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Research in tourism in the age of crisis

This issue of Poznań University of Economics Review is dedicated to economic and social problems related to tourism. The collected papers under the general title “Research in Tourism in the Age of Crisis” are written by foreign authors, four of them are members of the Tourist Research Centre and also researchers from the Department of Tourism at the Poznań University of Economics. It is worth mentioning that the current issue follows two earlier issues (no. 2 and 3) of the Poznań University of Economics Review 2012 that were devoted to the global financial crisis which changed the perception of the modern world economy including the tourism industry, as well as research in tourism.

Referring to the 40th anniversary of the Department of Tourism David Airey shares his reflections on scientific research and education in tourism paying particular attention to new trends. He believes that in this age of crisis “governments prompted by the massive growth of higher education and by the tightening of public budgets have sought to reduce the funding for universities”.

Grzegorz Gołembski discusses tourism research and education in Poland with a focus on the science and education drivers contributing to the development of tourism. The economic and demographic crisis has particularly stressed errors stemming from the uncritical use of the quantitative approach in tourism research and education.

The economic crisis has highlighted the role of consumer surplus and the macro valuation of tourism projects, which is discussed by Norbert Vanhove. He concentrates on finding an answer to the question: how should non-priced services be valued? The author considers five topics: nature of investment appraisal, externalities in tourism, identification of cost and benefit items, consumer surplus of non-priced tourism resources and social cost versus economic impact analysis.

Consumer surplus is related to investments into tourist projects. The problem of investment is touched upon by Łukasz Nawrot. His paper concentrates on the renewable energy sources (RES) market in the modern economy with particular regard to investment processes. Despite the economic crisis changes in renewable energy markets are so dynamic that just in Poland RES investment levels are estimated to amount to €27 billion by 2020. Naturally, capital transfer and innovation diffusion will be channelled into the tourism industry. However, these processes are not properly recognised which stresses the need for research in that area.

Investment results in a rise in wealth, which is one of the five factors that are considered to be a prerequisite for tourism. The factors (assets, amenities and accessibility on the part of a potential destination and ability and motivation to travel

on the demand side) are discussed by Martin Lohmann and Henrike Beer. They present empirical evidence based on large sample population surveys in Germany which illustrate the strong influence of these five factors. The result of the analysis is a model which is helpful in providing a basic understanding of the tourism system.

Amenities are one of the five factors mentioned above and depend on the tourism enterprises found in a tourist destination. In order to be able to deal successfully with the challenges of increased competition, the tourism enterprises have to take measures to acquire adequate human resources. The role of human resources in creating a competitive advantage of business entities is discussed by Marlena Bednarska, Marcin Olszewski and Dawid Szutowski. The aim of their paper is to create a conceptual model explaining relations between the quality of work life and the competitive potential in the tourism industry.

Human capital is the foundation for building a regional innovation system in which culture plays a crucial role. Therefore, Anna Bialk-Wolf, Harald Pechlaner and Christian Nordhorn believe that culture, creativity and regionalism seem to allow tourism to cope better with the troubles of our times. The aim of their paper is to contribute a better understanding of the ways culture and creativity influence the building of a regional innovation system.

The economic development results in an increase in expectations and demands on the part of customers, who become the so called prosuments. They are more active and interested in new forms of products. The problem is illustrated empirically by Agnieszka Niezgoda, who presents the results of direct interviews with representatives of various company types (tour operators, agents, airlines).

A further issue of Poznań University of Economics Review is published on the occasion of the 40th anniversary of the Department of Tourism in Poznań University of Economics. We do not believe this to be an opportunity to celebrate but we think it is worthwhile writing a couple of words about one of Poland's leading research and didactic centres that deals with economic problems related to tourism.

The Department was created in 1973. Since then it has been well managed and has had a consistent HR policy. For the last 40 years it has been run by only two people: Professor R. Gałęcki (between 1973 and 1999) and since then by the author of these words. Over the years over 1,200 people have completed their master's degrees, 27 of the people who have been supervised by Professors Gałęcki and Gołębski have obtained doctorate degrees in economic sciences, of whom five have become professors of economic sciences (A. Rapacz, K. Rogoziński, G. Gołębski, St. Bosiacki, A. Niezgoda). Currently, the Department has eight full-time members and two full-time doctoral students. The average age of its members is under 37.

