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Annotation Journal of Current Research of Tourism Research

Scientific Journal *Current Research of Tourism Research* is professional periodical based on exclusive quality and clear determination of topics.

The following criteria determine this Journal:

- the publisher of the Journal is based in Great Britain,
- international editorial board,
- the selection of reputable reviewers from different countries,
- only printed in English
- limited range of issues: two issues per year

Themes that form the contents of the Journal relate to current problems in tourist World regions, mostly in Central Europe:

- trends in the development of terminology, theory and methods of research in tourism,
- current questions concerning the product, management and marketing of tourism,
- issues of urban and cultural tourism as well as religion tourism in Central Europe and in other World regions,
- health, spa & wellness tourism,
- economic and social problems of tourism

Structure of journal's content

The requirements for the structure and formatting of submitted papers are defined at the website www.citr.up.krakow.pl. Editors accept only unpublished scientific articles and reviews, formatted according to the specified requirements for authors.

Scientific papers and review articles will only be published after receiving two positive reviews in the "double-blind" review process.

The Journal is currently indexed by IndexCopernicus, BazEkon and Google Scholar.

Editorial

In the following Editorial we continue the presentation of the members of the Editorial Board.

In February 2015, the co-founder of the journal *Current Issues of Tourism Research* and its Editor in Chief, Prof. Peter Čuka, celebrated his 50th birthday. The numerous congratulators include: the journal's publisher - the STS Science Centre in London, the partner EEDA as well as the members of the Editorial Board of the *Current Issues of Tourism Research.*

Prof. Peter Čuka has been involved in the research of geography of tourism since 1989. He was awarded a doctoral degree from the Institute of Geography, the University of Łódź, Poland, and a post-doctoral degree from the Department of Geography and Regional Development, the University of Prešov, Slovakia. As an Associate Professor he lectured at the Faculty of Natural Sciences of the Matej Bel University in Banská Bystrica, Slovakia, where he worked as the Head of the Geography Department for five years. Prof. Peter Čuka also worked as the Head of the Department at the Faculty of Management of the University of Prešov, Slovakia, and the School of Business Administration in Karvina, the Czech Rep. Moreover, he has also lectured at the following Slovak HE institutions: the Faculty of Humanities and Natural Sciences of the University of Prešov, National Defence Academy of Gen. A. Hadik in Liptovsky Mikulaš and Economic Faculty of the Matej Bel University in Banská Bystrica. As a "visiting professor" in Poland he has lectured in Łódź (University of Łódź, College of Tourism and Hotel Management) and Warsaw (College of Hotel Management of Gastronomy and Tourism). Presently, Prof. Peter Čuka is lecturing at the Pedagogical University in Krakow, Poland, as well as the College of Business and Hotel Management in Brno, the Czech Rep.

Prof. Peter Čuka has completed scientific internships at the universities in Austria (Graz, Klagenfurt), Poland (Cracow, Lodz) and the Czech Rep. (Ostrava).

His research areas include: functions, theory and methodology of tourism; development of recreational base in towns, tourist regions; types of tourism (urban, pilgrimage), and using mind maps in tourism.

Prof. Peter Čuka is the author of three scientific monographs and over 150 original scientific studies, of which more than 15 have been published abroad. He is also the author or co-author of two text books, yet another monograph, the update and review of the Military Geographic Atlas as well as numerous other papers, reviews, critiques and popular articles.

He has delivered conference presentations in both Slovakia and abroad. Currently, Prof. Peter Čuka concentrates on lecturing and publishing, in particular at the conferences classified at the Web of Science (Slovakia, Czech Rep., Italy, the Netherlands and elsewhere.). He is one of two Slovak geographers who were admitted into the representative monograph "History of Polish geography" (published in Warsaw in 2008).

Prof. Peter Čuka was a student of and is the direct successor of Prof. Vladimir Baran, Prof. Stanisław Liszewski and Prof. Friedrich Martin Zimmermann. The latter is a member of the Editorial Board of our Journal.

Congratulations Peter. We wish you good health and more successful issues of the Journal!

Editorial Board and Editorial Team

"Current State and Prospects of Dark Tourism Flows Organization in Ukraine"

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Abstract

The development of scientific foundations of dark tourism by Ukrainian scientists is only at its start. The paper analyzes the scientific and practical significance of grief tourism for the formation of the entire tourism industry of Ukraine. The main destinations of disaster tourism in Ukraine, including world famous Ukrainian Chornobyl', are described. Also, much attention is paid to the description of the thanatourism objects in Lviv, since Lviv is the most visited by foreign tourists from the neighboring countries and the world.

The development strategy of grief tourism in Ukraine has several important features that the article focuses on: popularization of such a type of tourism by developing new tourist routes that include such sites, and also by conducting administrative events concerning the revival, renewal, protection, conservation and popularization of such objects.

Catastrophe tourism will be developing only when some mental stereotypes of the population concerning the dark tourism objects as negative ones are overcome, and the opinion about such objects as the ones that are important to honour the memory about the killed is formed. One of the reasons why this type of tourism is underdeveloped is that the population is poorly informed about the existence and conditions of such places.

The findings of the study help to create the development strategy of thanatourism in Ukraine in the context of the European integration processes, and grief tourism gives the possibility to establish social and cultural relations with the EU member states.

Keywords*: cemetery tourism; dark tourism.disaster tourism sites; grief tourism; thanatourism*

Paper Type: *Scientific study*

Introduction

Among the studies of Ukrainian tourism researchers dark tourism remains a "white spot," an almost non-researched sphere. This can not be considered as adequate to the requirements of the tourism market because Ukraine has a high resource potential for the development of this type of tourism, and an increase in tourist flows to attend the objects of dark tourism is observed. Chernobyl today is the leader in the international rankings of the most interesting places associated with death and disaster.

Experts in tourism research note that the main problem that arose with the arrival of this kind of tourism is an issue of ethics and morality, as there is a conflict between the commercial interest of the tourism organizers and interests and memory of those affected by the events. Malcolm Foley and John Lennon emphasize that the guides in these areas face a dilemma: they must tell all the truth, and at the same time show respect for the memory of the victims. It is not always possible during tours that may be organized more as an entertaining event rather than an event to honor the victims, and the use of such sites for commercial and promotional purposes may distort the purposes of the trips.

Methods and methodology of the research

To reach the aim of the article, that is to describe and analyze the current state and prospects of dark tourism flows organization in Ukraine, the scientific methods of the system of georgraphic sciences are widely used: observation with a descriptive element, historical, comparative, cartographic, analytical and statistical, field investigation, systematic. In turn, social nature of tourism determines the use of the techniques formed in other social sciences, for instance, sociological sciences, etc.

Descriptive method is used alongside with the statistics and figures of the marketing research by the Tourist Information Centre (TIC) of Lviv. Also is used the method of statistical evaluation (definition of functions of different dark tourism based on the observation results), and the method of statistical testing of the hypothesis of steady growth of interest in the dark tourism objects in Ukraine.

The paper presents a cartographic scheme projection of the suggested itinerary for tourists around the dark tourism sites in Lviv developed by the authors as a visual aid to support the idea of the necessity of dark tourism development in Ukraine.

Lack of information about the dark tourism development and motives of tourism travel of both Ukrainian citizens and foreign tourists made the authors turn to the analysis of sociological surveys and questionnaires that were conducted by the TIC of Lviv with the help of the students of the Tourism Department, Geography Faculty, Ivan Franko National University of Lviv. The results of the research underlie the necessity of the dark tourism development in Ukraine and its main types.

Place of dark toursim among the known tourism types

Dark tourism has ancient historic roots. Since the time the travelers started visiting the places connected with death and destruction, the term "dark tourism" has gradually came into use. Dark tourism means visiting cemeteries and burials, places of catastrophes (ecological or technogenic), disasters and mass death of people.

The term "dark" or "grief tourism" came into a wide use in 2000 after the book "Dark Tourism - the attraction of death and disaster" by two professors from Scotland Malcolm Foley and John Lennon was published. (Lennon J., 2000).

It is important to underline that the problems and prospects of the dark tourism development in Ukraine are still practically not studied. In general some particular aspects of the dark tourism development are covered in separate publications but these are rather fragmented researches. For instance, Taras Zastavetsky, an Associate Professor of the Tourism Department of Ternopil Volodymyr Hnatyuk National Pedagogical University, in his research paper partly highlighted the main dark tourism categories prevailing among Ukrainian researchers (Заставецький Т., 2011). At the same time there is in fact no profound complex research in the dark tourism development, and this type of tourism has many peculiarities and specific features. That is why, its development in Ukraine and the ways of making it more attractive both on the national and international levels are of special interest and importance at the current stage of the development and establishing of the tourism industry of the country.

It is quite difficult to classify dark tourism as there is no clear generally accepted classification of tourism so far. There is an explanation to this point – it is impossible to identify pure forms and types of tourism. Tourism can be classified by different indicators, but the key factor in classification belongs to the aim of travel. There can be several aspects why dark tourism overlaps different tourism types.

Dark tourism can be classified as research tourism that is a new profitable sphere of tourism activities built on the psychological interest of people in the unknown or new – space, deep seas and oceans, Antarctica, particular abnormal phenomena, etc.

Also dark tourism can be classified as extreme tourism as it has a direct connection to the threat to life of people. In the tourism business the providing of high comfort and safety levels are very important, that is why the development of such extreme tourism types as deep-sea diving or space travel first of all is related to the necessity of settling the issue of optimal factor combination of the acceptable safety level and the possibility to feel oneself a pioneer in the given type of travel. This is the reason why there are few specialized professional organizations dealing with the provision of similar kind of services.

Visits to burial places can be classified as religious tourism or pilgrim tourism because the faith of many religions obliges the believers to visit the graves of their fellow believers.

At the same time dark tourism possesses nostalgic travel motives when modern generations visit the places of mass death of the ancestors, as, for instance, the Jew concentration camps or the Holocaust places. Thus, dark tourism can be described as a new tourism trend that overlaps nostalgic, religious, extreme and research types of tourism. (Fig.1)

Figure 1. Place of dark toursim among the known tourism types

Source: own development of the authors

Basic categories of dark tourism in Ukraine

Grief or dark tourism in Ukraine is represented by four traditional areas:

1. Disaster tourism — natural and anthropogenic. Among the extreme tourists the most popular is so-called "toxic tours" — trips to the ecological disasters sites. The idea of creating "nuclear" History itineraries belongs to the "Greenpeace" organization which tries in such an unusual way to draw the public attention to environmental issues in the country. In Ukraine this type of tourism is represented by the Chernobyl disaster and the Sknyliv tragedy.
2. Ghost tourism or mystical tourism. Some people have a special attraction to the supernatural things, and choose places where some paranormal activity has been noticed. Ukraine has the potential to take a strong position among the already known at present mystical places located in Dublin (Ireland), Florida (USA), Brisbane (Australia) and Quebec (Canada), and the UK.
3. Thanatourism offers the travelers to visit tragic history places scattered around the world. Concentration camps and prisons are among these places. Ukraine comes se-

cond to Poland in the number of Jews who died in concentration camps. In the Lviv ghetto during the war more than 250 thousand people were killed. The Lviv prisons Brygidky and at Lontsky Street were notable for specific political mission and kinds of torture that political prisoners were subjected to.

4. Cemetery or necropolis tourism. Cemetery tours are a fairly common worldwide service. Preserved burial places of prominent politicians, clergy, academics, writers, composers, musicians, artists, engineers, doctors and just interesting people at historic cemeteries in the cities of the world in a multifaceted ways reflect national culture and history of the states. Visiting cemeteries reminds that none of us is eternal, and that there is not much time provided for each of us to do good things. In many countries of the world cemeteries are considered to be as important sites as museums and other cultural objects. Lviv is not behind other countries in terms of cemetery tourism development. Tours of the Lychakivsky cemetery are enjoying growing demand among visitors. Unfortunately, Ukraine has all kinds of dark tourism is the most visited places associated with the disaster at Chernobyl, as well as sites of mass killings of Jews. (Бордун О., Деркач У., 2014).

Geographical extension in Ukraine

In Ukraine all types of grief tourism are available. Most visited places are connected with the disaster in Chernobyl and those of mass Jews murder.

Chernobyl disaster. Chernobyl disaster as a rule evokes the thoughts about death, destruction, cancer, significant economic loss and other negative things.

Chernobyl disaster, an environmental technological catastrophe, caused by the destruction of the 4th energy unit of the Chernobyl nuclear power plant (NPP) situated in Ukraine (at that time Ukrainian SSR) happened in 1986, April 26. The destruction was of an explosive character; the reactor was completely ruined, and a great amount of radioactive substances were emitted into the environment. The disaster is considered to be the biggest in all nuclear power history in terms of both the number of the dead and injured people, and economic loss.

The Chernobyl NPP is situated near the town of Prypiat, 18 km away from the town of Chernobyl, 16 km away from the Belorus' border, and 110 km from Kyiv.

As the disaster result about 5 million hectares of agricultural land were put to waste, the 30 km Exclusion Zone was created around the plant, hundreds of small settlements were destroyed and buried by means of the heavy machinery.

"Greenpeace" and the international organization "Doctors against the nuclear war" claim that in the result of the catastrophe tens of thousands disaster fighters died, in Europe 10,000 cases of congenital abnormalities in newborns were recorded as well as 10,000 cases of thyroid cancer and 50,000 more to come. According to figures of the Union "Chernobyl" organization from among 600,000 disaster fighters 10% died and 165,000 became disabled.

To visit the Chernobyl Zone, to see with own eyes the abandoned villages and the town of Prypiat and also the "Sarcophagus" over the destroyed fourth reactor has become possible for any adult. This Zone is guarded, and surrounded with a barbed wire fence. The only thing one needs to get there is permission. The Zone and its objects are potentially attractive for certain type of tourists. This can be explained first of all by the existence of really unique and world famous sites there such as the object "Ukryttia" ("Shelter"), the towns of Prypiat and Chernobyl.

One can see a lot in the very Zone, and from the point of view of non-conventional tourism it is very interesting because there is a possibility to see the unique sites. First of all it is the town of Prypiat – the town of a regional significance, founded 4 February 1970 on the bank of the river Prypiat, abandoned 27 April 1986 because of the Chernobyl disaster. All the citizens were evacuated. For several years after the disaster the scientists were seeking the possibilities to bring the citizens back, and only in 1989 they understood it was impossible. The most popular sites for the excursions in the town are the hotel, the palace of culture, the swimming pool, the Ferris wheel, schools and nursery schools, the berth, and the police station. The famous Ferris wheel never worked because it was to be launched 1 May 1986.

Despite the legal ban for the civilian population to live in the Zone, yet a significant number of people returned to their homes after the evacuation in 1986.

One of the most unique places of the Chernobyl Zone (in terms of radiation factors) where one can see how radiation affects living organisms is the "Red forest." This area lies not far from the Chernobyl NPP (approximately 1–2 km to the west), and its ten thousands hectares of forest underwent significant radioactive contamination.

There is a national "Chernobyl" museum in Kyiv where one can learn about the catastrophe details, look through the belongings of the disaster liquidators, historical photos, documentaries about Chernobyl. The museum is situated near the metro station "Kontraktova ploshcha" at Provulok Horevy (Horevy Lane), 1. The current exposition includes about 7,000 exhibits – declassified documents, maps, photos, items of the Ukrainian Polissya folk culture.

Here one can see the unique video materials about the catastrophe and its outcomes, an active three-phase diorama "Chernobyl NPP before, at the time of, and after the disaster", a working model of the Chernobyl power-generating unit of the plant, that extend beyond the chronological and thematic limits of the museum, increase the authenticity of the existing exposition. In Kyiv, there is also a monument to the victims of the Chernobyl disaster with the inscription "To the dead, and the alive and the unborn."

26 April 1996 to the 10th anniversary of the accident at the initiative of the Fire department #4 of Chernobyl at the entrance to the city there was unveiled a monument to the firefighters that at the cost of their own lives extinguished the fire after the accident.

The sites mentioned above are the major ones in terms of the tourist attractiveness. Every year the number of visitors to the

Zone grew up. In 2004 there were not even 1,000 visitors, but the next year there were more than twice more people who visited Chernobyl. The years 2006–2009 showed steady growth in the number of those wishing to get to the Zone, so, in 2010 the government decided to grant the access to it for everyone (by that time the access had been limited); that year demonstrated the record high number of visits – 13,000 people. (Tab. 1) But already in June 2011 the access to the Zone was closed again. For scientists, experts, journalists, international control and monitoring it was accessible, but the visits regulations and rules having become more demanding and strict.

Table 1. Chernobyl Zone visitors statistics

Year	Time of the year	Number of visitors
2004	Throughout the year	about 870 people
2005	Throughout the year	2,000
2006	Throughout the year	5,000
2007	1st half	1557
2008	Throughout the year	5,500
2009	January — November	6,900
2010	January — August	5,000
	Throughout the year	about 8,000
2011	January – June	about 3,000
	23 June — 1 December	Prohibition in action

Source: National Tourism Agency "Chernobylinterinform", 2004–2011 (In 2013 "Chernobylinterinform" agency was liquidated and now its functions are performed by Chernobyl specialized centre.)

Yavoriv military training range. Yavoriv training range of the Ukrainian Ground Forces is an International peace and defense centre situated in the central part of Ukrainian Roztochia. It covers 39 thousand hectares, and is one of the biggest in Europe.

The history or the range foundation is very sad and tragic. In 1940 the forced deportation of the population started and lasted for almost 10 years. Military and public authorities of the USSR and Germany destroyed and wiped off the face of the earth 170 villages, 125 thousand villagers were forcefully moved, 20 churches devastated and ruined – such was the price of one of the biggest in Europe military training ranges.

On the territory of the range there are the ruins of an old church. On the walls one can see the bullet marks by which the domestic arms history can be learnt. 50 years in a row there were heard bursts of machine-gun fires instead of the church bells – the St. Mykhailo church served as a target for tank shooting. (Bordun, O., Komar, R., 2007)

The church used to be a majestic temple of the Big Vyshen'ka village. But in 1940 when the range construction started it and other churches became the target for shooting drills. All in all in the region 20 churches were destroyed, 125 thousand villagers were deported, 170 villages and hamlets were completely destroyed. In the ruins of the St. Mykhailo church the native citizens pray for the souls of the dead fellows who were forcefully moved out, including missing patriots-heroes who in this region gave their lives for free independent Ukraine.

Entrance to the territory of the training centre at the times when there is no training and firing drills is through the headquarters. The visitors can see the barracks, a boiler room, a dining room, quite a big underground shelter, as well as the sawmill and the Nedelin dugout.

Statistics of the tourist visits of the range is not available at present since starting from the summer 2014 the site has been used for training drill of the military who will go to participate in the antiterrorist operation in the east of Ukraine.

Sites of tragedies in Lviv

Brygidky Prison. Brygidky is the oldest active prison in Lviv situated at 24 Horodots'ka Street, in the former ancient roman-catholic convent of the women's Order of St.Brygida. The convent was established in 1614 on the initiative and funds of Anna Fastovska and Hanna Poradovska for the girls from the noble families. In the courtyard there was built a church-chapel of St. Apostle Petro with the altar in the Baroque style. A bit modified building of the church still exists nowadays.

In 1784 on the initiative of the Austrian authorities, that replaced in Halychyna (Galicia) the Polish administration and conducted the policy of secularization, the convent was closed, and its building was turned into the prison. In June-July 1941, at the beginning of the war with Germany when the Red Army was retreating, in Brygidky, as well as in other prisons of Lviv, mass shootings of political prisoners by NKVD were taking place. By the end of 1980-s death sentences were carried into effect there.

Until now the prison has been functioning as a separate pre-trial prison unit in Lviv region. According to the plans of the Lviv regional authorities the unit will be reformed and the building that has served as a prison for a hundred years will open its doors to the visitors as a new thanatourism destination in Lviv, and will start its development as a new dark tourism flow in the city.

Lviv Ghetto. 6 November 1941 by order of Major General of Police District SS "Galicia" Fritz Katzman Jewish ghetto was formed in Lviv. It was the largest in the Soviet Union and lasted from November 1941 to June 1943. On the European scale the larger ones were only in Warsaw and Łódź.

The Ghetto was created in the poorest district of Lviv and covered the Zamarstyniv and Kleparova areas that were separated on the south by the railway embankment, on the east by Zamarstyniska Street, on the west by Warshawska Street, and on the north by the bank of the river Poltva. (Umsiedlung der Juden, 1941)

Organization of the special Jewish district was ordered by the district governor Hans Frank on November 8, 1941. From November, 16 till December, 14, 1951 the occupation authorities moved more than 136,000 Jews to the ghetto. The Ukrainians and Poles who lived on that territory had to move out to other city districts by December 14.

By the end of 1941 most of the Jewish population of Lviv and the nearby localities was concentrated in the ghetto. The occupation authorities set a new deadline – by February, 28, 1942 – because the original relocation was not finished on time.

In general during the occupation period about 138,700 Jews were held in the Lviv ghetto. It was surrounded by the fence and barbwire and in such a way isolated from the city.

Since the early days of the Nazi occupation of Lviv the Gestapo, the SS divisions and the police organized traps in the streets and conducted arrests. During the transporting of the Jews to the Ghetto in November 1941 5,000 elderly and sick people were selected and shot by the German police near the railway bridge (so called "bridge" action).

Liquidation of the Lviv Ghetto lasted till June, 16, 1943. At the last stage the remaining prisoners organized an armed uprising, killing and injuring several policemen. As a result the Nazi massacred the Jews. After the Ghetto had been liquidated the last 4,000 prisoners were taken to the Yaniv concentration camp and afterwards killed in the tract of Pyaskym and other 3,000 committed a suicide. After this the Nazi proclaimed Lviv free from Jews (Judenfrei).

During two years of the German occupation in the Lviv Ghetto and Yaniv concentration camp more than 250,000 people died. The sites of mass Jew killings also were in Kryvchytsky forest, Lysynychi forest (Lysynychi is the village near Lviv), the camp outskirts in the Yaniv Street and the territory of the camp itself.

In 1992 Lviv Jews put up a monument to the heroes and victims of the Lviv Ghetto (sculptor Luisa Shterenshtein). (see itinerary scheme)

The statistics of visits to the Ghetto territory where Jews lived during the WWII is not collected due to the absence of the official central institution that would record the tourist visits to the territory of the tragic events in the history of the Jewish people. But there is a functioning web-site "Lviv Ghetto – territory of terror" that demonstrates the growing interest of the site visitors to the materials published there.

Prison at Lontskoho Street. This is a former prison in Lviv that was used in the 20th century as a political prison by the Polish, Soviet and Nazi authorities. From 2009 it is a national Memorial Museum dedicated to Victims of Occupational Regimes.

In 1889–1890s in the intersection of theLeon Sapeha (now Stepan Bandera) Street and the Copernicus Street by the project of the architect Yu. Janowsky was erected a building of the Austro-Hungarian gendarmerie in Neo-Renaissance style. The building of the very prison was built in 1918–1920-s when the city belonged to Poland.

In the prison building there was situated the Fourth Department of the Main State Police commandant's Office whose duties involved the fight with "anti-state" organisations such as the Organization of Ukrainian Nationalists and the Communist Part of the Western Ukraine. Unofficially the prison specialized in political prisoners. In 1935 the building was transformed into the police investigation department, and the prison started to be used as a pre-trial prison. At the time of the Lviv trial in 1936 there were held Stepan Bandera, Yaroslav Stets'ko, Mykola Lebid' and others.

In 1939–1941 during the First Soviet occupation in the building there was a Prison #1 that could hold 1500 people, and the next main building was occupied by the regional NKVD. After the Third Reich attack at the Soviet Union in June 1941, the NKVD workers executed about a thousand prisoners (according to the testimony of the Head of the Department of the NKVD prison in Lviv region lieutenant Lerman, 924 persons).

In 1941–1944 the building was used as a pre-trial prison of the Gestapo. The prison court-yard was laid with the plaques from the old Jew cemetery. For a long time a famous Polish scientist Kazimierz Bartel was a prisoner there.

National museum-memorial "Prison at Lontskoho" welcomed its first visitors in June 2009. The year of 2011 showed dramatic rise in the number of visits, and the next years presented the continuing rise: 2010 – 8800 visitors; 2011 – 15733 (80 % growth); 2012 – 17000 (8 % growth); 2013 – 17000; 2014 – 18542 (9 % growth). The beginning of 2015 shows the same tendency – during New Year and Christmas holidays (1–13 January) the museum was visit by 300 tourists already.

The museum visitors can be divided into the following categories:

- Relatives of those who were imprisoned or died in prisons or concentration camps; individual visitors or tourist groups from abroad (USA, Canada, Australia, Argentina, Brazil, Russia, Georgia, Germany, Sweden, Estonia, Belgium, France, Japan, Korea);
- Groups of students of higher educational establishments and colleges;
- School and gymnasium students;
- Representatives of clergy, parish and public organizations.

The museum is visited by tourist groups from all regions of Ukraine. (The statistics was kindly given by the information department of the museum.)

Prison #2 at Zamarstynivska Street. The prison is a former monastery complex formed around the Armenian Church of St. Chross. The first mention of the complex dates back to 1590. In 1784 the monastery was closed and the building turned into a hospital, and later into the barracks and prison known under the name of Zamarstynivska.

In 1939 when the first soviets came to the western Ukrainian lands the soviet authorities turned the building into the political prison. At the end of June 1941 it was used as a torture place. Retreating in front of the Germans, the NKVD were afraid that the prisoners would join the enemy side and executed all the imprisoned inmates. The victims were shot to death in the prison basements and buried in the prison's courtyard and in the basement of the right wing of the building. In July 1941 as a part of anti-soviet propaganda the German authorities opened the prisons for the relatives of the victims, and in the yard of prison #2 there was a requiem conducted after the dead.

Now on the territory of the prison there is one of the subunits of the Ministry of Internal Affairs of Ukraine – Lviv Law School.

The site is marked with the memorial sign (see scheme of the "Memory tour in Lviv"). The creation of the memorial museum is in plans here. Once the museum is created, it will become possible to record the number of visitors to the site and conduct the research of the development of this dark tourism flow.

Massacre of Lviv Professors. A few days after the German-Soviet war started Lviv was occupied by the Wehrmacht troops. Before leaving the city, the NKVD killed several thousands of political prisoners who were held in Lviv prisons.

The Gestapo arrested the Lviv professors at night of July 4, 1941, most were from the Lviv University by Jan Kazimierz (now Ivan Franko University), and also their family members and the persons who at the time of the arrest visited them in their apartments.

At first the arrested were kept in the University buildings and later taken to be executed. All in all 28 academics were arrest that night. The only one who survived was professor Franciszek Groër.

The Nazi robbed the academics' apartments and destroyed or moved out valuable scientific materials.

In October 1943 in the activities of concealing traces of Nazi crimes the bodies of the executed were exhumed, moved to Kryvchytsky Forest and burned together with hundreds of other bodies.

As pointed out by the Polish historian Zygmund Albert, the housing of the shot was occupied by the high rank officials of the Gestapo and Ukrainian police.

From July 2011 in Lviv in the "Students" park there was opened a monument to the Polish professors that were executed by the Nazy on the Vuletski hills in 1941. The inauguration of the monument was devoted to the 70th anniversary of that event.

Sknyliv. Sknyliv air show disaster is an incident that occurred during the celebration of the 60th anniversary of the Ukrainian Air Force's 14 Air Corps at the Sknyliv airfield near Lviv July, 27, 2002. In the result of the crash of the fighter Su-27UB into the crowd of spectators 78 people were killed (including 28 children) and about 250 people injured. By the number of victims this disaster is considered to be the deadliest air show accident in history.

10 people were brought to justice for the tragedy, including the pilots and those responsible for the show organization. They were found guilty of causing the accident due to negligence and failure to follow the plan of the flight. July, 29, 2002 was announced the day of mourning in Ukraine by the Decree of the President of Ukraine.

In 2003 at the entrance to the airfield (Aviatsiina Street) a Chapel of all Saints of the Ukrainian people was built. The money had been raised all over the world. The project author was Ihor Podoliak, interior design by Markiyan and Yurii Mys'kiv. At the Chapel there are 77 stones symbolizing the number of the victims. The chapel was consecrated by the priests of the Ukrainian Greek-Catholic Church, Ukrainian Orthodox Church of Kyiv Patriarchate, Ukrainian Autocephalous Orthodox Church, and Ukrainian Orthodox Church of Moscow Patriarchate. Annually on this day ecumenical services take place. In July 2007 an icon of St.Mykolay (Nicolas) was placed there under the protective shroud of whose all dead in the airshow tragedy are represented.

This thanatourism object is visited mainly by Ukrainians, the relatives and acquaintances of those who died in the tragic event.

Lychakiv cemetery. State Historical and Cultural Museum-Reserve "Lychakiv Cemetery" is a memorial cemetery in Lviv. In 86 fields of a total area of 40 hectares more than 300 thousand graves (including more than 2,000 crypts) can be found here, and about 500 sculptures and reliefs are installed on the graves. The oldest gravestones are located in the fields 6,7,9,14 (Fig. 2).

Figure 2. The earliest plan of the Luchakiv cemetery (1924).

Note: Its original name in Polish is *Plan cmentarza Lyczakowskiego* (English – Plan of Lychakiv cemetery.); Scale: 1*:1440; Size: 78x66 cm; Publisher: Technical Department. Lviv;*

Source: NB LNU after Ivan Franko, 1601 IV.

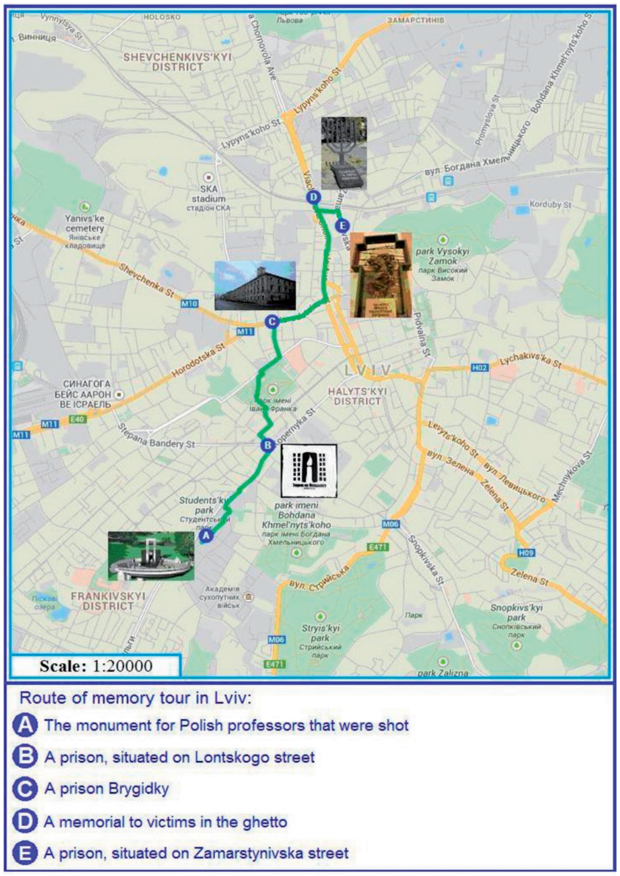
Most of the visitors to the reserve come from within Ukraine which shows the growth of the domestic tourism; but also there is an increase in the number of tourists from Belorus' and other neighbouring countries. In 2012 there were 140,000 tourists, and in 2013 more than 180,000 visitors – the numbers grew up by 30%, and it is for the first time that the museum observes such a significant grow in the number of tourists in the last years. As a result the profits of the museum increased by 60%, and the profit from the sales of printed production that is realised in the museum increased by about 190%.

