory gardens included sensory paths and interactive toys, tactile graphics and tactile plans, enabling sensory experiences and learning through practice and providing an attractive way to spend free time in an open air space for all kinds of visitors. Options specially designed for blind people include information boards with descriptions in Braille (Table 3).

To answer the question **‘How can outdoor experiences be encouraged, rethought and redesigned for people with visual impairments?’**, it is necessary to identify the **role of the senses in individual perception and spatial orientation**. The questionnaire results indicate that blind and partially sighted visitors relied on the sense of hearing (15), touch (9), on visual memory (4) and remaining sight (4), and on the sense of smell (1) and balance (1). The respondents also rated the degree to which each sense was useful in collecting information when moving about and for spatial orientation in everyday life (Fig. 1. situation A), and then rated their usefulness during a visit to a sensory garden (Fig. 1. situation B).

Table 3. Ways of providing information to blind and partially sighted people in sensory gardens

No.	Feature	Number of gardens with this feature	Percentage of gardens with this feature
1.	Braille/Large Print information boards	7	46.7
2.	Braille/Large Print guide	1	6.7
3.	Touch-and-audio information boards	1	6.7
4.	Interactive website / Voice guide/ Audio description	1	6.7
5.	Tactile graphics / Tactile plans	5	33.3
6.	Sensory path / Interactive toys	11	73.3

Gardens: 1. Bucharzewo, 2. Owińska, 3. Zawoja, 4. Bolestraszyce, 5. Osmolice, 6. Trzcianki, 7. Bród Nowy, 8. Kraków, 9. Gdańsk, 10. Lublin, 11. Muszyna Ogród Zmysłów, 12. Muszyna Ogród Biblijny, 13. Muszyna Ogród Magiczny, 14. Poddębice, 15. Powsin PAN Ogród Botaniczny CZRB (Warszawa).

Source: Field inventory results, July-August 2018.

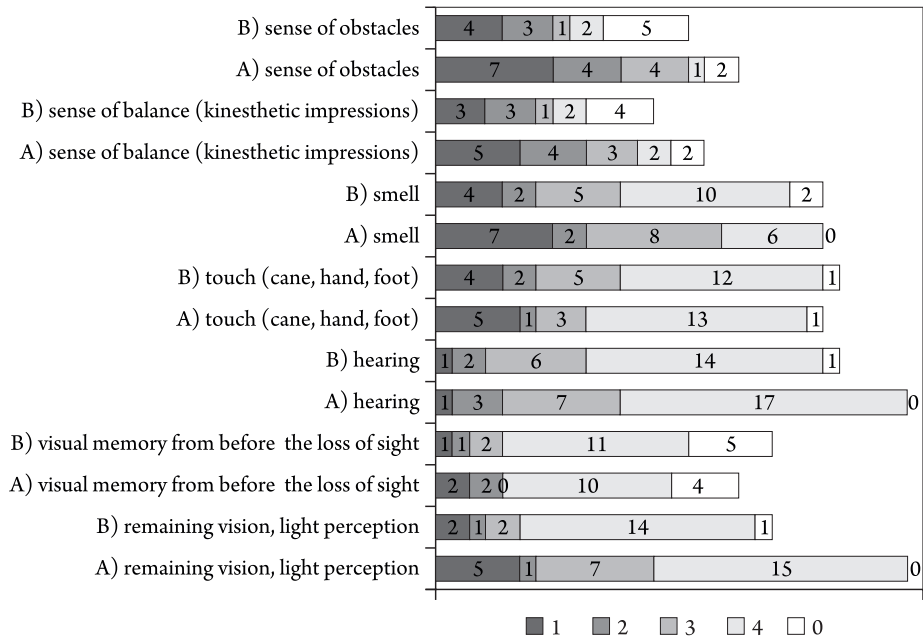
Based on these answers, it can be concluded that the most important senses include:

- hearing and sight (light perception),
- touch (cane, hand, foot) and visual memory.

The other senses (smell, balance and obstacle sense) play a less important role.

The role of the senses in spatial orientation during a visit in a garden is represented in Figure 1 (situation B). When asked to compare everyday spatial orientation (A) with orientation in a sensory garden (B), the respondents reported a more frequent reliance on the sense of smell and more balanced use of other senses with less reliance on the sense of hearing, which suggests that in a safe, predictable arrangement of a garden, accompanied by a number of balanced stimuli, the sense of hearing is not as crucial as in everyday life and can enjoy a certain degree of rest thanks to the holistic exposure to other surrounding stimuli.

Respondents' assessment of **the possibility of moving independently (spatial orientation and safety) in a known environment; in a new, unknown environment and in a given sensory garden** varied (Fig. 2). The possibility of moving independently requires a good knowledge of a specific area. While blind or partially sighted people can move independently in a well-known area, spatial orientation in a new environment is difficult without help from other people. However, thanks to the way they are designed, layouts of sensory gardens are relatively easy to learn.



Importance assessed on a 4-point scale: 1 – the least important, 4 – the most important, 0 – no opinion.

Fig. 1. The importance of senses in spatial orientation (A – overall, B – in sensory gardens) according to blind and partially sighted respondents

Source: Interviews with garden visitors [n = 32].

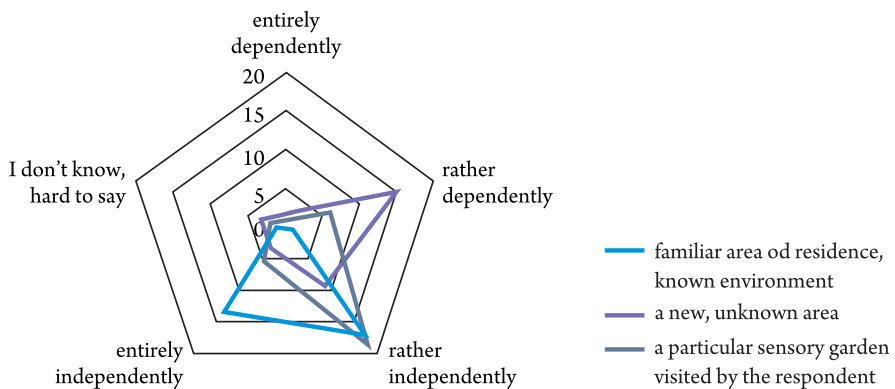
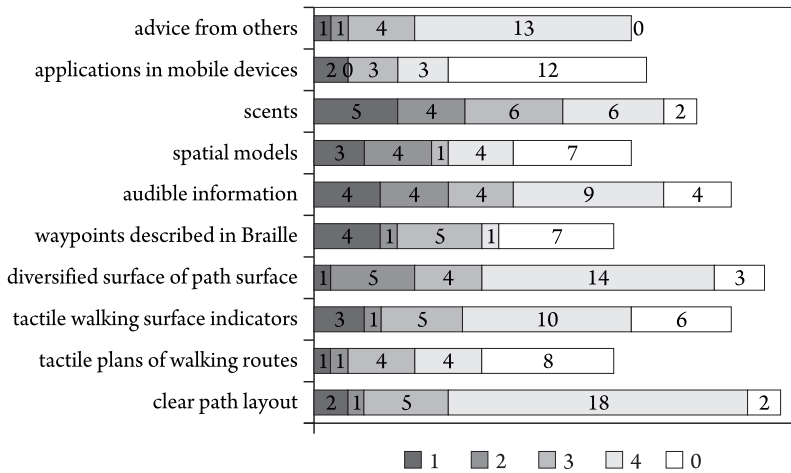


Fig. 2. Possibility of moving independently according to blind and partially sighted respondents

Source: Interviews with garden visitors [n = 32]



Importance assessed on a 4-point scale: 1 – the least important, 4 – the most important, 0 – no opinion.

Fig. 3. Factors that facilitate spatial orientation in sensory gardens according to blind and partially sighted respondents

Source: Interviews with garden visitors [$n = 32$].

Asked to list **solutions that facilitate spatial orientation in a given sensory garden**, the respondents mentioned the following: **intuitive path layout, various path surfaces, assistance from other people, textural markings on paths, and voice information**. Less commonly listed factors included smells, models and paths with rounded corners (Fig. 3).

Another questions concerned **factors contributing to the sense of security in a particular sensory garden**. The three most important factors mentioned by the respondents include:

(1) spatial order of the garden, proper development of the area (16 pers.): secure path edges; intuitive paths layout, clearly marked paths (with yellow tapes), various path surfaces; roofed resting spots; railings, balustrades; fences, safety nets; absence of dangerous elements, e.g. sewer grates; well-maintained paths, safety measures near water reservoirs;

(2) presence of other people (15 pers.): i.e. friends, security officers, garden employees, guides for PwVD;

(3) safety equipment (7 pers.): stable and sturdy safety appliances, the use of a cane, security cameras, illuminated paths, emergency buttons to call for help.

Asked to list their **favourite, most interesting places in a particular sensory garden**, the respondents mentioned things that can be touched, smelled and heard, such as:

1. Plants and animals – that can be touched, picked, smelled and tasted (e.g. beans, carrots, strawberries); e.g. an area with herbs; smells – the presence of plants, water, animals, which can be touched, such as rabbits (12 answers);

2. Resting places: bridges, alleys, gazebos, playgrounds, squares for safe bicycle riding, benches near water, lake, or a fountain (14 answers);

3. Devices – possibility to use springboards, swings, sound stairs, carousels, balance beams, climbing walls, acoustic zones (i.e. dulcimers, organs), mechanical experiences zones, touch zones, water walls (10 answers).

The respondents found sound, touch and smell sensations such as those listed above to be the most important sensual experiences in a sensory garden.

The question **‘What barriers stop people with visual disabilities from participating in outdoor leisure in sensory gardens?’** is connected with the problem of identifying **barriers and restrictions hindering sightseeing, stay in the sensory garden**. 11 (out of 32) respondents gave an affirmative response to the question ‘Do you encounter obstacles with using city parks and gardens?’. The main obstacles mentioned in the survey can be grouped according to the classification proposed by Agovino and others [2017]:

1. Cultural obstacles: bad manners – sighted people who fail to provide assistance regarding spatial orientation to the blind; danger posed by bicycle riders; obstacles located on paths, patchy pavements, hooligans;

2. Environmental obstacles: uniform path surfaces, non-intuitive paths layout making spatial orientation harder, unsafe corners, lack of landmarks, obstacles one cannot walk over like felled trees and branches; unsafe bridges over water pools, garbage, lack of bathrooms, uneven surface of paths;

3. Informational obstacles: lack of information board, lack of audio guides, lack of entrance signs, exit signs, path layouts, etc.; complicated path layouts.

The survey was also an opportunity to learn about respondents’ **expectations concerning the design of parks, gardens, city spaces taking into account the needs of blind and partially sighted people**. Respondents pointed out principles that should be followed and convenience measures that should be implemented in all parks and gardens (e.g. city gardens) to meet the expectations of PwVD. Based on their feedback, it is possible to list several categories, such as:

1. Spatial order – garden arrangement that ensures good spatial orientation and safety: safe path edges (rounded corners, grass), various path surfaces, tactile indicators, tactile plans, even and well-maintained paths, railings in front of slopes, street signs (for example prohibiting bicycle and rollerblade riders from entering paths used by PwVD), clean paths without foliage or fallen trees and branches, good quality surfaces (even, stable, non-slippery), contrasting colours, dangerous spots marked with bright yellow paint (edges, thresholds); clearly labelled movement direction, entrances and exits, maps with large fonts, good illumination, security cameras;

2. Customised information system: sounds, audio description, Braille alphabet markings, enlarged print, tactile elements of the surroundings, models;

3. Universal resting places: outdoor gyms, benches, recreational spots, umbrellas to hide from the sun, customised bathrooms.

By exercising their concentration skills, blind and partially sighted people can better recognise surrounding stimuli. **As representatives of PwVD community indicate, audio messages are preferable to touch-based inputs.** Braille information got low ratings because few respondents were sufficiently familiar with it. This confirms the observation made earlier that **information for PwVD should also be available in forms other than the Braille alphabet, such as, for example, protuberant writing and audio messages.**

5. Discussion

What is not obvious but what is revealed by the results, is the need to supplement the inventory with the possibilities offered by new technologies. They were almost entirely overlooked in our study but nowadays prove to be a very effective and convenient means of helping PwVD to find their way and obtain information about visited places and their special qualities [Siu 2013]. There is also the question of how to choose a method of providing information. Our study shows that people with visual disabilities are reluctant to rely on information provided in Braille, and, besides, there is relatively little information available in Braille anyway. Braille reading is considerably slower than listening and print reading, for physiological and cognitive reasons. Fingertips have a very limited area of contact with the text compared to the eyes; moreover, the contact is successive and sequential, while in visual reading much more information is taken in simultaneously [Baciero, Perea, Gomez 2019; Paterson 2016]. This is one of the reasons why it is easier to understand a printed text containing mistakes or jumbled letters than its Braille version [Perea et al. 2015]. To sum up, print reading is about three times faster than tactile reading; listening to audio messages is somewhere in between, but with the help of modern technology enabling users to increase playback speed, audio recordings can match the speed of print reading [Paterson 2016]. There are, however, other issues connected with tactile texts. An experiment conducted on Braille users confirmed that the physical quality of a given text (the height of the dots) affects the reader's certainty and reading speed [Lei et al. 2019]. Moreover, only few PwVD can actually read Braille. In the UK, for example, only an estimated 1% of blind people use Braille. The supply of content in Braille exceeds the demand from users, and new generations are not taught Braille, as they increasingly rely on auditory tools, as well as smartphones and screen reading software [Rose 2012]. The best solution

would be to use both auditory and Braille information, as already mentioned, but if only one method has to be chosen, audio materials seem to be the better choice. Regarding plants, they need to be selected with special care: it is beneficial if they stimulate not only the senses of touch and smell, but also the sense of taste. Plants can be arranged to form colourful sectors in the garden [Trojanowska 2014].

6. Conclusions

The main research questions raised in this article refer to the basic conditions required for inclusive outdoor recreation. The inventory of 15 sensory gardens showed that **outdoor experiences can be accessible to people with visual impairments** if there are **elements that facilitate spatial orientation**, which include intuitive path layout, various types of path surface and smells (which are season-dependent). Surface variety is the most commonly used infrastructural solution in gardens, which improves mobility and stay for blind and partially sighted visitors. Other frequently used elements of the infrastructure include tables, elevated flowerbeds, and ramps. Regarding **techniques for communicating information to blind and partially sighted visitors in sensory gardens**, the most popular touch-based solutions are sensory paths and interactive toys, tactile graphics, and tactile plans.

Outdoor experiences can be encouraged, rethought and redesigned for people with visual impairments in many ways. This goal can be achieved first and foremost by allowing visitors to hear, touch, and smell the surroundings and enabling them to move about freely and independently. The respondents' answers regarding **possibilities of moving independently (spatial orientation and safety) in a known environment; in a new, unknown environment and in a particular sensory garden** indicate that the appropriate arrangement of space in sensory gardens, even during the first visit, greatly facilitates independent movement. Solutions implemented in sensory gardens should be included as elements of the universal design of outdoor recreation areas. In the sensory gardens visited during the study, the blind and partially sighted respondents stressed the usefulness of intuitive path layouts, various types of path surfaces, assistance from other people, as well as textural markings on paths and audio messages. These factors also play a key role in providing the sense of safety, which is mainly the result of spatial order, but also the presence of helpful staff and reliable on-site equipment (security cameras, possibility to call an alarm by pressing a button). In general, the appeal of an outdoor recreation area is mainly determined by specific spots. The respondents mentioned that such spots should include areas with animals (that can be touched, smelled) and plants (that can be tasted), resting areas and areas

for active recreation, offering plenty of *auditory, tactile and olfactory stimuli* which the respondents found to be the most important sensual experiences.

The task of reducing and removing **socio-cultural barriers to outdoor participation** requires holistic actions that target all diagnosed barriers: cultural, environmental and informational ones. Blind and partially sighted respondents not only provided a detailed list of encountered barriers but also solutions they expected regarding the arrangement and design of parks, gardens, and city spaces. Both types of information are crucial in the process of universal design of publicly accessible space.

The results of the study indicate that, from the perspective of persons with visual disabilities, in the process of designing more universally accessible recreation areas, the optimal solution is to focus on elements that are useful to everyone. Such solutions are neither sophisticated nor expensive (i.e. intuitive path layouts, varied path surfaces, orientation landmarks, etc.). When these guidelines are respected, everyone will benefit from better convenience and a greater abundance of multisensory stimuli, which will increase the overall attractiveness of outdoor recreation. The study findings can be used as the basis for recommendations in the field of good practice of universal garden design, which can provide sensory experiences for everyone, including people with visual impairments. The current development of sensory gardens indicates a great interest in outdoor sites of this type, which are conducive to recreation, education, integration, and social inclusion. Solutions applied in sensory gardens should provide inspiration for creating universal gardens, accessible to everyone.

References

- Adevi A.A., Mårtensson F., 2013, Stress rehabilitation through garden therapy: The garden as a place in the recovery from stress, *Urban Forestry and Urban Greening*, 12(2): 230-237.
- Baciero A., Perea M., Gomez P., 2019, Touching your words : Why braille reading is special, *Ciencia Cognitiva*, 13(2): 54-57.
- Bashir R., Bano H., Sajan H.M.R., 2014, Leisure Time Activities of Students with Visual Impairment, *Academic Research International*, 5(5): 186-196.
- Berger S., 2011, The meaning of leisure for older adults living with vision loss, *OTJR Occupation, Participation and Health*, 31(4): 193-199.
- Connell B.R., Jones M., Mace R., Mueller J., Mullick A., Ostroff E., Sanford J., et al., 1997, The principles of universal design, https://projects.ncsu.edu/ncsu/design/cud/about_ud/udprinciplestext.htm [accessed: 22.03.2020].
- Cooper Marcus C., 2016, The Future of Healing Gardens, *Health Environments Research and Design Journal*, 9(2): 172-174.
- Dąbski M., Dudkiewicz, M., 2010, Przystosowanie ogrodu dla niewidomego użytkownika na przykładzie ogrodów sensorycznych w Bolestraszcach, Bucharzewie i Powsinie, *Teka Komisji Architektury, Urbanistyki i Studiów Krajobrazowych*, 6: 7-17.

- Dos Santos L.N., de Carvalho R.J., 2012, Ergonomics and accessibility for people with visual impairment in hotels, *Work*, 41, Suppl 1: 1417-1424. doi:10.3233/WOR-2012-0332-1417.
- Finlay J.M., 2018, Therapeutic landscapes. From exceptional sites of healing to everyday assemblages of well-being, *Routledge Handbook of Health Geography*, Routledge, 116-123.
- Goffman E., 1963, *Stigma. Notes on the Management of Spoiled Identity*, New York – London – Toronto: Schimon & Schuster.
- Gonzalez M.T., Kirkeveld M., 2015, Clinical use of sensory gardens and outdoor environments in Norwegian nursing homes: A cross-sectional e-mail survey, *Issues in Mental Health Nursing*, 36(1): 35-43.
- Hagedorn R., 1988, Environment and opportunity: The potential of horticulture for enriching the life of disabled people, *Clinical Rehabilitation*, 2(3): 249-251.
- Horton J., 2017, Disabilities, urban natures and children's outdoor play, *Social & Cultural Geography*, 18(8): 1152-1174.
- Hussein H., 2009, Sensory Garden in Special Schools : The issues, design and use, *Journal of Design and Built Environment*, 5: 77-95.
- Jakubowski M., Szczepańska, M., Ogonowska-Chrobowska H., 2018, *Ogrody i ścieżki zmysłów w procesie rekreacji i edukacji przyrodniczo-leśnej osób niewidzących i niedowidzących*, archival materials: Specjalny Ośrodek Szkolno-Wychowawczy dla Dzieci Niewidomych w Owińskach.
- Jenkins G.R., Yuen H.K., Vogtle L.K., 2015, Experience of multisensory environments in public space among people with visual impairment, *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 12(8): 8644-8657.
- Jessup G.M., Cornell E., Bundy A.C., 2010, The treasure in leisure activities: Fostering resilience in young people who are blind, *Journal of Visual Impairment and Blindness*, 104(7): 419-430.
- Latkowska M.J., 2009, Ogród bez barier – jak urządzić ogród dostosowany do potrzeb osób z niepełnosprawnością ruchową i sensoryczną, in: B.J. Gawryszewska, B. Rothimel (eds.), *Ogród za oknem. W poszukiwaniu formy*, Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Sztuka Ogrodu Sztuka Krajobrazu, 96-108.
- Latkowska M.J., Miernik M., 2012, Therapeutic gardens – places of passive and active “green therapy”, *Architektura. Czasopismo Techniczne*, 8A(109): 245-250.
- Lei D., Stepien-Bernab, N.N., Moras, V.S., MacKeben M., 2019, Effect of modulating braille dot height on reading regressions, *PLoS ONE*, 14(4): 1-18, <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0214799>.
- Lotz D., 1997, Zum Erfahrungsfeld zur Entfaltung der Sinne (Hugo Kükelhaus), in: M. Dittmann (ed.), *Entfaltung Aller Sinne: Projektbuch Für Den Kindergarten*, Frankfurt: Beltz.
- Luescher A., 2006, Experience field for the development of the senses: Hugo Kükelhaus' phenomenology of consciousness, *International Journal of Art and Design Education*, 25(1): 67-73.
- Pasha S., 2013, Barriers to garden visitation in children's hospitals, *Health Environments Research and Design Journal*, 6(4): 76-96.
- Paterson M., 2016, *Seeing with the Hands: Blindness, Vision and Touch after Descartes, Seeing with the hands: blindness, vision, and touch after Descartes*. Edinburgh University Press.

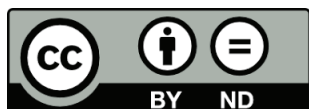
- Pawłowska K., 2008, Ogród sensoryczny, in: S. Bernat (ed.), *Dźwięk w krajobrazie jako przedmiot badań interdyscyplinarnych*, Lublin: Instytut Nauk o Ziemi UMCS, Komisja Krajobrazu Kulturowego PTG, 143-152.
- Perea M., Jiménez M., Martín-Suesta M., Gómez P., 2015, Letter position coding across modalities: Braille and sighted reading of sentences with jumbled words, *Psychonomic Bulletin and Review*, 22(2): 531-536.
- Pudelska K., Dudkiewicz, M., Durla W., Parzymies M., 2015, Dobór roślin do ogrodu sensorycznego, in: A. Wdowiak, A. Tucki (eds.), *Aspekty środowiskowo-rekreacyjne i prawne zdrowia człowieka*, Wrocław: Międzynarodowe Towarzystwo Wspierania i Rozwoju Technologii Medycznej, 61-73.
- Reeve A., Nieberler-Walker K., Desha C., 2017, Healing gardens in children's hospitals: Reflections on benefits, preferences and design from visitors' books, *Urban Forestry and Urban Greening*, 26: 48-56.
- Relf D., 1981, Dynamics of horticultural therapy, *Rehabilitation Literature*, 42(5-6): 147-150.
- Rose D., 2012, Braille is spreading but who's using it?, *BBC News*, 13 February, <https://www.bbc.com/news/magazine-16984742> [accessed: 19.02.2020].
- Sensory Trust, 2003, *Sensory garden design advice*, 21 February, <http://www.sensorytrust.org.uk/information/factsheets/sensory-garden-4.html> [accessed: 25.02.2020].
- Siu K.W.M., 2013, Accessible park environments and facilities for the visually impaired, *Facilities*, 31(13): 590-609.
- Söderback I., Söderström M., Schäländer E., 2004, Horticultural therapy: The "healing garden" and gardening in rehabilitation measures at Danderyd Hospital Rehabilitation Clinic, Sweden, *Pediatric Rehabilitation*, 7(4): 245-260.
- Story M.F., Mueller J.L., Mace R.L., 1998, *The Universal Design File: Designing for People of All Ages and Abilities*, Revised Edition, NC State University, The Center for Universal Design., Raleigh.
- Szczańska M., Wilkaniec A., Łabędzka D., Micińska J., 2013, Non-Visual Perception of Landscape – Use of Hearing and Other Senses in the Perception of Selected Spaces in the City of Poznań, *Teka Komisji Architektury, Urbanistyki i Studiów Krajobrazowych*, 9:68-79.
- Trojanowska M., 2014, Sensory gardens inclusively designed for visually impaired users, *PhD Interdisciplinary Journal*, 1: 309-317.
- Ujma-Wasowicz K., Fross K., 2014, "Greenhouse of Senses" – A New Quality of Educational Space for the Blind, in: J. Charytonowicz (ed.), *Advances in Human Factors and Sustainable Infrastructure*, AHFE Conference, Las Vegas, 8262-8271.
- Worth N., 2013, Visual Impairment in the City: Young People's Social Strategies for Independent Mobility, *Urban Studies*, 50(3): 574-586.
- Woźnicka M., Janeczko E., Nowacka W.Ł., 2014, Wykorzystanie roślinności leśnej w edukacji leśnej osób z dysfunkcją narządu wzroku, *Studia i Materiały CEPL w Rogowie*, 38(1): 219-225.
- Woźny A., Lauda, A., 2004, Analiza oczekiwań osób z dysfunkcją wzroku wobec cech i funkcji ogrodów, *Architektura Krajobrazu*, 37(4): 69-73.
- Wysocki M., 2010, *Projektowanie otoczenia dla osób niewidomych. Pozawzrokowa percepcja przestrzeni*, Gdańsk: Wydawnictwo Politechniki Gdańskiej.

- Wysocki M., 2012, Projektowanie uniwersalne – równość praw poprzez dostępność, *Biuletyn Rzecznika Praw Obywatelskich*, 6: 26-33.
- Zajadacz A., 2015, Evolution of models of disability as a basis for further policy changes in accessible tourism, *Journal of Tourism Futures*, 1(3): 189-202.
- Zajadacz A., Lubarska A., 2019, Sensory gardens in the context of promoting well-being of people with visual impairments in the outdoor sites, *International Journal of Spa and Wellness*, 2(1): 3-17.
- Żółkowska T., 2016, Uniwersalne projektowanie przestrzeni osób z niepełnosprawnością, *Niepełnosprawność. Dyskursy Pedagogiki Specjalnej*, 21: 66-76.

Ogrody sensoryczne jako przestrzeń rekreacyjna dostosowana do potrzeb osób z niepełnosprawnością wzrokową

Abstrakt. Podjęte badania koncentrowały się na potrzebach osób z niepełnosprawnością wzrokową w zakresie dostosowania infrastruktury przestrzeni rekreacyjnej ogrodów sensorycznych. Celem badań była odpowiedź na następujące pytania: (1) W jaki sposób udostępniać przestrzeń rekreacyjną dla osób z niepełnosprawnością wzrokową? (2) W jaki sposób weryfikować zagospodarowanie przestrzeni rekreacyjnej pod kątem potrzeb osób z niepełnosprawnością wzrokową? (3) Jakie są bariery w uczestnictwie osób z niepełnosprawnością wzrokową w rekreacji na świeżym powietrzu w ogrodach sensorycznych? W poszukiwaniu odpowiedzi na powyższe pytania wykorzystano materiały wtórne oraz dane pierwotne. Do zastosowanych metod badań należały: inwentaryzacja wybranych ogrodów sensorycznych oraz wywiady z osobami niewidomymi i słabowidzącymi. Badania przeprowadzono w okresie czerwiec-sierpień 2018 r. Objęto nimi 15 ogrodów. Obiekty te znajdują się w różnych regionach Polski, w miastach, na obszarach wiejskich i obszarach cennych przyrodniczo. Wywiady (32) z osobami niewidomymi i słabowidzącymi przeprowadzono bezpośrednio w badanych ogrodach we współpracy z Polskim Związkiem Niewidomych. Wyniki przeprowadzonych analiz stanowią podstawę do sformułowania rekomendacji w zakresie uniwersalnego projektowania ogrodów, które mogą zapewnić wrażenia sensoryczne wszystkim, w tym osobom z dysfunkcjami wzroku. Obserwowany rozwój ogrodów sensorycznych jest związany z ich multisensorycznym oddziaływaniem i pełnieniem wielu funkcji (m.in. rekreacyjnej, edukacyjnej, integracyjnej). Zastosowane w ogrodach sensorycznych rozwiązania powinny być uwzględnione przy planowaniu uniwersalnych parków i ogrodów, dostępnych dla wszystkich.