Work of the Department's researchers currently concentrates on regional problems, companies and relatively new research issues concerning innovation and RES. The wide range of regional research includes sustained development issues in the context of regional development, methods of isolating tourist destinations, impact

of an urban area on innovativeness, productivity of the tourist sector and an integrated system of quality management in a region. What should also be stressed is the research analysing conditions of cooperation in a tourist region, competitiveness of a region as a result of globalisation processes and the role that the public sector plays in stimulating investment processes in tourist areas. Research at company level is concerned with the methodology of evaluating the quality of services in the hotel industry, risk management and methods of risk control, entrepreneurship in the Polish tourist sector, shaping a global product in a hotel and methods of measuring the effectiveness of tourist companies. Research activity on the part of the Department's members is reflected in the research grants that they have been awarded in recent years. Between 2010 and 2012 the following Polish National Science Centre grants were completed: "Knowledge Management in the Process of Quality-based Competition in the Hotel Industry" (M. Olszewski) and "Conditions of Competition for Tourist Development of a Region" (K. Czernek). A grant was also rewarded by the City Hall of Poznan – "Measuring and Conditions of Tourist Function Development in a City. Case Study – Poznan" by Gołembski *et al.*). Currently, our researchers are working thanks to three grants financed by the Polish National Science Centre on: "Tourist Function in the Internationalisation of Cities" (P. Zmysłony), "Determinants of ability to absorb innovations in the tourism industry in relation to renewable energy" (Ł. Nawrot *et al.*) and "Quality of work life in competitive potential development in the tourism industry" (M. Bednarska *et al.*).

Special attention should be paid to our research and didactic cooperation with foreign scientific centres and our members' participation in renowned international conferences. What must be mentioned is our long-term cooperation in the area of research with the University of Innsbruck (Department of Strategic Management, Marketing and Tourism) since 2005, in which virtually all our researchers have taken part. Between 2005 and 2009 two projects were carried out: "Entrepreneurship in Tourism. A Comparative Study of Austria and Poland" and "Destination Rejuvenation Strategies – Policies and Measures". Student exchange programmes for one semester are run jointly with the Catholic University of Eichstätt-Ingolstadt in Bavaria. Research into health resorts is conducted with the Széchenyi István University in Győr, Hungary. Joint research, discussions about various methodologies and workshops during which research results can be presented enable our members to gain experience in international contact. This is reflected in their participation in international organisations and their ability to present the results of their work during numerous international conferences. The Chair of the Department has participated in the International Association of Scientific Experts in Tourism Congresses (Cha Am – Thailand, Hangzhou – China, Marrakesh, Athens, Macao). He is a Tourist Research Centre member and has participated in meetings in Bruges, Tours, Bolzano, Kiel, Poznan, Vienna, Bodrum, Bern and Athens. Justyna Majewska is also a member of the elite TRC (which has only 30 members from the so-called

“old” European Union). Many of our researchers attend important international conferences (Calcutta – Ł. Nawrot, Brunico, Bournemouth, Sankt Petersburg - P. Zmysłony, Rijeka – A. Niezgoda) and participate in fellowships or scientific programmes in renowned scientific centres.

In recent years the Department has initiated and held important national and international scientific events. This resulted in the concept of organising meetings for researchers and practitioners in the tourist industry under the name of the Tourist Expert Committee. Our Department hosted the first Committee in 2003, which was called “Directions of Scientific Research Development in the Area of Tourism in the Context of Poland’s Membership in the EU”, the third Committee in 2006, which was titled “Tourism in the Subjective and Spatial Approach – Human-Space-Enterprise”, and the fourth Committee in 2008 – “Tourism as a Factor Determining a Growth in the Competitiveness of Regions in the Era of Globalisation”. We have also started Poland’s Conferences of Tourism Institutes and Departments in state run universities. In 2014 we are organising the fourth conference titled “Challenges in Tourism in the Contemporary World”, which will give researchers from the best universities in Poland an opportunity to integrate. The Department also had the honour of organising the 44th TRC meeting in Poznan in 2009, which was a European forum of scientific thought exchange.

The Department of Tourism in the Poznan University of Economics is Poland’s leading didactic centre which inspires new forms of teaching and fields of study. The university’s graduates boast excellent theoretical knowledge and practical skills that they can use in the labour market. As early as 1992 the Department started a two-cycle study programme with three-year Bachelor’s degree courses in the Hotel Industry School (Wyższa Szkoła Hotelarska) and two-year Master’s degree courses. Such a system was introduced in Polish education only 15 years later.