"Tour of Memory in Lviv"

Having analyzed the potentials of Lviv multifunctional tourist hub for the development of dark tourism around the catastrophe sites, the authors have developed our own itinerary scheme that includes the sites of the social catastrophes in Lviv – "Tour of Memory in Lviv":

Monument to the Polish professors that were executed by the Nazy–Prison at Lontskoho Street – Brygidky Prison – Memorial to the Ghetto Victims – Prizon at Zamarstynivs'ka Street.

Itinerary scheme of "Tour of Memory in Lviv"



Tour description:

9:30 – The tourist group meets at the main railway terminal in Lviv. Each member of the group is met by the representative of the tour firm.

10:00 – A walk to the monument to the Polish professors executed by shooting to death by the Nazi – walking up to the "Students" park, visiting and seeing the place and at the memorable sign.

10:40 – A bus drive to the National Memorial Museum "Prison at Lontskoho." The main focus of the museum is on the most terrifying pages of the history of the prison – the mass shootings in the late June 1941.

11:40 – A bus drive to the Brygidky Prison – an observing tour of the building and the memorial plaque on its wall.

12:20 – A bus drive to the Ghetto Victims Memorial. In 1992 the Jews of Lviv put up the monument to the heroes and victims of the Ghetto.

13:00 – A bus drive to the prison # 2. It is the former monastery. The access onto the territory of the prison is limited. In front of the entrance there is a monument to the victims of the repressions.

13:40 – A drive to the city centre. Dinner. A walk around the city centre. Focus on the wars and tragedies. Listening to the speech on dead Ukrainians, Poles and Jews.

17:00 – The end of the tour. Leisure time.

The approximate tour cost is 70 UAH per person.

Statistics on visits to Lviv

Hotel market of Lviv has been developing dynamically in the last 5 years. The growth is determined by the general development of the market of the tourism services of the city of Lviv. According to the official statistics of Main Department of Statistics in the Lviv region, Lviv region has been in the 4^{th} position in Ukraine after Crimea, Kyiv and Ivano-Frankivsk in terms of number of tourists hosted in the last 5 years. At the same time some figures from different statistic sources do not coincide which is determined by, firstly, using different methods of tourists flows recording, secondly, portion of "black market" turnover in the tourism industry (the portion may make up to between 40–60%). According to the official information Lviv hotels in the past 2 years have hosted over 260,000 visitors each year, but tourism experts believe that in reality the hotels host more than 500,000 guests. The positive factor in the market of the hotel services is annual (2009 is an exception due to the economic crises) growth in the number of guests. (Fig. 3)

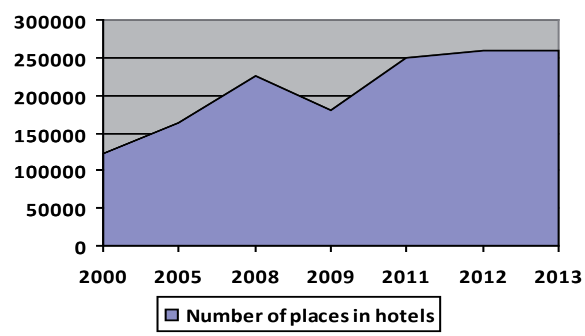


Figure 3. Number of guests at the hotels in Lviv, 2000–2013

Source: Statistics annual of the Lviv region, 2013, p. 239

Hotel market of Lviv has a great potential. For instance, in 2013 room occupancy in the hotels of the city at a time reached about 6,000 beds. General occupancy of the hotel fund in a year is 2,160,000 beds, while the official figures present accommodation for only 261,455 people (tab. 2).

Table 2. Accommodation of visitors to Lviv in 2012–2013

	Number of beds		Number of persons accommodated		Number of foreign visitors accommodated	
	2012	2013	2012	2013	2012	2013
Total	6016	5963	263120	261455	79828	80316
Hotels	4678	4706	235955	325544	77193	77585
Motels	38	30	2222	277	367	19
Other accommodation types	687	664	20066	22965	2268	2711
Specialized institutions (resorts, etc.)	613	563	4877	2669	---	---

Source: Statistics annual of the Lviv city, 2013. Main Department of Statistics in the Lviv region, Lviv–2014, p.109.

Foreign visitors made up to 53% of all the consumers of the hotel services in Lviv. On average one guest stayed in the hotel 2,5 days (general occupancy reached about 925 persons per day, foreign visitors staying in the hotels on average 1,9 days, Ukrainian guests – 2,7 days.)

Foreign tourists usually came to stay for a short period (3–4 days) in the central hotels of Lviv. More than Ľ of foreign guests (26%) were from Poland, 13% from Russia, 11% from Germany, 9% from Belorus, 6% from the USA, 5% from the Great Britain. (Fig. 4)

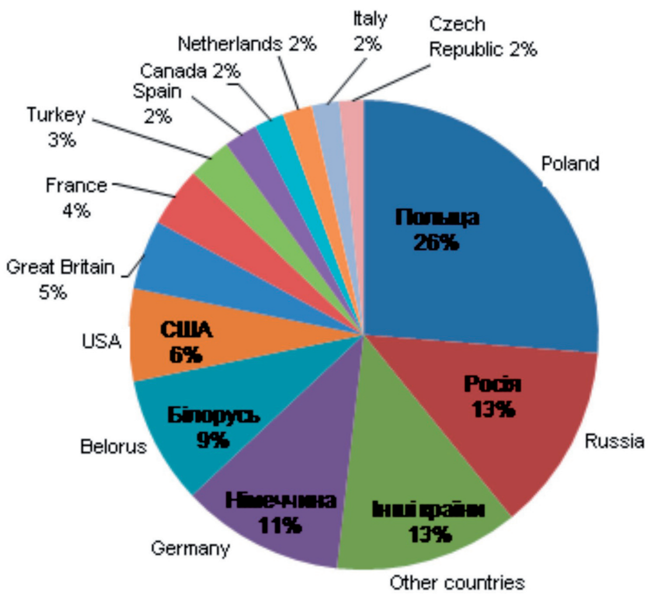


Figure 4. Structure of foreign tourists flow to Lviv in 2013.

Source: TIC of Lviv

According to the official figures the hotel occupancy is rather low (about 20%). At the same time the market operators believe that the real average hotel occupancy makes up 40–60%, difference depends on the service level and the size of the hotel. The higher the hotel's level, the higher is its occupancy (for instance, the occupancy of expensive hotels in the city centre such as Leopolis, Panorama, Grand-hotel, Cytadel-Inn, make up 60–70%, while the cheaper hotels such as Sonata, Tourist, Hetman, reach 30% occupancy).

Conclusions

The article is dedicated to new, interesting and very actual topic. Dark tourism is developing dynamically in Ukraine which is proved by the results of the research conducted by the authors.

1. The authors defined the place of dark tourism among other known types of tourism and consider this type of tourism as a new tourism trend that overlaps nostalgic, religious, extreme and research types of tourism.
2. Research methods used in the article are described: observation with a descriptive element, historical, comparative, cartographic, analytical and statistical, field investigation, systematic, as well as the techniques formed in other social sciences, for instance, sociological sciences, etc.
3. Since this type of tourism is only at its initial stage of development in Ukraine the list of the recent publications on thanatourism research in the country is limited.
4. Despite the slowdown of the general tourism activity in Lviv due to the unstable situation in the east of Ukraine, dark tourism flows demonstrate their steady growth. The authors collected and analyzed statistics on the existing dark tourism flows researched in the article (Lychakiv cemetery, Chernobyl Zone, prison at Lontskoho). Prospective destinations of dark tourism are highlighted; these demonstrate their potential and in the future will lead to formation of the new dark tourism flows (Brygidky prison, Lviv Ghetto, Prison #2 at Zamarstynivska Street). Two objects of memorial tourism mentioned in the article are important dark tourism destinations (Sknyliv, Site of the Massacre of Lviv Professors) but are not subject to detailed scientific description because there are no records on the number of visitors to these places, and are not foreseen to be collected as such.
5. Having analyzed the both current existing and prospective dark tourism flows in Ukraine the authors present a new itinerary scheme to visit the dark tourism sites in Lviv which reveal the potential for the development of this type of tourism.
6. The aim of the research is reached, namely: the theoretical foundation of the dark tourism is created, new methods of the research is formed by means of which the current state and prospects of dark tourism flows organization in Ukraine are studied.

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"Does It Make Sense to Sell Destination to Internal Publics?"

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Abstract

This paper talks about a unique concept of educating stakeholders to be more sensitized towards tourists. In academic world this is an internal marketing intervention. The idea is that a tourist's experience at any destination to a large extent depends upon the how the stakeholders including the local community behave with them. While most countries talk about an external marketing campaign, in India, besides the popular external marketing campaign of "Incredible India", there is an internal marketing campaign popularly known as "Atithi devo bhava". Internal marketing calls for educating the stakeholders for an understanding of the destinations' tourism objectives, operational priorities on one hand, and impact of this effort on the values, beliefs, priorities and culture of the stakeholders on the other. The present study tries to investigate the affects of internal promotional campaigns on the perception of general public who are the internal stakeholders at the destination.

Keywords: *educating stakeholders; internal marketing; tourism*

Paper type: *Scientific paper*

Introduction

Developing tourism at a destination is in the interest of the stakeholders who earn direct benefits from tourism sales. Additionally, state through its agencies (Boards, Departments, etc.) also have significant stake and interest in development of tourism. This is driven by the belief that benefits of tourism, primarily economic, are distributed relatively evenly among the host community. On the other hand, host community is invariably an integral part of the tourism product. Community's natural, cultural and built assets along with the lifestyle provide the essential context for a tourist's experience. The community concurs for tourism at their place. The local authorities then on behalf of the community; or as cooperative efforts of some players/ cartels promote and organise for tourism related services to be delivered to tourists. Some of the members of the community may decide to provide some services for the visitors as individual entrepreneurs. The tourism service providers therefore draw sanction or at least have concurrence from the community. The business interests of individual service providers force them to compete to offer superior services to the visitors. However, the experience for a tourist may go haywire if the community is hostile or is unwelcoming. Individual service provider's efforts go unnoticed if the larger experience is not so good. At every point of travel through the destination, a tourist comes across the members of the host community who sometimes have little idea as how to engage with tourists. It is therefore being considered if the members of the community need to be educated about good behaviour towards tourists. The underlying premise of this study is that only when the community correlates tourism to its welfare, they develop a positive disposition towards tourists. When there is a positive vibe, experience of tourists is superior. Better the experience of tourists greater will be the demand for the destination and so more money comes into the local economy. Therefore, some tourism authorities around the world educate stakeholders including general public for desirable behaviour. Some researchers have referred to this as internal marketing (IM) at the destination. The question is does it make sense to spend on such interventions.

The concept of internal marketing has not been used quite explicitly in the context of the destinations. There have been a few theoretical discussions but empirical testing has been limited (Gowreesunkar, Cooper, & Durbarry, 2009). The whole concept of internal marketing appears to be interpretation of what Herb Kelleher, Founder and Chairperson of Southwest Airlines, often said "*our most important customers are our employees. If you take care of your employees they will take care of your customers. And when your customers are taken care of, they will keep doing business with you. Then your shareholders will be happy*". However, there are a few caveats. One, this suggests that if your employees (read internal stakeholders) do not feel good about your company (read destination) and do not believe in your brand promise, then why would your external customers (read tourists) be interested in your offer? Two, the onus is on the company to enable the employees to deliver what the company has promised to the customers. Third, the whole idea has so far been discussed with reference to companies who make a promise to an external customer and have some amount of control over the employees who deliver the promise.

However, in case of a tourist destination, the challenge is that the tourists' experience is a result of services provided by numerous independent businesses that have their vested interests and partner with several other companies in the supply chain for a win-win case. However, there are numerous other stakeholders who contribute to a tourist's experience but fail to relate to the Destination Management Organisation's (DMO's) promise as they are not able to make out how promoting and selling tourism at the destination benefits them. Stakes are often varied and the correlate between living the promise and the return is frail. Stakeholders are not salaried employees of the company. A casual meeting of a tourist with a villager in a remote village is as much a part of her experince as her ineraction with a street side vendor who sells a bottle of water; or a porter who helps her at the railway station; or a taxi driver who takes her around Delhi or the trained tour guide who escorts her; or the staff of a tour company. Therefore, an organic relationship exits between the residents (and other service providers) and the tourism destinations… (Gowreesunkar, Cooper, & Durbarry, 2009). Cooper & Hall (2007) talk about the interdependency and co-creation aspects which are prerequisites in delivering the final tourism experience. Keeping together all stakeholders and reinforcing the promise at the destination is the challenge that DMOs must live up to. Tourism being an ephemeral experience, the interaction with the stakeholders is the most perceptible and tangible cue. Challenge therefore is to turn these different stakeholders into evangelists that go above and beyond for the DMO and the destination. For this to happen, the stakeholders must buy-in the destinations' promise and values that define the destination's brand.

Ebren (2006) refers to internal marketing as the application of marketing inside the organisation to instill customer focused-focused values. But this is not restricted to communication with internal stakeholders. Internal marketing is a comprehensive apprach to enable 'internal publics' deliver. Different reserachers have suggested constructs that construe internal marketing- inter-functional coordination and integration (Winter, 1985; Narver & Slater, 1990; Glassman & Mcafee, 1992); customer-orientation (Gronroos, 1981); marketing like approach (George, 1990); job satisfaction (George, 1990; Nahavandi, Caruana, & Farzad, 2008); empowerment (Gronroos, 1981; Berry & Parasuraman, 1991; Rafiq & Ahmed, 1998); stakeholder's motivation (Rafiq & Ahmed, 1998; Nahavandi, Caruana, & Farzad, 2008; Cahill, 1996); quality of service (Berry & Parasuraman, 1991); stake-holder's development (Foreman & Money, 1995; Piercy & Morgan, 1989); vision of the firm (Foreman & Money, 1995); strategic rewards (Ahmed, Rafiq, & Saad, 2003); commitment (Gummesson, 1994); rewards (Lee-Ross, 1999); training and development (Nahavandi, Caruana, & Farzad, 2008); senior leadership (Ahmed, Rafiq, & Saad, 2003); and, internal communication (Ahmed, Rafiq, & Saad, 2003; Schultz, 2006).

Schultz (2006) offers the following concept of internal marketing: *'It involves all activities, actions and managerial directions that an organisation implements in order to encourage and generate employee and other stakeholders' support for marketing programs within the firm'.*

Kemp, Williams, & Boredelon (2012) in a recent study suggest that some elements of marketing mix contribute to citizens eventually becoming committed to destination's branding efforts. Once they accept the intrinsic values of the brand, residents feel such a strong connection to the branding efforts of the destination, that the brand becomes aligned with their self-concept. Stakeholders, especially residents begin to zealously advocate the brand. This also helps in creating a civil consciousness that helps to strengthen the destination's brand management system, especially as it is introduced to external constituents, such as potential tourists. Crick (2002)has also cited efforts of three Caribbean destinations that have internally marketed tourism to their host populations in order to encourage the desired attitudinal expressions. (Kaurav & Prakash, 2011) maintain that while stakeholders serve as serrvice providers they must also be treated like clients.

Gowreesunkar, Cooper, & Durbarry (2009) cite Cahill (1996) to conclude that in case of tourism destinations there could be no external marketing without internal marketing. The acceptance of residents to welcome tourists within their living environments is a prerequisite as this influenses tourists' satisfaction and perception of tourism at the destination. Even service providers draw sanctity for a business from the host community's willingness to address tourist issues. Cooper (2007) suggests that destinations need to deploy an internal marketing approach as it includes all the efforts necessary to gain commitment and involvement towards destination partners and tourists. Chi & Qu (2008) in their research observe that "overall staisfaction with hospitality experience is a function of satisfaction with individual elements/ attributes of all the products/services that make up the experince such as accomodation, weather, natural environment, social environment, etc.

Johnson & Scholes (1989) suggest that the consolidation of acceptance (by stake-holders at a destination) is vital and is achieved through communication. Gowreesunkar, Cooper, & Durbarry, (2009) conclude that Communication has to be given a central position in the internal marketing process, as ideas, knowledge (tacit and explicit), information and suggestions need to be extracted from the host community, the service providers, authorities and associations. The result is co-operation and this leads to cohesion of stakeholders in the delivery of the tourism product. Internal communication is a powerful enabler, especially in the case of destination marketing, where loosely connected independent stakeholders need to come together to recreate an experience for the tourist visiting the destination. One example is the '*Atithi Devo Bhava*' campaign of the Minitsry of Tourism, Government of India. Ministry of Tourism, as the national tourism authority, with this public will campaign encourages all internal stake holders for good behaviour towards tourists.

Atithi Devo Bhava (Guest is God)

The „Incredible India" campaign was launched in 2002 by the Ministry of Tourism, Government of India and, like its name, made an immediate impact on the tourism industry of the country. The tourist influx of the country increased manifold in the subsequent years. ‚*Atithi Devo Bhava*' campaign was initiated in 2005 to improve relations between host and the visiting foreigners. Having understood the role and importance of host community for shaping a tourist's experience, government had decided to sensitise the general public for treating tourists, especially the foreigners, properly. '*Atithi Devo Bhava*' is a public communication type of a campaign that focuses on creating 'public will', which will motivate members of the community to demonstrate generous behaviour towards visiting tourists. The campaign targets the general public, while also touching other stakeholders of the tourism industry. The main components of the campaign are training and orientation to taxi drivers, guides, immigration officers, tourist police and other personnel, who get to directly interact with the tourist.

Union Ministry of Tourism chose Mr. Aamir Khan, the popular film actor, as the brand ambassador for its immensely successful 'Incredible India' campaign and spread the message of '*Atithi Devo Bhava*' (guest is god). The campaign is a country wide awareness drive to enlighten the people about the necessity of cordiality towards both domestic and international tourists. As a brand ambassador, Aamir Khan is expected to promote the rich cultural heritage of India, and ways to preserve and enhance it. He will also try to convey to the general public to behave in accordance with the spirit of ‚guest is god'. The TV commercials as well as the print advertisements and posters featuring Mr. Aamir Khan have gone public from January 21, 2009.

The primary aim of the campaign is to encourage good behaviour towards tourists. Having had a superior experience, tourists are likely to return and pass on a positive word-of-mouth. This in turn is expected to boost tourism in the country, which will further act as a catalyst for India's economic development. The national level initiative was designed to address the pertinent issues of behaviour towards tourists both at micro and macro levels and work towards acceptable solutions to address them.

Research issues

The present study tries to investigate the affects of internal promotional campaigns on the perception of general public who are the internal stakeholders at the destination. The case in point is the "*Athithi Devo Bhava*" campaign for advocating good behaviour towards tourists.

The purpose of the study is to understand if such a campaign is effective in changing the perceptions of the public and therefore justifies the investment in such an effort. Since different places are not equally popular for tourism, a difference in opinion of people about tourism being good for them can be expected. To investigate this, opinion of the respondents about tourism as benefactor was captured. It was theorised to be a benefactor because it creates jobs, it's good for the economy and it contributes to promoting peace through raising understanding.

Further, the underlying assumption was that those destinations which are more touristic have enlightened stakeholders who believe that tourists deserve a better treatment. In fact this is the underlying assumption in the "*Athithi Devo Bhava*" campaign. The research hypothesis in this case was that members of community in popular tourist destinations believe that tourists are not properly treated (and that they deserve a better treatment).

It was decided to measure and compare disposition of those who were exposed and those who were not exposed to the campaign that promotes good behaviour towards tourists. Research endeavours to establish if exposure to campaign brings about a change in self efficacy. Social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1992) defines self efficacy as the belief that one has the skills and abilities necessary to perform the behaviour under various circumstances and that this motivates to bring about the necessary change in behaviour. This translates into whether exposure to campaigns encourages stakeholders to take action in case they come across a situation where tourists are being ill-treated.

Research also solicits opinion about whose responsibility is it to ensure good behaviour towards tourists. It was hypothesised that once exposed to campaign stakeholders would increasingly start owning up responsibility for ensuring good behaviour towards tourists.

Results

Evaluation was based on a sample of 14697 respondents spread across 30 States and Union Territories in the 5 regions of the country- north, south, east, west and north-east. Stratified random sampling was done in 49 cities in these 30 geopolitical units. These cities represented 6 category-X cities, 21 category-Y cities and 22 category-Z cities. Cities in India are classified by Government on the basis of their population. X category cities include large metropolis (Tier I). Y category cities are the other bigger cities (Tier II) while the Z category cities are the smaller cities (Tier III). Field survey was carried out during May, June and early part of July of 2011. A panel of experts categorised the destinations into 3 categories based on whether a destination was *very popular*, an *upcoming destination* or an *obscure destination*. Such categorisation clubbed 9 cities in category one (2754), 18 cites in category two (6669) and remaining 22 cities in third category (5264).

11741 respondents reported recalling the campaign while 2518 respondents reported that they have not seen the campaign (advertisements in print or audio-visual media). There were 438 missing values (2.98%).

Is tourism good?

Three independent variable Tjobs (Tourism creates jobs), Twealth (Tourism brings wealth) and Tpeace (Tourism brings peace/ harmony) were regressed with Tgood(tourism is good). A step-wise regression was used. The resulting regression equation was:

Tgood = 2.106 + 0.383 Tjobs + 0.093 Twealth + 0.071 Tpeace

The multiple correlation between variables was 0.577. The model explained 33.3 % of variation (R^2) in dependent variable Tgood. However, model also suggested that Tjobs, Twealth and Tpeace were all significant predictors of the Tgood. The adjusted R^2 increased to 0.333 in stepwise regression results. Tjobs with standardised beta of 0.440 was found to be the most important predictor.

However, an interesting result was obtained when Tgood (Tourism is good) was measured and compared across the three destinations types- popular destinations, upcoming destinations and obscure destination. Results of ANOVA are as below:

Table 1. ANOVA for difference of means for opinion 'Tourism is good'

	Sum of squares	*df*	*Mean squares*	*F*	*P-value*
Between groups	1686.90	3	562.30	2439	0.000
Within groups	3383.15	14674	0.23		
Total	5070.05	14677			

Analysis suggests that there is significant difference in opinion of the community across the three destination types. The community at obscure destinations concurred least (mean score 4.29) with the proposition that 'tourism is good'. Community at upcoming destinations (mean 4.44) and popular destination (mean 4.40) had a more positive disposition. It is interesting to see that community at popular destinations is less enthusiastic about tourism being good as compared to community at upcoming destinations who are most enthusiastic. Results of regression and ANOVA read together suggest that while community at popular destinations feel more strongly that tourism creates jobs, brings wealth and brings peace and harmony; perhaps they have felt the pressures of tourism. Those at upcoming destinations are driven by the enthusiasm that tourism is good.

Table 2. Comparison of belief of community at different types of destinations (on a 5 point scale)

	Popular destinations		Upcoming destination		Obscure destinations	
	Mean	*S.D.*	*Mean*	*S.D.*	*Mean*	*S.D.*
Tourism creates jobs	4.25	0.70	4.22	0.72	4.14	0.59
Tourism brings wealth	4.18	0.74	4.13	0.76	4.04	0.59
Tourism brings peace/ harmony	4.12	0.74	3.93	0.84	3.89	0.64

Tourists are not properly treated

Comparing mean scores of responses at the three categories of destinations using ANOVA suggested a significant difference in means.

Table 3. ANOVA for difference of means for 'Tourists are not properly treated'

	Sum of squares	*df*	*Mean squares*	*F*	*P-value*
Between groups	170.21	2	85.10	89.66	0.000
Within groups	13937.73	14684	0.95		
Total	14107.94	14686			

The mean scores of responses suggest that with increase in popularity of a destination community starts believing that tourists are not properly treated and they deserve a better treatment. At more popular tourist destinations the mean was 3.88 followed in order by upcoming destinations (3.81) and obscure destinations (3.61). The difference was found to be statistically significant 5% level.

Does educating publics make a difference?

Respondents were asked what they would do if they saw someone cheating the tourists. They were given four options and there was a statistically significant difference in the opinions on the issue between those who were educated through the campaign and those who were not.

Table 4. Cross tabulation of respondent's choice of action when they see tourists being cheated. Compassion between those educated by the campaign and those left out

	% of those who were educated through the campaign	% of those who were not exposed to the campaign	Total
I will report to the police	28.0%	14.4%	25.6%
I will ask other people to intervene	16.5%	5.8%	14.6%
I will stop the miscreant	48.7%	42.1%	47.6%
I cannot do anything	6.8%	37.7%	12.2%
Total (percentage)	100%	100%	100%
	11741 respondents	2518 respondents	14259 respondents

Significant difference at 1% for Pearson's Chi-square test

Further, those who were exposed to the campaign were positive (relatively) about the efficacy of such an educational programme to bring about desirable change in attitude of the people towards tourists. T-test suggested a difference significant at 1% level between the opinions of the two groups- educated (4.08 on 5 point scale) and unexposed (3.57 on 5 point scale).

Whose responsibility is good behaviour towards tourists?

Opinion of respondents regarding the responsibility for good behaviour towards tourists is given below:

Table 5. Comparison of opinions about whose responsibility is good behaviour towards tourists?

		Those not exposed to the campaign			Those exposed to the campaign		
Whose responsibility is good behaviour towards tourists?		Mean	SD	Rank	Mean	SD	Rank
1.	Tour company	3.09	1.25	4	3.53	1.08	4
2.	Police	3.31	1.15	**2**	3.78	0.98	**3**
3.	Government	3.40	1.17	1	3.98	0.97	1
4.	General public	3.29	1.29	**3**	3.81	1.01	**2**

The results suggest that respondents believe that it was most importantly the government's responsibility to ensure good behaviour towards tourists. Similarly, tour company was considered least responsible (among the four options given to the respondents) for good behaviour towards tourists. However, public who was not educated believed that it was more of Police's responsibility than general public or Tour Company. However, once educated, respondents started owning up the responsibility visible from a higher rank for general public than police's. However, for those not educated about the issue the difference in rating for police's and general public's responsibility was not significant. But, once educated about the issue the rating for public's responsibility (3.81) was found to be significantly more than responsibility rating for police (3.78) at 5% level of significance deploying a pair wise comparison.

Should DMO invest in such an effort?

DMOs in India are the tourism departments of the government. Once the community was educated about good behaviour towards tourists they also supported sustained efforts of government to educate public for the same. A negatively worded question 'Government is wasting money on a useless issue' was rated low (2.084 on a 5 point scale centred at 3). However, those exposed to campaign (mean 2.08) negated the idea more than those who were not (mean 2.7). The difference was also found to be statistically significant.

Further, respondents were quite clear (4.32 on a 5 point scale) that government (read DMO) should continue with such campaign. Again those who were educated were more supportive of continuing such campaigns (4.33) as against those who were not exposed to such campaign (3.77). The difference was statistically significant at 1%.

Conclusion

A powerful destination brand is one that reverberates with targeted customers and has a buy-in by internal publics- the different stake-holders (Chowdhary, 2012). It implies that all stakeholders at every point of time during the visit should ensure that a visitor's actual experience supports the image that is created, making the brand believable and relevant.

For above to happen, the (host) community should buy the idea of tourism at the destination and emotional proposition enshrined in the brand. All stake holders at the destination must have unflinching faith in the intrinsic values that the brand portrays. Community is the key contributor to a visitor's experience. The context of the community sets the premise for experience. The way members of a community conduct self has a lasting impact on a tourist. Members of the community are therefore the best and most powerful brand champions. A good destination strategy, therefore, envisions internally advocating the values and tourism products.

Sheehan & Ritchie (2005) have opined that that as part of Internal Destination Development (IDD) responsibility of a DMO, they must try to solicit cooperation of multiple stake holders at a destiation else it may threten the DMO's ability to achieve its objectives. Such a coordination is therefore considered the central activity of a DMO (Presenza, Sheehan, & Ritchie, 2005). While DMOs carry out visible activities to coordinate the stakeholders, they must also invest effort in internal marketing.

Results of this research clearly suggest that advocating internally does affect the perception of the destination stake holders, and therefore their beliefs and actions. It is also clear that such advocacy cannot be left to chance. It has to be a part of well thought of destination strategy clearly identifying what need to be communicated to internal publics and having a institutionalised mechanism in place. DMOs must come forward and own the responsibility for such an effort.

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"Does Internal Marketing Influences Organizational Commitment? Empirical Evidences from Hotels in Gwalior"

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Abstract

Hotel industry market is developing rapidly, that is why only industry has been transmuted to one of the biggest fields of professional activities in the world. Managers belongs with the industry should provide the option of utilization of potential opportunities for themselves with intelligence and improve their organisational performance. In this instance the market is not only the final consumer but also an individual (employee) or a group of individuals (employees), within the organisation. Customer delight cannot be achieved without fundamental contribution of the employees who deliver the service. Selling of any service, there is needed to shape relationship with customer. For shaping a relationship there is a need for knowing the behaviour of employees and their satisfaction criteria? Without commenting on this aspect, discussion is just depletion of time.

This paper is to understand the employees' satisfaction through internal marketing and resultant commitment to their tasks or assignments. The survey has been done in hotels. Reliability test (Chronbach' Alfa), Correlation, Regression, Cross-tabulation and Chi-Square (test of independence) was applied and discussed throughout the paper.

This research article found strong correlation between the practices of internal marketing and organisational commitment. Regression analysis has explained well the criteria of relationship. Cross-tabulation has supported that medium practices of internal marketing elucidate more organisational commitment. This paper reported some directions to next researchers also.

Keywords: *correlations; cross-tabulation; Gwalior; hotels; internal marketing; organisational commitment; regression*

Paper type: *Scientific paper*

Introduction

Hotel industry has been transformed itself to one of leading industries of the world. It has got quick developing market share. Managers of this industry should provide effective utilisation of resources including human with maximum possible exploration of available opportunities. Industry has got some different characteristics in comparison of other competitive industry and therefore it has attracted the corporate management styles in some ways. Efficient and effective organisations belongs with this industry has got attraction of both customers and employees primarily.

The organisations here need to understand the chain of profit and service and the process of converting service in profit. The employees plays a very important and vital role in delivering the process. This is why only employees found major source of satisfaction to the customers and therefore satisfying employees is found most important concern in the today's competitive era.

There is need to start work by paying attention to those who are dealing with issues related to customers. To solve these issues and challenges in the settings of services, a new approach has been developed and has proposed a new discipline which is called internal marketing. Researchers has recognised internal marketing as a way of market and customer orientation. Studies related to this background revealed that internal marketing activities improved organization's competitiveness and performance through influence and creating motivation in employees and it would resulted in organisational commitment.

Generally it is said that implementing practices of internal marketing in service organizations will prepare these organizations with greater competencies. It resulted in customer satisfaction while enjoying of competitive leadership. There are many global and Indian corporate houses who witnessed the results of internal marketing, i.e., Southwest Airlines, Taj Group of Hotels, Madhya Pradesh Tourism Development Board, Wipro BPO, ICICI Lombard, HTMT Global Solutions etc.

In divergence of previous researches in the field of internal marketing, this research tries to study and develop the framework for the impact of internal marketing on organizational commitment. Researchers also want to propose mechanism of maintaining such relationship empirically, which is very less in context of service industry especially in hotels of India.