Słowa kluczowe: ogrody sensoryczne, przestrzeń rekreacyjna, osoby z niepełnosprawnością wzrokową, osoby z niepełnosprawnością, projektowanie uniwersalne



Copyright and license: This article is published under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution – NoDerivatives 4.0 International (CC BY-ND 4.0) License, <https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nd/4.0/>

Suggested citation: Zajadacz A., Lubarska M., 2020, Sensory gardens as places for outdoor recreation adapted to the needs of people with visual impairments, *Studia Periegetica*, 2(30): 25-43, DOI: 10.5604/01.3001.0014.3170.

AGNIESZKA NIEZGODA*, IZABELA WYSZOWSKA**

The significance of the Renaissance in Poland according to tourists' opinions on TripAdvisor concerning three major Renaissance landmarks

Abstract. The purpose of the study was to analyze the role of the Renaissance in Poland and the way it is reflected in tourists' reviews. The authors focused in particular on tourists' awareness concerning the importance of three major Renaissance landmarks located in three Polish cities, namely the Wawel Royal Castle in Cracow, the Town Hall in Poznań and the Old Town in Zamość. Methods used in the empirical part include an analysis of reviews posted on the TripAdvisor website by Polish tourists who have visited these sites, taking into account the historical conditions underlying the development of the Renaissance in Poland and its characteristic features. The authors used the *desk research* method. The pilot study described in the article is an introduction to further, in-depth qualitative research. The results indicate that only 10% of all tourists' reviews referred to the Renaissance character of the sites. The reviews indicate that most tourists lack a solid knowledge of history and architecture, and were most likely not inspired to visit the analyzed sites because of their links to the Renaissance. No reviews were found demonstrating any personal background in history or suggesting that the Renaissance was the reason for visiting these particular sites. So far, references to the Renaissance in tourists' reviews of Polish landmarks have not been discussed in the literature. The article can, therefore, be regarded as a first contribution to the study of this issue.

Keywords: Renaissance, travel motivations, tourist reviews, TripAdvisor

JEL Codes: Z32, Z11, J26

* Poznań University of Economics and Business (Poland), Department of International Economics, Email: agnieszka.niezgoda@ue.poznan.pl, orcid.org/0000-0002-2456-1633.

** Poznan University of Physical Education (Poland), Department of Tourism and Recreation, Email: wyszowska@awf.poznan.pl, orcid.org/0000-0002-6399-1521.

1. Introduction

The early modern period introduced a series of interesting artistic styles, including the Renaissance, Mannerism, Baroque, Rococo, and Classicism – all of which drew inspiration from the achievements of past periods, including the Antiquity and Middle Ages, and creatively used them for their own purposes. The heritage of any historical period includes relics of both material and spiritual culture. The former include architectural landmarks, which very often become tourist attractions. One artistic style that made a particular impact on the image of towns is the Renaissance. It arrived in Poland in the early 16th century as an already established and mature style, and continued to develop for the next 150 years. King Sigismund I (1467-1548) from the Jagiellonian dynasty was its great advocate and promoter. The new style was disseminated in Poland by Italian artists brought to the royal court in Kraków by the wife of king Sigismund I, Italian duchess Bona Sforza, and their son, Sigismund II Augustus. It is also noteworthy that the 16th century is referred to as “the Golden Age of the Polish culture” and that the distinctive architectural masterpieces of the Polish Renaissance are important contributions to the European Renaissance heritage. Currently, as tourist attractions, they can be an inspiration to visit a certain place. Following the hypothesis concerning the importance of individualization and an increase in education levels among modern consumers [Reich, Pechlaner, Hoelzl 2006; Niezgodna 2013b, 2017], the authors pose the following question: how interested are Polish tourists in Renaissance architecture in Poland and what do they know about it? The purpose of this article is to analyze the role of the Renaissance in Poland and the way it is reflected in tourists’ reviews. The emphasis is placed on tourists’ awareness concerning the importance of three major landmarks located in three Polish cities, namely: the Wawel Royal Castle in Cracow, the Town Hall in Poznań and the Old Town in Zamość. The sites were selected because of their special significance in the development of Renaissance art in Poland.

2. Features and development of the Renaissance in Poland

The Renaissance spread throughout Europe in the 16th century and became a great artistic, philosophical, and religious movement. It had arisen one hundred years earlier and made direct references to the achievements of Roman and Greek Antiquity. Italian humanists followed the principle of *Homo sum, humani nihil a me alienum esse puto* – so the man became the center of their attention, along

with earthly life and all its beauties. This entailed a weakening of the Catholic Church's role, and therefore challenged the medieval concepts of theocentricism and universalism. In the previous era, clergymen were in charge of art and its canon. In the Renaissance, individualism took the front stage, supported by the ancient institution of patronage.

The Reformation, initiated by Martin Luther in 1517, brought about new religious doctrines and new denominations, which gained many followers among the upper classes. This led to a decrease in the number of new Catholic churches in Poland. The one exception is the collegiate church in Zamość, which was the only entirely new temple built during the "Golden Age" in the 16th century [Rożek 2015]. In most cases, old Gothic churches were renovated or their interiors adapted to the new style.

On the other hand, the number of secular and private works of art increased, including stylish estates, villas, and palaces, as well as portraits and gravestones. In the category of religious buildings, private funerary chapels – which commemorated and glorified magnates, noble families, or church officials – became particularly popular.

The Renaissance arrived in Poland – at the capital, Cracow – in the early 16th century, but its initial impact was limited to the royal court and aristocracy. The provincial part of the country remained under a heavy influence of the Gothic art for many more years. However, the new style quickly gained popularity and blended in with the local tradition. Pointed arches were replaced by classic Roman arches; lierne, cross-ribbed, and diamond vaults were abandoned and replaced by coffered ceilings; and the dome was back in style. Facades and courtyards were decorated with loggias and galleries. Attics were a characteristic feature popular in this period. These decorative walls adorning the topmost part of the facade were found on palaces, manors, townhouses, and town halls, and are strongly associated with the Polish Renaissance. Renaissance works of art were generously embellished with ornaments inspired by ancient art (astragal, pearl, palmette, arabesque, mauresque etc.). Under the influence of the Dutch Renaissance, elements such as scrolls, panoplies, herms and putti also gained popularity.

In the Polish Renaissance architecture, three major periods can be distinguished¹ [Kozakiewicz, Kozakiewicz 1976; Orzechowska-Kowalska 2003; Rożek 2015]:

- 1500-1550 – the rule of Sigismund I the Old, strong Italian influences (mainly Florence), with Gothic elements blended with the Renaissance;
- 1550-1580 – the period of the patronage of Sigismund II Augustus and Anna Jagiellon; the style becomes more popular in Poland and is adapted to the

¹ In Kozakiewicz, Kozakiewicz [1976]: 1500-1545 (early period), 1545-1575 (the style settles), 1575-1640 (bloom and slow demise).

local needs thanks to Italian artists brought to Poland from the Italian-Swiss borderland; attics become widespread and increase in grandeur;

– 1580-1640 – the period of the first elected kings, the emergence of Mannerist forms under the influence of the Dutch Renaissance (Gdańsk), as well as elements foreshadowing the next style to come – the Baroque.

Among many diverse buildings of the Polish Renaissance, two types of secular constructions prevail: manors and bourgeois townhouses. They were often constructed on the basis of existing Gothic buildings or built from scratch.

3. The Wawel Royal Castle, the Poznań Town Hall, and the Old Town in Zamość – prime examples of Renaissance architecture in Poland

When the Gothic castle in the Wawel Hill became the residence of the next king from the Jagiellonian dynasty, Sigismund I the Old, a patron well-aware of the new artistic trends, it underwent massive refurbishment as early as the first half of the 16th century, which made it the greatest Renaissance palace in this part of Europe. Under the rule of king Alexander (1501-1506), the extension of the western wing was started, which was meant to be the residence of the king's mother, Elizabeth of Austria. Sigismund I, like his brothers, was educated in the spirit of humanism by an Italian teacher, Filippo Buonaccorsi, called Callimachus. He later stayed at the court of his brother Vladislaus in Hungary, but came into contact with Renaissance art even earlier, at the time of the rule of Matthias Corvinus, the previous king of Hungary. When he assumed the Polish throne, he continued the work, which was completed in 1535. His patronage set new examples in Polish art. Beyond any doubt, this was also due to his marriage to an Italian duchess from the great house of Sforza, famous for its patronage over artists.

The residence for the royal couple in Wawel owes its shape to architects brought to Poland by the king from Florence: Francesco Fiorentino, and Bartolomeo Berrecci, as well as Benedykt Sandomierzanin [Przybyszewski 1948; Ratajczak 2011]. The work of art created under their supervision over 30 years combined elements of Gothic and Renaissance art. The real novelty of the castle were the distinctive galleries surrounding the courtyard, heavily ornamented with polichrome, which were both functional and decorative (Fig. 1). The interiors of the castle, particularly the impressive second floor, also referred to as the *piano nobile*, were completely changed. The so-called Audience Hall was adorned with a coffered ceiling featuring a set of sculpted human heads (the so-called Wawel heads), made by the German wood artist, Sebastian Tauerbach.



Fig. 1. The Wawel Royal Castle Courtyard

Source: Izabela Wyszowska. Private collection.

After the reconstruction of their main residence, the Jagiellonians went on to refurbish their castles in Vilnius, Warsaw, and Niepołomice. What the royals did in terms of bringing the Italian trends to Poland was widely acclaimed, and subsequently copied by Polish noblemen, who built or rebuilt their estates to resemble the Wawel castle. Examples include properties in Ogródzieniec, Pieskowa Skała, Kurozwęki, Książ Wielki, and later in the period of Mannerism, in Krasiczyn or Baranów Sandomierski.

Along with the refurbishment of the Royal Castle, the king decided to build a funerary chapel of the Jagiellonian house (the so-called Sigismund's Chapel) next to the Kraków cathedral (Fig. 2). The work was supervised by Bartolomeo Berrecci, and the resulting building was considered a gem of the Florentine Renaissance north of the Alps, and a second (after the Wawel Castle) archetype strongly affecting Polish architecture. Both the small square building with a dome, magnificent interiors and rich ornamentation, and the double-storied gravestone housed inside, typical for the Polish Renaissance and initiated in Wawel by Sigismund I and his son Sigismund Augustus, inspired a number of bishops, magnates,



Fig. 2. Sigismund's Chapel. The Wawel Cathedral

Source: Izabela Wyszowska. Private collection.

noblemen, and even rich burghers, who copied the royals on a large scale. In the years 1580-1620, almost a hundred funerary chapels similar to this one were built in Poland. Examples include the Firlej chapel in Bejsce, the Kościelecki chapel in Kościelec near Inowrocław, and the chapel of bishop Padniewski in Wawel and bishop Uchański in Łowicz, to name a few [Kaczorowski 1991; Łoziński 1973]. In Greater Poland alone, one can find many examples of inspirations drawn both from the Sigismund Chapel and the form of the Sigismund's' gravestone (the most notable example is the Górką family gravestone in the Poznań cathedral, made by an Italian sculptor working in Kraków, Girolamo Canavesi, who decorated the cornice of the gravestone with his elaborate signature).

In the second half of the 16th century, artists from the borderland of Lombardy and Switzerland became the dominant group among Italian artists working in Poland. They came from three small states – the cantons of Ticino and Grisons, and the area near Lake Como north of Milan, so they were referred to by their origin: Ticinese, Grigioni, and Comaschi. They emigrated from their native land to seek employment throughout Europe. The Comaschi specialized

in architecture and sculpture, and practically monopolized these services. They worked in Poland until the times of Enlightenment, and made an impact on the Polish Mannerism, Baroque, and Classicism [Kaczorowski 1991]. One notable Comasco was Giovanni Battista di Quadro from Lugano, who came to Poznań and performed the reconstruction of the Town Hall in the years 1550-1560. In the Renaissance, reconstructions of Gothic town halls were common, with a varying number of new Renaissance elements and decorations added to the existing structures. The Poznań Town Hall exemplifies this strategy, and other examples can be found in Chełmno, Szydłowiec, Tarnów, and Sandomierz.

G.B. Quadro elongated the original Gothic structure of the Poznań Town Hall towards the west, giving it its rectangular shape, and added a third story with an attic. He decorated the facade with a beautiful three-leveled loggia, inspired by the landmark of ancient Rome – the Colosseum (Fig. 3). In his work, he followed an architectural treatise by Sebastiano Serlio, which provided many solutions used during the reconstruction. Owing to G.B. Quadro, the interiors of the Poznań Town Hall gained a luxurious, impressive design, including the magnificent vault in the Renaissance Hall, also referred to as the Great Hall. Imagery on the facade of the Town Hall corresponded with the iconography of the vault, portraying the essential knowledge of the Renaissance, with heraldic, mythological, biblical, and astrological motifs. The meaning of these portrayals is the source of heated debates. It is accepted that they depict bravery as the most important virtue, needed to provide the city and the country with prosperity, and rewarded with an afterlife in heaven (paradise). The author of this artistic form was, in all likelihood, the mayor of Poznań of the time, Kasper Goski – known for his interest in astrology [Pazder (ed.) 2003: 72]. The well-preserved vault is a unique decoration of the former seat of municipal authorities.

The Central European model for towns was shaped in the late Middle Ages, in accordance with the principles of the so-called Magdeburg Law. Until the 18th century, towns were built based on a plan and institutions developed in the Middle Ages, during the rule of Piast and Jagiellonian dynasties. However, in Renaissance Italy, a new concept for towns was born, called *citta ideale*. In Poland, the “ideal town” concept was implemented on a large scale by Jan Zamoyski, the Grand Hetman and Chancellor of the Crown, one of the most prominent characters in the history of Poland. Having acquired wealth and position in Poland, he decided to erect a new town as the capital of his estate – Zamość. Built from scratch in 1580, by the late 16th century, it had become one of the most important economic and cultural centers of the country. Bernardo Morando from Venice was commissioned to design the town. He managed to achieve a balance between a harmonious architectural arrangement and functionality required in a town. It is in the shape of a pentagon with a “chessboard” composition and a square palace of its founder within. Two great axes were created as transport routes. One led



Fig. 3. Poznań Town Hall

Source: Izabela Wyszowska. Private collection.

to the Zamoyski residence through the market with the Town Hall and auxiliary markets (Salt and Water markets), and the second – from the collegiate church to the Zamoyski Academy [Orzechowska-Kowalska 2003].

The life of people in town was centered around the square market, which was surrounded by arcaded townhouses with stores on the ground floor. Houses were capped with impressive attics (the most interesting examples include the Tellani, Link, and “Armenian” townhouses). As opposed to the medieval market, the central part of the square in Zamość remained empty. The Town Hall, decorated with

a high tower, was incorporated into a row of townhouses (Fig. 4). Many Poles, Armenians, and Russians came to the new town. Zamość became a strong trade center, a modern, unconquered fortress, the residence of the landowner and the capital of his estate. Its collegiate church, built in a Mannerist style, was also the final resting place for the Zamoyski family, and its unique and decorative interiors were a source of inspiration for many.

The above-mentioned landmarks – the refurbished Wawel Castle, the Poznań Town Hall and the “ideal town” of Zamość, were an important artistic contribution to the cultural heritage of the Renaissance in Poland, and shaped the subsequent stages of its development. The Old Town in Cracow (including the Wawel Castle) and the Old Town in Zamość are included in the prestigious UNESCO World Heritage List and are therefore particularly attractive for tourists. But the Poznań Town Hall also has high artistic value, with one of the first modern facades in Poland, and attracts large numbers of tourists to the capital of Greater Poland. It is located in the city center, and apart from its Renaissance beauty, it



Fig. 4. The market in Zamość

Source: Izabela Wyszowska. Private collection.

features daily “Poznań goats” shows, which are a symbol of the city and a distinctive tourist attraction.

The extent to which tourists are prepared to appreciate these gems of the Polish Renaissance, how aware they are of their significance, and how motivated they are to travel in order to see them with their own eyes, is demonstrated by the conducted study.

4. The Renaissance in travel motivations and its reflection in tourists’ reviews – empirical evidence

The contemporary tourist market is characterized by individualization – tourists seek to satisfy their travel needs according to their own interests [Butler 2006; Reich, Pechlaner, Hoelzl 2006; Niezgoda 2013b; 2017]. The described Renaissance historical sites are tourist attractions, which means they influence people’s willingness to visit a certain location. One can perceive them as “motivators”, factors that provide a sense satisfaction with their presence [Kozioł 2013: 136] For tourists, such satisfaction arises when they visit their desired destination. Thus, this desire is rooted in the human system of needs and the process of motivation. For the purpose of the present article, it can be assumed that people who post reviews on social media want to share information with other users (potential tourists). Therefore, it can be expected that a voluntary and spontaneous review is based on a personal perception of the visited location, includes the most striking impressions formed during the visit, and covers those features of the site which they consider the most important. The purpose of analysis undertaken in the study was to describe the evident content of reviews posted by tourists [Szczepaniak 2012].

The analysed reviews were posted on Trip Advisor, one of the most popular social media websites. Such data can be used for qualitative analysis of the content and intentions of the author [Zajadacz 2017; Nowacki 2017; Niezgoda 2017].

5. Study design

In order to verify how the Renaissance affects various people, tourists were selected as a study group. A non-reactive research method was selected for the study, specifically the *desk research* method. Given its exploratory in character, the study aimed at recording facts rather than codifying or valuating data. The

authors primarily focused on qualitative analysis of the reviews, i.e. examining authors' intentions as well as recording frequently occurring categories and ones that were missing.

The analysis only included reviews posted by individual tourists, in order to avoid bias caused by the presence of a tour guide. The sample consisted of 300 most recent reviews posted before the start of data collection (August 12-15, 2019), 100 per every landmark: the Wawel Royal Castle in Cracow, the Poznań Town Hall, and the Old Town in Zamość. It was assumed that for the purpose of qualitative content analysis the sample should be large enough to reflect motivations and knowledge of respondents and does not have to represent characteristics of the population [Flick 2011] and that the researcher defines the population and selects instruments for collecting and analyzing data that are fit for the research purpose and the questions posed. At the same time, in this kind of study, there is no need to focus on the characteristics of respondents [Pasikowski 2015; Szczepaniak 2012]. Therefore, the only relevant information about respondents was the fact that they visited, on their own, one of the three above-mentioned landmarks and posted a review in Polish on the Trip Advisor website.

The content of a review reflects the significance of elements noticed by its author. In order to avoid the impact of seasonality on respondents' impressions, we collected reviews posted over the period of one calendar year (August 1, 2018 – August 1, 2019). 100 reviews about each of the three landmarks were selected.

6. Results

It was assumed that tourists who visited any of the three sites described their impressions according to their interests, knowledge and education, and therefore each entry reflects their main impressions and suggestions for other tourists who would like to visit the site. It was found that only 5% of the 100 analyzed reviews of the Wawel Royal Castle include any reference to the Renaissance. Among those, three mention Queen Bona, and one mentions Italy. *The castle is beautiful thanks to Queen Bona, it has some elements characteristic not only of the Renaissance, but also of northern Italy.*

With respect to the Poznań Town Hall, references to the Renaissance appear in 11% of the reviews, including four mentions in the title of the review: *The Renaissance town hall (2), A magnificent, spectacular and without any doubt the most beautiful Renaissance town hall in Poland; One of the most beautiful Renaissance landmarks in Poland.*

4 reviews of the Poznań Town Hall, mention the architect, G.B. Quadro, and 3 contain a reference to his Italian origins. In one review, the author describes the

architectural (Renaissance) features of the Town Hall in detail and with evident architectural knowledge.

Among the three analyzed sites, the Old Town in Zamość (along with the Old Town in Cracow) is listed in the UNESCO World Heritage List, and maybe this was why the number of reviews including a reference to the Renaissance was the highest (14%) for this site. 5 reviews include references to the Renaissance in the title: *Renaissance* (2), *the Renaissance gem* (2), *This is a real gem of Italian Renaissance*. Tourists correctly associate the style of the site with the Italian Renaissance.

5 reviews mention Italy, and 3 contain a direct reference in the title (e.g. *A beautiful town in Italian style*, *The Florence of the north*). In this case, it is easy to trace the link between the visited Renaissance sites and the birthplace of this style – Florence. The reviews do not contain any references to the architect (Bernardo Morando), but 6 do include the phrase *Zamość is the ideal town*, which was the goal for both its builders and founders, and is also the reason for its inclusion in the UNESCO World Heritage List. The analyzed reviews of Zamość are superficial, and none seems to be based on solid historical knowledge.

7. Conclusions, discussion, limitations

The introduction of the most important elements of the Italian Renaissance and humanist ideas in Poland undoubtedly fostered the flourishing of culture, science, and arts, and affected the perception of religious tolerance and internal peace in the country. In this period, the role of the Polish Commonwealth in Europe significantly increased. The 16th century is referred to as “the Golden Age of the Polish culture” [Knaflewska, Kot 2008]. The above-mentioned distinctive masterpieces of the Polish Renaissance architecture are important contributions to the European Renaissance heritage. Now, they attract tourists, who can (with a lesser or greater degree of awareness) appreciate the works of the Renaissance artists.

The presented results indicate that only 10% of all reviews in the sample referred to the Renaissance features of the sites: including 5 reviews of the Wawel Royal Castle in Cracow, 11 reviews of the Poznań Town Hall, and 14 reviews of the Old Town in Zamość. The reviews indicate that the vast majority of tourists do not have a solid knowledge of history or architecture, or that they were most likely not inspired to visit the analyzed sites because of their links to the Renaissance. After a thorough analysis of the reviews it can be concluded that most tourists posted their reviews under the influence of emotions and experiences, often focusing on issues concerning the service, restaurant menus, facilities, or general

ambiance. No reviews were found demonstrating tourists' personal background in history or suggesting that the Renaissance was the reason for visiting these particular sites. However, it can be concluded that by visiting popular historical landmarks, the tourists engaged in cultural tourism, which is characterized by a willingness to learn more about people, their lifestyle, arts, and architecture [Panich et al. 2014: 49]. Cultural tourism involves many senses and is part of "experience tourism" [Nieżgoda 2013b; Hall, Zeppel, 1990]. Therefore, descriptions that involve an emotional approach and personal experiences of tourists cannot be ignored [Nieżgoda, Nowacki 2020]. It is exemplified by an excerpt from a review of Zamość: *It's like you go back in time. A completely out-of-this-world experience.*

Modern tourists want to see and experience as much as possible [Nieżgoda 2013a], but their consumerist and aesthetic attitudes are mixed. This affects their opinion on landmarks and tourist attractions. According to the concept developed by William Gartner [1993], the image of a place is composed of the following elements:

- the cognitive element: knowledge regarding the place,
- the emotional (affective) element: the feelings towards the place,
- the behavioral element: the willingness to undertake certain actions related to the place.

The present study indicates that the image of the analyzed sites in the sampled reviews was dominated by the affective element. Owing to superficiality and speed of information transfer, modern tourists replace the cognitive element (knowledge about the place) with the emotional one. It must also be noted that in studies based on content analysis, a freedom of interpretation is the natural consequence of the instability of meanings in the written text, however this does not preclude an in-depth reflection on the content and character of the mass media texts [Szczepaniak 2012].

The authors are aware that the reliability of presented findings is limited by the spontaneous and hasty nature of reviews and the general overabundance of information in the media, especially in the Internet [Nieżgoda 2013b]. Similar studies are also burdened with the so-called "humanistic coefficient" [Znaniński 1934], since they are based on data collected for another purpose than what authors of these studies had in mind, and therefore are affected by experiences of data providers (in our case, tourists posting reviews on Trip Advisor).

The three sites were selected as most representative examples for a practical examination of the research problem addressed in the article. Because the study was not strictly quantitative, the authors did not analyse any patterns in different categories of statements made by particular groups of respondents. Moreover, when an Internet website is used as a source of information, it is often difficult to obtain precise information about respondents. An in-depth analysis of motivations of particular individuals would probably lead to more specific conclusions.

References

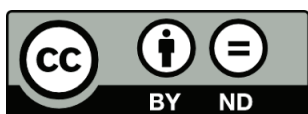
- Butler R., 2006, Volatile demand for tourism? – We can only market efficiently to what we know, rather than to what we imagine, in: P. Keller, T. Bieger (eds.), *Marketing efficiency in tourism. Coping with volatile demand*, Berlin: Erich Schmidt Verlag, 13-22.
- Flick U., 2011, *Projektowanie badań jakościowych*, Warszawa: Wyd. Naukowe PWN.
- Gartner W., 1993, Image formation process, *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 2/3:191-215.
- Hall C.M., Zeppel H., 1990, Cultural and Heritage Tourism: The New Grand Tour?, *Historic Environment*, 7(3/4): 86-98.
- Kaczorowski B., 1991, *O sztuce w Polsce*, Warszawa: Wyd. Fundacji „Historia pro Futuro”.
- Knaflawska J., Kot W., 2008, *Księga kultury polskiej*, Poznań: Publicat.
- Kozakiewicz H., Kozakiewicz S., 1976. *Renesans w Polsce*, Warszawa: Arkady.
- Kozioł L., 2013, Koncepcja klasyfikacji czynników motywacji turystycznej, *International Journal of Contemporary Management*, 12(1): 132-139.
- Łoziński J.Z., 1973, *Grobowe kaplice kopułowe w Polsce 1520-1620*, Warszawa: PWN.
- Niezgoda A., 2013a, The Role of Experience in Consumer Behaviour in the tourism market. The Concept of Experience Economy and Experiential Marketing, *Folia Turistica*, 28(2): 93-107.
- Niezgoda A., 2013b, Prosumers in the tourism market: the characteristics and determinants of their behaviour, *Poznań University of Economics Review*, 13(4): 130-140.
- Niezgoda A., 2017, Kształtowanie wizerunku miejsc poprzez relacje z podróży – ujęcie historyczne i współczesne, *Prace i Studia Geograficzne*, 62(2): 121-134.
- Niezgoda A., Nowacki M., 2020, Experiencing nature: physical activity, beauty and tension in Tatras National Park. Analysis of TripAdvisor reviews, *Sustainability*, 12(2): 1-15, doi.org/10.3390/su12020601.
- Nowacki M., 2017, Atrakcje turystyczne światowych metropolii w opinii użytkowników TripAdvisora, *Studia Peregrinatio*, 3(19): 13-31.
- Orzechowska-Kowalska K., 2003, *Dzieje architektury inaczej*, Kraków: Drukarnia GS.
- Pasikowski S., 2015, Czy wielkość jest niezbędna? O rozmiarze w badaniach jakościowych, *Przegląd Badań Edukacyjnych*, 21(2): 195-211.
- Panich W., Maneenetr T., Kunarucks T., Promsaka T., Sakolnakorn N., 2014, The Management Strategy of Cultural Tourism: A Case Study of Sakon Nakhon Province, Thailand, *Asian Social Science*, 10(5): 48-54.
- Pazder J. (ed.), 2003, *Poznań, przewodnik po zabytkach i historii*, Poznań: Wydawnictwo Miejskie.
- Przybyszewski B., 1948, Benedykt Sandomierzanin, budowniczy królewski z pierwszej połowy XVI wieku, *Sprawozdania PAU*, t. 49, no. 9: 272-274.
- Ratajczak T., 2011, *Mistrz Benedykt – królewski architekt Zygmunta I*, Kraków: Universitas.
- Reich F., Pechlaner H., Hoelzl B., 2006, Price satisfaction in the hotel industry, in: T. Keller, T. Bieger (eds.), *Marketing efficiency in tourism. Coping with volatile demand*, Berlin: Erich Schmidt Verlag, 107-116.