In 2011 a two-cycle field of study called Tourism Industry was introduced and supervised by the Department, which was new in Poland. It is still the only field of study to be taken up for a Master’s degree course. Setting up this field of study resulted from the need to ensure the best possible conditions in which a wide and deep knowledge of the tourism economy could be promoted. It combines macroeconomic and global dimensions with the knowledge of microeconomics and management. Now the field of study is taken up by over 250 people and despite the demographic crisis every year several candidates apply for each place. The field of study was deemed worthy of being subsidised from the European Social Fund Called “Human Resources for the Economy”. The project has set up the following study “Creating and Implementing the Field of Study Called Tourism Economy”. As a result the Department received funds to promote the new field of study, develop an electronic centre for supporting tourist education, purchase books and journals, conduct a students’ scholarly association and – what is worth stressing – organise lectures by researchers dealing with economic and social aspects of tourism. Since

2011 lectures have been given by Professor Norbert Vanhove, Catholic University of Leuven, Professor Peter Keller, the chair of AIEST at the University of Lausanne, Professor Harald Pechlaner from the European Academy of Bozen and Professor David Airey from the University of Surrey.

As for teaching, the Department pays particular attention to students having hands-on experience of the economy. Outstanding practitioners regularly conduct classes in English according to the relevant curricula. This is illustrated by our long-term cooperation with Owen Easteal, manager of hotels in Germany (lectures in Tourism Management, Personal Policy in Tourism). Classes have been run by directors of the Sheraton Hotels in Poznan and Sopot, the co-owner of the IBB hotel chain and the director of the Accor board (lectures in Hospitality Industry Management, Business of Tourism).

Intensive scientific research activities are conducted by the Student Centre for Research in Tourism, "Explorers". Recently (in 2012 and 2013) the Centre has implemented four research projects, including information and communication technologies and their use in tourist information or visitor centres. The students have written four papers later published by the Poznan and Wroclaw Universities of Economics publishing houses and organised five seminars attended by tourism economy practitioners and experts. They have presented the results of their research during three national conferences. We predict that our students will soon go international with their research activities.

The Department of Tourism's mission is to closely cooperate with economic practitioners at home and especially in Polish regions. This is manifested through the Department creating a tourist development strategy. We have participated in preparing guidelines for the inclusion of tourism in the National Development Plan for the years 2007-2013 (at the national level). We have developed a sustained tourism development programme for the Wielkopolski National Park and local activity groups in the Voivodeship of Lubuskie. We have co-authored a tourism development strategy for Poznan until 2030. We cooperate closely with practitioners during forums of the Poznan Local Tourist Organisation [Poznan local DMO] and Wielkopolska Tourist Organisation [Regional DMO – the Department is a member of the organisation]. Numerous initiatives undertaken by the Department include the realisation and implementation of the Poznan Tourist Barometer, the co-creation of the concept of an integrated tourism management system in Poznan, the research into the effectiveness of the "Half Price Poznan" project and into the MICE market network. The Department also offers consultancy in respect of methods of examining tourist demand. As part of promoting business practice the Department organises scientific seminars during Poland's biggest tourism fair – Tour Salon in Poznan. In the recent years the Department has organised over 10 such meetings called "Discussion Forums" devoted to, amongst other things, integrated tourism management in regions, the possibilities of using tourism as a stimulant to the de-

velopment of countries and regions, conditions of foreign inbound tourism development in Poland, and many other issues.

The importance of this cooperation for business practice can be illustrated by distinctions that the Department has received over the last years:

The Honorary Award for achievements in tourism awarded by the Ministry of Economy in 2003,

The Honorary Award for contributions to the advancement of the Voivodeship of Wielkopolskie awarded by the Board of the Voivodeship of Wielkoposka in 2008.

A Certificate of Appreciation for the idea and co-organisation of the four Tourism Expert Committees awarded by the Council of the Polish Chamber of Tourism in 2008.

We hope you will enjoy reading this issue. We would like to thank all our reviewers for their efforts to raise its quality and our authors for participating in the project, which is so crucial during the Department's anniversary.

Grzegorz Golembiński and Łukasz Nawrot
Editors of the volume

David AIREY*

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Forty years of tourism education and research

Abstract: After 40 years of growth, tourism education can be found in the higher education repertoire of countries across with world. Indications of its progress can be seen in the development of popular courses that attract large numbers of students as well as in a range of research outputs in some good academic journals. However, progress in the past few years, especially since the 2008 economic crisis, has been less certain. Notably the context of higher education has changed and this has brought some problems for tourism. Increasingly it needs to justify its position in the academy, especially in terms of student recruitment, student quality, research outputs and income, and societal impacts. For many centres of tourism study this represents a challenge. This is creating uncertainty for the future.

Keywords: tourism education, tourism research, growth, funding, league tables, reputation.
JEL codes: I20.