Today's world of shorter service (product) lifecycles, the instant transmission of information, it is possible for every company to enter the market and make a competition. The organizations have pertained the role of marketing management towards identification and fulfilment of needs and wants of the customer. Customer orientation has been identified as ethos adopted by organizations for success. It has become increasingly difficult for the organizations in present to maintain their market leadership. Increase in the services and aggressive competition has also been major contributor towards the cause. The resources and technologies used by the organizations should be combined with internal and external customers to develop competency and organizational commitment among employees.

Hotel services as one of oldest commercial activities have large market share in delivering various level of services quantitatively and qualitatively to various levels of external customer (individuals and companies) successful organizations are those that integrate efficient and effective management in internal and external dimension through external customer relationship management and enhancement of organizational commitment among internal customers.

External customer satisfaction cannot be achieved without fundamental contribution of the customer-contact, employees who provide the service. Selling of any service, there is prime importance to build relationship with customer. For building a relationship there is need for knowing the employees behaviour and how they will be satisfied? This project is undertaken to know the employees satisfaction through internal marketing practices, to their works in hotels and restaurants in Gwalior. The market survey has done in hotels and restaurants.

- This research will be of use for managers of hotel to know the dimensions which can be useful for providing better experience, through employees, to customers.
- Internal marketing can help in creating superior experience for customers, in the environment of competition. Therefore, it is found to be important for the purpose of filling gap between industry and academia.
- Organizational commitment has indirect relations with overall performance. That is why only it was an important issue before researcher. Therefore, it was thought to understand this phenomenon for in depth exploration.

Internal Marketing Conception and the Concept of Organizational Commitment in the Literature

Internal marketing

Internal marketing is considered as attempt of organization for education, reward and general management of human resources for motivating them to provide better service offerings. It is believed that employees constitute as a major tool of better performance to the organization. The internal marketing of the products in service section which need to satisfy employees' needs and demands and result in recognizing of the organization's purposes and employees are considered as primary customers of the organization.

Ahmed and Raffia (1995) introduced internal marketing as execution of the organization's strategies and used the combined word as internal marketing. Price or payments, promotion or progress (education, empowering, and communications), working place or environment and processes (job products) are applied as indexes of internal marketing by them in their study. Performed a study in the field of internal marketing in Malaysia and has applied indexes of organizational plans in the form of, strategic rewards, internal communications, education and development, employment, reward systems, empowerment and processes in order to measure and evaluate internal marketing. Foreman & Money, in 1995 have utilized internal communications, education, creating of motivation, empowerment, guidance and organizational incentives as indexes while consider internal marketing synonymous with human resources management. Lings (2004) has performed a study about the relation between internal marketing and job satisfaction in Greece. He has used organizational dynamic structure, participatory decision making, empowering, and being aware of the circumstances of the working market, internal relations among managers and employees, existing of job descriptions in the organization, education and organizational rewards indexes in order to evaluate internal marketing.

The definitions reviewed within the literature highlight the ability possessed by internal marketing to improve service quality through an organizational effort. The definitions encountered within the literature can be categorized according to three perspectives, the internal customer, and the development of a customer orientation and the theory of internal marketing as an implementation mechanism. For the purpose of this paper the group will focus on the customer orientation perspective as it is relevant in the context of high contact service employees. According to Fill (1999), internal marketing communications takes different roles in different settings.

An example of competitive understanding would be the behaviour of employees (directly involved in sales related activities) when sharing competitive information with other functions and using them to take advantage of competitor weaknesses (Grönroos, 1981).

Ahmed and Rafiq (1995) proposed IM as a management implementation methodology that is suitable for a diverse range of contexts. Recapitulating the involvement of IM in the field of strategy implementation this section ones again expands the broader scope if IM. Having dealt with employee relations first and secondly with market orientation the third pillar explicitly does also focus on non-contact employees who influence the customer service capabilities through back-office excellence. The wider approach in terms of employees and functions and the suitable link towards strategic changes requires a more generalist approach from managers and enterprises. Considering the integrative approach between changes and functions IM can reach success factors like market orientation, performance, service quality and collaborative support for new strategies. Referring to Wilson and Fook (1990) the sustainable implementation of IM tools that facilitate the change process leading to competitive advantages requires "to market the marketing concept" and function.

Varey (1999) has identified a number of themes offering a contribution to the development of a more sophisticated and valuable conception of internal marketing:

- Marketing-oriented service employee management
- The scope, nature and purpose of marketing
- Marketing as exchange
- The political economy paradigm
- Organization as a "domesticated" (internal) market
- The internal market paradigm
- Internal marketing as a social process
- The individual person in an internal market
- A relational perspective on communication
- Empowerment and
- Internal marketing as a new form of industrial relations.

Varey (1995) concludes that internal marketing as such can no longer be understood as a specialist functional approach but as a holistic model for market-oriented management that permits a variety of internal change management approaches to enhance the operation of the model. He states "The functional distinctions of marketing, personnel, and quality management are no longer helpful in understanding the complexity of strategic management of adaptive organizations. Internal marketing is not the property of a single functional specialism, but includes organizational behaviour, organizational development, strategic management, and other areas".

Ahmed and Rafiq authors of the book Internal Marketing: Tools and concepts for customer-focused management suggest that authors have many definitions of internal marketing and from studying the literature they have highlighted five main elements of the concept:

- Employee motivation and satisfaction
- Customer orientation and customer satisfaction
- Inter-functional co-ordination and integration
- Marketing-like approach to the above
- Implementation of specific corporate or functional strategies

Antecedent of internal marketing

The review of the literature indicates that there are a number of competing definitions and activates all claiming to address internal marketing. In order to check the validity of these competing claims, what is required is a set of criteria against which to assess each definition. In 2000, Rafiq and Ahmed identified the main element of internal marketing from the analysis of literature.

- Employee motivation and satisfaction.
- Customer orientation co-ordination and integration.
- Inter-functional co-ordination and integration.
- Marketing-like approach to the above.
- Implementation of specific corporate or functional strategies.

Kaurav, 2014, in his doctoral study, about internal marketing and business performance, found following factors (variables), which works as antecedents for practices of internal marketing, in settings of services.

- Customer orientation
- Leadership
- Marketing communication
- Stakeholders empowerment

Kaurav (2014), in his very recent study, about preferences of internal marketing practices, found six factors which works as antecedents for internal marketing.

- Trainings of employees
- Performance of organisation
- Strategy of organisation
- Encourage employees
- Vision of organisation
- Roles of organisation

Organizational commitment

Definitions of the concept organizational commitment include the description by O'Reilly (1989), "an individual's psychological bond to the organization, including a sense of job involvement, loyalty and belief in the values of the organization". Organizational commitment from this point of view is characterized by employee's acceptance of organizational goals and their willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organization (Miller & Lee, 2001). Cohen (2003) states that "commitment is a force that binds an individual to a course of action of relevance to one or more targets". This general description of commitment relates to the definition of organizational commitment by Arnold (2005) namely that it is "the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in an organization". Miller (2003) also states that organizational commitment is "a state in which an employee identifies with a particular organization and its goals, and wishes to maintain membership in the organization".

Steers (1977) conducted a study to look into the antecedents and the outcomes of organizational commitment. He found that the antecedents (as he proposed) were important and significantly related of organizational commitment, for both samples. These antecedents were divided into three groups, which were as follows: personal characteristics, job characteristics and work experience. As for the outcomes of the organizational commitment, it was found that commitment was strongly and positively related to the intent to remain in the organization for both samples.

Kaurav (2014), in a very recent study found following five factors (variables) works as antecedents for organisational commitment:

- Consultations of employees
- Team work of employees
- Educations of employees
- Desire of customers
- Needs of customers

Research Methodology

The major objectives for pertaining this research project were:

1. To develop, standardize and validate the questionnaire on internal marketing, which measures the effect of IM on OC for employees working with hotels.
2. To identify the impact of internal marketing on level of organisational commitment.

Population for this study was the employees working in hotels and restaurants of Gwalior. As a list of employees working with hotels and restaurants was not available with the researchers, therefore, it was difficult to utilize a framework for selecting samples. Employees who were working with the same hotel for minimum last 2 years was preferred for data collection as sample units. Total sample targeted was 200 individuals from hotel and 187 responses were found completely filled and suitable for data analysis. Sample technique adopted for the study was convenience sampling method for data collection. Data collection was done from first week of January 2014 to Last week of March, 2014 in total three month to complete the survey.

A self-designed structured and tailored questionnaire was utilized to conduct the survey. The questionnaire was designed on the basis of literature review. Questionnaire was consist of 3 Sections, where *Section A* was having 14 questions of organizational commitment, *Section B* consisted of 15 questions of internal marketing. These questions were asked on 5 point Likert type scale where 1 stands for strongly disagree and 5 Stands for strongly agree. Towards the end of questionnaire *Section C* was asked 6 demographic questions from respondents.

For the purpose of data analysis summated scale was utilised. Correlation and regression analysis was performed on the mean scores of IM and OC. Ranking was done on high, medium and low experiences of IM and OC and independency of data was checked through cross-tabulation and chi-square test.

The Impact of the Use of Internal Marketing on Organizational Commitment of Employees – Results in Gwalior Hotels

Sample profile

There was the designated sample size, which is the number of sample units selected for contact or data collection.

In totality 187 respondents were investigated in the study. 135 males and 52 females participated in the survey. They belong to the age group of >18–30, > 30–50 and >50 was 129, 30 and 28 respectively. 97 out of them were single and 90 were married. Out of total respondents 22 were having qualification till school, 123 having UG, 42 having PG degrees in their hand. 161 individuals were working for 2–5 years and only 26 individuals were working in the same hotel for 5–10 years. Majority of respondents, that is, 82 were having 3–5 member in their family as dependents, 42 were having 1–3 and 63 were having more than 5 members in their family as dependents.

Measure of reliability

Nunnally (1978; 1988) indicated that new developed measures can be accepted with an alpha value of 0.60; otherwise, 0.70 should be the threshold. However, considering the use of these scales for the first time in a new culture, the cut off value for the alpha coefficient was set up for 0.60 for all the scales (self-developed scales).

Table 1. Cronbach's Alpha reliability coefficient statistics for total scale

	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
Organization Commitment	0.711	14
Internal Marketing	0.717	15

Source: on the basis of research results, computed by researchers.

It is considered that the reliability value more than 0.6 is good and it can be seen that most of the important reliability methods applied here, reliability value was higher than the standard value, therefore, all the items in the questionnaire were found highly reliable (refer table 1).

Does IM and OC have relationship?

The first interest of the researchers was to identify whether practices of IM have any relationship or association with organisational commitment at any point of time. Therefore the decision has been taken for identifying correlation between value between IM and OC. Table 2, reports about the parametric correlations value. A hypothesis was formed based on this relationship.

Table 2. Correlations

		Organisational Commitment
Internal Marketing	Pearson Correlation	0.762**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000
	N	187
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
Source: on the basis of research results, computed by researchers.

A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was computed to assess the relationship between internal marketing and organizational commitment. There was a positive correlation between the two variables, r (185) = 0.985, $p < 0.001$ (two-tailed). A scatterplot summarizes the results (Figure 1) Overall, there was a strong, positive correlation between internal marketing and organizational commitment. Increases in practices of internal marketing correlated with increases in organizational commitment in the employees of hotels in Gwalior.

H_0 1:	There is no significant relationship between internal marketing and organisational commitment.	Hypothesis Rejected P =0.000
H_a 1:	There is positive relationship between internal marketing and organisational commitment.	Failed to Reject Hypothesis P =0.000

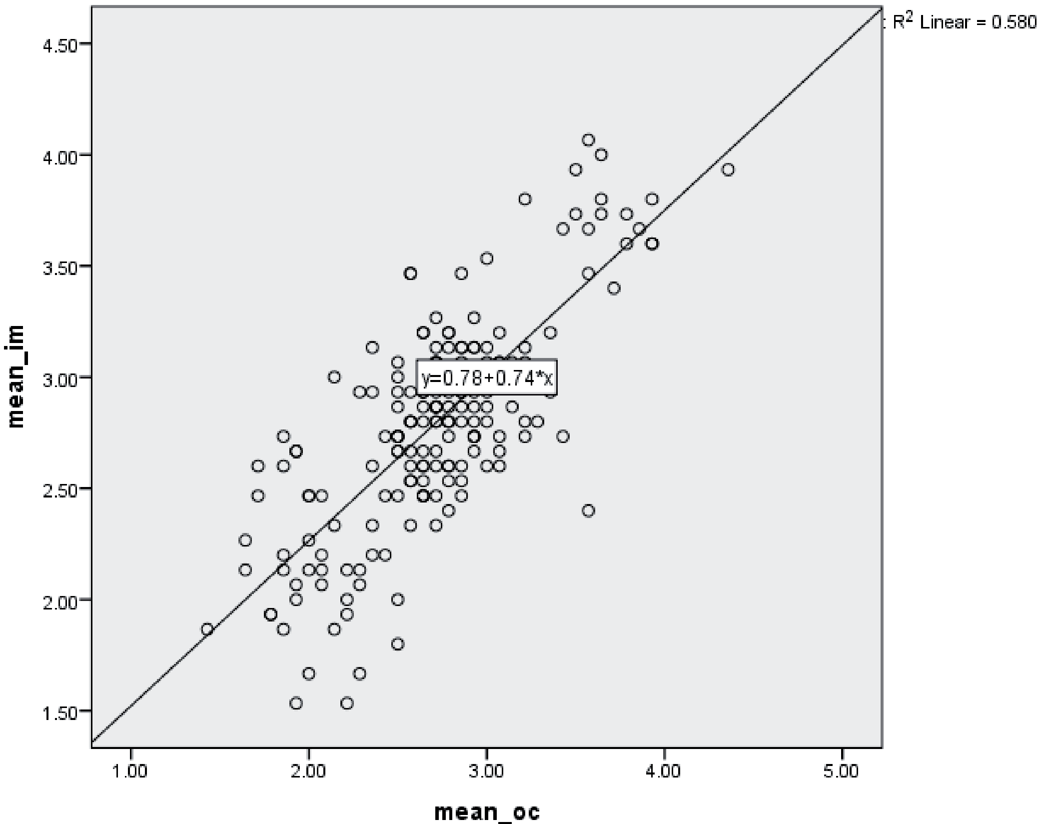

Figure 1. Correlation patterns between dependent variable (OC) and independent variable (IM)

Source: on the basis of research results, computed by researchers.

How IM influences OC (Regression analysis)?

Before proceeding for regression analysis, a thought of satisfying all the assumptions was accepted by the researchers.

Assumption 1: *Measurement of variables:* Bothe variable (IM and OC) of this study has been measured on continuous scales.

Assumption 2: *Linear relationship between variables:* Figure 1 of the correlations has proved that the variables have linear relationship between them.

Assumption 3: *No significant outliers:* Outliers detection was already done and figure also indicate that there was no significant outlier in this study.

Assumption 4: *Independence of observations:* The observations of both variables were independent enough. As the value of Durbin-Watson is very near to 2, which is 1.87. It indicate the independence of observations utilized for this study.

Assumption 5: *Homoscedasticity of data:* Correlation figure 1, have shown the homoscedasticity of the variable with UCL and LCL.

Assumption 6: *Residuals (errors) of the regression line:* Two types of diagram Histogram (with a superimposed normal curve) and normal p-p plot were drawn and found that residuals of the regression line were approximately normally distributed.

It was found the data collected for this study is satisfying all the assumptions, therefore, linear regression is interpreted further. Table of model summary has come up with one model where R=0.762, it suggests about correlations, which has been discussed in details. R^2=0.580, indicated that internal marketing explains 58% of variance of organisational commitment, which is satisfactory in this case.

Table 3. Model Summary [b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	0.762[a]	0.580	0.578	0.32921	1.866
a. Predictors: (Constant), mean_im					
b. Dependent Variable: mean_oc					

Source: on the basis of research results, computed by researchers.

ANOVA table indicated the statistical significance of the regression model, which is good. P=0.000, which is less than 0.01, and indicated that, overall, the regression model statistically significantly predicts the outcome variable (organisational commitment).

Table 4. ANOVA [a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	27.745	1	27.745	255.995	0.000[b]
	Residual	20.050	185	0.108		
	Total	47.795	186			
a. Dependent Variable: mean_oc						
b. Predictors: (Constant), mean_im						

Source: on the basis of research results, computed by researchers.

Coefficient table indicated prediction of organisational commitment from internal marketing. It also determines hoe IM contributes significantly ($p<.01$) to the model.

Organisational Commitment = 0.53 + 0.78 (Internal Marketing)

Table 5. Coefficients [a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	0.529	0.139		3.820	0.000		
	mean_im	0.781	0.049	.762	16.000	0.000	1.000	1.000
a. Dependent Variable: mean_oc								

Source: on the basis of research results, computed by researchers.

Internal marketing significantly predicted organisational commitment, b =0.76, t(185) = 16, p <.001. Internal marketing also explained a significant proportion of variance in organisational commitment, R^2 =0.58, F(1, 185) = 256,p <.001.

How important is IM for OC?

Researchers did classification of respondents for their high, medium and low organisational commitment against internal marketing practices. Interestingly no respondent were observed with high IM and low OC, means low is not possible with high IM practices. Similarly with low IM practices none of the respondents were felt low and high organisational commitment. Out of 187 respondents, majority 157 were observed medium IM practices and have medium organisational commitment.

Table 6. Rank total IM * Rank total OC Crosstabulation

		Rank for total OC			Total
		High OC	Medium OC	Low OC	
Rank for total Internal Marketing	High IM	14	8	0	22
	Medium IM	1	157	5	163
	Low IM	0	2	0	2
Total		15	167	5	187

Source: on the basis of research results, computed by researchers.

Chi-Square test of independence was applied to understand whether the IM and OC is having some level of association or not and found that the data is not independent, as the results of chi-square was significant at 0.05.

Table 7. Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	104.707[a]	4	0.000
Likelihood Ratio	64.041	4	0.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	73.082	1	0.000
N of Valid Cases	187		
a. 6 cells (66.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 0.05.			

Source: on the basis of research results, computed by researchers.

Bilateral histograms were drawn to know the increasing pattern of IM and OC. It is found that increasing practices of internal marketing lead to increase in organisation commitment in males and females equally.

One interesting point to note that organisational commitment was increased till medium level of internal marketing practices and started decreasing from higher level of practices. This type of observation has never been witnessed in any earlier studies in any context even not in global context. This phenomenon can be explored further.

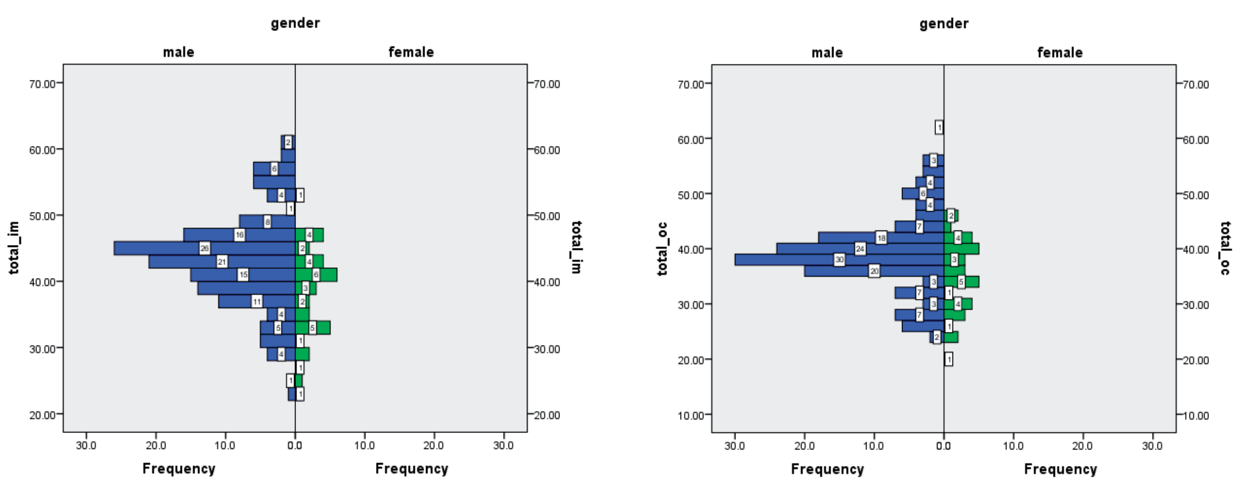

Figure 2. Chances of occurrence for IM and OC

Source: on the basis of research results, computed by researchers.

Conclusions and Summary

The present study aims to examine the impact of internal marketing concept for employees from hotel industry on their organisational commitment. Today, internal marketing has been considered as an approach for making market orientation of employees. Studies related to this background revealed that internal marketing activities improved competitiveness of the organization.

This piece of research testified the level of association between IM and OC and found a strong and positive relationship in them. Study also accompanied with the impact analysis (regression weights) and found 58% of variance with highly impacted OC.

The importance of developing and maintaining relationships with customers of service provider (hotels) is generally accepted in the literature. A key challenge for researchers is to identify and understand how managerially controlled antecedent variables influence important relationship marketing outcomes. The study also expected to make recommendations to business managers on the critical role of marketing relationship in doing business, particularly in competitive markets. External customer satisfaction cannot be achieved without the fundamental contribution of the customer-contact employees who provide the service. The study suggests internal marketing is important for hotel sector to set up good services. The project is useful for the better understanding of the employee's satisfaction. The project encompasses the various satisfactions of employees and to know role of internal marketing. This project will also be helpful to the manager of hotels in planning a suitable strategy for futuristic development of their enterprise.

Limitations of research

Every study, no matter how well it was conducted and constructed, has limitations. Despite making sincere efforts, the researchers came across some limitations that would have affected the quality of the study. The sample size should be according to availability of respondents in that sector, which was indirectly a problem to researcher how to find out the exact no of respondents to be in sample size. Limitations of the study include the time and cost issues which forced researchers for convenience sampling and may not give results with greater generalizability.

Post note

Researchers have strong statistical evidences to prove that there is casual relationship between practices of internal marketing and resulted organizational commitment. Hence, the researcher has identified various implications for increasing managerial efficiency in hotels. Managerial implication of this research can be improving performance of all the employees by increasing their organisational commitment through implementation of practices of internal marketing.

Implication for academia is that this study have strong evidences of positive relationship and it can be explored further in classes also. By combining managerial and social implications society would definitely have societal benefits and implications.

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"Future of Winter Olympic Games in the Context of Ongoing Application Process to Host Winter Olympic Games 2022" Study Case: Cracow Bid

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Abstract

The concept of Olympism, i.e. healthy rivalry of athletes from all over the world, is the fundamental element of the Olympic Games (summer and winter), which are mega-sporting and, mostly as a consequence, touristic events. Unfortunately, with time the idea of Olympism begun to succumb to more profound commercialization and politicization, as sport arenas became a scene to demonstrate power of individual countries. Competition for hosting the Games was always high, due to the assumption that they will bring in investment, boost the economy and increase tourism. To determine whether the Olympics bring profit or loss to the host city, a research that takes into account the cost-revenue analysis, as well impact on tourism is necessary.

The main reason for the deliberations shown in this study was the decision of Cracow to apply for hosting of 2022 Winter Olympics and then withdrawal of the bid due to a negative result in a local referendum, which confirms that the society's opinion of the Games have changed. The application process for the host of the WOG 2022 highlights the changes that have occurred in the perception of this global event by the citizens, politicians and authorities. As a result of those changes, 9 months before the vote of the WO 2022 host, only two Asian applicants remain in the competition. Thus, the question arises about the future viability of the Olympics, especially the winter ones, if the current trend will be preserved.

Keywords: *Cracow bid, event tourism, Olympic Games, Winter Olympic Game 2022*

Paper type: *Scientific paper*

Introduction

The Olympic Games are one of the most significant mega sport events in the world. The history of the Games reaches far before Christ and their legacy survived until the Modern Era, allowing the revival of the Olympics movement. The ancient principles of the Games are what makes them stand out from similar events. The Olympic Games, both summer and winter, are mega-sporting and, mostly as a consequence, touristic events. They draw hundreds of thousands visitors to host cities and billions of viewers to the TV coverage (Overseas Travel and Tourism - Monthly Release, September 2012). Hosting major sports events is a type of event tourism. Even though there are issues related to financing, as well as sustainability, it is not difficult to list the benefits of hosting an event, both long and short-term, including an increased tourism demand, branding and media exposure. The Olympic Games can be described as mega events[1], however the opinions on their profitability are biased among the specialists, politicians, as well as the inhabitants of host cities. As many costs and benefits are not quantifiable, it is not easy to find reliable sources to obtain data and carry out accurate calculations and comparisons. Darren McHugh (2006) proposes the following taxonomy to enumerate all costs and benefits associated with hosting the Games (table 1), however it also does not give a chance for a realistic comparison. Lack of research and analysis carried out in each host country after the Games, as well as a unified system of gathering and publishing data, account for significant barriers in this respect.

[1] Mega events are defined by Philips (2014) as "international events attracting visitors from all over the world and having the potential to encourage coverage by important international media".

Table 1. A taxonomy of Olympic Costs and Benefits

Event Costs	Event Benefits
• Bid costs • Security • Congestion externalities • Administrative costs • Translation costs • Promotion (i.e.: the torch relay) • Advertising • Opening/Closing ceremony costs • Insurance	The Olympic Spectacle • Viewing pleasure of ticket audience • Television Spectacle (translates into TV revenue) • "Promotion of sporty lifestyles" • Positive externality accruing to Olympic Athletes who compete in their home country • Housing services for athletes during the games (since most of them don't have standing and are only housed for a short time, this can likely be ignored). Induced secondary effects of direct outputs • Stimulated tourism demand (also a secondary effect of Halo) Primary effects of Halo • "Pride" externality accruing to citizens of the host city/province/nation. • Surplus accruing to volunteers who enjoy the experience Intangible Secondary Effects of Halo • "Cachet services" (i.e. - sponsorship, sales of commemorative coins)
Infrastructure Costs • Construction of housing • Construction of supporting transit infrastructure (transit lines, highways) • Construction of venues	**Infrastructure Benefits (Benefits that could be realized simply by** building the infrastructure and not holding the Games at all) • Future social housing • Future athlete use of infrastructure • Future public use of infrastructure • Future transit use

Source: Darren McHugh (2006), *A Cost-Benefit Analysis of an Olympic Games*

Recently, the International Olympic Committee is putting more emphasis on the sustainability of the Games that conforms to the current trends in tourism. The Olympics are, in fact, a collective of projects, which makes it difficult to assess their impact. The Games empower host cities and enable them to evolve, develop and grow in terms of image, tourist services, etc. For example, Torino was well-known for its industry, and the main purpose of the Winter Olympics 2006 was to change that image into more tourist-oriented destination. Previous to 2006, Torino was graded as 'worth a detour' (by the Michelin guide 2006), it was promoted to 'worth a tour on its own' (Olympic.org, 2014). The number of visitors has increased by a million over the 6-year period (from 3,3 million in 2006 up to 4,3 million in 2012) after holding games, which was possible due to thoughtful planning and considerable involvement of the local community (Olympic org. 2014).

The Olympics are supposed to promote the philosophy of Olympism and contribute to building a peaceful and better world by educating youth through sport practiced without discrimination of any kind. They are also meant to be conducted in the Olympic spirit, which requires mutual understanding between competitors and fans, with a spirit of friendship, solidarity and fair play (Olympic Charter).

The concept of Olympism: Citius - Altius – Fortius (Faster – Higher – Stronger)

The concept, born in ancient Greece and revived in the late 1800s by Pierre de Coubertin, was meant to lead to integration of societies and nations. The idea of Olympism relates to the mainstream humanistic view, creating a foundation for sport and physical culture, and giving a high place in the social hierarchy. Olympism, according to Zuchora (2009, p.241), "is an appeal to all to create and build the modern world of sport in such a way as if it was possible to have life without the existential fear of war, if justice was meted out to all according to the same measures, if everyone was equal and the ways to perfect oneself to truth, goodness and beauty could be based on pedagogy of hope and pedagogy development through joy". Olympism is aimed at all people, regardless of age, profession, ethnicity, nationality or religion, and its specific characteristic is participation of all people of good will, involved in development of humanity. According to the Olympic Charter[2], Olympism is a philosophy of life, praising and connecting body, mind and soul into a balanced entity. Combining sport with culture and education, Olympism seeks to create a way of life based on the joy of effort, educational value of good role model, social responsibility and respect for universal ethical principles. According to Olympic Charter participating in sports is one of the human rights. Everyone has the right to participate in sports without discrimination and in the essence of the Olympic spirit, which requires a mutual understanding as well as friendship, solidarity and the idea of fair play, which is understood as selfless respect for the rules of the game and for the opponent, maintaining equal chances in fight, not taking advantage of random superiority, resignation from material benefits of victory and minimising the suffering of the opponent (Polish Olympic Committee statute, 2014).

[2] Olympic Charter (1898) consists of a collection of fundamental principles of Olympism, implementing rules, activity of the Olympic movement and conditions of Olympic ceremonies adopted by the International Olympic Committee.

The Olympic Games were, and still are, identified not only with a major sporting event, but also with an international celebration of youth occurring every four years, and every two years since 1994: alternating summer and winter. In common opinion the Olympic movement is one of the most important and particularly worth cherishing phenomenon of the modern world. Therefore, the Olympic Games should be an international event promoting sport and healthy lifestyle, as well as the idea of fair play, peace and equality between people (Kurkiewicz 2008). Unfortunately, with time the idea of Olympism began to succumb to profound commercialization and politicization, as sport arenas became scenes to demonstrate power of individual countries. The application process for the host of the WOG 2022 highlights the changes that have occurred in the perception of this great event by the citizens, politicians and authorities in broadly understood Western societies: the Olympic games are ‚unfashionable' and perceived as a bottomless pit due to enormous costs of erecting sport infrastructure needed only for the fortnight of the Games. (Abend 2014). As a result of those changes, 9 months before the election of the WOG 2022 host, only two applicants remain in the competition (Livingstone 2014). Thus, the question arises whether the future of the Olympics, especially the winter ones, if the current trend will be preserved.

Past experiences of selected countries that hosted Olympic Games

History demonstrates that when planning the organisation of such large events, costs are often underestimated and benefits overestimated (figure 1). This results from the aggressive marketing and media hype inspired by the politicians wanting to acquire the support of the inhabitants of the potential host city (Mościcki 2012). Montreal organised the Summer Olympics in 1976 and until today it is the most profound example of mismanagement where substantial over-budget spending led to debt of 1.5 billion USD. It took 30 years to pay off the debt – the last payment was made in 2006, and the authorities struggled until today with the issue of maintenance of the Olympic stadium that costs the taxpayer 20 million USD annually. Scientists argue that even though the example of the Canadian city, every other host city in the history of the modern Olympics has went over their planned budget.