- Rożek M., 2015, *Z dziejów sztuki polskiej, X-XVIII wiek*, Kraków: Wydawnictwo WAM.
- Szczepaniak K., 2012, Zastosowanie analizy treści w badaniach artykułów prasowych – refleksje metodologiczne, *Acta Universitatis Lodzianis, Folia Sociologica*, 42: 83-112.
- Zajadacz A., 2017, Dyssatisfakcja w przestrzeni turystycznej. Negatywne opinie u użytkowników TripAdvisor na temat głównych atrakcji turystycznych wybranych miast w Polsce, *Prace i Studia Geograficzne*, 62(3): 63-88.
- Znaniecki F., 1934, *The Method of Sociology*, New York: Farrar & Rinehart.

Znaczenie renesansu w Polsce w opinii turystów na portalu TripAdvisor na przykładzie Krakowa, Poznania i Zamościa

Abstrakt. Celem artykułu jest analiza roli renesansu w Polsce i jej odzwierciedlenia w opiniach turystów. W szczególności skoncentrowano się na świadomości turystów dotyczącej znaczenia i rangi trzech najważniejszych zabytków tej epoki, które wybrano dla potrzeb artykułu (Zamek Królewski na Wawelu, Ratusz w Poznaniu oraz Stare Miasto w Zamościu). Na tle historycznych uwarunkowań rozwoju renesansu i jego cech w Polsce, w części empirycznej artykułu dokonano analizy opinii na portalu TripAdvisor polskich turystów odwiedzających te obiekty. Autorki zastosowały metodę badawczą *desk research* (analizę danych zastanych). Badanie ma charakter pilotażowy, a artykuł stanowi wstęp do dalszych pogłębionych badań jakościowych. Wyniki wskazują, że tylko 10% wśród wszystkich badanych opinii turystów odnosiło się do renesansowego charakteru tych obiektów. Zatem jako konkluzję można przyjąć, że na podstawie opinii nie można stwierdzić, że turyści posiadają rzetelną wiedzę historyczną i architektoniczną ani że renesans stanowił inspirację do odwiedzenia analizowanych miejsc. Zasadniczo nie znaleziono komentarzy, które świadczyłyby o przygotowaniu historycznym, a przede wszystkim o znaczeniu epoki odrodzenia w wyborze obiektów jako motywacji podróży turystycznej. W literaturze dotyczącej opinii turystów nie poruszano dotąd odniesień do zabytków renesansu w Polsce. Artykuł może mieć zatem charakter przyczynkarski do analizy tego problemu.

Słowa kluczowe: renesans, motywacje podróży, opinie turystów, TripAdvisor



Copyright and license: This article is published under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution – NoDerivatives 4.0 International (CC BY-ND 4.0) License, <https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nd/4.0/>

Suggested citation: Niezgoda A., Wyszowska I., 2020, The significance of the Renaissance in Poland according to tourists' opinions on TripAdvisor concerning three major Renaissance landmarks, *Studia Periegetica*, 2(30): 45-59, DOI: 10.5604/01.3001.0014.3168.

DANIEL BORODEŃKO*, OLGA ILONA SMOLEŃSKA**

Identification of benefits and challenges associated with the work of a hotel animator

Abstract. During a single season, animators work with several thousand hotel guests. Parents and their children expect entertainment and attractions at a high level. Certainly, animation is a lot of fun. However, it is associated with numerous challenges. The aim of this study described in this article was to identify the most common benefits and challenges reported by animators in the survey conducted by the authors. The first part outlines the job of a leisure animator in the light of the literature. The main part is concerned with the benefits of working as an animator and challenges that animators can face in their work. The study is based on data collected during an online questionnaire survey involving 110 animators from Poland, working in various travel agencies. The findings confirm the main hypothesis of the study: opportunities to interact with people and travel are the most frequently reported advantages of leisure animation. Animation is also seen as a chance for self-fulfillment and continuous development. However, the job is associated with a lot of stress and long working hours, which constitute one of its challenges.

Keywords: leisure time, animation, hotel, animator, hotel industry

JEL Codes: J400, J810, Z290, Z300, Z320

1. Introduction

Animation is a growing sector in tourism services. Travel agencies and intermediary companies increasingly employ people tasked with organizing leisure for

* Nicolaus Copernicus University in Toruń (Poland), Faculty of Earth Sciences and Spatial Management, Department of Sport Science, Email: daannieell333@gmail.com, orcid.org/0000-0003-3157-6945.

** Nicolaus Copernicus University in Toruń (Poland), Faculty of Earth Sciences and Spatial Management, Department of Sport Science, Email: olgasmolenska@umk.pl, orcid.org/0000-0002-2517-9081.

children and adults. Many hotels in Poland and in the world are located in remote areas or are relatively far away from urban centers, so the provision of entertainment by specialized and professional hotel animators can constitute an advantage over the competition.

The aim of this article is to identify benefits and challenges associated with the job of a hotel animator. Research on leisure time can be found in many publications devoted to this subject, but there are few studies investigating the role of the hotel animator. The job of a leisure time animator involves practical knowledge but it also requires engagement, commitment and a unique set of qualities [Rokicka-Hebel, Ziółkowska, Patyna 2016]. So far not much research has been conducted on barriers and threats faced by leisure time animators

The survey conducted during the study found that opportunities to interact with people and travel are the most frequently reported advantages of leisure animation. On the other hand, factors such as stress and cultural barriers can often be the source of misunderstandings and difficulties for animators. Results of the study can help employers to eliminate or at least improve certain unfavorable conditions encountered in hotel animation.

2. Theoretical aspects of hotel animation

Animation involves organizing sports and recreational activities in kindergartens and schools, community centers and in outdoor contexts. One particular category of animation work is associated with coordinating and conducting leisure activities in resorts and other tourist destinations [Smith 1999, 2009]. Given the various types of leisure time animation, one can list the most common categories of animators [Bączek 2013]:

1. Animator for children
2. Animator for teenagers
3. Sports animator
4. Show animator
5. All-around animator.

In the past few years hotel animation has become an indispensable service provided by hotels in Europe and across the world. More and more hotels are employing more or less experienced animators. For some tourists, animation is the main attraction of their stay and is advertised as the main tourist product to potential buyers. The animation sector is undergoing significant changes and continuous development [Paczyńska-Jędrycka, Eider 2014].

People involved in the preparation of events for hotel guests should be aware that it is a responsible and difficult job, which gives a lot of satisfaction. However,

before starting to organize events and prepare animation activities, one should consider factors that determine the ultimate success and lead to positive results. Successful animation of different age groups requires a particular set of personal traits and skills, such as those recommended by Litwicka [2016].

Animators should be very well organized and thoughtful. According to hotel guests, they are some of the most important people in the hotel. They spend time with guests every day and organize their activities. As representatives of the hotel, they must demonstrate good manners, commitment, eloquence and great people skills [Przeclawski 1996]. Animators are also expected to resolve conflicts when working with different age groups. Being group leaders, they must be assertive. A person in charge of animation must often make decisions for the group and be able to calmly accept constructive criticism. Another key feature is self-confidence. Animators should not let themselves be intimidated by guests staying at the hotel. After all, they are the ones who set the rules of games. Faced with all kinds of people, of different ages, they should be able to adapt their language accordingly. This skill will help them to command respect and establish good relations with the guests [Bączek, Misztal 2017]. Another important requirement is fluency in a foreign language, preferably English. Work abroad involves communication with foreigners. Leisure time animators must also know the history and culture of the region where their guests are staying [*Animator czasu wolnego...*]. Since animators receive commissions from the sale of trips, the knowledge of tourism and culture is very important. This is why proper education is also required. Generally, people who work as animators have graduated from a college or university. Obviously, employers also value previous experience in animation [*Jak zostać animatorem?* 2016]. Nowadays, in addition to language skills, animators are expected to have computer skills, the knowledge of regulations and the basics of marketing [Litwicka 2016]. Employment in well-known tourist resorts usually involves a longer stay abroad, which means no possibility of direct contact with family and friends. While animation work is usually seasonal, with typical contracts lasting from 3 to 6 months, there are some tourist resorts, animators can work all year round.

3. Research methods

The study described in this article is based on an online questionnaire survey carried out on a self-selected sample of 110 Polish hotel animators, the majority of whom were secondary school or university students and university graduates. Respondents represented employees of the largest travel agencies as well as well-known animation companies and employment agencies¹. The questionnaire was

¹ E.g. Grecos Holiday, TUI, Rainbow Tours, Neckermann, Itaka, Stageman, Animatria, Net Holiday, Sun&Fun.

posted on Facebook between March and April 2019 and was directed to special interest groups devoted to leisure animation². In addition, the link to the survey was also sent to the largest tour operators (travel agents) in Poland.

4. Results

The survey questionnaire included a section with questions about respondents' demographic details (age, sex, completed course of leisure animation, etc.). 110 completed questionnaires were returned. The sample consisted of animators from all parts of Poland, who have worked for at least one season. 88 of them were women (80%), 22 men (20%).

47 animators were 22 to 25 years old, accounting for 42.7% of the sample. The second biggest age group (32 respondents) were aged 18-21, accounting for 29.1% of the sample. The least numerous groups were respondents aged 26-29 and those older than 29 (14.5% and 13.6% respectively).

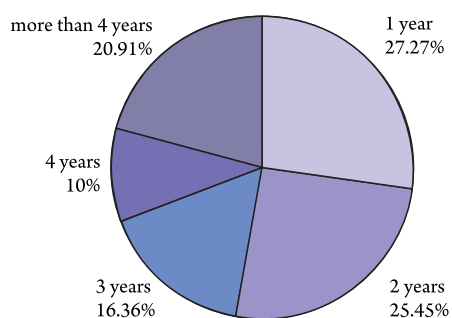


Fig. 1. Distribution of respondents by years of experience in leisure animation

Source: own elaboration based on Borodeńko 2019.

Figure 1 presents the sample structure depending on respondents' work experience. More than 27% of respondents have only worked during one season. 25.45% of animators have had two years of experience. Almost 21% of respondents have been engaged in animation for more than four years.

Respondents were also asked about the country in which had worked as leisure animators. Since multiple responses could be provided, the total number of places indicated by respondents was 193 (Fig. 2). The most popular destination country was Poland (74 responses). Nearly half of all respondents have worked in Greece (53). 14 people have worked in Bulgaria and 12 in Spain. The number of animators who have worked in other countries did not exceed 10. 15 animators have worked in Africa, including such countries as Egypt and Tu-

² E.g. "Praca dla animatora" (*Work for a leisure animator*), "Animacja czasu wolnego – oferty pracy" (*Leisure animation jobs*), "Animacja Czasu Wolnego ITW – Polska" (*Leisure Animation ITW – Poland*), "Animacja czasu wolnego" (*Leisure Animation*), "Animatory Grecos 2019" (*Leisure Animators Grecos 2019*), "Akademia Rainbow" (*Rainbow Academy*), "Stageman – Animacje" (*Stageman – Leisure Animations*).

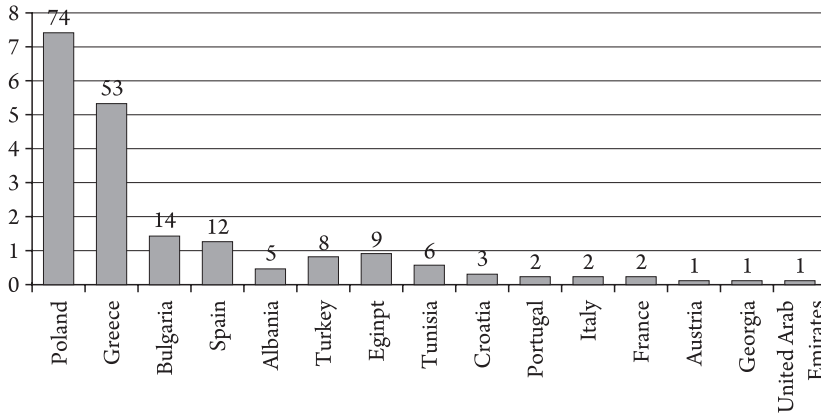


Fig. 2. The number of animators who have worked in different countries

Source: own elaboration based on Borodeňko 2019.

nia (9 and 6 people, respectively). 8 respondents have indicated Turkey, 5 have worked in Albania, which is a developing country in terms of tourism. As can be seen, the labor market for entertainers is quite large as evidenced by reported postings in the United Arab Emirates, Georgia, Austria, France, Italy and Portugal.

Another question in the survey was about the average duration of animation work during the last season (Fig. 3). Almost half chose a period of 3 to 4 months (49%). 32% indicated the option of less than 3 months. Only 11% of respondents were employed for more than six months.

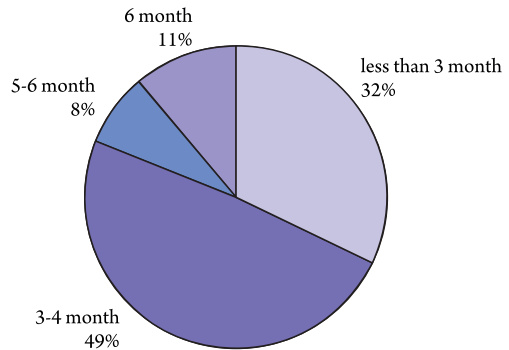


Fig. 3. Average duration of animation work during a single (the last) season

Source: own elaboration based on Borodeňko 2019.

In the following question respondents were asked to assess various benefits of working as a hotel animator (Fig. 4). The first benefit was the salary. 18 respondents (16%) admitted that the pay was important in choosing this job. 19 respondents (17%) regarded wages as rather not important. As regards opportunities to travel, 82 respondents (75%) regarded the chance to participate in excursions as very important. The opportunity to learn foreign languages was important for 74 respondents (68%). 12 respondents found it rather unimportant (11%). Another benefit of working as an animator is being the center of at-

... (text continues from previous block)

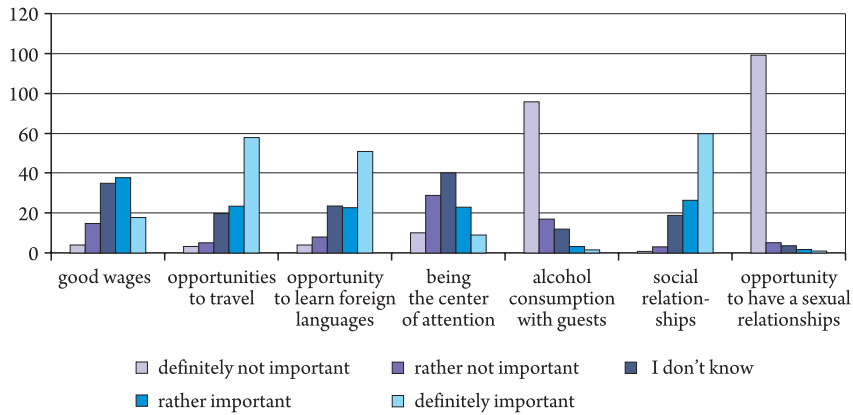


Fig. 4. Benefits of working as a hotel animator in the opinion of respondents

Source: own elaboration based on Borodeńko 2019.

tention. For 38 respondents (35%), being the star of the hotel was unimportant. This benefit turned out to be important for 32 respondents (29%). As many as 80 animators (73%) assessed alcohol consumption with guests as unimportant. However, 5 respondents found it to be rather important. When it comes to social relationships, 97 respondents (89%) said that keeping in touch with guests they met was definitely or quite important. The last benefit listed in the questionnaire was the opportunity to have a sexual relationship with guests. For 104 respondents (95%) having sex with guests was either definitely or rather unimportant. However, 3 respondents did admit this aspect of the job mattered to them.

The questionnaire also included an open-ended questions, in which respondents were asked to list the biggest benefit of working as a hotel animator (Table 1). The most popular (35%) advantage of this job was networking with people (38 answers). The second most frequently mentioned benefit were opportunities to travel (26 answers). Personal development was listed by 16 animators, and the integration of employees – by 12 respondents. For 9% of hotel animators self-realization was a significant benefit (10 answers). Other benefits mentioned by the respondents include lack of boredom, taking care of physical fitness, character formation, fun, good wages, a *high degree of independence*, flexible working hours, making people happy, learning a foreign language, combining passion with work satisfaction and increased self-esteem.

As regards wages, over two thirds of respondents (69%) were satisfied. The remaining 31% believed they should be paid more. Figure 5 shows the number of respondents whose monthly wages fall into a given bracket. The most numerous group of animators (31%) reported earning between PLN 2000 and 2499. Less than 20%

Table 1. The biggest benefit of working as a leisure time animator according to respondents

The biggest benefit	Number of responses
You can get to know new people	38
It is an opportunity to travel	26
Personal development	16
Integration with other employees	12
It's a chance for self-actualization	10
You can gain new experiences	8
You can learn a foreign language	8
You can make people happy	7
It pays well	5
You can combine work with your passion	5
It gives a lot of satisfaction	4
It enables you to get fitter	3
It is fun	3
You have a lot of independence	3
Flexible working hours	1
It forms your character	1
It improves your self-esteem	1
Lack of boredom	1

Source: own elaboration based on Borodeńko 2019.

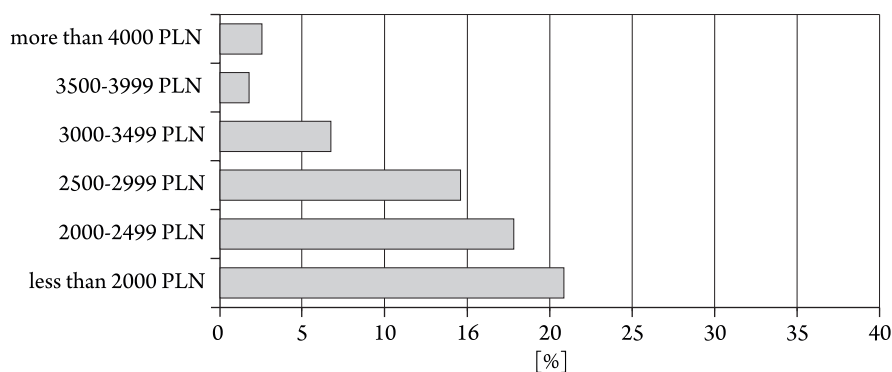


Fig. 5. Average monthly wages earned by the animators in the sample

Source: own elaboration based on Borodeńko 2019.

of the animators in the survey earned the lowest wage (below PLN 2000), while only 8% of respondents received the highest wage of over PLN 4000.

In the last question concerning the benefits of leisure animation, shown in Figure 6, the respondents were asked to say how they spent their free time. Almost all of them (85%) admitted that during their work they had time to pursue their passions and interests. Examples of activities listed included individual or group travel, relaxing on the beach, sports activities, walking around the area, or just lying on the couch. 16 respondents (14,5%) reported they did not have time for their own leisure. 66% of hotel animators reported spending at least a few minutes polishing their language skills.

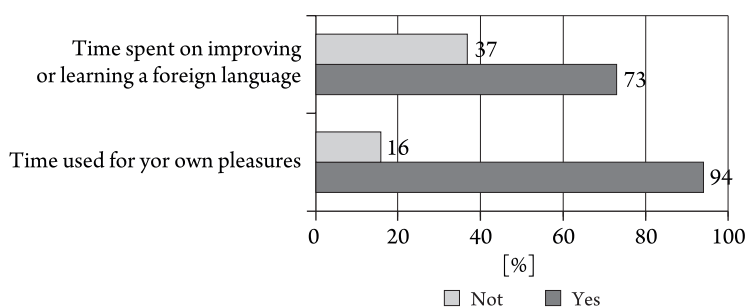


Fig. 6. Ways of spending leisure time by hotel animators

Source: own elaboration based on Borodeńko 2019.

The second major part of the questionnaire was devoted to challenges and barriers faced by hotel animators. The responses were also given using a 5-point Likert scale, with the possibility of choosing specific challenges. Moreover, animators who had experience of working with children and teenagers were asked to name the most common problems associated with these age groups. They were also encouraged to describe causes of conflicts with the manager or other employees, if they ever occurred. Figure 7 presents how the challenges and barriers encountered in the animator's work were perceived by the respondents.

The first source of challenges were cultural barriers. The vast majority (52%) of respondents (57 persons) either did not perceive any cultural barriers in their job or said they experienced them only to a small extent. 21 respondents (19%) said for them cultural barriers were a occurring challenge in animation work. Opinions about the experience of missing the family or homesickness were divided more or less equally. The number of those claiming they experienced such feelings often or very often was only slightly bigger than that for whom it was either a minor problem or no problem at all (39% vs 37%). Another challenge mentioned in the survey was the hot climate, since animators very often have to

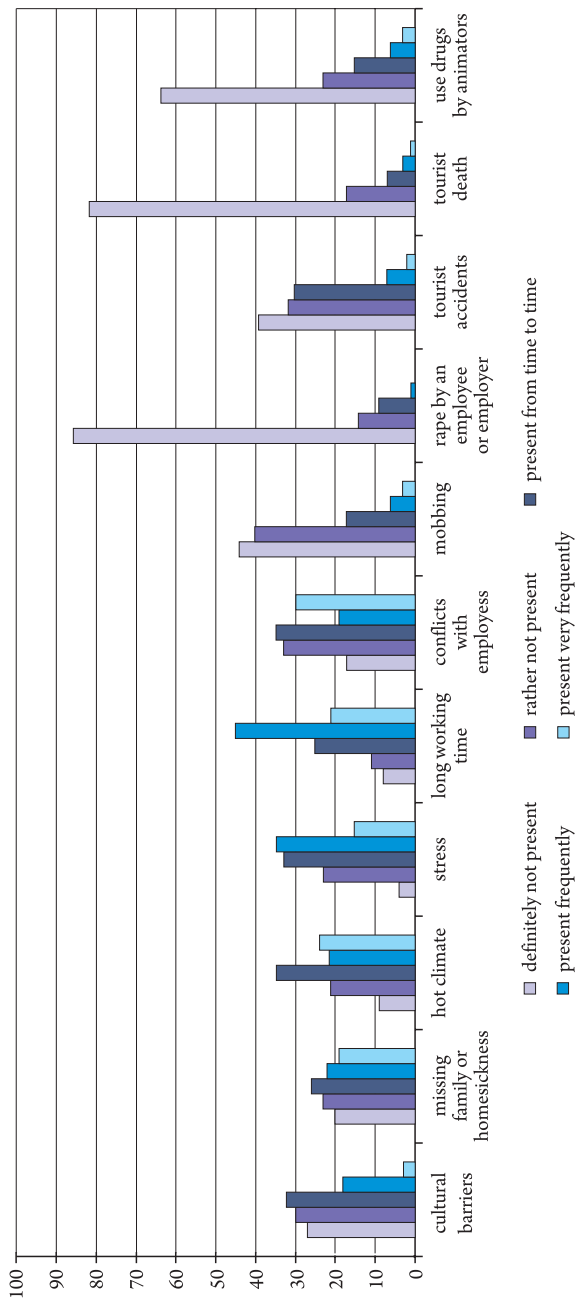


Fig. 7. Frequency of selected barriers in the work of hotel animators

Source: own elaboration based on Borodenko 2019.

work in hot and very sunny weather. Nonetheless, for 30 animators (27%) this was either a minor problem or no problem at all, but 45 respondents (41%) indicated they experienced it appears often or very often. As regards stress, almost half of all respondents (45%) agreed that it was a frequent or very frequent factor. 27 respondents (25%) either did not experience stress at all or did so only rarely. For a large majority of animators (60%) long working time were a frequent or very frequent challenge. Only for 19 respondents (17%) the problem of long working either did not exist at all or was only marginally present. Among comments about conflicts with employees, 50 respondents (45%) either did not experience such conflicts at all or only very infrequently. However, 25 animators (23%) found them to be a such problem. With respect to bullying at work, i.e. the use of violence, harassment or intimidation, the vast majority of respondents (84%) reported that mobbing was either not present or was very rare. Only 8% of respondents indicated that this problem was occurring. Opinions about rape in the workplace were largely unanimous. 90% (100 answers) respondents claimed that this problem did not occur at all or very rare. Only one person indicated that such cases happened frequently. Respondents' experience of accidents varied but the majority (65%) either did not experience them at all or only rarely. Only 9 people (8%) reported that accidents in leisure animation happened often or very often. As regards cases of a tourist dying, the pattern of responses was similar to that observed in the case of rape in the workplace (90% vs. 10%). The last aspect mentioned in the survey was the use of drugs by animators. The vast majority of respondents (78%) replied that they did not have any access to drugs at work. However, 9 animators (8%) admitted they had used whenever drugs at work, and one indicated they did so frequently.

After evaluating selected barriers and challenges, respondents were asked to name up to 3 challenges that can be encountered in hotel animation. 90 respondents provided answers. Most respondents mentioned stress (88% answers). 17% respondents indicated long-term work at the hotel and 15% – homesickness. Other challenges listed by the respondents include language problems, conflicts between employees, hot climate, accidents and drunken intrusive guests. Other challenges were only mentioned by individual animators.

Respondents were also asked whether they had ever had a conflict with the hotel manager or another employee. 66% of respondents said they had never experienced such a conflict, and 34% declared that misunderstandings or inappropriate behaviors on the part of their employer or colleagues did happen in their work. Another finding from the study was that some animators did not show respect for less experienced colleagues and would start arguments over religion, politics or culture. One female animator claimed that she was repeatedly chatted up by the hotel manager and invited to a restaurant. Some respondents also complained about problems with airline transfers. Others also mentioned

misunderstandings and conflicts with the group leader or inconvenient travel arrangements to the airport. One respondent reported cases of harassment. Two people had been given tasks that were not their responsibility. Several animators reported having been deceived by their colleagues.

5. Discussion

5.1. Advantages of working as a hotel animator

Each role in the workplace, including the organization of leisure, offers benefits and involves challenges, which must be faced by each employee. While leisure animation is interesting, offers opportunities to develop one's own interests and find self-fulfillment, it is more difficult than many people think.

Opportunities to travel are commonly considered to be the greatest advantage of this job. Although Poles' financial wellbeing keeps improving, not everyone has the time and money to visit foreign countries and learn about new cultures. Working as a leisure animator offers a possibility of making these dreams come true. Based on the author's own experience and from discussions with other animators, the job is seen as a chance to visit many interesting countries for free. Many animators take advantage of optional tours offered by travel agencies for guests staying at the hotel. Animators frequently spend their free time by sightseeing individually and / or in groups and relaxing on beautiful beaches. For many young Poles, a stay in warm countries is an attractive prospect.

