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Spis treści

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Ewa Markiewicz*

Third Places in the Era of Virtual Communities

Abstract. The purpose of the article is to analyse virtual communities in the context of Ray Oldenburg's third place theory. The author argues that virtual third places are a response to the needs of virtual communities and their features are similar to Oldenburg's third places. The first part of the article presents the basics of Oldenburg's third place theory while the second one shows the characteristics of virtual communities: a review of definitions, their typology and features. The criteria of collectivity of virtual communities are also discussed in the context of Oldenburg's third places features.

Keywords: third place, virtual community, network society

1. Introduction

Changes that are taking place in the modern world have affected the perception of places as enclosed spaces. It has been pointed out that places are no longer, as Lucile Grésillon [2010: 12] put it: spaces defined on a map, with a specific name and differing from others in terms of materiality and identity, while their unique character is not necessarily determined by location and landscape qualities, rich historical legacy recorded in unique architecture, legends about famous personalities who used to live and create in that place, specific kind of activity the place is known for or important and sometimes unusual events retained in collective memory [Jałowiecki 2011: 10]. As Anthony Giddens [2008] wrote,

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people of late modernity look for a place which they can identify with and which more or less identifies them. The concept of identity is also mentioned by Bohdan Jałowiecki, who treats places as elements of identity [Jałowiecki 2011: 9]. Edward Relph [1976] observes that a place, in its essence, is a basic and safe point of reference and perception of social reality. Yi-Fu Tuan [1987] talked about place as "humanised space", posing a number of related questions about the way people understand it, get to know it and give meaning to it. With the advent of modernity place as a space of creating, fortifying, and transforming interactive order, which refers to the physical environment of activity ("place of action"), increasingly torn away from space by fostering relations between 'absent' others [Giddens 2008: 13]. In the context of time-space distanciation, which involves the stretching of social systems across space and time, it would be more appropriate, according to Harvey, to talk about place as a material-social construct, i.e. as a "product" of social relations "extended" in time and space [as cited in Dymnicka 2011: 36]. In modernity, places evolve to match the changing needs, limitations and possibilities of users [Kosiacka-Beck 2017]. Third places, which are the main subject of this article, are a bridge between the traditional and modern perception of place – they enable people to take a short break in the daily rush and are an opportunity to establish new contacts [Lewicka 2015]. In the age of the Internet, consumers enter into new social relationships, set up virtual communities, where cyberspace is the natural place for meeting people and developing lasting relationships. These "incorporeal" communities are based on common interests and their membership is intentional in contrast to most communities in the real world [Bugliarello 1997: 23-26]. Because members of a community are connected by strong ties, it plays an important role in their lives and leads to the creation of smaller virtual communities that can linked to a specific physical place (strong, emotional ties between member encourage them to meet in the real world).

2. The concept of the third place

Manuell Castells divided the world into two space separated by an invisible border: the space of places and the space of flows [Castells 2007] . As Maria Lewicka [2015] rightly observes, modern society centres around the latter category, which are referred to in the literature as non-places [Augé 2010; Kunstler 1994] and although people still live in places, "never before in the history of the world have non-places occupied so much space" [Bauman 2000: 102]. Non-places are impersonal spaces, often identical, devoid of cultural specificity and historical identity [Lewicka 2015]. They are associated with movement, rush, speed, but also with isolation and loneliness. Devoid of social meaning, they contribute to the feeling of transitoriness, staying for a brief moment, and do not require observers or visitors to get involved. A person who enters and leaves a place does not leave any trace, is always on the move, in a temporary and ephemeral state. Differences between a place embedded in the space of interpersonal relations and a non-place consist in the fact that the latter cannot support any organic form of social life [Augé 2010]. As noted by Małgorzata Dymnicka [2011: 45], places of this kind are characterised by the "superfluousness of interactions", which is a feature that utterly contradicts the specificity of a place, as defined by its function of being a habitat where social relations emerge.

As John Urry writes: "side by side with global tourists and travellers within many of those 'empty meeting places' or 'non-places' of modernity such as the airport lounge, the coach station, the railway terminus, the motorway service stations, docks and so on are countless global exiles" [Urry 2002: 146]. This category includes not only already mentioned airports, motorways, dual carriageways, but also glass high rise office buildings, with identical, functional furniture, shopping centres, international chains of hotels and restaurants, which look the same all over the world. This kind of standardization leads to the world becoming increasingly uniform. Unlike the space of flows, place means rest [Tuan 1987]. Tuan defined place as "humanised space", emphasising the way in which people imprint it with values and meaning in the process of developing a sense of place. For Edward Relph, the most important quality of an authentic experience of place is "insideness" or "a sense of being inside", which cannot be enjoyed in a space that one is merely passing through and that is perceived from the perspective of an observer [as cited in Lewicka 2015]. As pointed out by Dymnicka, "the sense of 'being in' a given place, of being in a harmonious relationship with it can be manifested by its unique atmosphere, which attracts and unites people, and which is captured by the term *genius loci*" [Dymnicka 2011: 42]. Moreover, places are "essentially the fundamental and the safest point from which to view social reality" [Relph 1976: 38].

Castells' concept of two spaces fits in with the idea of the so-called "third place", which was proposed by Oldenburg in 1999 [Oldenburg 1999]. According to Oldenburg, social life centres around two important social environments: the home ("first place"), where we live, and the workplace ("second place"), where we work. Changes that took place in the 2nd half of the 20th century, especially the declining role of extended family and the influence of corporate trends have led to the deficit of social relations both in the home and in the workplace. There is a need for "third places", defined as neutral spaces where a person can relax and take a break from daily household chores or from the duties associated with work. Oldenburg defines the third place as "public place that hosts the regular, voluntary, informal and happily anticipated gatherings of individuals beyond the realms of home and work" [Oldenburg 1999: 16]. Third places are where we interact with friends and other people, places we frequently visit to relax and, above of all, to have a good time. Examples given by Oldenburg include cafes, pubs, restaurants and other places where people spend their leisure time. These are spaces devoid of pressure or obligation, accessible to everybody, although their unique character can be attributed to the presence of regulars. They keep a low profile, are wholesome and homely, with a playful mood that fosters the development of community ties (conversations play the key role). They are comfortable places for people to congregate and find their home away from home. They are "anchors" of community life that are indispensable for social activity and support creativity. As Anna Peachey notes, "third places level the status of users, creating habits of public association" [Peachey 2008: 252]. Features of third places are listed in Table 1.

Table 1. Characteristics of third places according to Ray Oldenburg

Characteristic	Description
On neutral ground	[...] place where people are free to come and go as they please, where nobody is required to play host, and in which all feel at home and comfortable. (p. 22)
A leveller (a levelling place)	It is accessible to the general public and does not set formal criteria of membership and exclusion. (p. 24) [...] where all shed their social uniforms and insignia and reveal more of what lies beneath or beyond them. (p. 25)
Conversation is the main activity	Nothing more clearly indicates a third place than that the talk there is good; that it is lively, scintillating, colorful and engaging. (p. 26) Everyone seems to talk just the right amount, and all are expected to contribute. (p. 28)
Accessibility and accommodation	[...] one may go alone at almost any time of the day or evening with assurance that acquaintances will be there. (p. 32)
The regulars	The third place is just so much space unless the right people are there to make it come alive, and they are the regulars. It is the regulars who give the place its character and who assure that on any given visit some of the gang will be there. (pp. 33-34)
A low profile	[...] the third place is [...] likely not to impress the uninitiated (p. 36). Not having that shiny bright appearance of the franchise establishment, third places do not attract a high volume of strangers or transient customers. (p. 36)
The mood is playful	[...] the playful spirit is of utmost importance. Here joy and acceptance reign over anxiety and alienation. (p. 38)
A home away from home	Though a radically different kind of setting from the home, the third place is remarkably similar to a good home in the psychological comfort and support that it extends. (p. 42)

Source: Oldenburg 1999.

Oldenburg's concept of the third place was also used by Christian Mikunda [2004], who distinguishes the notion of "third space", defined in similar terms as third place, but with a stronger emphasis on the social and psychological aspect manifested through an individual's experience and emotions. In addition, Mikunda argues that some third places can allow people to "reload themselves with their lifestyle" [Mikunda 2004: 4]; according to his definition, a modern third place is designed to meet the needs of a new generation by offering people "a quick massage of the soul for stressed out customers" [Mikunda 2004: 6].

The notion of third place is invoked mainly in works devoted to the psychology of place, the management of public urban spaces and sustainable development [i.a. Mikunda 2004; Jeffres et al. 2009; Dymnicka 2011; Lewicka 2012; Kosiacka-Beck 2017; Mao, Kinoshita 2018; Finlay et al. 2019; Jagodzińska 2018; Dudek 2019]. Nonetheless, it can be argued that still too little attention is paid to third places that have been created in the virtual world [cf. Peachey 2008; Crick 2011; Delamere 2012; Wilkowski 2016].

2. Virtual communities

The notion of virtual reality appeared along with the development of the Internet and refers to spaces, objects and phenomena created by means of computers [Roeske 2013: 57]. The word "virtual" signifies all that is in opposition to what is real – an artificial world, a kind of unreality.

The term "virtual community" is typically used to refer to groups of Internet users [e.g. Rheingold 1993; Castells 2007; Wellman, Gulia 1999]. The idea of virtual communities was first introduced by Howard Rheingold, who defined them as "groups of people who may or may not meet one another face to face, and who exchange words and ideas through the mediation of computer bulletin boards and networks" [Rheingold 1994]. One can notice that according to this definition the only thing that distinguishes real-world communities from virtual ones is the lack of physical contact between their members, which reflect Rheingold's belief that in the today's changing world virtual communities can replace traditional communities and become a new type of social group. Allucquère Rosanne Stone [1991] defines online communities as "social spaces in which people still meet face-to-face, but under new definitions of both 'meet' and 'face' [...] passage points for collections of common beliefs and practices that united people who were physically separated" [Stone 1991: 85].

Other authors also point out that online communities are based on shared interests [Bugliarello 1997], which means that, unlike most real-world communities, their membership is intentional. Virtual communities are created in order to satisfy certain consumer needs. Rheingold lists a number of reasons for the existence of such communities, which include exchange of knowledge and emotions, doing business together, arguing, spreading gossip, finding friends or playing games [Rheingold 1994]. Anu Wadhwa and Suresh Kotha systematize and identifie four basic social needs: the need for communication, information, entertainment and transaction [Wadhwa, Kotha 1999: 6]. The need for communication, as a basic human need, is the desire to keep in touch with family, friends, peers or colleagues. It is what makes people want to meet and interact with others. The need for information, which is connected with constant access to information about things that users find interesting. The need for entertainment is satisfied by various games, puzzles and opportunities to experiment with different identities and personalities. Finally, the Internet is a convenient way of conducting commercial transactions.

Arthur G. Armstrong and John Hagel use the criterion of user needs to distinguish three types of electronic communities: *communities of transaction*, which "facilitate the buying and selling of products and services" (by enabling users to access information about products from other customers), *communities of interest* that "bring together participants who interact extensively with one another on specific topics", satisfy the need for entertainment and, *communities of relationship* that can help to establish and maintain personal connections [Armstrong, Hagel 1996]. Taking into account the criterion of virtual/real interactions, we can distinguish communities existing exclusively in cyberspace (their members do not maintain any contacts with the real world), communities functioning in the real world and treating the Internet only as a form of communication and hybrid communities created in the virtual world, whose members establish and maintain relationships offline [Crick 2011]. These virtual communities are characterised by being *aspatial* (no geographical or territorial limitations), *asynchronous* (no need to communicate in real time), *acorporal* (absence of such communications devices as voice, gesture, posture, or dress) and *astigmatic* (lack of social status markings of such race, gender, age, body shape, and appearance) [Smith 1992]. Other characteristic aspects of virtual communities include anonymity, voluntary membership in the group and a strong sense of place despite the lack of physical location [Tuan 1987]. According to Jan van Dijk [1999: 160], what virtual and physical (real) communities have in common are the fact of having members, a social organization, a language, modes of interactions, and their own culture and identity. It should be noted that when it comes to values, beliefs, attitudes or interests, virtual communities are very homogenous, while in terms of age, appearance or social status, they are very heterogeneous [Siuda 2006].

3. Virtual third places

At this point one should ask the following question: is it legitimate to use the term 'virtual third place' in the Internet age and to what extent is this place consistent with Oldenburg's concept of a third place, where social life takes place, which we like to visit, a place which we associate mainly with pleasure?

When attempting to answer this question, it is first necessary to point out that in the literature there are reservations about whether virtual communities should be treated as communities in the first place. According to a traditional understanding, a community occupies a particular territory or a physical space (geographical criterion). Dijk [1999: 160] emphasizes that virtual communities are unstable and their culture is too limited and heterogeneous, which is why they cannot be an alternative to structures existing in the real world. In addition, many authors believe that relationships between members of virtual communities are short-lived and shallow. In their opinion, members of virtual communities are isolated and unable to maintain long-lasting relationships with others, which is why they tend to develop casual and superficial relationships. Also, as a result of anonymity that characterizes virtual communities, their members can assume any identity, which gives rise to a world of fantasy and hypocrisy and not a real community. Another difference pointed out by many authors is the fact that virtual communities tend to exist for a short period of time. Owing to the lack of social control and the short-term nature of relationships, the community does not play a significant role in the lives of its members. Other features that distinguish virtual from traditional communities include the lack of hierarchy, the lack of formal supervision and rules, fluid membership, easy abandonment without any consequences.

In response to the above objections concerning the alleged deficiencies of virtual communities relative to traditional ones, one can point out that in the age of the Internet, it is the shared interests not the shared territory that motivates a given individual to become a member of a community. Virtual third places, though torn from space [Giddens 2008], can be viewed as "humanized space", with a number of inherent questions about the way people understand it, get to know it and give meaning to it [Tuan 1987]. As stated on the Airbnb website "at the heart of our mission is the belief that people are fundamentally good and every community is a place where you can find a sense of belonging" [Airbnb.pl, 2019]. New communities that emerge around virtual third places are a response to the disintegration of traditional communities all over the world and the growing the spread of individualism, a response facilitated by modern technologies that enable their development. On the one hand, there are free and independent individuals, knowing their needs, capable of taking responsibility for their actions, aware of their choices and consequences of decisions. On the other hand, as a result of social alienation, people seek privacy, become isolated and helpless, which affects their social relationships. New communities are characterized by a different direction of relationships between the community and its members. The community becomes a place of self- realization for the individual, it provides them with an opportunity to display and strengthen its unique personality. It is the individual who decides what community he or she wants to belong to and how much they want to get involved. The character of new communities is an arena for expressing individuality and uniqueness. This is why, despite the sense of unity or common good, in the case of disappointment, an individual will choose to pursue their own goals. On the one hand, new communities guarantee social recognition, on the other hand, they help their members to retain their freedom and individuality.

With respect to the characteristics of a third place listed by Oldenburg, it should be noted that assuming virtual communities meet consistent criteria proposed by Piotr Siuda [2006], such as interactivity, stable membership and identity, members' responsibility for maintaining communication within the community, and the general character of communication, virtual meeting places as social places [Stone 1991] are similar to those proposed by Oldenburg.

Virtual third places used by virtual communities are available to everyone, though are mainly visited by regulars, so-called activists, who are actively engaged in actions taken by the community, group leaders or ambassadors, with major contributions to their name or people initiating meetings in the real world.

The fact of stable membership means that a given community must have a certain constant group of members with a long-term commitment. The stability of membership is associated with the stability of identity (rules requiring members to use only one identity, i.e. the same login name). This criterion seems to be particularly crucial in the context of the above mentioned characteristics of virtual communities, such as anonymity, which enables Internet users to assume different identities. There are tools that restrict such possibilities, such as the rating system (e.g. only after the completion of an online transaction/order), verification (document authorization) or, as a last resort, moderation through administrators.

Interactivity is a kind of feedback mechanism, which leads to the creation of a shared communication context where shared meanings are generated (a post written by one user refers to the post(s) written by other users).

The shared sense of responsibility for maintaining communication within the community should be manifested by the fact of members observing norms and rules of that community. Rules (e.g. a system of reporting violations) and hier-

Table 2. Community criteria in a virtual community vs. characteristics of third places according to Oldenburg

Characteristics of third places	Community criteria of a virtual community
Neutral ground	Character of communication
A leveller (a levelling place)	Character of communication
Conversation, playful mood	Interactivity, a sense of responsibility shared by community members
Accessibility and accommodation	Character of communication
The regulars	Stability of membership and identity
A home away from home	Character of communication (including person dimension), a sense of responsibility shared by community members, stability of membership and identity

Source: own study.

archies within a given community decrease the risk of all kinds of fraud, such as masquerading as another user, identity theft or spamming.

Communication within a community should be open to all existing and potential future members. This criterion does not exclude private forms of communication between smaller groups; on the contrary, personal communication is encouraged, which additionally strengthens ties between community members and creates a situation where the community plays an important role in the lives of its members. However, in order for a community to reach its full potential, its members should develop a sense of being a "community of experience", which is only possible by satisfying the condition of general communication.

It should be noted that the above criteria of community address most of the reservations concerning the very nature and role of virtual communities. The short-term character of contacts and ties between members and the short lifespan of virtual communities are overcome by the interactivity and stability of membership. The stability of identity eliminates anonymity, responsibility for maintaining communication ensures a certain kind of control over the community and the personal dimension of interaction (in addition of the criterion of generality) undermines the assertion about the superficial and shallow nature of relationships and shows the importance of the community in the lives of its members. Table 2 presents an overview of the criteria of a community with reference to the main characteristics of third places according to Oldenburg[1].

In addition, the characteristics of virtual communities described earlier can be linked to traits of characteristics of third places. Thanks to voluntary group

[1] Given the nature of virtual third places, the overview does not include the "low profile" characteristic.

membership and the lack of strong social supervision virtual communities are easily accessible and neutral places with a playful atmosphere. It should be emphasized that virtual third places overcome limitations of space and time, which makes them more accessible than physical third places. Their acorporal and astigmatic character and, in most cases, the lack of formal membership or exclusion criteria resemble the quality of a levelling place. The strong sense of place, despite the lack of physical location (and the related sense of proximity of other community members) guarantees mental comfort and gives virtual communities, like in the case of third places, the quality of uniqueness and a feeling of being a home from home. Virtual places, as pointed out by Peachey: "may not offer a cup of coffee […] but users are generally sitting at a computer in their own home, with the refreshments of their choice at hand" [Peachey 2008: 253].

It can be argued that individuals in the virtual reality (members of virtual communities) are capable of building lasting relationships with other people, provided that certain community criteria are satisfied, virtual third places can be identified with Oldenburg's concept of third places. This possibility is mainly affected by the virtualization of consumption and the growing importance of individualism. Virtual communities, such as Globtroter.pl., Travelmaniacy.pl or Gdziweyjechac.pl, are examples of tourism-related communities, created for people interested in planning their own travel. Community members provide information, advise, inspire, point out interesting places, to make sure that the trip comes up to the tourist's expectations.

4. Conclusion

Third places are changing in response to the changing needs of society, including the need for new spaces adapted to new consumers. As Evawani Ellisa rightly points out, "Third place today needs reconsideration to fit in the current IT-based community" [Ellisa 2019: 1]. Regardless of what kind of generation we are dealing with – X, Y or Z – each one is becoming, at an unprecedented rate, part of the technological world, with the modern consumer becoming a consumer of the new era – a digital consumer [Krzepicka 2016]. This technology enables access to third place. This creates a need for more research in order to check whether and how the Internet is "participating: in the creation of communities by exploiting a new kind of communication in the virtual space.

When analysing the influence of technology on the emergence of new social forms, there are grounds for concerns about the depth of qualitative changes that they bring to social life. The Internet may be a platform for building social ties but there is a crucial question: are new technologies (such as the Internet) making interpersonal relationships shallower or stronger? As Agata Błachnio rightly observed, given the heterogeneity of the Internet, it is not adequate to talk about its influence on people in general but it is more important to focus on investigating consequences of its different uses [Błachnio 2007: 231].

The author of this article believes that, when it comes to the development of virtual communities, virtual places can become third places as spaces that minimize differences between users, facilitate the emergence and growth of communities, create an authentic sense of place. They can function as "enclaves of lifestyle" [Bellah et al. 2007: 474-475] that bring together people with similar lifestyles but often without relations of co-dependence or shared history. As mentioned earlier, in the age of the Internet it is the shared interests not the shared territory that motivates a given individual to become a member of a community. In addition, virtual third places eliminate the problem associated with the inequality of economic resources and time available to individuals, which is often related to physical space. Virtual communities can become *communities in place*, in contrast to traditional *communities of place*, which means that close, emotional ties between their members will encourage them to meet in the real world [Bujała 2011].

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Trzecie miejsca w erze społeczności wirtualnych

Streszczenie. Celem artykułu jest analiza społeczności wirtualnych w kontekście teorii trzeciego miejsca Raya Oldenburga. Autorka stawia tezę, że wirtualne trzecie miejsca są odpowiedzią na potrzeby społeczności wirtualnych, a ich cechy są zbieżne z trzecimi miejscami Oldenburga. W części pierwszej artykułu przedstawiono podstawy teorii trzeciego miejsca Oldenburga, w części drugiej zaprezentowano charakterystykę społeczności wirtualnych: przegląd definicji, ich typologię oraz cechy. Wskazano również na kryteria wspólnotowości społeczności wirtualnych w kontekście cech trzecich miejsc Oldenburga. Praca ma charakter przeglądowy, aby osiągnąć założony cel, dokonano kwerendy i analizy krytycznej literatury przedmiotu.

Słowa kluczowe: trzecie miejsca, społeczności wirtualne, społeczeństwo sieci

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School Trips – Understanding the Young Traveller's Perspective

Abstract. The main purpose of the study was to collect and analyse opinions of young people concerning the organization of school trips, with special emphasis on factors that discourage them from participating in such trips. The research cycle was conducted in the years 2013-2017 using quantitative (survey) and qualitative (focus group interviews, participatory design) methods. The results provide interesting details about students' participation in school trips (curriculum-based, extra-curricular), reasons for choosing not to attend school trips and students' opinions (positive, negative) about school trips. It can be concluded that the inclusion of students' opinions during the planning stage contributes to shaping their sense of empowerment and responsibility. The findings have not only a practical relevance for young people, teachers and providers of school trip services, but also wider social implications for the development of responsible and sustainable tourism.

Keywords: school tourism, school trips, youth travellers, participatory design

1. Introduction

Travel changes the life of the traveller. It changes the lives of people they meet and friends they make along their journey. Travel connects people and shows them that they are all part of the same world [New Horizons IV, 2018: 4]. School trips are an example of the educational function of tourism. The idea of organizing

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such trips goes back to the time of the Grand Tour. However, despite the unchanging and undeniable relevance of tourism in the education process, the contemporary determinants of social life affect the development of tourism needs in the young generation, which differ from those of older generations. A global survey of generational lifestyles, involving online consumers from 60 countries, indicates that representatives of the young generation are less likely to choose travelling as a free time activity, compared to older age groups [Global Generational Lifestyles 2015].

Nowadays, despite the historically established importance of school trips as a form of gaining knowledge, experience and social competences, young people seem to be losing interest in this activity. A look at the existing literature on the subject indicates that questions regarding the actual merits of and demand for educational tourism in schools are still under-researched [Campbell-Price 2012, 2014; Stone, Petrick 2013].

This research gap prompted the authors to undertake a study aimed at investigating opinions of adolescents concerning the organization of school trips, with special emphasis on factors that discourage them from participating in such trips. The cycle of empirical research was conducted in the period 2013-2017 using quantitative and qualitative methods. Question wording, examples and references used in the study were adjusted to the target age group.

In addition, the inclusion of students' opinions during the planning stage contributes to shaping their sense of empowerment and responsibility [Christensen, James 2008; Clark 2011; Lisek-Michalska 2012].

2. Literature Review

2.1. School Trips

In the literature, the concept of school trips is used in two contexts. In the first case, the term can be referred to students commuting to schools and involves problems related to the choice of the mode of transport, safety, and physical activity of children and teenagers [Black, Collins, Snell 2001; Faulkner et al. 2010; Park, Noland, Lachapelle 2013; Schneider 2016; Singh, Vasudevan 2018; Shamshiripour et al. 2019; Delice, Özen, Amirnazmiafshar 2019]. Usually, the term refers to school excursions, school field trips [Larsen, Jenssen 2004; Bamberger, Tali 2008; DeWitt, Storksdieck 2008; DeWitt, Hohenstein 2010; DeWitt, Osborne 2010; Behrendt, Franklin 2014]; school-led tourism [Campbell-Price 2014] and educational tourism [Bodger 1998; Demeter, Bratucu 2014; Poria, Atzaba-Poria, Barrett 2005; Zaleskienė, Dobkevičienė-Džiovėnienė 2007].

A number of different problems are addressed in the study of tourism aspects of school trips, such as students' reasons for going on a trip [Larsen, Jenssen 2004], tourism information service for student school trips [Kasahara et al. 2014], international school trips [Campbell-Price 2014], cultural school trips to museums, the use of social media [Charitonos 2015], school trips to health resorts [Stach 2016], and the use of educational activities during school trips in the teaching of young children [Simion 2017]. Based on the research regarding school tourism, a school trip can be defined as a form of school activity conducted outside the school building, which involves aspects of tourism and sightseeing, for an educational or socialising purpose [Bochenek 2008]. School trip tourism experiences have traditionally been divided into curriculum-based and extra-curricular [Ritchie, Carr, Cooper 2003, 2008; Carr 2011; Campbell-Price 2014]. Curriculum-based field trips are usually directly related to the school curriculum and offer experiential learning opportunities that where concepts acquired in learning areas (subject disciplines) can be applied in real world contexts [Lai 1999; Carr 2011] and stimulate interest in particular subjects [Campbell-Price 2012, 2014]. In contrast, extra-curricular activities and trips offer opportunities for young people to pursue and extend their personal interests through sporting, arts, cultural or service activities and events [Ritchie, Carr, Cooper 2003, 2008; Carr 2011; Campbell-Price 2014].

In both of these cases, school trips support the educational process and can be regarded as a variety of general tourism, which involves diverse activities in the natural and cultural environment. School trips are organised under the supervision of a tutor to achieve specific didactic and educational objectives, including elements of touring and recreation [Janowski 2003; Zajadacz, Kugiejko 2017]. School tourism activity, understood as a form of school activity, serves three basic purposes: education, integration and health improvement [Alejziak 2000; Zajadacz, Kugiejko 2017].

The term educational tourism refers to any "program in which participants travel to a location as a group, with the primary purpose of engaging in learning experience that is directly related to the location" [Bodger 1998: 28]. Educational tourism can also defined as participation in domestic or foreign trips, which enables students to learn about cultural monuments, architecture and relate these experiences to the theoretical knowledge acquired in the educational process at school [Zajadacz, Kugiejko 2017]. Educational tourism promotes experiences and can be perceived as a tool for value-and experience-based learning [Ritchie, Carr, Cooper 2008, Bhuiyan et al. 2010; Fidgeon 2010; Prakapiene, Olberkyte 2013].

The task of organising educational tourism activities is no longer the sole responsibility of the school. Increasingly, tourism service providers perceive schools as a separate segment of the tourism market. In addition to sightseeing or holiday tours, tourism service providers now offer educational excursions. However, their content frequently does not meet educational goals and objectives because tour operators do not take the trouble of getting familiar with educational curricula and do not know pupils' needs [Zaleskienė, Dobkevičienė-Džiovėnienė 2007].

2.2. The young traveller's perspective

Taking into account the importance of school trips, not only directly in school education, but also their role in preparing young people for responsible tourism in the later stages of life, the results of the long-term study described in this article are rather disturbing. The data indicate that the share of students willing to participate in such trips keeps decreasing [Kugiejko 2015, 2016a, 2016b]. In order to explain this attitude it is necessary to get to know young people's expectations with regard to school trips.

Research in this area [based on earlier theories about travel motivations of young people: Dann 1977; Crompton 1979; Pearce, Caltabiano 1983; Fodness 1994], has been conducted by, among others, Larsen and Jenssen [2004]. In their study they wanted to investigate students' reasons for attending such trips. They were also interested in students' trip experiences and asked respondents to list trip highlights during the trip and after returning home. The authors report that the most common feature of school trips mentioned by the students was the social aspect of being together ("doing things together"). Other reasons listed by the respondents including the desire to comply with school demands concerning learning, avoidance of punishment, the pursuit of reward and an opportunity to get away from school, and finally, the prospect of gaining new experiences. As regards the range of preferred activities, the respondents most frequently mentioned social activities, while some expressed interest in extreme activities, such as mountain climbing, rafting and other sports activities. Even though this study was explorative, the results suggest that the main reason why students go on school trips is the opportunity to travel with friends rather than to specific destinations.

Investigating school trips from the perspective of many stakeholders, including young people, was the subject of a study carried out by Campbell-Price [2014], who summarised her findings by highlighting three main points. Firstly, there are similarities between motivations behind school-led trips and the wider phenomenon of tourism. Secondly, it is extremely important to adopt a multiple stakeholder perspective when conducting studies that involve the active engagement of young people, their parents and school leaders in the organization of school trips. Campbell-Price notes that there is a considerable overlap of perspectives between stakeholders even though they might express things differently. Finally, it seems that longer term impacts of the formal and informal learning experienced on these types of trips has been overlooked and needs further attention [Campbell-Price 2014].

3. Research methodology

Research involving young people is associated with many methodological and ethical challenges that have been addressed in many studies [Męcfal 2012; Alderson, Morrow 2011; Farrell (ed.) 2005; Poria, Timothy 2014]. These challenges mainly relate to three issues: (1) the difficulty of combining and synthesising results obtained by applying quantitative and qualitative methods when attempting to thoroughly analyse the phenomenon of interest (2) capturing real views of young people (also those reflecting the private sphere of pupils, parents, e.g. educational problems, stimulants, conflicts in the peer group), (3) difficulties associated with field research (participation in school trips, interviews conducted on the bus or in a youth hostel, where there are many distractions).

The study described in the article concern curriculum-based and extra-curricular school trips with the aim of investigating opinions of young people about the organization of school trips, with special emphasis on factors that discourage them from participating in such trips. The study was conducted in the period 2013-2017 using quantitative and qualitative methods.

The use of triangulation [Flick 2011] was intended to minimize errors and limitations associated with a one-sided approach. The purpose of the qualitative study was to supplement the quantitative results. The survey (stage 1) was treated as a pilot study which was to provide a general overview of students' opinions about the organization of school trips and their participation in various types of tourist activities. The purpose of stage 2, described below in more detail, was to give students a chance to express their opinions freely, without the limitations imposed by the questionnaire format (stage 1). The third and last stage involved collecting opinions on difficulties experienced during school trips, which provided information about barriers encountered in the organisation of trips and recommendations about how to maintain an optimal balance between the safety of participants and the atmosphere of rest and fun. The results reveal many similarities and differences between opinions expressed by students and teachers involved in organizing school trips.

Three stages:

– Stage 1: a questionnaire survey involving 191 secondary school students was conducted in the school year 2013-2014. There were 18 classes in the school[1], with about 23 students in each class. The questionnaire was distributed to 414 students and a completed form was returned by 191 students. The questionnaire consisted of fourteen questions about participation in trips, preferred destinations, types of trips, main reasons for skipping school trips. Results of the survey are discussed in Kugiejko [2015]. They became the basis for explaining the problem of the declining interest in school trips.