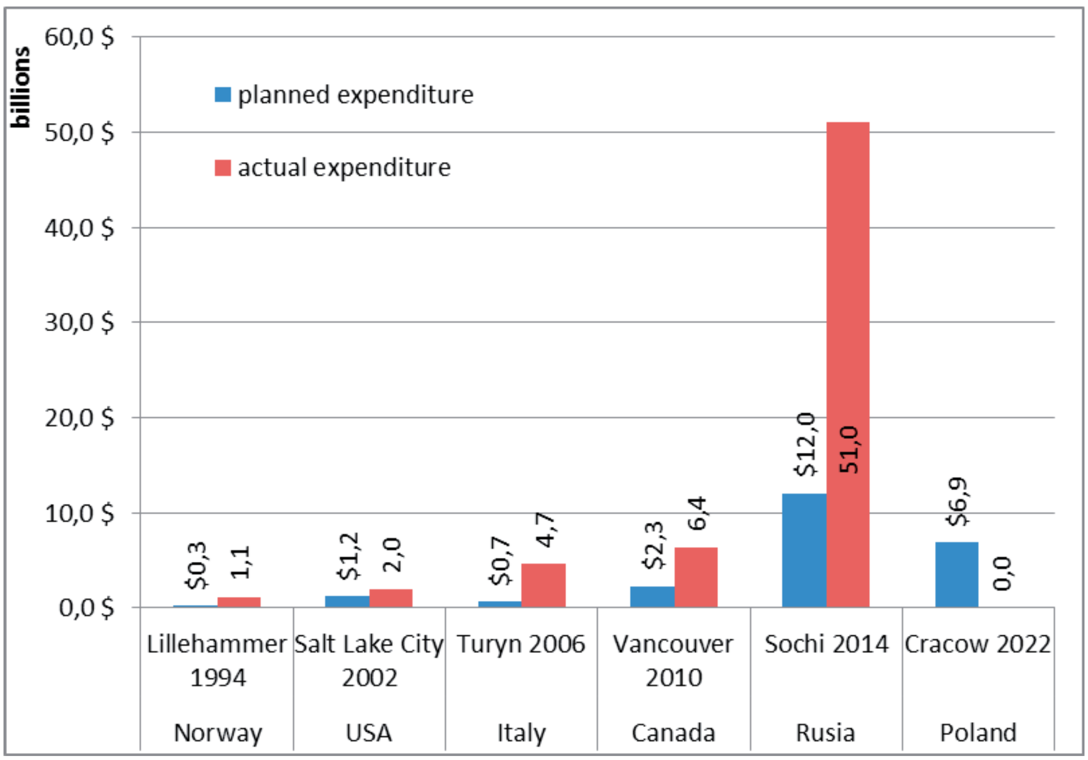

Figure 1. Comparison of expected and actual costs of organisation of Olympic Games

Source: Wałachowski, Kępa (2014), *Kosztowne igrzyska,* Ośrodek Badań o Mieście.

So far, the most successful host city was Los Angeles (1984), which actually made a profit. How was this achieved? Chiefly because of private funding and using already existing adequate infrastructure to minimise the costs. The Los Angeles 1984 Olympics showed the International Olympic Committee (IOC) that the televising rights can bring high profits.

Profits generated by the organisation of the Calgary WO 1982 are shown to be 150 million USD, which was achieved by huge government subsidies. Sarajevo 1984 Winter Olympics were the first Games since 1932 to bring profit and were followed by four consecutive financially successful Olympics: Los Angeles 1984, Calgary 1988, Seoul 1988 and Barcelona 1992. At that point in time, Olympics were government-funded. During the organisation of the Lake Placid WO 1980, the Olympic Committee went almost bankrupt and help from the state authorities of New York was necessary. After Lillehammer

1994 Winter Olympics, 40% of hotels went bankrupt, and ski slopes were sold for minimal prices to avoid their downfall (Thomas 2014). The sport and supporting infrastructure was meant to be reused in 2022 during the WO organised by Oslo, however Norway has cancelled its bid as the 6th country in the process. Because of the deliberate destruction of the accounting files of the Olympics organised in 1998 in Nagano, it is not possible to determine the actual budget, however it is estimated to be nearly 10 billion USD. As a result, Nagano fell into recession and its Olympic-related debt is on average 30 thousand USD per household and it is still growing. Maintenance of the Olympic venues alone costs 22 million USD annually and only brings about 10% in return. Athens 2004 were organised thanks to support from the European Union and its budget came up to an estimated 16 billion USD. Meanwhile, when the Greeks were submitting their bid, they were planning on spending only 1.6 billion USD. It is believed that it was the summer of 2004 when Greece begun its march to bankruptcy, to which it succumbed when the global recession hit Europe. Also only 1.6 billion USD was estimated by the Chinese for the Beijing 2008 Olympics. The communist regime in Beijing got carried away, thinking only of the potential propaganda success the event could be. Eventually, China spent about 40 billion USD and demolished most of their Olympic venues even earlier than the Greeks did it.

On the other hand, London 2012 Olympics can be counted as a success, as the number of visitors increased after the Games (promoting the host city is one of the goals of organizing Olympics): the IOC reported 698,000 visits to the UK related to the London 2012 Summer Olympics/Paralympics. Office of National Statistics (2013) has noted a 12% increase in the number of visitors in June 2013 compared to the same time in the previous year. However, Nouriel Roubini (2014), an economist, has classified the London Olympics as 'economic failure', as many tourists not related to Olympics avoided London during the Games and Brits remained at home fearing the crowds. Many of the most popular suburbs and tourist attractions of London were actually less crowded than usual. The company Experian Footfall claims that during the two weeks of the Games, the number of visitors in stores of East London fell by 9.6%, while, according to the expectations, the hospitality sector noted a rise of 4.8%, as well as increased profit per one available room by 95%. According to Borowski (2012), head economist of Kredyt Bank, London Olympics were significant for the city and the country mainly for prestige reasons, because the city has already possessed the adequate infrastructure and was attractive for tourists. Therefore, according to Mr. Borowski there was no positive long-term economic effects. Despite the fact that government officials forecasted that the Games would positively influence the construction industry, because the majority of the companies realising the infrastructural projects were British (98%).

The chance of profit is tempting for many cities; however, investing in such a project is risky. Since 1992, every other Olympics have brought losses to the organisers. Even applying can be expensive as branding, marketing and PR are necessary to obtain the support required to back up the bid. It has been 10 years since the Summer Olympics in Athens and, according to *The Independent*, 21 out of 22 venues are not in use and are rotting away (Anon, 2008). London 2012 was more costly than Athens (by 5.6 billion USD), however that also includes the costs of adapting some of the facilities so that it can be used for longer than just 2 weeks (Smith, 2012). London 2012 OGOC has worked hard to turn the Games into a legacy. Department of Culture, Media and Sport has stated that 'any pressure from international sporting federations – or indeed from the International Olympic Committee – to build unnecessarily high-specification venues should be strongly resisted' (Department of Culture, 2007). One of the projects was to turn the Olympic Stadium into a football venue (then assigned to West Ham United) at the additional cost of 250 million USD (Magnay, 2013). Financial clarity of the organising committees is often questioned by the public as occasional scandals are revealed. For example, Vice-secretary General of the Nagano 1998 Olympic Bid Committee - Sumikazu Yamaguchi - burnt all accounting documents, so the total cost of the Games is unknown; however, it is estimated as a net loss that nearly brought Nagano to bankruptcy. Excessive expenditure and measures of the Sochi 2014 preparations (Anon, 2013) have added up to approximately $51 billion (Yaffa, 2014). According to Alexander Belenkiy (2014), Sochi is a "ghost town" barely 6 months after Games.

However, the Olympic Games have a great potential that can be used for the benefit of a host city. Economists use the term 'Barcelona effect' to describe the increase of tourist attractiveness and, therefore, influx of international visitors, related to the Olympic Games. The name of the term comes from Barcelona, which hosted the Games in 1992 (Duran 2002). During the Olympics, Barcelona was a secondary European city. In next few years, it gained popularity, transformed into a global tourist-business centre and gained mass influx of tourists, economic growth and increase in employment. This effect was achieved through enormous spending on the development of the infrastructure of Barcelona: city bypasses were built and all industrial sites on coastal areas were removed to give Barcelona full access to beautiful beaches. Experts claim that a similar situation can happen in any country hosting a major sporting event (Brunet 2012). The scale of the Barcelona effect is difficult to estimate ex ante. Therefore, assumptions made in empirical studies regarding an increase in the influx of international tourists to the host country in years after the event tend to be biased and over-estimating. Many experts also use the term 'Montreal effect' that relates to the Montreal 1976 Olympics and the serious debt and economic issues of countries hosting major sporting events. The history of the Olympic Games shows the Montreal effect of acquiring large debt is more common than the Barcelona effect. The exact results of economic gains or losses of the organisation of the Games is virtually impossible due to the multi-dimensionality and complexity of the phenomenon discussed. An attempt to determine the influence of the organisation of winter Games in 21st century on selected economic indicators is shown in table no. 2.

Table 2. Influence of hosting the Olympic Games on selected indicators.

City - WO host / aim	Cost in billions USD	Dynamics of the GDP per capita	Labour market	The end result
Salt Lake City (USA) 2002 Aim*: general economic develop- ment, transfor- mation of the city into a centre for recreation and sport	2	strong revitalisation of the economy (**GDP 20 % in 2010 compared to year 2002)	an increase in employment (40 thousand new jobs)	evident economic growth, however high sensitivity to crisis situations. **42% increase in the number of visiting skiers and 67% increase in the spending by skiers and snowboarders, which results in labile changes on the labour market
Torino (Italy) 2006 Aim*: recultivation of urban space and an increase in competition	4,7	no improvement of the economy (2010 – GDP lower by 3.2% compared to 2006)	in the Olympic period, 18 thousand of jobs were created mainly in the hospitality and gastronomy sector, in the post-Olympic phase – even higher dynamic, especially in the trade and gastronomy sectors	image change of the city from industrial to touristic
Vancouver (Canada) 2010 Aim*: socio-cultural transitions and an increase in the importance of tourism	6,4	no improvement of the economy (higher GDP indicators in the period preceding the Games, turn for the worse during the global crisis	***45 thousand of new jobs in years 2003–2010), an increase in the unemployment since 2009, which proves that the full potential of the Games was not utilised to create beneficial tendencies on the labour market	in the year of the Olympics (global recession), British Columbia was visited by 649 thousand of tourists: 242 thousand from Canada, 324 thousand from USA, 83 thousand from other countries, which is believed to a significant success of the Games
Sochi (Russia) 2014 Aim*: prestige	51	no improvement of the economy	no significant changes due to low unemployment shown	seriously limited

Source: own analysis of data based on Piechota, I., (2014). *Zmiany na rynku pracy miast – gospodarzy zimowych igrzysk olimpijskich (Changes on the labour market of the host cities of Winter Olympic Games)*, * Coliers International report, February 2014, **website Salt Lake City Chamber 2012, *** University of British Columbia report comparing trends on the labour market in Vancouver and other Canadian metropolieses

According to official data, both expected and real costs of the Olympics increase with time. It is the result of the increasing popularity of the Games, economic growth of individual countries and enrichment of their citizens, as well as a dynamic development of new technologies. An important factor accounting for a constant increase in costs of hosting is the systematic growth of athletes competing in an increasing number of sports and events (table 3).

Table 3. Winter Olympic Games in terms of volume – athletes and sport events.

Games	Year	Host city	Host country	Nations	Athletes	Sports	Disciplines	Events
I	**1924**	**Chamonix**	**France**	**16**	**258**	**6**	**9**	**16**
II	1928	St. Moritz	Switzerland	25	464	4	8	14
III	1932	Lake Placid	USA	17	252	4	7	14
IV	1936	Garmisch- Partenkirchen	Third Reich	28	646	4	8	17
V	1948	St. Moritz	Switzerland	28	669	4	9	22
VI	1952	Oslo	Norway	30	694	4	8	22
VII	1956	Cortina d'Ampezzo	Italy	32	821	4	8	24
VIII	1960	Squaw Valley	USA	30	665	4	8	27
IX	1964	Innsbruck	Austria	36	1091	6	10	34
X	1968	Grenoble	France	37	1158	6	10	35
XI	1972	Sapporo	Japan	35	1006	6	10	35

XII	1976	Innsbruck	Austria	37	1123	6	10	37
XIII	1980	Lake Placid	USA	37	1072	6	10	38
XIV	1984	Sarajevo	Yugoslavia	49	1272	6	10	39
XV	1988	Calgary	Canada	54	1423	6	10	46
XVI	1992	Albertville	France	64	1801	6	12	57
XVII	1994	Lillehammer	Norway	67	1737	6	12	61
XVIII	1998	Nagano	Japan	72	2176	7	14	68
XIX	2002	Salt Lake City	USA	77	2399	7	15	78
XX	2006	Torino	Italy	80	2508	7	15	84
XXI	2010	Vancouver	Canada	82	2566	7	15	86
XXII	**2014**	**Sochi**	**Russia**	**88**	**2900**	**7**	**15**	**98**

Source: own research based on data from official website of Olympic Games (www.Olympic.org)

As shown by the data on Winter Olympics, the number of disciplines increased between I WOG (1924) and XXII WOG (2014) increased from 9 to 15, and the number of events from 16 to 98. Meanwhile, the number of athletes grew from 258 (16 countries) to over 2900 (88 countries), and so did the number and mobility of the fans. This situation requires more and more investment for the necessary Olympic infrastructure: sport, communication, hospitality-catering and supporting. Economists point out that currently excessively high investment costs are not able to balance the quantifiable and non-quantifiable benefits of hosting an event lasting for only two weeks.

Winter Olympic Games 2022: study case - Cracow bid

It can be distinguished 4 big phases of the Olympic cycle: the birth of an idea to bid, the decision of the NOC (National Olympic Committee), winning the bid (when succeeding), major preparations for the games and the Olympics followed by all their effects (Preuss, 2002). Eight countries considered applying to host the WOG 2022 (Switzerland, Germany, Sweden, Norway, Poland, Ukraine, Kazakhstan, and China). However, St. Moritz with Davos (Bosley 2013) and Munich with Garmisch-Partenkirchen (Mackay, 2013) held referenda and abstained from applying, because the revenue from such an event cannot be easily predicted. Ultimately, 6 countries entered the competition, including 4 European countries.

Stockholm (Sweden), due to prolonged dialogue with the government, submitted its application at the last minute and then withdrew it on January 17th, 2014. The reason for its withdrawal of the WOG 2022 application were concerns about the cost associated with investment. It turned out that the planners of the Swedish Olympic Committee, when estimating the expenditure, based their analysis on the costs of investment incurred by the organisers of Vancouver 2010 Games. Jane Sterk, leader of the Green Party in Canada claims that, from the beginning, the Olympics were being prepared basing on false data and empty promises to convince the citizens to support the idea of organising the Games in the referendum in Vancouver (64% voted: yes). Costs of security and safety increased from planned 175 million USD to 1 billion, and building of the underground cost 2 billion USD (Polska - The Times, 2010).

Lviv (Ukraine) applied to IOC on November 5th 2013. Due to the economic and political instability of the country the IOC announced on June 30th 2014 that Lviv will focus of applying for WOG 2026 and it will not continue to apply for the Games is 2022.

Oslo (Norway) has announced its application after the results of the local referendum indicated the support of residents. The bid, however, has been withdrawn, because the Norwegian parliament rejected the notion to provide financial guarantees for the organisers on October 2nd 2014 (Anon 2014).

Alamaty (Kazakhstan) and Beijing (People's Republic of China) were the only non-European cities applying to the 2022 Winter Games and, as of time of writing, are the only two left in the race. Kazakhstan hosted Asian Olympic Games in 2011 and was chosen to host Winter Universiade in 2017. Beijing is meant to host ice-hockey, speed-skating, figure-skating, short-track and curling, while other events are supposed to take place in Zhangjiakou region. In case of victory, Beijing would become the first city to host both summer and winter Olympics.

The initial idea of hosting Winter Olympics in Lesser Poland was born in 1993 and bidding for 2006 Olympics was proposed. Even though Cracow is the capital of Lesser Poland, it was Zakopane – town located at the foot of the Tatra Mountains - that was meant to be the host. The venture ended in a fiasco, when Torino won the bidding. Despite the failure, the idea did not die and it was revived and redesigned in 2012. This time Cracow became the centre of the project as it has a strong touristic image. Jagna Marczułajtis-Walczak[3] and Szymon Krasicki[4] are the authors of the first concept of the project "Cracow - Winter Olympics 2022". The local government of Cracow and region, members of the Parliament and the government supported the idea and provided the financial guarantees that were submitted to the IOC on November 7th 2013 as a part of the Cracow Bid.

[3] Polish snowboarder, Member of the Parliament in the 7th term (born 1988)

[4] Polish cross-country skiing coach, lecturer, assistant professor of physical education (born 1936)

Cracow's infrastructure is already highly developed and the Olympics plans accounted for use of many already existing facilities, however, all of the skiing events were supposed to take place in Zakopane Cluster (located 100 km south of Cracow). Although Zakopane is a very popular skiing resort, it would need some investment to bring it to the Olympic standard. The transport infrastructure between the two clusters would require improvement, not only be necessary for the time of the Games, but that could benefit all the inhabitants of the Tatra region for the years to come. Cracow and Zakopane are located in the province of Lesser Poland, which is a major centre for winter sports training in Poland. Therefore, utilisation of the facilities could have been simple to predict.

According to the estimations, as a result of organizing the Olympics in Lesser Poland, 35 thousand new jobs were meant to be created, and election of Cracow as a host was supposed to be an opportunity for a stable increase in employment, mainly in the tourist and para-tourist sectors. The enthusiasts also pointed out the increased demand for specialists in construction, IT and energy industries related to organisation of the Games. The adversaries[5] believe the analyses carried out by Spanish scientists affiliated with Universitat Autňnoma de Barcelona, which confirm that the jobs created due to events like that are not stable or long-term and often rely on 'junk' contract, and even illegal work (Leżoń 2014).

In March 2014 the chances of all candidates for hosting of the Winter Olympics 2022 were analysed and assessed by an American group of independent specialists (table 4). According to that assessment, Kazakhstani Almaty came first, followed by Oslo, Beijing, Lviv and Cracow respectively (Rapalski, Serafin 2014).

Table 4. Assessment of chances of candidate cities for WO 2022.

Advantages	Disadvantages
I. Almaty – Kazakhstan	
- candidating for the third time - mountains and infrastructure only 30 km away from the city - 8 out of 12 venues needed were already submitted to the IOC, next 2 will be built before 2017r.	- the accommodation base is too small - necessity of construction of ski jumps and venues for ice-based competitions - construction of the Olympic village - expansion of roads and the airport
II. Oslo – Norway	
- sport venues located only 10 km away from the city - it has a state of the art infrastructure – best amongst all candidates - the budget of the Games closes within 5.1 billion USD, which is a relatively small amount - the application process and promotion costs 48 million USD	- lack of political support from the Norwegian government to provide financial guarantee - Norway hosted two Olympics already (Oslo 1952 and Lillehammer 1994), moreover, it will host Youth Winter Olympics in 2016 – for the IOC authorities it can mean 'too much of Scandinavia' - Oslo co-hosts the Games with Lillehammer, located 200 km away, which creates the necessity for building of two Olympic villages and will force the spectators to travel
III. Beijing – China	
- it has the necessary hospitality infrastructure that was built for the 2008 Summer Olympics - it has an enormous Olympic stadium 'Bird's Nest', which dwarves all venues of other candidates	- the Games must be held in three cities (all ski competitions will be held in the province Zhangjiakou located 200 km away from the capital, therefore an idea came up to build a train between the cities to reduce the travel time to 2hours) - the IOC might not be interested to organise another Games in the Far East (2008 – Beijing/Summer Olympics, 2018 – Peyong Chang/Winter Olympics, 2020 - Tokyo / Winter Olympics

[5] the voluntary action *Cracow Against Olympics* (pol. Kraków Przeciw Igrzyskom), citizens

IV. Lviv – Ukraine	
- the citizens of Lviv who support the Games count on the improvement if the city's infrastructure - Ukraine plans to spend 51.6 million USD on the application - the budget for the preparation and the Games themselves comes up to 8.4 USD - before the change of authorities, the city had a strong support of the government - a consortium of five expert companies was hired, which has won the elections for many cities already - the logo is ready	- complicated political and military situation - necessity for construction of bobsleigh and luge tracks, as well as new venues in Carpathians (Volovets and Tysovets located ca. 180 km away) - website related to the preparations does not work
V. Cracow – Poland	
- total cost of sporting venues for the WO 2022 in Cracow would add up to 200 mln USD	- roads, venues and hotels must be built - Cracow wants to co-host the Games with Zakopane and Slovakia: alpine skiing in Jasna (ca. 200 km away from Cracow), other competitions, for example, in Zakopane (100 km). The IOC does not approve of that (none of the countries that proposed such a solution has ever reached the final phase of application) - poor funding: estimated cost of 7 billion USD, including 6 million USD for the Swiss company EKS carrying out the Cracow's application and 16 million USD for the promotional campaign and there might not be enough funds to the IOC

Source: own research based on Rapalski, Serafin (2014), *"ZIO 2022. Igrzyska nie dla Krakowa - oceniają eksperci z USA" (WOG 2022. Olympics not for Cracow – according to American experts.*

The first edition of the Around the Rings[6] Olympic Power Index for the 2022 Winter Games also provides some measure of the weakness of the cities remaining in the race. All five scores are in the middle range of the Power Index (table 5), which evaluates the bid cities across 11 categories ranging from accommodations to venue plans. In this initial review, scores in the category of ambience have been pegged at three until satisfactory assessments in this subjective category can be made. It is one of two categories – along with Last Games – that has maximum score of five. The other nine categories carry 10 points maximum, with total score possible of 100. Almaty scores the best, but it's only 64 points out.

Table 5. Around the Rings Olympic Power Index for the 2022 Winter Games

March 2014	Almaty	Beijing	Krakow	Lviv	Oslo
Ambience (5)	3	3	3	3	3
Accommodation	6	6	6	6	7
Bid Operation	5	5	6	6	7
Finance	7	7	5	5	2
Last Games (5)	5	1	5	5	2
Legacy	7	7	6	7	7
Marketing	6	7	5	5	8
Gov/Public Support	7	7	5	5	5
Security	5	6	5	5	7
Transportation	6	5	5	5	7
Venue Plans	7	4	4	4	6
POWER INDEX	64	57	55	56	64

Source: Hula E., Bisson M., (2014), 2022 Power Index -- Uncertainty Rules Winter Olympic Race.

6 Around The Rings in the opinion of "The Guardian" (February 4,2010) has long been the most influential internet presence on the Olympics.

Nowadays, more often presented argument against organizing WOG is fact, that current organizational requirements of the Games are ever-growing. Some of the demands of the IOC seem unnecessary, such as building extra ice rinks, even though the events can be easily held in one. This creates sunk costs, as those arenas are not used after the Games (Magnay 2013, Rolland 2013, Rynek Turystyczny 10/2014, Seliga 2014). However, Krasicki (2014) defended the concept of organising the Games in Cracow by reminding that 'in the case of Poland, which is still poorly developed, organizing this global event could give a chance for significant progress through acceleration of construction and modernization of roads and communication facilities, as well as sport and recreational base. It could mean that there would be a possibility to make a developmental jump, which in 'normal conditions', i.e. without Winter Olympics, could take next decades'.

Two opposing bodies have expressed their strong opinions on the grounds of this complicated problem: the voluntary action *Cracow Against Olympics* (pol. Kraków Przeciw Igrzyskom), led by a student, Tomasz Leśniak and the official voice of the Cracow City Council. In case of the first, citizens expressed their concerns and opposed the hosting of WO 2022, while the latter focused on the advantages, justifying it by saying that there is already enough negativity in public sphere (Leśniak 2014). And it is true, as the Council has started the campaign later than the opposing committee, which has already succeeded in convincing citizens. Even though both of these entities were out there, promoting their notions, especially on the Internet, very little was known on the real opinion of the society. It was necessary to carry out research that would enable the committees to act adequately. The authorities have argued that there is a need for certain infrastructure in Cracow and it would be built anyway, so it makes sense to use money from the IOC for that purpose. The same logic applies to fighting smog. The opposition was mostly concerned about corruption within the commission, which just happened to be true (Kacprzak 2014) and accused the authorities of using middle-means instead of directly addressing the problems. Both of these groups carried out strong campaigns before the local referendum. The referendum was held in time of the EU Parliament elections day, 25th of May 2014 and 35,96% of Cracow population took place in it. The exact question was: *Are you in favour of holding the 2022 Winter Olympic Games in Cracow?* After a negative response, the Cracow bid was rejected by 69.72% of voters.

In the opinion of many citizens, including Polish examining journalist Witold Gadowski (2014), Cracow was wasting money on the Games from the beginning of application process (the expenditure of the bid committee alone accounted for 1.2 million USD, without even accounting the money spent by the local government). The alleged prodigality regards mainly expenditures of the committee, including representation and advisory, as well as the imprecise contract signed by the municipal authorities with the Swiss company Event Knowledge Services (EKS), which prepared the Cracow's application for the WO 2022. It was not considered that the bid might be withdrawn, for example due to a referendum, and the case of payment for the services provided by EKS is currently in court. The question arises why the authorities of Cracow did not hold a referendum before they decided to apply, not after placing the bid and incurring significant expenses. Selection of a logo of the Games also generated a lot of criticism to the committee. Instead of choosing for maximum 10 thousand USD, a logo form the competition submissions (142 to choose from), the committee paid the Swiss company 26 thousand USD. The project imposed on the residents by the committee became a laughing stock of the Internet.

Picture 1. Logo of the Cracow 2022 WO

Source: www.krakow.sport.pl

Cracow has already hosted Euro 2012 (14th European Championship for men's national football teams) and FIVB 2014 (Volleyball Men's World Championship) and will host World Youth Day (expecting approximately 1 million visitors) and European Men's Handball Championship in 2016.

Bożek (2014) states that the ongoing application process for Winter Olympic Games 2022 makes it clear that the idea of Olympism is undergoing a crisis. Europe is at the end of an era of hosting major sporting events. Withdrawal of the applications of Stockholm, Lviv, Cracow and Oslo is a strong signal for the IOC to revise the formula of future Games. Next Winter Olympics will take place in Korean city of P'yŏngch'ang in 2018, the following in Chinese Beijing or Kazakhstani Alamaty (Around the Rings 2014), if the countries do not cancel their bids.

Conclusion

Increase in the number of competition categories (from 16 to 88) and requirements regarding infrastructure (modern stadiums, ice rinks, bobsleigh runs, ski slopes and lifts) lead to an abrupt increase in the cost of preparing and conducting Winter Olympics, to which there are additional increasingly higher costs related to ensuring safety, as well as transport and communication of so-called Olympic family. The process of applying for the title of host city of the Winter Olympics has also been expanded (from one to two phases), which undoubtedly results in further increase in expenditure. Stockholm, Cracow, Lviv and Oslo had cancelled their applications. Even before that, potential bids from Switzerland and Germany were abandoned, after being rejected in local referenda. A lot of cities in Western Europe cancelled their applications as the $51 billion cost of Sochi 2014 seems too much for most, even the richest, candidates. After the Oslo bid was withdrawn, only two cities remain in the race: Beijing, China and Almaty, Kazakhstan (Livingstone 2014). The IOC will meet in Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia, on July 31, 2015, to choose a host for Winter Olympics 2022.

Whether Olympics bring profit or loss is not necessarily the most accurate measure of the cost-revenue analysis. Nowadays, organising the Games is an investment of billions of dollars and host cities cannot expect the return within two weeks. It is an investment for the future of the host city and not just for the Games. Similarly, sporting venues are only costly when they are not utilised after the Olympics. However, the change of perception these events poses many questions regarding the future of the Games and their organization, especially the winter ones.

During the race for hosting of WOG 2022 we can observe the end of an era of high demand for that kind of entertainment. Nowadays, local communities do not want to host the Games (e.g. St. Moritz and Davos, Munich, Cracow) or the authorities resign due to high costs (e.g. Stockholm, Oslo). The Games became an exclusive pastime for some for which the whole community has to pay. Therefore, Europe gave a strong 'No' to the Olympics for the first time. It is a challenge the International Olympic Committee and new President Thomas Bach need to resolve quickly to ensure the long-term viability of the world's most prized sports event. The IOC has stated that, in the face of the crisis occurring, specific action must be taken and developed a 40-point plan to make application process cheaper and subordinated to the needs of the cities, not the necessity to meet initial requirements (Eurosport 2014). IOC President Thomas said „what we want to do in the future is we want to invite potential bidding cities there to study how the Olympic Games would fit best into their social, sport, economic and ecological environment". It means that instead of cities having to fit IOC criteria, the focus should switch to the Games being part of a city's growth plan. Changes to the bidding process and efforts to reduce the cost of the games are among the key issues being addressed by the IOC as part of Bach's „Agenda 2020," his blueprint for the future of the Olympic movement that will be voted on in December (Livingstone 2014). The current crisis centres primarily on Winter Games, which also face concerns over whether rising temperatures will prevent countries from holding the event in future decades.

The most recent Olympics in Europe took place in Torino in 2006 and next potential one could take place in 2026, assuming that there will be willing candidates and that they will win with applicants from other continents.

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"Good Practices of an Underground Health Spa Operation - The Case of the "Wieliczka" Salt Mine"

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Abstract

Spa tourism is an important and specific form of health tourism. It is a part of the tourist market, which was extracted because of the motivation for tourism practicing. Spa tourists come to spas for therapeutic purposes and remain under medical spa supervision. Generally speaking, the spa tourism involves travelling for health and medicinal purposes.

In the paper, the authors discuss the health tourism built on the specific therapeutic qualities of the "Wieliczka" Salt Mine near Krakow. The spa operates underground, in the former salt mine. Apart from discussing the best spa practices involving medicinal qualities of underground microclimate (Subterranoteraphy), some unconventional projects associated with this activity are mentioned, including construction of saline graduation tower. The Salt Mine has also a rich and diverse offer tailored to health resort visitors' needs (packaged spa and medical services) as well as to regular tourists (underground tours in the salt mine, miners' route, etc.), schools and enterprises (organisation of cultural events, support for school, commercial and private events). The offer promotes the "Wieliczka" Salt Mine as an important tourist and spa destination for visitors from Poland, Europe and the whole world.

Keywords: *health resort; health resort visitor; spa; spa tourism; tourist market; the Wieliczka Salt Mine*

Paper Type: *Scientific paper*

Introduction

The tourist market is a complex system with a broad range of target and entity-specific components.The tourist offer derivates from the structure of the tourist economy which comprises some direct (related to tourism servicing) and indirect components (related to development of offers addressed to the population of tourist areas and to the incoming tourists).Insofar as entities are concerned, there are two groups of service providers operating on the tourist market: commercial service providers (entrepreneurs operating in the sector) and public ones (local government units and NGOs representing touristic destinations). Spa tourism, which falls into the health tourism category based on the criterion which is motivation to travel. The demand for such type of tourism is met by the offer of the entities operating on the broadly understood tourist market and by a specialist offer that satisfies the needs of tourists interested in spa tourism (i.e. health resort guests). However, some spa tourism may be used to create a demand to control the demand of tourists visiting health resorts for purposes other than treatment. In such case, the spa tourism offer compliments their tourist needs in a spa destination.

The purpose of this paper is to discuss a particular type of spa tourism based on the unique therapeutic qualities of the "Wieliczka" Salt Mine operating an underground spa. Apart from outlining some good practices introduced by the spa in order to benefit from the underground microclimate qualities (subterranotherapy), the paper also describes some associated unconventional initiatives (including erection of a saline graduation tower).

Spa tourism on the tourist market

Health resort tourism is referred to as spa tourism, health tourism or therapeutic tourism. Spa tourism is directly associated with people who visit health resorts for therapeutic reasons and are supervised by qualified physicians (Dryglas, 2006). In consequence, we may conclude that spa tourism involves travelling largely motivated by health or therapeutic reasons.