Working abroad is also associated with learning a foreign language. Animation is often described as a "language school". The job provides daily opportunities for speaking English and learning some words of the local language. A few months' stay in a foreign country can improve the animator's fluency and vocabulary considerably, which is something that is often much more difficult to achieve when learning in Poland.

Another benefits of working as an animator are the wages, which usually depend on such factors as the country where the work is performed, the length of the contract, a person's work experience, self-presentation at the interview, the knowledge of foreign languages [Bączek, Misztal 2017].

Animators working in European countries tend to earn more than those employed in Africa. This is because in the Arab world local residents are frequently hired as animators and their earnings are generally lower than those of European citizens. Salaries paid in tourist resorts are higher, because tours and trips are more expensive. If the financial aspect is a priority, one should look for job offers in European destinations, such as Spain, Portugal, Malta and Switzerland.

Earnings are also influenced by the contract length and, naturally, by the amount of work experience. The market values experienced animators, who are available for a longer period. Hoteliers and many travel agencies prefer to hire one animator for half a year rather than three who are ready to work for only two months each. The employer is obliged to pay for an employee's flights and accommodation, and more employees means higher costs. It is also easier to train one person who signs a long contract and can completely focus on it.

The ability to use several languages is obviously a valuable asset for an animator. The more foreign languages a candidate knows, the higher salary he or she can expect. It is a good investment to learn Russian and English as the number of Russian guests is generally growing. Many Russian citizens can afford expensive holidays and like to spend a lot of money on such occasions. English, being a global language or *lingua franca*, enables employees from different parts of the world to communicate with each other.

At the interview, as always, it is first impressions that really count. That is why, each candidate should show their talents and the most valuable skills. Professional choreographers, singers, magicians can earn more than an animator without such skills and certificates.

In addition to financial benefits, animators have ample opportunities for social interaction. Throughout the season, animators get to know a few hundred or a few thousand visitors. Some of these contacts are maintained for a long time. Animation is an opportunity to meet future employers or travelers who can have some interesting job offers.

Another benefit of being a leisure animator is the contribution one makes to integrating employees through activities aimed at building positive relationships between them. Animation involves group work and helps to create relationships based on respect, support, friendship, etc. People chosen to work in different positions should complement each other. In the field of organization and management theory Czermiński proposed two principles that must be satisfied to integrate positions and units within an organizations: the principle of combining units according to a common criterion and the principle of single leadership [Czermiński, Grzybowski, Ficoń 1999]. Employees are able to work more efficiently when they can set goals and manage their own work [Chyłek 2011].

The role of an animator makes the person a kind of star in the hotel. After a successful evening show, guests often congratulate the animator, want to get to know him or her and exchange a few words. Animation is a chance to feel like a celebrity. Every day, hotel guests look and smile at the animator. This is an ideal job for those who seek attention.

The final benefit worth mentioning is the opportunity of gaining new experiences. The job can involve working with children, youth, adults and seniors.

Other valuable experiences that can be listed in the CV include participation in excursions, use of many languages, meeting new people, integration with other animators.

5.2. Challenges involved in working with children and teenagers

In addition to the benefits discussed above, animators can encounter various obstacles and conflicts when working with children and teenagers. Younger children often display a lack of discipline, which can be manifested as aggression and misbehavior in a direct or indirect sense [Skorny 1973]. Examples of direct harassing behavior on the part of children include hitting, pulling, squeezing, choking, pinching, kicking, tripping others up. Such acts of aggression often involve the use of objects, such as pins, rulers or stones. Aggression takes the form of fights, beatings, unfair treatment. Indirect bullying includes various forms of disturbing other children or hiding objects. Indirect disruptive behavior consists in destroying or damaging other people's property [Urban 2005]. Violence in children occurs at an early stage of life. The youngest children watch aggression on television and read about it in fairy tales. A common problem faced when working with children is disrespectful behavior towards the caregiver and frequent cries. Such behavior can be caused by things observed in the immediate environment. Children who witness minor fights, feel that something is wrong [Żuczkowska 2013]. Another challenge is associated with problems and sadness experienced by younger children. More and more families are dysfunctional [Choina 2001]. In their work animators can meet children who are indifferent to situations when others are being harmed or have a distorted hierarchy of needs and values. Such behavior can be caused by the absence or very rare displays of affection and love for the child. Such children often find it difficult to carry out even the simplest tasks, or are unwilling to participate [Siemek 1987]. Another thing to remember is that small children need variety. Animators must be familiar with a variety of games and activities. Younger children are very physically active and they quickly get bored playing and always expect something new.

As regards teenagers, they also display frequent mood swings. In this group, the most common problem faced by leisure animators is also the lack of discipline and respect for the caregiver. During their stay in the hotel, parents give their children a lot of freedom. Young people are busy spending time with each other and may prefer to plan their activities on their own. Working with young people is extremely difficult. One has to learn how to deal with and resolve frequent quarrels, fights and misunderstandings. Bad behavior in young people can result from various kinds of addiction. Teenagers often play video games and

spend a lot of time at the computer at the expense of interpersonal communication [Prokosz 2004]. Animators often find that young people are indifferent to the world around them, which is a special challenge when it comes to social integration. Young people who stay at the hotel with their parents often feel lonely, lack self-confidence, are afraid of new experiences and believe that their life is meaningless [Konaszewski, Kwadrans 2018]. One common problem is smoking. Many teenagers turn to nicotine to impress their peers or to be accepted in the group. Another problem that makes work with young people difficult is the use of drugs. While most hotel animators rarely have to deal with this phenomenon, they should have basic knowledge on this subject. Teenagers use drugs to feel better. Puberty is associated with a search for identity, which can lead to various forms of experimentation. The abuse of designer drugs and other substances has many different causes and depends on the individual. Sometimes, however, it can be a family problem [Elliot, Place 2005]. Another problem associated with young people staying in hotels is alcohol consumption. This may be particularly tempting in the case of all-inclusive packages. Confronted with drunk teenagers, animators are forced to refuse animation and notify parents about such behaviour. The final factor that often has a negative effect on problematic teenagers is violence in the media, which can desensitize teenagers and encourage them to resort to violent behaviour.

Unfortunately, it is usually impossible to obtain prior information about children and young people that animators are going to work with. Usually, they are expected to start their animation programs right from the start. The first meeting is an important moment when the animator can introduce him- or herself and explain the rules that young participants should follow. When this stage is handled inappropriately, the participants can get easily discouraged or become negatively disposed. To avoid or reduce the risk of conflicts and to provide an unforgettable experience, the animator should know as much as possible about the group and must constantly observe their behavior, keep them satisfied with the holiday experience, manage their free time effectively and stimulate integration between participants [Litwicka 2016].

6. Summary and conclusions

The article addresses the topic of leisure animation, which involves organizing and conducting activities for children, teenagers and adults. There is a broad range of options in leisure animation, such as sports events, outdoor and playground activities, board games for children, interesting evening events, etc. There is a special group of animators who are responsible for organizing free time activities in holiday resorts.

During the entire season, animators can work with thousands of hotel guests. Regardless of age, tourists expect high quality entertainment. Studies indicate that qualities like patience, qualifications and organisation skills have a positive effect on tourists' satisfaction, whereas kindness, interactions with guests, communicative skills and professionalism have not been found to increase the level of satisfaction [Pekovic et al. 2019]. For many animators it is a pleasure and a source of satisfaction to organize games and other activities. However, the job involves certain difficulties and challenges.

The main purpose of the article was to identify benefits and challenges most commonly recognized by leisure animators. Another objective was to collect some first-hand information about some practical aspects of this job, such as the range of duties, preferences and expectations, ways of spending free time, etc.

The study was based on responses provided by 110 animators from all over Poland, who have worked at a hotel for at least one season. Most respondents were secondary school or university students and university graduates. The majority of those who responded to the online survey were employed by Grecos Holiday travel agency, where one of the authors works as an animator.

The responding animators indicated opportunities to travel and social relationships as the biggest benefits of the job, while hot climate and stress were regarded as the biggest challenges. Asked to list benefits of hotel animation, the majority of respondents mentioned the opportunity to get to know new people. The second most popular benefit was the opportunity to travel.

Regarding the challenges of leisure animation, the two most frequently selected answers were stress and long working hours. It is important to add at this point that one of the authors of the study has been working as an animator for a number of years and agrees with opinions expressed by the respondents. It is true that officially shifts of hotel employees are eight hours long but they stay at the hotel all the time and are available to tourists. As for stress, it can be caused by a sudden change in the animation program, equipment failure during classes or conflicts and misunderstandings with the team. In addition to these main causes, stress can also be induced by various other individual factors.

The research potential of the study was certainly not fully exploited and some questions could have been worded better. Since most respondents were employed by the Grecos Holiday travel agency and the company is based in kujawsko-pomorskie province where the authors also work, the sample cannot be regarded as representative of the whole hotel animator sector in Poland.

From the results of the study, the literature review and experiences of the authors, it can be concluded that the job of an animator offers interesting professional prospects for young people. Leisure animator can benefit from opportunities for sightseeing, traveling or getting to know people. However, the job is not free from certain downsides, such as missing the family and the mother country, stress, hot climate and long working hours.

Finally, the authors would like to thank all respondents for sharing their professional experience and offer valuable tips to other animators or people who are planning to take up work in leisure animation. All respondents agreed that “keeping that smile on your face” is the most important thing in this job. In addition, would-be animators should not be afraid of new challenges. Another important quality mentioned by the respondents is openness. They believe that future animators should establish new relationships, learn about new traditions and cultures. On our part, we would like to add that animators should not be primarily motivated by financial benefits but see the job as an opportunity for self-development and the broadening of their horizons.

References

- Animator czasu wolnego – charakterystyka zawodu*, https://www.praca.pl/poradniki/lista-stanowisk/sport-rekreacja/animator-czasu-wolnego_pr-1158.html [accessed: 10.02.2019].
- Bączek J.B., 2013, *Animacja czasu wolnego. Praktyczny poradnik dla animatorów*, Warszawa: Stageman Polska.
- Bączek J.B., Misztal T., 2017, *Od amatora do animatora*, Warszawa: Stageman Polska.
- Borodeńko D., 2019, *Rola oraz bariery i korzyści w pracy animatora czasu wolnego w hotelu*, praca dyplomowa napisana pod kierunkiem O. Smoleńskiej, Toruń: Uniwersytet Mikołaja Kopernika, maszynopis.
- Choina M., 2001, O asertywności w szkole, *Nowa Szkoła*, 7: 20-24.
- Chyłek M., 2011, Współczesne zarządzanie przedsiębiorstwem, a partycypacja pracownicza, *Zeszyty Naukowe Uniwersytetu Przyrodniczo-Humanistycznego w Siedlcach. Administracja i Zarządzanie*, 90: 181-194.
- Czermiński A., Grzybowski M., Ficoń K., 1999, *Podstawy organizacji i zarządzania*, Gdynia: Wydawnictwo Diecezji Pelplińskiej „Bernardium”.
- Elliot J., Place M., 2005, *Dzieci i młodzież w kłopotcie. Poradnik nie tylko dla psychologów*, Warszawa: Wydawnictwo WSiP.
- Jak zostać animatorem?*, 3.01.2016, <https://praca.money.pl/kariera-rekrutacja/artkul/jak-zostac-animatorem,132,0,1992836.html> [accessed: 10.02.2019].
- Konaszewski K., Kwadrans Ł., 2018, *Zasoby osobiste młodzieży. Nieprzystosowanie społeczne. Uwarunkowania środowiskowe*, Kraków: Wydawnictwo Impuls.
- Litwicka P., 2016, *Metodyka i technika pracy animatora czasu wolnego*, Kraków: Proksenia.
- Paczyńska-Jędrycka M., Eider P., 2014, Innowacyjność w animacji czasu wolnego szansą rozwoju wybranych destynacji turystycznych, *Handel Wewnętrzny*, 6(353): 281-291.
- Pekovic S., Djekic A., Markovic V., Bojbas M., Perovic D., 2019, The Influence of Animation Programmes on Tourists’ Satisfaction: The Role of Animators, *Sport Mont*, 17(3): 113-115, doi.org/10.26773/smj.191020.
- Prokosz M., 2004, *Dewiatyjnne aspekty współczesnego świata. Przejawy – zapobieganie – terapia*, Toruń: Wydawnictwo Adam Marszałek.

- Przeclawski K., 1996, *Człowiek a turystyka*, Kraków: Albis.
- Rokicka-Hebel M., Ziółkowska J., Patyna A., 2016, The professional profile of a leisure time animator in tourism and recreation services, *Baltic Journal of Health and Physical Activity*, 8(4): 157-168, doi.org/10.29359/BJHPA.08.4.17.
- Siemek D., 1987, *Problemy wychowawcze w wieku przedszkolnym*, Warszawa: Instytut Wydawniczy Związków Zawodowych.
- Skorny Z., 1973, Formy i źródła agresji u dzieci i młodzieży, *Psychologia Wychowawcza*, 3: 315-323.
- Smith M.K., 1999, 2009, *Animateurs, animation, learning and change*, <https://infed.org/mobi/animateurs-animation-learning-and-change/> [accessed: 10.02.2019].
- Urban B., 2005, *Zachowania dewiacyjne młodzieży i dzieci w interakcjach rówieśniczych*, Kraków Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Jagiellońskiego.
- Żuczowska Z., 2013, *Dialog zamiast kar*, Podkowa Leśna: Wydawnictwo MiND.

Appendix: https://docs.google.com/forms/d/1VEgei5fOTMu_RIQTwk9R_QSHXZgYRpjUuFs51P1NXE/viewform?fbclid=IwAR28RVOsYY86UUEQqcd8XL1otVrVv9ySzFcnRKEof4KYEQUS0Mfq1Tu1d1A&edit_requested=true

Identyfikacja korzyści i wyzwań związanych z pracą animatora czasu wolnego w hotelu

Abstrakt. W ciągu jednego sezonu animatorzy czasu wolnego współpracują z kilkoma tysiącami gości hotelowych. Rodzice i ich dzieci oczekują rozrywki i atrakcji na wysokim poziomie. Z pewnością animacja to świetna zabawa, jest to jednak związane z licznymi wyzwaniami. Celem badania opisanego w tym artykule była identyfikacja najczęstszych korzyści i wyzwań zgłaszanych przez animatorów hotelowych. Pierwsza część przedstawia pracę animatora rozrywki w świetle literatury. Główna część dotyczy korzyści płynących z pracy animatora i wyzwań, przed którymi stoją animatorzy w swojej pracy w hotelach. Badanie własne opiera się na danych zebranych podczas ankiety internetowej, w której wzięło udział 110 animatorów z Polski, współpracujących z różnymi biurami podróży. Wyniki potwierdzają główną hipotezę badania: najczęściej spotykane zalety animacji czasu wolnego to możliwość interakcji z ludźmi i podróżowania. Animacja jest również postrzegana jako szansa na samorealizację i ciągły rozwój. Jednak praca wiąże się z dużym stresem i długimi godzinami pracy, które stanowią główne z jej wyzwań.

Słowa kluczowe: czas wolny, animacja czasu wolnego, hotel, animator czasu wolnego, hotelarstwo



Copyright and license: This article is published under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution – NoDerivatives 4.0 International (CC BY-ND 4.0) License, <https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nd/4.0/>

Suggested citation: Borodeńko D., Smoleńska O.I., 2020, Identification of benefits and challenges associated with the work of a hotel animator, *Studia Periegetica*, 2(30): 61-77, DOI: 10.5604/01.3001.0014.1219.

BARTŁOMIEJ WALAS*, ZYGMUNT KRUCZEK**

The impact of COVID-19 on tourism in Kraków in the eyes of tourism entrepreneurs

Abstract. The purpose of the study was to collect 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. The respondents were asked to assess the drop in sales of tourism services, their opinions concerning the prospect of a tourist traffic recovery, possible measures that could facilitate the recovery and what they expected the local government to do in this respect. In recent years Kraków has become one of Poland's most recognisable destinations, benefiting from increasing revenues generated by a systematically growing number of visitors. This growth has even prompted concerns about overtourism in Kraków. The outbreak of the COVID-19 pandemic has dramatically affected the entire supply chain in the tourism industry, leaving the city empty of tourists and causing a financial breakdown for many companies. In order to diagnose the scale of the crisis triggered by the pandemic, the authors conducted a CAWI survey of Kraków based tourism entrepreneurs in the middle of March. The development of the epidemic and steps taken to protect the tourism sector from mid-March to the end of June 2020 were used to validate views formulated by the respondent. 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 Kraków are going to recover, as well as expectations concerning the tools of marketing communication that could facilitate the recovery.

Keywords: COVID-19, tourism, Kraków, tourism entrepreneurs, attitudes, impact

JEL Codes: R58, Z32, Z38

* The University College of Tourism and Ecology, Sucha Beskidzka (Poland), Email: bwalas@onet.eu, orcid.org/0000-0002-2567-1017.

** University of Physical Education in Kraków (Poland), Department of Tourism and Recreation, Email: zygmont.kruczek@awf.krakow.pl, orcid.org/0000-0003-3015-2139.

1. Introduction

Tourism plays a very important economic role in Kraków and has a significant effect on the city's economy. In addition, together with other destinations located in relative proximity, such as Wieliczka, former German Nazi concentration camp Auschwitz-Birkenau, Bochnia, Ojców, Zakopane, Krynica, the city is part of a metropolitan tourism area [Kruczek, Mazanek 2019]. In recent years, the number of tourists coming to Kraków has been growing and in 2019 was visited by over 14 million people, including 3 million foreign tourists [*Ruch turystyczny w Krakowie...* 2019]. The majority of one-day visitors are Poles. In 2019 tourists staying in Kraków spent PLN 7.5 billion, and tourism-related GDP accounted for 8% of the city's total GDP. The tourism sector in Kraków is estimated to have created 29 thousand permanent jobs, and, after accounting for multiplier effects, over 40 thousand. This means that the contribution of the tourism industry to the city's entire economy exceeded 10%. In 2016, the combined tax revenue directly generated by the tourism sector amounted to about PLN 170 million. Kraków

Table 1. A matrix of competitiveness and attractiveness of Kraków's tourism products at the end of 2019

Products	Competitiveness				Attractiveness			
	attractions	infrastructure	accessibility	index	segment	economic benefits	feasibility	index
Weight (in %)	20	40	40		40	30	30	
Religious tourism	5	4	4	3.6	3	3	4	3.5
Medical tourism	2	3	3	2.8	3	5	2	3.3
City breaks	5	5	4	4.6	4	4	5	4.3
Cultural events	2	4	3	3.2	2	3	2	3.3
Congresses conferences	5	4	4	3.8	3	5	3	3.6
Incentive travel	3	3	3	3.0	3	4	2	3.0
Thematic stays	2	3	3	2.8	3	3	2	2.7
Catering	3	4	4	3.8	2	4	3	2.9

Source: elaborated by B. Walas, based on information collected during a workshop with entrepreneurs.

is estimated to have created 29 thousand permanent jobs, and, after accounting for multiplier effects, the overall tax contribution of the tourism industry to the city's budget was equal to PLN 244 million, which constituted 5.25% of the city's revenue [Seweryn et al. 2017].

Results of the strategic analysis of Kraków tourism products, obtained from a modified ADL matrix of competitiveness and attractiveness [Walas 2019], which was calculated at the end of 2019, reveal that some of them enjoy an international significance (Table 1).

Nonetheless, Kraków has started to be affected by the negative effects of excessive tourist traffic, which have been described in the literature and include phenomena such as 'night economy' [Pawlusiński, Zmysłony 2018], *urban tourism hypertrophy* [Zmysłony, Kowalczyk-Anioł 2019], gentrification [Kruczek 2018; Kowalczyk-Anioł 2018], socio-psychological capacity of residents measured by Doxey's irritation index [Szromek, Kruczek, Walas 2020] or short-term rentals [Walas 2019].

Table 2. Indicators of tourism intensity

Places	Barejto-Defert's index	Schneider's index	Charvat's index	Defert's index	tourist accommodation density index	Number of tourist accommodation facilities per 100 km ²
Poland	2.1	88.2	321.3	108	2.6	3.5
The region of Małopolska	3.0	153.4	409.9	916	6.7	9.9
Kraków (according to GUS*)	4.1	312.2	688.6	7 307	94.6	82.5
Kraków (according to UMK**)	5.6	1260.9	2783.2	29 510	132.6	298.6
Warsaw	2.6	257.5	447.9	8 855	132.6	70.4
Vienna	3.6	366.5	755.1	16 355	163.8	103.9
Prague	3.5	358.4	759.1	15 917	183.2	160.6
Budapest	7.0	616.5	1425.7	23 809	417.1	501.5

* GUS – the Polish acronym of Statistics Poland.

** UMK – the Municipality of Kraków.

Source: own calculations based on data published by national statistical institutes of Poland (GUS), Austria, Czechia and Hungary and estimates for 2019 [Polityka turystyki zrównoważonej... 2020].

Media reports in recent years have contained numerous claims about the rise of overtourism, especially in the Old Town, which is visited by the largest number of tourists, drawn by obligatory attractions, such as the Main Square, the Cloth Hall (Pol. *Sukiennice*), Saint Mary's Basilica, The Royal Route and the Wawel Castle [Kruczek 2019]. These problems were even the subject of an international conference organized in Kraków as part of the project "Historical Cities 3.0" [*Miasta Historyczne 3.0...* 2018]. Table 2 presents quantitative indicators showing critical levels of tourist traffic in the city.

The development of phenomena associated with tourist traffic has called for actions aimed at implementing a more sustainable model of tourism development in Kraków. However, following the outbreak of the pandemic, analyses underlying the development strategy for sustainable tourism in the coming years are no longer valid [*Polityka turystyki zrównoważonej...* 2020].

2. The COVID-19-related crisis in tourism – current state of research

The WHO's decision to declare a coronavirus pandemic and the resulting impact of lockdown restrictions on tourism prompted many tourism researchers and analysts to investigate this issue. Some studies focus on describing changes in the tourism industry brought about by COVID-19 [Goodger, Ferran 2020]. Other authors propose different scenarios of how the situation might develop in the future, including strategies of overcoming the crisis and recovery measures. Among destinations hit particularly hard by the crisis are cities that benefit mainly from the demand for a product known as 'city breaks'. The website turystykawmiescie.org, dedicated to urban tourism, offers several dozen publications, reports and articles on this topic¹. The special issue of *Tourism Geographies*, Vol. 22, No. 3, contains as many as 25 articles dealing with problems related to COVID-19. Their authors offer predictions for post-pandemic tourism [Haywood 2020], propose essential economic measure to rescue the tourism economy [Cave, Dredge 2020], point out the need for a transformation [Hall, Scott, Gössling 2020]. Some authors argue that after COVID-19 tourism needs to be transformed according to the principles of social and ecological justice [Higgins-Desbiolles 2020; Crossley 2020], with an emphasis on sustainable development and responsible tourism [Niewiadomski 2020]. Other studies have investigated the relationship between recorded infections and the use of hotels in Polish cities [Napierała, Leśniewska-

¹ <https://turystykawmiescie.org/2020/04/03/wplyw-koronawirusa-na-turystyke-raporty-badawcze-i-artykuly-naukowe/> [accessed: 2.06.2020].

Napierała, Burski 2020]. It is argued that during the period of recovery tourists are likely to prefer domestic rather than foreign trips, stays at agricultural farms or other facilities that can ensure safety and hygiene².

There have also been attempts at estimating losses caused by the pandemic and making predictions for Kraków and the region of Małopolska [Grabiński, Borkowski 2020], for which different scenarios of development in the tourism sector until 2021 have been prepared [Grabiński, Borkowski 2020].

3. Evolution of the crisis situation

As early as 16 March 2020, Tourism Economics published a report entitled “Travel & Tourism GlobalCOVID-19: updated outlook and pandemic impacts” [Dass et al. 2020], which predicted that “global arrivals would fall by at least 10.5% relative to the previous year (equivalent to 155 million arrivals)”, but there were “significant downside risks to the 2020 outlook. Under the downside scenario, global arrivals would fall 17.9% in 2020, 263 million fewer arrivals than in 2019” [Dass et al. 2020]. Once the epidemic situation has stabilized, the authors predicted a rapid recovery, with travel levels expected to recover by 2023.

So far, there have been no scenarios for a tourism recovery in Kraków, since there too many unknown factors, and no assessment of the condition of tourism entrepreneurs has been carried out. As a result, a number of divergent views are floating around as to what tools should be used to help tourism recover “after COVID-19”.

Along with the development of the pandemic, the sector of tourism services was experiencing the uncertainty associated with the gradual normalization, which was the result of the global decline in demand and travel restrictions [Covid-19. Related travel... 2020]. On 20 April, 48% of European destinations were completely or partially inaccessible because of closed borders, in 28% the entry was banned for passengers from specific countries of origin, while 17% could not be reached by air owing to suspended international flights. The results of this sudden and unexpected change in the broad environment for companies in the tourism industry had an immediate impact on their performance. Stock listings of some companies dropped by over 60%, consumers were giving up or cancelling their holidays and restrictions imposed by governments practically brought the market to a standstill. If people were to start travelling from August, the industry would stand to lose 51% of the annual tourist traffic, which would mean a decline of PLN 77.2 billion in Poland’s GDP [Branża turystyczna w Polsce... 2020].

² <https://www.profitroom.com/pl/blog/ponad-90-polakow-planuje-wakacje-2020-w-kraju-ogolnopolskie-badanie/> [accessed: 2.06.2020].

Consequently, the situation in global tourism is extremely complicated, highly volatile and requires international cooperation. The European Commission prepared a communication to the European Parliament, the Council, the European Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions entitled “Tourism and transport in 2020 and beyond”³. The “Communication and the accompanying initiatives set a coordinated framework to enable all Europe to benefit from a restful and above all, safe tourism season. [...] In doing so, it also aims to support the sustainability of our valuable tourism ecosystem for generations to come.” The communication was also “about helping Member States to lift confinement measures and resume businesses, work and social life, in line with epidemiological and public health criteria.” Under the REACT-EU initiative (the Recovery Assistance for Cohesion and the Territories of Europe), the European Commission has proposed adding €55 billion to the ongoing 2014-2020 cohesion policy programmes, which are to be provided in 2021-2022 to overcome the effects of the COVID-19 crisis and prepare a long-term transformation towards a green, digital and resilient recovery of the European economy. Member States will have additional flexibility to transfer resources among the funds at any point in time of the programming period.⁴

The EU policy for the tourism sector has also been articulated in a speech delivered by Commissioner Thierry Breton at the European Parliament on 21 April 2020, known as “A Marshall Plan for European Tourism”, which focuses on tools that can ensure liquidity [Breton 2020]. The plan also envisages the creation of “a new world benchmark for responsible, sustainable and innovative tourism” consisting of three components:

- tourism must be at the heart of the European Green Deal and should be involved in promoting sustainable tourism;
- emphasis on digital solutions and finding a balance between the so-called traditional players and the major digital platforms;
- “European tourism must become strategic: because of its economic and social weight, because it is based on a rich European history and priceless European cultural diversity; because it must protect itself from aggressive investment strategies by non-European countries” [Breton 2020].

The unknown evolution of recovery measures and the collapse in the demand for tourism services at the time of the survey, have prompted a number of hypothetical scenarios describing how the situation in Kraków and Małopolska might develop in the latter part of 2020. T. Grabiński and K. Borkowski [2020] estimated Kraków’s revenues (losses) in 2020 relative to 2019 as a result of the col-

³ https://ec.europa.eu/info/sites/info/files/communication-commission-tourism-transport-2020-and-beyond_en.pdf [accessed: 2.06.2020].