– Stage 2: a series of focus group interviews were conducted in between 6 and 10 June 2016, in which a group of students were able to freely express their opinions and also propose new ideas. This technique in some respects resembles activities of creative groups [Barbour 2011; Liamputtong 2011; Campbell-Price 2014]. The main advantage of FGI is the opportunity to observe natural social interactions between participants of the meeting. Being closer to real life situations, FGI are characterised by a considerably less artificial behaviour on the part of respondents, facilitate emotional disclosure and foster the generation of new, creative solutions [Krueger, Casey 2000; Greenbaum 1998; Fern 2001]. As a qualitative research method, FGI can be used both as an independent research technique and in combination with other quantitative and qualitative techniques. The most frequent criticism of FGI is its lack of representativeness. Its application is therefore more justified in studies aimed at clarifying and explaining a social phenomenon; collected opinions can then serve as the basis for further quantitative or qualitative research [Litosseliti 2005; Stewart, Shamdasani, Rook 2007; Barbour, Kitzinger 2001; Canosa, Graham 2016].

– Stage 3: a participatory design study conducted in May 2017, during a school trip attended by 44 students (secondary school classes) and 5 teachers, to collect data about students, for the purpose of triangulation to supplement the quantitative data from the questionnaire survey and qualitative data from focus group interviews. The final outcome was the development of a common position shared by all the participants (students and teachers) on the principles of organizing school trips, identification of problems encountered in the process of organising such trips and possible cooperative solutions. The results of the study along with recommendations on how to organize school trips are presented in the article by Zajadacz, Kugiejko [2017].

This article presents the results of the second stage, collected during focus group interviews held in 2016 during a school trip (in the place of accommodation) in three equal-sized groups of students aged 17-18. 41 students (23 girls and 18 boys) participated in the FGI, 3 students refused to participate in the next stage of the study. The participants in each group differed in terms of class profile, age and gender. Each interview lasted about 2.5 hours. The following issues were raised:

[1] Mikołaj Kopernik Secondary School in Puszczykowo, Poznański district.

1. Advantages and disadvantages of school trips and personal travel (organization, cost), finance)

2. Proposing destinations, regions, countries to visit during a one-day school trip with classmates.

3. Choosing a destination, a region for a longer school trip (minimum 3 days) for a group of teenagers (planning the itinerary and main activities).

4. Choosing preferred trip companions.

Before the interview, the participants received a preliminary question the purpose of which was to relax the atmosphere, encourage sincerity and remind them that a difference of opinions is something natural.

The following section contains selected results obtained in the entire research cycle including all three stages (questionnaire, FGI and participatory design), which reflect the opinions of young people concerning the organization of school trips, with special emphasis on factors that discourage them from participating in such trips. Detailed results from the second stage (FGI) are supplemented by selected findings from the first and third stages (to provide a better insight into the problem addressed in this article).

4. Research results

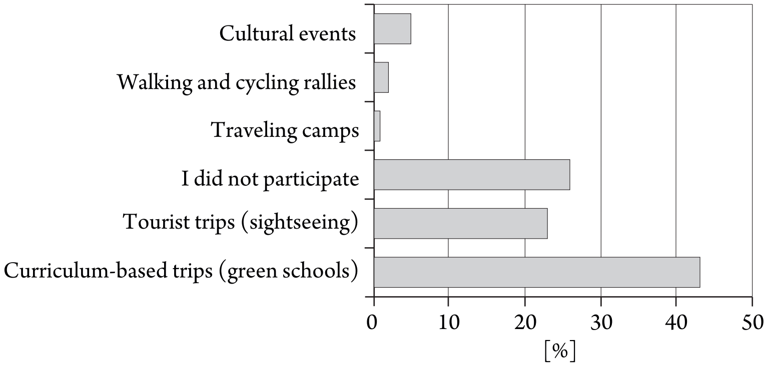
4.1. Questionnaire survey results – reasons for not participating in school trips

Opinions collected from 191 respondents provide information about their participation in school trips. In the school year 2013/2014, 23% of the respondents took part in a one-day trip, 2% in a longer trip, 49% participated in both kinds of trips. 26% of the respondents did not take part in any trip organized by the school (Chart 1).

As regards the trip category, 43% were curriculum-based trips (green schools, trips initiated and organised by teachers to complete the curriculum requirements) and 33% were extra-curricular trips. Sports activities or active tourism accounted for a small percentage of all trips [Kugiejko 2015]. Students' interest in school trips varied. Over half of all respondents (55%) stressed that they "prefer going on any trip to spending time at school", while 20% reported that they were reluctant to participate in any school trips.

The surveyed students were primarily interested in "active" learning and the experience of visiting places. The respondents expressed preference for experimental field work (collecting water, soil samples, experiments) in contrast to trips mainly involving sightseeing and "passive" learning (trips to places related

Chart 1. Participation in different types of school trips (n = 191)



Source: Kugiejko 2015.

to culture and history, such as museums, theatres, operas, etc.). For the majority of students (71%), these are the least interesting types of trips, which they are reluctant to participate in. In response to the question "what does a trip mean for you?", one student provided the following definition: "A trip is a new challenge, such as canoeing, going out, exploring a new environment, meeting new people, going to a distant place".

Other responses mentioned free time, carefree time, good fun (52%), while for 32% of respondents a trip is mainly a break from school activities. For the majority of respondents (81%), the main problem is the insufficient number of school trips that satisfy interests of young people.

Another reason for students' reluctance to participate in school trips is their poor quality, which means an unattractive program (considering the price), "boring guides", lack of sports activity and an insufficient amount of free time. For 71% of respondents, these factors are the main reason for skipping school trips. Other reasons include individual reluctance to travel (17%) and lack of financial resources (12%).

According to 54% of students, it is common practice to outsource the organization of school trips to travel agencies or tour operators (teachers who rely on the services and trip programmes prepared by tour operators do not get involved in their preparation and implementation leaving it to guides and tour leaders, who do not know the needs of students).

Solutions proposed by the students in response to the question about what can be done to encourage young people to participate? Included ideas such as better cooperation between teachers and students by getting them involved in the planning process (67%), or including a greater variety of sports and recreation activities. The young people emphasized that various forms of activity during a trip (e.g. canoeing) are good fun (65%), a form of cooperation in the group (20%), something new (9%). Only 11 people (6%) did give any suggestions [Kugiejko, 2015].

4.2. Interview results

The participants of focus group interviews had no difficulty in listing advantages and disadvantages of school trips in the context of tourist travel (Table 1).

Participants in one of the groups said: "In our opinion, finding drawbacks in tourist trips, including school trips, is unnecessary, because all travel shapes our character, makes us open to the world around us, broadens our horizons".

Respondents also emphasized that letting young people decide how to organise school trips has a positive effect on their attitude towards such trips by helping

Table 1. Advantages and disadvantages of school trips and individual trips

Advantages	Disadvantages
Tourist trips (organized)	
• rest, relaxation • a break from daily routine • new impressions and experiences • active forms of spending time (kayaking, sports activities, outdoor games) • getting to know the history, nature, culture and religion of the visited area • meeting new people (integration) • getting to know yourself, your strengths and weaknesses • acquiring new skills	• unfulfilled expectations regarding accommodation (room size, food, high costs, general conditions) • the risk of getting lost • the risk of theft • conflicts • in organized trips, time constraints, having to stick to a fixed schedule and no possibility to manage time individually • frequent monotonous and unattractive guided tours
School trips	
• opportunity to acquire information in a practical and interesting way (experiencing through many senses) and broaden your knowledge • creative and interesting activities • integration of the entire group by spending time together	• lack of good organization (e.g. badly planned day, the lengthy process of hotel room assigning rooms) • information overload, too many facts delivered over a short period of time • insufficient free time for rest
Tourist trips (individual)	
• being able to stay with family, friends or partners • independence	• ability to make individual plans • no group discounts (travel with family, friends)

Source: own study.

them become more aware and responsible participants, who are able to notice and appreciate the work done by teachers and tour organizers.

FGI are a good tool for eliciting opinions and feelings, which is why they often include discussions on abstract topics and creative use of imagination. They can help to elicit views that are difficult to express. In this study, the participants had to choose a hypothetical place where they would like to organize a one-day school trip for their classmates and for a group of friends from outside the school. The discussion had the form of a problem solving session in which a proposed solution was the starting point for a discussion on the action plan, including a list of features that young people find to be the most interesting during trips. The discussion revealed specific expectations concerning possible destinations the students would like to visit. Individual preferences included activities with a high dose of adrenaline and the element of variety, i.e. a trip programme with numerous attractions:

"The best aspect of one-day trips is a combination of entertainment and sightseeing. A good balance between time spent sightseeing and free time is very important. The program for an organized group – a school trip – should be a combination of learning and playing."

After analysing numerous ideas proposed in the discussions (in 3 groups), three places were chosen that meet the needs of young people:

– the educational and historical aspect – a visit to Auschwitz-Birkenau, the largest of German Nazi concentration and extermination camps. This choice was justified by the following opinion: "Bearing in mind the knowledge gained in history lessons, we want to verify what we've learned and get to know this historical topic better."

– the educational-recreational-health aspect – a visit to the Inwałd theme park, located in a village in the district of Wadowice. It is home to a complex of theme parks: the World of Miniatures, Dinolandia, the Inwałd Fortress and the Garden of John Paul II;

– the tourism and recreation aspect – a sightseeing tour of the city of Wrocław, including a walk around Wroclaw, historic tram rides and a visit to the Wrocław ZOO.

In the next stage of the interview, the respondents were asked to propose a place or a region which, in their opinion, would satisfy the needs of their peers – a multi-day school trip (at least 3 days). A number of different ideas was proposed, with some respondents being in favour of active rest combined with sightseeing, and others opting for "taking things easy". Despite these differences of opinions, everyone was in agreement that the key thing is to keep the balance between sightseeing and rest: "During long trips, what matters most to us is not to be too tired or bored with long sightseeing. An opportunity to rest in comfortable conditions (good standard of accommodation facilities) is also important".

The following destinations were proposed for an interesting multi-day trip:

1. Bieszczady Mountains: – a three-day trip featuring field activities with a guide (a trek to the Tarnica summit) and a visit in the town of Solina and its main tourist attraction – the Solina Dam. In the evenings – integration activities. The return journey would include a few hours' stopover in Cracow.

2. The city of Kielce, with the following justification: "This trip would be not only an opportunity to become more familiar with the history and culture of the city and the region, but would also help us to integrate as a group through joint and creative forms of spending time together." The plan for the first day included a tour of the city and a relaxing evening in the Aquapark. The second day: sightseeing until noon, and field activities (paintball) in the afternoon. The last day would be a chance for students to explore the old town according to the preference.

3. Zakopane and the Tatra mountains: "A four-day trip to Zakopane would be a great way to spend time actively". The plan included field lessons every day until noon – classes in the Tatra National Park (getting to know the geological structure, fauna and flora). The students would stay in a mountain hostel, where integration classes would be organised in the afternoons.

It is worth noting that most of the students were fairly ignorant about key aspects of organizing trips, particularly when it comes to estimating the time required for various items of the program including the time of travel between different places. For example, the proposed trip to Bieszczady, including a visit to Solina and in Cracow could not realistically be organized in just 3 days.

The last question discussed during the interviews was preferred travelling companions. The moderator deliberately did not specify the type of trip – a school trip or individual trip. In each group, the focus was mainly on organized trips, school trips. One person made the following comment: "Tourist trips are a form of learning, firstly by visiting various places, and, secondly, by meeting strangers. A lot depends on how large the group is. For a tourist trip, I would go with my school friends but also with an adult who has experience and knowledge that could show us around."

In the second group, the discussion also focused on trips in which young people are accompanied by teachers. "A well-organized group of youngsters can handle every situation. The older support the younger or less-informed, helping them in tasks they find difficult. You do not often have to ask for help, because experienced friends can skilfully conduct classes and share tasks in a group. It's all a matter of well-mastered skills of teamwork, the desire to meet new people and a high level of personal culture. Participation in various types of activities or group games is much more pleasant when adults and teenagers (of different ages) form a harmonious team."

Teachers see adolescents not only as a group that one can work with fruitfully but as good company one can spend free time with (outdoor games, puns, sports and recreation activities). According to one respondent, "It is crucial to create a positive atmosphere during the trip [...] I think that many school trips are of good quality, although there are far too few of them. Such trips (especially longer ones) bring a lot to our school life, giving us a chance to demonstrate our skills, become independent and improve our fitness."

At the end, the students were asked to list benefits of traveling with different categories of companions:

– friends – freedom, independence, lack of control, good fun, ease of making contacts, similar interests;

– parents – provide transport, cover travel costs, give a sense of safety;

– teachers, classmates – a fixed trip schedule, a chance to gain useful life experience for the future, an opportunity for integration, spending time together.

4.3. Participatory design results

Using the format of participatory design [Spinuzzi 2005], the students presented their own preferences regarding school trips (Table 2). This method is a particularly effective tool for collecting rich, qualitative, multi-layered data by engaging the participants in the process of collaboration. By getting involved in trip planning students start to share the responsibility for the final outcome. Insights gathered at this stage provided additional qualitative input supplementing information collected during focus group interviews and quantitative data from the survey, all of which served the purpose of triangulation.

5. Discussion

As regards the two basic types of school trips – curriculum-based and extra-curricular [Ritchie, Carr, Cooper 2003, 2008; Carr 2011; Campbell-Price 2014], students' participation in the second type of trips was found to be smaller, probably because it depends on individual decisions of students and their parents. Moreover, in line with the findings made by Larsen and Jenssen [2004], one of the reasons given for why school trips are attractive is "to get away from school". The collected data confirm the trend identified by Kugiejko [2015, 2016a, 2016b] showing the declining attractiveness of school trips as such.

The study provided data about students' reasons for not participating in school trips and about their expectations regarding trips they would be inter-

Table 2. Students' opinions about school trips [%]

Question	Not important	Important	Very important
What new experiences can you get during a school trip?			
• meeting new people, strengthening ties with friends	0	34	66
• unforgettable impressions, memories	7	32	61
• physical fatigue and lack of sleep	66	32	2
• tips on how to care for safety while traveling	27	39	34
• getting to know new places, lots of interesting information	20	64	16
• good fun, lots of laughter, joy	0	12	89
• experience, useful in individual trips	2	43	55
• confirmation and broadening of the knowledge acquired at school	39	43	18
What do I expect from school trips?			
• better integration with the class	7	28	65
• a break from school, teachers and parents	0	2	98
• getting to know new places	2	24	74
• nice traveling companions	0	43	57
• f un, nice time spent	0	9	91
• freedom and free time	0	12	89
• a chance to learn new things, test your own abilities, e.g. in the mountains	7	39	50
• good organization of travel, sense of security	23	57	20
• good local food	40	28	32
What are the downsides of school trips?			
• teachers want to convey too much information, "a very tight schedule"	2	7	91
• getting up early	0	12	89
• additional tasks – worksheets, learning	7	39	50
• no slack, no time off	0	9	91
• some students disregard the rules and prohibitions and cause problems	28	32	40
• accommodation in a low standard hostel	7	50	43
• boredom, lack of sports activities	2	7	91
• long shower queues	24	74	2
• monotonous food	28	32	40
• insufficient time for sleep after a busy day	7	32	61

Table 2 – cont.

Question	Not important	Important	Very important
What can be improved in the organization of school trips?			
• integration activities, groups games, a camp fire	7	39	50
• more efficient organization of accommodation	28	32	40
• less sightseeing with tour guides – especially older and boring ones	0	9	91
• a reminder about health and safety rules before going to the mountains or other activities, e.g. kayaking	23	57	20
• communication between students and teachers (what we want and what we can do)	8	74	18
• better standard of accommodation	40	37	23
• less control (e.g. time for shopping)	0	9	91
• more free time	0	5	95
• less haste in sightseeing ("we run from place to place")	7	39	50
• more varied meals	8	74	18

Source: Zajadacz, Kugiejko 2017 (number of respondents $n = 44$).

ested in, which are related to all the functions of school trips presented by Alejziak [2000], Zajadacz and Kugiejko [2017], especially the integrative function, but also the educational and health function (thanks to active forms of spending time). The results are in line with the findings presented by Larsen and Jenssen [2004], emphasising the importance of the social motivation of students' travel decisions ("doing things together").

Being together refers not only to the peer group, but also to teachers and educators, from whom young people can learn how to organize trips. Students in fact expect school trips to be a learning opportunity, which can be categorized as self-guided or facilitated learning [Pitman et al. 2010; Vande Berg, Paige, Lou 2012], which continues in adult life. From the perspective of general social values, school trips can be treated as a form of "field workshops" which prepare young people for responsible and sustainable tourism. As noted by Campbell-Price [2014], such long-term effects of school trips still require monitoring and evaluation. It would also be interesting to compare effects of school trips organized by schools with those prepared by tour operators, especially in view of critical comments concerning the latter found in Zaleskienė and Dobkevičienė-Džiovėnienė [2007].

6. Conclusion

According to the studies described in this article, three fourths of the responding students participated in school trips in analysed school year. However, every fifth student admitted that their participation was reluctant. The reason for this reluctance was mainly the way such trips are organized, especially the aspect of "passive" sightseeing. For nearly three fourths of respondents being merely a recipient of information was a disincentive to participating in another trip.

The decision not to participate in trips is also motivated by the fact that very few trips satisfy young people's interests and those that are offered are often of low quality, which means unattractive schedule (inadequate for the price), "boring guides", lack of sports activities and an insufficient amount of free time. Other reasons for skipping trips had to do with individual reluctance to travel or financial problems.

School trips that young people would like to attend are mainly trips that are an opportunity to gain experience through activities. Given the current accessibility of information, via mobile phones, young people's expectations concerning school trips are less to do with gaining knowledge but focus more on active exploration, experiencing and experimenting. The respondents were overwhelmed and discouraged by the amount of information provided by "boring" guides. With respect to planned trips, they also said that they wanted to verify the information learned in history lessons directly in the place associated with a given event.

When it comes to organized school trips, most of them were subject-oriented or sightseeing trips (focused on sightseeing); according to the students, there were not enough trips involving active tourism, sports or entertainment-oriented, which represent students' actual preferences. Students would like to see more trips with a diversified programme, including opportunities for integration with other peers, more understanding on the part of the teachers, a chance to meet new people, to experience the world through many senses, including culinary experiences.

The organization of trips was a problem the students raised quite frequently. They complained about a very busy schedule, too little time off or insufficient time for rest. It must be remembered that, from the perspective of the organizers, an intensive programme and with little amount of free time facilitates supervision and helps to ensure the safety of trip participants. When expressing their expectations concerning school trips and when actually making travel plans, the students demonstrated a lack of specific knowledge and skills in the area of trip organization (e.g. they failed to take into account some key aspects such as the need to reserve time for journeys). The respondents expressed hope that by participating in school trips they would learn how to organize their personal trips.

According to the young respondents, school trips should be organized in the atmosphere of partnership, with better cooperation between teachers and students in the planning process and during the actual trip. This expectation seems particularly important when, as is increasingly the case, school trips are not organized directly by teachers but are purchased as a special tourism service provided by tour operators, where young people are treated as customers representing a segment of the tourism market. For school trips to serve their purpose (educational, educational, health), it is necessary to involve young people not only in the process of trip planning but also in the implementation of the trip programme so that they also responsible for what happens during the trip. This requires thoughtful preparation that could be part of educational or subject activities (e.g. part of nature, geography, history or social knowledge classes). The unique character of school trips should be emphasized through a practical approach and joint organization. Students' involvement in developing a trip programme under the guidance of teachers is the first step to organising exciting and engaging school trips. Many solutions can be introduced in the school environment before they are implemented in the organisation of trips. The purpose of the participatory design study was to improve the way school trips are organised and to align them with students' expectations, remembering that young consumers are increasingly aware of their needs, seeking new forms of activity that will give them satisfaction and rest.

The findings of this study, which provide insights into the perspective of young people, can help trips organizers (schools and tour operators) modify their programmes accordingly by taking into account the postulates of young people, while enabling them to participate and gain valuable experience in the process. In the long-term, this can have a positive effect on the development of responsible and sustainable tourism.

The identified reasons for students' reluctance and actual refusal to participate in organized tourist trips are also relevant for tour operators. They reflect observed and forecasted directions of change in the tourism market, manifested by a decline in conventional services (such as the collapse of travel offices, including the Thomas Cook Group) and the growth of individual, personalized travel.

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Organizacja współczesnych wycieczek szkolnych – zrozumieć perspektywę młodzieży

Streszczenie. Głównym celem badań było rozpoznanie opinii młodzieży na temat organizacji wycieczek szkolnych, w tym czynników, które powodują niechęć do uczestnictwa w wyjazdach czy rezygnację z wycieczek szkolnych. Cykl badań został przeprowadzony w latach 2013-2017 przy zastosowaniu metody triangulacji: podejścia ilościowego (ankieta) i jakościowego (wywiady grupowe, projektowanie partycypacyjne). Wyniki badań pozwoliły na scharakteryzowanie uczestnictwa uczniów w wycieczkach szkolnych, organizowanych zarówno w ramach programu nauczania (*curriculum-based*), jak i poza nim (*extra-curricular*), ponadto opinii uczniów (pozytywnych, negatywnych) na temat organizacji wycieczek szkolnych oraz przyczyn rezygnacji z tego typu wyjazdów. Wnioski końcowe wskazują, że włączenie opinii młodzieży w organizację wycieczek szkolnych przyczynia się do kształtowania ich poczucia decyzyjności i odpowiedzialności za przebieg wyprawy. Wyniki badań mają znaczenie zarówno poznawcze, jak i praktyczne z punktu widzenia potrzeb młodzieży, nauczycieli, przedsiębiorstw organizujących wycieczki szkolne, a także w szerokiej i długoterminowej perspektywie społecznej – dla rozwoju odpowiedzialnej i zrównoważonej turystyki.

Słowa kluczowe: turystyka szkolna, wycieczki szkolne, turystyka młodzieży, projektowanie partycypacyjne

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A Comparison of Motivations behind Tourism Trips to Italy – Travellers of the Grand Tour Era vs. Modern Tourists

Abstract. The purpose of the article is to compare motivations of travellers visiting Italy in the past, especially in the Grand Tour period, with those of modern tourists. A literature review has revealed that during the Renaissance in the Enlightenment and in the period of the Grand Tour, travel was an opportunity to acquire knowledge, to pursue science and self-development. The empirical part of the article describes results of a study (involving focus group interviews) which indicate that modern tourists also travel to Italy for educational purposes to visit sights that are famous for their historical and artistic qualities. However, for modern tourists such trips are, to a greater extent, opportunities for "an escape from daily life" as well as a chance to get to know the culture, including the local cuisine, new people and a form of rest and recreation. Another important factor, which also played a role in the romantic period, is the desire to boast of the trip on social media.

Keywords: tourism motivations, Grand Tour, trips to Italy

1. Introduction

There are many factors that motivate tourists to travel, including external factors (demographic, social, economic, spatial, political, cultural) and internal factors, associated with individual characteristics of a given person. This latter group encompasses motivations that can be viewed as internal factors related to psychology and physiology, which, consciously or subconsciously, lead to a certain action [Middleton 1996; Niezgoda 1999]. Motivations determine the choice of a tourist destination [Yousaf, Amin, Santos 2018].

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Italy was a popular destination for travellers from the ancient times, through the Middle Ages, Renaissance, Enlightenment and Romanticism and remains one of the most frequently visited countries today [Mączak 1984; Wrześniak 2005; Wieczorkiewicz 2008]. In the Renaissance and Enlightenment period, as well as during the Grand Tour era travel was an opportunity to acquire knowledge, to pursue science and self-development. Nowadays, in the age of instant and universal access to information, it can be expected that it is easier for tourists to prepare for travelling [Yousaf, Amin, Santos 2018]; however, a question can be raised whether motivations of modern tourists are similar to those of past travellers.

The purpose of the article is to compare motivations of travellers visiting Italy in the past, especially in the Grand Tour period, with those of modern tourists. Drawing on insights from a review of the literature on the characteristics of trips to Italy undertaken in different historical periods and on the results of a survey of young tourists, the author compares motivations of past and modern tourists. The object of the study is to determine to what extent the modern tourist choosing to visit Italy is motivated by the desire to gain new knowledge and whether the choice of this destination is viewed as an opportunity for education, as was frequently the case with travellers in the Grand Tour period.

2. Travel motivations – the problem of definition

Choices made by tourists when deciding where to spend a holiday and then selecting individual goods and services after arriving at a given destination, can be classified as consumer behaviour, which are part of a wider field of general human behaviour [Rudnicki 2010].

The specific problem involves the question why two people in exactly the same situations can behave differently or why two people in very different circumstances behave similarly. Why is one person willing to save and wait for a dream trip to Rome, while another one prefers to spend holidays by the Baltic Sea and does not intend to save for or even consider visiting Italy.

Tourist trips, the desire to visit certain places, travel frequency can all be determined by personal motivations.

Motivations should be treated as a dynamic aspect of consumers' (tourists') behaviours, which bridges the gap between felt needs and a decision to take a certain action (travel to a specific place) [Niezgoda 2012: 23]. Motivations encompass internal factors related to psychology and physiology, which, consciously or subconsciously, lead to a certain action. They are activating forces that sustain a person's involvement and curiosity that is manifested in the desire to act [Roth, Schrandt 1982].

There are many classifications of travel motivations in the literature [Middleton 1996; Ryan 1997; Pizam, Mansfeld (ed.) 2000; Yousaf, Amin, Santos 2018]. They include motivations of consumers of tourism services, as well as types of trips that can be distinguished taking into account different motivations. Typically, motivations can be divided into the following categories:

– motivations related to physical culture and recreation, e.g. spending time on the beach, hiking in the mountains, bike trips;

– health improvement, e.g. a stay at a spa or a wellness retreat or resort;

– social motivations involving the desire to spend time with family or keep someone company, e.g. joining a trip someone else has selected, or accompanying a spouse attending a fair or a conference;

– the desire to escape from daily routine, where leaving the usual place of residence is the most important thing, while the choice of a destination is of secondary importance;

– entertainment, e.g. attending concerts or other events, festivals or parties;

– religious motivations, e.g. pilgrimages to places of worship or other religious sites to practice contemplation and experience spiritual regeneration.

It should be emphasised that in many cases one trip can be undertaken for more than one reason [Niezgoda 1998; Sonntag 2006]. In fact, multiple motivations are quite common. For example, a holiday trip to Italy can be motivated by the desire to visit places with interesting historical sites and museums (cultural motivation), but religious motives (visiting holy places) or recreational considerations (a relaxing stay in a warm climate) can also play a role. A visit to a big city can be motivated by the desire to attend a theatrical performance but additional motivation may include shopping plans or time spent in the company of friends (entertainment, pleasure, social motivations). Chris Ryan [1997: 46] and Ulf Sonntag [2006: 32] point to a reverse relationship: one motive can result in different types of trips. For instance, to gain new knowledge, a tourist may either travel to Italy and visit museums there or go to another town to take part in a meeting of a discussion club or simply go to the seaside with a bunch of guidebooks to read them on the beach.

Motivations change in the course of a lifetime. Young people tend to have different motivations (mainly meeting new people and getting to know new places) from older people (rest and recreation).

According to Władysław Gaworecki [2000: 91], tourism is a form of compensation for the conditions of modern life, as a response on the part of people unable to fully adjust to the changing environment and new needs resulting from these changes and maladjustments. It is these needs that prompt people to travel and the choice of destination depends on factors that may vary in different historical periods.

3. Trips to Italy from a historical perspective

Travel motivations in different historical periods varied. It is believed that the phenomenon of tourism originated in ancient times [Kraś 2008: 165] and was associated with travel for religious, commercial, diplomatic or health-related purposes. In the Middle Ages, people travelled mainly for religious reasons, which is consistent with the general characteristics of that period. In the Renaissance, it was a common custom to travel to schools in foreign countries [Mączak 1984: 123]. This educational motivation developed in the 17th century, where travel began to be seen as an opportunity to gain enriching and learning experience and make new social contacts. It also became an indicator of high social class [Veblen 1998].

Analysis of travel in different historical periods has to be based on personal accounts and descriptions. In general, detailed analyses exist for periods starting from the 15th century, owing to the availability of historical sources. In the 16th and 17th centuries, a number of treatises were written about the types of trips worth taking and laudable *motives for travelling. A distinction was made between peregrinari*, denoting a trip undertaken for self-development and learning, and *vagary,* which signified vagrancy [Mączak 1984: 8].

Travel became the thing to do for future diplomats, lovers of the antique, merchants and representatives of the nobility. There are 26 extant Polish accounts of journeys across Europe from the 16th and 17th centuries [Wrześniak 2005: 146-147]. The main category includes diplomatic journeys, where the aspect of tourism is at best of secondary nature, though the accounts contain signs of interest in the visited countries. The second group of accounts describe journeys in pursuit of education and learning. The third group consists of diaries recounting experiences of travelling that can be classified as tourism. In her analysis of these texts, Małgorzata Wrześniak [2005: 147] notes that regardless of the purpose of the journey, the travellers perceive Italy as the most beautiful country of the world, full of wonderful places, a treasure trove of sciences and arts. The diary authors devote most of their attention to the *holy places* of Rome, followed by Venice and Padua but barely mention Florence.

It can be concluded that (mostly educated) travellers of the past were motivated by the desire to get to know the objective reality and broaden their horizons. The analysis of diaries written by Polish travellers indicates that the 16th century saw the development of a typical tour of Italy [Wrześniak 2005: 157]. Travellers typically visited cities mainly to admire their arrangement and fortifications, paying less attention to works of architecture, sculpture and painting. However, by the end of the 16th century, landscape descriptions had become more popular and the fascination in differences started to give way to the fascination in novelty.

One can notice a conventional treatment of visited places, manifested in repetitive descriptions, which are mainly the result of the desire to acquire knowledge that could prove useful in the future political career, to learn foreign languages, to get to know as many important persons as possible and learn more about fortifications. These goals motivated people travelling in search of education as well as those who can be described as first tourists.

A typical Polish traveller to foreign lands would follow recommendations and pay attention to objects indicated by an experienced teacher. The character of accounts included in the travel diary would depend on the author's upbringing, education, erudition and on parental command [Wrześniak 2005: 161-162].

In the course of the 16th century, the fact of having travelled became a symbol of social status and a basic element of education for a nobleman planning to assume important social roles [Mączak 1984: 275-276]. What made foreign lands attractive were different, famous and praised landscapes and ancient art. Travellers admired the Renaissance culture and the reception of works of art was amplified by the scenery of the moment and the mood of the observer. Travel was seen as an opportunity to broaden one's knowledge and digest it in the mind and tourism became a "common" phenomenon (in higher social classes), a kind of cultural obligation, largely motivated by snobbery. And this is precisely the motive behind the phenomenon that can be treated as the origin of modern tourism, namely the Grand Tour.

4. Motivations of trips to Italy in the Grand Tour period

The term *Grand Tour* was used by Richard Lassels in his work entitled *The voyage of Italy*, published posthumously in 1670 [Wieczorkiewicz 2008: 99]. The book was intended for "young lords" making the tour in pursuit of knowledge and moral and physical self-improvement. Personal observation was a necessity for everyone wishing to develop an independent and original opinion about cities and countries visited on the way.

The Grand Tour was no longer merely a fashion but became an element of a certain lifestyle. The whole enlightened world went travelling [Mączak 1984: 13]. The 18th century Italy attracted tourists from all over Europe. Travel to Italy was in vogue to such an extent, that, as Antoni Mączak observes, it was expected to know Italy and anyone who had never been there would feel inferior in the company of those who had [1984: 92-93]. After returning from a foreign journey, a young man was treated as a real gentleman. A. Mączak notes that Europeans in the Enlightenment developed a taste that has survived until the present day [Mączak 1984: 136]. Tourists did not fail to visit Venice, Florence, Pisa or Lucca, going as far as Naples, and, more and more often to Sicily, and always headed for Rome [Łazarkowie 2005: 156]. The journey itself did not last long compared to the stay (frequently many months) at a given place where travellers would cultivate their national customs.