The section below presents selected definitions of therapeutic and health tourism in specialist literature. According to A. Jagusiewicz, therapeutic tourism involves stays at hospitals and health resorts in connection with the treatment of some chronic diseases, rehabilitation, secondary prevention and health education (Jagusiewicz, 2001). J. Wolski defines therapeutic tourism as a relocation from one's place of residence to a temporary locality with a therapeutic climate to improve one's physical and mental health, mostly by relaxation and prevention (Niemiec, Trzcińska, 2011). Among the main reasons behind therapeutic tourism J. Wolski listed recovering strength and the health resort lifestyle, as well as an improvement of tourist's health and active methods of relaxation. M. and R. Łazarek define therapeutic tourism as a voluntary departure from one's place of residence to recover one's physical and mental strength in a tourist locality characterized by a microclimate and availability of curative waters. Such type of tourism is usually recommended to the overworked, exhausted, stressed, but physically healthy tourists, who only want to change their environment, meet new people and use the access to biological regeneration (Łazarek, 2007).

The spa tourism market is a tourist market sector, differentiated from the sector from the perspective of tourists' motivation i.e. a beneficial impact on tourist's health and psycho-physical condition as the main or supplementary purpose of tourist traffic. The spa tourism market is a peculiar sector combining the elements of other tourist sectors, hospitality in particular, with the involvement of the medical sector, i.e. spa therapy.

Spa tourism is an important and specific form of therapeutic tourism. The exceptional nature of spa tourism results primarily from the purpose and motivation of stays in spas and from the need to use the services offered by health spa companies. Spa tourism relies on spa treatment which is a commonly recognized medical sector and an important element of tourist economy. Spa treatment involves therapies in natural therapy facilities, where patients undergo procedures based on the use of natural materials (spa resources) including: curative waters, peloid or gases. An important element of spa treatment is the very stay in a place with local, therapeutic climate.

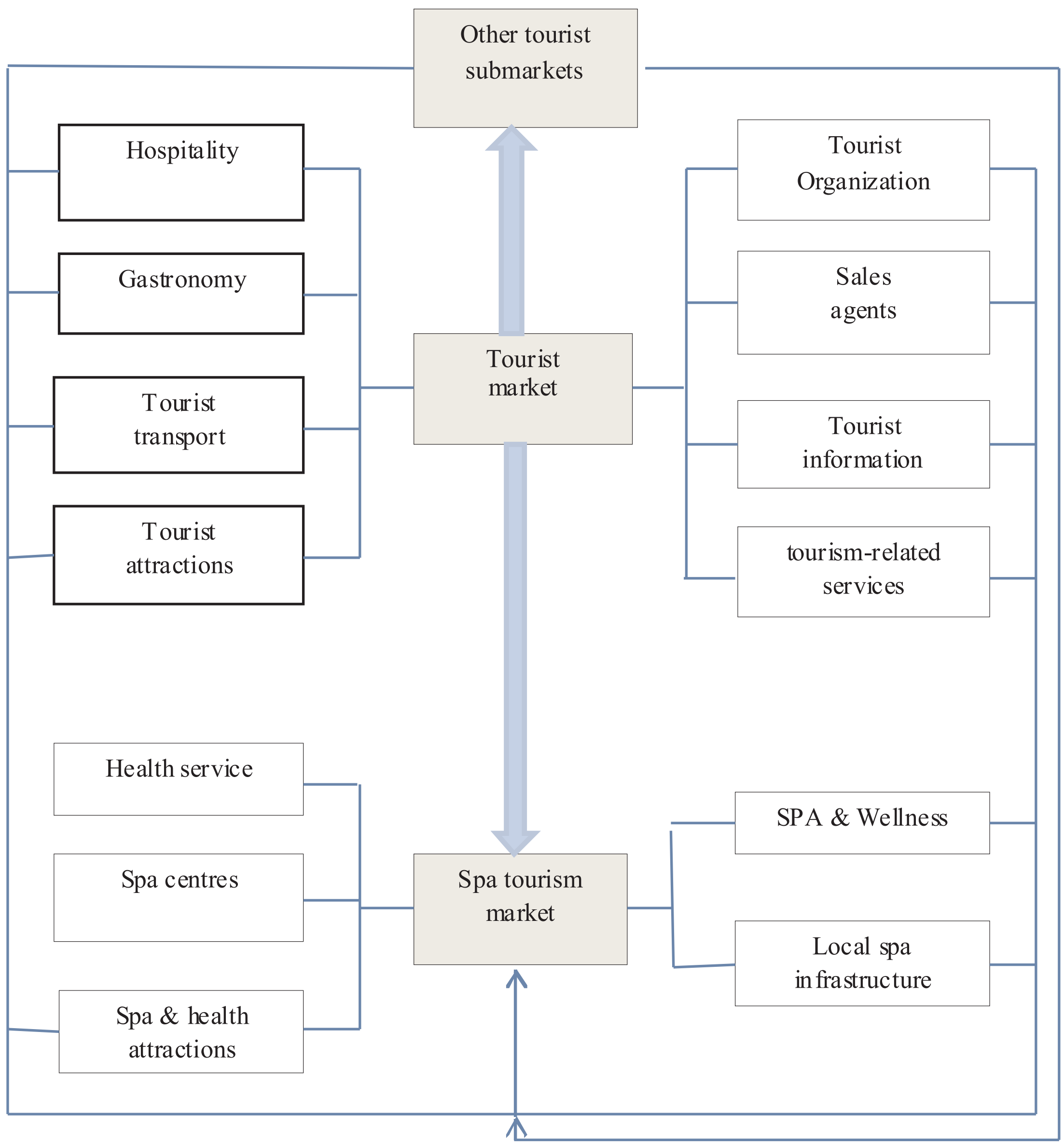

Figure 1. Spa tourism in the tourist market structure – the supply.
Source: Own study on the basis of: Panasiuk 2013, 9 – 21.

Spas offer treatment and health prevention and this is the main purpose of their operation. C. Kaspar and P. Ferlich (1999) propose to define spa tourism as all relations, activities and phenomena resulting from tourists' stays in health resorts, as well as from their travels to those destinations and returns to their place of residence. The Spa tourism market which matches this definition, coming as a part of the tourist market, has two key functions:

– treatment-rehabilitation and prevention,
– relaxation.

These functions result in a blend of spa tourism offers (both tourist and medical) and offers targeting the demand satisfied by other tourist markets, e.g. relaxation, heritage or qualified tourism. In consequence, the spa tourism originates from and is developer by combining the medical and preventive functions with the tourist function.

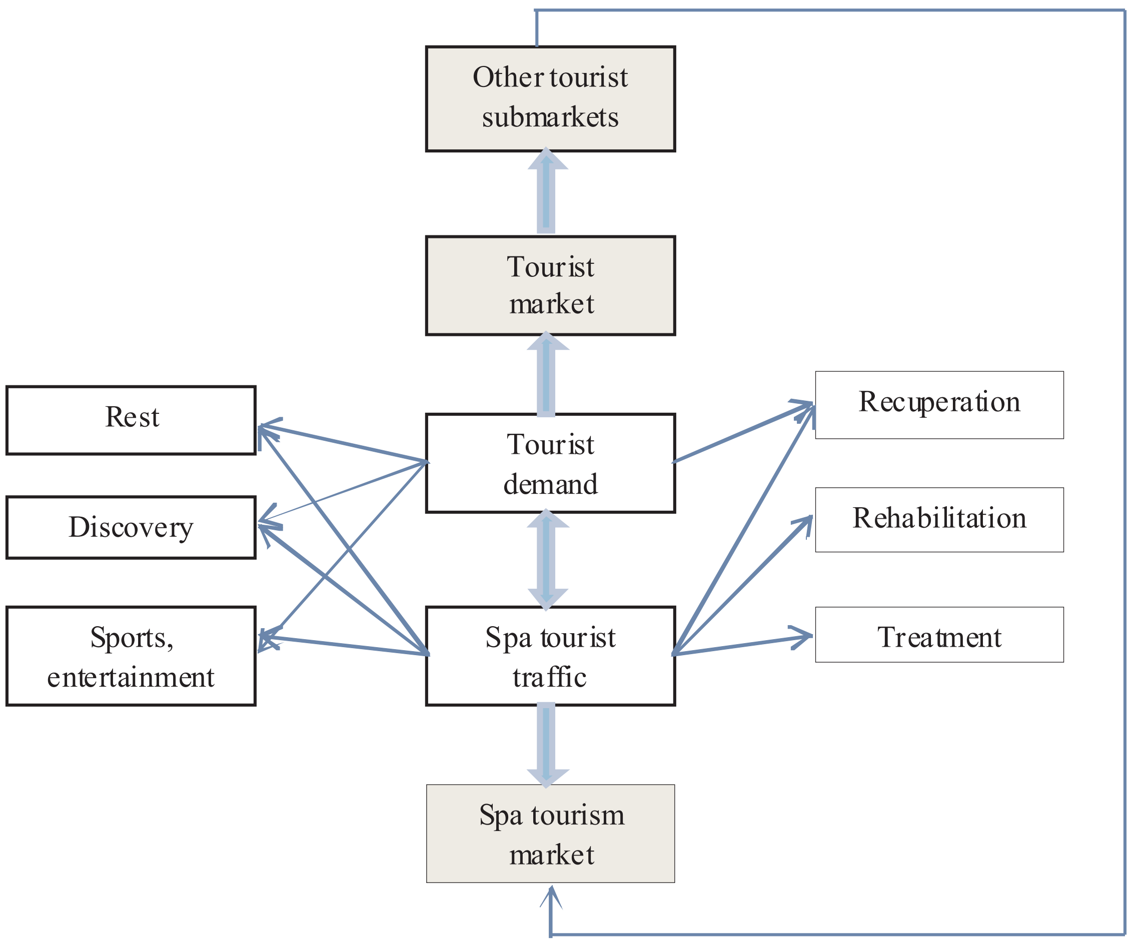

Figure 2. Spa tourism in the tourist market structure – the demand.
Source: Own study on the basis of: Panasiuk 2013, 9 – 21.

The core entities operating on the spa tourist market include:

a) on the side of demand:
   – spa tourists (health resort visitors),
   – other tourists (other than health resort visitors) staying at a spa, users of the spa offers as complimentary services,
b) supply-related:
   – spa enterprises (spa treatment facilities such as health resort facilities, natural medicine facilities, spa & wellness centres),
   – other tourist enterprises offering their services to health resort visitors and other tourists,
   – enterprises offering tourism-related services to tourists, including health resort visitors, mainly to satisfy the needs of permanent residents of the health resort,
c) tourist policy-related:
   – the state authorities governing the operations of spa treatment and the tourist sector in general,
   – local governments in spa locations and local government associations (the Association of Polish Spa Communes),
   – industry organisations of entities from the sector ("Polish Spas" Chamber of Commerce),
   – tourist industry organisations.

Health treatment services at the underground Wieliczka health spa

Very few locations worldwide use the unique mine microclimate for treatment purposes. The most famous ones are: Wieliczka and Bochnia in Poland, Zlate Hory in the Czech Republic and Berchtesgaden in Germany.

The underground health spa in Wieliczka, a satellite town of Krakow with a population 20,000 inhabitants, is run by a mine (Kopalnia Soli "Wieliczka" S.A.). Wieliczka town has not been officially recognised by the state as the health resort. While from 1971 to 2006 it was classified as a health resort i.e. a location offering health and spa treatment services based on its natural conditions or using its natural treatment resources, it was not recognized as a health resort and, formally, does not fall under the health resort laws and regulations. As in health reports, treatment profiles were identified and determined for the health resort treatment facilities on the basis of therapeutic properties of the locally occurring natural conditions. Although currently Wieliczka does not enjoy a spa commune status there are health spa facilities operating in the local salt mine. On 4 August 2011, the Minister of Health awarded the "Wieliczka" Salt Mine therapeutic salt chambers the status of an underground sanatorium and spa, confirming that the facility can offer a spa therapy in underground mining pits of the Salt Mine in "Wessel Lake" "East Mountains Stable" and "Dragon" chambers. It was the turning point in the history of the spa, when the underground spa in Wieliczka was transformed into a full-fledged, legally recognized health resort.

The "Wieliczka" Salt Mine goes into the footsteps of Dr. Feliks Boczkowski's health resort tradition and the subterraneotherapy treatment method (the impact of specific microclimate of salt pits of Wieliczka mine on human organism) initiated by Prof. Mieczysław Skulimowski in 1950s. The spa offers rehabilitation and treatment packages (day and night fixed-term stays, single and several-day-long visits) in the underground pits of the "Wieliczka" Salt Mine at the depth of 135 m. It is the only health resort in Poland, and one of few in the world, to organize a programme for active rehabilitation of the respiratory system in the specific microclimate of salt pits.

The health resort's operation is based on its collaboration with some academic institutions, including Collegium Medicum of the Jagiellonian University and the University of Physical Education in Kraków. The cooperation is focused on research and education on the benefits of the attractive climate as well as mineral resources of the Mine and their impact on therapeutic purposes.

Since 2004, the "Wieliczka" Salt Mine Health Resort has been a holder of the International ISO 9001:2008 Certificate for its Health Care Quality Management System in the area of treating respiratory ailments and allergies in adults and children.

Photo 1. Wieliczka Salt Mine.

Source: www.kopalnia.pl/…/prezentacja_ksw_dla_przewodnikow_2007.pps

The core business of the "Wieliczka" Salt Mine Spa is organising rehabilitation and therapeutic stays using the therapeutic climate of the underground mine pits (subterraneotherapy) for out-patients (trips down to the Mine) and as a package product (underground rehabilitation, accommodation, board and transfer). The specific microclimate of salt pits is particularly favourable for patients suffering from chronic respiratory conditions affecting upper and lower respiratory tract and patients with allergies. Such stays (their duration varying from one to 10 days) are organized both for commercial patients and under contracts with the public healthcare provider – the National Health Fund.

Currently, the "Wieliczka" Salt Mine is implementing a program of active pulmonary rehabilitation in the underground mine pit microclimate. Rehabilitation and treatment offered in the underground facilities of the Wieliczka mine are based on sound technical assumptions and have been thoroughly analysed and assessed by national and regional consultants in medical rehabilitation and allergology and the procedures and solutions offered by the Centre were endorsed by the decision-makers. One may analyse the unconventional nature of the Underground Rehabilitation and Treatment Centre from various perspectives. On one hand, it is the uniqueness of this pulmonary rehabilitation site, located 135 m underground in the middle of a salty labyrinth of 245 km of paths and 2,391 chambers of the “Wieliczka” Salt Mine. This place, boasting of more than 700 years of history, has been recognized in 1978 and included into the 1st UNESCO World list of cultural and natural heritage. Owing to its geographical location, different treatment methods applied to patients overlap, including: subterraneotherapy, underground climate therapy and underground terrain therapy. Furthermore, note that the centre focuses on offering rehabilitation of the respiratory system by teaching correct breathing both in the remission and acute phases of a disease (e.g. correct breathing in asthma attacks) and by eliminating dysfunctions of the muscle-skeletal system, in particular in the chest, which result from long-term impairment of the respiratory system functions and insufficiently working respiratory muscles.

Apart from the pulmonological rehabilitation by subterraneotherapy, the Health Resort has introduced a system of out-patient health resort treatment involving a series of day and night stays at the underground treatment base in the “East Mountains Stable” chamber. Currently, the mine is negotiating a contract with the National Health Fund to deliver this service to a broader group of patients and to attract commercial clients potentially interested in the product.

Annually the “Wieliczka” Salt Mine is visited by more than 1 million 300 thousand tourists. At the same time, the number of health spa visitors is quite small at just over 1,000 people (data for 2007). However, it should be noted that the share of revenue from the sale of the health services is relatively significant (3%), table 1. and 2.

Table 1. The sale of services offered by the “Wieliczka” Salt Mine (PLN).

Services/ year	2005		2006		2007		2008		2009		2010		2011	
Total sale of services	39074815	100%	45921466	100%	51859710	100%	58082876	100%	63891163	100%	69641367	100%	75212677	100%
Commerce	1746559	4%	2464784	5%	2720700	5%	2883942	5%	3056979	5%	3240397	5%	3434821	5%
Catering	3316632	8%	3789750	8%	4257880	8%	4683668	8%	5105198	8%	5564666	8%	6065486	8%
Tourism	29471762	75%	34039767	74%	38254260	74%	43641523	75%	48597990	76%	53380372	77%	57915095	77%
Events	2365766	6%	3313870	7%	3356170	6%	3523979	6%	3700177	6%	3922188	6%	4157519	6%
Administration	1446725	4%	1485266	3%	1365000	3%	1405950	2%	1448129	2%	1491572	2%	1536320	2%
Health spa	727371	2%	828029	2%	1905700	4%	1943814	3%	1982690	3%	2042171	3%	2103436	3%

Source: www.kopalnia.pl/…/prezentacja_ksw_dla_przewodnikow_2007.pps

Table 2. The number of the “Wieliczka” Salt Mine visits

The number of visitors	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
The number of tourists	1028682	1065857	1111700	1167285	1225649	1286932	1325540
The number of events participants	32005	33788	35100	36504	38694	41016	43477
Tthe number of health resort visitors	657	864	1065	.	.	.	.

Source: www.kopalnia.pl/…/prezentacja_ksw_dla_przewodnikow_2007.pps

Creative use of local therapeutic values by the “Wieliczka” Salt Mine

To broaden the range of therapeutic services offered to patients and, most importantly, to ensure comprehensive care to patients suffering from chronic conditions, the Spa provides medical services (complementary to underground services) in the “Salt Mill” building located on the ground on the mine area near Kinga shaft. These services include: out-patient specialist care (pulmonology out-patient clinic with a spirometry unit), out-patient rehabilitation centre, out-patient physiotherapy centre offering a broad range of physiotherapeutic procedures (kinesiotherapy, physical therapy), diagnostic tests and health prevention programmes, as well as biological regeneration and skincare procedures. The offer of health services includes occupational medicine as well. The health resort has its own lab test collection point and a shop offering medical products.

Patients travelling to rehabilitation-therapeutic sessions at the "Wieliczka" Salt Mine have the option to use the health resort's accommodation offer and stay in smartly furnished "Salt Mill" guest rooms adapted to the needs of persons suffering from allergy.

In addition, the Health Resort organises a day or overnight group prevention and health promotion stays to leverage its underground therapeutically sanatorium base as well as its staff's knowledge and skills.

Note that the Health Resort runs parallel to the mine promoting itself as a major tourist attraction. The "Wieliczka" Salt Mine is visited by several thousand tourists daily (more than a million a year) with the peak of the tourist traffic in the summer. There is no doubt that the health resort may recruit its future patients from the tourists coming to the salt mine. Also, Wieliczka is a satellite town of Kraków. The tourists coming to Kraków as well as residents of the city who are increasingly diagnosed with various allergies, may also be a pool of potential Spa patients or at least clients for the broad offer presented by the "Wieliczka" Salt Mine.

Both the tourist and therapeutic offer blend and are complimentary in terms of hotel, catering and recreation facilities. The offer is dedicated to clients' groups of different age, needs, preferences and expectations.

One of the latest investment projects of the "Wieliczka" Salt Mine supporting the operation of the "underground health" and the entire mine is the construction of the saline graduation tower in St. Kinga's Park in Wieliczka (in the salt works area).

Photo 2. The saline graduation tower in St. Kinga's Park in Wieliczka.

Source: http://www.kopalnia.pl/zwiedzanie/teznia-solankowa

The planned capacity of the saline graduation tower is 7,600 sq.m. The facility will be oval-shaped, with a 26 m high tower offering a view of St. Kinga's Park, mining shafts and the town. The saline graduation tower will perfectly compliment the current spa offer of the mine and will be used by the health resort visitors, tourists and residents of the town and the area alike. The saline used to "produce" the aerosol in the salt graduation facility will not be fully saturated and will be sourced from the inflow of waters to the mine pits. The saline installation at the graduation facility will form a part of the current salty water treatment system, which includes the salt works as well. Certificates confirming therapeutic properties of the mineral water have been issued for the saline from two intakes located at the depth of 235 m and 255. The microclimate around the graduation tower will be used in prevention and treatment of upper respiratory tract diseases, sinusitis, pulmonary oedema, hypertension, allergy, vegetative neurosis, hypothyroidism, migraine, dermatologic ailments, gastro-intestinal tract diseases. Natural inhalations in the saline graduation tower will favour augmentation of the patients' immune system. Also note that, at present, the only saline graduation tower in Małopolskie region is located in the town of Rabka; however, it is considerably smaller is size when compared to the one being erected in Wieliczka.

Conclusions

The "Wieliczka" Salt Mine has been making an excellent use of the mine's natural and cultural resources to offer a broad range of services to tourists, health resort visitors and town residents. Without any doubt, the Wieliczka salt mine, a world-famous and unique sight is a major tourist attraction, generating interest in the spa and therapeutic offer of the mine. The tourist services offered by the mine (tourist and mine route sightseeing), cultural events, school, commercial and private events and, finally, the entire spa and therapy service package, are interconnected and contribute to the strengthening the mine's position as an important tourist and spa destination not only in Poland, but also in Europe and worldwide. It is also a consequence of new daring and unique investments, such as the construction of the saline graduation tower in the vicinity of the mine. Finally, the town and commune of Wieliczka themselves begin benefiting from the interest generated by the mine, though it is popularly believed that they are slightly overshadowed by the famous tourist destination.

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"Ecotourism as Community Development Tool – Development of an Evaluation Framework"

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Abstract

Ecotourism can be seen as a tool for community development, especially when focusing on community empowerment as essential core element as well as ecotourism and how it is influenced by a community-based project. The emphasis is on positive effects of ecotourism on a community as well as on the individual tourist. In order to create a research framework, system theory was used to include all stakeholders as well as inputs and outputs. It shows not only a clear connection between ecotourism and community empowerment but also the mutual influence of additional system elements such as the evaluation framework, internal stakeholders and system parameters such as weather and climate. For the evaluation framework for successful community empowerment through ecotourism projects a set of indicators has partly been adapted and created in order to be applicable to the evaluation of various kinds of ecotourism projects in diverse surroundings. Therefore, this framework can be applied to ecotourism projects with different geographical, historical and cultural background and is still able to deliver comparable results. The evaluation framework was tested through questionnaires and interviews in case studies in Nepal, which included three different target groups; community members, project workers and tourists. The main goals of this study are to show how ecotourism projects can positively contribute to community development, to create an evaluation framework that can help to identify common strengths and weaknesses of different projects and to improve the respective case study projects in Nepal.

Keywords: *ecotourism; community development; community empowerment; evaluation framework; Nepal*

Paper Type: *Scientific paper*

Introduction

Tourism is currently not only one of the biggest industries, but also has a very high potential for future growth. Hundreds of millions of people all around the world are already indirectly or directly involved and numbers are rising. International tourist numbers will reach around 1.8 billion by 2030 and emerging economies will experience an increase in tourism numbers by 30 million per year by 2015 (UNWTO, 2011). This industry contains high potentials to adapt to sustainable methods. Probably more than any other industry and especially since there is increasing demand for a more sustainable form of tourism. This demand has to come from individual tourists who want to travel with least possible environmental impact. The tourist has a very high capability of learning (about foreign cultures, customs, etc.) along his/her journey. Therefore education is crucial for sustainable tourism (Tisdell and Wilson, 2005). In general, it is essential to achieve a more sustainable development of tourism in the long term, because this might be necessary to preserve nature and landscapes for future generations. In order to achieve those goals it is important to conduct tourism in a sustainable way to enhance community development and community empowerment. It is necessary to combine tourism with the ideas of sustainability embedded in community development (cp. Butler, 1999; Gössling, 1999; Mowforth and Munt, 2008).

The goal of the paper is to show how regional ecotourism projects can have a positive influence on community development through community empowerment. In order to achieve this goal several steps are necessary. First it is important to have a clear approach to be capable to design a conceptual model afterwards. After finalizing the conceptual model with all necessary variables it will be operationalized through a set of indicators. Finally, the conceptual model will be implemented in a specific case study in Nepal.

Ecotourism

Several tourism concepts are combined under the expressions such as 'environmentally friendly and socially compatible' tourism. Sustainable tourism can be seen as a very similar concept as ecotourism, is mentioned in the Brundtland report (United Nations, 1987) and defined by the UNWTO in 1996 (Earth Summit, 2002). According to the UNEP & UNWTO (2005 as cited in Wearing and Neil, 2009), sustainable tourism requires strong political leadership and the active participation of all stakeholders. Additionally, it is mentioned that the development of sustainable tourism must be seen as a process which requires continuous monitoring of the effects and, if necessary, interference and implementation of correction measures (Weaver, 2006). A fairly new concept is pro-poor tourism which focuses on poverty and its eradication through tourism incomes (Pro-Poor Tourism Organization, 2011; Roe and Urquhart, 2001). Another concept used is responsible tourism. Responsible tourism minimizes the negative effects and maximizes the positive effects of tourism development through undertaking concrete actions in tourism destinations such as capacity building of involved stakeholders (Fabricius and Goodwin, 2002; The Responsible Tourism Partnership, 2011).

One of the biggest problems of most of those tourism forms is the lack of a clear definition. An effect of this missing definition is a lot of green washing within the tourism industry. Therefore, the scientific community as well as governments and tourism stakeholders need a clear definition (Mowforth and Munt, 2003). In order to apply this terminology it is essential to have a very precise description of ecotourism in this paper.

The most important tourism approach for this paper is ecotourism and it is connected with community empowerment and community development. In the 1960s Hetzer (1965) identified four principles of tourism, which can help to decrease environmental effects, respect local cultures, maximize tourist satisfaction and, additionally, bring economic wealth to locals. After this first try of ecotourism concepts Miller (1978 as cited in Honey, 2008) integrated the concepts of conservation and tourism in combination with local communities in his studies about national parks in Latin America. He coined the term 'ecodevelopment' and defined it, as the integration of economic, social and political factors into biological considerations to meet human and environmental needs. The term "ecotourism" was first mentioned by the Mexican environmentalist Ceballos-Lascuráin in 1983 (as cited in Honey, 2008).

The principles of ecotourism are to some extend connected to those of sustainable development. Bramwell (as cited in Butler, 1999) mentions «seven dimension of sustainability» (p. 29). Those are «environmental, cultural, political, economic, social, managerial and governmental» (p. 29). Moreover, Bramwell emphasizes the necessity of pre-existing value systems of a people or a community to be included in rural planning in order to ensure the sustainable development of a region and, therefore, its inclusion in ecotourism concepts. Mowforth and Munt (2003) describe several criteria for sustainable tourism, which are almost congruent with the dimensions Bramwell mentioned and show a very clear structure of the connections between sustainability and tourism. The authors refer not only to the three pillars of sustainability, but also to cultural sustainability, education and participation (of communities). These three factors, additional to economic, ecologic and social factors are very similar to Friedmann's (1992) work about community empowerment.

Ecotourism as an economic incentive for conservation is an ideal strategy for achieving ecologic success for biodiversity protection (Bookbinder et al., 1998; Gössling, 1999). Kiss gets to the heart of the value by putting it this way: "Ecotourism can generate support for conservation among communities as long as they see some benefit" (Kiss, 2004, p. 234). Furthermore, it generates jobs in the field of nature preservation.

In theory these claims are means of solving environmental problems through ecotourism. However, solving these problems is not easy due to the different areas where problems may arise. These problems highly depend on the community, the institutional setting and the habitat. Kerley et al (2003), for example, mention that on the one hand ecotourism can be seen as strong instrument to conserve biodiversity and spread wealth. On the other hand, however, they state that "biodiversity per se is of little interest" (p. 13) to tourists. However, it is very dangerous to state that ecotourism is a panacea for biodiversity protection. Tourism in its original form is one of the biggest threats for biodiversity (IUCN, 1992 as cited in Gössling, 1999). Unregulated tourism can lead to pollution, less benefits through increases in local prices and depletion in natural resources (Jetmore, 2004 as cited in Schloegel, 2007). Ecotourism, if carefully planned, is one way to avoid negative effects (Gössling, 1999).

The International Ecotourism Society characterizes ecotourism as *"Responsible travel to natural areas that conserves the environment and improves the well-being of local people"* (TIES, 2012). The essence of ecotourism can be described in three core principles. If it is practiced in as defined it can: (1) protect the environment and enhance biodiversity protection; (2) lead to financial benefits in local communities without disrespect to their culture; and (3) provide education for indigenous communities as well as for visitors (Blangy and Metha, 2006). Honey (2008) mentions seven characteristics for 'real ecotourism', which can be seen as a stricter version of the above mentioned definition:

1. Travel to natural destinations;
2. Impact minimization on environment as well as on local culture;
3. Environmental awareness building for locals and tourists;
4. Direct financial benefit for conservation through ecotourism;
5. Financial benefit and empowerment for locals should be provided if ecotourism is seen as a tool for community development;
6. Respects for local culture as in learning local customs and accepting certain cultural differences;
7. Human rights support and encouragement of democratic movements.

The main aspects of ecotourism for this paper are based on TIES (2012) and Honey (2008).

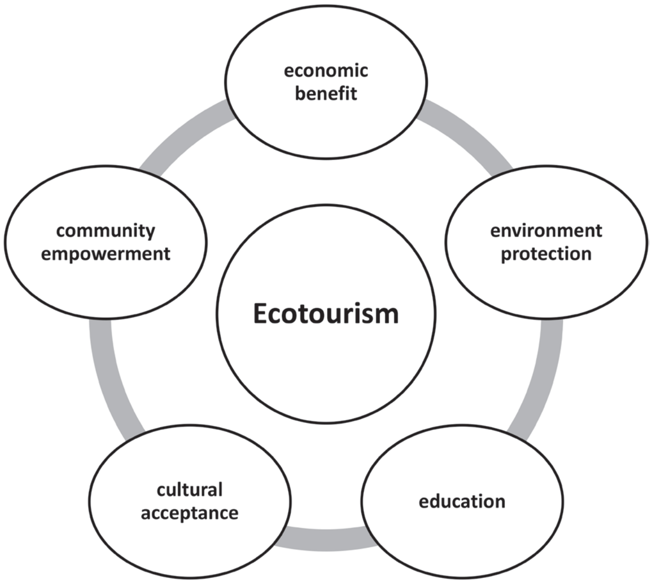

Figure 1. Five core elements of ecotourism.
Source: based upon TIES, 2012 and Honey, 2008.

However, something that should not be forgotten is the travel to and from the tourist destination, which is very often not conducted in a sustainable way. As this paper will focus on tourist destinations the journey to this destination will not be included in the discussion or the results.

Community Development

Characterizing a community is a difficult task as the community is always self-defining (Community Development Foundation, 2011). Community has several meanings (Merriam Webster, 2012) but in our understanding a community is a group of people with the same interests (social, economic, ecological, and political) and characteristics (history, culture, political) living together in the same region (within a bigger society).

Community development is described in many different ways. However, the core essence of all approaches is the improvement of communities and its members (Head, 1979; Chekki, 1979). "Community Development is a process designed to create conditions of economic and social progress for the whole community with its active participation and fullest possible reliance upon the community's initiative" (Head, 1979, p. 101). A recent characterization for community development is delivered by the National Occupational Standards (2009). It is argued that community development is a long-term process which enables people to organize themselves and work together. It is a procedure which addresses social justice, equality, inclusion and imbalance in power in order to improve the economic and social framework of a society. This whole process needs sufficient and appropriate resources (knowledge and money) and needs to be able to adapt to new factors arising (Community Development Exchange, 2011a).