⁴ https://ec.europa.eu/regional_policy/sources/docgener/factsheet/2020_mff_reacteu_en.pdf [accessed: 2.06.2020].



Fig 1. The Main Square, before the lockdown, October 2019 (photo Z. Kruczek)

lapse of tourism flows measured in terms of visitor spending recorded so far. The Best Place Institute, specializing in place marketing, prepared a forecast report [*Prognozy dot. scenariuszy rozwoju 2020*], commissioned by Małopolska Tourism Organisation, containing scenarios for the tourism sector in Małopolska by the end of 2021 with recommendations for regional tourism policy.

Throughout the pandemic, the tourism industry kept negotiating with the central and local government authorities on the question of support measures for entrepreneurs. Given the long supply chain in the tourism sector, the negotiation process was complicated, giving rise to various solutions and divergent perspectives, but ultimately resulted in the creation of a number of recovery programmes (anti-crises shields) offered at the central and local level.

Kraków City Council, in addition to launching a general programme of support for local entrepreneurs called “Pauza” (Pause), has also prepared a few projects for the period “after COVID-19”, which can be divided into three groups in terms of their objectives: commercialisation support (“szyte na miarę”, “pakiet premium”); demand incentives, (“już lecimy”, “a może Kraków”) and the building of the tourism community under the slogan „I’m lucky to *live* where others *can only come for while*”⁵, aimed at preventing conflicts between local tourism stakeholders resulting from *urban tourism hypertrophy* observed in 2019.

Compared with the actual development of the crisis, some of the predictions made in the survey concerning the broad environment turned out either to be false, e.g. those regarding the situation in the airline industry, or have not been resolved yet (short-term rentals). It is only by observing demand-side behaviour

⁵ „Mam szczęście mieszkać tam, dokąd inni mogą przyjechać tylko na chwilę”.



Fig. 2. The Main Square, after the lockdown, April 2020 (photo Z. Kruczek)

that it will be possible in the near future to assess the validity of commercialisation measures proposed by the responding entrepreneurs.

Border closures and bilateral travel restrictions led to a complete collapse of tourism. Virtually overnight, the once bustling city became deserted. Restaurants, hotels and museums were closed, cultural events were cancelled. The situation is illustrated by two photos of Kraków's flagship tourist attraction – the Main Square, before and after the lockdown (Fig. 1 and 2).

4. Research objective and methods

The lesson that can be learned from the current crisis situation is that modern management should be based on the VUCA model. The main premises of the concept include predicting issues that shape conditions, understanding the consequences of issues and actions, appreciating the interdependence of variables, preparing for alternative realities and challenges and interpreting and addressing relevant opportunities (Fig. 3).

5. Research aim

The purpose of the study was to collect 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. The

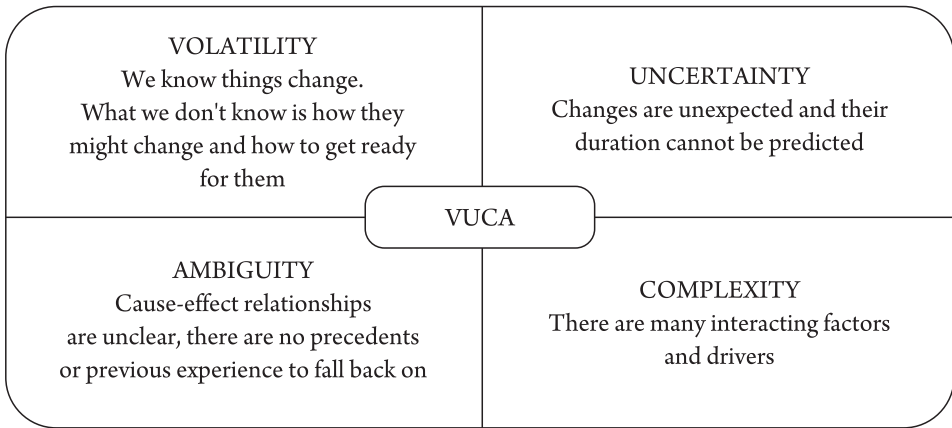


Fig. 3. The VUCA leadership model

Source: own elaboration.

respondents were asked to assess the drop in sales of tourism services, their opinions concerning the prospect of a tourist traffic recovery, possible measures that could facilitate the recovery and what they expected the local government to do in this respect.

The survey, conducted between 15 and 16 March 2020, involved 165 tourism entrepreneurs. The date of the survey was crucial for the interpretation of its results as the subsequent development of the epidemic situation would verify both the survey questions and the views expressed by the entrepreneurs.

Table 3. Respondents by type of activity in the tourism industry

Type of activity	Number	%
Hoteliers	25	15.2
Short-term rentals	10	6.1
Inbound tour operators	4	2.4
Outbound tour operators	33	20.0
Inbound and outbound tour operators	10	6.1
Coach operators	12	7.3
Tour guides	59	35.8
Attraction / museum	4	2.4
Catering	8	4.8
Total	165	100.0

Source: own elaboration.

Since the data were collected via computer-assisted web interviews (CAWI), the resulting sample was self-selected, with an overrepresentation of tour guides, relative to representatives of the accommodation or catering sectors (Table 3).

6. Kraków-based tourism entrepreneurs in the face of COVID-19

The purpose of the questions in the online interview was to determine the scale of the decline in sales at the moment of the survey, the number of cancellations in April and predictions for the coming autumn. In the middle of March, most of the respondents had recorded a practically 100% fall in sales (Table 4).

Table 4. The decline in sales recorded by the tourism entrepreneurs at the start of the epidemic

The scale of the fall	Number of responses	%
No fall recorded	0	0.0
Up to 20%	1	0.6
21-30%	1	0.6
31-40%	5	3.0
41-50%	3	1.8
51-60%	5	3.0
61-70%	5	3.0
71-80%	16	9.7
Practically 100%	129	78.2

Source: own elaboration.

In April, almost half of all respondents recorded a decline in the number of reservations (47.3%), which forced 10 entrepreneurs to close down (Table 5).

Asked to estimate the fall in reservations in the autumn, a plurality of respondents thought it was too early to make such predictions (43%). Nonetheless, many respondents had already recorded a fall in autumn reservations (Table 6).

In the following part of the questionnaire, the respondents were asked to express their agreement or disagreement with several statements concerning the recovery of tourism and their own business activity as well as expected forms of support from the local public sector. Obviously, when interpreting views ex-

Table 5. Do you expect a fall in reservations/orders since April 2020

The scale of the fall	Number of responses	%
No fall recorded	0	0.0
Up to 30%	6	3.6
31-50%	10	6.1
51-70%	42	25.5
Practically 100%	78	47.3
I had to close down	10	6.1
Too early to say	19	11.5

Source: own elaboration.

Table 6. Do you expect a fall in reservations in the autumn 2020

Do you expect a fall in reservations in the autumn?	Number of responses	%
Yes, but only slight	28	17.0
Yes, a large one.	21	12.7
Yes, practically 100%	6	3.6
There was no fall	39	23.6
Too early to say	71	43.0

Source: own elaboration.

pressed by the respondents, one has to bear in mind the moment when the survey was conducted and the fact that any support programmes had yet to be developed (municipal and governmental measures offered as part of the anti-crisis shield programme). Understandably, the respondents themselves admitted that it was *“too early to make predictions. We will certainly expect support from the city, in every respect”*.

The results showing the level of agreement or disagreement with the statements indicate the respondents' expectation of support, a possible integration within the industry but also strong competition. Prospects of a tourist traffic recovery and their own profitability are far removed into the future (Fig. 4).

The majority of the responding entrepreneurs agreed that city breaks were going to be the first to recover, although a certain degree of optimism was also expressed with regard to other tourism products, such as school trips, cultural events, and congresses and conferences. Given the subsequent development of

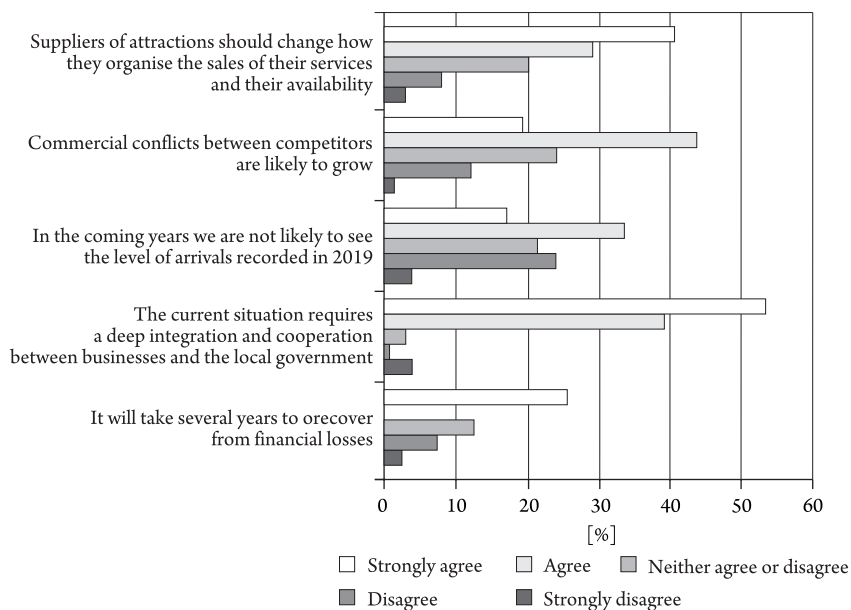


Fig. 4. The degree of respondents' agreement with statements about the development of the situation

Source: own elaboration.

the pandemic and prospects of an economic recovery, some of these predictions, especially those concerning school trips or congress tourism proved to be mistaken. It is possible that at the time of the survey the respondents expressed their expectations rather than realistic assessments (Table 7).

Table 7. Tourism products likely to see a real and quick recovery in terms of the number of visitors

Tourism products	Number of responses	%
City breaks	116	70.3
Medical tourism	13	7.9
Religious tourism	51	30.9
Congresses/conferences	63	38.2
Cultural events	62	37.6
Thematic / tailor-made products	66	40.0
School trips	54	32.7

Source: own elaboration.

Table 8. Categories of tourism likely to recover most quickly

Categories of tourism	Number of responses	%
Group tourism	16	9.7
Individual tourism	95	57.6
Both categories	22	13.3
Hard to say	32	19.4

Source: own elaboration.

Already in March the respondents indicated individual tourism as the market segment capable of the fastest recovery, but emphasizing the crucial role of the safety of travel and stay: *“Simple products that can satisfy the basic expectation of an organized and safe travel are more likely to recover”* (Table 8).

With hindsight, the range of promotional tools the respondents were planning to employ in order to support the sale of tourism services seems rather unrealistic. This is also true when it comes to measures expected of the city authorities. More realistic comments were also present: *“It’s a bit too early to think about that. We don’t know when it will be possible to travel. We may have to switch to doing something else in the meantime. Without any help, many of us are likely to join the ranks of the unemployed, which means we will in fact be receiving help”*. Although respondents did indicate various promotional tools, the range of proposed solutions seems to be too traditional and too broad (Table 9).

Table 9. Promotional tools the respondents planned to use in order to support their economic activity in tourism

Respondents’ promotional tools of choice	Number of responses	%
Participation in B2C fairs	8	4.8
Participation in B2B fairs	23	13.9
Participation in workshops	18	10.9
Partners’ study visits in Kraków	19	11.5
Business trips to foreign markets	12	7.3
AdWords campaigns	51	30.9
Remarketing campaigns	47	28.5
Promotional leaflets and catalogues	11	6.7
Flexible pricing with more discount options	48	29.1
I don’t know	70	42.4

Source: own elaboration.

Table 10. Expected forms of promotional support from the city council

Expected forms of promotional support	Number of responses	%
Participation in B2C fairs	30	18.2
Participation in B2B fairs	16	9.7
Participation in workshops	31	18.8
Organising study visits in Kraków for trade partners	62	37.6
Organising trips to the city for journalists	46	27.9
Promotional leaflets and catalogues	33	20.0
Assistance in business trips to /events held in foreign markets to build the city's image	31	18.8
Remarketing campaigns	63	38.2
AdWords campaigns	53	32.1
Support in acquiring partners for the MICE* sector	47	28.5
Social media	77	46.7
Bloggers, influencers	34	20.6
TV advertising campaigns	56	33.9
Outdoor campaigns	31	18.8
Grants to commercialise Kraków's tourism offering	65	39.4
Campaigns targeting former Kraków residents to foster recommendations	27	16.4

* MICE – Meetings, Incentives, Conferences and Events.

Source: own elaboration.

When it comes to expectations of support from the local government, the respondents mentioned various forms of promotional assistance, such as grants to commercialise their offering (39.4%), remarketing campaigns (38.2%) and organising study visits in Kraków for trade partners (37.6%). Less support was expected to facilitate respondents' participation in trade fairs and workshops (Table 10).

7. Conclusion

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 Kraków are going to recover, as well as expectations concerning the tools of marketing communication that could facilitate the recovery.

With the benefit of hindsight (the article was written in July 2020), it is possible to track the changes and assess the validity of opinions collected in the survey. Taking into account the actual developments recorded in Poland and in the world, it can be concluded that some predictions about the development of tourism have not been confirmed, e.g. those concerning the market segments likely to be the first ones to recover or effective marketing tools that would facilitate commercialisation. The empirical data are suitable for assessing the actual situation at the outbreak of the epidemic. They clearly show how indispensable it is to conduct a strategic assessment of the situation of companies according to the VUCA principles.

References

- Branża turystyczna w Polsce. Obraz sprzed pandemii, 2020, Warszawa: Polski Instytut Ekonomiczny, https://pie.net.pl/wp-content/uploads/2020/05/PIE-Raport_Turystyka.pdf [accessed: 2.06.2020].
- Breton T., 2020, *A Marshall Plan for European Tourism*, <https://www.linkedin.com/pulse/marshall-plan-european-tourism-thierry-breton/> [accessed: 2.06.2020].
- Cave J., Dredge D., 2020, Regenerative tourism needs diverse economic practices, *Tourism Geographies*, 22:3, 503-513, <https://doi.org/10.1080/14616688.2020.1768434>.
- COVID-19. Related travel restrictions a global review for tourism, Second Report as of 28 April 2020, UNWTO, <https://webunwto.s3.eu-west-1.amazonaws.com/s3fs-public/2020-04/TravelRestrictions%20-%2028%20April.pdf> [accessed: 2.06.2020].
- Crossley E., 2020, Ecological grief generates desire for environmental healing in tourism after COVID-19, *Tourism Geographies*, 22:3, 536-546, <https://doi.org/10.1080/14616688.2020.1759133>.
- Dass M., Shoory M., Trimble S.J., McDermott H., 2020, Travel & Tourism Global COVID-19: updated outlook and pandemic impacts, *Tourism Economics*, 16 March, <https://docplayer.net/183213827-Travel-tourism-global.html> [accessed: 2.06.2020].
- Goodger D., Ferran K., 2020, *City Tourism Outlook and Ranking: Coronavirus Impacts and Recovery*, Oxford, April, <https://resources.oxfordeconomics.com/hubfs/City-Tourism-Outlook-and-Ranking.pdf> [accessed: 2.06.2020]
- Grabiński T., Borkowski K., 2020, *Szacowane wpływy w gminie Kraków w 2020 roku – (straty) stosunku do roku 2019 jako efekt zatrzymania ruchu turystycznego z powodu pandemii COVID-19 i ogłoszenia stanu epidemicznego w Polsce od 13.03.2020 roku*, Kraków: Małopolska Organizacja Turystyczna,.
- Hall M., Scott D., Gössling S., 2020, Pandemics, transformations and tourism: be careful what you wish for, *Tourism Geographies*, 22:3, 577-598, <https://doi.org/10.1080/14616688.2020.1759131>.
- Haywood K.M., 2020, A post COVID-19 future – tourism re-imagined and re-enabled, *Tourism Geographies*, 22:3, 599-609, <https://doi.org/10.1080/14616688.2020.1762120>.

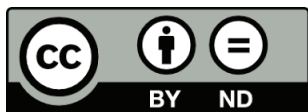
- Higgins-Desbiolles F., 2020, Socialising tourism for social and ecological justice after COVID-19, *Tourism Geographies*, 22:3, 610-623, <https://doi.org/10.1080/14616688.2020.1757748>.
https://ec.europa.eu/info/sites/info/files/communication-commission-tourism-transport-2020-and-beyond_en.pdf [accessed: 2.06.2020].
https://ec.europa.eu/regional_policy/sources/docgener/factsheet/2020_mff_reacteu_en.pdf [accessed: 2.06.2020].
<https://turystykawmiescie.org/2020/04/03/wplyw-koronawirusa-na-turystyke-raporty-badawcze-i-artykuly-naukowe/> [accessed: 2.06.2020].
<https://www.profitroom.com/pl/blog/ponad-90-polakow-planuje-wakacje-2020-w-kraju-ogolnopolskie-badanie/> [accessed: 2.06.2020].
- Kowalczyk-Anioł J., 2018, Koncepcja gentryfikacji turystycznej i jej współczesne rozumienie, *Prace Geograficzne*, 154: 35-54, DOI: 10.4467/20833113PG.18.009.8965.
- Kruczek Z., 2018, Turyści vs mieszkańcy. Wpływ nadmiernej frekwencji turystów na proces gentryfikacji miast historycznych na przykładzie Krakowa, *Turystyka Kulturowa*, 3: 29-41.
- Kruczek Z., 2019, Ways to counteract the negative effects of overtourism at tourist attractions and destinations, *Annales Universitatis Mariae Curie-Skłodowska Seria B*, 74: 45-57, DOI: 10.17951/b.2019.74.45-57.
- Kruczek Z., Mazanek L., 2019, Krakow as a Tourist Metropolitan Area. Impact of Tourism on the Economy of the City, *Studia Periegetica*, 2(26): 25-41, DOI 10.26349/st.per.0026.02.
- Miasta Historyczne 3.0. Mieszkańcy a odwiedzający – w poszukiwaniu jakości i komfortu*, 2018, Kraków: Urząd Miasta Krakowa, <https://depot.ceon.pl/bitstream/handle/123456789/16581/MIASTA%20HISTORYCZNE%203.0.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y> [accessed: 2.06.2020].
- Napierała T., Leśniewska-Napierała K., Burski R., 2020, Impact of Geographic Distribution of COVID-19 Cases on Hotels' Performances: Case of Polish Cities, *Sustainability*, 12(11), 4697, <https://doi.org/10.3390/su12114697>.
- Niewiadomski P., 2020, COVID-19: from temporary de-globalisation to a rediscovery of tourism?, *Tourism Geographies*, 22:3, 651-656, <https://doi.org/10.1080/14616688.2020.1757749>.
- Pawlusiński R., Zmysłony P., 2018, Gospodarka nocna a oferta kulturowa miast, *Turystyka Kulturowa*, 7: 7-22.
- Polityka turystyki zrównoważonej Krakowa na lata 2021-2028*, 2020, B. Walas (ed.), wersja dokumentu UMK z sierpnia 2020.
- Prognozy dot. scenariuszy rozwoju sytuacji w gospodarce turystycznej w Małopolsce do końca 2021 roku wraz z rekomendacjami dla regionalnej polityki turystycznej*, 2020, Kraków–Warszawa: Instytut Best Place i Małopolska Organizacja Turystyczna, <http://www.mot.krakow.pl/media/rok-2020/prognozy-dot-scenariuszy-dla-malopolskiej-turystyki-do-2021.pdf> [accessed: 2.06.2020].
- Ruch turystyczny w Krakowie w 2019 roku*. Badania zrealizowane przez Małopolską Organizację Turystyczną dla Gminy Miejskiej Kraków, Wydział ds. Turystyki Urzędu Miasta Krakowa, <http://www.mot.krakow.pl/media/badanie-ruchu-turystycznego/infografika-brt-krakow-2019.pdf> [accessed: 2.06.2020].

- Seweryn R., Berbeka J., Niemczyk A., Borodako K., 2017, *Wpływ ekonomiczny turystyki na gospodarkę Krakowa*, Kraków: Małopolska Organizacja Turystyczna.
- Szromek A., Kruczek Z., Walas B., 2020, The Attitude of Tourist Destination Residents towards the Effects of Overtourism – Kraków Case Study, *Sustainability*, 12(1): 228. DOI: 10.3390/su12010228.
- Walas B., 2019, Turystyczny najem krótkoterminowy w ocenie interesariuszy lokalnych, *Biuletyn KPZK PAN. Komitet Przestrzennego Zagospodarowania Kraju Polskiej Akademii Nauk*, 275: 49-62.
- Zmyślony P., Kowalczyk-Anioł J., 2019, Urban tourism hypertrophy: who should deal with it? The case of Krakow (Poland), *International Journal of Tourism Cities*, 5(2), DOI: 10.1108/IJTC-07-2018-0051.

Wpływ pandemii Covid-19 na turystykę w Krakowie w świetle opinii przedsiębiorców turystycznych

Streszczenie. Celem badań było poznanie opinii krakowskich przedsiębiorców turystycznych na temat wpływu pandemii na ich działalność oraz oczekiwań w stosunku do narzędzi komunikacji marketingowej, które miałyby odbudować komercjalizację. Respondenci zostali poproszeni o ocenę spadku sprzedaży usług turystycznych, uzyskano opinie na temat perspektywy ożywienia ruchu turystycznego i możliwych działań samorządu, które mogłyby ułatwić to ożywienie. Kraków w ostatnich latach stał się najbardziej rozpoznawalną destynacją turystyczną Polski, a liczba odwiedzających to miasto systematycznie rosła, co przekładało się na wpływy do budżetu miasta. Pojawiły się nawet opinie o krakowskim overtourismie. Wybuch pandemii Covid-19 w drastyczny sposób dotknął cały łańcuch dostaw w gospodarce turystycznej, powodując wizualną pustkę i załamanie finansowe przedsiębiorstw. Dla zdiagnozowania skali kryzysu spowodowanego pandemią przeprowadzono badanie sondażowe metodą CAWI na początku pandemii w połowie w marca 2020 r. wśród krakowskich przedsiębiorców turystycznych. Rozwój sytuacji epidemicznej i podejmowane działania ochrony branży turystycznej w okresie od połowy marca do końca czerwca 2020 r. posłużyły do zweryfikowania sformułowanych przez respondentów hipotez. Wyniki badania ukazują przewidywany przez przedsiębiorców turystycznych poziom strat ekonomicznych i przewidywane ich wystąpienie w czasie, opinie o prawdopodobnej kolejności odbudowy poszczególnych produktów turystycznych Krakowa, a także oczekiwania dotyczące narzędzi komunikacji marketingowej.

Słowa kluczowe: Covid-19, turystyka, Krakow, przedsiębiorcy turystyczni, postawy, wpływ



Copyright and license: This article is published under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution – NoDerivatives 4.0 International (CC BY-ND 4.0) License, <https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nd/4.0/>

Suggested citation: Walas B., Kruczek Z., 2020, The impact of COVID-19 on tourism in Kraków in the eyes of tourism entrepreneurs, *Studia Periegetica*, 2(30): 79-95, DOI: 10.5604/01.3001.0014.3664.

MAŁGORZATA KURLETO*

The impact of climate change on tourism in Australia – a case study relating to bushfires in Australia in 2019/2020

Abstract. The main purpose of the study is to offer a preliminary analysis of the impact of Australian bush fires on tourism in the summer season of 2019/2020. The article addresses issues related to global climate change, including Australia. The author discusses the causes and effects of recent catastrophic fires in Australia, focusing on their negative impacts for tourism. Another problem raised in the article is how climate change in Australia causes bushfires that destroy the nature and life of this country. The study mainly analyses the effects of climate change on the natural environment, especially on the most attractive tourist areas in Australia, i.e. national parks. The study uses the latest information to show the effects of damage caused by fires in Australia, especially in tourism. The author concludes that there is a direct relationship between climate change resulting from global warming and tourism demand.

Keywords: global warming, bushfires in Australia, tourism

JEL Codes: Q, Z

1. Introduction

Climate change can have catastrophic consequences. Global climate changes, observed and discussed in the international arena, have an impact on natural ecosystems and on various sectors of the economy (agriculture, industry, transport, insurance, etc.), including tourism. Recently, people all over the world have seen the effects of climate change in the form of bushfires in Australia, which have devastated vast areas of natural beauty, areas that have for many decades been

* Jagiellonian University in Kraków (Poland), Faculty of Management and Social Communication, Email: m.kurleto@uj.edu.pl, orcid.org/0000-0002-5616-4202.

ranked very high in terms of the quality of life of residents, ecological conditions, air purity and the number of tourists. Recent fires, which raged Queensland, New South Wales, South Australia and Victoria for several months, have changed this idyllic picture radically, as expressed in the following tweet: “Come visit Australia: get an early preview of Armageddon” [*Tourism Australia pauses \$ 15 million ... 2020*].

The following article addresses the causes of climate change in Australia, which result in bushfires destroying nature and devastating the country’s life, using the latest information to show the effects of damage caused by the recent bushfires, especially in the tourism sector. The article is mainly based on the analysis of news reports and information published online (especially Climate Council, Tourism Research Australia, The Sydney Morning Herald, The Guardian Australian Edition and ABC News).

2. Climate change in the world including Australia

Climate change caused by global warming is a fact. Changes in air temperature over the last 50 years (according to weather station data) show a clear, strong rising trend [Kruczek, Kruczek, Szromek 2018]. Believers in anthropogenic climate change accept that global warming is caused by human activities, which is contested by sceptics, who regard it as a natural process, where the human contribution is minimal [Van Oldenborgh et al. 2020]. Global warming causes an increase in the average atmospheric temperature at the surface of the earth and oceans, and “the path of future climate change will depend on what courses of action are taken by society – in particular the emission of greenhouse gases from the burning of fossil fuels” [Mann 2018]. Climate research, monitoring and analysis have been carried out since 1988 by the International Expert Group on Climate Change the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) operating under the auspices of the United Nations. According to its own website, “The IPCC was created to provide policy makers with regular scientific assessments of climate change, its implications and potential future threats, and to put forward for adaptation and mitigation options. Through its assessments, the IPCC determines the state of knowledge on climate change.”¹ From the analysis of the work of the IPCC it can be concluded that human activity is a major factor contributing to climate change, causing global warming, which leads to the destruction of

¹ www.ipcc.ch [accessed: 6.06.2020].

the natural environment and life on Earth [AR5 Synthesis Report... 2014]. The greenhouse effect is intensifying because there is more and more carbon dioxide and other greenhouse gases in the atmosphere. In 2015 in Paris, 195 countries signed a climate agreement that is expected to stop global warming at a level far below 2 degrees Celsius, possibly at 1.5 degrees until the end of the century [The Paris Agreement 2015]. Australia, which also signed the agreement, has the largest share of greenhouse gas emissions in the world. Australia has pledged to reduce its emissions to 26-28 per cent on 2005 levels by 2030 [Australia's 2030 climate change target 2015].

In many reports and articles in 2018, it was observed that the multi-annual tourism industry in Australia was increasingly threatened by climate change [Australia tourism industry... 2018].

In recent years, climate change has been associated with an increase in the temperature of the Indian and Southern Oceans, which in turn was responsible for dry and warmer weather in Australia in the summer of 2019-2020. It should also be noted that fires alone can contribute to climate change.