In the 18th century, it became customary in the aristocratic and higher nobility circles to visit Italy not just once during one, long grand tour, but more times in order to be able to discover one's favourite places and corners. The English were the first to set this trend, which was emulated by those who considered themselves to be Europeans, thus ushering in the age of modern tourism [Mączak 1984: 126].

Travel was supposed to be an opportunity where one learns to think and get to know the world in an empirical, enlightened way. Obviously, sightseeing involved experiencing selected elements of foreign reality. Many travellers, enamoured of the Italian nature and fascinated by its art (mostly from the ancient period) and new styles of painting, were repelled by the sight of Italian streets and crowds and horrified by the state of inns and public safety. Many enlightened tourists looked for relatively secluded sites, famous for their history not for the present day [Mączak 1984: 220]. Consequently, the education received by tourists of that period did not include the reality of daily life led by lower social strata of countries they visited.

It is interesting, in this context, to analyse the accounts written by Stanisław Staszic, who travelled across Italy between 1790 and 1791 as a guardian to the sons of Andrzej Zamoyski. When describing Italian cities, Staszic finds more to criticise than to praise with regard to their location, planning and art and is equally critical about Italian customs and cuisine, which are exactly the things that Polish travellers in previous centuries found admirable [Wrześniak 2010: 133].

At the end of the 18th century the cultural pattern of elitist travel had changed: tourism was no longer dominated by men; more women or even whole families started to travel. Groups of tourists became increasingly commonplace [Mączak 1984: 192-193]. Travellers visited not only places of historical interest but also contemporary construction sites. For example, diaries written by rich European aristocrats making their Grand Tour of Italy describe their impressions of having visited the construction site of the royal palace at Caserta [Morelli 2007; Niezgoda 2017].

The 18th-century travel was undertaken not only for educational reasons but also to get away from daily routine and as a form of entertainment. In the Romantic era the philosophy of travel changed considerably: while travelling impressions remained the main theme, the role of the traveller's personality and psychology gained increasing importance. In addition to descriptions of places, diaries contained a presentation of the traveller [Burkot 1988: 24]. One can notice that nowadays, in the era of social media, such a presentation is becoming an important, if not the most important element of travel accounts [Haslebacher, Varga, Murphy 2019].

The Romantic traveller, even if admired "lonely heroes" or was one of them, would mingle with inhabitants of the visited country, get to know their lives and look for others like him. He was no longer a well-prepared, one might even say, conventional tourist who ticked off all the sights and works of art – he was a real traveller. In the era of national bards, Poles would go abroad not only to get to broaden their horizons and enjoy the trip but also out of necessity following the defeat of national uprisings.

However, the legacy of the Romantic era can still be detected in modern tourism and travel motivations. Francois-Rene Chateaubriand wrote "I did not make the journey to describe it […] I went to look for images; that's all" [as cited in Mączak 1984: 199]. This motivation still remains valid today, in the age of the Internet and social media – modern tourists keep looking for, capturing and sharing images, although unlike Chateaubriand, these accounts are often not based on much knowledge about the place. The emotional perception offers a way of escaping from reality. This approach has been inherited by mass tourism.

5. Travel motivations of modern tourists – results of an empirical study

Thanks to the development of the means of transport, the relative decline in the cost of travelling, accommodation possibilities and the services offered by specialized travel agencies, participation in tourism is no longer limited to narrow social groups [Butler 2006; Sonntag 2006; Niezgoda 2013]. According to Dean MacCannell [1999: 231]: "Now there appears to be a social mandate: everyone must go somewhere else and spend money in someone else's home, so everyone living *there* will be able to go to someone else's home and spend money, and so on". Some authors believe that modern tourist are not prepared to properly perceive tourist experiences [Krasny 2009: 6] and want to visit what they are familiar with [MacCannell 1999; Mączak 1984: 8]. According to John Urry [2007], the development of photography has significant implications for mass tourism. Tourism has become a search for photogenic objects. Tourists look for vistas they have already seen (in brochures or on social media), a phenomenon known as "scenic tourism". Thanks to film, press, TV and the Internet, people tend to want to visit places they have learned something about [Yousaf, Amin, Santos 2018]. The extreme effect of these developments is the emergence of a "post-tourist", who is satisfied with replicas of monuments and artificial attractions, which provide new impressions and experiences. [Winiarski, Zdebski 2008].

More and more tourists are travelling all over the world, including Italy. A question can be raised whether their motives are similar to those that inspired travellers in earlier epochs.

In order to answer this question, the author conducted an empirical study involving focus groups. The interviews were carried out in three groups consisting of 5-8 participants. The purposive sample of students from Poznan universities was selected because of shared characteristics that are relevant for the research problem. Students, just like Grand Tour travellers, stand at the threshold of adult life and education is a major goal in their lives. This type of research is exploratory and can be an introduction to quantitative research. The limitations of representativeness arising from the purposive (deliberate) selection of the sample and the qualitative nature of the study should be borne in mind.

The key objective of the study was to investigate the behavioural aspect of the respondents' attitudes. For this reason, in addition to questions about trips to Italy, they were also asked to provide details of their motivations.

The first set of issues addressed during the discussion related to the willingness to travel and preferred destinations. Respondents in one group agreed that travelling was not "an exceptional dream", and 3 persons said it was an "ordinary" activity. For participants in the remaining focus groups travelling was something special that they were looking forward to. One response exemplifies the special character of travel:

Travelling is the only thing that will remain with my for ever after I have bought it.

This theme was explored further during the discussion on the frequency of travel. In all focus groups, the respondents indicated that they travelled more than once a year and their limited holiday travel was the result of obligations related to studies and work. Members of two groups pointed out that even obligations provide opportunities for travel (staying abroad as an Erasmus student or working abroad). It was stressed, however, that such stays cannot be treated as tourist travel. One respondent said:

Travelling is an opportunity to combine business and pleasure.

The discussion in one group was summarized by one person who noted that "travelling is not an exception but almost a matter of daily life", and it is motivated by the desire to "be like others".

The second group of questions addressed the attractiveness of Italy as a destination. Most participants in all focus groups believed that Italy is an attractive place to visit. However, in all three groups some students indicated they would prefer to go to "more exotic countries", to "other continents". One person said that "Italy is too familiar, everyone has been there". It can therefore be concluded that in the information age Italy is not as attractive as it was in the Grand Tour era.

In the discussion about motives for trips to Italy, the participants listed such reasons as “historical sights”, “interesting cities”, “delicious food”, “beaches”, as well as “cool people” and “parties”. Only one persons mentioned museums. In all three groups, “exploring the culture” was given as an important motive. A number of comments emphasized the educational aspect of travelling:

Travelling is an opportunity to get to know things we learned about at school.
I travel because I want to learn and see how the world functions.
I travel to broaden my horizons.

The mention of “monuments and cities” refers to the educational motives and knowledge, “beaches” – to rest and recreation, while the other reasons have to do with social relations, which were not important in the Grand Tour.

Another group of questions was to elicit more details in response to the question: “Why do you travel or would you travel to Italy? and focused specifically on motivations. Most respondents in all groups said they “want to get away from the daily routine”. Some added that daily life was “grey”, “boring” and a trip to Italy was/would be a nice change that “could bring more colour to your life”. These answers indicate that tourist travel can be a form of escapism [more details in Niezgoda 2013]. It is not always important for these tourists that they are going to Italy but rather they will be staying at an all-inclusive hotel. Such tourists may also decide to go on a bike trip to the Alps, because it this form of vacationing is fashionable in their circle of friends, though they would prefer simply to relax in a comfortable place. The fashion of travelling to “escape the daily reality” motivates tourists to pursue various unusual activities (bungee jumping, windsurfing, swimming with dolphins, etc.). These motivations are also associated with the desire to collect experiences [Niezgoda 2013]. As the mere act of travelling used to reflect social status in the past, the same is true of tourist experiences nowadays [Peters, Weiermair, Katawandee 2006].

Another group of motivations revealed by the respondents is connected with the idea of “getting to know people and places”. These are similar to motives discussed in the earlier part of the article, namely the desire to learn about the world and the pursuit of education. One comment shows the attraction of Italy as a good place for sightseeing:

I want to visit Italy to see all the monuments, but what matters most of all is the Chance to experience life in a different place.

For the respondents, getting to know other people, their way of life and the local cuisine, is more important than motives inspiring the Grand Tour. For travellers of the past, aspects of daily life and experiencing the local cuisine were rather a matter of necessity than an opportunity to gain knowledge while visiting places.

Another important motive mentioned by all three groups was the chance to learn a foreign language.

Discussions in all three groups also revealed motives associated with rest and recreation, spending time on the beach, for example at an attractive hotel in Rimini, hiking in the Alps, bike trips around the Garda lake, etc. In two groups the participants mentioned social motivations, such as wanting to spend time with family or accompanying others, for example, on a tour that someone else had booked. In one group some respondents mentioned religious motivations associated with participating in pilgrimages and visiting places of worship, especially the Vatican.

Health motivations did not appear in any of the groups. During the discussion, the participants were asked about trips motivated by the desire to impress other, especially by sharing photos on social media. The respondents admitted they liked to share photos because:

It is something you are expected to do.
When you've visited the place, you absolutely have to let others know about it.

This is similar to the motivation that existed in the Romantic era, where the presentation of the traveller plays a key role.

In summary, modern tourists do not always travel to in pursuit of knowledge. Sometimes they just one to confront their memories or expectations with experiences of others. In the past epochs, the point of reference for such comparisons were experiences collected in diaries written by earlier travellers who went to great lengths to document their journeys. Nowadays tourists post their holiday photos on social media, which takes just a moment and does not cost anything. The result is a huge volume of photos and comments that are often not directly related to the main character of the visited places.

6. Summary

The typical Grand Tour put the Italian culture in a privileged position. The country became the object of reflection for Montaigne, Descartes, Montesquieu, Goethe and many other travellers [more details in Wieczorkiewicz 2008]. Many travelling thinkers describe the country, which still remains one of the most popular holiday destinations. It is hard to disagree with Antoni Mączak, who notes that from the perspective of a baroque tourist, the directions of travel have changed, but Italy remain the axis, destination and main attraction of the grand tour [1984: 130].

In the previous epochs, especially in the Grand Tour era, trips to Italy were mainly motivated by the pursuit of education by visiting places of historical interest and artistic value.

For modern tourists, a trip to Italy to gain knowledge can be an example of a trend described by Richard Butler [2006: 15], which marks a return to elitist forms of tourism. It is consistent with a growing interest in education on the part of young tourists, which was noted by Anish Yousaf, Insha Amin and Jose Antonio Santos [2018]. The results of the study described in this article confirm observations made by Carlos Monterrubio [2019], who notices that nowadays, in addition to educational motives, there are other, more important reasons, connected with the desire to "escape from the daily routine". The most important motivation for travel is to need to leave the permanent place of residence. The trip itself can be used merely for entertainment or as an opportunity to collect new experiences. In such situations, the choice of a destination is of secondary importance. Attractions, such as works of art and cultural monuments of Italy used to be the main motivation in the Renaissance and the Enlightenment. For the modern tourist it does not matter if the destination is Rome, London or Dubai. In contrast to past travellers, what matters more is the pursuit of entertainment, attendance at concerts and other events, festivals or typical night parties. This difference in motivations is consistent with the findings of Ulf Sonntag [2006], who emphasises that modern tourist look for "multi-option" experiences, choose various destinations, travel more often and quickly react to market changes. This corresponds to the phenomenon of "Three-minute culture", which results in a constant search for new places and experiences by tourists. The ubiquity of the media (mainly visual, in Western countries) means that more and more things appear "ordinary" and it is very difficult to find the "extraordinary" experiences that tourists are still looking for [Urry 2007: 152].

As pointed out by Christina Haslebacher, Peter Varga and Hilary Murphy [2019], many modern tourists focus on self-presentation by sharing photos on social medial. Instead of describing specific works of art or monuments, the way it was done, for example, in the travel diary written by Stanisław Staszic, tourists post photos of a cup of coffee or a café they have ordered at a local café. Sometimes they include a caption saying "Florence, but often the comments under the photo do not provide any indication as to the destination and the purpose of the trip. The findings of the study described in the article confirm that trips to Italy made by modern tourists are mainly motivated by the desire to get to know people [Yousaf, Amin, Santos 2018], experience the local cuisine and wine [Deichmann, Murphy 2018], practice foreign languages [Yousaf, Amin, Santos 2018], search for photogenic objects [Urry 2007] and collect new experiences [Sonntag 2006].

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Porównanie motywacji wyjazdów do Włoch – podróżni epoki *Grand Tour* vs. współcześni turyści

Streszczenie. Celem artykułu jest porównanie motywów wyjazdów do Włoch podróżnych w epokach historycznych, w szczególności w czasie *Grand Tour*, z motywacjami współczesnych turystów. Na podstawie przeglądu literatury stwierdzono, że w dobie renesansu, oświecenia, a także w czasie *Grand Tour* podróż służyła celom poznawczym, nauce, doskonaleniu, poznaniu. W części empirycznej zaprezentowano wyniki badania (metoda zogniskowanego wywiadu grupowego), które wskazują, że motywacją podróży do Italii dla współczesnych turystów jest również edukacja poprzez odwiedzanie ważnych miejsc z uwagi na ich walory historyczne i artystyczne. Jednak dla obecnych turystów ważniejsze są motywy związane z „ucieczką do codzienności" oraz poznanie kultury, w tym kuchni, nowych ludzi, chęć odpoczynku i rekreacji. Ważnym motywem (choć nawiązującym do epoki romantycznej) jest chęć pochwalenia się odbytą podróżą na portalach społecznościowych.

Słowa kluczowe: motywacje turystyczne, *Grand Tour,* podróże do Włoch

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The Evaluation of the Demand for Services Provided by Tourist Guides and Tour Leaders

Abstract. This article presents the results of empirical research on the labour market of city travel guides, regional guides and mountain guides as well as tour leaders. The aim of this article is to evaluate the demand for the services of travel guides and tour leaders. The study included tourism entrepreneurs and the method of a diagnostic survey with the use of computer-assisted telephone interviewing (CATI) was applied. The obtained results confirmed the thesis that the labour market of travel guides and tour leaders is not stable and this is due to the seasonality, level of earnings and changing model of travel organization. The study also showed that in the five-year period from the deregulation of the professions, the market relations between travel guides and tour leaders on the one hand and tourism entrepreneurs on the other did not undergo fundamental changes. The results of the study may be useful for tour operators, organisations associating travel guides and tour leaders as well as for tourism administration at the central and regional level.

Keywords: travel guides, tour leaders, services, demand

1. Introduction

Publications on tourist services and the creating offers and selling tourist services very often emphasise the important role of travel guides and tour leaders in shaping the quality of tourist services [Kozłowska 2006; Kruczek (ed.) 2011]. In the

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era of globalisation, tourists come from different parts of the world and different cultures and local tour leaders and travel guides are often the only people who provide them with the knowledge about the place visited. A travel guide or tour leader often acts as a translator, mediator, country representative, liaison between different cultures, social catalyst [Rabotić 2011; Mikos v. Rohrscheidt 2014]. It is assumed that the quality of the work of a travel guide and a tour leader is a key factor contributing to tourists' satisfaction, it affects the reputation of the travel agency and has an impact on the image of the country and region [Gryszel 2007; Rudmi Chehanika Sandaruwani, Athula C. Gnanapala 2016; Pereira 2015].

Given their type of activity which involves direct contact with tourists, tour leaders and travel guides form a homogeneous tourist sub-sector. What both these professional groups have in common in the need to have similar competences, and the diversity results from the specificity of the area where a travel guide or tour leader works [*Badanie rynku pracy…* 2018].

We assume that the demand for the services of travel guides and tour leaders is reported by tour operators or other entities such as schools, church institutions, work establishments, associations and foundations that directly contact a travel guide or tour leader directly, without the intermediation of a tour operator.

2. Aim

The research conducted in 2018 by the team of employees of the University of Physical Education in Krakow was aimed at assessing the labour market of tour guides and tour leaders [*Badanie rynku pracy…* 2018]. Surveys were also conducted among individuals using the services rendered by travel guides and tour leaders in order to assess the quality of these services and the qualifications to practice the profession of a travel guide and tour leader. The study included travel guides and tour leaders, tourists and tourism entrepreneurs that report demand for their work. The article presents the results of a part of the research which concerns the demand for the services provided by travel guides and tour leaders.

3. Literature review

In the global economy tourism creates an extensive labour market with 319 million jobs, i.e. about 10% of global employment [WTTC 2018; Aynalem, Birhanu, Tesefay 2016]. The tourism labour market can be viewed from three perspectives – employees, employers and researchers [Ladkin 2011: 1135]. However, it should be added that research on the tourism labour market is relatively rare [Kruczek 2000; Gryszel 2007]. There are few publications concerning the segment of employees directly providing services to tourists, such as travel guides and tour leaders [Xiao, Smith 2006; Chang 2014; Ap, Wong 2001]. The multiplicity of roles they play in providing services to tourists [Cohen 1985; Weiler, Davis 1993; Salazar 2005; Rabotić 2010], in particular the importance of their work in achieving tourist satisfaction [Geva, Goldman 1991] are the most frequently mentioned.

In Poland, the first sociological research among travel guides and tour leaders was conducted by Krzysztof Podemski [2005], who evaluated, among others, the cooperation with tour operators. Tour operators and schools followed by work establishments and churches are the main partners of tour leaders and travel guides. In principle, the respondents cooperated with up to three tour operators. On average, such cooperation got a rating of B minus. Signing a contract of mandate or a contract for specific work or informal oral arrangements are the most common forms of cooperation between travel guides and tour leaders and their clients. The income from work in these professions earned by those working in the last 12 months was generally less than 10% of their total annual income. Both travel guides and tour leaders earned the largest part of their annual income in May, June, July and August and the smallest part in December and January.

The factors shaping the labour market of travel guides and tour leaders were the subject of several analyses carried out in the last decade [Gryszel, Kruczek 2007; Gryszel 2007; Kruczek 2006, 2008].

Another extensive study of the labour market in the sector of travel guides and tour leaders was related to the deregulation of the professions introduced in 2014, which included city guides, regional guides and tour leaders. It is difficult to conclusively determine how the deregulation of the professions of travel guides and tour leaders affected the labour market. In discussions, especially in social media, both positive and negative opinions are expressed about competition from new tour leaders (without licences), the amount of work or rates for services. A significant deterioration in the professional situation of travel guides and tour leaders, as a result of the deregulation introduced, was indicated in a study conducted at the initiative of the Ministry of Sport and Tourism [Jańczak 2015].

The community of travel guides and tour leaders, according to the study referred to above, not only pointed to a deterioration of their economic situation (2/3 of the survey participants), but also highlighted the negative consequences of the change that affected service recipients. The deterioration in the general situation of clients was reported by 75% of the respondents, and an even higher percentage (about 82%) stated that the quality of services in the community decreased.

In the fifth year after the change in the legal framework, an attempt was made to diagnose the changes that took place in that period on the labour market, including with respect to travel guides and tour leaders and tourism entrepreneurs.

4. Method

The research uses the diagnostic survey method, i.e. a method of quantitative collection of data concerning a particular social phenomenon, which allows to determine its scope, extent, level and intensity. In the part of the study concerning the demand for the services of travel guides and tour leaders, the CATI method was used, i.e. interviews with respondents conducted over the phone, using interview questionnaires. The study included 500 travel agencies from the list of 3,541 entities entered in the registers of tour operators and tourist intermediaries kept by marshals of provinces and recorded in the Central Register of Tour Operators and Entrepreneurs Facilitating the Acquisition of Related Tourist Services kept in electronic form by the Minister of Sport and Tourism[1]. Quantitative distribution of the surveyed travel agencies in particular provinces is presented in Chart 1.

Chart 1. Number of respondents – travel agencies broken down by provinces

Source: own elaboration.

All respondents reported that, in their business, they use the services of at least one of the following professional groups: tour leaders, city guides, regional

[1] https://turystyka.gov.pl/ceotipt_p_84.html [accessed: 30.04.2018].

guides, mountain guides. However, the respondents most frequently reported that they cooperate with both tour leaders and travel guides, and depending on the area or place, with regional guides, city guides or mountain guides. 16% of travel agencies declared that they cooperate only with tour leaders and do not provide services that require the services of a tour guide.

5. Results

5.1. Demand for the work of travel guides and tour leaders

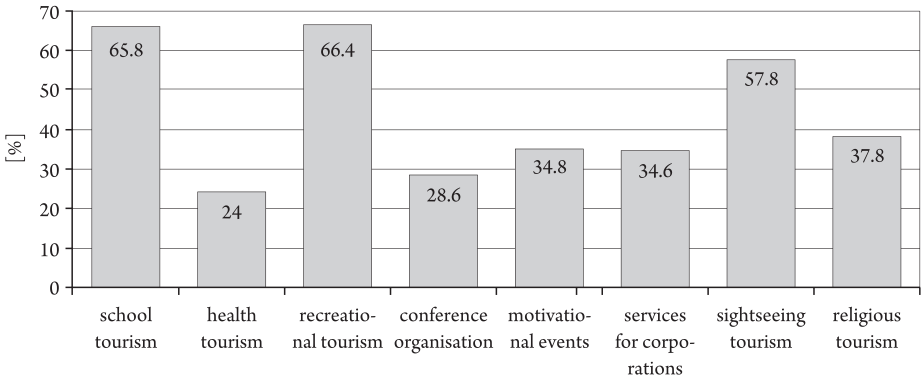
The demand for the services of tour leaders and travel guides reported by travel agencies operating in the field of organizing tourist events and acting as intermediaries on behalf of clients in concluding contracts for the provision of tourist services results from the Act[2] imposing the obligation to provide the client participating in a tourist event with care exercised by persons representing the tour operator and such function is, in principle, performed by a travel guide or a tour leader. The tour operator is obliged to ensure the services of a tour leader who knows the language commonly spoken in the visited country, and when organizing trips for tourists from abroad, the travel agency is obliged to provide the services of a travel guide and tour leader who know a foreign language to enable contact with participants.

However, the need for the services of travel guides that guarantee safety and professional knowledge of the visited areas, cities or locations results not only from the statutory obligations but also from the specificity of tourist events and the expectations of clients, i.e. tourists. The conducted surveys show that the offer of travel agencies is dominated by events in the broad category of recreational tourism (66.4%), followed by school tourism (65.8%) and sightseeing tourism (57.8%) (Chart 2), which shapes the demand for the services of tour leaders (91%) and travel guides (Chart 3). It is worth noting, however, that while the function of a tour leader is inextricably connected to the organisation of almost every tourist event, the cooperation of travel agencies with travel guides is determined by the nature of the offer based primarily on the agenda of events with basic or complementary forms of tourism aimed at learning about the tourist attractions of the visited cities or regions.

The demand for the services of travel guides and tour leaders is characterized by high instability resulting from the seasonality of tourism, as shown in the

[2] Ustawa z dnia 29 sierpnia 1997 o usługach hotelarskich oraz usługach pilotów wycieczek i przewodników turystycznych, Dz. U. z 2019 r. poz. 238 [Act of 29 August 1997 on hotel services and services of travel guides and tour leaders. Journal of Laws of 2019, item 238].

Chart 2. Forms of tourism characteristic of the investigated travel agencies specialization

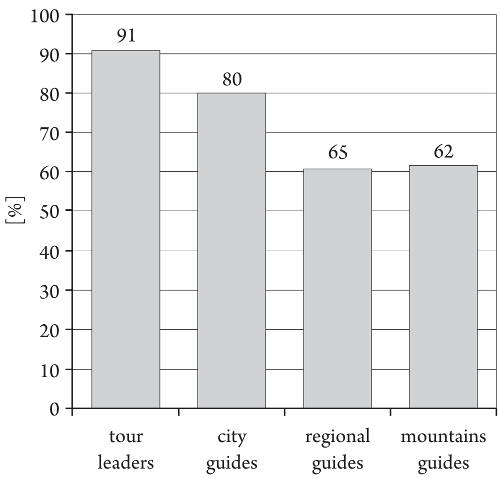


Source: own elaboration.

monthly distribution throughout a year in Chart 4. This illustrates a quite significant irregularity in the reported demand for services of the professional groups in question.

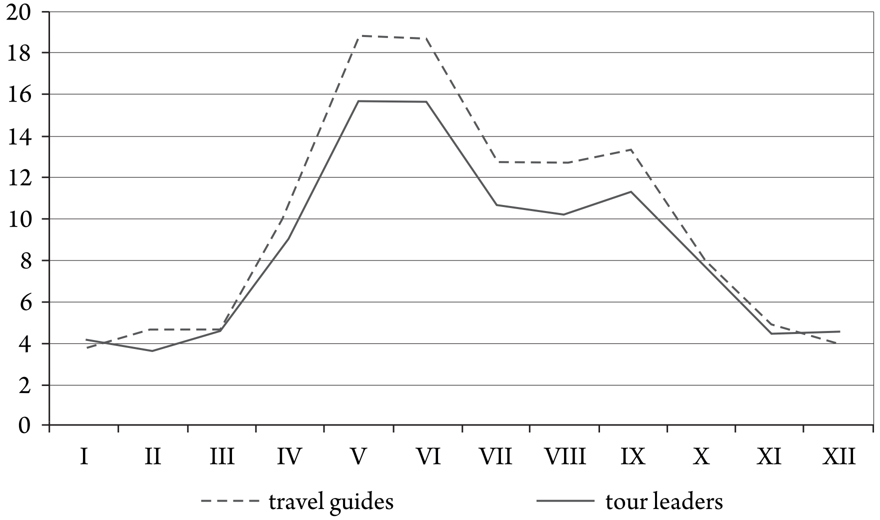
Analysis of the volume of demand reported by the surveyed travel agencies points to the observation that it is related to the distribution of tourist traffic intensity throughout a year, seasonality and it primarily shows that the demand is spatially diversified and largely depends on the tourist attractiveness of a particular region and the activity of travel agencies creating this demand. There-

Chart 3. Travel agencies which declare a demand for the services of travel guides and tour leaders



Source: own elaboration.

Chart 4. Mean number of tourist events offering the services of travel guides and tour leaders in the year 2017, calculated on a monthly basis and realized by a single travel agency



Source: own elaboration.

fore, it seems reasonable that studies of potential labour markets for tour leaders and travel guides should be conducted separately for each region or province. It should also be taken into account that the demand for the services rendered by tour leaders depends on the potential of a given market and the economic and organisational status of travel agencies, and the demand for the services of travel guides is related to and dependent on the attractiveness of a location, place or region defined as tourist destinations.

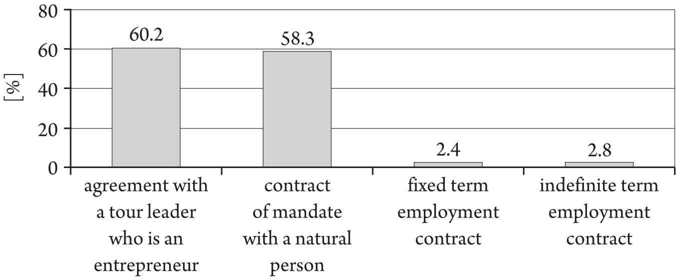
5.2. Form of cooperation with tour leaders and travel guides preferred by travel agencies

One if the aims was to determine how travel agencies prefer to cooperate with travel guides and tour leaders, separately for both groups, taking into account differences in responsibilities and services provided. According to the statements of the surveyed entrepreneurs, the preferred form of establishing cooperation with tour leaders is a contract of mandate, which is used by 70.7% of travel agencies; it is worth noting that it is the only form of employment for 47.2% of the survey participants. Another preferred form of cooperation is concluding a contract with a tour leader who operates a business (50.1%) and this is the only form of

Chart 5. The preferred form of employment offered to tour leaders by travel agencies

Source: own elaboration.

Chart 6. The preferred form of employment offered to travel guides by travel agencies



Source: own elaboration.

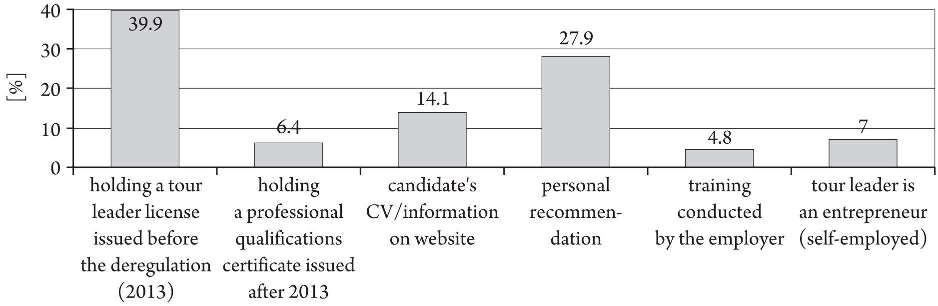
cooperation for more than half (54.3%) of this group (Chart 5). Similar forms of cooperation are preferred when it comes to travel guides. The small difference results from the fact that more often the preferred form of cooperation is concluding a contract with a travel guide who operates a business (60.2%); for 54.1% of this group it is the only form of cooperation. Contract of mandate concluded with a natural person – a travel guide – is slightly less frequent (58.3%) and is the only form of cooperation for 44.9% of travel agencies using this option (Chart 6).

It is worth noting that employment on the basis of a contract of employment for a definite or indefinite period of time in the case of travel guides and tour leaders is very infrequent.

5.4. Factors influencing the decision to cooperate with (employ) tour leaders and travel guides

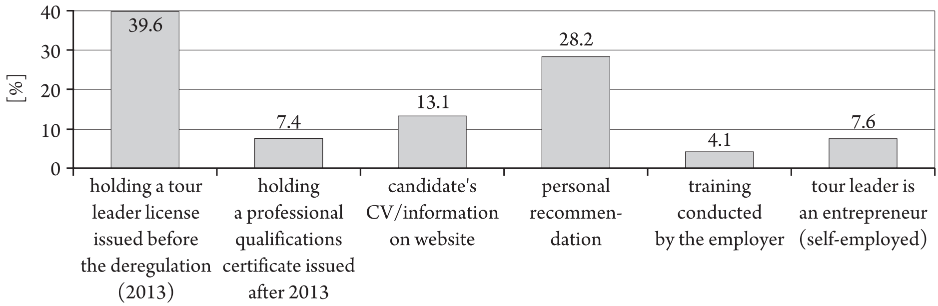
The decision to cooperate with tour leaders and travel guides is significantly influenced by the responsibility of the tour operator for the quality of individual services covered by the tourist event contract. It follows from the surveys that travel agencies are primarily interested in cooperation with persons who were licensed as travel guides or tour leaders before the deregulation of these professions (Chart 7 and 8). Both in the case of tour leaders and travel guides this percentage was almost 40%. However, while in the case of mountain guides, a regulated profession, it is necessary to have and, therefore, verify the qualifications, in other cases, after deregulation of the professions of tour leader, city guide and regional guide, the way of verification, preferred by tourist offices, confirms that in the tourism industry no institution certifying professional qualifications has gained an appropriate position and credibility, which translates into a low percentage of survey participants who recognise certificates of professional competence issued after 2013 (6.4% and 7.4% respectively). The decision of every third surveyed entrepreneur to employ a tour leader or

Chart 7. Factors contributing to making decisions concerning undertaking cooperation with tour leaders



Source: own elaboration.

Chart 8. Factors contributing to making decisions concerning undertaking cooperation with travel guides



Source: own elaboration.