Introduction

The dates of the Department of Tourism of the Poznan University of Economics almost coincide exactly with those for the study of tourism itself. Although there are a few examples of tourism studies as early as the 1920s [Medlik 1965] it was not really until the 1970s that tourism began to be identified as a distinct area for scholarship, research and teaching [Airey 2005]. Since then, notwithstanding some formidable changes in the world, tourism itself, and more so tourism as a field of study has, until recently, shown almost continuous growth and development. In part this has been spurred on by the sheer growth of higher education. The aim of this article is to explore and comment on the development and the current challenges facing tourism studies. It seeks to do this by taking three distinct themes that have been dealt with in the literature relating to tourism education taking us to the cur-

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rent position where, in the context of the world in crisis, tourism is facing its own crises and likely period of change. The paper draws mainly on published sources and takes many of its examples from the United Kingdom (UK) and Western experience. Nevertheless the issues have a resonance world-wide.

1. A background of growth and development

Tourism as a subject for study and research developed against the background of the growth of tourism itself and against the background of the growth of higher education. According to the UN World Tourism Organization [UNWTO 2006, 2011] international tourism arrivals grew about five fold between 1970 and 2010, from 165.8 million to 940 million. Over a similar period, in the UK alone, student enrolments in higher education increased at a similar rate from about 600,000 [Office for National Statistics 2002] to 2.4 million [Higher Education Statistics Agency 2011]. These changes provided a context within which universities, especially the newly created ones, identified tourism as an area for development. Tourism was seen as an attractive addition to the university repertoire [Airey 1995] partly because it was allied with what was identified as a growth sector of the economy, partly because it fitted with many of the universities' orientation toward providing programmes which offered links with graduate employment [Ayikouru, Tribe & Airey 2009] and partly because it was seen as a useful vehicle to attract students. The result was a massive expansion in tourism course enrolments in most of the developed world. For example in the UK, enrolments into degree level programmes grew from about 20 in 1972 [Airey 2005] to 9,000 in 2011 [Walmsley 2012]. But growth in student numbers was not the only change.

At the same time the tourism literature has expanded, tourism related research has been established and tourism academic journals appear to have flourished. Taking the example of academic journals as an indicator, in 1970 there were just two journals concerned with tourism published in English. By 2006 Morrison [2006] reported that this had risen to more than 40 and there have been many more added since then. Similarly PhD completions in the UK related to tourism increased more than 8-fold between 1990 and 2002 [Botterill & Gale 2005].

Tourism scholarship is now also replete with organisations and networks to support it. In the UK for example there is an *Association for Tourism in Higher Education*, as well as a *Tourism Society* for professionals in the field. And this names just two. Internationally there are bodies such as *ATLAS*, *The Travel and Tourism Research Association (TTRA)*, *The International Association for Experts in Scientific Tourism (Aiest)*, the *International Academy for the Study of Tourism (IAST)* as well as the *UN World Tourism Organization* with its *Knowledge Network*. And of course along

with these go the various agencies that scrutinise the quality and nature of the education provision. In the UK we have the *Quality Assurance Agency (QAA)* which produced a separate report [Quality Assurance Agency 2001] on the provision for hospitality, leisure, sport and tourism programmes in higher education. The *UNWTO* through its *TEDQUAL* mechanism carries out a similar function internationally.

In brief tourism has become an established part of the academic repertoire.

2. Coming of age

The growth and development has prompted a number of authors [Airey 2008a; Council for National Academic Awards 1993; Jafari 2001] to question whether tourism has now “come of age” or reached “maturity” as a part of higher education. Writing five years ago Airey [2008b] gave a few pointers to maturity but at the same time he illustrated some of the areas where tourism had not yet reached the same level as other social sciences. As far as the curriculum is concerned he suggested that a level of maturity had been reached. After its beginnings with a very narrow vocational focus on business and economic issues, and after a fragmented stage in which there was limited agreement, the tourism community has now reached general agreement about the curriculum to include a broad range of issues prompted by tourism movements. Perhaps more important than this is the extent to which rather than being concerned with justifying or questioning its existence tourism scholars are now engaged in wider debates more akin to the social sciences generally. He includes among these: taking a more self-critical view of its work in research and knowledge creation as evidenced in the work of Tribe [Tribe 2006b, 2005]; as well as its engagement with the so-called “cultural turn” [Ateljevic, Pritchard & Morgan 2007] in which tourism takes both a more cultural and critical view of itself. As Airey [2008b, p. 31] puts it:

The importance here is that this represents another important step for tourism as a field of study becoming self-critical and alert to broader issues about itself that extend far beyond the basic curriculum debates of the 1990s. Again, it is a pointer to tourism reaching a point of maturity.