According to Nerilie Abram, "there is a 'scientifically indisputable' relationship between current extremes and anthropogenic climate change, there are other reasons why the fire season was so dramatic [Abram 2019]. For example, one factor in Australia's long-term decline in winter rainfall is the positive trend in the Southern Annular Mode (SAM) [Abram 2019]. According to Johnston, another factor is the positive phase in the Indian Ocean Dipole (IOD) [Johnson 2020]. A positive IOD "is characterized by a dipole of warmer-than-average water in the western Indian Ocean and colder-than-average water in the eastern Indian Ocean [Johnson 2020].

Yet another factor contributing to global warming is the so-called "sudden stratospheric warming" (SSW), which happened "when temperatures in the stratosphere high above the South Pole the air began rapidly heating" [The air above Antarctica... 2019]. According to official data released by the Bureau of Meteorology, Australia experienced its hottest and driest year ever in 2019 [Doyle 2020].

High temperatures and droughts, under other favourable conditions, usually lead to forest fires over large areas in different parts of the world, and it is well known that deforestation not only leads to the releasing of stored carbon dioxide but also puts an end to carbon absorption, contributing significantly to climate change. Carbon dioxide is also released during the burning of fossil fuels. It should be emphasised that the risk of fires caused by climate change may increase deforestation, which may be accelerating global warming. This results in a new environmental threat.

3. Causes and effects of fires in Australia in 2019/2020

As rightly pointed out by the Climate Council – a leading Australian non-profit organization specialized in providing information on climate change, “For well over 20 years scientists have warned that climate change would increase the risk of extreme bushfires in Australia” [The fact about bushfires and climate change 2019].

Warnings about the ecological disaster caused by forest fires in Australia have also appeared in scientific reports and press releases (see Fig. 1). A bushfire occurs if the following factors occur together: a sufficient amount of fuel (vegetation) that is dry enough to sustain the fire, plus weather conditions favourable to the spread of fire and a source of ignition [The facts about bushfires... 2019]. These factors are linked to climate change. Fires are more likely in high temperatures, in drought conditions and are often caused by environmentally harmful human activity, which has become a major factor in global environmental change [The facts about bushfires... 2019]. During a single year, the number and size of fires depend on various weather phenomena, such as El Niño, while in the long term, it is the anthropogenic causes of climate change that are the most likely

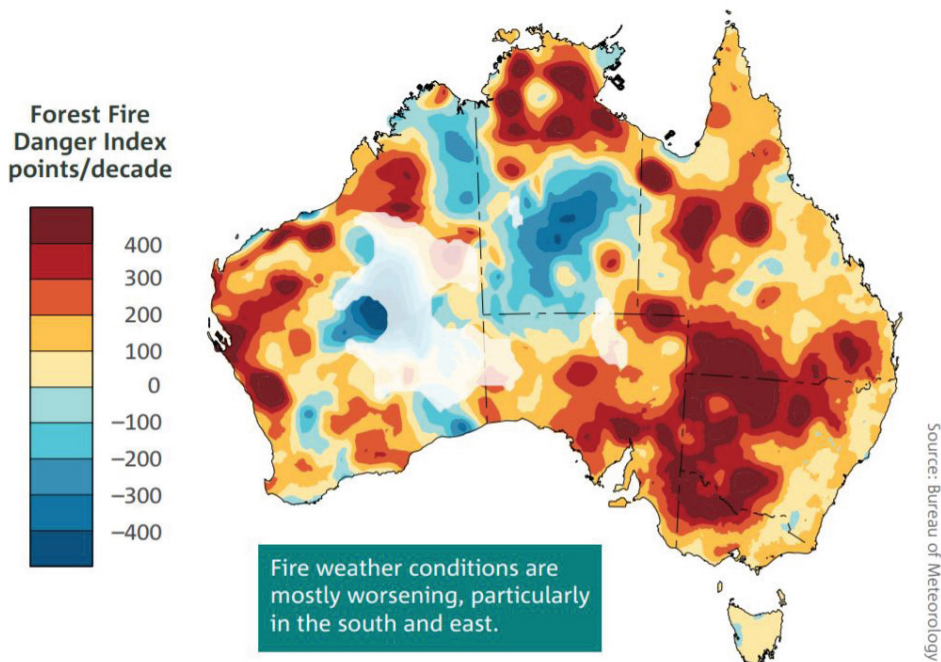


Fig. 1. Forest Fire Danger Index

Source: *State of Climate 2018*.



Fig. 2. Bushfires in Australia

Source: Lee 2020 (see: Australian fire pictures for publication without permission).

reason for the formation of so-called fire weather [What are the impacts... 2020] When describing the causes of fires, one has to mention the harmful effects of human activity. According to the Sydney Morning Herald, New South Wales police took legal action against 183 people in the 2019 season of bushfires and accused 24 people of intentionally setting fire to the bush [Media reaction... 2020].

Bush season fires 2019-2020 are widely considered among the most severe in history. Since September, fires spread to most of Southeast Australia after a period of extreme drought and record temperature [Media reaction... 2020].

In total, by January 8, about 10 million hectares (100,000 sq. km) of bush, forest and parks burned all over Australia and 28 people were killed, including four firefighters [Australia fires: A visual guide... 2020]. Professor Christopher Dickman revised his estimate of the number of animals killed in bushfires in New South Wales to more than 800 million animals; with national impact over 1 billion animals. [More than one billion animals... 2020] BBC News reported that tens of thousands of livestock were also probably killed and more than 2000 homes were destroyed [Australia fires: Almost 2,000 homes... 2020] On the Kangaroo Island “at least 89 homes were reduced to ash and 296 farm buildings destroyed” [Prideaux 2020]. The rate at which bushfires spread surprised all people in Australia including scientists specialized in biodiversity [Lee 2020, see Fig. 2].

In December 2019 and in the first days in January 2020, after the fires has burnt for several months and despite efforts of thousands of firefighters struggling to extinguish them, many still threatened to destroy small towns and caused damage to property and wildlife [Dunne, Gabbatiss, McSweeney 2020]. With the start of 2020, as a result of the incoming smoke from the fires, the air quality in the capital of Australia, Canberra, was the worst in the world. According to the Canberra Times, the air quality index was twenty times above a level deemed hazardous [Media reaction... 2020]. Australian fires were taking place on such

a scale that their effects were even felt outside its borders. Across the Tasman Sea in New Zealand, BBC News reported that smoke from Australia had turned the sky into an “eerie” yellow [*Media reaction...* 2020].

The fires in Australia were causing more than just local damage. The unprecedented conditions, including burning heat in combination with historic drought had led to the formation of an unusually large number of *pyrocumulonimbus* (pyrCbs) events [Seftor, Gutro 2020]. “PyroCbs are essentially fire-induced thunderstorms” [Seftor, Gutro 2020] and can be linked to the raging fires in Australia. They arise when ash, smoke and burning material are carried by hot air. “As these materials cool, clouds are formed that behave like traditional thunderstorms, but without accompanying precipitation” [Seftor, Gutro 2020]. These storms lead to further “fire storms, the dangerous atmospheric phenomena can worsen fires by generating intense winds, transporting embers, and striking lightning in yet- untouched regions” [Gibbens 2020]. PyroCbs carry smoke and ash about 16 km into the stratosphere [Seftor, Gutro 2020]. “Once it is in the stratosphere, the smoke can travel thousands of miles from its source, affecting atmospheric conditions globally” [Seftor, Gutro 2020]. The effects of these events, regardless of whether the spreading smoke causes warming or cooling, are being closely monitored by NASA specialists [Seftor, Gutro 2020].

4. The impact of recent catastrophic bushfires in Australia on tourism

The impact of climate change is particularly difficult to predict for such a sensitive branch of the world economy as tourism. In this case we are dealing with an extremely complex system of interactions – climate-nature-man – where each of these elements can affect one another [Czoch, Kulesza 2011]. The sensitivity of tourism lies in the significant dependence of its development on both climate and natural values [Czoch, Kulesza 2011]. In order to assess the potential impact of climate change on the development of tourism in Australia, it is necessary to emphasize the nature of the continent’s most important tourist assets, which include: holiday values, interesting landscapes and easy access to water and forests, numerous sightseeing opportunities as well as natural and cultural peculiarities (in the field of Aboriginal culture). When examining the impact of climate on tourism it is also important to remember that the quality and tourist values of a given destination are most often determined by its substantive value, uniqueness, landscape quality and safety.

Climate-induced changes in the natural environment may threaten the life and health of tourists, which may affect their decisions to visit particular tourist destinations. “Eco-tourism” based on natural, landscape and climate values, depends on weather conditions [Czoch, Kulesza 2011]. When analysing the impact of climate change on tourism, it should be emphasized that as a result of global warming natural values in some regions may deteriorate, adversely affecting the development of tourism and recreation. It is obvious that the growing frequency of extreme events, such as fires or droughts, will reduce the attractiveness of tourist destinations and the intensity of tourist traffic.

To answer questions related to the impact of global warming on tourism in Australia, it is important to provide its briefly characterisation. Tourism plays a significant part in Australia’s economy. In the financial year 2018-2019, Australia generated a total of AUD \$60.8 billion in direct tourism gross domestic product (GDP) [*The economic importance of tourism 2020*]. Tourism also directly employed 666,000 people [*The economic importance of tourism 2020*]. In 2018-2019, the country was visited by 9.3 million international visitors [*The economic importance of tourism 2020*]. The largest numbers of overseas visitors came from China, New Zealand and the USA [Australian Tourism Statistics 2020]. On 10 January 2020, “the United States warned its citizens to exercise increased caution when travelling to Australia, placing it on the same travel advisory level as Hong Kong and Papua New Guinea” [Snape 2020]. This decision can have serious consequences for Australia’s tourism, given the fact that the country is visited by 800,000 American tourists each year [Snape 2020]. As the fires kept spreading at the end of December 2019, Australia ran an advertising campaign in the US and UK led by the famous singer Kylie Minogue. However, in the face of the forest fire crisis, the campaign was suspended (although it cost AUD \$15 million) [*Tourism Australia pauses \$15 million... 2020*].

Tourists come to Australia mainly to see its extraordinary nature. They usually visit national parks and other natural areas that dominate the Australian tourism market for both local and international travellers. However, the fires have not only made it impossible to enjoy close encounters with nature in the national parks, but their effects have worsened the air quality even in cities, such as Canberra, Melbourne or Sydney.

Summer (December-February) is the most popular season for international arrivals, so financial losses incurred by tourism in the summer season 2019/2020 will be very large [Dunne, Gabbatiss, McSweeney 2020]. For example, “Kangaroo Island tourism was expected to fetch \$168 million in 2020 but local businesses are concerned that one of the island’s key industries is at risk of collapsing as tourists cancel bookings into April” [*Kangaroo Island businesses ... 2020*].

5. Conclusions

The above analysis has showed that there is a direct relationship between climate change resulting from global warming and tourism. It is estimated that climate change has increased Australia the risk of hot, dry weather by at least 30% [Ghosh 2020]. Climate change has undoubtedly caused catastrophic bushfires in Australia. Fires and the resulting large scale air pollution have become the reason why caution is required before travelling to endangered areas and why many tourists have cancelled their reservations in Australia. Kangaroo Island, Mallacoota, Blue Mountains and many other tourist destinations have become places of catastrophic destruction of wildlife including koalas, kangaroos and many other representatives of the Australian fauna. Future scenarios of the socio-economic development of the world and the increase in average temperatures and rainfall (predicted by IPCC climate models) have tried to determine the main trends/directions of change in the tourism sector in Australia. The Australian government, including Prime Minister Scott Morrison, disregarded warnings about the effects of global warming, basing energy production mainly on coal, which causes huge emissions of carbon dioxide into the atmosphere [Baxter 2020]. Losses incurred by the Australian economy and tourism as a result of destruction of the natural environment have not yet been fully assessed but undoubtedly they will reach billions of dollars. Some losses have already been estimated and the government will start paying compensation as soon as possible. However, it will take at least several months to rebuild damaged homes. Unfortunately, losses in the natural environment and, consequently the damage caused to Australia's image, cannot be made up. NASA's satellites photos of smoke from Australian fires indicate that the biggest problems have been noticed in New Zealand, where glaciers have turned brown [Irfan, Animashaun 2020]. By January 8, 2020, outside New Zealand, smoke had travelled around the Earth, even to South America, "turning skies hazy and causing colourful sunrises and sunsets". NASA scientists suspect that smoke will go around the world and return to the sky over Australia. [O'Kane 2020].

Most national parks in the southeast of the country have now been closed until further notice, including one of the biggest tourist attractions, the Blue Mountains National Park. To close the discussion on the effects of bushfires, it seems appropriate to quote an opinion of scientists and social science researchers who work in transdisciplinary climate change projects: "Although fires are natural in Australia, they're now occurring at an unprecedented frequency and intensity in areas that, historically, did not burn. This new regime does not allow the effective recovery of natural systems to their pre-fire state" [Bowman 2020].

References

- Abram N., 2019, *Australia's Angry Summer: This Is What Climate Change Looks Like*, December 31, <https://blogs.scientificamerican.com/observations/australias-angry-summer-this-is-what-climate-change-looks-like/> [accessed: 27.05.2020].
- AR5 Synthesis Report: *Climate Change*, 2014, <https://www.ipcc.ch/report/ar5/syr/> [accessed: 25.05.2020].
- Australia fires: A visual guide to the bushfire crisis*, 2020, January 13, <https://www.bbc.com/news/world-australia-50951043> [accessed: 15.02.2020].
- Australia fires: Almost 2,000 homes destroyed in marathon crisis*, 2020, January 7, <https://www.bbc.com/news/world-australia-51015536> [accessed: 30.05.2020].
- Australia tourism industry under climate change threat: study*, 2018, February 8, <https://phys.org/news/2018-02-australia-tourism-industry-climate-threat.html> [accessed: 10.02.2020].
- Australian Tourism Statistics*, 2020, <https://www.budgetdirect.com.au/travel-insurance/research/tourism-statistics.html> [accessed: 26.05.2020].
- Australia's 2030 climate change target*, 2015, <https://www.environment.gov.au/climate-change/publications/factsheet-australias-2030-climate-change-target> [accessed: 30.01.2020].
- Baxter T., 2020, *Scott Morrison's gas transition plan is a dangerous road to nowhere*, February 5, <https://www.climatecouncil.org.au/gas-transition-plan-is-a-dangerous-road-to-nowhere/> [accessed: 25.05.2020].
- Bowman D., 2020, *Yes, the Australian bush is recovering from bushfires – but it may never be the same*, February 19, <https://theconversation.com/yes-the-australian-bush-is-recovering-from-bushfires-but-it-may-never-be-the-same-131390> [accessed: 27.05.2020].
- Czoch K., Kulesza K., 2011, *Turystyka w obliczu zmian klimatu*, w: J. Krupa, T. Soliński (red.), *Turystyka wiejska, ochrona środowiska i dziedzictwo kulturowe Pogórza Dynowskiego*, Dynów: Związek Gmin Turystycznych Pogórza Dynowskiego.
- Doyle K., 2020, *2019 was Australia's hottest and driest year on record*, January 2, <https://www.weatherzone.com.au/news/2019-was-australias-hottest-and-driest-year-on-record/530814> [accessed: 25.05.2020].
- Dunne D., Gabbatiss J., McSweeney R., 2020, *Australia's bushfires and climate change: A media analysis*, January 8, <https://www.climate-diplomacy.org/news/australia%E2%80%99s-bushfires-and-climate-change-media-analysis> [accessed: 2.02.2020].
- Ghosh P., 2020, *Climate change boosted Australia bushfire risk by at least 30%*, March 4, <https://www.bbc.com/news/science-environment-51742646> [accessed: 28.05.2020].
- Gibbins S., 2020, *Intense 'frestorms' forming from Australia's deadly wildfires*, January 6, <https://www.nationalgeographic.com/science/2020/01/australian-wildfires-cause-firestorms/> [accessed: 18.06.2020].
- Irfan U., Animashaun C.H., 2020, *Australia's massive fires, as seen from space*, January 6, <https://www.vox.com/2020/1/3/21048700/australia-fires-2019-map-satellite-smoke-pollution> [accessed: 5.06.2020].

- Johnson N., 2020, *Meet ENSO's neighbour, the Indian Ocean Dipole*, February 27, 2020, <https://www.climate.gov/news-features/blogs/enso/meet-enso's-neighbor-in-dian-ocean-dipole> [accessed: 29.05.2020].
- Kangaroo Island businesses urge tourists not to abandon them after fire catastrophe*, 2020, January 8, ABC News, <https://www.abc.net.au/news/2020-01-08/kangaroo-island-tourism-impacted-by-deadly-bushfire/11850712> [accessed: 2.03.2020].
- Kruczek Z., Kruczek M., Szromek A.R., 2018, Possibilities of Using the Tourism Area Life Cycle, Model to Understand and Provide Sustainable Solution for Tourism Development in the Antarctic Region, *Sustainability* 10(1), DOI: 10.3390/su10010089.
- Lee M., 2020, *Bushfires have reshaped life on Earth before. They could do it again*, January 6, <https://www.downtoearth.org.in/news/wildlife-biodiversity/bushfires-have-reshaped-life-on-earth-before-they-could-do-it-again-68677> [accessed: 24.05.2020].
- Mann M.E., *Climate Research and the Effects of Global Warming*, 2018, <https://www.britannica.com/explore/savingearth/climate-research/> [accessed: 27.05.2020].
- Media reaction: Australia's bushfires and climate change*, 2020, 7 January, <https://www.carbonbrief.org/media-reaction-australias-bushfires-and-climate-change> [accessed: 25.05.2020].
- More than one billion animals killed in Australian bushfires* 2020, 8 January, <https://www.sydney.edu.au/news-opinion/news/2020/01/08/australian-bushfires-more-than-one-billion-animals-impacted.html> [accessed: 26.05.2020].
- O'Kane C., 2020, *Smoke from Australian wildfires will circle the entire world, NASA says*, <https://www.cbsnews.com/news/australia-fires-nasa-says-smoke-from-wildfires-will-circle-the-entire-world-globe-earth/> [accessed: 30.05.2020].
- Prideaux M., 2020, *From the ashes of Australia's wildfires, The Ecologist – The Journal for the post – industrial age*, March 11, <https://theecologist.org/2020/mar/11/ashes-australias-wildfires> [accessed: 30.05.2020].
- Seftor C., Gutro R., 2020, *NASA Animates World Path of Smoke and Aerosols from Australian Fires*, January 9, <https://www.nasa.gov/feature/goddard/2020/nasa-animates-world-path-of-smoke-and-aerosols-from-australian-fires> [accessed: 25.02.2020].
- Snape J., 2020, *Australia suffers tourism blow from bushfires and air quality as US Department of State updates travel advisory*, January 9, <https://www.abc.net.au/news/2020-01-09/australian-tourism-blow-us-travel-advisory-bushfires-air-quality/11855860> [accessed: 21.01.2020].
- State of Climate*, 2018, Bureau of Meteorology and CSIRO, <http://www.bom.gov.au/state-of-the-climate/State-of-the-Climite-2018.pdf> [accessed: 6.06.2020].
- The air above Antarctica is suddenly getting warmer – here's what it means for Australia*, 2019, September 9, <http://www.bom.gov.au/climate/updates/articles/a035.shtml> [accessed: 24.05.2020].
- The economic importance of tourism*, 2020, <https://www.tourism.australia.com/en/markets-and-stats/tourism-statistics/the-economic-importance-of-tourism.html> [accessed: 10.09.2020].
- The facts about bushfires and climate change*, 2019, November 13, <https://www.climate-council.org.au/not-normal-climate-change-bushfire-web/> [accessed: 26.01.2020].
- The Paris Agreement*, 2015, <https://unfccc.int/process-and-meetings/the-paris-agreement/the-paris-agreement> [accessed: 28.05.2020].

Tourism Australia pauses \$15 million „Matesong” ad campaign featuring Kylie Minogue amid bushfire crisis, 2020, January 9, <https://www.news.com.au/travel/travel-ideas/adventure/tourism-australia-pauses-15-million-matesong-ad-campaign-featuring-kylie-minogue-amid-bushfire-crisis/news-story/d967860fb7ee03b908beb6a272d207f4> [accessed: 8.02.2020].

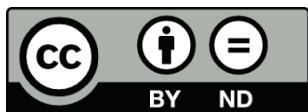
Van Oldenborgh J.G., Krikken F., Lewis S., Leach N.J., 2020, *Attribution of the Australian bushfire risk to anthropogenic climate change*, DOI: 10.5194/nhess-2020-69 [accessed: 26.05.2020].

What are the impacts of climate change?, 2020, <https://www.science.org.au/learning/general-audience/science-climate-change/7-what-are-impacts-of-climate-change> [accessed: 5.06.2020].

Wpływ zmian klimatu na turystykę w Australii – studium przypadku w związku z pożarami w Australii na przełomie 2019/2020

Abstrakt. Głównym celem artykułu jest wstępna analiza wpływu pożarów krzewów australijskich na turystykę w sezonie letnim 2019/2020. Autorka omawia zagadnienia związane ze zmianami klimatu na świecie, a przede wszystkim w Australii. Analiza obejmuje przyczyny i skutki niedawnych katastrofalnych pożarów w Australii, ze szczególnym uwzględnieniem strat w sferze turystyki. Opisane zostały przyczyny zmian klimatu w Australii, które pociągają za sobą pożary lasów niszczące przyrodę i zaburzające życie kraju. Analiza skupia się głównie na tym, jak zmiany klimatu wpływają na środowisko naturalne, szczególnie na najpopularniejsze obszary o wartości turystycznej w Australii, tj. parki narodowe. Autorka przywołuje aktualne informacje na temat skutków strat spowodowanych przez pożary w Australii, zwłaszcza w sektorze turystycznym. Analiza wykazała, że istnieje bezpośredni związek między zmianami klimatu wynikającymi z globalnego ocieplenia a popytem turystycznym.

Słowa kluczowe: globalne ocieplenie, pożary buszu w Australii, turystyka



Copyright and license: This article is published under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution – NoDerivatives 4.0 International (CC BY-ND 4.0) License, <https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nd/4.0/>

Suggested citation: Kurlito M., 2020, The impact of climate change on tourism in Australia – a case study relating to bushfires in Australia in 2019/2020, *Studia Periegetica*, 2(30): 97-107, DOI: 10.5604/01.3001.0014.3966.

ALEKSANDRA ŁAPKO*, ROMA STRULAK-WÓJCIKIEWICZ**, ALEKSANDER PANASIUK***

Air quality as a factor affecting urban tourism

Abstract. The purpose of the article is to determine whether potential tourists consider information about a city's air quality in their assessment of its tourist attractiveness and how this information affects their travel decisions. Urban tourism is a common and dynamically developing form of tourism. Cities encourage tourists to visit them with various attractions, cultural, gastronomic and accommodation offerings as well as mass events. At the same time, they are often industrial centres and important transportation hubs, which makes them characterized by a high degree of air pollution. The article presents results of a survey involving 509 respondents from Poland. The data were used to assess to what extent information about air quality in a given city is relevant for people planning a tourist trip. In addition, the survey provided information about factors that could increase the respondents' interest in the level of air quality in a city they were planning to visit. Particular attention was paid to the respondents' health. Many diseases can be the result of air pollution, or can be aggravated by substances contained in smog. Therefore, the authors tried to determine whether people suffering from such illnesses were more likely to pay special attention to air quality in their prospective destinations. The results constitute a significant contribution to the knowledge about the factors affecting demand in urban tourism. They may be relevant for entities responsible for managing cities and promoting tourism products. The article also draws attention to the fact that problems arising from air pollution in cities can affect not only their residents, but also tourists.

Keywords: urban tourism, tourism management, tourist attractiveness, sustainable tourism

JEL Codes: Z32, Q59, D01

* Maritime University of Szczecin (Poland), Faculty of Engineering and Transport Economics, Email: a.lapko@am.szczecin.pl, orcid.org/0000-0003-0235-6329.

** Maritime University of Szczecin (Poland), Faculty of Engineering and Transport Economics, Email: r.strulak@am.szczecin.pl, orcid.org/0000-0002-9702-7554.

*** Jagiellonian University (Poland), Faculty of Management and Social Communication, Email: aleksander.panasiuk@uj.edu.pl, orcid.org/0000-0002-5807-6636.

1. Introduction

The modern tourist market is affected by many negative phenomena, which have a considerable effect on the functioning of urban tourist destinations and on decisions made by potential tourists regarding the choice of a particular destination. These phenomena threaten the development of cities and urban tourism, which is one of the most popular forms of tourism. Cities which function as tourist destinations are characterized by a high concentration of tourist traffic, hence these negative phenomena often largely affect urban tourism space. One important category of threats to incoming tourist traffic includes factors causing the quality of urban space to deteriorate, as a result of activities of business entities, transportation and the daily life of residents.

The main aim of the article is to determine whether air quality in a given city is an important factor for people planning a tourist trip. To do that, the authors examined the principles and methods of providing information about the current state of air pollution in cities in Poland and in the European Union. Additionally, a questionnaire survey was conducted to identify factors that could encourage potential tourist to become more interested in information about air quality in their prospective destinations.

The subject is important given the mass character of urban tourism and the growing number of cities facing problems with maintaining official air quality standards. As demonstrated by the literature review, despite its importance, the subject is rarely the focus of scientific research. Therefore, the study fills an existing research gap. It also draws attention to the fact that air quality in cities is important not only for their inhabitants, but also for potential tourists, who take it into consideration when assessing their tourist attractiveness; it can, therefore, influence the economy of a given city.

2. Methods

The impact of information about the level of air pollution on decisions concerning tourist trips was examined on the basis of data collected using a CAWI survey. The link to the survey was sent via e-mail and was also posted on the authors' Facebook profiles. Emails advertising the survey were sent to employees of universities, public administration offices, public libraries and other institutions in various Polish cities between February and May 2019, with a request to make it available to potential respondents. It was assumed that each respondent was a potential tourist. However, participation in the survey was limited to respondents

aged 18 and older. In addition, because the survey was conducted in Polish, it did not include any foreigners. 509 persons responded to the survey.

3. Basic information on urban tourism, air pollution and air quality reporting

It is estimated that cities occupy about 2% of the Earth's surface area, but they are inhabited by about 50% of the world's population, and by 2050 this percentage will have increased to 70% [Broere 2016; Luck et al. 2011; IARC 2016]).

It is difficult to unequivocally identify cases of urban tourism because of a wide spectrum of motives for tourist arrivals, which are associated with patterns of tourist behaviour and consumption in cities [Edwards, Griffin, Haylla, 2008; Gospodini 2001; Pawlicz 2008; Koppen 2009; Law 2002]. Urban tourism, also frequently described as metropolitan tourism [Hall 2002], is connected with the destination of tourist traffic, which is an urban area, or more broadly, a metropolitan area, with a developed urban infrastructure, including transport, accommodation, catering, culture, sports and recreation, entertainment, trade, and communal and other services that cater for the needs of tourists and permanent residents [Panasiuk 2007; Rani 2017; Paunović 2014]. Typical objectives that direct tourists to cities include: Sightseeing, cultural, business, sports, family, social, and shopping motives.