In the center of this approach are several core principles of community development such as equality, anti-discrimination, collective action, working and learning, social justice and community empowerment (Community Development Exchange, 2011b). Furthermore, it seems clear that one of the main goals is to (re)build communities according to these core principles (Community Development Exchange, 2011b).

Anyhow, it is clear that this topic bears a certain complexity and that a practical definition of community development might help to disentangle the complexity to a certain degree. The Community Development Foundation (2011) provides such a practical definition of community development. It argues that community development combines six characteristics. One main characteristic is a (1) common cause which is shared by community members and can lead to (2) more cooperation. Furthermore, (3) building strengths and independence of community groups as well as (4) building equity and inclusiveness amongst community members are cornerstones of community development (Head, 1979). (5) Participation and the way to (6) empower people are very important characteristics of community development and it can be argued, that these two influences somehow include the other four characteristics (Friedmann, 1992; Scheyvens, 1999).

Figure 2. Six core elements of community development.
Source: based upon Community Development Foundation, 2011.

Community Empowerment

Community empowerment is not just one part of the core elements of community development, but also one of the key factors of this paper. Therefore, a definition of this term will be more complex than ordinary definitions offered by community development organizations. One of those definitions provided by Community Development Exchange and Changes (2008) describes the characteristics of community empowerment as «confident, inclusive, organized, co-operative and influential» (Changes, 2008). Another yet more practical definition is provided by an UK Government Department and defines community empowerment as a shift of «power, influence and responsibility away from existing centers of power and into the hands of communities and citizens» (Local Government, 2010) and about convincing community members that they can make a difference (Local Government, 2010). It is crucial for a community to have the right to determine itself and its behavior in order to start the long-term process of community empowerment.

In summary, there are two important factors in community development and empowerment - external and internal factors. On one side there are development workers and organizations who bring financial input and knowledge transfer and on the other side there are individual community members who need to take action in their own hands and start the process of community development.

Community empowerment factors. The factors for community empowerment, which subsequently represent the community empowerment framework, are essential to the upcoming model of successful community development. Those factors not only deal with well know empowerment topics such as economics, social, psychological and political aspects but also include the environment and one of the most important players in the field of tourism - the tourist.

Friedmann (1992) introduced three factors of community empowerment and laid a constructural basis for research in this field. Scheyvens (1999, 2011), who refers in her work about fighting poverty through empowerment to Friedmann's empowerment factors as a way to overcome poverty and added the an economic empowerment factor. In order to adress all aspects of community development and ecotourism two additional empowerment factors will be introduced in this paper. These factors help to categorize and identify the impact of ecotourism on community development.

Friedmann claims that households of a community have to be seen as markets and political units with all the power within the communities and that these markets require cooperation with other markets (households, communities, governments). In order to empower a community three types of power are available to the households - political, social and psychological power. Social power is seen as necessary because it gains "access to certain 'bases' of household production, such as information, knowledge and skill, participation in social organizations, and financial resources" (Friedmann, 1992, p. 31).

Scheyvens introduced a fourth empowerment factor - economic empowerment - in order to include financial benefits of ecotourism projects (Scheyvens, 2011). The success of an ecotourism project and the distribution of the economic benefits are important in measuring the sustainability of the project. Scheyvens' framework helps scientists to distinguish between successful ecotourism project and greenwashing. She argues that her framework can help communities to start ecotourism projects and to develop in the future (Wilkinson and Pratiwi, 1995).

Empowerment can be seen as a development process which leads to actions that allow poor people to (re)claim their rights (Mowforth and Munt, 2009 as cited in Scheyens, 2011). Similarly, Zhao and Richie (2007 as cited in Scheyens, 2011) "specify empowerment as a key condition for tourism to be able to contribute to poverty alleviation as it aims to enhance and strengthen people's participation in political processes (...) as well as removing barriers that work against the poor" (p. 37). Furthermore, Friedmann (1992 as cited in Scheyvens, 2011) highlights that "genuine empowerment can never be conferred from the outside" (p. 37). Sofield (2003 as cited in Scheyvens, 2011) argues that "empowerment is a key to achieving sustainable tourism" (p. 37).

As mentioned before, in addition to the four empowerment factors of Friedmann and Scheyvens two more factors, which are vital in dealing with ecotourism projects. First, an ecological empowerment factor should not be forgotten especially considering the (positive) effect that ecotourism can have on biodiversity conservation (Gössling, 1999). In a best-case scenario ecotourism projects have to protect the environment and preserve biodiversity as well as to teach tourists about the destination and the local customs. Second, visitor empowerment includes the tourist as another key element to the framework. The tourist is a key element in ecotourism projects and has influence on the empowerment of communities, which highly depends on the attitude of the tourists.

1. Economic Empowerment

Economic empowerment refers to Scheyvens' (1999) work on poverty eradication based on work of Friedmann (1992). In a very broad sense, economic empowerment is not just about gaining profits from ecotourism projects, but also about a long-term solution to unemployment and development of the whole area including a variety of stakeholders. Another important factor of economic empowerment is an equal share of incomes within the households of the community. It should have a long-lasting effect on the community's infrastructure so that every community member and household can benefit from it. If profit from ecotourism is not evenly distributed, but is given to single organizations in the community, this indicates economic disempowerment of the community. However, as a community cannot be seen as one homogenous entity, it is very hard to 'discover' and to define economic empowerment in a project (Scheyvens, 1999).

2. Social Empowerment

The implementation of ecotourism projects and social empowerment go side by side. Following the definition delivered by Scheyvens "social empowerment refers to a situation in which a community's sense of cohesion and integrity has been confirmed or strengthened by an activity such as ecotourism" (Scheyvens, 1999, p. 248). Social empowerment is concentrated towards knowledge, participation in organizations, information and resources. If an individual or household can increase those 'necessities', an increase in social power is possible (Friedmann, 1992). However, ecotourism projects can also disrupt communities and lead to disharmony. Therefore, it is necessary that all groups within the community cooperate and that the benefits are shared equally. An inequality of the economic power, such as an unfair distribution of incomes, can lead to social disempowerment (Scheyvens, 1999).

Education is a core element of ecotourism and also a key contributor to social empowerment, but is neither mentioned by Friedmann nor by Scheyvens. Community members and tourists can learn from each other if ecotourism is conducted in the right way. However, this is only possible if both groups are willing to do so.

Tourism, in its original function, should bring outsiders to a new surrounding in a new area (Jafari and Ritchie, 1981) and satisfy their needs for recreation and exploration. Conventional tourism, or mass tourism, is not able to fulfill these needs any longer as there is hardly any contact between locals and the tourists. Ecotourism enables the tourist to explore foreign cultures, costumes and environments. As Tisdell and Wilson stated "Educational activity is necessary to provide meanings and relationships to people about the places they visit and about the things they see and do there" (Tisdell and Wilson, 2005, p. 292). This new knowledge about a people and communities will form a connection between the tourist and the community, which can boost the awareness of certain problems in a region.

3. Psychological Empowerment

Psychological power can be seen as self-confidence and "as an individual sense of potency" (Friedmann, 1992, p. 33). It results from successful political, social and economic actions. Self-esteem of locals rises through the recognition of their culture and psychological empowerment and can also lead to an increase in self-respect of traditionally low-status groups such as youth and women. Anyhow, ecotourism projects can also result in psychological disempowerment and frustration if the tourists interfere with local customs or disturb the relationship between natives and nature (Scheyvens, 1999).

4. Political Empowerment

Friedmann (1992) states that political power has to give the opportunity of decision making for the future of a community. Therefore, it is a power to participate in collective action and decision process in the community. Political empowerment of communities results from an equal right for everyone to have a say in the ecotourism project and to bring in personal ideas and suggestions. If there is some kind of self-interested leadership in a community or if the ecotourism project leaders do not consider suggestions and opinions from community members' political disempowerment is the case (Scheyvens, 1999).

5. Ecological Empowerment

The four empowerment factors mentioned above do not address all the core principles of ecotourism and therefore, two more factors were necessary. either Friedmann nor Scheyvens included an ecologic parameter in their frameworks even though all the, so far mentioned empowerment factors somehow depend on a functioning environment. Biodiversity conservation and environmental protection is essential for human survival on the long-term. Especially we have to consider that many ecosystem services are not yet fully understood or even discovered by humans. It could be observed that biodiversity conservation leads to positive trade-offs for humans and that sustainable use of resources creates synergies with different needs in society. However, very often a lack of necessary funds resulted in not-establishing protected areas or reserves (Dullo et al., 2005).

One of the biggest problems of biodiversity protection are the different measurements and indicators in calculating biodiversity such as species-diversity, -richness or -uniqueness (Schloegel, 2007). A clear definition of the value of species and life itself is missing (which is not negative). Therefore, it is impossible to calculate biodiversity loss in an ethical way. In this paper indicators for ecologic empowerment focus on an increase or decrease in environmental awareness within the community, protection of the environment and biodiversity statistics (if available). Signs of ecological disempowerment are negative effects of the ecotourism project on the environment such as more car traffic within a region because of a higher number of visitors.

6. Visitor Empowerment

Visitor empowerment contains many elements of the other empowerment factors specifically dealing with the tourist. As the tourist is the most important stakeholder of tourism projects it is necessary to include him/her in a community empowerment framework even though visitor empowerment is not officially recognized in the existing literature. In order to measure visitor empowerment it is necessary to find out tourists' expectations, characteristics, time of visit, etc.

A rise in visitor empowerment in communities can result from appreciation of local culture and religion by visitors (which is closely connected to psychological empowerment). The biggest danger in visitor empowerment is a wrong behavior of the tourist such as showing their wealth and treating locals as of minor value. The emotional connection between the tourist and the locals is very important and can either lead to a boost in self-esteem or to disillusion and frustration. If tourists and locals respect each other and each other's culture and customs visitor empowerment can lead to a two-way education between tourists and community members. However, there are many highly subjective influences which can change tourists' expectations such as bad weather, illnesses, etc.

Figure 3. Community empowerment factors.

Source: based upon Friedmann, 1992 and Scheyvens, 1999, 2011.

Stakeholders essential for community development. Stakeholders which are essential for community development consist of external and internal stakeholders. Financial input and knowledge transfer to the project derives mainly from external stakeholders. Even though, sometimes their influence on the project is limited. Very often one of the main problems is the differentiation of external and internal stakeholders because some institutions can be both. Ecotourism projects can have all kind of external stakeholders but in most cases they provide scientific knowledge, financial and/or juridical support and resources.

Internal stakeholders are important members of the community and have a direct influence on the system, thus on the project outcome. Most of the time a case-by-case stakeholder-identification is necessary. Therefore, the following extraction of a list of external and internal stakeholders by the UNEP and the WTO is just a suggestion and support.

Table 1. External and internal stakeholders

External stakeholders	Internal stakeholders
Development cooperatives	Enterprises (local)
Regional and national governments	Community members
Enterprises	Project workers
Tourism industry	Tourists

Source: UNEP and UNWTO, 2005

System parameters. The system parameters are elements which cannot be changed by the researcher in the short run. These factors are defined as constant parameters or time-variant parameters (Bossel, 2004). In the conceptual model they have a certain influence on the community empowerment framework. The system parameters can vary highly in different locations and cultures. Therefore, the influence of it has to be taken seriously. In order to minimize certain 'surprising' effects on the system it is very important to gain as much information as possible about specific regional factors.

Those factors are among others: political stability, available infrastructure, weather patterns, the climate, economic situation, general hospitality, etc. There is a large variety in this short list of examples for factors within the system parameters. It clearly shows that it includes almost every probability which can have an influence on the ecotourism project. Anyhow, it will never be possible to assess all the necessary information about the system parameters to get absolute certainty, but the more information is assessed the more accurate the outcome of the project can be.

Conceptual model for successful community development

The conceptual model for successful community development (based on Vermeulen et al., 2011) is the outcome of the discussed factors and will be the basis of an evaluation framework. Systems, according to system sciences, need inputs, system-elements, a system-border and an output (Ossimitz and Lapp, 2006). The external stakeholders are giving input to the system, which is defined through the black dotted line, in form of financial support or knowledge. The input is incorporated into the element ecotourism, as it is defined in the paper and is directly linked to the community empowerment framework in a positive feedback loop. The internal stakeholders and the system parameters provide input for the community empowerment framework as well as the evaluation framework. The system output here is successful community development. When the output is reached (e.g. after a project phase) the system itself has changed and is then on a new level. There might still be the same system elements and external stakeholders as before, but now they act on a different level (e.g. more experienced). Ideally, this output should be monitored and the results should influence the evaluation framework and, furthermore the whole system. However, it is necessary to consider that in the case of this study the evaluation framework is adapted from literature as there was no suitable monitoring process.

The main problems in the implementation of the conceptual model for successful community development are the definition of ecotourism by a specific project, which can differ from the definition of this paper, the demarcation of the system border, which is sometimes hard to define if the researcher is within the system, and defining the internal stakeholders, which needs a lot of information and can probably not be achieved completely. Additionally, it is necessary to understand, that this conceptual model needs to be adapted separately for each and every ecotourism project. Anyhow, it serves as a good foundation for comparing different projects in different areas of the world. The adaption of the conceptual model to a specific project be presented in the case study.

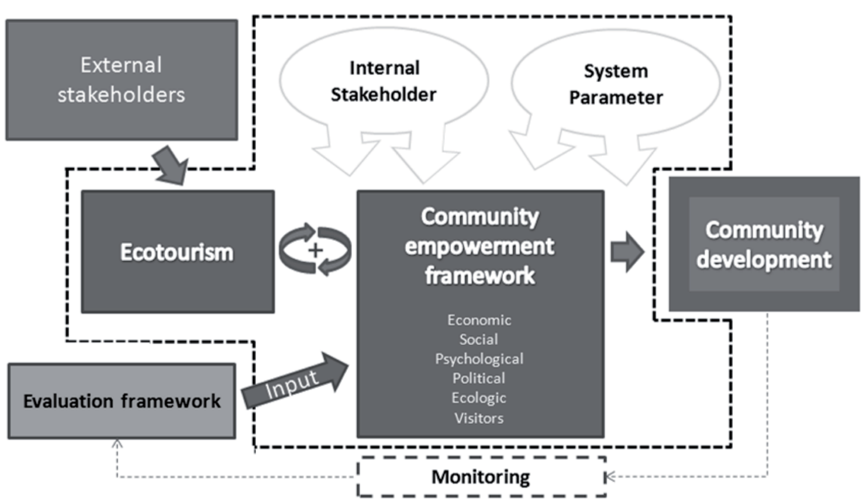

Figure 4. Conceptual model for successful community development.

Source: own figure

Operationalization

The operationalization of the conceptual model happens through an evaluation framework. The aim of this framework is giving data input for the community empowerment framework and it is the basis for the questionnaires for community members and tourists. The evaluation framework was created to deal with the needs of community-based ecotourism projects. Indicators are used to measure the effect of ecotourism projects on community empowerment and, subsequently community development. Some of those indicators are based on already existing indicators for sustainably development for tourist destinations (UNEP and UNWTO, 2005; UNWTO, 2004). In order to bring structure to the evaluation framework the indicators were arranged and classified according to the six community empowerment factors and the so-called twelve aims for an agenda of sustainable tourism (UNEP and UNWTO, 2005):

1. Economic Viability;
2. Local Prosperity;
3. Employment Quality
4. Social Equity
5. Visitor Fulfillment
6. Local Control
7. Community Wellbeing
8. Cultural Richness
9. Physical Integrity
10. Biological Diversity
11. Resource Efficiency
12. Environmental Purity.

Not all of these twelve aims are used and some are renamed to fit the empowerment factors; additionally one factor - Impact of ecotourism development - is added to evaluate the political empowerment of ecotourism projects.

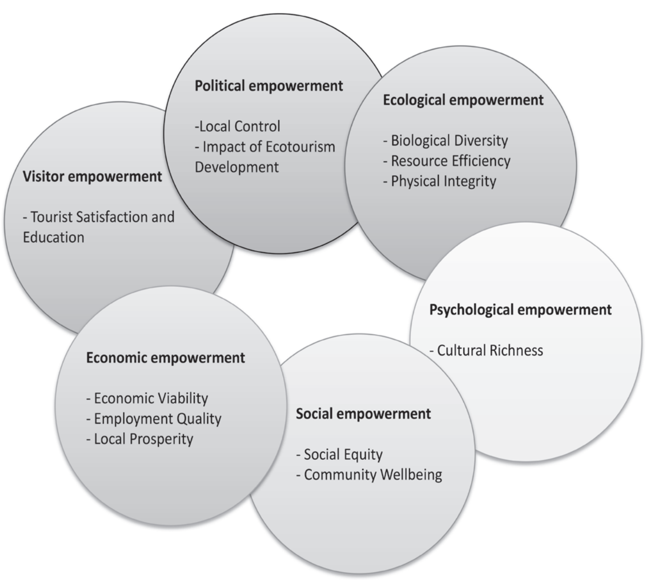

Figure 5. Main indicators for the evaluation framework.
Source: based upon UNEP and UNWTO, 2005.

The following table gives an overview of the main indicators with their main questions in connection with the six different empowerment factors. For example, to assess data about the economic empowerment of a community, three different indicators are available - economic viability, local prosperity and employment quality. Employment quality is assessed through questions about the satisfaction of the job quality and the salary. It is necessary to keep in mind that this table is a suggestion for indicators and not all of them can be used with every project. Sometimes it might be necessary to implement new indicators. However, the list is a basic structure to help evaluating ecotourism projects in different phases and different regions.

Table 2. Empowerment factors, main indicators and main questions.

Empowerment factor	Main Question	Main Indicator
Economic empowerment	Does the community as a whole benefit from the ecotourism project?	Economic viability
	Are the benefits from the ecotourism project shared equally within the community?	Local prosperity
	Is the quality of the job (in the tourism industry) satisfying?	Employment quality
	Is the salary fair and without discrimination?	
Social empowerment	Did social equity in the community rise since the introduction of the ecotourism project?	Social equity
	Is the ecotourism project contribution to the wellbeing of the community?	Community wellbeing
Psychological empowerment	Does the ecotourism project boost local values and culture?	Cultural richness
Political empowerment	Is the ecotourism project increasing the political participation of community members?	Local control
	Are community members aware of the ecotourism project's values and goals?	Impact of ecotourism development
Ecological empowerment	Is the ecotourism project influencing the physical integrity of the community's and its surrounding environment?	Physical integrity
	Is the ecotourism project contribution to a rise in biological diversity in the area surrounding the community?	Biological diversity
	Is the ecotourism project supporting efficient energy use?	Resource efficiency
Visitor empowerment	Are tourists satisfied with a stay at the community?	Tourist satisfaction and education
	Is the ecotourism project providing enough information about the community and its environment?	
	Are tourists aware of the local culture?	

Source: based upon UNEP and UNWTO, 2005

Indicators

Operationalization of the indicators should be effective and easy enough for everyone to reproduce. Therefore, the best way of operationalization the indicators was using a four-step ordinal scale to assess the state-of-the-art and to combine three different data-gathering methods - questionnaires, interviews and personal observation. The scale was either from one to four or/ and in 25%-steps depending on the interview or questionnaire. All %-questions will be answered in increments of 25% while an ordinal scale from one to four will be used for the other questions, with “one” indicating ‘highly agree’ and “four” indicating ‘disagree’. In order to obtain to this four-step scale, it was necessary to calculate the median for every question asked in the questionnaires. Additionally there are a few yes/no questions in order to assess background information of the project. By using this method the results are both quantitative and qualitative as they do not only include data from the questionnaires with the target groups but also personal opinions of the respondents as well as personal observation by the researcher. Furthermore, interviews with the head of the NGO, responsible for the project, as well as with one former researcher of the NGO were conducted.

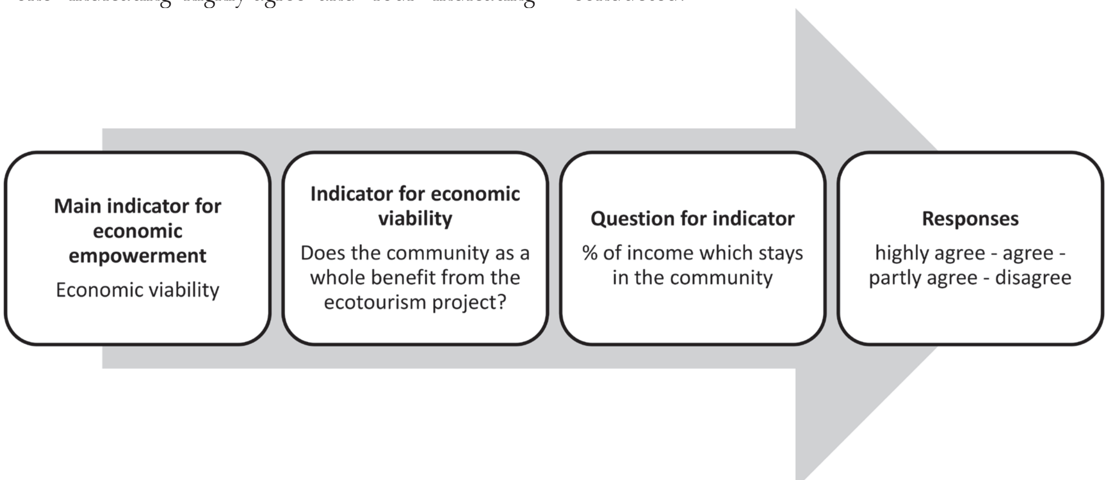

Figure 6. Operationalization of the indicators.

Source: own figure

Output of the conceptual model

As community development is a very broad term an in order to evaluate the success of the outcome it is best to split it into three separate categories. These three categories - social, ecologic and economic - are not by coincidence based on the concept of sustainable development and make a very good connection with ecotourism. All three aspects are independent to each other and it is necessary that all of these aspects are fulfilled in order to achieve successful community development.

Social aspects of community development connect the willingness of a community to work for a more sustainable future and the education that can be received through knowledge transfers from external stakeholders. For example, locals can be trained to become guides which leads not only to increasing household incomes for the community but also to a knowledge transfer between locals and tourists (Kerley et al., 2003; Bookbinder et al., 1998). Furthermore, the ecotourism project has to create a positive inner image in the community. It is essential that community members are behind the project and that they can identify themselves with it. Ecotourism projects can have an influence on the cultural identity of a community, integration of subgroups into community life. This leads subsequently to more social cohesion and to a possible decrease in social discrepancies.

Economic effects of community development occur when the value of community development is higher than the opportunity costs. As the value of community development is hard to measure the focus lies on economic effects as incentives. Creating new jobs in the area of the ecotourism project will subsequently lead to financial benefits for communities and a higher degree of independence.

The ecological aspects of community development mainly depend on the target of the ecotourism project. An increase in renewable resources and conservation efforts can enhance environmental purity. Preserving flora and fauna is a core activity of ecotourism projects. One main ecological aspect of ecotourism projects is recycling and limiting waste.

The implementation of the evaluation framework on a case study project in Nepal

In Nepal mostly all ecotourism projects are community based therefore, it provided prefect conditions for the implementation of the evaluation framework. The Kathmandu Valley Culture Trekking Trail was one of two projects which were evaluated. It is situated north of Nepal’s capital Kathmandu and is partly in the Shivapuri-Nagarjun National Park. This section explains the implementation of the research framework to a specific project and delivers the results from the evaluation framework and, subsequently, for the conceptual model.

Kathmandu Valley Culture Trekking Trail (KVCTT)

The Kathmandu Valley Culture Trekking Trail (KVCTT) is an ecotourism project launched by the Nepal Environment and Tourism Initiative Foundation (NETIF) in 2009. The first phase of the project was finished in 2011 after implementing local tourism committees in all the four major villages along the trekking trail. NETIF's main goals contained raising awareness about environmental conservation, implementation of the mentioned tourism committees, maintenance and constructions of tourist shelters as well as cleaning campaigns and several tourism and livelihood trainings (NETIF-Nepal, 2012a). Furthermore, several events, such as organized hiking trips with government officials, lead to promotion of the area. The second project phase started in 2011 and will last till the end of 2013. In this phase the emphasis lies on the integration of responsible tourism principles through capacity building, waste- and water management and several initiatives following Nepal's national 'Sanitation and Hygiene Masterplan' (NETIF-Nepal, 2012b; Sahih, 2011). The main goal will be the handing over of the project to the local tourism committees by the end of the second phase.

Model for successful community Development along the KVCTT

Data gathering along the KVCTT took place within a period of nine days in all the four major villages in the area (the author conducted the field work during a research stay in Nepal in 2012). 42 questionnaires from households, which represent roughly 13% of all households in the area - around 40% of all household connected to the tourism project - (Shrestha S., personal communication, March 13, 2012), 21 questionnaires from tourists, which represent about two percent of the visitors of the whole Shivapuri-Nagarjun National Park in the month of Chaitra (mid-March to mid-April) (DNPWC, 2010) and questionnaires from four village coordinators were received. Additionally, the president of NETIF Arun Shrestha was interviewed after the survey in the project region, as well as a former researcher of the NGO (Suhata Shrestha).

The adapted model for successful community development for the KVCTT as shown in figure 8 needs some explanation. The external stakeholders are NETIF and Suomen Latu which is a Finnish NGO and the funding organization behind NETIF. Additional external stakeholders are travel agencies which bring tourists to this trekking trail even without cooperating with NETIF. The element 'Ecotourism' is substituted by 'Ecotourism along the KVCTT' because the definition of ecotourism by NETIF differs in some parts from the definition in this paper. All the internal stakeholders in the different villages are combined under the tourism development committees which represent all community members who are, to some extent, connected to the ecotourism project. The system parameters contain mainly the political conditions in Nepal, the language barrier and also the level of education in rural areas. The input for the community empowerment framework is delivered by the evaluation of the different empowerment factors and has high effects not only on the output but also on 'Ecotourism along the KVCTT'.

The overall evaluation of the project can be rated positively with a value of 1.87 out of 4 ([1.81 + 1.36 + 1.75 + 2.50 + 1.86] / 5 = 1.87) where 1 is the best and 4 the worst. Additionally, the indicator for visitor empowerment is rated with 2.40 out of 4. When taking a closer look at the results, they show that the inner image of the ecotourism project in all four villages is very good and that the cooperation between the NGO and internal stakeholder works well. Most of the community members are thankful for NETIF's help and can financially benefit from the project. This leads to more self-confidence within the community and even more respect for their own culture. However, there are also a few negative results which can be seen in a lack of tourist information boards about the project along the trail. Furthermore, the result of the questionnaires shows, that up to 75% of the incomes achieved is not spend in the villages but somewhere else in the Kathmandu Valley. Table 3 summarizes the results of this case study, for more detailed results see Annex.

The output of the conceptual model is divided into three different aspects - economic, ecologic and social. The success in the economic area is shown through an overall financial benefit through the project in the area, especially when considering that three of the four villages along the trail are highly dependent to incomes from tourism. However, a boost in promotion is definitely needed as overall numbers in trekkers did not rise significantly since the project started (Shrestha A., personal communication, April 2, 2012) and the evaluation results show that many tourists did not know about the ecotourism project.

The ecological aspect is satisfied through various activities conducted by NETIF and the local tourism committees. NETIF organized cleaning campaigns, afforestation programs, awareness campaigns, and built incinerators and one small wind turbine. The biggest effect on the local communities had the various trainings conducted by NETIF. Locals from the whole area had and still have the opportunity to take part in trainings about tourism management, biological farming, hygiene, waste management, handicraft making, etc. These trainings were received extremely positive in the whole area and almost every respondent of the survey mentioned their appreciation.

NETIF's biggest success story is in raising awareness about social responsibility for nature and its connection to sustainable tourism development. Furthermore, NETIF was very successful in changing the institutional system in the villages by implementing local tourism development committees and in encouraging the different communities in working together. However, the evaluation of the project also shows some weaknesses and topics were NETIF have still some work to do. These obstacles are mainly about the missing knowledge of locals and tourists about sustainable tourism principles; the main problem is a lack of education. It is necessary for NETIF to provide educational trainings about sustainable tourism (which are part of their second project phase). After the evaluation the preliminary results were handed over to NETIF in 2012 and caused an immediate effect as in April 2013 the first information boards for tourists about the flora and fauna of the region as well as about the NGO itself were installed along the KVCTT (Shrestha A., personal communication, April 27, 2013). However, the main goal as well as the main challenge for the year 2013 is the preparation to hand over of the project to the local tourism development committees. NETIF will still provide knowledge but the villages and the project should finance itself by tourism incomes from hotels as well as from incomes through newly constructed tea-houses and souvenir shops. By the beginning of 2014 the villages should get the full responsibility for the KVCTT project

(Shrestha A., personal communication, April 2, 2012). Before handing over the project to the local tourism development committees it would make sense to evaluate the project again considering inputs from a monitoring process. However, this case study did not include the monitoring process as the evaluation was just done once. It would be very useful for this study and the results to go back to Nepal for another survey for a longer period of time.

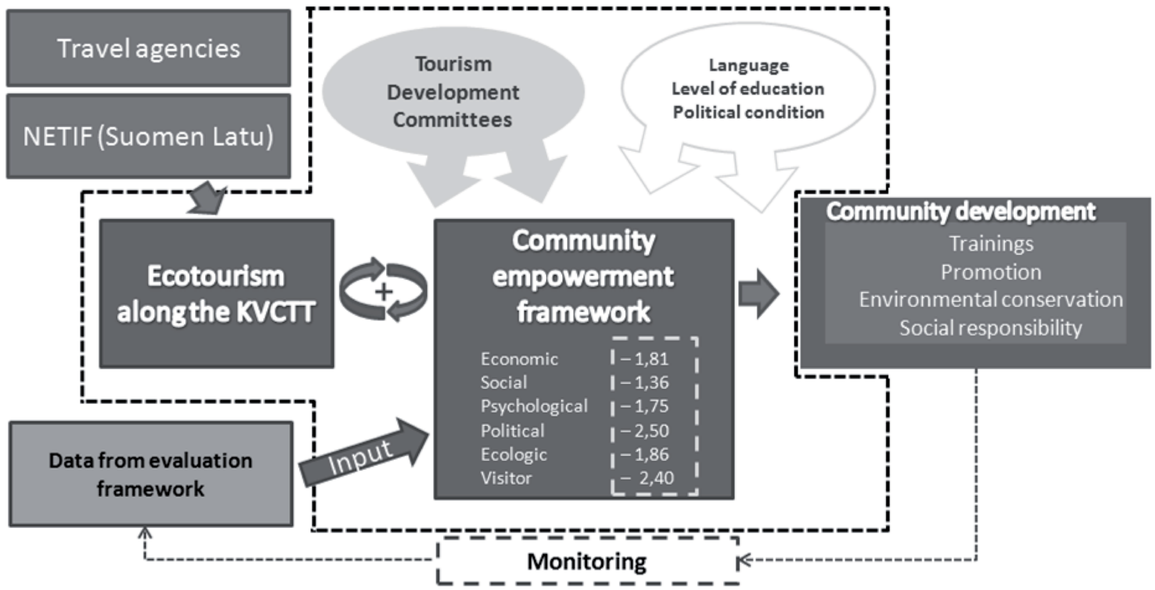

Figure 7. Model for successful community development along the KVCTT.

Source: own figure

Table 3. Summarized results of KVCTT case study.