Against this, he also points to two areas where tourism can still be considered to be immature. Here he [Airey 2008b, p. 31] suggests that:

there is as yet no coherent theoretical framework for tourism as a subject of study; rather its boundaries are still defined by tourism as a field of practice. Knowledge about tourism still draws heavily from other disciplines and consequently remains multidisciplinary with examples of interdiscipli-

nary knowledge creation from within tourism being few and far between [Airey 2002, p. 16].

Further, he compares tourism to the more established disciplines in the physical sciences and engineering and with other social sciences, where, for example, sociologists, psychologists and economists have generally close engagement with their worlds of practice in the exchange of knowledge. Here, echoing the work of Cooper [2006, p. 47] he suggests that tourism has been slow in adopting this so-called “knowledge management,” partly because of the gap between researchers and the tourism sector, and also what he calls a “hostile knowledge adoption environment”. In other words, while the study of tourism might have established itself within the academic community it is not yet having the kind of influence on the wider world that is seen in other fields of study.

3. The research challenge

As noted earlier the growth of tourism programmes in the academy has been accompanied by the growth of research. The huge increase in research journals devoted to tourism bears ample witness to this. However, in understanding the development of tourism, far more important than the sheer volume of growth is the changing nature of the research, in its scope, its approaches and its methods. Based on the work of Tribe and Airey [2007], apart from research taking place connected with other fields of study, the first tourism research had four characteristics: it drew heavily on what Tribe refers to as *extradisciplinary* knowledge [1997] from industry, government, think tanks etc.; it had a strong orientation toward the needs of business and drew heavily upon economics [Jafari & Aaser 1988]; it primarily took a positivist stance with mainly quantitative methods; and outside the field of business and economics the research was as described by Tribe [1997, pp. 653–654] as “bits of atomized knowledge [emanating] from the disciplines themselves”. Since those early days research for tourism has changed almost beyond recognition described in the words of Tribe and Airey [2007, p. 5]:

“Many of the gaps in knowledge have been completed and the methodological approaches and research techniques have extended”.

No longer is tourism research caught solely in the positivist tradition and the hegemony of economics has given way to a much more “eclectic multi-disciplinarity” [Tribe & Airey 2007, p. 6]. As Tribe [2006a, p. 2] has described it:

“[tourism now] has the characteristics of a fledgling post-modern field of research (...) [with] more reflexivity (...) [and] (...) innovative and radical lines of enquiry”.

Tourism research now regularly draws upon a wide range of disciplines, it is as likely to take an interpretivist or critical stance as it is to take a positivist one and qualitative methods are just as likely to be found as quantitative. For example, in their study of UK PhD dissertations Botterill, Gale and Haven [2003, p. 288] report that “quantitative (...) and qualitative (...) methods were reported in roughly equal proportions”.

In many ways this is another part of the growing maturity of tourism in the academy in that the range, approaches and scope of research in tourism can stand alongside other social sciences although the question as to the links between this and their wider world still harbours some rooms for doubt.

4. The current crisis

The World Economic Crisis, starting in about 2008 coincided with the 40th anniversary of the real start of the expansion of higher education in general and with the start of the first tourism programmes. Indeed it came just at a point when tourism was beginning to feel itself established in the academy, with some top ranked journals, some well-regarded tourism programmes that were demonstrating innovative curricular developments, popular with students, and with good employment track records.

The effects of the crisis, combined with the previous substantial growth in higher education, have been explored by Airey, Tribe, Benckendorff and Xiao (forthcoming). They are grouped here under four headings. First, governments around the world, prompted by the massive growth of higher education and by the tightening of public budgets, have sought to reduce the funding for universities from the taxpayer and increasingly have passed the costs on to the students and their parents. In other words students have been increasingly obliged to pay fees for attending higher education. Secondly, the provision offered by universities is increasingly subject to internal and external scrutiny. This has in part been driven by a need to establish whether higher education is providing value and quality for money. Such scrutiny has taken the form of national surveys of student satisfaction, assessments of research quality, as well as the establishment of agencies designed to inspect and sometimes to accredit institutions and programmes. Linked to the outcomes of such scrutiny the third effect has been the creation of league tables of performance for universities, departments and subjects. These operate at both national and in-

ternational levels with institutions fighting to improve their league table positions. This all forms a part of the final change which relates to the growth in competition between universities and between subjects. At a time when students now pay their own fees, and these form the major source of income, all universities and subjects are competing with each other to attract student numbers. In brief, if universities and subjects cannot attract sufficient students they will cease to exist.