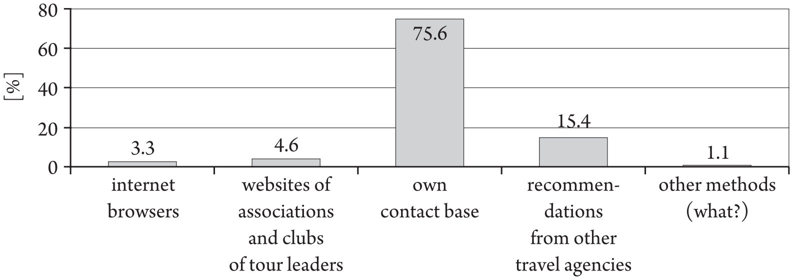
a travel guide is influenced by the opinion and recommendation of a particular person by friends (27.9% and 28.2%), and for more than one in ten – their professional experience presented in their CV and/or on websites (14.1% and 13.1% respectively). The least important factor influencing the decision to cooperate with a tour leader or a travel guide is whether they operate a business and whether the employer conducts own trainings (Chart 7 and 8).

5.5. Methods of seeking tour leaders and travel guides applied by travel agencies

The principles of establishing cooperation with tour leaders and travel guides are determined by the nature of the services they provide and the place of their provision. For travel agencies, these are services provided by external providers, either natural persons or entities, and in this situation the key issue is how to find them to initiate cooperation. Therefore, respondents representing travel agencies were asked to indicate the main source where they search for tour leaders and travel guides and to indicate complementary sources which facilitate establishing cooperation. Analysis of the results lead to the observation that in the case of tour leaders and travel guides, the methods are similar.

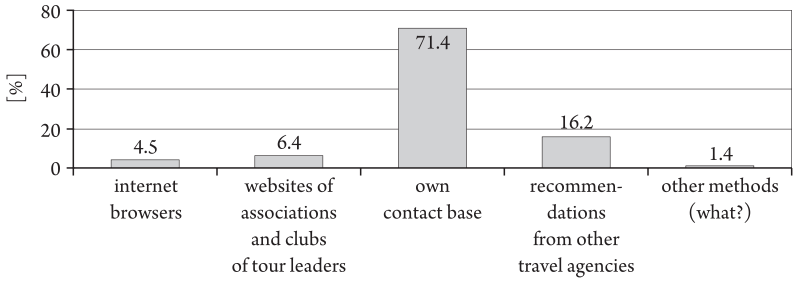
The main source of information in the case of tour leaders (75.6%) and travel guides (71.4%) are contact bases created and maintained by travel agencies. In the next stage of the search the respondents rely on recommendations of travel agencies they know (15.4%; 16.2%) and these entities cooperate in order to confirm the credibility of candidates before starting cooperation. Thriving local associations and clubs of tour leaders and travel guides also have an impact on the recruitment of staff. However, travel guides' websites are used more often than websites of tour leader associations (6.4%; 4.6%). Internet search engines, as in-

Chart 9. Sources of finding tour leaders for cooperation with travel agencies



Source: own elaboration.

Chart 10. Sources of finding travel guides for cooperation with travel agencies



Source: own elaboration.

dicated by the respondents, serve only as a complementary tool in searching for staff. (Chart 9 and 10).

5.6. Conditions for cooperation between travel agencies and tour leaders and travel guides

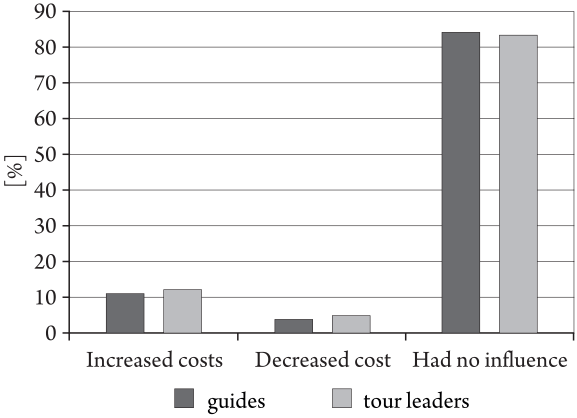
The structure of the market of travel agencies in Poland has a significant impact on shaping the principles of cooperation between travel agencies on the one hand and tour leaders and travel guides on the other. The market is dominated by micro-entrepreneurs, i.e. entities employing from 0 to 9 employees, which account for 80.8% of this market, and in this group 5.8% of respondents described their activity as self-employment. This is complemented by small enterprises, i.e. entities employing from 10 to 49 employees, which have a 15.4% share of the market, and only a small percentage of companies are medium-sized (2.3%) and large enterprises (1.2%). The market model, based on entities which are small in terms of employment and are often family businesses, has been functioning for over twenty years with slight changes.

The good rapport is confirmed by how travel agencies evaluate the work of tour leaders and travel guides. On a scale from 1 (lowest score) to 10, the work of the staff in both groups was rated very high, and over 90% of grades were from 8 to 10. This may constitute a confirmation that the method adopted by travel agencies of searching staff and confirming their credibility is good.

In order to capture the impact of deregulation of the professions on market relations, travel agencies were asked to assess whether the deregulation had an impact on the costs of hiring tour leaders and travel guides. The answers showed that a vast majority of travel agencies did not notice such a relationship (Chart 11).

In view of the presented results, the answers to the question whether deregulation of the professions affects the quality of services provided by tour leaders and travel guides remain difficult to interpret?

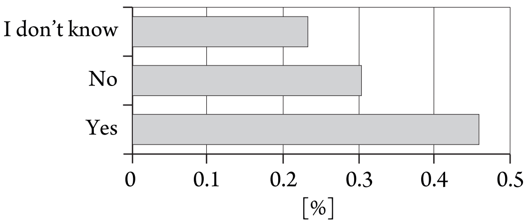
Chart 11. The influence of the deregulation of occupations related to the travel sector on the costs of employment of tour leaders and travel guides

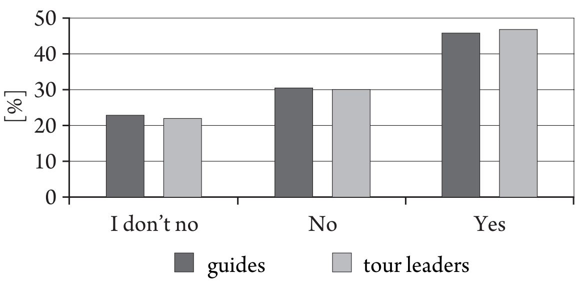


Source: own elaboration.

Almost half of the answers were positive, which, given the employment of staff trained before deregulation and the high appreciation for their work, is an expression of general dissatisfaction with any changes rather than an actual evaluation of the phenomenon (Chart 12).

Chart 12. The influence of the deregulation of occupations related to the travel sector on the quality of the services offered by tour leaders and travel guides





Source: own elaboration.

6. Summary and conclusions

Research on the labour market in tourism is relatively rare and there are few publications on the segment of employees directly providing services to tourists, i.e. travel guides and tour leaders. Their authors most often point out the multitude of roles they play in providing services to tourists and the importance of their work in achieving tourist satisfaction. The research on the labour market of travel guides and tour leaders is in a way trail-blazing. This research was commissioned by the tourist administration and its aim was to diagnose the factors shaping the labour market of the described professional groups in the new legal context related to the deregulation that took place in 2013.

It is interesting to compare the results of our research with previous ones. Thus, in comparison to 2005, as described by K. Podemski [2005], no major changes were observed among the most important groups of employers. They still include tour operators, work establishments, schools and churches. Also, the forms of undertaking cooperation have not changed significantly, and these are still contract of mandate and contract for specific work concluded with individuals or entrepreneurs. Just as it was the case in 2005, those who are professionally active have no problems finding a job.

A study carried out in 2014 [Jańczak 2015] was aimed at assessing the effects of the deregulation in the first year after entry into force. The results indicate a significant deterioration in the economic situation of the surveyed tour leaders and travel guides, a decrease in the amount of work and a deterioration in the quality of services. Our research, conducted 5 years after the deregulation, did not show any decrease in the amount of work. The concerns about the worsening of the economic situation of the respondents were also not confirmed.

Results of our research indicate that the demand for the services provided by tour leaders and travel guides reported by travel agencies and the rules of cooperation depend on the market situation, business profile, seasonality in tourism and the liability of the tour operators in terms of the services provided. Analysing the statements of representatives of the surveyed travel agencies, it may be concluded that the deregulation of the professions has not changed the rules of cooperation with tour leaders and travel guides. The high marks for the quality of services provided are probably due to the relations developed so far with verified and reliable staff. In this relatively short period after the new formal reality emerged, no significant changes in the costs of employing tour leaders and travel guides were noted.

The factors determining the model of cooperation between travel agencies and tour leaders and travel guides include: features of the tourist product, i.e. tourist events and excursions, the process of organization and implementation of a postponed event, place of service provision, seasonality and financial and organizational possibilities of travel agencies operating on the Polish market. As a result, a model of cooperation between travel agencies and tour leaders and travel guides was established based mainly on civil law contracts and such model is accepted by both parties.

Both parties also think that associations and clubs associating tour leaders and travel guides are beneficial in that they greatly facilitates the establishment of market relations, confirm their competences and provide opportunities to improve qualifications.

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Ocena popytu na usługi przewodników turystycznych i pilotów wycieczek

Streszczenie. Artykuł prezentuje wyniki empirycznych badań nad rynkiem pracy przewodników miejskich, terenowych, górskich i pilotów wycieczek. Celem opracowania jest ocena zapotrzebowania na usługi przewodników turystycznych i pilotów wycieczek. Badaniami objęto przedsiębiorców turystycznych. Zastosowano metodę sondażu diagnostycznego z wykorzystaniem techniki telefonicznego wywiadu kwestionariuszowego (CATI). Uzyskane wyniki potwierdziły tezę, że rynek pracy przewodników i pilotów wycieczek nie jest stabilny i wynika to z sezonowości, poziomu zarobków oraz zmieniającego się modelu organizacji podróży. W pracy wykazano również, że w pięcioletnim okresie od deregulacji zawodów relacje rynkowe łączące pilotów wycieczek i przewodników turystycznych z przedsiębiorcami turystycznymi nie uległy zasadniczym zmianom. Wyniki badań mogą być przydatne dla organizatorów turystyki, organizacji zrzeszających przewodników i pilotów oraz dla administracji turystycznej szczebla centralnego i regionalnego.

Słowa kluczowe: przewodnicy turystyczni, piloci wycieczek, usługi, popyt

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Current Issues of Cross-border Tourism Management – Bibliometric Analysis of Research Directions

Abstract. The aim of the article is to identify research areas that are relevant from the perspective of management in the field of cross-border tourism. The analysis is based on bibliometric information included in the Web of Science and Scopus database. The main task of the analysis is to identify current problems in the field of cross-border tourism management, taking into account regional characteristics as well as forms and content of tourism services. The authors use bibliometric analysis supported by the VOSviewer software. In addition, the case study method is used to identify the most common features and tendencies in the study of cross-border tourism management. A review of the literature in the field shows that the management of tourism services in border regions is currently a new branch of management sciences, which has seen a dynamic growth as evidenced by the number of studies published since the middle of the first decade of the 21st century. Most of them analyse problems of cross-border tourism management in Europe, in the border regions of Germany, the Czech Republic, Spain and Portugal. The objectives of cross-border tourism management in this region are the background for sustainable development, harmonization of relationships at the regional level, concern for the state of the environment. One of the urgent problems is the management of health-related or medical cross-border tourism. A number of issues require more in-depth research, such as the management of transnational tourism services and products at the borders of the EU; European and world trends in the development of the tourism services market in the border regions; and the impact of cross-border tourism on local communities. The article's contribution consists in providing a list of current problems in the study of cross-border tourism management and identifying research gaps in this field.

Keywords: bibliometrics, scientific research, management, cross-border tourism

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1. Introduction

In the era of globalization, models and functions of the political border are becoming an important factor determining forms of cooperation not only between neighbouring countries but also at the global level. Border policies tend to support trade and facilitate movement, cooperation and liberalization of economic activities, including international cross border tourism [Weidenfeld, 2013]. At the same time, the creation of an optimal system of cross-border cooperation requires the resolution of many current problems associated with cultural, economic, religious and other differences between countries and nations, and the effective and mutually beneficial use of natural, demographic, historical and cultural resources of neighbouring countries. Management in the field of cross-border tourism involves the development of products and services taking into account characteristics of border regions. Such activities reveal current problems of a given region that need to be resolved for the benefit of neighbouring countries. By using various forms of tourism activities and organizing them appropriately it is possible react quickly to changes in other sectors of the economy and in other areas, such as politics, ecology, and culture. The integrating role of cross-border tourism in the context of globalization and emerging supranationalism became the basis for a European programme to support initiatives taken by neighbouring countries in the area of sustainable transnational tourism products, co-funded by the European Commission through the COSME[1] programme [Nilsson, Eskilsson, Ek 2010].

The aim of the article is to identify research areas that are relevant from the perspective of management in the field of cross-border tourism. The analysis is based on bibliometric information included in the Web of Science and Scopus database. The authors use technique of bibliometric analysis with the support of the VOSviewer software. This computer programme uses content analysis, where the frequency with which a phenomenon of interest is mentioned in scientific articles [Holsti 1969]. This method, however, does not give a complete picture of problems that occur in specific regions with regard to the management of a specific tourist product. Since the main task of the analysis is to identify current problems in the field of cross-border tourism management, taking into account regional characteristics, as well as forms and content of tourism services, the case study method was used to identify the most common features and tendencies in the study of this phenomenon. The method was particular useful for describing publications grouped by keyword.

[1] Competitiveness of Enterprises and SMEs.

The results of the study have theoretical and, to some extent, practical implications. From the point of view of management theory and, in particular, tourism management, they show the range of problems that are in the focus of modern science, and also indicate directions for further research. From a practical point of view, they show trends in the development of cross-border tourism in various regions of the world, including regional peculiarities of tourism and current problems in its management.

2. Literature review

Research interest in the field of cross-border tourism management started at the turn of 20th and 21st centuries and was motivated by the development of globalization processes. The problem of the formation of a tourism product and management of tourism activities in border areas is analysed in the scientific literature in the framework of a number conceptual approaches. The first thing that gives rise to this variety of research perspectives is the very definition of cross-border tourism. Some researchers define the term "cross-border tourism" as any tourism product or activity related to the movement of tourists from contiguous countries across state borders [Gonçalves 2017; Jimber del Río et al., 2017; Tsaur, Chen 2018 and others]. Another approach is based on the understanding of cross-border tourism as an activity undertaken in the territory directly adjacent to the state border and involving interactions between business entities, local communities, non-governmental public organizations of neighbouring countries in creating a cross-border tourism product and managing it [Ioannides, Nielsen, Billing 2006; Prokkola 2010; Paunovic, Jovanovic 2017; Pallero, Barragán, Scherer 2018 and others]. Shaul Krakover and Yehuda Gradus introduce the concept of "tourism in frontier areas" to identify tourism activities in regions with an unfriendly environment, in particular in separate border regions of Israel [Krakover, Gradus 2002]. In addition to being a risk zone for tourism management; many frontier regions are characterized by limited infrastructure, such as transportation, accommodation and other services[(Butler 2002: 4, 15], which hampers the development of the tourism industry. Tomasz Studzieniecki, Tadeusz Palmowski & Valentin Korneevet propose five types of cross-border areas: 1) frontier zones, 2) cross-border administrative areas, 3) Euroregions, 4) areas eligible for the European Neighbourhood Instrument, 5) areas of local border traffic [Studzieniecki, Palmowski Korneevet 2016]. As can be seen, the existing literature does not provide a single, unambiguous definition of cross-border tourism. This affects research devoted to cross-border tourism management: the multiplicity of interpretations makes it difficult or impossible to develop universal strategies and models.

It is possible to identify several key areas in the study of management of tourism services in border regions. One such issue is the effective use of the border region's tourism potential and the possibility of using it to create a unique touristic product. This is closely connected with the study of the characteristics of a tourist destination as a typical form of utilising the resources of border areas. This issue is particularly relevant in the context of integration processes in Europe, the EU policy of consolidating European countries and peoples. As noted by Dani Blasco, Jaume Guia & Luís Prats, "a very large number of Interreg projects have included cross-border tourism" [Blasco, Guia, Prats 2014: 160]. The possibility of creating and operating a tourist destination in border regions requires good relations between neighbouring countries; such joint projects are usually implemented within the borders of the European Union or jointly with UE partner countries [Nilsson, Eskilsson, Ek 2010].

Another aspect that has attracted the attention of researchers are specific factors of cross-border tourism management, which depend on regional characteristics. Various natural, historical, cultural, political, economic and other characteristics of border areas determine the choice of various models and management strategies. This raises the problem of the role of local communities in cross-border cooperation. Given that each region on both sides of the border is part of the national administrative structure and shares in the cultural and economic life of its respective country, it may be difficult to coordinate regions at the local level, not to mention at a more global level [Stoffelen, Ioannides, Vanneste 2017: 128]. Another problem identified in this context has to do with a comparatively small involvement of local communities in the management of tourism activities and a rather low level of interest in its results [Chiutsi, Saarinen 2017]. Quite often the literature discusses opportunities associated with the use of a cluster model as a form of management of the tourism infrastructure in border regions [Libkovska, Ozol, Kruzhalin 2015].

One direction of research in this field focuses on the analysis of the influence of cross-border tourism on border regions and on neighbouring countries. Findings suggest that the development of cross-border tourism can have positive and negative results. Positive effects are brought about by the consolidation and integration of neighbouring regions, the exchange of cultural values and innovations, the development of the region's economy and infrastructure [Weidenfeld 2013; Horodnikova, Derco 2015; Blasco, Guia, Prats 2014; Makkonen et al. 2018]. Negative consequences include ecological deterioration of the region due to intensive tourist traffic [LaVanchy 2017; Pallero, Barragán, Scherer 2018], an increase in crime rate [Tsaur, Chen 2018]. Another controversial tourism phenomenon is the exploitation of objects with an ambiguous historical past, related to past conflicts between neighbouring nations or nationality disputes. Capitalizing on place identities may facilitate the creation of cross-border destinations but may also create threats to the regional integration of stakeholders [Stoffelen, Vanneste 2017].

An overview of the main areas in the study of cross-border tourism management shows that this research field is still in its formative stage. Some conceptually important problems have not been resolved, including the definition of cross-border tourism, there is a lack of comparative studies, generalizing works are poorly represented, and most authors rely on the case study method.

3. Research methods

The bibliometric analysis described in this article involved standard methods used in similar studies [Glińska, Siemieniako 2018: 47-48]. Data collection and processing was carried out in several stages. First, the Web of Science and Scopus databases were searched for articles, monographs, surveys and scientific reports containing the terms "cross-border tourism", "tourism management" and "management of cross-border tourism". At this stage, it was important to get an understanding of the percentage of publications dedicated to the management of cross-border tourism in the total number of studies on the management of tourist services and cross-border tourism. It was assumed that the selected authors have a similar understanding of management, "cross-border tourism" and "management of cross-border tourism". It should be remembered that the problem of cross-border tourism management can also be addressed in studies devoted to other aspects of the economy, the social sphere, and international relations. However, our analysis focused on those studies in which cross-border tourism and its management were the main research topic. In our opinion, the inclusion of any of the three key phrases could be interpreted as evidence that problems investigated in the selected articles were relevant for cross-border tourism.

The following stages of the study were mainly based on data from the Scopus database. Publications included in the Web of Science database (37) were used in the literature review to characterize the current state of research on cross-border tourism management. During the second stage, a selection of publications was made, taking into account the place and time of publication. The purpose of this stage was to identify publications and countries in which problems of cross-border tourism receive the most attention as well as factors that influence scientific interest in this issue. The purpose of the third stage was to identify links between cross-border tourism management and other areas of knowledge in publications. Finally, the results were processed using the VOSviewer software in order to group the publications and analyse interdependence between key terms that refer to specific research topics. Information obtained at all stages of the study was used to characterise the current state of research in the field of cross-border tourism management.

4. Research results

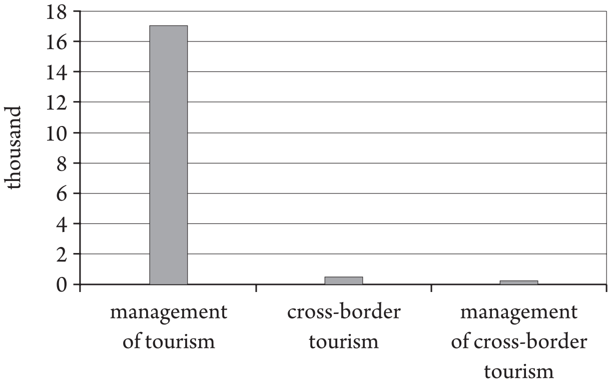
The analysis of keywords indicates that research into problems associated with the management of tourist activities in border regions is in its early stages, as evidenced by the percentage of publications on this topic in the total number of works in closely related areas: management of tourism services and cross-border tourism. The Scopus database contains only 77 publications on this issue (compared with over 17 thousand publications on tourism management and 489 – on cross-border tourism) (Fig. 1).

There has been a dynamic growth in the number of studies on the management of services in cross-border space since the middle of the first decade of the 21st century. In our opinion, this trend can be linked to the EU's programs aimed at developing cross-border links, as well as to the processes of globalization (Fig. 2).

Another piece of information associated with any article or monograph is its place of publication, which does not specify the article's geographic scope but can be used to identify countries with the most publications addressing the management of tourism services in border regions. The ranking is led by Great Britain (16), followed by Spain and the USA (9), Italy and Russia (7) and Germany (6) (Fig. 3).

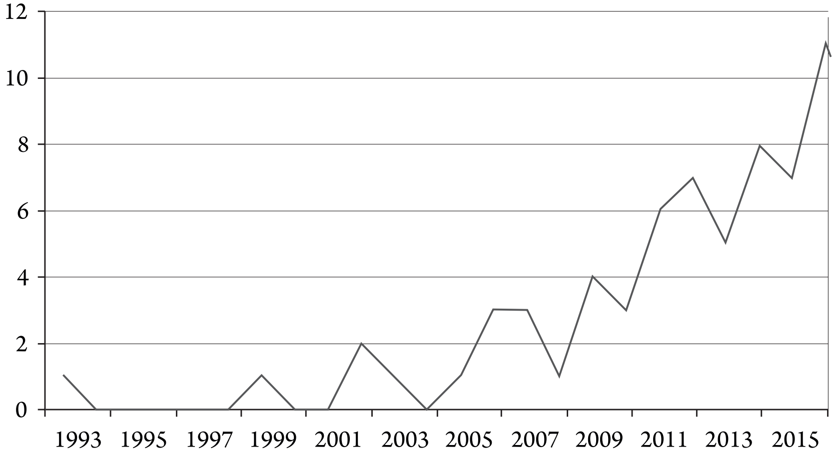
When one considers what other problems are discussed in the selected articles that refer to the management of cross-border tourism, it turns out that almost

Fig. 1. The number of publications containing the key phrases



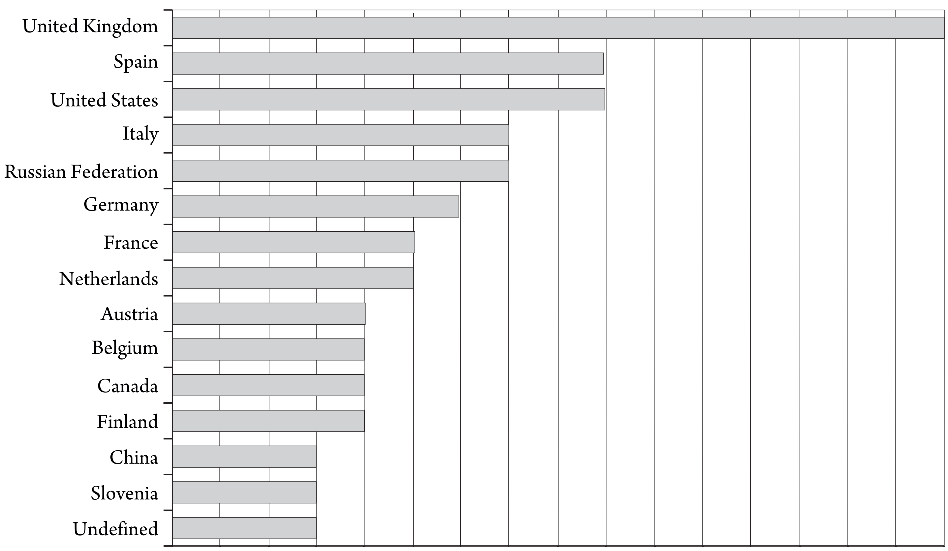
Source: based on dat a from the Scopus database.

Fig. 2. The number of publications referring to cross-border tourism management



Source: based on data from the Scopus database.

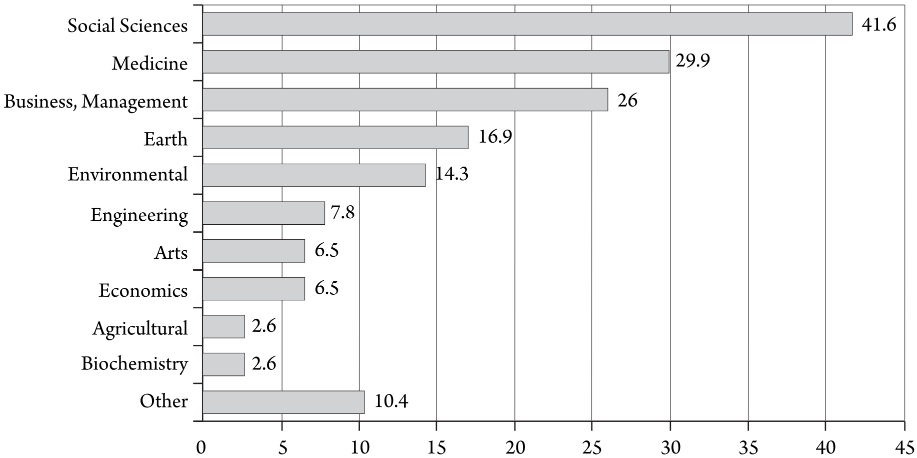
Fig. 3. Countries ranked by the number of publications on cross-border tourism management



Source: based on data from the Scopus database.

one third of all articles are concerned with the provision of medical services in the context of cross-border tourism, while more than 40% of publications focus on the social and humanitarian aspects of cross-border tourism rather than on

Fig. 4. Articles referring to the management of cross-border tourism by subject area



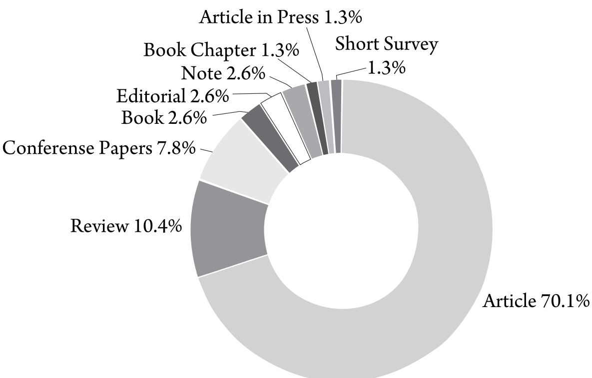
Source: based on data from the Scopus database.

the economic ones. About a quarter of publications take an interdisciplinary approach (Fig. 4).

Articles are the most frequent type of publication where cross-border tourism management is mentioned, both in the Scopus and in the Web of Science database. Several articles have been published online by such journals as *Health Policy, International Journal of Health Policy and Management, Tourism Management, Anales De Geografia De La Universidad Complutense, Annals of Tourism Research, Gesundheitswesen, Journal of Sustainable Tourism.*

There are only 2 monographs in the total set of 77 publications (Fig. 5). It should be noted that these two monographs are not strictly dedicated to cross-

Fig. 5. Publications on cross-border tourism management by type



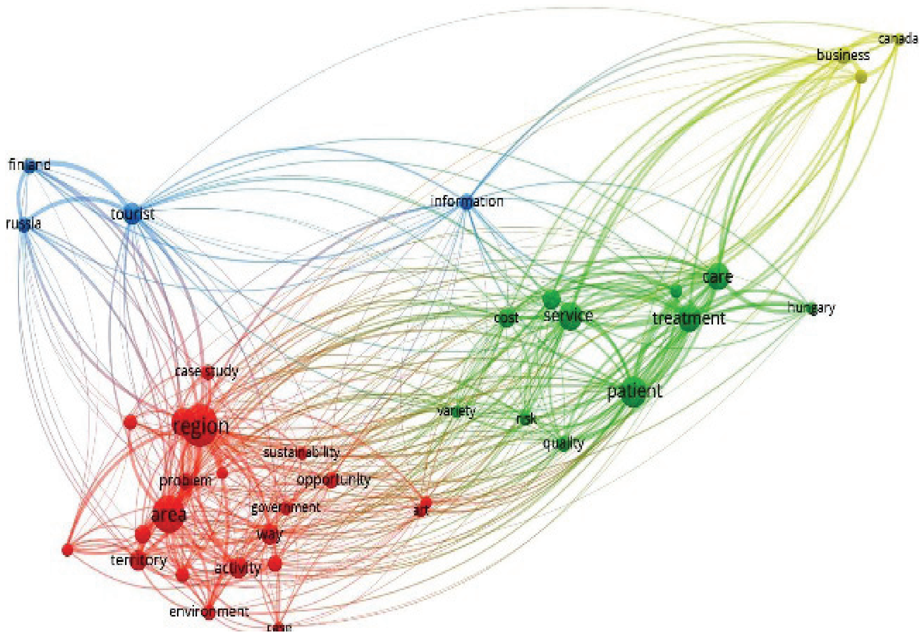
Source: based on data from the Scopus database.

border tourism. The first edition of C. Michael Hall, D.J Timothy & D.T. Duval's work, published in 2004 and revised in 2012, is devoted to the problem of security in tourism, which includes cross-border tourism [Michael, Timothy, Duval 2012]. The authors pay a lot of attention to tourism management in the face of the growing threat of terrorism. The monograph by Brent W. Ritchie addresses the management of educational tourism, primarily in higher education, including the management of cross-border educational tourism [Ritchie 2003].

The data analysis was carried out using the VOSviewer software and was based on 50 key words related to the sphere of management, tourism services, and geography, which appear in the publications most frequently. Links between these terms can be grouped into four clusters. Interestingly, each cluster is associated with one or several countries (Fig. 6).

Cluster 1 includes articles containing four key words (*tourist*, *Finland*, *Russia*, *information*) and devoted to problems of managing tourist services in the border regions of Russia and Finland, as well as in the Arctic zone [Sevastiyanov et al. 2014; Makkonen et al. 2018; Kondratov 2017]. The three articles in this cluster address issues related to the management of cross-border tourism between post-Soviet countries and EU countries. This cluster is only loosely associated with

Fig. 6. Relationships between keywords that appear in publications referring to cross-border tourism management



Source: based on data from the Scopus database.

the other clusters. In our opinion, this can be explained by the small number of publications, and by the fact that tourism management plays a secondary role in these articles. The authors focus on ecology and innovations in education. The small number of articles and their narrow research focus may also reflect a weak development of this segment of the tourist market.

Cluster 2 includes articles containing such key words as *the region, sustainability, government, environment*. This relatively numerous cluster groups publications related to cross-border tourism in the EU, namely in Germany, the Czech Republic, Spain and Portugal. The highlighted key words indicate that cross-border tourism management is associated with efforts towards sustainable development, harmonization of relationships at the regional level, a concern for the environment [Blas de, Fabeiro 2012; Jelen, Kučera 2017; Blasco, Guia, Prats 2014; Pallero, Barragán, Scherer 2018 and etc.]. The authors' focus on problems of successful interaction between countries and regions within the EU can also indicate a high degree of development of cross-border tourism, the existing market in this area, as well as integration processes in this region.