Survey	Empowerment factors	Results	
- 42 households - 21 tourists - 4 village coordinators - 2 additional project employees + interview with NETIF CEO	Economic empowerment:	1,81 (out of 4)	New jobs were created, most community members benefit from the project, profit is shared equally, 50–75% of incomes are not spend in the villages
	Social empowerment:	1,36	Good cooperation between NETIF and local groups, very good image of NETIF in the area, missing knowledge about ecotourism
	Psychological empowerment:	1,75	High self-confidence in the villages, uniqueness of the own culture is appreciated, women are integrated in village life
	Political empowerment:	2,50	Community members are satisfied with their level of participation, tourism development committees make decisions
	Ecological empowerment:	1,86	NETIF contributes to environmental protection with: trash picking, incinerators, new stoves, awareness programs,
	Visitor empowerment:	2,40	Missing information boards, tourists did not know about the ecotourism project,

Source: own table

Conclusion

The main goals of this paper are to show under which conditions ecotourism projects result in successful community development and to create an evaluation framework for ecotourism projects, which can be used for various kinds of projects all around the world, and compare them to each other. It is very important that communities get a financial benefit because without that even the best ecotourism project cannot last. This study shows that small development efforts through ecotourism can have a big effect on community empowerment, especially in terms of protecting the pristine nature of the environment through such easy actions like garbage picking. In order to get this effect it is necessary to mobilize enough community members and to educate them in sustainable tourism development and environmental protection. In the case study it could be observed that almost every community member interviewed was very eager to learn. Everyone who took the trainings provided by NETIF was very thankful for this chance. Involvement and participation of locals in the project planning is as important as trainings and environmental protection. It is essential that, during the implementation of a project, everyone involved had the chance to speak his/her mind and to take an active part in decision making, otherwise discrimination of individuals or groups cannot be avoided.

Additionally, the tourist is an important factor which, unfortunately, is not always considered in such projects. Along the KVCTT more knowledge and time was invested in trainings and environment protection than in tourist management and tourism information. However, the tourist is the most important stakeholder as without it there will not be any income and therefore, no project. The promotion of an ecotourism project needs to be considered as very important and should also increase with the project's progress.

The second main goal of the study was the creation of an evaluation framework for ecotourism projects in different countries. The implementation of the evaluation framework in Nepal resulted in astonishing results: On the one hand it can give a very good overview of the impact of an ecotourism project on community development but, on the other hand, it also showed some weaknesses in comparing projects which are at different project phases. A certain amount of data is necessary to gain reasonable results and a closer look on the results 'behind the indicator values' is essential. Another situation with which the evaluation framework had troubles to cope was the lack of education in rural Nepal. The interview partners had to have a certain level of education in order to differentiate sustainable tourism from conventional tourism. Furthermore, most of the time it was necessary to be supported by a translator (we need to stress that he might have had an influence on the answers of community members due to his (personal) translation and often simply due to his presence).

Anyhow, the evaluation framework would need more case studies for empirical testing and to eradicate the problems with the comparison of different projects. Such a set of indicators, if it would be standardized, would help future as well as present ecotourism projects to locate strengths and weaknesses.

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"Pilgrimages and religious tourism of Poles and Czech. Fallowing St. James's steps to Santiago de Compostela"

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Abstract

The Way of St. James, which has existed for over 1000 years, is constantly being developed. Since the beginning of the 21st century there were over 5 thousand kilometers of St. James's Way marked in Poland and Czech only. There are 22 sections of the pilgrim's way marked with James's shell in Poland and several more are currently being prepared. In the Czech Republic there are 10 sections available, two of which start in Poland. The cooperation of societies and brotherhoods of St. James from the Czech Republic and Poland is showing great perspectives for the creation of new sections of the Way in the future located in the Poland-Czech border area.

The last twenty years have shown an increase and development of the pilgrimage movement via St. James's Way - the longest and most widely known pilgrimage and culture trail in Europe. It is estimated that the sanctuary of St. James in Santiago de Compostela is being visited by over 5 million people each year. Among the pilgrims from the Central-Eastern Europe, the Polish and Czech deserve attention as their participation in international pilgrimage movement to Compostela is increasing each year. In 2013 – 2 515 pilgrims from Poland and 769 pilgrims from the Czech Republic received the so called 'Compostela' - a memorial diploma.

Keywords: *cultural tourism; European Cultural Trails; pilgrimage; religious tourism; St. James's way - Camino de Santiago*

Paper Type: *Scientific paper*

Introduction

In 2013 it was 1200 years passed since the hermit Pelayo (Pelagius) found the relics of St. James the Apostle on a hill called Liberum Donum. When the rain of stars fell on the hill, he discovered a marble sarcophagus with the relics of St. James the Apostle. A village called *Como postolo* – which means "James the Apostle", or *Campus Stellae* – "Field of Stars", was founded around this place. Later the settlement was renamed Compostela.(Jackowski, Sołtan, 2000, 17 – 19).

The discovery of the relics of St. James the Apostle in 813, had the direct impact on the initiation of the pilgrimage movement to the tomb of St. James. A particular development of the cult of St. James and the pilgrimage to his tomb falls on the Middle Ages. Among other things numerous papal privileges contributed to this situation. In the 13th century, by the papal act, the sanctuary of Santiago de Compostela was declared one out of three most important pilgrimage centers in Christianity (along with Jerusalem and Rome). In the Middle Ages, over 500 thousand pilgrims each year traveled through almost entire Europe on the way to Santiago de Compostela or on the way back.(Jackowski, Sołtan, 2000, 17 – 19).

In the 16th and 17th century, the rank of pilgrimage routes to Santiago de Compostela significantly decreased. The direct reasons were ongoing religious wars in Europe, many epidemics and natural disasters. In the following centuries, the French Revolution and the Napoleonic Wars, caused that the Ways of St. James became gradually forgotten. Another revival of the pilgrimage movement to the tomb of St. James took place in the 80s of the 20th century. Today, among researchers studying the phenomenon of St. James' route, there is a clear consensus that 'The European Act' of holy Pope John Paul II, began a new stage in the history of the pilgrimage to the tomb of St. James. (Muszyński, 2010, 118). To the appeal of the Polish Pope responded i.a. the Council of Europe, which in 1987 declared the Way of St. James the first cultural route in Europe and encourage local authorities to recreate former pilgrimage routes. The next year first pilgrims from Spain and France set out their journeys to the tomb of St. James. Initially, signposts with the motif of the scallop shell of St. James appeared just in Spain. Over the following years they appeared also in France, Germany, Italy, Austria and Switzerland. In 1993, the pilgrimage route to Santiago in Spain, and in 1998 the route in France, were inscribed by UNESCO on the World Cultural Heritage List. In 2003, the European network of *Camino de Santiago* reached the German-Polish border in Görlitz/Zgorzelec. The next year, Polish pilgrims making their journey to the tomb of St. James started many activities on marking out Polish sections of the Way of St. James. The first section of the Way of St. James in Czech Republic, was *Żytawa Way of St. James*, opened in May 2008. The route was established thanks to Tripartite Agreement between Czech Republic, Poland and Germany. The paper includes an analysis of the pilgrimage and tourist movement of the Polish and Czech travelers to Santiago de Compostela in the last ten years, namely in 2004–2013. Presented study is an attempt to summarize the activities related to the creation and development of sectors of the Way of St. James in Poland and Czech Republic. On the basis of field research and interviews with foreign associations taking care of St. James' routes, the authors of this study made an attempt to present the main issues and challenges related to the further development of *Camino Santiago* in those countries.

The way of St. James in Poland

The Way of St. James in The Republic of Poland is currently the longest, marked pilgrimage route and also the longest cultural and thematic route in Poland. At present, routes of St. James in Poland connects Eastern borders of the country (the Polish-Lithuanian border and Polish-Ukrainian border) with the Polish-German and Polish-Czech border.

The project of delineation the first section of Camino de Santiago in Poland was created in 2004 by the group of people who made a pilgrimage to the tomb of St. James the Apostle in Santiago de Compostela. Pilgrimages of Polish people to the tomb of St. James, re-development of the cult of the Apostle in many Polish parishes of St.James and re-creation process of St.James' routes in eastern Germany, undoubtedly, had an impact on creation of the Way of St. James in Poland. (Mróz, Mróz, 2012, 133).

Currently on territory of Poland, there are the following sections of Camino de Santiago: 1. *Dolnoslaska Way of St. James*, 2. *Wielkopolska Way of St. James*, 3. *The Polish Route (Camino Polaco)*, 4. *The Way of St. James " Szlak Piastowski "*, 5. *The Way of St. James "Via Regia"* (Korczowa – Zgorzelec), 6. *Lubuska Way of St. James*, 7. *Leborska Way of St. James*, 8. *Sudety Way of St. James*, 9. *Malopolska Way of St. James*, 10. *Slezanska Way of St. James*, 11. *Miedziana Way of St. James*, 12. *Nyska Way of St. James*, 13. *Beskidy Way of St. James*, 14. *Lubelska Way of St. James*, 15. *Warszawska Way of St. James*, 16. *Nadwarcianska Way of St. James*, 17. *Mazowiecka Way of St. James*, 18. *The Way of St. James of Northern Mazowasze and Podlasie,* 19. St. James's way of Pomerania, 20. St. James's way of Szczecin, 21. St. James's way of Tarnobrzeg, and 22. St. James's way of Klodzko (Fig. 1).

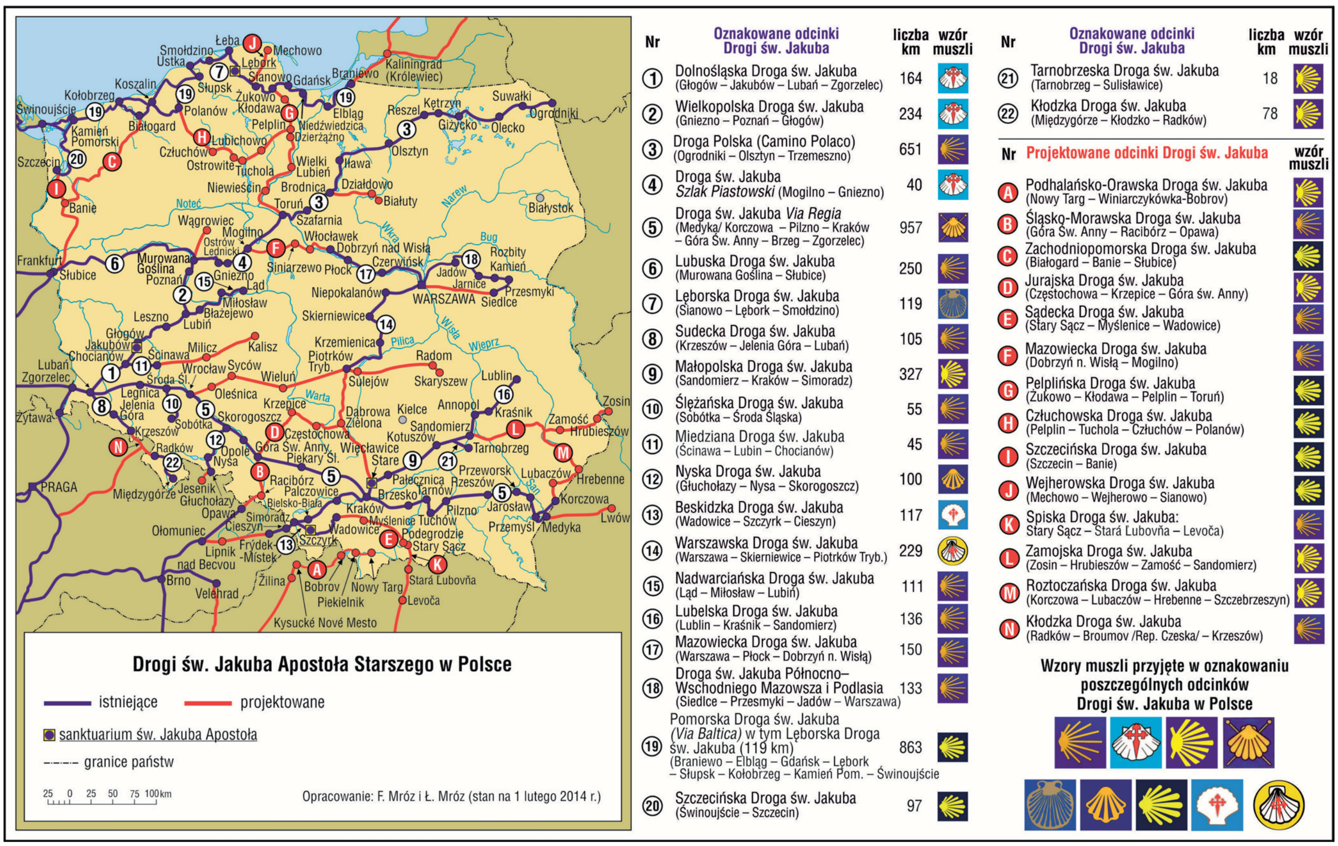


Figure 1. The Ways of St. James in Poland (existing and planned sections – on 1th February 2014 r.)

Source: personal analysis F. Mróz, Ł. Mróz

It is worth noting, that from July 2005 till the end 2013 thanks to the involvement of the Church, local authorities and numerous enthusiastics of the Way of St. James, more than 5000 km divided into 22 sectors with the motive of Jacobean shell have been marked and opened in Poland (cf. Tab. 1). Even today, we can say that Polish sections of the Way of St. James permanently entered the European network of *Camino de Santiago*.

Table 1. The Ways of St. James in Poland (existing sections – on February 2014)

Name of the Way	Towns on the route	Opening date	Length km	Logo
Dolnośląska Way of St. James	Głogów – Jakubów – Grodowiec – Polkowice – Chocianów – Bolesławiec – Lubań – Zgorzelec	24 July 2005	164	
The Polish Route (Camino Polaco)	Olsztyn – Gietrzwałd	July 2006	17	
The Way of St. James Via Regia	Brzeg – Oława – Wrocław – Środa Śl. – Lubiąż Legnica – Złotoryja – Lubań – Zgorzelec	6 October 2006	235	
Wielkopolska Way of St. James	Gniezno – Poznań – Lubiń – Leszno – Głogów	6 November 2006	234	
The Polish Route (Camino Polaco)	Gietrzwałd – Iława – Brodnica – Toruń	April 2007	209	
The Way of St. James „Szlak Piastowski"	Mogilno – Trzemeszno – Niechanowo – Gniezno	20 April 2007	40	
Lęborska Way of St. James	Sianowo – Lębork – Łeba – Smołdzino	8 September 2007	119	
Lubuska Way of St. James	Murowana Goślina – Oborniki – Szamotuły – Wronki – Ośno Lubuskie – Słubice	1 July 2008	250	
Sudecka Way of St. James	Jelenia Góra – Radomice – Gryfów Śl. – Lubań	7 September 2008	55	
The Way of St. James Via Regia	Góra Św. Anny – Kamień Śl. – Opole – Skorogoszcz – Brzeg	15 September 2008	83	
Małopolska Way of St. James (sector in małopolskie province)	Pałecznica – Zielenice – Niegardów – Więcławice Stare – Bosutów – Kraków	25 October 2008	76	
Małopolska Way of St. James (sector in świętokrzyskie province)	Sandomierz – Kotuszów – Szczaworyż – Probołowice – Pałecznica	25-27 July 2009	130	
Ślężańska Way of St. James	Ślęża – Sobótka – Środa Śl.	25-27 July 2009	55	
Miedziana Way of St. James	Ścinawa – Lubin – Chocianów	1 August 2009	45	
The Polish Route (Camino Polaco)	Toruń – Mogilno – Trzemeszno	November 2009	108	
Nyska Droga św. Jakuba	Głuchołazy – Nysa – Lewin Brzeski – Skorogoszcz	25 July 2010	100	
The Way of St. James Via Regia	Pilzno – Tuchów – Tarnów – Brzesko – Kraków	25 July 2010	165	
The Way of St. James Via Regia in Zagłębie Dąbrowskie	Kraków – Piekary Śląskie – Góra Św. Anny	8 August 2010	233	
Sudecka Way of St. James	Krzeszów – Jelenia Góra	22 August 2010	50	
Małopolska Way of St. James	Kraków – Tyniec – Sanka – Palczowice	November 2010	55	
The Polish Route (Camino Polaco)	Ogrodniki – Suwałki – Olsztyn	25 July 2011	317	
Beskidzka Way of St. James	Wadowice – Szczyrk – Simoradz – Cieszyn	8 October 2011	117	
The Way of St. James Via Regia	Korczowa – Przemyśl – Jarosław – Przeworsk – Łańcut – Rzeszów – Ropczyce – Pilzno	5 January 2012	219	
Nadwarciańska Way of St. James	Ląd – Miłosław – Lubiń	22 July 2012	111	
Warszawska Way of St. James	Warszawa – Ożarów – Niepokalanów	25 July 2012	53	
Małopolska Way of St. James	Palczowice – Zator – Osiek – Bielany k. Kęt	November 2012	24	
The Way of St. James Północno-Wschodnie Mazowsze and Podlasie	Siedlce – Przesmyki – Jarnice	6 February 2013	115	
Mazowiecka Way of St. James	Warszawa – Modlin – Płock – Włocławek	10 February 2013	167	
Warszawska Way of St. James	Niepokalanów – Skierniewice – Piotrków Tryb.	15 July 2013	176	
Lubelska Way of St. James	Lublin – Kraśnik – Annopol – Sandomierz	28 July 2013	136	
The Way of St. James Północno-Wschodnie Mazowsze and Podlasie	Jarnice – Jadów	28 July 2013	18	
Pomorska Way of St. James Via Baltica including *Lęborska Way of St. James* (119 km)	Braniewo – Elbląg – Gdańsk – Lębork – Słupsk – Kołobrzeg – Kamień Pom. – Świnoujście	28 July 2013	863	
Szczecińska Way of St. James	Świnoujście – Szczecin	28 July 2013	97	
The Way of St. James Via Regia	Medyka – Przemyśl	27 October 2013	22	
Tarnobrzeska Way of St. James	Tarnobrzeg – Sulisławice	8 November 2013	18	
Kłodzka Way of St. James	Międzygórze – Kłodzko – Radków	November 2013	78	
Małopolska Way of St. James	Bielany k. Kęt – Bielsko Biała – Simoradz	1 February 2014	42	
Source: personal analysis F. Mróz, Ł. Mróz (February 2014r.)		**TOTAL**	**4996 km**	

Source: personal analysis F. Mróz, Ł. Mróz

During the next two years, next sections of St. James's way are being planned for opening in Poland, and most of them is currently under development, *Beskidzka Droga św. Jakuba, Jurajska Droga św. Jakuba*, *Człuchowska Droga św. Jakuba*, *Pelplińska Droga św. Jakuba*, *Podhalańsko-Orawska Droga św. Jakuba*, *Śląsko-Morawska Droga św. Jakuba* oraz *Spiska Droga św. Jakuba* (located in the regions of the Beskids, Krakow-Czestochowa Upland, Czulchow, Peplin, Podhale-Orawa, Silesia and Spisk).

It should be noted, that in many Polish parishes of St. James, fraternities and associations of St. James and among the worshipers of St. James, new initiatives related to the cult of the Apostle and creation of new sections of St. James' Way has arisen. Currently, 10 new routes are already in progress – i.a. *Jurajska Way of St. James*, *Człuchowska Way of St. James*, *Pelplińska Way of St. James*, *Podhalańsko-Orawska Way of St. James*, *Silesian-Moravian Way of St. James and Spiska Way of St. James*.

The development of the new parts of St. James's Way and the pilgrim movement via these routes is connected with the growth of the cult of the Apostle both in the areas of St. James's parishes and in other centers of religious cult. During the last decade four St. James's Churches in Poland: in Jakubow, Szczyrk, Lebork and Weclawice Stare, have been raised to the rank of sanctuaries of St. James the Elder the Apostle. Each year, new projects are being realized, and their purpose is to further promote the cult of the Apostle and develop *Camino de Santiago* in the local communities and the general areas - for example: 'Biesiady Jakubowe' (James's Feasts), 'Jarmarki Jakubowe' (James's Fairs), 'Festyny Jakubowe' (James's Galas), 'Dni Jakubowe' (James's Days), 'Miedzynarodowe Zloty Jakubow' (International James's Jamborees) and various runs via the Way of St. James.

The new initiatives of journeying via the Way of St. James are particulary noteworthy, as their instigators are not only the members of St. James's brotherhoods or St. James's Way's lovers, but also students, scouts and school children. More frequently the way of St. James's shell is a place for retreat en-route organized by parishes and various priestly groups. The best example of these are the, so called, 'Niedzielne Pielgrzymowania Droga sw. Jakuba' (Sunday Pilgrimages via the Way of St. James) taking place on various parts of the Way in Poland.

Numerous initiatives taken in many regions of Poland, which aims the revival of the cult of St. James and promotion of the Ways of St. James gives a great optimism. In the implementation of many projects and tasks an important role play Fraternities of St. James and established in October 2012 in Czestochowa "Congregation of Camino Polonia," which gathers parishes, associations and individuals promoting the cult of the Apostle and taking care of newly created routes of St. James within the country. Certainly, more frequent visits of pilgrims from abroad give a chance for development and opportunity to enter *Camino de Santiago* in Poland, into a European network of St. James' routes. Leading St. James' routes to the border areas of eastern neighbouring countries may become a directly impulse to the renascence of Camino de Santiago in Lithuania, Ukraine and Slovakia. Establishing broader contacts with associations and fraternities of St. James is a good sign for creation a new European initiative.

The above brief presentation of success related to the creation of St.James routes network in Poland would be incomplete without mentioning many problems associated with the functioning of *Camino de Santiago* in Poland. Those problems are mainly related to the lack of adequate infrastructure at the pilgrimage route. The greatest shortcomings in this range concern the lack of accommodation (no small pilgrim houses, hostels, guest houses, guest rooms and tourist farms), especially in small towns and rural districts. A serious problem is also the lack of signposting on selected sections of the route or marking, which does not correspond with the description in the guide books. On most polish sections of the Way of St. James the rest stops and places protecting against bad weather conditions are missing. There is also lack of places equiped with bicycle racks and boxes. Pilgrims travelling along St. James route in Poland also complain about the lack of adequate pastoral care in many sacral objects and the lack of information and knowledge on the Way of St. James among local communities.

The way of St. James in Czech Republic

Ways of St. James in Czech Republic were created thanks to the involvement and work of members of the Association of Friends of St. James "Ultreia" (Občanské sdružení Ultreia). This organization was established in 2008 and concentrates in its ranks 20 members acting as volunteers. The main tasks of the association include helping those who want to make a pilgrimage along Jacobean routes, issuing official credencials, promoting pilgrimage to Santiago de Compostela, creating opportunities for pilgrims meetings, marking and promoting the Ways of St. James in the Czech Republic. Thanks to the activity of members of the Association "Ultreia" on the territory of Czech Republic, up to now, they managed to mark out ten sections of the Way of St. James – with a length of about 1500 km (cf. Fig. 2).

No	Existing sectors of The Way of Saint James	lenght km
1	*Żytawa Way of St. James* (Żytawa /Germany/) – Hrádek nad Nisou – Letařovice – Mnichovo Hradiště – Stará Boleslav – Praha	147
2	*The Northern Way of St. James* Praha – Kralovice – Stříbro – Železná – (Tillyschanz – Nürnberg /Germany/)	245
3	Praha – Zbraslav – Příbram – Kasejovice – Nepomuk – Kdyně – Všeruby – (Eschlkam – Regensburg /Germany/)	193
4	Praha – Tábor – Český Krumlov	228
5	Český Krumlov – Koranda	49
6	Brno – Třebíč – Telč – Český Krumlov	293
7	Brno – Mikulov – (Drasenhofen /Austria/)	55
8	Velehrad – Brno	71
9	Olomouc – Drahanovice – Brno	87
10	*Silesian-Moravian Droga św. Jakuba* (Racibórz /Poland/) – Opava – Hradec nad Moravicí – Olomouc	101

The Way of Saint James in Czech Republic – *Svatojakubská cesta*

marked
planned
church of Saint James the Apostle
borders of the country

No	Sectors of The Way of St. James in project	length km
11	(Krzeszów /Poland/) – Pardubice – Kácov	235
12	(Wadowice - Cieszyn /Polska/) – Frýdek-Místek – Libhost – Velky Ujezd – Olomouc	124
13	Velehrad – (Trnava /Slovak Republic/ – Bratislava /Hungary/)	33

25 0 25 50 75 100 km

Figure 2. The Ways of St. James in Czech Republic (existing and planned sections – on 25th February 2013 r.)

Source: personal analysis Ł. Mróz

The next three sections are now being designed and ready for implementation. Among other organizations, associations and groups working on favour of renewing Ways of St. James in Czech Republic we need to mention: Czech Tourist Club, Cesta Hvězdy, AgAkcent and Association for Rural Development Support (PORES). Many associations related to Ways of St. James from Poland, Germany and Austria also offer their help.

For people who have worked on the concept of delineating Jacobean route in Czech Republic an important aspect was the siting of existing churches, chapels or former hospitals of St. James the Apostle (cf. Fig. 2).

One of the first Jacobean routes re-created in Czech Republic is *Żytawa Way of St. James (Zittau Way of St.James)*, opened in May 2008. The route was created thanks to the efforts of the International Association of the Way of St. James Gniezno – Zgorzelec – Prague and trilateral cooperation of: Polish – Franciscan Village Foundation, German – International Meetings Centre (IBZ) and Czech – Association for Rural Development Support

(PORES).(www.zittauer-jakobsweg.de). *Żytawa Way of St. James* is one of the three sections of Jacobean trail leading form Gniezno to Prague (603 km). The first sector, as already mentioned, is *Wielkopolska Way of St. James* (Gniezno – Głogów: 224 km), the second – *Dolnośląska Way* (Głogów – Zgorzelec: 170 km), and the third one – *Żytawa Way* (Görlitz – Prague: 209 km, the length of the route in Czech Republic, leading from Hrádek nad Nisou to Prague is 147 km) (Żytowska Droga, 2010, 8–9).

In Czech Republic a part of the route was delineated using existing trails marked by the Czech Tourist Club. On the sector Hrádek nad Nisou – Prague, Żytawa Way of St. James was marked in parallel with the international hiking route I-24. Historical significance of the medieval trade route and, at the same time, the pilgrimage route goes back to the 10th century. According to the tradition, in 995, Bishop Adalbert walked from Czech Republic to Poland. First activities aiming recreation of the route marked with the Jacobean shell started in 2005.

On the *Żytawa Way* there are many relics of ancient pilgrims, medieval churches built in memorial of the St. James the Apostle (Zittau, Letařovice (The church of St. James, 2010) and Mnichovo Hradiště), former hospitals, which served pilgrims and wanderers, and commanderies of St. John, who, in accordance with its canon took care of pilgrims. The route runs along the picturesque areas near the Lusatian Neisse and Jizera River.

Żytawa Way of St. James has two alternative variants available on the start-up stage of the trail – the first variant leads from Hrádek nad Nisou to Václavice – where the church of St. James the Apostle is located.

An important section of *Camino de Santiago* in the Czech Republic is a route leading from ***Prague*** to ***Železná***, called ***the Northern Way of St.James***. It is a part of the route leading to Santiago de Compostela via Nuremberg, Geneva and Le Puy-en-Velay. The route coincide largely with the international long-distance hiking trails I-10 and I-24.

The Northern Way of St. James in Czech Republic runs from Zbraslav, town situated to the south of Prague, through Karlštejn, Beroun, Nižbor, Kralovice, Plasy, Horni Břízu, Stříbro to Kladruby, where the church of St. James is located. Then, the trail runs along the Úhlavka River to Prostiboř, Darmyšl to Hostouně – also with the church of St. James. The last section leads through Bělá nad Radbuzou to Železná, then crosses the Czech-German border and connects the route to Nuremberg. The route runs mainly along already existing and marked walking trails. The length of the route from Prague to Železná is 245 km (238 km from Zbraslav).

The youngest section of the Way of St. James in Czech Republic is ***the Way of St. James*** from ***Prague*** to ***Všeruby***, marked in July 2011. A part of the trail coincides with routes marked by the Czech Tourist Club and signed as an international hiking trail I-24 Svatojakubská cesta (the Way of St. James). The Way of St. James from Prague to Všeruby was created as a continuation of the German Ways of St. James – *Jakobsweg* from Regensburg, Eichstätt to Donauwörth. Running through Regensburg, Geneva, Lyon and Le Puy to Santiago de Compostela it forms a part of the Way of St. James. Historically, the trade route from Prague to Regensburg has existed at least since the 14th century.

Another part of St.James' route from Prague to Český Krumlov: ***the Way of St. James Prague – Český Krumlov*** was opened in 2009. The length of this section is 228 km. Thereby, it became a connector – between *Żytawa Way*, and the ways in Austria.(www.ultreia.cz). Its extension is 49 km long ***the Way of St. James Český Krumlov – Koranda***. The route leads through Vítkův Kámen to the border with Austria and further to Sankt Oswald in Austria.

In Český Krumlov the way connects with the trail from Moravia – which runs from Brno through Třebíč: ***the Way of St. James Brno – Český Krumlov***. This part is 293 km long. Along the route there are churches of St. James in Ivančice and Jindřichův Hradec.

There are three other sectors of the Way St. James marked in Moravia. One of them leads from ***Brno*** to ***Olomouc***. On the distance of 87 km the route runs through Náměšť on Hané, Přemyslovice, Stražisko, Male Hradisko, Sloup and Jedovnice.

The Way of St. James from Olomouc, connects in Brno with the way that leads south to the town of ***Mikulov*** (55 km) and the trail leading east from ***Velehrad*** (71 km).

The last delineated sector of the pilgrimage route of St. James in Czech Republic is a part of ***the Silesian-Moravian Way St. James.*** It runs from Opava through Hradec nad Moravici to Olomouc. The trail will begin in Opole on the sector of the Way of St. James Via Regia and then through Racibórz will lead across the border to Opava. The sector is mostly leading along the existing trails – walking and biking. At the stage of Opava – Hradec nad Moravici the route is not marked yet. The pilgrimage along the *Silesian-Moravian Way of St. James* in the territory of Czech Republic, you can start from the Polish-Czech border in the town of Vávrovice and continue along the green trail to reach Opava. An important step in building a common section of Camino – leading from Opole through Racibórz, Opava to Olomouc was signing the cooperation agreement in order to revive the pilgrimage movement. This was accomplished in June 2012 by authorities of the dioceses of Olomouc and Opole.

Currently, 3 sections of the Way of St. James in Czech Republic being designed and are at the stage of delineating and marking. Two of them are designed as connectors with routes leading from Poland. The first one runs from the Polish-Czech border near Krzeszów – it's as an extension of *Sudety Way of St. James* and leads through Hradec Králové, Pardubice to the town Kácov where it connects with *the Way of St. James Prague – Český Krumlov.* The first designed section of the route runs from Cieszyn to Olomouc leading via Frýdek-Místek, Libhost, Lipnik nad Becvou and Velky Ujezd, towns with churches of St. James. It is also noteworthy that on the 3rd of July 2013 the members of the St. James Brotherhood in Szczyrk, together with Kazimierz Plachta - the parish priest of the Ropice parish, marked the 56 km long section of the track - from Simoradz, through Cieszyn and Ropice, to Frýdek-Místek.

The second designed route leads from the Czech border to Krzeszow - as an extension of the *Sudecka Droga sw.* Jakuba and Klodzka Droga sw. Jakuba (the Sudety and Klodzko parts of St. James's Way).