These changes have put enormous pressures on institutions and subjects. Ultimately if universities are not offering programmes or areas of scholarship and research that attract money, mainly from students, and that enhance their reputation then the programmes are unlikely to have a long term future. Within this tourism as a relatively new area of study is facing particular challenges and against this background a number of tourism programmes have already been closed.

Taking the two themes of money and reputation, the recent study by Airey et al (forthcoming) reports how all subjects are being judged against a number of measurable criteria. In relation to students, the criteria they identify are numbers of students, their quality and their satisfaction; in relation to research they are the quality of research outputs, notably in top ranked journals and research income; and in relation to impact they include student employment and the broader impact of the work of the university on its world.

On the positive side, Airey et al (forthcoming) show how tourism programmes have generally been successful in attracting students, hence bringing in the money, and the students are generally satisfied with their experiences of tourism programmes. The tourism academy has also achieved success in its research outputs in some top ranked journals, and in terms of impact, employment of students after graduation from tourism programmes have generally been satisfactory. All of these are, in their different ways, measures of success of tourism after 40 years of development.

Airey et al (forthcoming) however, point to some crucial areas of weakness. Notably they identify that the quality of the students on entry to programmes is generally weaker than for most other subjects. Taking the experience of the UK in which grades in pre-university qualifications are awarded points, the average points for undergraduate entry in 2012 for medicine was 516.8. Similar scores for business studies was 312.6. The entry points for tourism was 258.8 [Independent 2012]. For research, the success of tourism in securing significant funding is very limited. Again, using the study by Airey et al (forthcoming), based on the experience of the UK, out of 5,332 awards made by the Research Council [Economic 2012] between 2000 and 2011, only 29 or 0.5% related to tourism. Finally for impact, as noted above, the extent to which tourism scholarship has identifiable impacts on the world of tourism practice is remarkably limited.

In addition to these weaknesses, Airey et al (forthcoming) reveal that tourism in general in the academy has a further problem in that, while there are some excel-

lent centres of scholarship and excellent scholars in the field there is also a long tail of performance that simply does not meet the needs of the twin themes of money and reputation. To take one example of this, the point has already been made that there are now some excellent academic journals in tourism. However, Airey et al (forthcoming) show how out of 24 tourism journals the Association of Business Schools [2010] in the UK ranks only two of these in their top category. But in the same ranking it shows ten tourism journals or 42% falling in the lowest category. This long tail of weaker journals compares with psychology which has only 5% of its journals in the lowest category. This long tail represents a real challenge for the future of tourism in the academy. If the subject is to prosper it cannot afford to have this level of underperformance.

5. Responding to the challenge

The initial question now is how should the tourism academy respond to these challenges? In many ways the answer to this is obvious: it should ensure that it contributes to the finance and reputation of its institutions. Where it can achieve this its future will be secure. But the further question is whether it is able to do this? Here the answer is much less clear. As far as the core (and money earning) activity of teaching is concerned, tourism programmes generally perform well, as measured by student satisfaction (Airey et al. forthcoming). Indeed they point to some of the recent initiatives such as the international Tourism Education Futures Initiative (TEFI) [Prebezac 2012] or the work of the BEST Education Network that demonstrate that tourism educators are both inventive and ambitious in their goals for learning and teaching in ways that are well reflected both in the curriculum and in the pedagogy. Ambitious field trips, placements and class exercises regularly form a part of the learning experiences of tourism students in ways that ensure that the tourism programmes compare favourably with other subjects offered by the academy. In a similar way some of the research outputs achieved by tourism scholars reach high levels in terms of adding to an institution's reputation, and the employment track record of tourism students is generally strong.

However, as already noted, these strengths are counter-balanced by some crucial weaknesses in, for example, the quality of student enrolments, in the attraction of research income and in the general influence of the work of the tourism academy on the world of tourism practice. These general weaknesses, coupled with an apparently long list of institutions where the performance of the tourism departments is relatively weak, suggest that the tourism academy is in for some significant changes. These can be characterised as closures and successes. The closures, which have already started, will simply be that institutions will decide that their tourism provi-

sion is not bringing in sufficient income or reputation or both to justify its continuance. The successes will be those tourism departments that manage to build on their excellent teaching, research outputs, student employment and student recruitment and to strengthen their ability to attract research funding and to extend their influence such that in terms of both reputation and influence they secure their position in the academy. These are the stark realities for this next stage in the development of the tourism academy.