Cluster 3 includes key words such as *patient, service, treatment, care, risk*, which appear in publications on the management of health services conducted in the context of cross-border tourism. The problem attracting the most research interest is the provision of reproductive medicine services by clinics in neighbouring countries and significant risks involved [Connolly, 2011; Deonandan 2015; Messinis et al. 2016 and others]. Geographically, this cluster is connected with Germany, Hungary and Canada. In this case, cross-border tourism is indicative of a social problem and the need to increase the level of medical services and reduce their cost.

Cluster 4 contains only 2 key words: *business, Canada*. The publications in this cluster relate to the border zone between Canada and the United States and explore aspects of management in the field of medical tourism, including economic reasons why US residents travel to Canada for treatment [Ferreira 2016]. Like the previous cluster, these publications highlight a social problem, and show the specific characteristics of the tourist market in the border area between Canada and the United States.

6. Conclusions

A study of publications indexed in the Scopus database shows that the management of tourism services in border regions is currently a new branch of management sciences. Works devoted to this problem started appearing comparatively recently - only in the middle of the first decade of the 21st century. This study has identified regions where problems of management of tourism services in border areas can be regarded as an urgent topic of research, as well as the main directions of scientific research. Most of the selected publications analyse problems of cross-border tourism management in Europe, specifically in border regions of Germany, the Czech Republic, Spain and Portugal. Management of cross-border tourism in this region is driven by efforts towards sustainable development, harmonization of relationships at the regional level, and the concern for the environment. The border area between Canada and the United States is faced with an urgent problem of managing services in the field of health tourism. The same problem is studied by researchers from Hungary and some other European Union countries. The absence of synthetic and generalizing works in this field may be related to the limited geographic scope of existing studies. Also, a number of relevant problems and issues require more in-depth research, such as the management of transnational tourism services and products at the borders of the EU, European and global trends in the development of the tourism services market in border regions, or the impact of cross-border tourism on local communities.

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Aktualne problemy zarządzania turystyką transgraniczną – analiza bibliometryczna kierunków badań naukowych

Streszczenie. Artykuł ma na celu identyfikację obszarów badań naukowych, w których tematyką problemową jest zarządzanie w dziedzinie turystyki transgranicznej. Identyfikacja opiera się na analizie danych bibliometrycznych charakteryzujących publikacje naukowe indeksowane przez bazę danych Web of Science i Scopus. Głównym zadaniem analizy jest określenie faktycznych problemów z zakresu zarządzania turystyką transgraniczną, z uwzględnieniem specyfiki regionu, a także rodzajów i form usług turystycznych. Autorzy wykorzystali różne techniki analizy bibliometrycznej za pomocą oprogramowania VOSviewer. W badaniu zastosowano metodę studium przypadku, która pozwala wyłonić charakterystyczne cechy i tendencje w badaniu tego zjawiska. Badanie pokazuje, że zarządzanie usługami turystycznymi w regionach przygranicznych jest obecnie nową gałęzią nauk o zarządzaniu, a dynamiczny wzrost liczby badań obserwuje się od połowy pierwszej dekady XXI w. Większość publikacji analizuje problemy zarządzania turystyką transgraniczną w Europie, np. w przygranicznych regionach Niemiec, Czech, Hiszpanii i Portugalii. Celami zarządzania turystyką transgraniczną w tym regionie jest dążenie do zrównoważonego rozwoju, harmonizacja relacji na poziomie regionalnym i troska o stan środowiska. Znaczącym problemem jest zarządzanie transgraniczną turystyką zdrowotną. Wiele aktualnych problemów pozostaje nierozwiązanych: zarządzanie usługami i produktami turystycznymi na granicach UE; europejskie i światowe trendy rozwoju rynku usług turystycznych w regionach przygranicznych; wpływ turystyki transgranicznej na społeczności lokalne. Jako wkład teoretyczny części badawczej artykułu zaproponowano zdefiniowanie aktualnych problemów w zarządzaniu turystyką transgraniczną oraz identyfikację luk w tych poszukiwaniach naukowych. Materiały z artykułu można wykorzystać do opracowania teoretycznych problemów zarządzania turystyką, a także do badań na poziomie regionalnym.

Słowa kluczowe: bibliometria, badania naukowe, zarządzanie, turystyka transgraniczna

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Pilates: the Impact of Targeted Physical Activity on the Psychomotor Functions in Middle-aged Women

Abstract. The main aim of the article is an attempt to determine the importance of a targeted form of physical activity, i.e. Pilates, on psychomotor functions in women who practice this method. It seems important to search for appropriate, socially recognized values which promote health and are conducive to a health-oriented lifestyle, especially among women in middle adulthood. The study was based on a natural experiment involving 40 middle-aged women who participated in Pilates classes from the beginning of October 2013 to the end of September 2014. The one-year Pilates programme was found to have a significant impact on improving the participants' health awareness. The study indicates an improvement in elements of physical fitness, especially in the first (known as enthusiastic) stage of participation (from October 2013 to April 2014). Over the course of the year, significant differences were found in the measurements of all the selected elements of physical fitness. The greatest progress was recorded in body flexibility. It can be concluded that targeted exercises improve physical fitness, particularly body flexibility, contribute to reducing low back pain, thereby improving the quality of life.

Keywords: pilates, physical fitness, quality of life, middle adulthood

1. Introduction

The current trends of civilization highlight the growing importance of the quality of life, physical fitness and mental balance. Nowadays, the basic, often intuitive, assumption behind many forms of physical activity, such as Pilates, is to stimulate our psychophysical well-being. Targeted use of specific forms of physical exercise (or a suggestion to do so) can contribute to a significant health improvement.

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Study results can therefore confirm the usefulness of a selected form of activity as a health-promoting behaviour, especially in the area of early prophylaxis.

Nowadays, more and more attention is paid to the psychological aspects of training. In particular, coaches and athletes strongly believe that the psychological preparation of an athlete is a key determinant of victory or defeat. According to Nowicki [2010], the most important psychological skills include the ability to concentrate, build self-confidence and control emotions. Thanks to psychological or mental training, concentration, self-control and self-confidence determine the effective functionality of an athlete. Mental training is defined as a set of psychological methods and exercises/techniques, which, thanks to their systematic and long-term impact, lead to improved concentration, control over emotions and greater mental endurance in stressful situations [Nowicki 2010].

At the beginning of the twentieth century, a young German, Joseph Pilates, developed a method of exercise based on the belief that a healthy body is a combination of physical fitness and positive thinking. The essence of Pilates classes is to follow certain rules: control and concentration, breathing, core stability, accuracy and fluidity of movements. In Pilates classes, special attention should be paid to controlled and effective breathing. This method places great emphasis on conscious breathing to achieve a state of tranquillity, concentration, more effective learning and relaxation of the pelvis [Gavin 2006].

Pilates is an exercise system based on a holistic approach to health. The method mainly influences the flexibility of the joints and muscles, teaches the ability to move and stretch at an even pace. Additionally, it positively affects the nervous system [Ellswoth 2011]. It is an excellent relaxation method. Pilates classes significantly reduce tension and everyday stress related mainly to the fast pace of life [Ellswoth 2011]. Such classes improve mood and concentration [Mazur, Marczewski 2011].

The main aim of the article is to determine the influence of a targeted form of physical activity, i.e. Pilates, on the psychomotor functions in women who practice this method. It seems important to search for appropriate, socially recognized values which promote health and are conducive to a health-oriented lifestyle, especially among middle-aged women.

Żołądź [2003] claim that after the period of development, which is characterized by the highest increase in biological efficiency, beginning with the age of about 30, people start to age [cited after Górski 2012]. This process involves a gradual deterioration of many life functions on many levels, such as physical, mental and social. In addition, there is a decrease in the body's ability to sustain physiological loads, such as long-term effort, to fight off infections, heal from injuries and maintain homoeostasis. Harwas-Napierała and Trempała [2004] claim that this period is characterized by a highly individualised development. It is also the beginning of menopause. This period of life is associated with higher mortality due to natural causes, such as e.g. cardiovascular diseases as well as many problems related to the ageing process, which are caused by both social and psychological factors. Therefore, middle adulthood seems to be an interesting period in human life from the point of view of research on health-related behaviours. It is a time when one should ensure that they remain efficient and functional when they reach old age and take up physical activity in a deliberate and conscious manner.

2. Material and methods

The following study was based on a natural experiment whose aim was to diagnose the effectiveness of Pilates classes during one-year observation of a selected group of women. Referring to Kuński [2003], who determined the stages of introducing middle-aged people to full and effective use of the benefits resulting from undertaking a specific form of physical activity, the participation was divided into an initial (enthusiastic) and sustained stage. Women's participation in the first stage, which lasted 6 months, was therefore described as enthusiastic, and after a year of observation – as sustained and conscious.

In order to examine the effects of the programme, an attempt was made to diagnose what changes occur in terms of physical fitness, self-esteem and self-control skills during the classes after the enthusiastic stage (after 6 months of participation) and after entering the stage of sustained participation (after one year).

A total of 143 women volunteered and 80 met the following criteria for inclusion: being a woman of middle age (in the absence of clear criteria for defining this period or consensus in the literature as to the specific age bracket, following the classification used in psychology, middle adulthood was defined as the years from 35/40 to 55/60), living in Nowy Dwór Mazowiecki, with good health (no infectious or chronic diseases), not participating in other organized classes during the experiment, without previous experience with Pilates.

Two groups were randomly selected:
- experimental group (40 women),
- control group (40 women).

The women included in the study were informed about its aims, methods and expected results. They voluntarily agreed to participate. For the purposes of this article, only women from the experimental group – participating in Pilates classes – were considered.

Respondents from the experimental group waged 47.6±10.48. Most of the respondents had secondary education (56%) and higher education (36%). Most of them were married (69%) with two children (36%) or one child (33%).

Table 1. Selected test procedures from the Adult Eurofit Physical Fitness Test

Measurement	Test procedure	Justification
1. Trunk muscle strength: dynamic sit-up test [Oja, Tuxworth 1995: 56].	The examinee lies on the floor on her back, knees bent at about 45°. The tester holds the examinee's feet down. The first 5 repetitions are performed with the arms straight so that the fingers reach the knees. The next 5 repetitions are performed with the arms crossed over the chest and the elbows contacting the knees. During the last 5 repetitions, the elbows touch the knees once the hands move behind the head. The 5 repetitions at each level must be performed with no pause and there should be no rest period between the series: there should only be enough time to change the baseline position [Oja, Tuxworth 1995].	Studies by Winand Osiński [2003] view the measurement of trunk muscle strength as an important indicator of low back pain. Additional studies [Osiński 2003, have confirmed the importance of trunk flexor and extensor muscle endurance and strength in the incidence of back pain.
2. Flexibility: sit and reach test [Oja, Tuxworth 1995: 61].	The test can be performed twice. The examinee sits on the floor with her legs stretched out straight ahead, the soles of the feet placed flat against the side of a box. The tester stays beside with their hands on the examinee's knees to make sure that her knees are not bent during the test. With her hands, the examinee moves a slat along a scale on the top of the box as far as possible and maintains this position for 2-3 seconds [Oja, Tuxworth 1995].	Measurements of both strength and flexibility are directly linked with health-related fitness (H-RF concept) [Grabowski, Szopa 1991]. Limited spinal mobility co-occurs with the risk of low back pain [Osiński 2003]. In the Eurofit for adults test the sit and reach test to measure flexibility is treated as a universal control for the available tests that measure this component. Moreover, Eurofit for adults highlights a direct link between low scores and low back pain [Oja, Tuxworth 1995].
3. General balance: single leg balance test [Oja, Tuxworth 1995: 63].	The examinee stands on one leg with her eyes closed. The test measures the number of times that the examinee touches the floor with her foot during 30 seconds. The lower this number, the better the balance. The timer is on as soon as the examinee catches her balance; when she loses it, the timer is stopped and the examinee tries to continue the test with no delay [Oja, Tuxworth 1995].	The importance of balance is most pronounced in women in their senior years due to the elevated risk of osteoporosis. Poor motor fitness is often a significant risk factor associated with increased numbers of falls and serious complications of femur fractions [Osiński 2003; Oja, Tuxworth 1995].

Source: own elaboration.

The women were healthy, not pregnant, did not suffer from any chronic disease and did not take any medications on a permanent basis. Many of them, however, complained of back pain, especially low back pain, which was most frequently caused by sedentary work. The experimental group participated in Pilates classes for one year. The classes took place twice a week and lasted 60 minutes each. All exercises were performed on mats. In the first week of the classes, the women underwent physical fitness measurements with the use of selected tests from the Eurofit Fitness Test Battery for Adults (flexibility, core muscle strength and overall balance). Detailed procedures for the selected tests are presented in Table 1. After 6 months (end of the enthusiastic stage), measurements were carried out in the experimental group comprising 39 women (n = 39). At this stage, in addition to selected fitness tests, the author used her own questionnaire concerning subjective feelings during classes. The questions addressed aspects of self-assessment and self-control:

– subjective feelings about the impact of a given form on well-being

– selected elements of physical fitness of the examined women, as well as the frequency of their participation in the selected form of physical activity.

In the final stage of the study, after completion of the whole programme, progress was examined in the experimental group, in which 37 women remained (n = 37). Selected physical fitness tests were used, as well as the author's own questionnaire concerning subjective feelings during classes.

The following statistical tests were used in the study: the Wilcoxon signed-rank test and the Chi-square test for independence. All calculations were made using Statistica 10 software package.

3. Results

3.1. Impact of Pilates exercises on selected elements of physical fitness

Progress in the experimental group was analysed during one-year participation in Pilates classes.

After one year, statistical differences were observed in the experimental group in all three tests. Significant increases in the results were observed in the measurements of flexibility and strength of the core muscles. Detailed data are presented in Table 2.

During the experiment, there was an mid-term measurement of physical fitness in the experimental group (April 2014). Analysis of the collected data indicated that the highest increases in average results occurred after the first six

Table 2. Changes in physical fitness in the experimental group – after the end of the programme (from October 2013 to September 2014)

Test	Unit of measurement	October 2013	September 2014	Accuracy of p value
		(mean±SD)	(mean±SD)	
Flexibility	Reach [cm]	5.65±5.94	13.03±6.03	0.000***
Core muscle strength	Number of repetitions [–]	10.83±3.59	14.73±1.15	0.000***
General balance	Number of repetitions [–]	1.74±1.80	0.56±1.13	0.0002***

Wilcoxon matched-pairs test; *** $p < 0.001$

Source: own elaboration.

Table 3. Changes in physical fitness in the experimental group from October 2013 to April 2014

Test	Unit of measurement	October 2013	April 2014	Accuracy of p value
		(mean±SD)	(mean±SD)	
Flexibility	Reach [cm]	5.65±5.94	10.31±6.13	0.000***
Core muscle strength	Number of repetitions [–]	10.83±3.59	13.92±2.36	0.000***
General balance	Number of repetitions [–]	1.74±1.80	0.67±1.07	0.0002***

Wilcoxon matched-pairs test; *** $p < 0.001$

Source: own elaboration.

Table 4. Changes in physical fitness in the experimental group from April to September 2014

Test	Unit of measurement	October 2013	April 2014	Accuracy of p value
		(mean±SD)	(mean±SD)	
Flexibility	Reach [cm]	10.31±6.13	13.03±6.03	0,000000***
Core muscle strength	Number of repetitions [–]	13.92±2.36	14.73±1.15	0,000003***
General balance	Number of repetitions [–]	0.67±1.07	0.56±1.13	0,000419***

Wilcoxon matched-pairs test; *** $p < 0.001$

Source: own elaboration.

months of classes, from October 2013 to April 2014, i.e. the period of enthusiastic participation. Statistical differences were observed in all three tests (Table 3).

Statistically significant changes in the period from April to September 2014 were observed in two tests: flexibility and core muscle strength. There were no statistical differences in the assessment of general balance (Table 4).

3.2. Subjectively perceived effects of Pilates on health according to the studied women

In the study, the conscious need for regularity increased with the time spent participating in the classes. During the enthusiastic period, significantly more women (62%) declared that they participated in the classes regularly thanks to the group with whom they practised. During the period of sustained participation, significantly more women (89%) stated that they did not need additional incentives to maintain regularity.

The respondents, both during the period of enthusiastic and sustained participation (50%), said that participation in organised activities encouraged them to continue on their own after the end of the programme. There were no statistical differences between the declarations.

The respondents also declared that maintaining regularity had a very high impact on health. No statistical differences were found between the declarations of the women surveyed.

The respondents in both periods of participation (enthusiastic and sustained) noticed the biggest impact of Pilates on improving physical fitness and increasing energy levels during the day. There were no statistical differences between declarations in each period. As the programme continued, during the period of sustained participation the women reported a greater improvement in the psychological area, including such effects as better functioning in their immediate environment (family, work, friends), reduced tension and stress and increased positive emotions. Statistically significant differences at $p < 0.05$ were observed between the declarations of the respondents in the two periods.

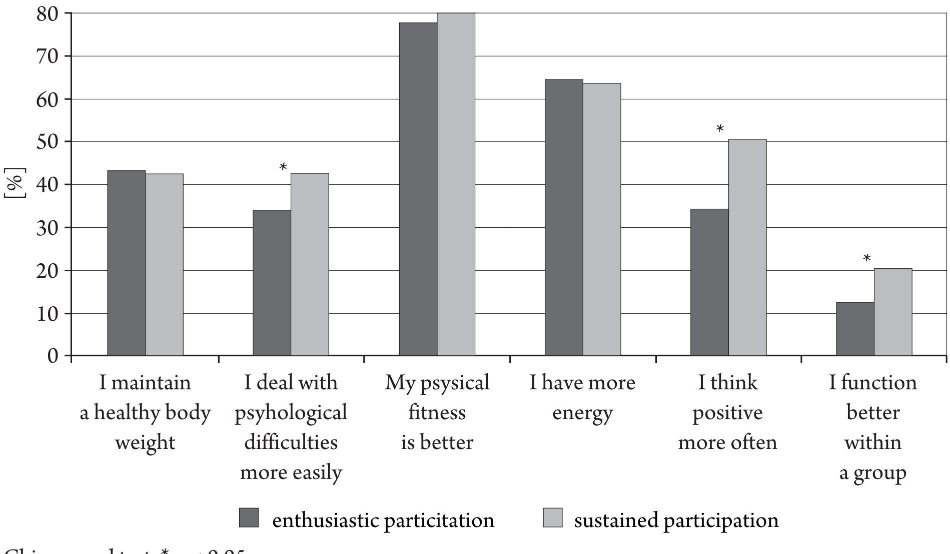
51% of women in the period of sustained participation reported a significant increase in self-esteem during the one-year programme, compared to 15% of respondents in the period of enthusiastic participation. Statistically significant differences at $p < 0.05$ were observed between responses collected in each period.

The respondents also expressed their opinions as to the psychological benefits of Pilates. The women from the period of enthusiastic and sustained participation said that they had started to treat their own health as an autotelic value. No statistical differences were noticed between declarations collected in each period. However, the women in the period of sustained participation more often reported that the participation in the Pilates programme had a positive impact on this aspect and had changed their lifestyle. The respondents declared that they recognized the positive value of physical activity, coped better with everyday life by efficiently solving problems, and noticed everyday successes more frequently. Statistically significant differences at $p < 0.05$ were observed between the declarations collected in each period. Detailed information is presented in Chart 1.

The respondents in the period of enthusiastic and sustained participation also confirmed the importance of regular participation, which was associated with a higher probability of achieving the expected results. No statistically significant differences were noticed between the two periods. When it comes to issues related to the skilful performance of subsequent movement tasks, the conviction that the exercises have an impact on one's well-being and health and that practising Pilates is of importance for health reasons, women in the period of sustained participation that were much more convinced in their declarations than in the period of enthusiastic participation. Statistical differences of $p < 0.05\%$ were noted between the declarations. Detailed data are presented in Table 5.

During the programme, the respondents defined the influence of Pilates on the perception of changes in the level of the tested motor skills. Women in the period of sustained participation more often mentioned flexibility, muscle endurance and strength as the abilities which were most affected by Pilates. Statistically significant differences at $p < 0.05$ were observed between the two periods. The

Chart 1. Perceived influence of Pilates on health (%) – respondents' declarations



Chi-squared test, * $p < 0.05$.

Source: own elaboration.

Table 5. Perceived impact of Pilates classes on health (%) – respondents' declarations

Likert scale	Only systematic action will bring the expected results	I'm pretty good at performing various motor tasks		My exercises significantly affect my well-being and health		Participation in the selected form of exercise has a positive impact on health	
	enthusiastic and sustained participation	Participation					
		enthusiastic	sustained	enthusiastic	sustained	enthusiastic	sustained
Strongly disagree	1	0	0	0	0	3	0
Disagree	0	11	0	3	0	3	0
Neither agree or disagree	0	8	6	13	0	11	6
Agree	27	61	37	47	25	53*	14
Strongly disagree	72	21	57*	37	75*	32	81*

Chi-square test; * $p < 0.05$

Source: own elaboration.

respondents from both periods also reported an improvement in body coordination and balance – without significant differences between the declarations.

During the programme, the participants had an opportunity to observe the changes that took place in their bodies during the exercises. Women in both periods of participation observed greatest differences in the ability to contract certain muscles and control breathing. There were no statistically significant differences between declarations. The respondents in the period of sustained participation significantly increased their awareness of pelvic function. There were statistically significant differences at $p < 0.05$ between the declarations.

An important aspect of Pilates classes is their effect on health. The respondents in the period of sustained participation reported experiencing a significant improvement in health during the programme. There were statistically significant differences at $p < 0.05$ between the declarations.

The respondents took part in Pilates classes mainly because they helped them to maintain both physical and mental health and remain efficient and functional in old age. In the period of sustained participation, 70% of the respondents reported choosing Pilates classes because of their impact on health, claiming that these classes improved their health were conducive to efficiency and functionality in old age. On the other hand, 29% of women in the period of enthusiastic participation indicated that these classes made them feel better. However, they emphasized that there are many other forms of activity which bring biopsychosocial benefits. There were statistically significant differences between the declarations

The respondents declared that participation in Pilates classes encouraged them to change their lifestyle so as to enjoy better health. Significantly more respondents in the period of sustained participation indicated that they had started to pay more attention to mental comfort (59% in the group of sustained participation, 28% in the group of enthusiastic participation) and that they had reduced their consumption of stimulants (24% in the group of sustained participation, 5% in the group of enthusiastic participation). Statistically significant differences of $p < 0.05\%$ were found between the declarations. Women in both periods of participation stated that they had also started to pay attention to proper diet (29%) and adequate amount of sleep (22%). There were no statistically significant differences between responses.

4. Discussion

The author's study showed that the participation in a one-year Pilates programme had a significant impact on increasing the women's health awareness. 91% of the respondents pointed out that the possibility of achieving expected results through regular participation was important for their sense of health. As a result of participating in the programme, health had become an autotelic value for 59% of the respondents. However, an increase in health awareness was more noticeable in the sustained participation group. 70% of women in this group reported choosing Pilates classes for health reasons. Although both groups reported a positive impact of Pilates on their perceived physical fitness, significantly more women in the sustained participation group reported an improvement in the psychological area (functioning in different social groups, coping with everyday difficulties). The author's observation of the group also confirmed that over time the respondents were more willing to participate in the classes, especially as a result of the positive changes they had noticed in terms of physical fitness and reduction of low back pain. The respondents also claimed that they enjoyed the classes which, apart from purely motor aspects, bring certain social benefits. By participating in a homogeneous group, the respondents had made friends they could socialise with in other contexts. Regular participation in the classes was also a welcome break from everyday life and the routine of professional work and household duties. The classes became something natural, voluntary and were an opportunity for them to focus only on themselves. The respondents also noticed that regular physical activity yielded many benefits, especially during middle adulthood.

In women, both in middle and late adulthood, the health-related and psychological benefits of engaging in a physical activity are important. Systemic and physiological changes associated with the pre-menopausal period, increased susceptibility to stress factors, excessive workload and household chores result in less leisure time and reduced physical activity. These factors affect the psychophysical condition of women and may have a negative impact on their self-esteem. Because women in the pre-menopausal and menopausal period experience not only bothersome somatic symptoms, but also – and equally often – emotional imbalance, decreased sense of physical attractiveness and decreased self-esteem, it seems necessary to provide them with holistic help. It should mainly aim at improving physical and mental well-being and improving the quality of life in the main areas of life such as family, work and social life [Bąk-Sosnowska, Skrzypulec-Plinta 2012]. Szczepańska et al. [2009] demonstrated that self-assessment in relation to mental as well as physical health is decreasing with age. Turosz and Pacholczak [2001] suggest that active women, who participate in fitness club activities, are characterized by high self-esteem. These women also have a positive attitude towards the professional sphere, are better at coping with stressful situations and are more successful in interpersonal contacts, as team players and members of society. They also have a positive attitude towards themselves and others. They are more positive about their chances of completing their tasks, which increases their task-related motivation, which in turn helps them to achieve their goals. Hence, physically active people prove their ability to achieve their goals, to show initiative and creativity. Other authors emphasize that, regardless of motivations for undertaking physical activity, women achieve their intended goal, which gives them physical and mental strength, while the resulting satisfaction allows them to enjoy their professional and family life. On the other hand, women who do not exercise tend to suffer from greater nervousness and irritability and lower self-esteem [Turosz, Pacholczak 2001]. The author's own research also confirms the influence of Pilates on higher self-esteem. This was particularly noticeable during the period of sustained participation (51%). As regards key determinants of health, women from the experimental group most often mentioned the importance of exercise and maintaining appropriate body weight. All these aspects may have been contributed to the fact that health awareness of the respondents increased along with the duration of the programme.

The growing social awareness has a significant impact on lifestyle. Women increasingly take up physical activity with a view to improving their health and quality of life. Żarów and Matusik [2005] confirm that physical activity has a significant impact on women's health (maintenance or improvement of well-being, improvement of motor fitness). Studies involving women aged from 42 to 70 confirm the significance of physical activity as an important element of health-promoting behaviours, due to the benefits in terms of health, prevention, rehabilitation and the therapeutic value [Wilk, 2005]. Wilk [2005] indicates that study participants, through regular exercises, significantly improved their motor skills, reduced stress and improved the quality of life, thanks to the positive emotions that physical activity gives. Additionally, it may contribute to mood enhancement. People who exercise notice not only changes in physical fitness, but also an increase in energy levels and a decrease in muscle tension [Myrna-Bekas, Lisowska 2009]. Although the healthy lifestyle fashion is on the rise, not all studies indicate the need for systematic, daily physical activity. According to the study by Zapała, Kowalczyk, Lubińska-Żądło [2015], working-age women tend to undertake physical activity once or twice a week. Walking is the most preferred form of physical activity. Only 8% of women report engaging in physical activity every day. Among rural residents the habit of physical exercise is much less frequent. Although studies indicate low levels of exercise, most female respondents, those living in cities as well as those from rural areas, regard their level of physical activity as fairly typical. The promotion of a healthy lifestyle among adults is important for successful aging. Goszczyńska [2020] argues it is necessary to make employers aware of the inevitability of population aging and to present health promotion as a tool of limiting its negative effects. The author's research indicates that the promotion of a proper lifestyle by employers (e.g. regular exercise) is an effective tool for improving the health of older workers (aged 55 and older). Research results indicate that organizations that employ older workers have the highest awareness of the aging process and its consequences, and they also see the point of investing in the health of their employees. In addition, they are more willing than companies which do not employ people over the age of 55 to analyze the health needs of all their staff, regardless of age, and have been more committed to health promotion in recent years, and implement such activities more intensively.

The author's study indicate an improvement in physical fitness, especially in the first (enthusiastic) stage. During the year-long Pilates programme, significant differences were found in the measurements of all the selected elements of physical fitness. The greatest progress was recorded in body flexibility. A similar observation was made by Segal, Hein and Basford [2004], i.e. improvement in body flexibility was observed already after a two-month period. Respondents also reported positive changes in body posture and flexibility and alleviation of morning stiffness. Phrompaet et al. [2011] also observed a significant impact of Pilates on body flexibility, especially in the lumbar spine. Çakmakçi [2011] found that regular Pilates training sessions significantly improved body flexibility even among obese adult women after only eight weeks.

The results of other studies indicate that Pilates can have a significant impact on the quality of life by producing a range of benefits. Bernardo [2007] argues that Pilates can bring many benefits to people who seek effective training without negative consequences for their joints and muscles. The author also believes that Pilates is very effective in that it engages many muscle groups. This effect becomes significant when pain or illness makes intensive training impossible. According to Lange et al. [2000], three categories of beneficial effects of Pilates classes can be considered: physiological improvements, psychological improvements and acquisition of the ability to effectively learn the right body posture and motor skills. Studies by Mazur and Marczewski [2011] confirm the effectiveness of Pilates in relation to the subjectively perceived benefits of practising this method. Just three months into the programme, the participants noticed a decrease in pain and an increase in concentration. Kava et al. [2010] also suggest that participation in Pilates classes improves everyday life and work performance. Respondents indicated that after participating in regular Pilates training sessions, they noticed reduction in pain, less fatigue and workload/effort while playing instruments. Tudor et al. [2013] confirm the effectiveness of a 16-week Pilates training for adults, especially as regards body balance, strength and endurance of the abdominal muscles and strength of the upper limbs.

Pilates classes, by increasing body flexibility, muscle strength and endurance, reducing excess body fat, and alleviating spine pain, significantly increase life satisfaction, improve general health and satisfaction with life. This is confirmed by Vad, Bhat and Tarabichi [2007] and Cruz-Ferreira et al. [2011], who indicate that a short, 6-month programme significantly improves life satisfaction, appearance, ability to function in society, health status, general self-esteem and perception by other people. Participants in Pilates classes (both a short programme of 3 months and a long programme of more than one year) point to an improvement in general and mental health, quality of life and general functioning [Dias Vieira et al. 2010. This is confirmed by the study conducted by Gokhan et al. [2014], suggesting that a six-week Pilates programme is an effective tool in reducing weight, body fat, especially around the abdomen, biceps and triceps. Singh N. and Singh V.K. [2014] also confirm that a 12-week Pilates programme can have a significant impact on body composition, especially on body fat (%), total and lean body mass.

5. Conclusions

To sum up, it can be stated that the study was intended not only to show the effectiveness of Pilates classes in the area of physical fitness and, consequently, on perceived quality of life, but also to raise awareness of the broader benefits of active participation in physical activities. It can therefore be concluded that targeted exercises certainly improve physical fitness, in particular flexibility of the body, reduce low back pain and thus improve the quality of life. In addition, they improve body awareness, teach how to achieve internal balance and harmony. They also influence the social sphere by helping participants spend their free time efficiently, thereby transmitting appropriate patterns of behaviour to their families.