Intensive human activity in the urban space results in the creation of pollution, particularly air pollution, which poses a major hazard to human health. There are many causes of air pollution, including non-industrial combustion processes (e.g. from households), combustion processes in the energy sector, road transport, industrial combustion processes, production processes, waste management [Mohamad, Deni, Ul-Saufie 2018; Edwards, Evans 2017]. Air pollutants in cities include various types of particulate matter (PM10 and PM2.5), nitrogen oxides (NOx), sulfur oxides (SOx) and tropospheric ozone. Pollutants negatively affect human health. The impact on individual systems of the human body is briefly presented in Table 1.

PM10 and PM2.5, i.e. particulate matter consisting of particles with an aerodynamic diameter smaller than respectively 10 and 2.5 micrometres. It is a complex mixture of small particles and liquid droplets in the atmosphere, which can consist of aerosols, powders, metals, combustion products, or microorganisms (such as protozoa, bacteria, viruses, fungi and pollen) and can cause different types of diseases [Ramirez-Leal, Cruz-Campas Estuardo-Moreno 2018]. Particulate matter is considered to be the main air pollutant. When inhaled, particles are not always expelled by the body's immune system, causing a variety of human

Table 1. Impact of air pollutants on the human body

Air pollutant	Impact on the human body				
	Central nervous system (Alzheimer's disease, headaches, migraines)	Respiratory system (asthma, cancer)	Cardiovascular system	Liver, spleen, blood	Reproductive system
PM10	X	X	X	-	X
PM2.5	X	X	X	-	X
NOx	-	-	-	X	-
SOx	X	-	X	-	-
O ₃	-	-	X	-	-

X: proven impact, (-): no proven impact

Source: based on ZEC 2020.

health problems [Directive 2008/50/EC 2008]. They are so dangerous because, in the case of PM2.5, there is no identifiable threshold below which they do not pose a risk [EEA 2015]. Children, the elderly and pregnant women are particularly vulnerable to air pollution. Particulate matter can also cause delayed intellectual development, lung development disorders, problems with memory, attention and concentration. In the elderly, long-term contact with particulate matter increases the risk of heart attack and impairs mental performance (dementia).

Nitrogen oxides (NOx) and sulphur oxides (SOx) in the air also cause health problems. Long term exposure can decrease lung function, increase the risk of respiratory conditions and contribute to the formation or exacerbation of allergy [Lin et al. 2019]. These compounds cause smog and acid rain and contribute to the formation of fine particles (PM) and tropospheric ozone.

Tropospheric ozone (O₃), otherwise known as ground-level ozone, is a secondary pollutant that is formed as a result of photochemical reactions of nitrogen oxides and volatile organic compounds in the atmosphere [GIOŚ 2016]. Its formation is accelerated by high air temperatures. For this reason, the highest concentrations are usually recorded in spring and summer, so in the high tourist season. Tropospheric ozone is a major component of smog and has an extremely negative impact on human respiratory system [CCAC 2020].

Exposure to air pollution is associated with increased mortality and a shortened life expectancy, even at relatively low concentrations [Jędrak et al. 2017]. Based on data for 2011 from 39 countries, it was estimated that about 430 000 premature deaths in the EU were attributed to PM2.5 and PM10 [Acid News 2016]. As regards, worldwide health impacts of air pollution, there are around 7 million deaths a year, and in Poland between 42,000 and 45,000 die every year

due to the exposure to pollution and the resulting respiratory, cardiovascular and cancer diseases, (statistically one person every ten minutes); in addition, pollution is responsible for about 2,000 miscarriages [ZEC 2020].

Owing to the threat posed by air pollution to the human body, most countries publish their air pollution levels to enable people to avoid the risk associated with going outside or use various personal protective equipment. While there are EU guidelines concerning information and alarm levels for SO₂, NO₂ and O₃ [Directive 2008/50/EC], no such guidelines exist for PM10 concentration and, therefore, specific requirements in this respect are determined by individual countries. Since this is the responsibility of national, regional or local administrations, specific arrangements apply to the whole country and sometimes to individual regions or cities. Member States decide on their own whether or not to report the level of air pollution. However, most European countries have introduced such limits to protect their citizens' health. Based on the available data, Table 2 shows examples of PM10 alarm levels in different European countries, regions and cities.

Table 2. Information and alert levels for PM10 concentrations in selected EU countries and regions/cities ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$)

No.	Country name	Information thresholds * ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$)	Alert thresholds ** ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$)
1	Austria	50	75
2	Belgium	50	70
3	Czech Republic	100	150
4	Finland	50	50
5	France	50	80
6	Germany (Stuttgart)	no data available	50
7	Great Britain	76	101
8	Hungary	75	100
9	Italy (Lombardy)	50	75
10	Macedonia	50	100
11	Poland***	100	150
12	Slovakia	100	150
13	Spain (Catalonia)	50	80
14	Switzerland	75	100

* Information Threshold: At this stage it is obligatory to inform the population and make it aware about risks to particularly sensitive groups (children, elderly, patients).

** Alert Threshold: At this stage it is obligatory to take concrete steps to reduce smog. The entire population is affected by health risks.

*** Data update for 2019 [GIOŚ 2020].

Source: based on Wiesen 2017.

As shown in Table 2, information and alarm levels in Poland are among the highest in Europe. Interestingly, until recently (October 2019) they were even higher. Previously, the information threshold was $200 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ and the alarm threshold was $300 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$. These were the highest values in Europe. The decision to set such high values is motivated by high levels of air pollution, which actually exceeds the average European standards for most of the year.

In Poland, information on pollution in individual cities is widely available. The task of collecting such information is the responsibility of Provincial Inspectorates for Environmental Protection that have specialist and licensed measuring equipment. The inspectorates publish the measurement results on their websites. Most cities in Poland disseminate such information, using the following channels:

- websites, including weather services,
- daily radio and television news bulletins (local, regional and national) about air pollution in the region and types of preventive measures that need to be taken to mitigate its impact on health,
- information in daily newspapers,
- digital message boards (used in some Polish cities, including Kraków) placed on main streets, public transport stops or monitors inside trams and buses.

In addition, there are many websites with information on air quality around the globe. Therefore, anyone interested can easily access the latest information about the level of pollution [Łapko, Strulak-Wójcikiewicz, Panasiuk 2020; Łapko et. al. 2020].

Certainly, the effects of pollution are mainly experienced by city dwellers, because they undergo long-term exposure. In some cases, however, even short-term exposure can be dangerous, especially for people with respiratory illnesses. In such cases, the disease may become more severe. People aware of the effects of breathing polluted air are more likely to avoid situations where this is inevitable, such as tourist trips to cities with a high concentration of harmful substances. Since such travel is usually voluntary, the question arises whether air quality in a given city is taken into account by potential tourists in their decisions concerning tourist trips to urban destinations. In particular, during the survey, respondents were asked if they checked the level of pollution in their prospective destination? In another question, they were asked whether, in the event of a trip to a city where the concentration of pollution exceeds permissible levels, they intended to protect themselves against harmful substances and if such measures were related to their current state of health.

4. Results and discussion

509 people responded to the survey, with women accounting for almost three quarters (74%). All respondents were aged between 18 to 75. Figure 1 shows the breakdown of the sample into 7 age groups.

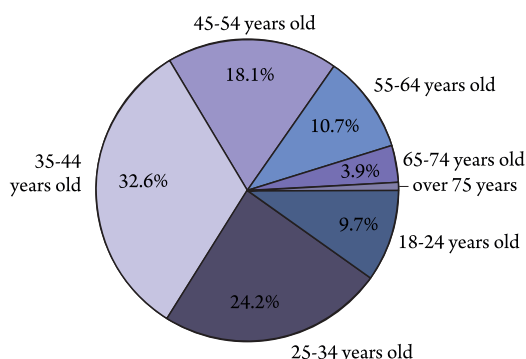


Fig. 1. Age distribution of the respondents

Source: personal collection.

The purpose of the survey was to determine the impact of information about air pollution in a given city on respondents' decisions concerning tourist trips. At the start, all respondents were asked about the frequency of their tourist trips to Polish and foreign cities. Their responses to this question are presented in Figure 2. In both cases, information provided concerned trips lasting up to 1 week.

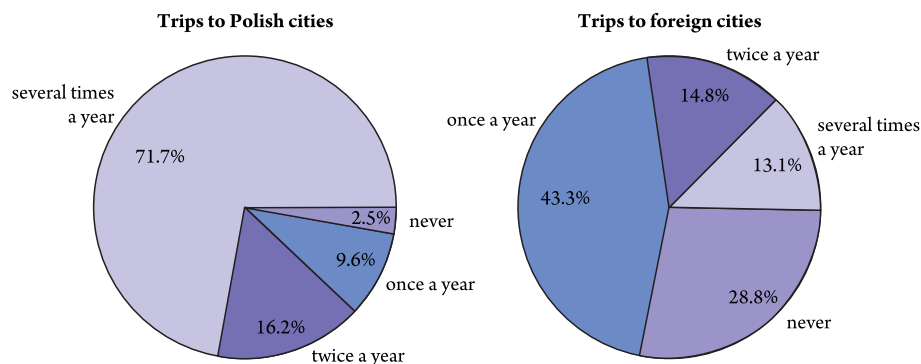


Fig. 2. Frequency of private trips to Polish and foreign cities

Source: personal collection.

The purpose of the following question was to find out whether the level of air pollution affects the tourist attractiveness of cities. Answers were given on a five-point Likert scale. The results are shown in Figure 3.

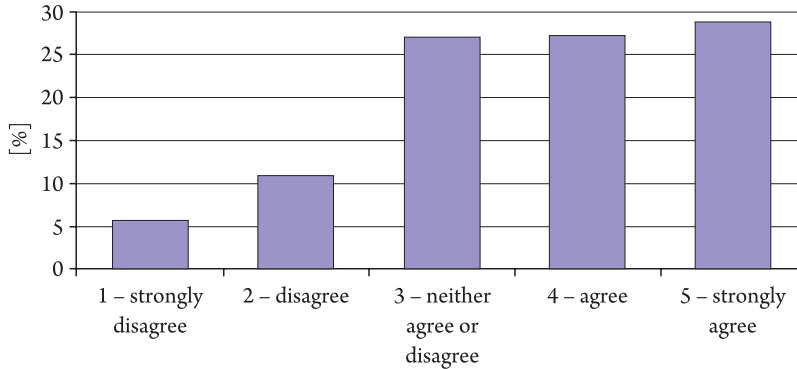


Fig. 3. Distribution of answers to the question: “Do you think that the level of air pollution affects the tourist attractiveness of cities?”

Source: personal collection.

After adding up all positive and negative answers, it turns out that for 56.3% of respondents the level of air pollution has an effect on the tourist attractiveness of cities, while for 16% of respondents, it does not. Nonetheless, in the last 3 years only 12.5% of respondents had decided to cancel their plans of visiting a given city because of information about its poor air quality.

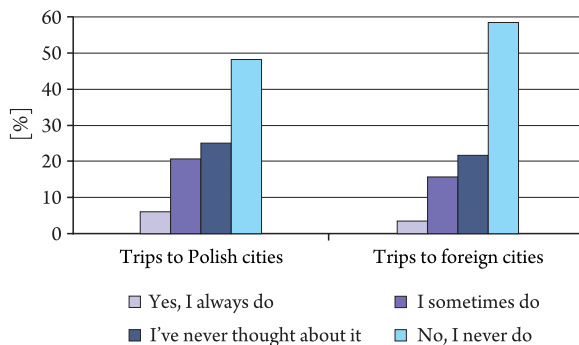


Fig. 4. Distribution of answers to the question: “Do you check the level of air pollution in the destination city before travelling?” depending on city location

Source: personal collection.

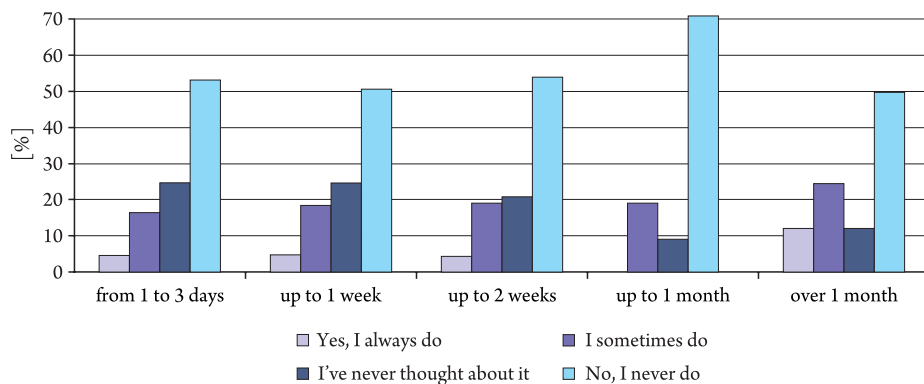


Fig. 5. Distribution of answers to the question “Do you check the level of air pollution in the destination city before travelling?” depending on the duration of the planned trip

Source: personal collection.

In the following question the respondents were asked whether they checked the level of air pollution before traveling (Fig. 4).

Regardless of the length of the planned trip (Fig. 5), at least 50% of respondents said they never checked the level of air pollution. However, in the case of trips lasting more than 1 month, as many as 13% of respondents claimed to always check such information.

Another question concerned respondents' health (Fig. 6). 30.2% of all respondents admitted to suffering from some kind of a chronic disease.

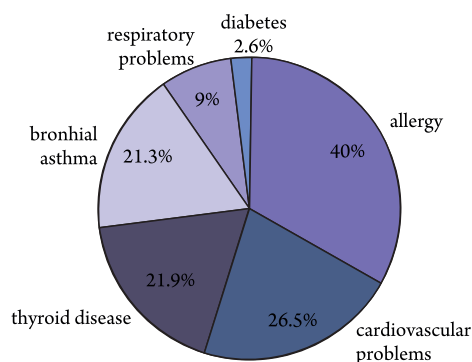


Fig. 6. Distribution of answers to the question: “What chronic diseases do you suffer from?”

Source: personal collection.

In view of this finding, the authors decided to check how many of the chronically ill respondents paid attention to the level of air pollution in cities they were planning to visit (Fig. 7). It was found that most of them either never did so. Interestingly, of the chronically ill respondents who were interested in information about air quality in Polish cities (6.5%), 60% suffered from allergies and only 30% from respiratory problems. Among those planning trips to foreign cities (2.6%), 75% suffered from allergies but there were no people with respiratory problems.

By comparing responses given by all respondents and those with chronic diseases (see Fig. 4 and 7), it can be concluded that a person's health has no impact on their propensity to check the level of air pollution in a given destination.

In order to reduce the negative impact of air pollution on health, various protective measures can be applied. To what extent they are actually used depends on people's awareness of the negative health effects of air pollution. Figure 8 shows respondents' answers to the question: "If you were to travel to a city with poor air quality, would you use any of the following protective measures: a protective mask, pharmaceuticals, limited time spent outside?" 14% of respondents would allow the use of a protective mask, and 7% would be willing to use pharmaceuticals, while the largest number of people (26%) would reduce the time spent outdoors as a method of protection against pollution.

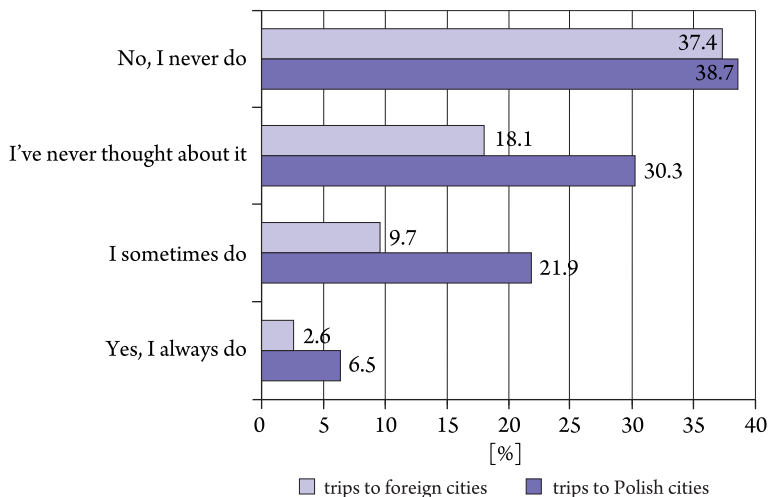


Fig. 7. Distribution of answers of chronically ill respondents to the question "Do you check the level of air pollution in the destination city before travelling?" depending on city location

Source: personal collection.

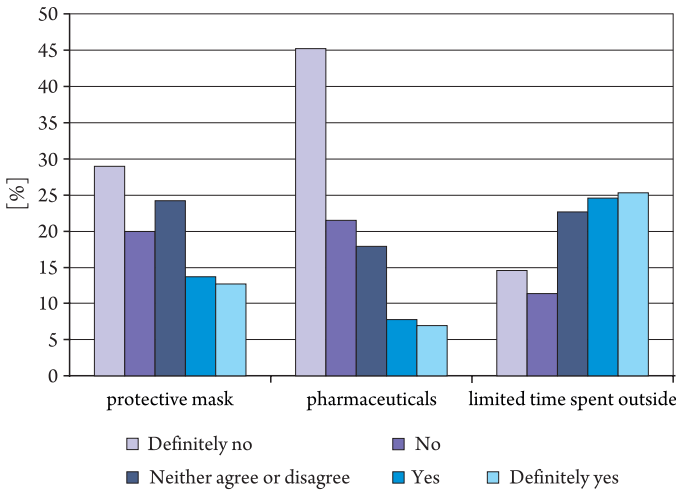


Fig. 8. Respondents' answers to the question: "If you were to travel to a city with poor air quality, would you use any of the following protective measures: a protective mask, pharmaceuticals, limited time spent outside?"

Source: personal collection.

However, most respondents indicated no willingness to use any personal protection measures against pollution. As many as 45% of people would definitely refuse to use pharmaceuticals, 29% would definitely not wear a protective mask, and 15% would definitely not limit the time spent outdoors.

5. Conclusion

More than half of all respondents agreed that air quality was a key factor in their subjective assessment of how attractive a given city destination was. The survey results reveal a contradiction between respondents' beliefs and their actual behaviours. Although air quality was considered to be a factor affecting the attractiveness of a destination by over a half of all respondents (56%), relatively few of them actually checked the level of air pollution in their prospective destinations. This is all the more surprising, when one considers how easily available such information is.

Equally surprising were respondents' answers regarding their willingness to use personal protective equipment against pollution. No correlation was found between the respondents' health and the habit of checking information about

air pollution. This is surprising, given that most of the diseases indicated by the respondents can be associated with air pollution, which can be either be a causative agent or a factor exacerbating the disease. One would therefore expect such people to be particularly interested in information about air quality. Nonetheless, it was found that, regardless of their health, few respondents were ready to wear masks or use other forms of protection. This situation in Poland may change soon. Since April 16, 2020, the use of protective masks in public places has been mandatory due to the COVID-19 pandemic. The ubiquity of this form of protection eliminates potential psychological barriers, which may have been caused some people to avoid wearing masks. Perhaps once the pandemic is over and the obligation to wear masks has been lifted, more people will be willing to use this form of protection against smog. In quantitative terms, smog is more dangerous to human health than the current pandemic. As mentioned earlier, globally, pollution is responsible for 7 million deaths annually, and in Poland for over 40,000. In comparison, SARS-CoV-2 coronavirus, at the time of writing, had caused around 315,000 deaths in the world, including 925 in Poland (data as at 18 May 2020).

People particularly vulnerable to health problems as a result of air pollution include those suffering from chronic respiratory and circulatory diseases, which can largely result from prolonged exposure to air pollution. Therefore, the lack of willingness to use protective measures against air pollution displayed by the majority of potential tourists may be due to the lack of knowledge about this hazard or perhaps result from neglect and underestimating its seriousness.

No doubt, further action is required in the field of education. Air quality and related information is already affecting travel decisions of potential tourists, and, consequently shapes the general tourist image of every city.

In addition to educational activities aimed at raising awareness of the impact of pollution on health, actions should also be taken to improve air quality in cities. Efforts to limit emissions will support the development of cities, including urban tourism, and increase their level of competitiveness, including the level of tourist attractiveness. They can be highlighted as part of cities' promotional efforts on the tourist market and boost their positive tourist image. Such initiatives are a great opportunity for cities which, until now, have not been so popular with tourists and have not shown much concern for air quality in their promotional activities.

In view of the above, it is obvious that the task of managing the city's tourism offering and its tourist attractiveness should be mainly the responsibility of local government units in cooperation with tourist organizations, including economic organisations, regional, and local tourist organizations, and, above all, tourist enterprises. They should be involved in providing information about air quality in urban areas via websites and directly to potential and actual tourists, because it directly influences travel decisions of potential tourists.

At the same time, it should be noted that in 2020 it is difficult to write about tourism and set directions for its development on the basis of observations made and data collected before the outbreak of the COVID-19 pandemic. Nobody can predict how tourism will develop in the future, and the only thing remains certain is that it will change a lot. Tourism, including urban tourism, had been developing dynamically for decades and suddenly, in just a few weeks, there was a huge stagnation. Tourist travel has virtually ceased almost all over the world. Owing to the restrictions imposed to stop the spread of the coronavirus, urban tourism is currently experiencing a major regression. In many countries, access to major tourist attractions (museums, architectural monuments) and services (gastronomy, shopping malls) has been restricted. The organization of mass events, such as festivals, concerts and fairs, has been prohibited. The fear of being among large groups of people may remain in people for a long time after the restrictions have been lifted, and it may take several years for urban tourism to return to its pre-pandemic level.

References

- Acid News, 2016, https://www.airclim.org/sites/default/files/acidnews_pdf/AN1-16.pdf [accessed: 15.06.2020].
- Broere W., 2016, Urban underground space: Solving the problems of today's cities, *Tunnelling and Underground Space Technology*, 55: 245-248, doi.org/10.1016/j.tust.2015.11.012.
- CCAC, 2020, *Tropospheric ozone*, <https://www.ccacoalition.org/ru/slcps/tropospheric-ozone> [accessed: 5.06.2020].
- Directive 2008/50/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council of 21 May 2008 on ambient air quality and cleaner air for Europe, OJ L 152, 11.6.2008, p. 1-44.
- Edwards D., Griffin T., Hayllar B., 2008, Urban tourism research: Developing an agenda, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 35(4):1032-1052, doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2008.09.002.
- Edwards P.M., Evans M.J., 2017, A new diagnostic for tropospheric ozone production, *Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics*, 17: 13669-13680, doi.org/10.5194/acp-17-13669-2017.
- EEA, 2015, The European environment–state and outlook 2015: synthesis report, *European Environment Agency, Copenhagen*, <https://www.eea.europa.eu/soer#tab-synthesis-report> [accessed: 10.06.2020].
- GIOŚ, 2016, *Ozon – dobry i zły*, <http://www.gios.gov.pl/pl/aktualnosci/344-ozon-dobry-i-zly> [accessed: 19.06.2020].
- GIOŚ, 2020, *Rozporządzenie Ministra Środowiska z dnia 8 października 2019 r. zmieniające rozporządzenie w sprawie poziomów niektórych substancji w powietrzu*, <https://powietrze.gios.gov.pl/pjp/content/show/1001717> [accessed: 19.06.2020].

- Gospodini A., 2001, Urban design, urban space morphology, urban tourism: An emerging new paradigm concerning their relationship, *European Planning Studies*, 9(7): 925-934, doi.org/10.1080/09654310120079841.
- Hall C.M., 2002, Tourism in capital cities, *Tourism: An International Interdisciplinary Journal*, 50, 235-248.
- IARC, 2016, *Outdoor air pollution*, IARC Monographs on the Evaluation of Carcinogenic Risks to Humans, Vol. 109, Geneva, , <http://monographs.iarc.fr/ENG/Monographs/vol109/index.php> [accessed: 19.06.2020].
- Jędrak J., Konduracka E., Badyda A.J., Dąbrowiecki P., 2017, *Wpływ zanieczyszczeń powietrza na zdrowie*, Krakowski Alarm Smogowy.
- Koppen Y., 2009, *The Potential of Cross-Marketing for the Destination Management Organizations of New York City and New York State*, Bonn: GRIN Verlag.
- Łapko A., Panasiuk A., Strulak-Wójcikiewicz R., Landowski M., 2020, The State of Air Pollution as a Factor Determining the Assessment of a City's Tourist Attractiveness – Based on the Opinions of Polish Respondents, *Sustainability*, 12(4): 1466, doi.org/10.3390/su12041466.
- Łapko A., Strulak-Wójcikiewicz R. & Panasiuk A., 2020, Źródła informacji o zanieczyszczeniach powietrza jako narzędzie planowania wyjazdów turystycznych, article after review, waiting for publication, chapter of the Jagiellonian University monograph.
- Law C.M., 2002, *Urban Tourism: The Visitor Economy and the Growth of Large Cities*, London: Cengage Learning Emea.
- Lin C.A., Chen Y.C., Liu C.Y., Chen W.T., Seinfeld J.H., Chou C.C.K., 2019, Satellite-Derived Correlation of SO₂, NO₂, and Aerosol Optical Depth with Meteorological Conditions over East Asia from 2005 to 2015, *Remote Sensing*, 11(15): 1738, doi.org/10.3390/rs11151738.
- Luck G.W., Davidson P., Boxall D., Smallbone L., 2011, Relations between urban bird and plant communities and human wellbeing and connection to nature, *Conservation Biology*, 25(4), 816-826, doi.org/10.1111/j.1523-1739.2011.01685.x.
- Mohamad N.S., Deni S.M., Ul-Saufie A.Z., 2018, Application of the First Order of Markov Chain Model in Describing the PM10 Occurrences in Shah Alam and Jerantut, Malaysia, *Pertanika Journal of Science & Technology*, 26(1).
- Panasiuk A., 2007, Tourism Infrastructure as a Determinant of Regional Development, *Ekonomika ir Vydaba: Aktualijos ir Perspektyvos*, 1(8), 212-215.
- Paunović I., 2014, Branding Serbia as a tourist destination on the global market, *Turizam*, 18(2), 59-71, doi.org/10.5937/Turizam1402059P.
- Pawlicz A., 2008, *Promocja produktu turystycznego. Turystyka miejska*, Warszawa: Difin.
- Ramirez-Leal R., Cruz-Campas M., Estuardo-Moreno H., 2018, Characterization of PM10 Particles by SEM-EDS, *Microscopy and Microanalysis*, 24(S1): 1070-1071, doi.org/10.1017/S1431927618005834.
- Rani H.A., 2017, Determination of Tourism Infrastructure Development Priority in Weh Island – Aceh using Location Quotient, *International Journal of Emerging Technology and Advanced Engineering*, 7(2): 1-4.

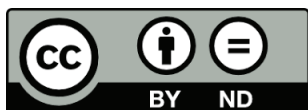
Wiesen M., 2017, Air Pollution Emergency Schemes (Smog Alerts) in Europe, Budapest, https://www.levego.hu/sites/default/files/smog_emergency_schemes_in_europe_201703.pdf [accessed: 5.06.2020].

ZEC, 2020, *Twórzmy miasto bez smogu*, <https://www.zec.inowroclaw.pl/aktualnosci/more,20561223> [accessed: 10.06.2020].