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Tourism research and education in Poland. History and contemporary issues

Abstract: The article identifies socio-economic changes in Poland after 1989 and their influence on the improvement of macroeconomic indicators and competitiveness. It also evaluates the impact of macroeconomic effects on the tourism market in Poland. Against this background the author considers the relationship between scientific research and tourism education arguing that quantitative changes in the development of tourism higher education have not resulted in the increase in both quantity and quality of research in the field. The article identifies drivers of tourism research that have expanded knowledge and were of practical use. The issues discussed include statistical capture and analysis of tourism-related phenomena, regional studies on sustainable development and the tourism function of regions as well as microeconomic problems such as quality of services, innovativeness and entrepreneurship. Examples are given of the use of research findings in didactic processes. Finally the article presents a review of research collaboration and student exchange programmes.

Keywords: transformation processes, scientific research, education, science and education drivers.

JEL codes: A2, A3, R1, R5, A23, A30.

Introduction

In 1989 Poland was the initiator and the driving force of rapid political and economic change in Central Europe which led to a transformation of former Warsaw Pact countries into democratic states and market economies. In the political sense the changes in Poland began in 1980 with the emergence of the “Solidarity” movement, the first free and independent trade union in the eastern bloc which in the period between 1980 and 1981 had over 10 million members. The imposition of martial law by the communist authorities on 13 December 1981 provided a temporary setback to democratization processes in Poland, but the demise of totalitarian

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regimes in Europe became only a matter of time. The final stage on the way towards democratic changes in Poland began in early 1989 with the round-table negotiations between the democratic opposition and the Polish communist government, culminating in partially free parliamentary elections held on 4 June 1989 (one-third of the seats in the parliament were still guaranteed to the communist party). The first non-communist government in post-war Poland, led by Tadeusz Mazowiecki, was constituted soon after the elections. The Polish people finally began to have real influence on the country's political and economic decisions. It has to be strongly emphasized that the events in Poland set in motion the whole process of democratic change in Central and Eastern Europe. The fall of the Berlin Wall in November 1989, by some regarded as the beginning of the democratic revolution in this part of Europe, came more than six months after the round table negotiations in Poland.

With democratically elected MP's having a clear majority in the parliament, the new government in a very short time managed to pass through fundamental political and economic reforms (such as local government reform), replacing the centrally controlled system with a free market economy. The core of the economic transition was the so-called "Balcerowicz Plan" which contained a revolutionary packet of reforms having no precedence in the world. In a first-of-its-kind economic experiment a socialist economy was transformed into a capitalist economy in a very short time through the democratic process. In the first step of the reform prices were freed from state control, causing an initial "price shock", and wages were practically frozen by the imposition of high tax on excessive pay increases. At the same time a legal framework for accelerated privatization was put in place. Those actions soon enabled a full convertibility of the Polish currency.

The effect was almost instant. A free market for goods and services and steep price rises motivated producers to increase production and liberated the entrepreneurial spirit hitherto suppressed by the centrally planned economy. In the first two years of economic transformation as many as 600,000 new private enterprises were established and soon the private sector – small and medium-sized enterprises in particular – became the main source of economic growth [www.exporter.pl/forum]. Inflation quickly decelerated from a hyper rate of 585% in 1989, to 70.3% a year later, 14.5% in 1997, and a mere 0.8% in 2003 [www.stat.gov.pl/gus]. The liberated competition dealt a severe blow to large, inefficient state-owned enterprises and obsolescent industries hitherto held above water by protectionist policies of the state. A wave of bankruptcies followed, leading to large structural unemployment. In 1990, the first year of transformation, when inefficient state enterprises (particularly in the agricultural sector) still existed, unemployment rate was 6.5%. In 2002 the rate of unemployment rose to 18% causing serious social problems. In the following years, owing to increased foreign direct investments [Oniszczyk 2009], accelerated expansion of domestic capital, and large scale infrastructure projects co-financed from European funds, the rate of unemployment gradually declined to

a level of 11.8% in 2011. The successes of the economic reform in Poland restored foreign creditors' confidence in the Polish economy allowing a significant reduction of Poland's foreign debt. In 1990 this public debt amounted to 48.5 billion US dollars. It was reduced by creditors to USD 42.2 billion in 1994, and USD 31.3 billion in 1999 [Government Centre for Strategic Studies 2002].

As a result of fast-track privatisation, foreign direct investments and improved macroeconomic indicators, competitiveness of the Polish economy improved very quickly. Poland enjoyed a long period of steady GDP growth, both total and per capita, reflected in continuously accelerating domestic demand. Measured by purchasing power parity, Poland's GDP per capita growth of 216% in ten years from 1992 to 2002 (from USD 4,994 to USD 10,800) was among the highest in the world [www.polskinetwork.org]. In 2009 Poland's GDP per capita stood at USD 18,072 [MFW 2010], which was 61% of the EU average [Eurostat 2010].