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Pilates – wpływ ukierunkowanej formy aktywności fizycznej na aspekty psychoruchowe kobiet w okresie średniej dorosłości

Streszczenie. Celem głównym artykułu jest próba określenia wpływu ukierunkowanej formy aktywności fizycznej – pilates na aspekty psychoruchowe uczestniczek zajęć prowadzonych tą metodą. Zdaniem autorki istotne wydaje się poszukiwanie wartości uznawanych społecznie za sprzyjające zdrowiu i warunkujące styl życia ukierunkowany na zdrowie, szczególnie wśród kobiet w okresie średniej dorosłości. W pracy zastosowano eksperyment naturalny. Przebadano 40 kobiet w okresie średniej dorosłości, które od początku października 2013 r. do końca września 2014 r. uczestniczyły w zajęciach pilates. Na podstawie badań można stwierdzić, że udział kobiet w rocznym programie zajęć pilates wpłynął znacząco na poprawę ich świadomości prozdrowotnej. Badania wskazują na poprawę elementów sprawności fizycznej, szczególnie w pierwszym (tzw. entuzjastycznym) okresie uczestnictwa w eksperymencie (od października 2013 r. do kwietnia 2014 r.). Podczas rocznego programu zajęć pilates stwierdzono istotne różnice w pomiarze wszystkich wybranych elementów sprawności fizycznej. Największe postępy odnotowano w gibkości ciała. Można stwierdzić, że ukierunkowane ćwiczenia na pewno poprawiają sprawność fizyczną, szczególnie gibkość ciała, wpływają na zmniejszenie dolegliwości bólowych dolnego odcinka kręgosłupa, przez co polepszają jakość życia.

Słowa kluczowe: pilates, sprawność fizyczna, jakość życia, średnia dorosłość

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"S5 Bicycle Route" as a Tourist Connection between the Urban Agglomerations of Wrocław and Poznań

Abstract. This article presents the proposal of a "S5 Bicycle Route" using technical roads along the S5 expressway between Wrocław and Poznań. The article presents the assumptions underlying the planning process and describes the methods for promoting the route using landscape visualization. The goal of the project is to plan this picturesque bicycle route of almost 180 km, along the S5 expressway across two provinces (Dolnośląskie and Wielkopolskie). It is assumed that the proposed bike route will exploit technical roads along the existing and planned sections of the S5 expressway. The added value of the project is the repurposing the existing road network to create an alternative to combustion engine traffic and improving the mobility of residents who commute to school and work.

Keywords: bicycle route, tourist infrastructure, landscape visualization

1. Introduction

This article presents a proposal for a "S5 Bicycle Route" following technical roads along the S5 expressway between Wrocław and Poznań. The article presents the assumptions underlying the planning process and describes a method of promoting the route using landscape visualization.

The goal of the project is to plan this picturesque bicycle route of almost 180 km, along the S5 expressway across two provinces (Dolnośląskie and

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Wielkopolskie). It is assumed that the proposed bike route will exploit technical roads along the existing and planned sections of the S5 expressway. The added value of the project is the repurposing of the existing road network to create an alternative to combustion engine traffic and improving the mobility of residents who commute to school and work.

The S5 Bicycle Route project is the first attempt in Poland to create an uninterrupted bicycle route using technical and service roads along the S5 expressway, which is currently being planned and built in sections. This is an exceptional project on account of its scale – when it is finished, the cities of Wrocław and Poznań will be connected by about 180 km of safe bicycle roads. At present, the only existing bicycle roads outside urban areas in Poland run along national, provincial, district or communal roads or along decommissioned railway lines or river embankments. It is expected that once the proposed bicycle route connects towns and cities located along the way, a larger number of residents will be willing to reduce or even abandon the use of cars in favour of emission-free bicycle transport [*Plan ulepszeń dla sieci*… 2019].

2. Materials and methods

Various studies [Umiastowska 2000; Gałkowska 2000; Bartoszewicz 2011; Zatoń, Zatoń 2014] indicate that cycling is one of the most popular forms of physical activity undertaken individually by Poles. According to data published by the Central Statistical Office [GUS 2009, 2013], cycling is an increasingly popular form of active leisure. It is practised by people of all ages and both genders. Given the growing health consciousness, one reason for this popularity are the perceived benefits of cycling.

In order to investigate the cycling infrastructure as an important determinant of tourism and cycling in the region, the authors conducted a detailed review of the available documents. For the purpose of promotion, an online landscape visualization of the S5 Bicycle Route was created. In the initial phase the project work involved collecting and analysing the following documents and materials:

– planning and strategic documents of communes which are the basis for local spatial planning policy,

– an improvement plan for the Air Quality Network under the City Partnership Initiative,

– bylaws of the S5 Bicycle Route Association.

During the review, the strategic diagnosis was examined using force-field analysis developed by Kurt Lewin.

3. The initial state report for the S5 Bicycle Route project

During a workshop held in Rawicz on 29 May 2018, the Local Partnership presented a strategic report for the purpose of the project, based on force-field analysis developed Kurt Lewin [Szwedzka, Lipniak 2017], which examined helping and hindering forces that facilitate and block progress towards the goal of creat-

Table 1. Benefits for communes resulting from launching the S5 Bicycle Route

Benefits	Description
Uniqueness of the project	• uniqueness of the project on a national scale, i.e. the first-of-a-kind concept of using technical roads along an expressway for bicycle traffic • comprehensive project, consistent in terms of objectives and solutions
Existing infrastructure	• existing road infrastructure (service/technical roads are already there, no need to build them from scratch) • existing roads and cycle paths can be used and connected to the network • the infrastructure keeps growing as new S5 sections and the accompanying technical roads are being built
Financing opportunities	• chances to obtain funding for the construction of the missing links • possibility of financing the S5 Bicycle Route using external funds
Willingness to cooperate	• support from local authorities, which guarantees continuous uninterrupted routing over the entire distance, not only in certain sections within communes; • a community of thinking and ideas • one common idea • unity – the concept unites instead of dividing • cooperation around one idea – local governments, State Forests, individual forest districts, Polish Railways (PKP), General Directorate for National Roads and Motorways (GDDKIA), tourist organizations, NGOs, media and others • establishment of an association of communes which the future S5 Bicycle Route will cross (in the form of a Local Partnership) • favourable attitude of the S5 administrator • inclusion of the communes of Rawicz, Bojanowo and Żmigród in the City Partnership Initiative programme as part of the Air Quality Network
Diversity of the route	• route sections with different types of surface (asphalt, gravel, grassy dirt roads) and passing over varied terrain • this diversity is not an disadvantage but an asset
Transport integration of the neighbouring area	• the route will cross several communes • reduction of exhaust gas emissions thanks to the development of eco-logical transport (bicycles, electric bicycles) • transport connection between communes and districts • good rail connections with Wrocław and Poznań (bicycle + rail) – possibility of using mixed transport options

Source: own research.

ing the S5 Bicycle Route. The forces were analysed in order to identify the main challenges facing the Local Partnership. The results are presented in Table 1.

The proposed S5 Bicycle Route is an alternative to car transport, meets the standards of European long-distance cycling routes, connects communes located along the S5 expressway and ensures safe and collision-free ride. As a regional bicycle route and the Wrocław–Poznań tourist axis, it is perfect for recreation and development of bicycle tourism. In addition to being another attractive option for bikers, who can already use the Green Velo bike route in Eastern Poland or the bicycle route along the Oder River, the S5 Bicycle Route will also enable local residents to commute to work and school or to meet their neighbours.

The S5 Bicycle Route not only connects two provinces but it also integrates separate bicycle routes and bicycle paths located in individual communes into a single network. Thus, it serves as the backbone of an interregional system of bicycle routes, which will facilitate mobility within and between communes and attract cycling tourists.

4. S5 Bicycle Route Association

The Rawicz commune, which initiated the project of creating a bicycle route along the national S5 expressway complete with basic tourist infrastructure took steps in order to establish an association. It championed the idea in the agencies of local government (marshal offices of both provinces: Wielkopolskie and Dolnośląskie). It applied for a recommendation of the Polish Tourist Organisation with a view to obtaining a certificate of the best tourist product.

Rawicz also holds meetings to discuss proposals and consider various possibilities of implementing the project as an attractive tourist product, including the possibility of making adjustments to meet the quality criteria for Eurovelo routes, which constitute a good and widely recognised basis for developing the concept of the S5 Bicycle Route. The schedule of the most important activities implemented in 2017-2019 is shown in Table 2.

Initial research carried out by the Rawicz Commune suggests that the interested local government units are ready to participate in the implementation of the project while institutions dealing with tourism and bicycle trails and routes, are favourably disposed to the idea of creating a bicycle route connecting Poznań with Wrocław. The Rawicz Commune asked the Polish Tourist Organisation for expertise and support and lobbying efforts within the Active Tourism consortium. Regional Tourist Organisations in Wrocław and Poznań as well as universities dealing with tourism have also expressed interest in the project. The project has also been positively evaluated by the State Forests, branches of the General Directorate for National Roads and Motorways and local government units.

Table 2. Schedule of activities concerning the S5 Bicycle Route (2017-2019)

Action	Place and date
Planning and creation of the S5 Bicycle Route. A series of meetings attended by representatives of local government units interested in planning and building the bicycle route along the S5 Poznań–Wrocław expressway.	2017 – Municipal Office of the Rawicz Commune
The Rawicz commune participated in the first edition of the Lower Silesia Bicycle Festival. It co-organized a discussion panel on the S5 Bicycle Route featuring a workshop on good cycling practices.	20-21 May 2017 – Centennial Hall in Wrocław
The City Partnership Initiative is one of the strategic projects under the Strategy for Responsible Development at the Ministry of Development.	17 July 2017 – Submission of applications under the City Partnership Initiative
Project implementation: a computer visualization of the landscape and infrastructure of the bicycle trails and routes was created	March – June 2018
The signing of a letter of intent concerning the establishment of the S5 Bicycle Route Association.	29 June 2018 – Municipal Office of the Rawicz Commune
A meeting of the City Partnership Initiative as part of the Air Quality Network.	September 2018 – Rawicz
The founding meeting of the S5 Bicycle Route Association.	5 April 2019 – Municipal Office of Rawicz Commune
Registration of the S5 Bicycle Route Association.	29 May 2019
Meetings of the Management Board of the S5 Bicycle Route Association, attended by invited guests from the Institute for Territorial Development from Wrocław. The participants discussed details of the planned cooperation and established the scope of the S5 Bicycle Route concept.	5 July 2019, 6 August 2019, 31 October 2019 – Municipal Office of the Rawicz Commune
The aim of the rally was to familiarize participants with the proposed S5 Bicycle Route. Rally participants used technical roads from the Folwark rest area to the flyover in the direction of Żylice.	19 October 2019 – S5 Bicycle Route Research Rally

Source: own research.

In connection with a call for participation in thematic networks on urban mobility, revitalisation and air quality, on 17 July 2017 the communes of Rawicz, Bojanowo and Żmigród submitted applications within the framework of the City Partnership Initiative, one of the strategic projects which is part of the Strategy for Responsible Development[1]. The aim of the initiative is to create a legal and organizational model of cooperation between communes and other public institutions in order to use the technical roads along the S5 Poznań-Wrocław ex-

[1] *The Strategy for Responsible Development for the period up to 2020 (including the perspective up to 2030)* – SRD – was adopted by the Council of Ministers on 14th February 2017.

pressway to create a safe bicycle route between the cities to enable zero emission commuting, tourism and sightseeing.

As a result of these activities, on 26-28 September 2018 a meeting of the City Partnership Initiative was held in Rawicz as part of the Air Quality Network, organised with the help of the authorities of the towns of Bojanowo and Żmigród. The agenda included activities of local government units involved in the creation of the S5 Bicycle Route Association and a workshop on the design and implementation standards for bicycle infrastructure, conducted by a bicycle officer from the Wrocław City Hall. On the second day, the participants took part in a study visit to the areas of the proposed project and a bicycle ride along the planned S5 Bicycle Route from Rawicz to the Palace in Trzebosz. Expertise support for the workshop was provided by representatives of Rawicz, Bojanowo and Żmigród Municipal Offices, an Air Quality Network expert from the Warsaw University of Technology and a representative of the Ministry of Development.

On 29 June 2018 a letter of intent was signed confirming the willingness of cooperating parties to get involved in the implementation, promotion and maintenance of the long-distance bicycle route crossing the provinces of Dolnośląskie and Wielkopolskie.

The founding meeting of the S5 Bicycle Route Association was held on 5 April 2019 in the Session Hall of the Municipal Office in Rawicz. The invitation was accepted by 12 local government units from Wielkopolskie and Dolnośląskie, which adopted resolutions expressing their willingness to establish and join the association. The meeting was attended by representatives of 9 communes (Bojanowo, Czempiń, the city of Leszno, Rawicz, Śmigiel, Święciechowa, Trzebnica, Wisznia Mała, Żmigród) and 3 districts (Leszczyński, Rawicki, Trzebnicki). According to the bylaws of the S5 Bicycle Route Association, its goal is not only to create a complete tourist and recreation product (which responds to current trends and meets local needs) but also to build the brand of the region by offering a dense network of roads and bicycle routes, especially along the S5 expressway.

5. Condition of the cycling infrastructure as a determinant of tourism and recreation

Although a cycling network for tourism and leisure activities addresses slightly different user needs than a typical urban network, there are 5 essential requirements that should be considered when designing and building any cycling network. They are included a Dutch design manual entitled *Sign Up for the Bike*[2]

[2] The manual was first published in 1993 by the Centre for Research and Contract Standardization in Civil and Traffic Engineering, also known as C.R.O.W. It was replaced in 2007 by a newer version entitled *Design manual for bicycle traffic.*

[CROW 1993], which can be treated as the world standard in planning, design and construction of urban cycling roads. According to these recommendations, a cycling system should be characterized by coherence, directness, safety, comfort and attractiveness.

1. Coherence refers to the continuity of the system, which should links all starting points and destinations in the city. No cycling route must suddenly end, leaving the cyclist in a dangerous place.

2. Directness – the system must provide the greatest possible travel speed for the bicycle. Cycling routes should be more or less straight, level, easily accessible and, for most of the time, have right of way.

3. Safety – cycle paths should be located in light traffic zones, outside of roadways and separated from them by posts.

4. Comfort should be ensured by correct surfacing, avoidance of steep uphill sections, good lighting, bicycle parking lots.

5. Attractiveness of the cycling path system depends on the four above mentioned features and on the characteristics of the area across where the cycling routes are located (parks, river banks).

In principle, it is assumed that if one or more of the main requirements are not met, the cycling infrastructure should be rebuilt.

Taking into account the suburban areas with important tourism and leisure functions, especially on Saturdays and Sundays [Szkup 2003], the following conditions should be met:

1. Cycling routes should run along particularly attractive places, e.g. along river valleys, unused railway lines, mountain ranges or pilgrimage trails.

2. Cycling routes should be an integral part of existing trans-regional roads (long-distance routes).

3. They should connect cities and pass through their centres.

4. Standardized labelling should be used.

5. Information on the condition of bicycle routes must be regularly updated

6. Cycling routes should be planned at district or commune level, and preferably at the level of a region or province.

6. Selected concepts of regional cycling trails and tourist trails

Concepts of regional cycling trails are created for areas of different size and representing various levels of territorial division, which are considered to be attractive for cycling. In this context, one can distinguish cycling trail systems located in regions belonging to different countries (e.g. Euroregions) or different administrative units (e.g. provinces), and regional systems within administrative units (e.g. provinces, geographical regions). General concepts of long distance trails were presented by J. Styperek [2002] in terms of linear systems of recreational exploration.

An interesting approach to stimulating regional cycling activity in regions connecting neighbouring countries is the creation of cycling trail systems in Euroregions (e.g. Nisa Euroregion and Glacensis Euroregion). These Euroregions include border territories of Poland, the Czech Republic and Germany. As noted by W. Ranoszek and K. Widawski [2008], activities at the level of Euroregions are associated with high expenditures financed under EU projects. For example, a cycling trail concept developed for the Nisa Euroregion in 2001 featured three categories of cycling trails: Euroregional routes (category I), inter-communal main routes and bypasses (category II), and communal and urban bypasses (category III). A similar project was created for the Glacensis Euroregion, where three categories of cycling trails were also distinguished: international, regional and connecting trails. According to Ranoszek and Widawski [2008] quoted above, a total of about EUR 100,000 was spent to develop the concept for the Glacensis Euroregion, including publications and promotion events. The above mentioned concepts and the expenditures involved confirm the importance of tourist trails in the activation on tourism at local and regional levels.

Another category worth mentioning in this context are supra-regional concepts that are part of the network of international trails, such as the Trans-European Cycle Route Network EUROVELO comprising 12 bicycle trails with a total length of 66,000 km, 5 of which cross the territory of Poland.

The Green Velo Cycling Trail in Eeastern Poland is one of the most spectacular examples of projects undertaken to create and promote regional cycling tourist trails connecting several Polish provinces. The trail is over 2,000 km long and runs across five provinces in Eastern Poland (Warmińsko-Mazurskie, Podlaskie, Lubelskie, Podkarpackie and Świętokrzyskie). The project was implemented as part of the 2007-2013 Operational Programme to support the Development of Eastern Poland. The Green Velo concept was developed in the project entitled "Cycling routes in Eastern Poland", which was co-financed by the European Regional Development Fund (85%), the state budget (10%) and own contributions of Beneficiaries (5%). There are 12 so-called "cycling kingdoms" along the trail, each representing an attractive region that tourists can explore by following local cycling trails.

The Cycle Trail System of Wielkopolska is an example of a coherent, regional system of tourist bicycle trails stretching over one geographical region. The first trails were created in 2001, and currently the entire network consists of 9 trans-regional bicycle trails with a total length of about 1,800 km. The system includes historical and cultural trails, such as the Amber Bicycle Trail (*Bursztynowy Szlak*

Rowerowy) or the Mansion Bicycle Trail (*Ziemiański Szlak Rowerowy*). The attractiveness of the Cycle Trail System of Wielkopolska has received a special Quality Certificate awarded by the Polish Tourist Organisation in 2004. Moreover, the system is an element of the "GPS Wielkopolska" project, in which satellite navigation technology has been used to develop GPS tracks that can be downloaded to mobile devices free of charge [Kaleniewicz 2012].

The core element of the system in the Poznan metropolitan area is the Poznań City Bicycle Ring (*Pierścień Rowerowy Dookola Poznania*), with a total length of about 170 km, which is divided into 7 sections stretching between access routes to the city centre, five of which are part of the Cycle Trail System: the Cistercian Cycling Trail, the Warta Cycling Trail, the Piast Cycling Trail, the Hundred Lakes Cycling Trail and the Bicycle Route Across Wielkopolska (*Transwielkopolska Trasa Rowerowa*).

One example of a regional bicycle route created along expressways and motorways (just like the S5 Bicycle Route) is the F35 High Speed Bicycle Route in the non-administrative region of Twente in the eastern Netherlands. The idea of a bicycle motorway, which runs almost parallel to the Rijksweg 35 motorway over a distance of nearly 60 km, from the town of Nijverdal to the German border, was proposed as an alternative to urban and regional car traffic. The F35 is a utilitarian and recreational alternative to the A1/A35 motorway and regional roads connecting the towns of Borne, Hengelo and Enschede. The bicycle trail concept is the result of cooperation between 8 communes located in the Twente region (Almelo, Borne, Enschede, Hellendoorn, Hengelo, Oldenzaal, Twenterand and Wierden). The F35 bicycle motorway crosses Twente from the German border to Sallandse Heuvelrug near Nijverdal, and runs across Enschede, Hengelo, Borne, Almelo and Wierden. Offshoots are planned to go from Oldenzaal to Enschede and Almelo and Vriezenveen.

1. Despite its length, the bicycle motorway[3] serves as a route for short distance travel between towns/cities and provides the following benefits:

2. Improves urban mobility by reducing traffic congestion on roads to towns/cities, stations, offices and public event sites.

3. Facilitates social, tourist and leisure activities of residents by providing a quick connection to towns/cities, communes and villages and leisure locations in the region regardless of the social status of users.

4. Facilitates economic activity of residents who can commute to the centres of towns/cities where they work and live and where most public institutions are located.

5. Has a positive environmental impact by helping to reduce greenhouse gas emissions (CO_2), traffic pollution and noise.

[3] http://www.fietsfilevrij.nl/fietsroutes/fietssnelweg-f35-twente/ [accessed: 5.10.2019].

6. Has a positive impact on residents' health by promoting physical activity, in particular cycling and other human-powered means of transport.

7. Increases road safety by helping to reduce the number of road traffic accidents.

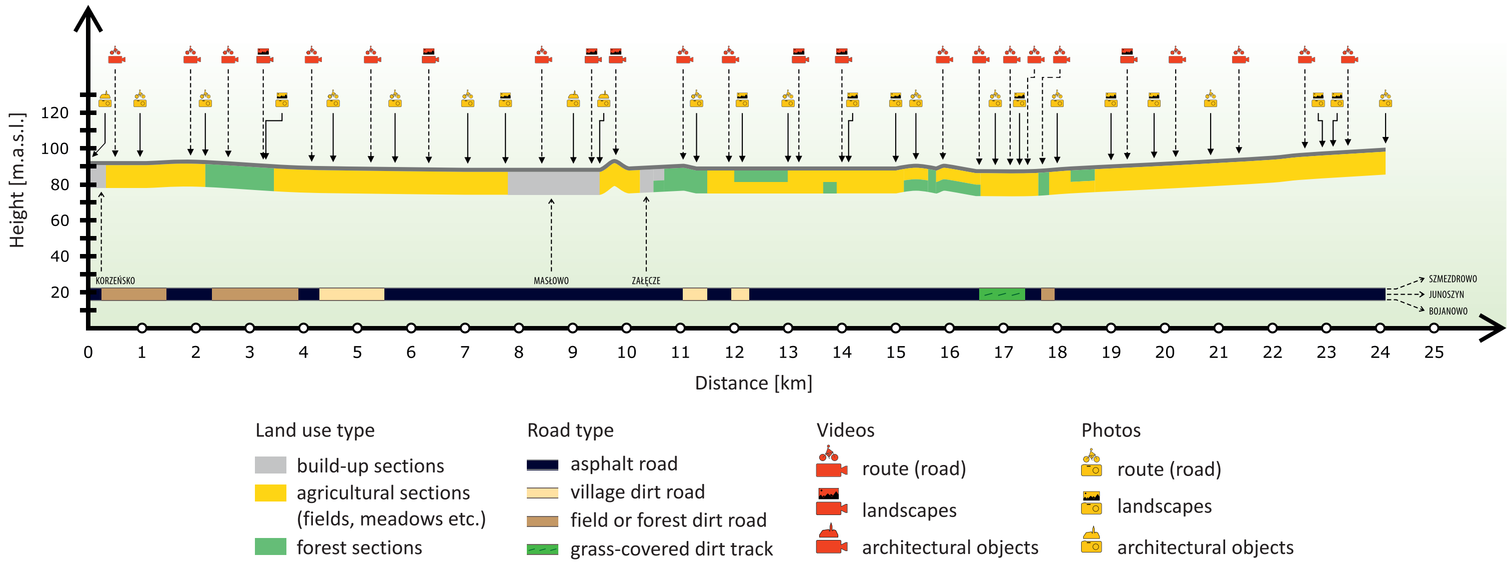
8. Improves the positive image of the region.

7. Assumptions of a landscape visualization of bicycle tourist trails

The main purpose of landscape visualization was to design graphic forms of presentation (graphs, maps, photographs and films) to highlight the attractive landscape of bicycle trails including natural and anthropogenic characteristics of the trail and its infrastructure. The process of creating a landscape visualization consisted of two stages: the first one involved field work in order to collect the necessary data, photos and films, the second one consisted in developing the actual visualisations and publishing them online. The first stage was preceded by cartographic and field reconnaissance. Next, a GPS trace was created using data from a satellite navigation device, in order to measure the length of roads with different surfaces. The video and photo material was documented, including a map indicating locations of places shown in photos and videos. In the second stage, topographic profiles were prepared choosing an appropriate scale to make sure that elevation change is correctly represented in relation to the horizontal scale and the terrain along the trails is displayed in a optimal way. The basic advantage of topographic profiles is that they clearly show hills and sections of the trail with different gradients. The profiles contain information on types of land use (forest, built-up or agricultural areas) which determine the perception of the surroundings. More diversity in this regard produces of a mosaic of landscapes that can be experienced during a leisure trip. Another aspect that cyclists find very useful is information about the type of roads, which is displayed along the trail, under the horizontal axis of the graph (Fig. 1).

The key feature of the landscape visualization are the pictograms representing photographs and videos of locations along the route, showing the route itself, the surrounding landscape and architectural objects (e.g. palaces, manors, churches) and infrastructural elements (e.g. parking places, lookout towers, information boards etc., Fig. 1). The landscape visualization of bicycle trails is available online and provides a simple and relatively quick overview of practical information about the characteristics of a given trail for the potential tourist, which can be a motivating factor to undertake cycling activity.

Fig. 1. Landscape visualization of a section of the S5 Bicycle Route



Source: Author's own research.

8. Characteristics of one section of the S5 Bicycle Route

The section of the S5 Bicycle Route developed for the Rawicz commune is 24.1 km long. The trail starts in Korzeńsko and continues across Masłowo, Załęcze, ending at the road connecting Trzebosz and Bojanowo. The difference in elevation is small (about 10 m). The trail starts at 90 m above sea level and ends at about 100 m. The elevation parameters indicate that the trail is classified as one of negligible difficulty, which is well illustrated by the topographic profile (Fig. 1); it can therefore be chosen by bikers of different categories. Another feature that contributes to the low difficulty of the trail is the type of surface. The trail includes sections with four types of surface: asphalt roads – 72%, dirt roads – 10%, field roads – 15% and grass-covered field roads – 3%. Another important feature for cyclists is the diversity of the landscape which is determined, among other things, by different types of land use. Most of the area along the route is classified as agriculture land (about 65%, mainly grasslands); forest areas account for about 20% of the route, and the remaining part are built-up areas.

The landscape visualization will be one of the ways of promoting the S5 Bicycle Route. A pilot version of the visualization for the S5 Bicycle Route section described above is already available online. Pictograms representing photographs and short videos are placed on the topographic profile, which also includes information about land use and surface types. The landscape attractiveness is documented by 25 photographs (showing the landscape – 10, the trail – 12, architecture objects – 3) and 24 videos (showing the landscape – 7 and the trail – 17). The visualization can be accessed on the website of the Rawicz Commune (www.rawicz.pl).

Another important element of the concept of the S5 Bicycle Route is the development of the tourist and sightseeing attractiveness of the areas (districts and communes) located in the immediate vicinity of and further away from the S5 Bicycle Route. To this end, within each commune along the S5 Bicycle Route, connecting routes will be created along local roads that link to existing bicycle trails and routes in these communes. In the case of the existing section of the S5 Bicycle Route described above such a connection exists between the technical roads along the S5 expressway and local roads leading to Masłów and further on to Rawicz, where two bicycle trails have been built: the Rawicz trail and the Rawicz – Hazy – Rawicz loop, for which a landscape visualization was also prepared. Thanks to the cooperation of the communes located in the vicinity of the S5 bicycle route in the development of cycling tourism, a uniform form of promotion by means of landscape visualization was chosen. The first region to opt for this solution is the Poznań region, which includes communes located south of Poznań (Luboń, Puszczykowo, Stęszew, Mosina, Komorniki, Dopiewo, Buk). Another region invited to create a coherent promotion project includes the communes in the Leszczyński district and the communes located between the two regions, e.g. Śmigiel and Czempiń. In the future two other cycling tourism regions that will be created around Rawicz and Wrocław.

9. Summary

Broadly understood spatial factors are the key factors in the shaping of the image of cycling tourism and leisure. In this regard, Smolarski [2018] points to evident mutual relations and connections. Specific factors of particular importance for cycling tourism and leisure include the following:

- location of the place of residence,
- qualities of the town/city which are conducive to cycling,
- terrain,
- climate,
- spatial structure of the town/city (urban layout, transport system, etc.),
- location of tourist attractions,
- diversity of social environment,
- accessibility of suburban areas.

These features and the existing should be taken into account when developing a local bicycle policy developed. The creation of a comprehensive cycling system is a multi-stage and long-term process and is usually part of a wider programme of the region's ecological development. The necessary infrastructure is created to ensure the safety of users, often by reducing the intensity of car traffic. Therefore, cycling policy management is a key element in the process of creating effective and efficient facilities for local cycling.

In view of the above considerations, the following conclusions can be drawn.

Taking into account the popularity of cycling and the fact that it is a family type of leisure, it is necessary to develop a comprehensive system of cycling roads and trails. Attractive suburban areas should be connected with urban centres by safe bicycle routes along secondary roads with a low intensity of traffic. On the other hand, the use of these areas by pedestrians and cyclists requires, in safe traffic rules, in accordance with the amended traffic law (*Road Traffic Law of* 1997[4]). The development of cycling recreation and tourism is also influenced by the policy of the state, region, town or commune and by the existing regulations concerning the use of bicycles in road traffic.

Another important factor is the financial capacity of those who engage in cycling recreation and tourism.

[4] Ustawa z dnia 20 czerwca 1997 r. Prawo o ruchu drogowym, Dz.U. 1997, nr 98, poz. 602.

Studies can be helpful in the process of planning the cycling infrastructure in the region and creating local concepts and programmes for cycling development. Communes are willing to participate in this effort. Initial research suggests that institutions dealing with tourism and bicycle trails and routes, are favourably disposed to the idea of creating a bicycle route connecting Poznań with Wrocław. The Polish Tourist Organisation has been asked to provide expertise support and undertake lobbying within the Active Tourism consortium. Regional Tourist Organisations in Wrocław and Poznań, as well as universities dealing with tourism have also expressed interest. The project has been positively evaluated by the State Forests, branches of the General Directorate for National Roads and Motorways and local governments.

The analysis of the project and its implementation presented in the article has demonstrated opportunities for recreational use of the existing non-recreational transport infrastructure. Given its scale, this is the first project in Poland aimed at expanding the network of recreational trails and connecting two metropolises. The article has also shown the wide-ranging challenges associated with implementing a recreation and tourism development project at various levels of public administration. The experience and insights gained at each stage of the project creation and implementation can provide guidance for similar initiatives. The article makes a contribution to the literature on recreation and tourism development, which is understood as a process of adapting a given area for recreational and tourism use.

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Trasa „Rowerowa S5" jako turystyczne połączenie aglomeracji miejskich Wrocławia i Poznania

Streszczenie. W artykule przedstawiono koncepcje utworzenia trasy rowerowej „Rowerowa S5", biegnącej drogami technicznymi wzdłuż drogi ekspresowej S5, pomiędzy Wrocławiem i Poznaniem. Zaprezentowana została procedura powstania stowarzyszenia „Rowerowa S5" oraz metody promocji trasy przy zastosowaniu wizualizacji krajobrazowej. Celem projektu jest wyznaczenie trasy rowerowej o długości prawie 180 km, przebiegającej wzdłuż drogi ekspresowej S5 w granicach województwa dolnośląskiego i wielkopolskiego. Koncepcja projektu zakłada wykorzystanie sieci dróg technicznych przy istniejącej i budowanej drodze ekspresowej S5 na potrzeby ruchu rowerowego, szczególnie na cele turystyczne i rekreacyjne.

Słowa kluczowe: trasa rowerowa, infrastruktura turystyczna, wizualizacja krajobrazowa

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Issues of the Sharing Economy in the Discussion of Overtourism in the Light of the Scopus Database

Abstract. The development of the tourism sector in response to new trends mean that the number of visitors is constantly increasing. This leads to the emergence of tourism innovations, such as the sharing economy, and phenomena like overtourism, which have been investigated in the growing number of studies in recent years. This article aims to analyse the treatment of the sharing economy in articles addressing the problem of overtourism by reviewing the scientific literature on the subject included in the Scopus database. The analysis focuses on articles that address both issues.