Jakość powietrza jako czynnik wpływający na turystykę miejską

Streszczenie. Celem artykułu było zdiagnozowanie, czy potencjalni turyści uważają, że informacje o poziomie zanieczyszczenia w danym mieście wpływają na jego atrakcyjność turystyczną, a tym samym determinują decyzje turystyczne. Turystyka miejska jest bardzo powszechną i prężnie rozwijającą się formą turystyki. Miasta przyciągają turystów szeregiem atrakcji turystycznych, bogatą ofertą kulturalną, gastronomiczną i noclegową oraz imprezami masowymi. Jednocześnie są one często także ośrodkami przemysłowymi oraz ważnymi węzłami komunikacyjnymi, co sprawia, że charakteryzują się wysokim stopniem zanieczyszczenia powietrza. W artykule zaprezentowano wyniki badań ankietowych przeprowadzonych na grupie 509 mieszkańców Polski. Na tej podstawie określono, jak ważne są informacje dotyczące zanieczyszczenia powietrza w miastach dla potencjalnych turystów oraz czy znaczenie tych informacji ma związek z innymi czynnikami. Szczególną uwagę zwrócono na stan zdrowia respondentów. Wiele chorób może być wynikiem zanieczyszczenia powietrza, a substancje wchodzące w skład smogu mogą zaostrzać ich przebieg. Podjęto więc próbę odpowiedzi na pytanie, czy cierpiące na nie osoby w szczególności sposobem przykładają wagę do jakości powietrza w mieście będącym celem wyjazdu. Uzyskane wyniki stanowią istotny wkład w wiedzę na temat determinant popytu w turystyce miejskiej. Mogą być one ważne dla podmiotów odpowiedzialnych za zarządzanie miastami i ich promocję oraz tworzących produkty turystyczne. Ponadto problemy wynikające z zanieczyszczenia powietrza w miastach mogą dotyczyć nie tylko ich mieszkańców, ale także turystów.

Słowa kluczowe: turystyka miejska, zarządzanie turystyką, atrakcyjność turystyczna, zrównoważona turystyka



Copyright and license: This article is published under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution – NoDerivatives 4.0 International (CC BY-ND 4.0) License, <https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nd/4.0/>

Suggested citation: Łapko A., Strulak-Wójcikiewicz R., Panasiuk A., Air quality as a factor affecting urban tourism, *Studia Periegetica*, 2(30): 109-123, DOI: 10.5604/01.3001.0014.4152.

JÓZEF PERENC*

Factors determining the improvement of hotel service quality as seen by customers of Sheraton Hotel in Warsaw

Abstract. The aim of this article is to investigate the determinants and conditions influencing the quality of hotel services. After defining the essence of quality, the author presents the main reasons and conditions for relatively high costs of these services incurred by hotel companies and the need to systematically improve the quality of hotel guest services. Regarding the research method, the article is based on results of a survey conducted in 2015 and 2017 on a randomly selected sample of guests of the Sheraton Hotel in Warsaw. Survey results indicate that the hotel staff received the highest ratings for their kindness and competences. They also appreciated the high quality of rooms, conference rooms and their equipment. The author concludes that the quality of hotel services – including the Sheraton Hotel – is the main reason why many customers choose them. Consequently, the owner of the Sheraton hotel should continue to improve the hotel's equipment, its conference facilities, restaurants and bars, should select, train and improve basic staff, and should continue to conduct systematic satisfaction surveys among current and future hotel guests.

Keywords: quality of hotel services, customer opinion surveys

JEL Codes: A11, D12

1. The essence of quality

In highly developed countries, quality constitutes the main determinant of competition and the basic factor affecting the degree of customer satisfaction, and, consequently, the success of the manufacturer (service provider). The author of

* University of Szczecin (Poland), Faculty of Economics, Finances and Management, Email: jozef.perenc@wzueu.pl, orcid.org/0000-0001-6409-8842.

this study has attempted to demonstrate empirically that hotel owners should constantly examine opinions of their guests and enhance the hotel's infrastructure to improve the quality of their services and increase customer satisfaction.

E. Deming understands "quality" as a predictable degree of uniformity of reliability at the lowest possible cost. However, not all of these conditions can always be met.

Another great "quality guru", i.e. J. M. Juran [1999], provides four definitions of this concept, which can be understood, among others, as a degree of satisfaction of customer requirements (market quality), a degree of user satisfaction, a degree of compliance with requirements (compliance quality), as a preference in comparison to other products (preference quality), as a feature or a set of features relevant to a given product (quality characteristics) [Garczarczyk 2000: 9]. According to the EN 28402 international standard, quality should be understood as comprising all features and properties of a product or service that determine its capacity to satisfy stated or anticipated needs, whereas the concept of quality in the European Union is primarily understood as the ability to meet customer requirements and expectations as well as the ability to meet them in the design, production and service processes in a manner consistent with applicable law, in this case, European law [Regulation (EU) No 1025/2012 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 25 October 2012 on European standardisation]. Another definition worth mentioning is the ISO 8402 standard, which defines quality as "the totality of characteristics of an entity that bear upon its ability to satisfy identified needs" - as cited by Wierzbic [2002: 335].

The definitions of quality show how many factors are involved in its development and that each of these factors is necessary to maintain and improve quality. The essence of quality is continuous improvement, work and control of the factors responsible for its development. When referring to quality and quality assurance today, we are not only talking about the characteristics of a product or service. Nowadays, quality is primarily associated with a certain new "philosophy" of conduct. In this sense, it is an important element of the company's culture, as quality assurance includes all its achievements, which include dominant values, behaviours, norms, principles and the internal climate. For many companies assuring the proper quality of goods and customer service has become a strategic goal. This is achieved by introducing **Total Quality Management systems** [Zikmund, Amico 1996: 9] in enterprises, which relate not only to all products and services, but also to all employees, processes within the enterprise, as well as relations with its partners in the supply chain.

In recent years, the majority of entrepreneurs have been interested in quality, which has become the most important element in the competitive struggle, and a factor affecting image and trust building with respect to current and future customers of the company.

2. Quality costs

Because of its inherent vagueness, the concept of quality costs is differently defined by many theorists dealing with the quality issue. Nowadays, a company that wants to survive and remain competitive needs to be aware of the existence of quality costs, and this awareness should permeate the entire organization. In order to meet the conditions of competition, it has to produce products of the highest quality at the lowest possible prices, and it needs to measure and control all quality costs associated with the production of goods and services. **Quality costs are the basic tool for measuring the company's effectiveness and development and is used to identify the organizational level of achievements in the field of quality.** Quality costs are also the basis for making strategic decisions. They comprise expenditures incurred to obtain the proper quality of a product and inform about the degree to which the quality control system has been implemented in the company. They express the aim of quality control, which comes down to choosing a structure of expenditures for which the sum of costs incurred to maintain quality is the lowest. Quality costs have an economic significance and affect the financial result (profit). Information on the development of quality costs in a company affects the thoughts and actions of management and individual employees [Skrzypek 2002: 227]. Improving quality is one of the most significant determinants of competition, leading to a greater demand for manufactured goods and services, which in turn translates into higher sales and profit. The realisation that the cost of quality assurance is visibly lower than the costs of its absence is the basis for introducing a control system of quality and related costs in the company [Skrzypek 2002: 227]. The increase in profit achieved through the increase in sales is associated with higher operating costs, while improvements in quality guarantee higher profit with lower operating costs. Thus, it can be concluded that quality pays off thanks to cost reduction [Skrzypek 1995: 198; Reinartz, Kumar 2002]. Quality in hotel services that meets customer needs is an important factor affecting profitability and competitiveness. If quality is treated as a global and important control indicator, then the following benefits can be achieved: quality improvement, cost reduction and productivity increase, price reduction, increase in sales and profits, more investment in research and development of new products (services) or professional development of employees [Barfield 1994: 9]. In the literature this problem is referred to as E. Deming's chain reaction, where improvements in quality lead to cost reduction, then to productivity growth, enabling the company to win the biggest possible market share and offer flexible prices.

J. Sitting [as cited by Skrzypek 2002] defines quality costs as costs of prevention, evaluation and reject loss. According to F. Nixon [1974: 38], quality costs

are the costs of gaining certainty that only products that are made in full compliance with the specifics of the requirements reach the consumer. J. Juran and E. M. Gryna [1989: 70-72] define quality costs as certain expenses related to ensuring the usability of products. According to J. Juran [1999: 2.5-2.7], the account of quality costs includes not only items directly related to quality, but also those that must be incurred for the product to be created at all. More specifically, the quality cost structure looks as follows: costs of adapting quality to the needs and expectations of customers, including costs of prevention and quality assessment, costs of non-conformance together with the costs of lost opportunities, which are the consequences of a lack of perfection in the manufacturing process and its external effects. The ISO 8402 standard defines quality costs unambiguously as “those costs incurred in ensuring and assuring satisfactory quality as well as the losses incurred when satisfactory quality is not achieved”. These definitions of quality costs clearly show the multiplicity of determinants that affect them.

According to the International ISO standard from 1987, quality costs can be divided into two types: operational quality costs and external assurance quality costs.

The most detailed breakdown of quality costs is presented by K. Lisiecka [1999: 113], who also distinguished between:

- Internal quality assurance costs (operational costs),
- External assurance quality costs (Fig. 1).

The quality cost accounting system must correspond to the objectives of quality management (e.g. hotel services), while the purpose of the quality cost accounting system is to identify the cost situation, observe and stimulate pro-

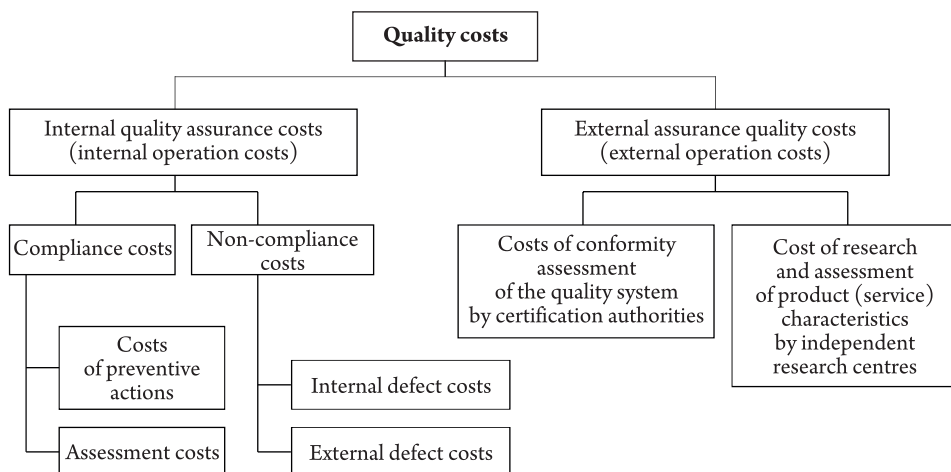


Fig. 1. Classification of quality costs

Source: Lisiecka 1999: 113.

gress in quality improvement, and gain the benefits of implementing a quality improvement programme [Skrzypek 2002].

3. Assessment of the hotel infrastructure in Warsaw

The hotel service market in Poland is undergoing a profound transformation in an effort to adapt to the needs of new consumers and standards set by competitive foreign hotel companies [Panasiuk 2007; Panasiuk, Szostak 2018].

A characteristic feature of tourist traffic in Poland is the dynamic development of the hotel infrastructure in the last decade [Rapacz 1994], especially in Warsaw, and in many other Polish cities. In July 2018, a report *Tourism in 2018* [2019], published by Statistics Poland covered 11076 tourist accommodation establishments in Poland (an increase of 3.7% compared to the previous year), including 4179 hotels and 6897 other establishments. As in previous years, hotels were the most numerous category of accommodation facilities (2592), showing a 2.0% increase compared to the number recorded in July 2017 (2540). The second biggest group, described as “other accommodation facilities”, which includes hotels, motels and boarding houses without any category details, as well as other facilities providing accommodation services – including castles, inns, etc. According to the same report, the number of such facilities (1057) in July 2018 was 2.6% higher than one year earlier (1030).

Warsaw is the fastest developing hotel service market of all large metropolitan centres, both in terms of the number of foreign tourist arrivals and the number of Poles using registered tourism collective accommodation facilities. In 2017, Warsaw was visited by approx. 2.9 million foreign tourists, which is equivalent to 60% of all domestic tourists who use accommodation facilities in the entire Mazowieckie province.

The volume of tourist traffic in Warsaw is closely related to the presence of two large international airports and the fact that many international companies have their branch offices in the city. Table 1 presents the general characteristics

Table 1. The hotel infrastructure in Warsaw in 2010 and 2017

Category	2010	2017
Number of hotels	62	86
Number of bed places	18 778	24 280
Number of overnight stays (in thousands)	3325	5252

Source: Rocznik Statystyczny Warszawy 2018: 48-49.

Table 2. Characteristics of selected Warsaw hotels

No.	Hotel name	Number of rooms	Number of rooms for the disabled	Number of suites	Star category	Number of employees	Restaurants	Cafés, bars	Swimming pool	Pet friendly
1	Novotel	710	4	23	****	–	2	2	–	+
2	Marriot	488	10	35	****	1000	4	4	+	–
3	Jan III Sobieski	380	4	33	****	450	1	2	–	+
4	Sheraton	333	5	19	*****	385	3	2	–	+
5	Victoria Intercontinental	329	3	11	*****	532	3	2	+	+
6	Holiday Inn	326	2	10	****	–	2	3	–	+
7	Mercure Fryderyk Chopin	242	6	9	***	–	3	1	–	+
8	Felix	234	4	8	**	–	1	1	–	+
9	Europejski	234	–	13	***	286	2	2	–	+
10	Hotel Polonia	201	3	25	***	–	1	1	–	+
11	Hotel Metropol	176	3	16	***	–	1	1	–	+
12	Le Royal Meridien Bristol	174	2	31	****	300	3	1	+	+
13	Vera	154	2	7	***	260	1	1	–	+
14	Solec	135	–	2	***	–	1	1	–	+
15	Warszawa	126	–	3	***	–	1	1	–	+
16	Gromada	117	–	12	***	105	1	2	–	–
17	MDM	115	1	4	***	64	2	1	–	+
18	Reytan	84	1	2	***	36	1	1	–	+

Source: *Warsaw Business Journal* 2018.

of the hotel infrastructure in Warsaw. Table 1 shows that between 2010 and 2017, the number of hotels increased by 39%, the number of hotel beds – by 29% and the number of overnight stays – by 57%.

Hotels of the highest category (four and five stars) are facilities that were built mostly in the 1990s. In 2000, six hotels of this category (Marriot, Victoria, Forum, Holiday Inn, Jan III Sobieski, Zajazd Napoleoński) provided 26.4% of all hotel beds in Warsaw. Today, there are nine hotels of this class, including four 4-star and five 5-star facilities.

The majority of Warsaw hotels (approx. 70%) are located in the city centre, mostly in the vicinity of the Palace of Culture and Science, Krakowskie

Przedmieście, Krasiński Square, Bank Square, Warsaw Uprising Square and near Warsaw Chopin Airport. The concentration of hotel facilities in the central part of the city is the result of the city layout from before the Second World War. However, one can observe a gradual trend for a more disperse location, with new hotels appearing near stations and highways.

The ranking of major hotels in Warsaw prepared for *Warsaw Business Journal* published in 2018 includes characteristics of 18 hotels in Warsaw presented according to specified values (see Table 2). The star category of hotels is of secondary importance in their ordering, as most of them are 3- and 4-star hotels, and the ranking depends on the number of hotel rooms. The main feature that distinguishes hotels from each other and makes it possible to determine their size and standard are hotel rooms. The number of rooms itself does not provide any indication of their character, size or equipment, but only indicates the size of a hotel. Some hotels, e.g. Sheraton, do not specify the number of beds in individual rooms, which makes it difficult to compare the actual number of guests in a given hotel. For example, Novotel Warszawa Centrum hotel has the largest number of rooms (710). Sheraton Grand Warsaw, with 333 rooms, is ranked fourth, excluding hotel suites, which are in another category.

Another important feature, especially for 4- and 5-star hotels, is the number of suites, which are designed for customers with higher requirements, and their number is indicative of the type of customers the hotel caters for. In Warsaw, the Marriot Hotel has the largest number of suites (35), followed by Jan III Sobieski Hotel (33) and Bristol Hotel (31). Sheraton Grand Warsaw has 19 suites, which puts it further down the ranking.

4. Sheraton Grand Warsaw and its offering

Sheraton Grand Warsaw was opened on September 22, 1996, first as a 4-star hotel and since 1999 – as a 5-star hotel. In February 1998, the hotel changed its main investor as a result of the merger between the ITT Sheraton Corporation and Westin Hotel & Resorts with Starwood Hotels & Resorts Worldwide, Inc. Sheraton received the highest category on account of the level of service achieved mainly thanks to its staff of 385 employees.

An important element of any hotel's image is its location. It largely determines the type of customers the hotel product is targeted at as well as the direction of its marketing strategy. The hotel's location and accessibility are very important factors influencing choices made by customers. Information about the hotel's location should be generally available and easily understood for both domestic and foreign tourists.

Sheraton Grand Warsaw is mainly dedicated to business tourists, given the hotel's location near many international institutions and offices, embassies, ministries, the Sejm and Senate building complex, the Stock Exchange, which is of great importance for business tourists and other guests.

5. Evaluation of survey results

The quality of service offered by Sheraton Grand Warsaw in 2015 and 2017 was assessed using a questionnaire survey. In 2015, 800 questionnaires were distributed and 344 were returned, while in 2017, 496 correctly completed questionnaires were returned of 800 that had been distributed, which is in line with the principles of tourism market research [Tokarz, Lewandowska 2004]. The questionnaire consisted of 15 questions and the part with respondents' personal data. Every 5th guest was chosen to take part in 2015 and every 10th guest in 2017. The sample included more or less the same number of male and female respondents [Ambler 2000]. The response rate was 43% in 2015 and 63% in 2017. When assessing the quality of services received, such a survey is a simple way of finding out what hotel guests think.

The aim of the survey was to collect opinions of hotel guests about their assessment of the quality of services available at the Sheraton hotel. This is very important as the hotel wants to maintain the highest quality services and meet the needs of customers.

The first part of the questionnaire respondents were asked 3 questions to evaluate tangible aspects of hotel service such as the appearance of their hotel room, its equipment and the appearance of the reception.

As can be seen in Figure 2, the tangible components of the hotel service were highly and positively received by the majority of respondents (the best rated element was the reception, with 72% of respondents giving it the good rating, and the overall appearance of the room – with 68% of good ratings). This demonstrates the hotel's excellent knowledge of the taste of their potential customers as well as great care attached to the appearance, functionality and quality of all equipment.

The quality of the hotel product is mainly affected by the intangible elements of the service rendered to the guest by the hotel staff. How well hotel employees perform their duties determines whether the customer will be satisfied with the service or not. Even a hotel with the best equipment and beautiful interior will not be rated well if the services provided by the staff are not of a high standard.

There are many qualities that should be exhibited by employees of a high class hotel, the most important being competence, responsiveness, kindness and

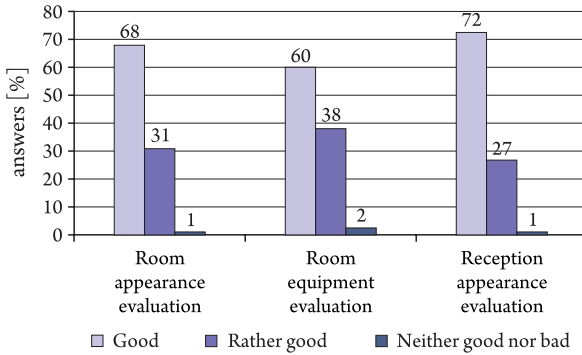


Fig. 2. Respondent’s assessment of the tangible components of the hotel service

Source: own research.

availability. The part of the questionnaire dealing with these aspects consisted of 4 questions. Although any assessment of these features is highly subjective, respondents’ answers give some indication of their perception of the quality of services provided by employees (see Fig. 3).

As we can see, the majority of respondents rated the staff as:

- kind – 95% of satisfied guests,
- competent – 91% of satisfied guests,
- quick to respond to guests’ wishes and expectations – 85% of satisfied guests.

A very important feature in the assessment of hotel staff is a very good and good command of at least two foreign languages. The staff working at the recep-

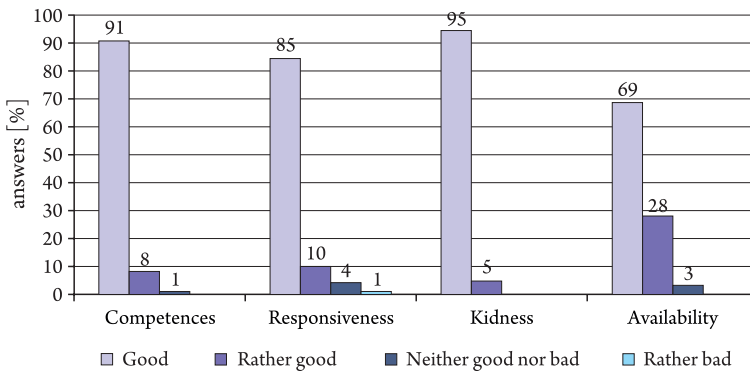


Fig. 3. Evaluations of selected characteristics of Sheraton employees

Source: own research.

tion, in restaurants, bars and conference rooms constantly improve their foreign language skills.

Results concerning the use of four conference rooms and answers to the next four questions suggest that 93% of institutional (business) clients, who rent the conference rooms, were satisfied because:

- they had a spacious room at their disposal,
- furniture and audio-visual equipment satisfied their expectations,
- simultaneous interpreting was available on request,
- the rooms could be used for other purposes, such as exhibitions, demonstrations of ancillary material and equipment.

In view of all this, it can be concluded that the majority of individual and institutional clients of Sheraton Grand Warsaw were satisfied with the quality of the services provided by the hotel and regard them to be of a high standard.

6. Conclusions

The following conclusions can be drawn from the above considerations:

1. The quality of service is an important determinant by which recipients of services choose their provider. This applies in particular to hotels, which strive to improve their services and make the best use of their hotel spaces.

2. One important method of quality improvement is to measure the satisfaction of hotel guests. This tool was chosen by the author to examine the quality of services offered at the Sheraton hotel in 2015 and 2017.

3. Respondents' ratings regarding the quality of services at Sheraton Grand Warsaw were good and very good. In particular, this was manifested by:

- a very good assessment of reception work and room quality: 68-72% of satisfied clients,
- a very good assessment of the employees for their kindness (95%), competences (91%) and responsiveness (85%),
- very high evaluation of the quality of rented conference rooms: 93% of clients regarded them as spacious, well equipped, and appreciated the availability of simultaneous interpretation and additional functions.

4. Marketing research carried out in recent years in selected hotels in Warsaw and other cities should be further improved, with the use of other methods, such as panel research or direct interviews.

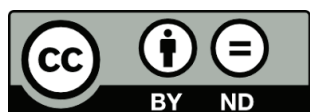
References

- Ambler T., 2000, *Marketing and Bottom Line*, London: Financial Times, Prentice Hall.
- Barfield T., 1994, *Cost Accounting. Traditions and innovations*, San Francisco: San Francisco University.
- Garczarczyk J., 2000, *Jakość usług bankowych i ubezpieczeniowych*, Poznań: Akademia Ekonomiczna w Poznaniu.
- Juran J.M., Gryna F.M., 1989, *Jakość, projektowanie, analiza*, Warszawa: Polskie Wydawnictwo Ekonomiczne.
- Juran J.M., 1999, *How to manage for quality: The Juran Trilogy*, in: J.M. Juran, A. B. Godfrey (eds.), *Juran's Quality Handbook*, 5th ed., New York et al.: McGraw-Hill.
- Lisiecka K., 1999, *Koszty jakości podstawą podejmowania decyzji w firmie*, Katowice: Akademia Ekonomiczna w Katowicach.
- Nixon F., 1974, *Jakość i niezawodność a zarządzanie przedsiębiorstwem*, Warszawa: Polskie Wydawnictwo Ekonomiczne.
- Panasiuk A., 2007, *Marketing usług turystycznych*, Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN.
- Panasiuk A., Szostak D., 2018, *Hotelarstwo*, Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN.
- Skrzypek E., 2002, *Jakość i efektywność*, Lublin: Uniwersytet Marii Curie-Skłodowskiej.
- Skrzypek E., 1995, *Koszty jakości. Aspekty teoretyczne i praktyczne*, Lublin: Uniwersytet Marii Curie-Skłodowskiej.
- Rapacz A., 1994, *Przedsiębiorstwo turystyczne – podstawy i zasady działania*, Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN.
- Regulation (EU) No 1025/2012 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 25 October 2012 on European standardisation, Official Journal L 316, 14.11.2012, p. 12-33.
- Reinartz W., Kumar V., 2002, The Mismanagement of Customer Loyalty, *Harvard Business Review*, 80(7): 86-94.
- Rocznik Statystyczny Warszawy*, 2018 [Statistical Yearbook of Warsaw], <https://warszawa.stat.gov.pl/publikacje-i-foldery/roczniki-statystyczne/rocznik-statystyczny-warszawy-2018,6,15.html#> [accessed: 31.05.2020].
- Tokarz A., Lewandowska A., 2004, *Badania rynku turystycznego. Materiały do studiowania*, Szczecin: Wydawnictwo Naukowe Uniwersytetu Szczecińskiego.
- Tourism in 2018, 2019*, Statistics Poland, Warszawa, <https://stat.gov.pl/obszary-tematyczne/kultura-turystyka-sport/turystyka/turystyka-w-2018-roku,1,16.html> [accessed: 31.05.2020].
- Wierzbic A., 2002, Norma ISO 9001:2000 – wyzwanie przyszłości dla firm, *Prace Naukowe Akademii Ekonomicznej we Wrocławiu*, 923: 334-338.
- Zikmund W.G., Amico M. D., 1996, *Basic Marketing*, New York: West Group.

Czynniki determinujące poprawę obsługi hotelowej w opinii gości hotelu Sheraton w Warszawie

Streszczenie. Celem artykułu było zbadanie determinant i uwarunkowań mających wpływ na jakość usług hotelarskich. Po zdefiniowaniu istoty jakości autor przedstawił główne przyczyny i uwarunkowania ponoszenia przez firmy hotelarskie stosunkowo dużych kosztów usług oraz potrzebę systematycznego podnoszenia jakości obsługi gości hotelowych. Główną metodą badań były ankiety, przeprowadzone w 2015 i 2017 r. na losowo dobranej próbie gości hotelu Sheraton w Warszawie. Wyniki badań potwierdziły, że najlepsze oceny uzyskał personel za okazywaną uprzejmość i posiadane kompetencje. Respondenci docenili też wysoką jakość sal konferencyjnych i ich wyposażenia. W konkluzji artykułu autor doszedł do wniosku, że jakość usług hotelarskich – także w hotelu Sheraton – jest główną determinantą wyboru tych usług przez wielu klientów. W związku z tym właściciel hotelu Sheraton powinien wciąż udoskonalać wyposażenie obiektu, jego zaplecze konferencyjne, restauracje i bary, odpowiednio dobierać i szkolić personel, zwłaszcza pracowników recepcji, oraz nadal prowadzić systematyczne badania satysfakcji obecnych i przyszłych gości hotelowych.

Słowa kluczowe: jakość usług hotelarskich, opinie klientów hoteli



Copyright and license: This article is published under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution – NoDerivatives 4.0 International (CC BY-ND 4.0) License, <https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nd/4.0/>

Suggested citation: Perenc J., 2020, Factors determining the improvement of hotel service quality as seen by customers of Sheraton Hotel in Warsaw, *Studia Periegetica*, 2(30): 125-136, DOI: 10.5604/01.3001.0014.4313

Editorial requirements

I. Size of manuscript – up to 40 000 characters (roughly 22 pages, 1800 characters per page) including tables and figures. The size of one attachment cannot be larger than 20 MB.

II. Required files

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>