The Klodzko part of St. James's Way is the youngest section of the trail in Poland. It was officially made available on the

11th of April 2014 in Bystrzyca Klodzka. The missing piece of the trail to connect the Sudety and Klodzko parts of St. James's Way would need to go through the cities of Chvaleč i Ruprechtice which both have St. James's Churches.

This route will be an extension of the sector that runs from Poland – *Beskidy Way of St. James.* The last sector is scheduled south from Velehrad – through Trnava to Bratislava in Slovak Republic. It is also worth noting a short connector of *Nysa Way of St. James* leading from Jasenik to Głuchołazy.

An increased awareness of local authorities and parishes on the rank of routes leading to Santiago de Compostela, undoubtedly, instills the optimism and creates oportunities for further development.

The pilgrimage movement of Polish and Czech people to Santiago de Compostela

The sanctuary of St. James in Santiago de Compostela is currently one the most important Christian pilgrimage centres in the world visited by over 5 million people every year. (Wójtowicz, 2011, 317). Since 2004, the Pilgrims' Office of Archdiocese of Santiago de Compostela (*Oficina del Peregrino de Santiago de Compostela*) collects detailed statistics on people who came to Santiago de Compostela on foot, on horseback, on a bicycle or in a wheelchair and received so-called "*Compostela*" (the document confirming making a pilgrimage to the tomb of St. James – the last 100 km of *Camino de Santiago* made on foot, on horseback or in a wheelchair, or 200 km, if travelling by bicycle).

Basing on the data of the Pilgrims' Office of Archdiocese of Santiago de Compostela, we may conclude that from the mid-80s of the 20th century, there has been a steady growth in the number of pilgrims arriving to the tomb of St. James. In the early 80s of the 20th century, only several hundred visitors a year has received the *"Compostela"*, whilst just as far back as in the mid-90s of the 20th century this number reached over 20 thousand people. A record number of pilgrims who visited the sanctuary of St. James in a modern history was reported in 2010 – it was 272 135 visitors.

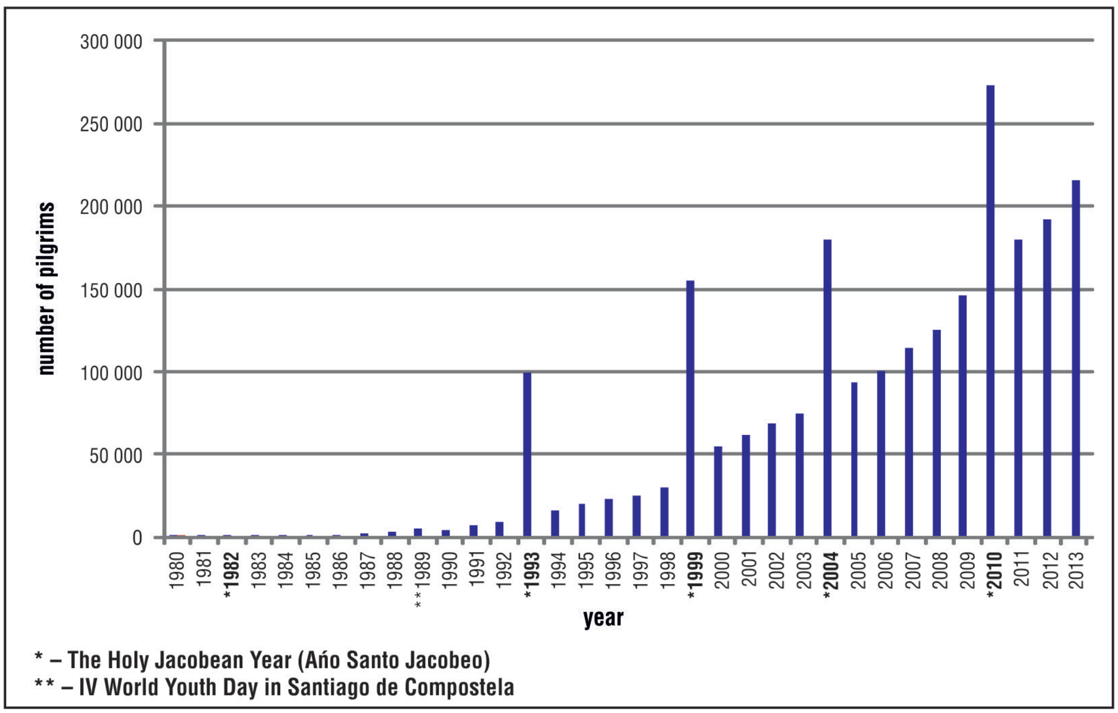


Figure 3. Pilgrimage movement to the sanctuary of Saint James in Santiago de Compostela in 1980–2013.
Source: personal analysis based on the data of Pilgrims' Office of Archdiocese of Santiago de Compostela.

In 2013, the Pilgrims' Office registered 215 880 pilgrims – 188 191 people in this group (87.17% of the total) came to Santiago de Compostela on foot, 26 646 (12.34% of the total) arrived by bicycle, 977 people arrived on horseback, while 66 pilgrims came in a wheelchair (cf. Fig. 3).

The Spanish make up the majority of the pilgrim group, nationality-wise (c.a. 50%), they are followed by the Germans, Italians, Portuguese and Americans. In 2013 the Czech were classified as 25th (769 participants, 0.36% of the total visitors), the Polish as 13th among all the nations making pilgrimages to the grave of St. James, after the Spanish (105 891 pilgrims), Germans (16 203), Italians (15 621), Portuguese (10 698), Americans (10 125), the French (8 305), the Irish (5 012), the British (4 207), Canadians (3 373), Australians (3 098), the Dutch (2 888) and Koreans (2 774).

It needs to be pointed out that the journey - a pilgrimage following the steps of St. James, is definitely different from mass pilgrimages to destinations in Europe such as the Polish St. Mary's Sanctuaries in Jasna Gora, Gora Swietej Anny (St. Anna's Mountain) or Kalwaria Zebrzydowska. People taking the trail of St. James usually do this alone or in small groups (of less than 20 participants). Basically, each of the pilgrims is free to choose the time of the journey and the length of the trail they want to go. People who have reached Santiago de Compostela emphasize that at *camino* an old man dies and a new one is born, that at *Camino de Santiago* each step has a life-changing power. The European parts of St. James's way are attended more frequently by non-believers or people of creeds other than Christian, as well as people who admit taking the journey for cognitive - non-religious reasons.

Having analyzed the tourist and pilgrimage movement of the Poles and Czech to Santiago de Compostela in 2004–2010 one can notice the increase of the Polish and Czech pilgrims who received the *'Compostela'* (cf. Fig. 4).

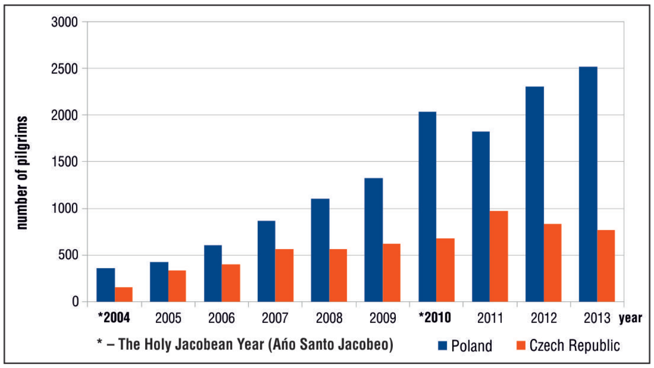


Figure 4. Pilgrimage movement of Polish and Czech people to Santiago de Compostela in 2004–2013.

Source: personal analysis based on the data of Pilgrims' Office of Archdiocese of Santiago de Compostela

In case of travelers from Poland the number increased fivefold (the largest increase was noted in the period of 2009–2010 - 55.8%), whereas in case of the Czech, over fourfold (the largest increase was noted in the period of 2004 and 2005 - 215.7%). Only in 2011 the number of pilgrims from Poland was smaller than the year before. It needs to be noted that 2010 was celebrated in Santiago de Compostela as the Holy Year of St. James and, as a result, the number of pilgrims was the highest noted: 272 135, with 2 040 Poles (0.75% of the total number). In 2013 the *Oficina del Peregrino de Santiago de Compostela* registered 2 515 Poles, and the percentage of Polish pilgrims climbed to 1.16%. On the other hand, the decrease in numbers of Czech pilgrims (by over 20%) in the period of 2011–2013 (from 975 participants in 2011 to 769 in 2013) was a surprise. The most probable reason for that was the recession of the Czech economy in 2013, which resulted in less interest of the Czech in tourism and travel.

The development of tourist and pilgrimage movement of the Poles and Czech was influenced by a number of factors. The deciding ones were undoubtedly a redevelopment of the cult of St. James in many parishes and pilgrimage centers, the creation of new (Polish and Czech) parts of *Camino de Santiago*, the increasing amount of information about St. James's way in mass media, individual promotion - *Camino de Santiago* pilgrimages made by people who reached the Compostela and received the memorial diploma - '*Compostela*'. Another important factor is the increase of the number of destinations of the low budget airlines, thanks to which a plane trip to Galicia in a faraway Spain became available to a wider group of clients interested in taking the St. James's way.

Analyzing the demographics of the Polish and Czech pilgrims registered in the Pilgrimage Office of Santiago de Compostela during the most part of the researched period (apart from 2004 in the case of Czech pilgrims), one can notice that the majority of visitors were women. Their participation percentage in the years 2004–2013 - both for Czech and Poles - was 53%.

Among the Czech who in the period of 2004–2009 receive their memorial diplomas there is a noticeable percentage of young people - below 30. Their participation in the researched period reached from 46% (in 2009) to 66.6% (in 2004). A distinct dominance of older pilgrims (aged 30–60) began in 2010. In the whole of the analyzed period, the participation of pilgrims below 30 was as high as 44.7%. The participation of pilgrims aged 30–60 was not much lower as it reached 43.6%, and people older than 60 comprised 11.6% of the participants. It is worth to notice that each year the number of participants over 60 seems to increase - in 2004 they made up as much as 2% of the total number of Czech pilgrims, whereas in 2012 it went as high as 13.6% (cf. Fig. 5).

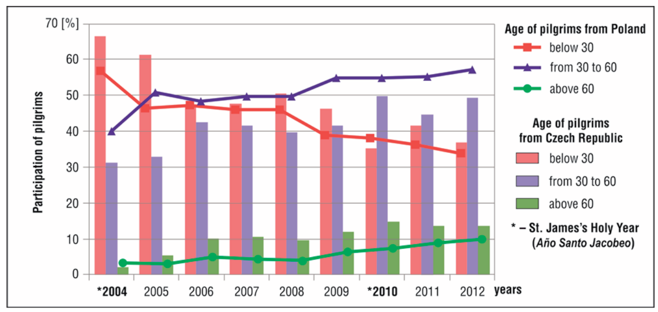


Figure 5, Changes in the age structure of the pilgrims at large and the Czech traveling to Santiago de Compostela during the period of 2004–2012.

Source: own research based on the data of the Pilgrimage Office by the Archbishopric of Santiago de Compostela

Analyzing the demographic structure of Polish pilgrims, one can notice the dominance of persons aged 30–60. This age group made up 54.3% of all the Polish pilgrims in the period of 2004–2013 and seems to be constantly increasing, reaching 58% in 2013 (for comparison, in 2004 it was just 40%). Similarly to the Czech pilgrims, the Polish participants present an increase in the age group of '60+' (2004 - 3%, 2013 - 9.7%) and a constant decrease of the young group of less than 30 - in 2004 this group made up 57% of the total number of Polish pilgrims whereas in 2013 it decreased to 31% (cf.Fig. 5).

Among the Czech and Poles traveling to the grave of St. James the Elder, the Apostle in Santiago de Compostela, the most popular form of travel is on foot, which is chosen by about 90% of pilgrims (90.7% and 86.9% respectively - average values from 2004–2012). Bikers made up 12.94% of Poles and 9.25% of Czech during the researched period. It is worth to notice that there were years when the participation of bikers was much higher, for example 24.33% for Poles in 2006 and 23.6% for the Czech in 2011. During the researched period only 16 Poles and one person from the Czech Republic came to Compostela by horse. It is also noteworthy that in 2012 two people from the Czech Republic travelled at least 100 km to the cathedral in Santiago de Compostela in wheel chairs.

The people who appear in the Pilgrimage Office of the Archbishopric of Santiago de Compostela to receive their memorial diplomas fill in a questionnaire where they specify their reasons for visiting the grave of St. James the Apostle, choosing among the available: religious, cultural-religious, and other (non-religious, cultural). Taking into consideration the period of 1989–2013 a decrease in the number of people who declare religious reasons can be observed. While in 1989 as much as 83.5% of pilgrims declared religious reasons, 12.67% - cultural-religious and 1.5% - non-religious, in 2013 a completely different tendency could be noticed - 39.98%, 54.56% and 5.47% respectively.

If we compare the motives of the journey to Santiago de Compostela made by the Czech with the pilgrims from around the world, we will be able to notice similarities. The Czech also mostly give the cultural-religious reason for making the *camino de Santiago* - 47.4%. However, it needs to be noted that in 2004–2006 and in 2010 (the Holy Year of St. James) the majority of Czech declared religious reasons for making the pilgrimage (in 2004 it was as much as 70.6% and in 2010 - 51%). In the researched period, the religious reason was chosen by 43.5% of Czech pilgrims and the non-religious by 9.15% (cf. Fig. 6).

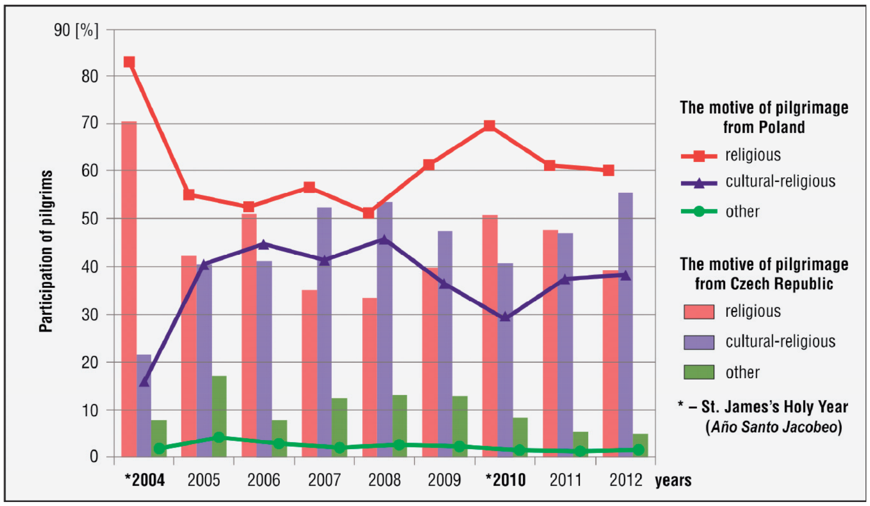


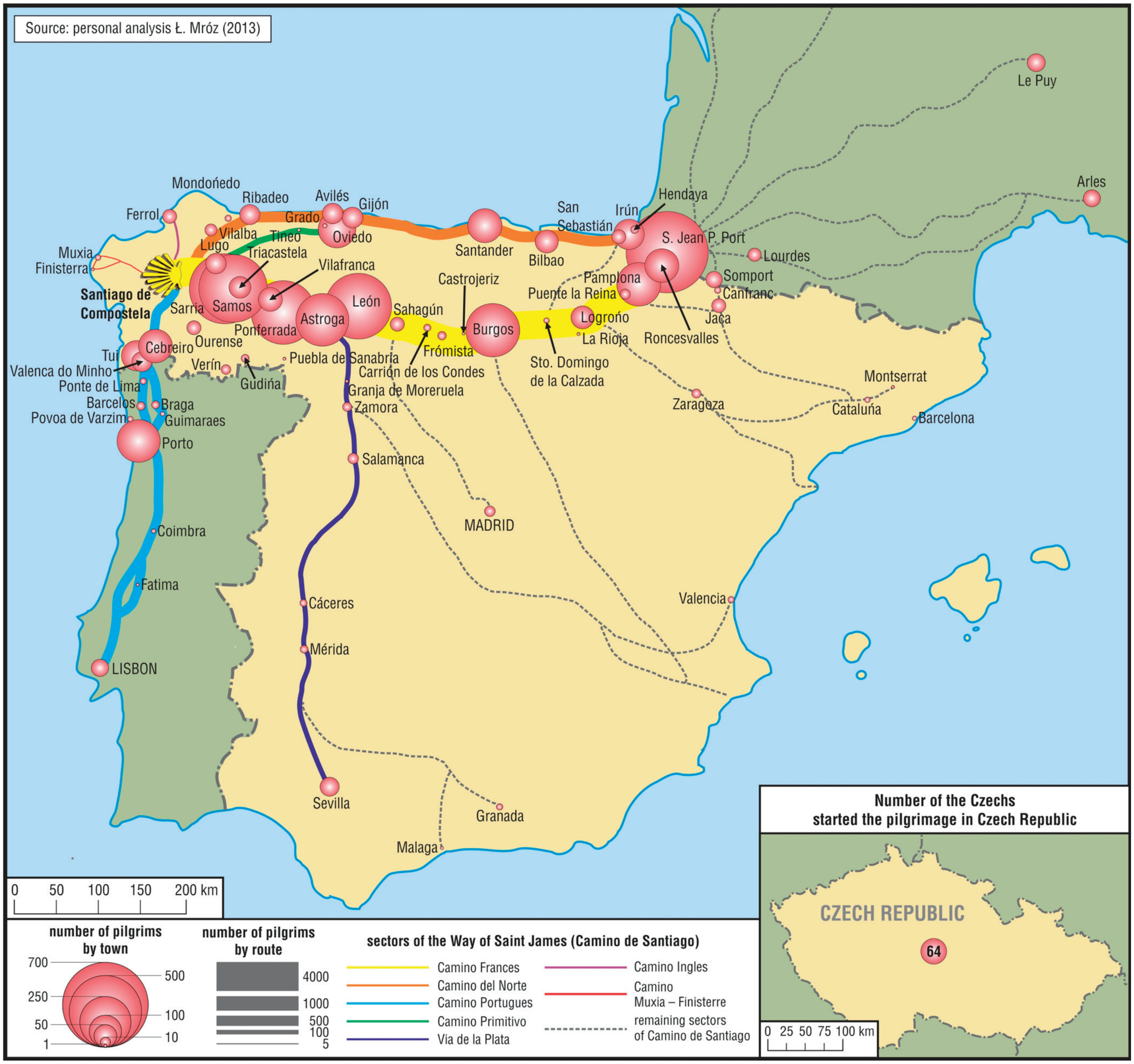
Figure 6. The changes in motives for pilgrimaging to Santiago de Compostela of pilgrims at large and the Czech in particular, during the period of 2004–2012.

Source: own research based on the data of the Pilgrimage Office by the Archbishopric of Santiago de Compostela.

The most popular part of St. James's way in Europe chosen both by Poles and the Czech is the, so called, *French way (Camino Francés)*. It is worth to mention that each year the *French way* is losing its popularity, which may mean that the pilgrims from Poland and the Czech Republic who have already travelled there are choosing other ways for their next pilgrimages. Usually, the *French way* is chosen as the first *camino*. For example - in 2004 as much as 96% of Polish pilgrims who received their memorial diplomas have travelled there via the *French way*, whereas in 2013 it was only 51.5%, similarly in the case of the Czech - in 2004 it was 91.5%, but in 2013 it was just 65% of the total Czech pilgrims.

Other ways also enjoy a popularity, both among the Polish as well as among the Czech pilgrims. These include: *the Portugal Way (Camino Portugues)* (Poles: 17.9%, the Czech: 15.87%), *the Northern Way (Camino Norte)* (Poles: 15.3%, the Czech: 11.54%) and *Camino Primitivo* (Poles: 7.9%, the Czech: 5.53%, all data for 2012).

The vast majority of Poles and the Czech have started their journey to the grave of St. James somewhere in Spain or Portugal. In the period of 2004–2012 almost 20% of pilgrims from Poland (2092 people) and slightly over 15% of pilgrims from the Czech Republic (813 people) started their journeys from the territory of France, especially from Saint-Jean-Pied-de-Port, the most popular starting point for the *French way* (in the period of 2004–2012 1823 Poles and 643 Czech took off from Saint-Jean-Pied-de-Port) (cf. Fig. 7). Other popular starting points in France are Lourdes, Somport, Arles and Le Puy. More and more people decide to make the pilgrimage from more distant places like Switzerland or Germany.



Picture 7. The start points of the pilgrimages made by the Czechs and the number of pilgrims on particular sectors of the Way of St. James in Spain in 2004–2012.

Source: personal analysis based on the data of Pilgrims' Office of Archdiocese of Santiago de Compostela, Ł. Mróz

What is especially worth mentioning is the data from *Oficina del Peregrino de Santiago de Compostela,* which allows to conclude that each year the number of pilgrims who decide to make the pilgrimage in accordance with the Medieval tradition - i.e. from their own doorstep - increases. They embark either from their homes or their parish churches traveling thousands of miles to get to *Camino de Santiago.* in the period of 2005–2012 in the Pilgrimage Office of Santiago de Compostela a total number of 154 Poles and 64 Czech who started their journeys in their home countries have been registered (cf. Fig. 7).

Registered since 2004, the rapid development of pilgrimage movement of Poles and Czech traveling to the grave of St. James has also influenced the increase in popularity of traveling via the Polish and Czech parts of the *Camino de Santiago.* The registers of pilgrims held in many parishes and other institutions confirm a year-to-year increase in the number of people who decide to make the pilgrimage using the Polish parts of the way on their own or in small groups. New initiatives, which are being particularly enjoyed, include bike or on-foot trips and are being organized not only by the members of St. James's brotherhoods, but also by schoolchildren, students and scouts.

Conclusion

The way of St. James - *Camino de Santiago* is the longest and most known pilgrimage and culture trail in Europe. The track has existed for over 1000 years and has been enjoying a considerable development during the last decade. Many parts of Europe show initiatives aiming at the development of the cult of

St. James as well as creating new parts of the *Camino de Santiago*. It is noteworthy that since the beginning of 2005 until March 2014 there have been more than 5 thousand kilometers of St. James's trails marked in Poland and the Czech Republic. New parts of the trail are planned to be opened next year and, similarly to the old days, they will allow pilgrims to visit the grave of St. James the Elder, the Apostle, in Santiago de Compostela in order to renew and strengthen their faith and explicitly confirm the spiritual roots of the Old Continent.

The analysis of tourist and pilgrim movement of Poles and the Czech to Santiago de Compostela, undertaken in this study has shown and increase in popularity of pilgrimages via St. James's way among the inhabitants of these countries of Central-East Europe during the last decade. In the period of 2004–2013 the number of Czech and Polish pilgrims has increased over four times and their percentage in the total number of visitors to Santiago de Compostela has also noticeably increased.

The analysis also allowed to notice a large similarity between the ways of traveling and demographic structure of the pilgrims from the Czech Republic and from Poland. Both Poles and the Czech make their pilgrimages mostly on foot. On the other hand, the number of Polish and Czech bikers who travelled to Compostela is different - in the researched period it was 12.9% and 9.25% respectively.

The most frequently chosen part of the route to Compostela both by Polish and Czech pilgrims is still the *French way (Camino Francés).* Each year, however, shows the increase of popularity of other parts of St. James's Way in Spain - especially *Camino Portugues (the Portugal Way), Camino del Norte (the Northern Way) and Camino Primitivo.*

The organizations, societies and sympathizers of St. James's Way engaged in marking and taking care of the parts of St. James's Way in the Czech Republic and in Poland also have other important tasks connected with preparing the accommodation and food, supplying small-form pilgrim's guides (pocket books) and tourist maps, as well as promoting and informing about the trail, especially in the region it runs through. Little knowledge among the inhabitants of the areas the trails include, both about the character of St. James as well as the pilgrimages and their tradition, and the lack of attempts to engage the local communities, self governments and parishes and include them in the ideas of that pilgrimage are ones of the most noticeable threats to the existence and further functioning of St. James's way. It is of paramount importance that the care of St. James's trail is being taken care of mainly by gathering a large group of "friends" among the local governments, schools, tourist organizations, scout groups, students and other people as well. The coordinating of the works cannot be focused on one small group of people. All the local units need to work together to maintain the development of pilgrimage movement along the routes comprising the Way of St. James.

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"XI International Geography Olympiad (iGeo Kraków)"

Wiktor Osuch, Sławomir Kurek

Pedagogical Univesity of Cracow, Poland

Paper Type: *Review*

On 12–18 August 2014 the Institute of Geography at the Pedagogical University in Krakow held 11th edition of the International Geographical Olympiad (iGeo) organized under the auspices of the International Geographical Union (IGU). Poland has therefore become the first country to host twice the best young geographers (in 2002 the International Olympiad was held in Gdynia).

The organizers of the 11th International Geographical Olympiad was the Chief Committee of Geographic Olympiad, Polish Geographical Society and the Institute of Geography of the Pedagogical University of Cracow, with the financial support of the Ministry of Education and partners and sponsors. The Olympiad was held under the honorary patronage of the Mayor of the City of Krakow and the Rector of the Pedagogical University.

Each team participating in the International Olympiad consisted of four players aged 16–19 who are selected during the national geographical Olympiads, and two tutors, one of which also served as a jury member of the International Geographical Olympiad.

The Olympiad was attended by a record number of as many as 36 national teams - from Australia, Belgium, Belarus, Bulgaria, China, Croatia, Montenegro, Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, the Netherlands, Hong Kong, Indonesia, Japan, Kazakhstan, Latvia, Lithuania, Macau, Mexico, Mongolia, Nigeria, Germany, New Zealand, Poland, Romania, Russia, Serbia, Singapore, Slovakia, Slovenia, the United States, Taiwan, Turkey, Hungary and the United Kingdom. The Olympiad was also attended by observers from the countries which wish to join the ranks of the competing teams in the future (Argentina, Armenia, Switzerland). In previous years, the young geographers Olympiad competition was held in Cologne (2012) and Kyoto (2013).

Participation in the international geographical Olympics is an opportunity for high school students to test both their skills and knowledge against their peers from around the world, as well as a great opportunity to get to know the exotic corners of our planet and to confront their theoretical geographical knowledge against reality. Olympic competitions consist of three phases: a written response test, fieldwork and multi-media test.

Participation in the international geographical Olympics is for high school students an opportunity to test both their skills and knowledge against their peers from around the world, as well as a great opportunity to get to know the exotic corners of the planet and to confront their theoretical knowledge of the geographical reality. Olympic competitions consist of three phases: a written test (written response test), working in the field (fieldwork) and multimedia quiz (multi-media test).

For example, competition in the fieldwork was based on an independent collection of geographic data in a particular area, then participants aggregated, organized and stored data on a faircopy. Participants worked in national teams (of 4 people) to standardize the information collected together and apply to the individual sheets at the end of the task. Each team had to collect data on the forms of activity of the residents of Krakow spending time in Błonia and Jordan Park. The next step of the fieldwork was to create the map of activity zones of residents of Krakow in Błonia and Jordan Park as well as to draft the project of public buildings in the areas of sports facilities currently closed. Fieldwork participants were prepared a lecture on "Cities 'public spaces" associated with the issue of public space in cities around the world. An important part of the lecture was to define public space and examples of its various classifications. In a further step, students could get acquainted with the elements of the planning and evaluation of public spaces and green areas in cities in terms of both historical and current forms of green areas in cities.

However, the activity of the students at the Olympiad is not limited to the competition themselves. Competitors prepare and show the " cultural presentation " of their own country, which was held under the slogan " Let's experience cultural diversity together ". Main objectives of the cultural evening was to broaden the knowledge of students about cultural diversities of the countries, the impact of cultural heritage on contemporary picture of socio-economic space in different regions of the world, and also to exchange individual experiences of young people and teachers about cultural varieties and integration of the participants through a common dancing, singing and discussion. An important aspect was to deepen the knowledge of participants in the diversity and richness of Polish cultural heritage.

Olympic teams also prepared a scientific poster on issues related to the Conference of the International Geographical Union, and the competition ran under the slogan "Challenges of Contemporary Urban Areas" and concerned the country of participants. Posters were publicly presented and evaluated by all the participants to the Olympiad.

Completion of the Olympiad and gold medals ceremony was held during the opening ceremony of the International Geographical Union conference at the Collegium Maximum of the Jagiellonian University in Cracow.

One of the goals that put the organizers of the International Geographical Olympiad was, next to the efficient organization of the student competition, to familiarize them with the cultural richness of Malopolska region, with its capital - Kraków, the city - host the Olympiad. During their stay in Krakow, the students together with their teachers and guides visited Krakow Old Town exploring its medieval, as well as more recent history. Moreover, they had the opportunity to visit the old Jewish district - Kazimierz, the Wieliczka Salt Mine, a former concentration camp at Auschwitz, and they also took part in a day-long trip to the Pieniny mountains, combined with the the Dunajec River flow, sightseeing of Szczawnica spa as well as riding a bike and taking part in the highlanders' feast.

For example, in a very fashionable nowadays Krakow's Kazimierz, which used to be a separate city, the participants learned the history of the Jewish community in Krakow (visited the old synagogue and cemetery), and were introduced to the important issue of the martyrdom of the Jewish people, whose symbol is a factory of Oscar Schindler. Next to the important and difficult at the same time the history of Kazimierz during the Second World War, the students were also familiar with the local Jewish culture in the culinary aspect. The entire group of Olympians were invited to one of the largest in Krakow and the most famous Jewish restaurant in Krakow - Ariel restaurants on the Szeroka street. In addition to tasting the traditional Jewish cuisine, a visit to the restaurant was graced by the performances of the traditional Jewish bands, featuring klezmer live music.

Some participants of the Olympiad took part in the coach trip around Poland. On the way Krakow-Czestochowa-Toruń a geodiversity of upland and lowland regions was shown on the example of Polish western part of the Silesian-Cracow Upland, Południowomazowiecka lowland with particular emphasis on brown coal mine in Belchatow and the city of Lodz. The next stage of trip from Torun to Gdansk was full of symbols inscribed on the UNESCO World Cultural Heritage Site. The historic Torun we experienced a plexus of big science - Copernicus Museum and the Astronomical Observatory of Nicolaus Copernicus University in Basements, the history stored in a magnificent Gothic architecture and Toruń gingerbread tradition. Rounding out the historical subject was a visit to the castle of Teutonic Knights in Malbork.

Gdańsk captivated the Olympians by the magnificence of the buildings of the golden period in the history of the city and the amber street – ulica Mariacka. Sopot will be associated as a seaside resort with a pier, beach and summer recreation, and Gdynia as a city of new opportunities. Varied landscapes of the coastal area have been the subject of much debate of young geographers, as well as natural factors and processes that shaped it: young glacial (land, water, glacial accumulation, erosion), coastal sandbars (sea, accumulation, dunes, monadnocks aeolian, ripple marks - as the effect of different kinds of wind activity); coastal cliffs - abrasion. The last stage led tours from Gdansk to Warsaw. In Warsaw the Olympians got to know the history of the city and its attractions within the historic Old Town - Polish another object on the UNESCO World Heritage.

With extremely rich in additional tours and attractions the program of the Olympiad, Olympic rivalry fortunately did not become the only accent that will leave a lasting memory of young geographers from around the world who participated in this unique trip to the Pedagogical University of Cracow and Krakow city.

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