Keywords: overtourism, sharing economy, Scopus, tourism studies, tourism

1. Introduction

Tourism is an extremely dynamic and constantly developing sector of the economy. This is evidenced year by year by the growing number of travellers visiting foreign countries. The number of international tourist arrivals recorded in 2017 was over 1.3 billion [UNWTO 2018a: 2]. In 2018, this figure grew to over 1.4 billion, which means an increase of 5.4% [UNWTO 2019: 2]. The World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) estimates that the number of international overnight visitors will continue to grow, reaching 20 billion in 2030 [UNWTO 2018b: 4]. The increasing number of visitors has many consequences, some of which are

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positive and desirable, while others are negative and are causing growing public concern [Martín, Guaita Martínez, Salinas Fernández 2018: 4]. Inhabitants of attractive tourist destinations, tired and irritated by the uncontrolled influx of tourists, are protesting against and trying to resist the phenomenon they have to deal with every day [Kowalczyk-Anioł, Zmyślony 2017: 8]. In some European cities, the level of dissatisfaction is so high that local residents are openly hostile towards tourists. As a consequence, a lot of attention in the media and the scientific literature in recent years has been devoted to the issue of overtourism [Koens, Postma, Papp 2018: 1]. Much of the discussion on overtourism has centred on the concept of the sharing economy, especially on the pressure on the local housing market exerted by commercial P2P platforms such as Airbnb, HomeAway, HomeExchange, which area provide tourists with an attractive and alternative form of accommodation associated with the increasingly popular trend of living like a local [Milano, Cheer, Novelli 2018 cited in: Sarantakou, Terkenli 2019: 414]. Although overtourism and the sharing economy are often linked, there are few publications that deal with both issues together.

There are more and more studies that examine the phenomenon of overtourism and the sharing economy from the perspective of various sciences (including economics, computer science, sociology) [Jaremen, Nawrocka, Rapacz 2017: 76]. It is interesting to analyse the relationship between both phenomena, especially the way they are presented in the scientific discussion. The aim of the article is to analyse the treatment of the sharing economy in articles addressing the problem of overtourism. The specific question is whether the sharing economy is viewed as the central topic (problem), as one of the key problems, or perhaps merely as a secondary issue or even an irrelevant part of the background of overtourism. The article is based on a non-exhaustive review of the literature on overtourism available in Elsevier's Scopus, the largest abstract and citation *database* of peer-reviewed literature. The analysis focuses on articles that address both issues.

The first part provides a brief description and definition of overtourism and the sharing economy. The second, analytic part is preceded by a description of the review process. The article is concluded with a summary and recommendations for further research.

2. Discussion in the literature

Nowadays, thanks to the growing use of the Internet as a facilitator of interpersonal communication, the exchange of experiences is extremely easy. The sale and sharing of goods with other people is also simplified. These technological advances enable the development of the sharing economy and contribute to the rise of overtourism. The following section is devoted to a brief description of these two interrelated phenomena. It presents their definitions and effects.

2.1. Overtourism

Overtourism is a broad and complex phenomenon [Koens, Postma, Papp 2018: 2]. Although the term itself has only been used for about three years, the phenomenon itself is not new. Problems associated with large numbers of tourists and the negative effects resulting from the rapid development of the tourist sector have been known in the scientific community since the 1970s [Capocchi et al. 2019b: 2]. In 1975, Doxey developed the irritation index model, in which he showed how the growing number of tourists can change the attitude of residents. Butler [1980] proposed the life cycle of a tourism area and O'Reilly [1986] introduced the concept of tourism carrying capacity [Milano, Novelli, Cheer 2019b: 353]. While no-one talked about the risk of overtourism, there was awareness of problems that may occur with the growth of tourism.

Despite the growing interest in overtourism and the negative effects of tourism in the academic community, no single, widely accepted definition has been proposed so far. The first author to define overtourism was Harold Goodwin [2017], who wrote that "Overtourism describes destinations where hosts or guests, locals or visitors, feel that there are too many visitors and that the quality of life in the area or the quality of the experience has deteriorated unacceptably". Moreover, he noted that the phenomenon is the opposite of Responsible Tourism, whose aim is to make better places to live in and to visit. "Often both visitors and guests experience the deterioration concurrently and rebel against it" [Goodwin 2017: 1].

In 2018, the World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) defined overtourism as "the impact of tourism on a destination, or parts thereof, that excessively influences perceived quality of life of citizens and/or quality of visitor experiences in a negative way" [UNWTO 2018b: 4].

Milano, Novelli, Cheer described the phenomenon as "the excessive growth of visitors leading to overcrowding in areas where residents suffer the consequences of temporary and seasonal tourism peaks, which have caused permanent changes to their lifestyles, denied access to amenities and damaged their general well-being" [Milano, Novelli, Cheer 2019b: 354].

What all these definitions have in common is a considerable deterioration of living conditions in a given place las a result of large numbers of guests and visitors. An uncontrolled influx of tourists, which leads, among other things, to increasing prices, overcrowding, environmental degradation, has had a serious impact on many places, especially cities around the world [Koens, Postma, Papp

2018: 7]. In addition, historic districts in many cities face the problem of gentrification, which involves a change in the character of a neighbourhood through the influx of more affluent residents and the resulting displacement of those who have lived there so far. One form of gentrification is tourism gentrification. It is associated with the development of tourism and the influx of tourists to a given area. This concept was first defined by Gotham [2005], who described it as "transformation of a middle-class neighborhood into a relatively affluent and exclusive enclave marked by a proliferation of corporate entertainment and tourism venues" [Gotham 2005: 1102]. The declining quality of life experienced by local residents in Western European tourist destinations led to protests against the growing number of tourists and mass tourism [Kowalczyk-Anioł, Zmyślony 2017: 1]. Moreover, in some regions, anti-tourism movements began to arise. For example, Barcelona and Palma de Mallorca saw acts of vandalism or attacks against tourists, and the situation became so tense that the Spanish media began to use the term "tourismophobia" (Spanish: *turismofobia)* [Milano, Novelli, Cheer 2019b: 354].

Although researchers from around the world publish many articles on overtourism and overcrowding, it is still unclear how to deal with it and how to prevent it. Diverse reports and many studies, including those conducted by World Travel and Tourism Council [2017], World Tourism Organization [2018, 2019], the European Parliament [Peeters et al. 2018], do not answer all questions [Milano, Novelli, Cheer 2019b: 354]. The problem with the uncontrolled influx of tourists and its negative consequences remains a challenge for local authorities and communities.

2.2. The sharing economy

The second key term is the sharing economy, associated with such concepts as home sharing, sharing platforms, collaborative economy, collaborative consumption, peer-to-peer economy (P2P), peer economy, peer production economy, rental economy, gift economy, access economy, on-demand economy, circular economy, mesh economy, alternative finance, gig economy, and even anti-consumption [Czernek, Wójcik 2017: 67-68]. For the first time, issues related to this phenomenon were discussed by Marus Felson and Joe L. Spaeth in 1978, in their work "Community Structure and Collaborative Consumption: A routine activity approach" [Felson, Spaeth, 1978: 614]. However, as E. Markiewicz [2013: 78] indicates, there was more interest in the subject following the publication in 2010 of Botsman and Rogers' book entitled *What's mine Is Yours: the Rise of Collaborative Consumption*. The sharing economy, in contrast to the traditional ownership-based market model, enables and facilitates the use and sharing of products and services between various people [Puschmann, Alt 2016: 93]. It is also defined as "consumers granting each other temporary access to under-utilized physical assets ('idle capacity'), possibly for money" [Frenken, Schor 2017: 4-5]. Puschmann and Alt [2016: 93], citing Botsman, among others, emphasize that the development of the sharing economy is driven by three factors:

– changes in consumer behaviour – superiority of use over ownership,
– social networks and electronic markets,
– mobile devices and electronic services.

The impact of the sharing economy is very extensive. It affects such areas of life as housing, transportation, catering services, tour guide services, loans, exchange of toys and clothes, car rentals, offering free time (e.g. in order to run someone else's errands), skills, parking/storage space, land/gardening [Krajewska-Smardz, Gruszka, Szalonka 2016: 35]. J. Schor [2014: 2], distinguishes four categories of activities that characterise the sharing economy:

– recirculation of goods by reselling them online (e.g. eBay, Craigslist),
– increasing use of durable assets (e.g. hourly car rentals, couchsurfing),
– exchanging services (e.g. non-profit time banks, monetized service exchanges),
– sharing production resources (e.g. sharing assets, space or skills to enable production or business activity).

Nowadays, in tourism studies, the sharing economy is typically associated with global online platforms such as Airbnb [Poniatowska-Jaksch, 2016: 64] and couchsurfing (non-profit hospitality platform) [see i.a. O'Regan, Choe 2019: 138-146; Kowalczyk-Anioł 2011: 141-156]. Most studies focus on the social consequences of such platforms, which include a sharp increase in property and rent prices, resettlement of residents to accommodate visitors/tourists, followed by a change in the character of districts and even entire cities [Cocola-Gant, Gago 2019].

3. Research aim and methodology

As indicated in the introduction, the purpose of the study is to analyse the treatment of the sharing economy in articles addressing the problem of overtourism. The present article can be viewed as a non-exhaustive review of the literature about the sharing economy in articles on overtourism. The analysis is based on articles available in the Scopus database, which was chosen because, as indicated by Müller [2019: 9], it contains more articles in the field of social science than the Web of Science.

The literature review comprised articles published until December 6, 2019. The process consisted of three stages (Fig. 1). The first stage involved searching for articles in which the term overtourism was used in the title, abstract or key words. 76 articles were identified published in 20 scientific journals indexed in the Scopus database (see Table 1). Most of the articles appeared in the following journals: Worldwide Hospitality and Tourism Themes, Sustainability, Journal of Sustainable Tourism.

Taking into the geographic scope of the articles, most of them referred to problems in European countries. In the case of three articles, no full text was available. All of the articles were published between 2017 and 2019. The full list of authors includes a total of 151 names, mainly affiliated with European universities. Non-European authors came from Japan, China, New Zealand, Australia, Canada, USA, Hong Kong, Thailand, Nigeria, Kenya, Israel, Kenya. In terms of the number of published works, the leading authors are Seraphin Hugues and Vanessa Gowreesunkar (5 articles each) and Joseph Cheer, Ko Koens, Claudio Milano, and Marina Novelli (3 articles each).

The analysis in the final stage was limited to 24 articles selected in the second stage (see Table 2). They were published in the following journals: Journal of Sustainable Tourism (2), World-wide Hospitality and Tourism Themes (3), Sustainability (7), International Journal of Toursim Cities (3), Current Issues in Tour-

1st stage

Pre-selection: occurrence of 'overtourism' in
title, abstract, keywords:
OVERTOURISM

↓

2nd stage

Selection of articles containing the following terms:
sharing economy, share economy, home sharing, sharing platforms,
collaborative economy, collaborative consumption,
peer-to-peer economy (p2p), peer economy, peer production economy,
rental economy, gift economy, access economy,
on-demand economy, circular economy, mesh economy,
alternative finance, gig economy, anti-consumption

↓

3rd stage

Analysis of the treatment of the sharing economy in articles on overtourism

Fig. 1. Stages of the study

Source: compiled by authors.

Table 1. Articles in which 'overtourism' appears in the title, abstract or key words in journals indexed in the Scopus database (as at 6.12.2019)

No.	Journal	Author(s)
1.	Annales Universitatis Mariae Curie-Skłodowska	Kruczek [2019]
2.	Annals of Tourism Research	Lalicic [2019]
3.	CESifo Forum	Hospers [2019]
4.	Current Issues in Tourism	Phi [2019]; Capocchi et al.[2019a]; Adie, Falk, Savioli [2019]
5.	International Journal of Tourism Cities	Zmyślony, Kowalczyk-Anioł [2019]; Pinke-Sziva et al. [2019]; Novy [2019]; Eckert et al. [2019]; Plichta [2019]; Gravari-Barbas, Jacqout [2019]; von der Heidt et al. [2019]; Ram, Hall [2018]
6.	Investigaciones Regionales	Trancoso González [2018]; Moreno-Izquierdo, Ramón-Rodríguez, Such-Devesa [2019]
7.	Journal of Destination Marketing and Management	Koens et al.[2019]
8.	Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management	Seraphin et al. [2019b]
9.	Journal of Sustainable Tourism	Milano, Novelli, Cheer [2019a]; Oklevik et al. [2019]; Fletcher et al. [2019]; Valdivielso, Moranta [2019]; Higgins-Desbiolles et al. [2019]; Navarro-Jurado et al. [2019]; Gale, Ednie, Beeftink [2019]; Cheung, Li [2019]; Cheer, Milano, Novelli [2019]; Hardy, Aryal [2019]
10.	Journal of Tourism Futures	Huettermann et al.[2019]
11.	Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing	Jørgensen, McKercher [2019]
12.	Natur und Landschaft	Mösch [2019]
13.	Ocean and Coastal Management	Dodds, Holmes [2019]
14.	Sustainability	Padrón-Ávila, Hernández-Martín [2019]; Aall, Koens [2019]; Baños et al [2019]; Simancas Cruz, Peñarrubia Zaragoza [2019]; Szromek, Naramski [2019]; Gutiérrez-Taño, Garau-Vadell, Díaz-Armas [2019]; Kuščer, Mihalič [2019]; Perkumienė, Pranskūnienė [2019]; Capocchi et al. [2019b]; Alonso-Almeida, Borrajo-Millán, Yi [2019]; Ansari et al.[2019]; Koens, Postma, Papp [2018]; Martín, Guaita Martínez, Salinas Fernández [2018]
15.	Tourism Geographies	Gibson [2019]
16.	Tourism Management Perspectives	Joppe [2018]

Table 1 – cont.

No.	Journal	Author(s)
17.	Tourism Planning and Development	Namberger et al. [2019]; Panayiotopoulos, Pisano [2019]; Sarantakou, Terkenli [2019]; Smith, Pinke-Sziva, Olt [2019]; Taş Gürsoy [2019]; Milano, Novelli, Cheer [2019b]; Novy, Colomb [2019]
18.	Tourism Review	Butler [2019]; Fyall, Garrod [2019]; Muler, Coromina, Galí [2018]
19.	Worldwide Hospitality and Tourism Themes	Santander [2019]; Avond et al. [2019]; Maingi [2019]; Seraphin [2019a]; Gowreesunkar, Seraphin [2019a]; Mhanna, Blake, Jones [2019]; Bourliataux-Lajoinie et al.[2019]; Gowreesunkar, Seraphin [2019b]; Ait-Yahia Ghidouche, Ghidouche [2019]; Carballo, León, Carballo [2019]; Gowreesunkar, Seraphin, Teare [2019]; Akbulut, Ekin [2019]; Moisescu et al.[2019]; Veiga et al. [2018]; Butler [2018]; Costa, Montenegro, Gomes [2018]; Cardoso, Silva [2018]
20.	Zeitschrift für wirtschaftsgeographie	Benner [2019]

Source: personal collection.

ism (1), Annales Universitatis Mariae Curie-Skłodowska (1), Tourism Planning and Development (3), Journal of Destination Marketing and Management (1), Investigaciones Regionales (1), Tourism Review (1), Journal of Tourism Futures (1). The list of authors included 56 names, most of whom are affiliated with European universities. Taking into the geographic scope of the articles, the selected articles referred to issues of overtourism in Spain, Greece, Australia, Slovenia, Germany, Croatia, or in individual cities, e.g. Barcelona, Hamburg, Dubrovnik, Munich or the island of Santorini.

The selected articles were classified into two categories: review articles and research articles [Apanowicz 2002: 129]. For the purpose of this study, a third category was added – a review and research article – which refers to articles in which authors stated two goals: providing a broad review (discussion) of the literature and presenting their own study results.

The final part of the analysis consisted in determining the importance of the sharing economy in the discussion of overtourism. To this end, a four-level scale was proposed to facilitate the assessment:

– the sharing economy as the main/leading topic in the discussion of overtourism – the whole article is devoted to the phenomenon of the sharing economy,

Table 2. Overtourism articles in Scopus with 'sharing economy' – related terms

Year	Title	Authors	Terms related to sharing economy
2019	Tourism and degrowth: an emerging agenda for research and praxis	Robert Fletcher, Ivan Murray Mas, Asunción Blanco-Romero, Macià Blázquez-Salom	car-sharing (+ brief description of the Airbnb platform)
2019	The social construction of the tourism degrowth discourse in the Balearic Islands	Joaquín Valdivielso, Joan Moranta	sharing economy
2019	The dark side of digital technology to overtourism: the case of Barcelona	Stéphane Bourliataux-Lajoinie, Frederic Dosquet, Josep Lluís del Olmo Arriaga	sharing platforms
2019	Preventing Overtourism by Identifying the Determinants of Tourists' Choice of Attractions	Hugo Padrón-Ávila, Raúl Hernández-Martín	sharing economy
2019	The discourse on sustainable urban tourism: The need for discussing more than overtourism	Carlo Aall, Ko Koens	sharing economy
2019	Overtourism and the night-time economy: a case study of Budapest	Ivett Pinke-Sziva, Melanie Smith, Gergely Olt, Zombor Berezvai	sharing economy
2019	Urban tourism as a bone of contention: four explanatory hypotheses and a caveat	Johannes Novy	sharing economy, platform economy, home-sharing
2019	The Influence of Knowledge on Residents' Perceptions of the Impacts of Overtourism in P2PAccommodation Rental	Desiderio Gutiérrez-Taño, Joan B. Garau-Vadell, Ricardo J. Díaz-Armas	P2P, collaborative economy
2019	Residents' Attitudes towards Overtourism from the Perspective of Tourism Impacts and Cooperation – The Case of Ljubljana	Kir Kuščer, Tanja Mihalič	control Airbnb sharing
2019	Framing overtourism: a critical news media analysis	Giang Thi Phi	sharing platforms
2019	Overtourism: Between the Right to Travel and Residents' Rights	Dalia Perkumienė, Rasa Pranskūnienė	sharing economy
2019	Overtourism: A literature review to assess implications and future perspectives	Alessandro Capocchi, Cinzia Vallone, Mariarita Pierotti, Andrea Amaduzzi	sharing economy, P2P

Table 2 – cont.

Year	Title	Authors	Terms related to sharing economy
2019	Ways to counteract the negative effects of overtourism at tourist attractions and destinations	Zygmunt Kruczek	sharing economy
2019	Overcrowding, Overtourism and Local Level Disturbance: How Much Can Munich Handle?	Philipp Namberger, Sascha Jackisch, Jürgen Schmude, Marion Karl	sharing economy
2019	Overtourism Dystopias and Socialist Utopias: Towards an Urban Armature for Dubrovnik	Aggelos Panayiotopoulos, Carlo Pisano	sharing economy
2019	The Smart City Hospitality Framework: Creating a foundation for collaborative reflections on overtourism that support destination design	Ko Koens, Frans Melissen, Igor Mayer, Carlo Aall	sharing economy, share economy
2019	Non-Institutionalized Forms of Tourism Accommodation and Overtourism Impacts on the Landscape: The Case of Santorini, Greece	Efthymia Sarantakou, Theano S. Terkenli	sharing economy, home-sharing, sharing platforms, time-sharing economy
2019	Airbnb in the Byron Shire, Australia – bane or blessing?	Tania von der Heidt, Sabine Muschter, Rod Caldicott, Deborah Che	sharing economy, home-sharing, peer-to-peer (P2P),shared economy,
2019	The challenge of long-term tourism competitiveness in the age of innovation: Spain as a case study	Luis Moreno-Izquierdo, Ana Ramón-Rodríguez, María Jesús Such-Devesa	sharing economy,
2018	Sustainability as a key driver to address challenges	Célia Veiga, Margarida Custodio Santos, Paulo Águas, José Antonio C. Santos	sharing accommodation, sharing economy, home-sharing
2018	What challenges and opportunities will lead to success?	Jorge Costa, Monica Montenegro, João Gomes	circular economy, sharing economy
2018	Is overtourism overused? Understanding the impact of tourism in a city context	Ko Koens, Albert Postma, Bernadett Papp	sharing economy platforms, sharing economy accommodation platforms,
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	José María Martín Martín, Jose Manuel Guaita Martínez, José Antonio Salinas Fernández	sharing economy, collaborative economy, P2P (peer to peer)

Table 2 – cont.

Year	Title	Authors	Terms related to sharing economy
2017	Understanding and overcoming negative impacts of tourism in city destinations: conceptual model and strategic framework	Albert Postma, Dirk Schmuecker	sharing economy, sharing portals

Source: compiled from the Scopus database (as at December 6, 2019).

– the sharing economy as one of the main topics in the discussion of overtourism,

– the sharing economy as a secondary issue in the discussion of overtourism – the phenomenon is mentioned and briefly discussed,

– the sharing economy mentioned in the discussion of overtourism – the phenomenon is only mentioned as an example without being described in more detail.

The results of the analysis are presented in the next section.

4. The sharing economy in articles on overtourism

Overtourism is not a new phenomenon, but the topic has recently aroused great interest in the academic world [Padrón-Ávila, Hernández-Martín, 2019: 3], as evidenced by the number of articles published in 2019 [see Table 1]. Research still continues on how the phenomenon should be studied and, above all, what measures should be taken to prevent it and how to cope with it when it occurs. While causes and effects of the phenomenon may vary from area to area, most studies focus on overtourism in cities.

The analysis is divided into two parts. Table 3 lists the 24 articles indicating the type and providing a brief description of the study and the research method. Table 4 assesses the treatment of the sharing economy in the discussion of overtourism and indicates what geographical area the study concerned.

In terms of type, the selected articles are split more or less equally between the three categories: there are 7 research articles, 9 review and research articles and 8 review articles. Studies described in the first category of articles are mainly based on surveys conducted among local residents, guests or tourists [e.g. Pinke-Sziva et al. 2019: 1-16; Gutiérrez-Taño, Garau-Vadell, Díaz-Armas 2019: 1-17], but some authors carried out case studies based mainly on secondary research

Table 3. Basic characteristics of the reviewed articles

Title [author(s), year]	Article type (review, research, review and research)	Description of the study / research method
Tourism and degrowth: an emerging agenda for research and praxis [Fletcher et al. 2019]	review and research	Outlines a conceptual framework and research agenda for exploring the relationship between tourism and degrowth
The social construction of the tourism degrowth discourse in the Balearic Islands [Valdivielso, Moranta 2019]	review and research	Briefly analyses the debate around tourism degrowth in the 2014-2019 period and differentiates between two approaches.
The dark side of digital technology to overtourism: the case of Barcelona [Bourliataux-Lajoinie et al. 2019]	review and research	The article is based on secondary data (literature and online reviews) and a case study of Barcelona.
Preventing Overtourism by Identifying the Determinants of Tourists' Choice of Attractions [Padrón-Ávila, Hernández-Martín 2019]	review and research	The survey was carried out at Canary Island airports among tourists returning home. The survey conducted on the island of Lanzarote contains a question regarding visits to 11 tourist attractions on the island, which were selected by the destination management organization. First, a pilot study using contingency tables was applied to establish which variables could explain whether the attractions analysed were visited or not. Afterwards, 96 variables were chosen to carry out the analysis based on the results obtained and the literature review
The discourse on sustainable urban tourism: The need for discussing more than overtourism [Aall, Koens 2019]	review	Secondary research
Overtourism and the night-time economy: a case study of Budapest [Pinke-Sziva et al. 2019]	research	Methods used include mapping, observation, interviews and questionnaires with local residents, visitors and tourists.
Urban tourism as a bone of contention: four explanatory hypotheses and a caveat [Novy 2019]	review	A review of international sources to identify key themes relating to conflicts about and around tourism
The Influence of Knowledge on Residents' Perceptions of the Impacts of Overtourism in P2P Accommodation Rental [Gutiérrez-Taño, Garau-Vadell, Díaz-Armas 2019]	review and research	Data from a convenience sample collected using self-administered questionnaires

Table 3 – cont.

Title [author(s), year]	Article type (review, research, review and research)	Description of the study / research method
Residents' Attitudes towards Overtourism from the Perspective of Tourism Impacts and Cooperation–The Case of Ljubljana [Kuščer, Mihalič 2019]	review and research	Combines the existing theoretical framework on sustainability–responsibility tourism with current industry research on overtourism in order to propose a sustainable tourism impact and stakeholder cooperation based on the overtourism risk monitoring model.
Framing overtourism: a critical news media analysis [Phi 2019]	review	Content analysis (202 news articles)
Overtourism: Between the Right to Travel and Residents' Rights [Perkumienė, Pranskūnienė 2019]	review	A review of the scientific literature and legal document
Overtourism: A literature review to assess implications and future perspectives [Capocchi et al. 2019b]	review	Exploratory study, literature review
Ways to counteract the negative effects of overtourism at tourist attractions and destinations [Kruczek 2019]	review and research	Review of literature, review of media reports, observation of phenomena described in social media
Overcrowding, Overtourism and Local Level Disturbance: How Much Can Munich Handle? [Namberger et al. 2019]	research	Door-to-door household survey, media analysis and own observations The sample included adult residents (aged 18 and older) of the city of Munich. 54 addresses were randomly selected from all possible addresses in the city. At these address, households were selected using the random walk technique. In each sampled household respondents were randomly selected based on the birthday selection technique to keep the door-to-door household survey simple.
Overtourism Dystopias and Socialist Utopias: Towards an Urban Armature for Dubrovnik [Panayiotopoulos, Pisano 2019]	research	Rapid or quick ethnography methods involving observations and field visits. It was an exploratory study following an interdisciplinary approach focusing on tourism development research and urban planning in the city of Dubrovnik. The study examined tourism, architecture and urban design in order to determine the impact of overtourism in Dubrovnik and also design an alternative urban plan, containing proposed interventions with practical implications.

Table 3 – cont.

Title [author(s), year]	Article type (review, research, review and research)	Description of the study / research method
The Smart City Hospitality Framework: Creating a foundation for collaborative reflections on overtourism that support destination design [Koens et al. 2019]	review and research	Literature review, 60 interviews with key stakeholders, participant observation, a Q-sort study and serious-gaming stakeholder workshops based on a serious game specifically developed for this purpose.
Non-Institutionalized Forms of Tourism Accommodation and Overtourism Impacts on the Landscape: The Case of Santorini, Greece [Sarantakou, Terkenli 2019]	research	A case study of Santorini, empirical research, an overview of the legal framework and related national and sectoral policies, statistical data, participant observation, surveys
Airbnb in the Byron Shire, Australia – bane or blessing? [von der Heidt et al. 2019]	research	Qualitative in-depth semi-structured interviews
The challenge of long-term tourism competitiveness in the age of innovation: Spain as a case study [Moreno-Izquierdo, Ramón-Rodríguez, Such-Devesa 2019]	review	Literature review
Sustainability as a key driver to address challenges [Veiga et al. 2018]	review	Review of academic, institutional and trade literature
What challenges and opportunities will lead to success? [Costa, Montenegro, Gomes 2018]	review	The authors formulate the strategic question and review of the literature
Is overtourism overused? Understanding the impact of tourism in a city context [Koens, Postma, Papp 2018]	review and research	Qualitative investigation based on interviews with 80 stakeholders in 13 European cities
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 [Martín, Guaita Martínez, Salinas Fernández 2018]	research	Case study of Barcelona, a literature review
Understanding and overcoming negative impacts of tourism in city destinations: conceptual model and strategic framework [Postma, Schmuecker 2017]	research	Secondary research

Source: personal collection.

Table 4. The treatment of the sharing economy in the discussion of overtourism with the indication of the geographic scope

Title [author(s), year]	Treatment of the sharing economy (mention, secondary topic, one of the main topics, main topic)	Geographic scope of the study
Tourism and degrowth: an emerging agenda for research and praxis [Fletcher et al. 2019]	secondary topic	examples from different cities
The social construction of the tourism degrowth discourse in the Balearic Islands [Valdivielso, Moranta 2019]	one of the main topics	Balearic Islands
The dark side of digital technology to overtourism: the case of Barcelona [Bourliataux-Lajoinie et al. 2019]	secondary topic	case study: Barcelona; examples also from around the world
Preventing Overtourism by Identifying the Determinants of Tourists' Choice of Attractions [Padrón-Ávila, Hernández-Martín 2019]	mention	Lanzarote
The discourse on sustainable urban tourism: The need for discussing more than overtourism [Aall, Koens 2019]	mention	–
Overtourism and the night-time economy: a case study of Budapest [Pinke-Sziva et al. 2019]	mention	Budapest
Urban tourism as a bone of contention: four explanatory hypotheses and a caveat [Novy 2019]	secondary topic	examples from different cities
The Influence of Knowledge on Residents' Perceptions of the Impacts of Overtourism in P2P Accommodation Rental [Gutiérrez-Taño, Garau-Vadell, Díaz-Armas 2019]	main topic	Mallorca
Residents' Attitudes towards Overtourism from the Perspective of Tourism Impacts and Cooperation– The Case of Ljubljana [Kuščer, Mihalič 2019]	secondary	Ljubljana + examples from different cities
Framing overtourism: a critical news media analysis [Phi 2019]	mention	–
Overtourism: Between the Right to Travel and Residents' Rights [Perkumienė, Pranskūnienė 2019]	secondary topic	examples from different cities
Overtourism: A literature review to assess implications and future perspectives [Capocchi et al. 2019b]	mention	–

Table 4 – cont.

Title [author(s), year]	Treatment of the sharing economy (mention, secondary topic, one of the main topics, main topic)	Geographic scope of the study
Ways to counteract the negative effects of overtourism at tourist attractions and destinations [Kruczek 2019]	mention	Cracow, examples of attractions and tourist destinations from Poland and the world
Overcrowding, Overtourism and Local Level Disturbance: How Much Can Munich Handle? [Namberger et al. 2019]	secondary topic	Munich
Overtourism Dystopias and Socialist Utopias: Towards an Urban Armature for Dubrovnik [Panayiotopoulos, Pisano 2019]	secondary topic	Dubrovnik
The Smart City Hospitality Framework: Creating a foundation for collaborative reflections on overtourism that support destination design [Koens et al. 2019]	mention	six European cities
Non-Institutionalized Forms of Tourism Accommodation and Overtourism Impacts on the Landscape: The Case of Santorini, Greece [Sarantakou, Terkenli 2019]	one of the main topics	Santorini
Airbnb in the Byron Shire, Australia – bane or blessing? [von der Heidt et al. 2019]	main topic	Byron Shire – Australia
The challenge of long-term tourism competitiveness in the age of innovation: Spain as a case study [Moreno-Izquierdo, Ramón-Rodríguez, Such-Devesa 2019]	mention	Spain
Sustainability as a key driver to address challenges [Veiga et al. 2018]	secondary topic	–
What challenges and opportunities will lead to success? [Costa, Montenegro, Gomes 2018]	mention	–
Is overtourism overused? Understanding the impact of tourism in a city context [Koens, Postma, Papp 2018]	mention	examples from different cities
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 [Martín, Guaita Martínez, Salinas Fernández 2018]	one of the main topics	Barcelona
Understanding and overcoming negative impacts of tourism in city destinations: conceptual model and strategic framework [Postma, Schmuecker 2017]	secondary topic	Hamburg

Source: personal compilation.

or observation data. Many authors combined a literature review with their own study, e.g. observation of participants during events, protests, public debates, informal conversations combined with the analysis of the literature, reports, books [Valdivielso, Moranta 2019: 1876-1892]. The articles mainly address social aspects, but some highlight the negative impact of overtourism on the natural environment [Veiga et al. 2018].

Table 4 presents the assessment of how the sharing economy is approached in the discussion of overtourism in the analysed articles. Only in five cases is it the main topic or one of the main topics [Valdivielso, Moranta 2019: 1876-1892; Gutiérrez-Taño, Garau-Vadell, Díaz-Armas 2019: 1-17; Sarantakou, Terkenli 2019: 411-433; von der Heidt et al. 2019; Martín, Guaita Martínez, Salinas Fernández 2018: 1-18]. In the remaining articles, the sharing economy is either merely mentioned as an example or a cause of overtourism [e.g. Padrón-Ávila, Hernández-Martín 2019: 1-17; Aall, Koens 2019: 1-12; Novy 2019: 63-74].

Some articles discussed the phenomenon of overtourism more generally, without focusing on specific examples [e.g. Veiga et al. 2018: 662-673; Capocchi et al. 2019b: 1-18]. However, the majority of articles focus on a specific area, e.g. the island of Santorini [Sarantakou, Terkenli 2019: 411-433], Byron Shire in New South Wales [von der Heidt et al. 2019], the Balearic Islands [Valdivielso, Moranta 2019: 1876-1892]. It is noteworthy that most authors describe the phenomenon of overtourism in the context of a specific city, e.g. Budapest [Pinke-Sziva et al. 2019: 1-16]; Ljubljana [Kuščer, Mihalič 2019: 1-16]. Of course, many articles refer to Barcelona and Venice, which are stereotypical examples of the sharing economy and overtourism [e.g. Phi 2019: 3; Aall, Koens 2019: 8]. In addition to the dominant share of European examples, other tourist destinations are also analysed, providing enough evidence to conclude that overtourism and the sharing economy can be found all over the world, and the number of affected destinations keeps increasing.

The authors discuss the causes and effects of both phenomena [among others Moreno-Izquierdo, Ramón-Rodríguez, Such-Devesa 2019: 13-34]. However, there are also articles discussing possible countermeasures. J. Valdivielso and J. Moranta, describing the situation in the Balearic Islands, indicate that "Tourism inspections face constant scrutiny from public opinion and some multinationals, such as Tripadvisor or Airbnb, have been fined for advertising illegal tourist accommodation, moreover, the municipality of Palma – where pressure from residents has been constant – has maintained a ban on holiday rentals in residential apartments" [2019: 1885]. The authors also point out that "the results provide useful information for public and private managers involved in evenly reallocating tourist flows in time and space to avoid the negative impacts of overtourism", referring to the situation in the island of Lanzarote [Padrón-Ávila, Hernández-Martín 2019: 1]. In their article, I. Pinke-Sziva et al. [2019: 1-16] make recommendations for improving the management of the night-time economy (NTE) in order to improve the experience for tourists and visitors and the quality of life for local residents, describing the so-called "party quarter" of Budapest. K. Kuščer, T. Mihalič address the monitoring of the risk of overtourism for destinations, which requires the understanding of factors that contribute to overtourism [2019: 1-16]. The study conducted by D. Perkumienė and R. Pranskūnienė shows "the importance of rethinking the concept of sustainability in tourism as a holistic principle of democracy, and as a degrowth movement" [2019: 1-17]. The regulations they describe are introduced mainly at the local level, with the exception of Dubrovnik, which, as a UNESCO world heritage site, must comply with its requirements [Panayiotopoulos, Pisano 2019: 393-410].

Some of the authors discuss overtourism in the context of sustainability [Aall, Koens 2019: 1-12; Koens, Postman, Papp 2018: 1-15; Capocchi et al. 2019b: 1-18], indicating that the phenomenon in question is a manifestation of a conflict between the concern for sustainable development and the quality of life for local residents on the one hand and the development of the tourism industry and the satisfaction of visitors.

5. Conclusion

This purpose of the study was to analyse the treatment of the sharing economy in articles addressing the problem of overtourism. The authors conducted an in-depth analysis of articles that address both issues. The Scopus database (as at December 6, 2019) contained 76 works in which the term 'overtourism' appeared in the title, abstract, or keywords. 24 of those articles refer to the phenomenon of the sharing economy, but only 5 treat it as the main topic or one of the main topics. After analysing the short-listed articles it can be concluded state that in the discussion of overtourism the sharing economy is considered to be one of many factors contributing to the emergence of overtourism. At the same time, these phenomena are usually described separately. According to some authors [e.g. Padrón-Ávila, Hernández-Martín 2019: 1-17; Aall, Koens 2019: 1-12; Novy 2019: 63-74], the spread of unregulated tourist accommodation and the uncontrolled popularity of sharing platforms are often given as the causes of overtourism. H. Goodwin [2017] believes that sharing platforms (mainly Airbnb) create problems in the housing market, causing rents to rise and residents to be priced out of housing districts [Goodwin 2017: 5].

Another thing worth noting are the recommendations given by the authors of the analysed articles. For example, Novy [2019: 63-74] indicates that "Tourism's current problematisation and politicisation in cities constitutes a research frontier with a wide-open landscape to explore and it goes without saying that the issues this commentary has focused on are not the only ones worthy of attention. But they hopefully will provide orientation and inspiration as we try to make better sense of the rise of urban tourism as a source of discontent and dispute. Doing so will require further in-depth single case and comparative analyses concerning cities and places within them in which tourism-related conflicts in cities can be observed, but, crucially, would also benefit from more engagement with heavily visited urban environments in which these conflicts are absent or at least appear significantly less pronounced." G. Phi emphasizes that "there is a need to explore responsibilities of diverse tourism actors in addressing overtourism, along with discussions on alternatives to the pro-growth paradigm and the industrial workhome-travel model that fuel modern mass tourism" [Phi 2019: 1]. It is also recommended that the problem of overtourism should be solved "by working together and by striving to develop sustainable tourism goals, thus balancing the right to travel and the residents' rights" [Perkumienė, Pranskūnienė 2019: 13-14].

Finally, a note on some limitations of the study. The obvious one, which the authors are fully aware of, is related to the nature of the sample. Firstly, the analysis covered only articles available in the Scopus database. Secondly, the criterion for selection was the presence of the word 'overtourism' in the title, abstract or key words. This means that the analysis may have overlooked other articles addressing the problem but not mentioning this term.

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Zagadnienie *sharing economy* w dyskusji o nadmiernej turystyce (na podstawie bazy Scopus)

Streszczenie. Rozwój sektora turystycznego oraz nowych trendów sprawił, że liczba podróżujących stale się powiększa. Prowadzi to do powstawania innowacji turystycznych takich jak *sharing economy* oraz zjawisk takich jak *overtourism*. Stają się one przedmiotem wielu badań podejmowanych coraz częściej w ostatnich latach. Niniejszy artykuł ma na celu analizę dyskusji na temat overtourismu związanej ze zjawiskiem *sharing economy*. Autorki sprawdziły, jaką funkcję pełni *sharing economy* w dyskusji naukowej o overtourismie. Praca opiera się na niewyczerpującym przeglądzie literatury dotyczącej overtourismu. Wykorzystano publikacje dostępne w bazie Scopus (udostępnione przez Elsevier). Pogłębiona analiza obejmuje artykuły naukowe, które odnoszą się do obu kwestii.

Słowa kluczowe: *overtourism* (nadmierna turystyka), *sharing economy*, Scopus, turystyka, badania w dziedzinie turystyki

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Multimedia Education in Motor Learning and Teaching: the Development of Skiing Technique

Abstract. The aim of this article is to identify the benefits of multimedia education and its application in the process of motor learning and teaching. This descriptive study is based on the review of the literature and other authors' research results. The use of multimedia tools in psychomotor education can facilitate the visualisation of motor activities and the creation of a motor program. The use of multimedia education in the teaching of downhill skiing can help students achieve good results.

Keywords: motor learning, multimedia education, multimedia textbook, skiing

1. Introduction

The last two decades have brought many significant political, social, and technological changes. One of them is the technological transformation, particularly in information transmission, handling, and processing, and its use for the modernization of the multi-channel communication process. These changes are evidenced by various indicators, including the number of global Internet users, which has already exceeded 4.5 billion,[1] i.e. 60% of the world population. In 2016,

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[1] Source: http://internetworldstats.com/stats.htm [accessed: 15.09.2019].

more than 80%[2] of households in Poland had a computer with Internet access. One can expect that this technological development will soon enable accelerated progress in every sphere of science and life.

The above changes also drive the evolution in the learning and teaching process.

The impact of information and communication technologies on the lives of people all over the world, especially on the young generation (the so-called generation Y and C) is also significant. Our present society is described as an information society or a knowledge society, which has created a knowledge-based economy populated by knowledge organizations [Nowak 2008; Senge 2012]. The new media have created a new type of human being – a student – a digital native [Prensky 2001], for whom the technological world has no secrets, where he or she feels comfortable and which is their natural environment [Morbitzer 2011]. Neurologists believe that new technologies have caused changes in the brain's neural networks, as a result of which our way of thinking has shifted from linear to network-based and multi-threaded [Small, Vorgan 2009]. This brings a number of positive and negative consequences. One should keep in mind that the new media are merely tools and it is up to people how they are used. The role of the "new school" and the "new teacher" today is primarily to derive positive effects from the use of technology and to search for reasonable compromises on how it is used. In the context of new expectations and challenges faced by modern education, the teacher may need appropriate competences, such as, for example, creative or IT skills [Umiastowska 2001, 2004].

The dynamics of changes in the processing of information and social communication call for modifications to the teaching methods, including in the field of physical education. The search for effective teaching methods in physical education prompts us to support our teaching with technology – in this case multimedia education in the form of a multimedia textbook, for example.

The majority of research on the use of new information and communication technologies in education relates mainly to the sphere of theoretical school and academic subjects as well as industry-specific courses. There is little research on the physical culture, especially in the area of motor learning and teaching. This fact provokes reflection on the modification of didactic methods and the use of new tools in psychomotor teaching. The information potential of digital media may improve the effectiveness of how motor activities are learned and taught.

The goal of the article is to demonstrate the importance of multimedia education in the process of motor learning and teaching. The practical purpose of

[2] Source: http://stat.gov.pl/obszary-tematyczne/nauka-i-technika-spoleczenstwo-informacyjne/spoleczenstwo-informacyjne/spoleczenstwo-informacyjne-w-polsce-w-2016-roku,2,6.html [accessed: 10.04.2017].

the study is to exemplify the application of multimedia education in the development of the skiing technique. The article consists of three sections. The first one presents the theoretical assumptions of multimedia education. The second section describes a multimedia textbook as a teaching tool. The third section discusses selected problems of motor learning and teaching in the development of the skiing technique.

2. Theoretical foundations of multimedia education

The theory of multimedia education is widely described in the literature [Bednarek 2006; Gulińska 2012; Siemieniecki, 2003, 2007; Walat 2004, 2007]. It derives from the trend in cognitive theories of learning and teaching (cognitive & constructivist), which are based, among others, on information processing, memory, and concentration. One of the basic concepts invoked in this context is memory. It is defined as "a relatively permanent record of experience that underlies learning" [Anderson 1998: 22]. Cognitive learning theories are based on the warehouse model of memory, which distinguishes three types of memory: sensory memory (STSS – Short-Term Sensory Store), short-term memory (STM – Short-Term Memory), and long-term memory (LTM – Long-Term Memory).

Multimedia meet current expectations of students and teachers. They can effectively strengthen the learning process, especially perception, repetition, and semantic coding, i.e. storing and retrieving information from long-term memory [Walat 2007]. Multimedia content enables simultaneous processing of visual and auditory information. It facilitates a more complete mapping of reality and corresponds to the natural process of human learning about the world [Paivio 1986]. We can talk about the multi-sensory reception of multimedia content. The same information is sent through two (not one) perception channels to the memory. Such multi-channel information transmission can potentially increase the learning and teaching effects. The double coding model proposed by Paivio [1986] shows that two separate, but interrelated systems – verbal and nonverbal (called the imaginary system) – are involved in the cognitive processes. They are responsible for coding, storing, organizing, transforming, and retrieving information. The non-verbal perceptual stimuli are processed and coded directly in the imaginary system (in the form of *imagens*, visual mappings) and indirectly, in the verbal system (in the form of *logogens*, verbal mappings.) Similarly, in the case of verbal stimuli, the order is opposite.

The storage model of memory is complemented by Anderson's ACT (*Adaptive Character of Thought*) theory, which distinguishes three types of memory: declarative, procedural and working memory. The declarative and procedural memories are permanent memories. The declarative memory (the so-called "that" knowledge) contains information about facts and events that are stored in verbal form or can easily be verbalized. The procedural memory (the so-called "how" knowledge) contains procedures and programs for mental and motor activities, which are commonly called skills. These include motor skills (e.g. skiing) or cognitive skills [Włodarski 1996; Nęcka, Orzechowski, Szymura 2008; Gerrig, Zimbardo 2012].

In order to define the concept of multimedia education, one need to clarify the constituent concepts. The term 'multimedia' consists of two words: 'multi' (Latin word for '*many*') and 'medium' (Latin word for '*center*'.) In the field of pedagogy, the media are didactic aids [Kameduła 2000: 238], all objects that convey specific information (messages) through words, images and sound, enabling intellectual and manual actions [Strykowski 1996].

Multimedia education is an example of educational technology and it is defined as the concept of the teaching, learning, or self-education process, which involves the comprehensive use of functionally selected traditional and modern teaching aids (multimedia) [Bednarek 2006: 85]. Multimedia education is the process of multi-channel (polysensory) teaching – learning, which affects the student at multiple levels, not only by means of verbal signs, but also using visual and audio inputs [Walat 2007].

Didactic aids include material, complementary objects that enrich didactic activity, whose main goal is to optimize the teaching-learning process [Okoń 2003: 275] through the sense of sight, hearing, or touch, and help students to learn about the reality directly or indirectly [Kupisiewicz 1994]. The literature provides many classifications of teaching aids, including natural, technical, symbolic; simple and complex; traditional and modern; visual, auditory, and polysensory, unidirectional and omnidirectional [Strykowski 1984, 1990; Skrzydlewski 1990; Perch 2003; Siemieniecki 2007].

3. The multimedia textbook as a teaching tool

A multimedia textbook is an application of modern technology to teaching. It is a digital tool that contains multimedia and hypertext structures. Walat [2004] defines it as a multimodal text (i.e. requiring polysensory reception), which is an integrated collection of various methodical support materials, with special emphasis on audiovisual content, with a uniform structure, where highlighted elements contain hyperlinks. Hypertext is an element of a multimedia textbook. It is a kind of a non-linear medium of information with links that can be activated by the reader [Kerckhove 2001] to choose an individual path of navigating through the information resources. Hypertext containing links to multimedia content, such as video or audio, is sometimes referred to as hypermedia.

Instructional videos are an important component of a multimedia textbook. The purpose of such videos is to achieve specific learning objectives by providing content presented according to a specific program and according to pedagogical principles (i.e. content includes specific teaching materials and is adapted to certain student characteristics), which is part of a specific teaching process [Strykowski 1984: 160]. The most important feature of an instructional video is that it enables to record body movements. Research has shown the significance of the intentional and skilful use of instructional videos in the process of motor teaching; they help learners, among other things, to create an internal representation of movement (and thus aid in its execution) and provide additional motivation [Wiesner 1991]. Instructional videos are the only educational media that enable students to acquire practical skills without a direct demonstration by the teacher [Jędryczkowski 2010]. This is particularly important in the teaching and learning of motor activities. Instructional videos embedded in hypertext structures of a multimedia textbook can be repeatedly watched by the student, at various speeds (including freeze frames), at any time, which helps to individualize the learning process. Nowadays instructional videos are gaining a new significance. They can be easily created, edited and displayed on many devices (smartphones, tablets, laptops, etc.). Because videos can easily be embedded in hypertext structures (textbooks) and published online, they can be called a hypermedium. The popularization and universal access to digital video playback and recording tools, the ability to create high-quality video materials (high definition), the ability to use and edit recorded material in computer applications – are additional arguments in favour of using video technology in motor teaching [Wiesner et al. 2010].

The multimedia textbook has many advantages, such as individualization of the learning process, interactivity, the ease of modifying and correcting existing content or adding new content.

With regard to cognitive theories of learning and teaching, it can be argued that multimedia aids can help to better "anchor" new information in memory by arousing curiosity, reframing new content in familiar terms, using many perception channels, combining new information with known sensory perceptions [Vester 2006; Siemieniecki 2007; Walat 2007].

The use of multimedia education is commonly discussed in research. Most studies, however, concern the learning and teaching of intellectual content, mainly related to conceptual (semantic) knowledge.

Many studies have long confirmed the effectiveness of learning and teaching supported by new technologies. Studies have shown that multimedia education, compared to traditional education, improves efficiency, understanding of the subject, reduces misunderstandings of the knowledge transferred, saves time, increases the pace of teaching and the breadth of assimilated knowledge [Adams 1992; Steinbrink 1993]. A review of research conducted by other authors makes it possible to identify four main factors that determine the effectiveness of multimedia education: the possibility of individual management of the didactic process by the student, the ability to receive immediate feedback, high educational interactivity, and the ability to adapt the pace of teaching to the student's preferences [Bodemer et al. 2004; Domagk Schwartz, Plass 2010; Doaa Abd El-Moneim 2014].

The learning and teaching of motor activities is governed by the same general principles that apply to intellectual content learning [Czabański 1998, 2000; Anderson 1998; Hotz, Weineck 1988]. Based on the above assumption, it is reasonable to investigate the use of multimedia in the field of physical education (for the purpose of motor learning and teaching)

4. Selected problems of motor learning and teaching as exemplified by the development of the skiing technique

The process of motor learning and teaching has been widely presented in the existing literature. Movement is a visible shift of body parts in relation to each other or to external objects. In the literature the term 'motor activities' refers to movements that are conscious, purposeful, and free [Czyż 2013]. We can perform motor activities thanks to the skills we acquire in the process of learning. Motor skills we learn are specific (intended for a specific task), consistently performed goal-oriented movements [McMorris 2004: 2]. Therefore, the acquired motor skills determine the performance of the movement itself. One can talk about skills when a motor activity is performed correctly in subsequent repetitions (i.e. it looks similar or identical each time).

The process of learning motor activities refers to changes that take place in the human motor skills and involves sensory reception of information about a previously unknown movement from the environment, the mental processing of this information, the performance of the movement, and checking the effectiveness of this performance [Czabański 1980: 10]. Schmidt and Wrisberg [2009] define motor learning as exercise or experience processes that lead to relatively permanent changes in motor skills. The effectiveness of these processes depends on sensory and mental cognition as well as on active practice [Umiastowska 1998]. Thus, they can be regarded as cognitive processes, synonymous with general learning. In line with trends in cognitive theories of learning and teaching, we can assume that motor learning is also based on information processing, memory, and concentration mechanisms. According to Anderson's ACT theory, procedural knowledge corresponds to skills (motor skills), and procedural knowledge acquisition corresponds to the acquisition of motor skills [Anderson 1998]. According to Fitts and Posner [1967], Anderson [1998], and Schmidt and Wrisberg [2009], motor learning takes place in three stages: cognitive (verbal-cognitive), associative (motor), and autonomous (independent). According to Pöhlmann's "learning spiral" [1985], we learn motor activities by repeating constant phases, at progressively higher levels, where the following stages can be distinguished: reception and pre-selection of information based on previous experiences, information processing – analysis and evaluation, planning and mental visualisation of motor activities, programming and determining the sequence (algorithm – program) of movements, execution of physical activity (program implementation), control (evaluation), and comparison of the result with the pre-set goal [Czabański 2000; Petryński 2008]. Czajkowski [2004] also refers to the above principles; he distinguishes four stages of movement habit learning: visualisation of a movement, mastering the basic structure of the movement, automating and consolidating the habit.

In the cognitive context, information plays an important role in the teaching and learning of motor activities [Czabański 2000]. Properly transmitted, actively and consciously received information leads to a greater involvement of thought processes in the student [Czabański 1998; Gracz, Sankowski 2000]. When the movement is described, its mental image is created in the imagination. Visualisation of motor activity is "key to the efficient teaching" of the movement [Pöhlmann 1985]. The significance and usefulness of visualization in the process of teaching and learning motor activity is evidenced by results of pedagogical experiments carried out in sports disciplines such as swimming [Wiesner 1991; Guła-Kubiszewska 1993; Dybińska 2004] and downhill skiing [Lesiewski 1995; Parnicki 1998]. Ideomotorics is the mental anticipation of motor activity, e.g. visualization of the ski turn before performing it. Studies have shown that the mere idea of movement is enough to evoke it slightly [Puni 1975]. There are three functions of motor visualization: programming, training, and regulating. In motor learning, the following functions are particularly important: programming (the student imagines the purpose and manner of performing an activity on the basis of visual, verbal, and kinaesthetic information) and the regulating function (the possibility to control and correct the activity in practice by imagining how to perform it). One way how motor ideas can be used in motor learning is mental practice. It involves practicing a motor activity by imagining it, i.e. exercising at the cognitive level without physical exercise [Czyż 2013]. Mental exercise is a mental (cognitive) repetition of the movement [Magill 2007].

Motor imaginations lead to the formation of a mental plan – motor memory. The mental plan is a representation of an action and the algorithm of movements, or a set of pointers that help to perform this action [Czabański 1998: 101]. The mental plan is created on the basis of verbal, visual and kinaesthetic information. The correct mental plan of a motor activity is greatly influenced by the amount of knowledge acquired in the form of verbal instruction, description of the activity structure, demonstration, and explanation of the effective performance of the action. Most often, such knowledge is provided by the teacher and teaching aids (materials).

The existence of an internal representation of motor activity (mental plan) is confirmed by schematic theory [Schmidt, Wrisberg 2009], in which a motor program is an important link. This theory is based on earlier achievements of Adams [1971], the creator of the closed loop theory. Schmidt distinguishes between two mechanisms responsible for the acquisition and control of motor activities: the open loop mechanism – for very short motor activities (i.e. less than 0.2 seconds), the closed loop mechanism – for longer motor activities (i.e. over 0.2 seconds). It is assumed that at the initial stage of motor learning, most movements are performed by employing the closed-loop mechanism. The student is focused, performs an activity slowly with utmost diligence monitoring the spatial structure of the movement, his attention is focused on performance, with a great involvement of consciousness [Czyż 2013]. Anderson claims that the closed-loop phase includes the most conscious and intended processes of the cognitive and associative stage [Anderson 1998: 384]. According to this view, motor learning process can be regarded as an intellectual (cognitive) process.

According to Schmidt, the motor program is "a structure containing (defining) important details of the motor activity (skilful movement), centrally located (in the central nervous system) [Schmidt 1991: 285]. Anderson [1998: 382] defines the motor program as a pre-determined sequence of actions". According to Anderson [1998: 382], the process of learning a complex activity can be broken down into learning smaller sequences that make up this activity. The motor program is therefore an internal representation of the motor activity.

This articles focuses on the development of the skiing technique, which involves mastering motor activities on a snow slope in a specific natural environment. However, the correct skiing technique is difficult to master [Sankowski 2001]. It is characterized by considerable technical complexity [Zatoń 1996; Gracz, Sankowski 2000], and involves a specific body posture that deviates from everyday motion experiences, and forms of motor coordination unnatural for the average person [Ziemilski 1977; Zatoń 1996]. The ability to perform individual ski evolutions (e.g. semi-plough turn, angular extension turn, etc.) is of an extremely technical nature [Zatoń 1996]. During one continuous movement (slip) the skier must perform a number of motor activities including bending, straightening and rotation of the legs, driving the stick, moving the centre of gravity in different planes. They all make up the so-called sports technique (skiing technique). In the context of didactics, a sports technique is a specific manner of performing a physical activity that requires the least amount of effort and ensures maximum effectiveness [Czabański 1998].

According to the literature, the effectiveness of the process of learning and teaching skiing techniques depends on a number of factors, such as physical (including motor skills), mental (intelligence, personality, knowledge – the correctness of motor visualisations, motivation level, emotional states), tactical-material (teaching aids, equipment, environment, and surroundings) [Blachura, Lesiewski, Kunysz 2008]. Physical factors include sports aptitude, motor capabilities, and motor skills. Specific skiing conditions (natural environment, weather conditions, terrain) and the occurrence of slip could prove difficult for many beginners. Emotional states strongly influence the motor learning process. They are a kind of filter for environmental (physical, social) information, which limits the student's perception [Czabański 1998]. Emotions can affect information processing and the process of creating mental plans and programs. This is particularly true of anxiety, which can interfere with or even prevent learning [Koszczyc, Kowalska 1998; Wieczorek, Lesiewski 1998]. Learning and teaching skiing techniques is a deliberate process. In order to achieve the goal, the student's desire in this respect must be properly stimulated. This is done by appropriately selecting tactical factors to improve the effectiveness of teaching and ensure success. These tactical factors include terrain and its configuration, type of snow, ski runs, ski equipment, as well as teaching aids, such as equipment used on the slopes, traditional and modern textbooks, and technical teaching aids forming part of modern information and communication technology.

5. Summary

The task of the ski instructor is to create appropriate conditions, choose appropriate methods and aids to effectively teach the student the skiing technique. A methodology of skiing instruction is the specific way in which a given teacher works with students helping them to acquire the necessary knowledge, develop mental programs and finally master the target motor skills that they can then apply in practice. The methods answer the question of "how to teach", i.e. what activities and aids to choose in order to achieve the intended teaching results [Umiastowska 1998].

The processes of learning and teaching skiing techniques are cognitive processes. The ability to reproduce motor activity (e.g. angular widening turn) depends to a large extent on the existence of an internal representation of the movement that is created by verbal, visual, and kinaesthetic information received by the student. Because of that, it is very important to supplement demonstrations with verbal explanations using a variety of teaching aids to transfer information (including modern multimedia).

Multimedia textbooks can play an important role in the effective process of psychomotor education. They provide attractive and interactive forms of information transfer (e.g. description of the activity structure, demonstration, explanation of performance) that enable effective teaching and learning of motor activities. The use of a multimedia textbook can therefore help to create an internal representation of a motor activity, and an appropriate action program (motor schema). The multimedia textbook can play an important role in specialist ski instruction, where detailed information on motor activity is important (explanation of performance). The attractiveness and interactivity of movement information and the form of a multimedia textbook can have an equally significant and positive impact on learning outcomes in children and adolescents, where the level of motivation is an important factor. This aspect may prove important in students from Y and C generations ("digital natives"), including those with low physical activity or not physically active.

Most textbooks used for learning and teaching the skiing technique still have a traditional (paper) form. Some include a DVD with instructional material. Despite the available technologies, there is still a shortage of well-developed multimedia textbooks. From a practical point of view, using a multimedia textbook for teaching and learning skiing skills can have many benefits, including:

– multisensory transfer of information can effectively increase the level of knowledge about the proper performance of a movement (e.g. parallel turn) and the correctness of motor schemas (mental representations),

– a didactic video (real-time and slow motion) in a multimedia textbook with interactive photo sequences can be a perfect supplement to demonstrations made by the instructor on a ski slope,

– interactivity can increase student involvement, activity and motivation,

– the individualization of learning supports the teaching process in situations where it is not possible to organize lectures with big groups of students (e.g. ski courses in the mountains),

– depending on student needs, multimedia textbooks can be used on various devices: laptops, tablets, smartphones and distributed offline (e.g. flash memory) or online (e.g. cloud server, e-learning form).

Therefore, the use of multimedia education in the teaching of skiing can be an effective help in achieving good learning outcomes.

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Kształcenie multimedialne w uczeniu się i nauczaniu motorycznym na przykładzie techniki jazdy na nartach

Streszczenie. Celem pracy jest identyfikacja wartości kształcenia multimedialnego oraz możliwości jego wykorzystania w procesie uczenia się i nauczania motorycznego. Praca ma charakter opisowy, opiera się na przeglądzie literatury i wynikach badań innych autorów. Zastosowanie narzędzi multimedialnych w kształceniu psychomotorycznym może zapewnić dobre warunki tworzenia wyobrażeń motorycznych i programu czynności ruchowych. Wykorzystanie kształcenia multimedialnego przez nauczyciela w nauczaniu narciarstwa zjazdowego może stanowić skuteczną pomoc w osiąganiu właściwych efektów przez ucznia.

Słowa kluczowe: uczenie się i nauczanie motoryczne, kształcenie multimedialne, podręcznik multimedialny, narciarstwo

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  – 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
- umieszczone w tekście w nawiasach kwadratowych: nazwisko autora/redaktora, rok, strony:
  [Meyer 2010: 31-40] lub [Dubisz (red.) 2003: t. 3, 104]
- jeśli autorów jest więcej niż trzech, należy podać tylko nazwisko pierwszego z nich, a po nim: i in.:
  [Kaczmarek i in. 2005: 56-67]
- jeśli brak nazwiska autora/redaktora, należy podać kilka pierwszych słów tytułu książki/dokumentu:
  [Zmiana studium uwarunkowań 2008]
- jeśli przywoływane są raporty, analizy itp., to należy podać nazwę instytucji i rok:
  [Eurostat 2014] lub: [GUS 2015]
- w przypisie można zawrzeć dodatkowe informacje, np.:
  [por. Hadzik 2009: 38] lub: [cyt. za Szromek 2010: 52]
- jeśli odwołanie dotyczy więcej niż jednej publikacji, należy je wymienić w kolejności chronologicznej:
  [Mansfeld 1987: 101-123; Jagusiewicz 2001: 40-73; Meyer 2010: 89-101]
- jeśli autor wydał w danym roku więcej niż jedną publikację, to po dacie należy dodać kolejne litery alfabetu, np.
  [Nowak 2014a, 2014b]

Przypisy objaśniające, polemiczne, **uzupełniające** tekst główny oraz **przywołujące akty prawne, wyroki i orzeczenia sądów i adresy stron WWW** – numerowane kolejno i **umieszczone u dołu strony**, czcionka 10 pkt, interlinia pojedyncza.

V. Bibliografia
- uporządkowana alfabetycznie według nazwisk autorów/redaktorów i tytułów prac niemających autora/redaktora, a jeśli jest więcej prac jednego autora, to należy je zestawić chronologicznie wg dat wydania

- **artykuł w czasopiśmie** – nazwisko autora, inicjał imienia, rok, tytuł artykułu (prosto), *tytuł czasopisma* (kursywą), nr czasopisma, zakres stron:
  Borek M., 2000, Rola technik sekurytyzacyjnych, *Bank*, nr 12: 53-55.

- **pozycja książkowa** – nazwisko autora/redaktora, inicjał imienia, tytuł książki (*kursywą*), miejsce wydania: wydawnictwo:
  Janowska Z., 2002, *Zarządzanie zasobami ludzkimi*, Warszawa: PWE.

- **rozdział pracy zbiorowej** – nazwisko autora rozdziału, inicjał imienia, rok, tytuł rozdziału (prosto), w:, inicjał imienia, nazwisko redaktora + (red.), *tytuł pracy zbiorowej* (kursywą), miejsce wydania: wydawnictwo, zakres stron:
  Michalewicz A., 2001, Systemy informacyjne wspomagające logistykę dystrybucji, w: K. Rutkowski (red.), *Logistyka dystrybucji*, Warszawa: Difin, 102-123.

- **akt prawny**
  Ustawa z dnia 8 marca 1990 r. o samorządzie gminnym, t.j. Dz.U. 2001, nr 142, poz. 1591.
  Ustawa z dnia 19 listopada 1999 r. Prawo działalności gospodarczej, Dz.U. nr 101, poz. 1178 z późn. zm.
  Dyrektywa Rady 2004/67/WE z dnia 26 kwietnia 2004 r. dotycząca środków zapewniających bezpieczeństwo dostaw gazu ziemnego, Dz. Urz. UE L 127 z 29.04.2004.

- **raporty, analizy**
  GUS, 2015, *Pomorskie w liczbach 2014*, Gdańsk.

- **źródło z Internetu** (w nawiasie pełna data korzystania ze strony WWW):
  www.manpowergroup.com [dostęp: 28.05.2015].

VI. Wzory matematyczne
- przygotowane w programie Microsoft Equation 3.0
- poprawnie zapisane potęgi i indeksy
- zmienne – kursywą, liczby i cyfry – pismem prostym
- znak mnożenia to: · lub × (nie gwiazdka czy „iks")
- pisownia jednostek – według układu SI
- symbole objaśnione pod wzorem