Transformation processes and their macroeconomic effects had a great impact on the tourism market in Poland, both in terms of demand and supply. One of the immediate benefits of Poland joining the family of democratic countries was a visa waiver for Polish citizens in almost all territories of the European continent. Following accession to the European Union in 2004, Poland was also accepted into the borderless Schengen Area. In a short time the number of foreign visitors to Poland rose dramatically. In 1992 there were 66 million registered arrivals of foreign visitors to Poland, of which 15 million were tourists (those staying overnight for at least one night). After a visa requirement for citizens of Poland's eastern neighbours was instituted and when price differentials between Poland and West European countries narrowed, visitor numbers declined to some extent. In 2010 the number of registered arrivals amounted to 58.3 million, including 12.5 million tourists [www.intur.com]. Nevertheless, income from inbound tourism has been growing quite substantially in recent years owing not so much to increased visitor numbers but to a substantially higher expenditure per tourist. In 2002 total visitor expenditure in Poland amounted to USD 1.85 billion (USD 132 per capita), while in 2010 tourists left behind USD 4.87 billion, with per capita expenditure rising to USD 390 (www.msport.gov.pl). This is also a reflection of a better adjustment of tourist supply to the needs of demand.

Tourist supply in Poland relies just as heavily on domestic travel. Though the number of both short (1–4 days) and long (over 4 days) travel has declined somewhat in recent years, it is still maintained at a high level: in 2005 there were 21.2 million short domestic trips and 14.7 million long domestic trips, whilst in 2010 these figures were 20.2 million and 13.7 million respectively. In 2010 total expenditure attributed to domestic tourism was estimated at 6.3 billion US dollars [www.intur.com.pl].

The last decade also saw a dynamic growth in air travel to and from Poland, with only a short break in the trend in 2009. In just three years following Poland's acces-

sion to the EU, the number of departures from Polish airports rose from 8.8 million in 2004 to 19.1 million in 2007, i.e. by 116.7%. After a momentary decline in the crisis year of 2009, the growth resumed in 2010, with departures reaching 20.5 million passengers [www.ulc.gov.pl]. The Polish people began to travel abroad much more frequently than before taking advantage of open borders, lower travel costs relative to income, and growing personal wealth. The number of outbound trips reached 8.4 million in 2002, declining briefly to 6.3 million in 2009, with further growth in 2010 to reach 7.1 million. The expenditure of Polish tourists abroad is also rising and is now estimated at USD 850 per tourist. Hence, it follows that last year Polish tourists spent over six billion US dollars abroad.

The transformation of the Polish economy had a great impact on the supply of tourism services. The whole mentality of tourism supply had to change from social to market-oriented. The former was symbolised by holiday facilities operated by state enterprises which offered heavily subsidised vacations for their employees. In the 1970's the number of places offered in such establishments approached 600,000. The economic reform exposed gross inefficiencies in the functioning of such facilities. Forced to raise prices for their services, and faced with severe competition from less expensive and often more attractive offerings available in the market (agritourism farms, private boarding houses), many operators of state holiday facilities had to sell them off or declare bankruptcy. In the year 2000, ten years after the economic reforms began, the number of places available in state-run holiday facilities fell to 195,000 in 2,079 establishments. By 2009 this number declined further to stand at 130,000 places in 1,199 facilities [www.intur.com.pl]. The ones that survived had done so only by adjusting their operations to the market economy.

The emblematic industry of market-oriented changes in Poland's tourism is the hospitality sector. Over the last two decades the hotel industry in Poland has enjoyed unprecedented growth. In the period from 1991 to 2009 the number of hotels (and beds) grew by an average 8.5% per annum. The number of hotels increased from 515 facilities in 1991 to 1,796 in 2010, and beds from 50,000 in 1991 to over 180,000 in 2010 [www.intur.com.pl].

This investment boom was due to both Polish investors and international hotel chains. Currently there are as many as 19 international chains operating in Poland, including such brands as Accor, Hilton, Sheraton Radisson SAS, and many more [Markiewicz 2008]. Their presence in Poland has forced radical changes in hotel management (such as the introduction of control and supervisory systems, standardisation of services, outsourcing, etc.), resulting in increased efficiency and competitiveness of hotel services.

The transformation of the Polish economy also led to profound changes in the travel agency sector. The dynamic growth in tourist numbers and tourist expenditure sparked a boom in travel agencies, but in the early years of economic reform the growth was mainly quantitative. In the beginning of the twenty-first century

there were more than 3,500 travel agents in Poland, of which 90% could be classed as micro-enterprises. The industry's fragmentation made it relatively easy for large international tour operators, such as TUI, Neckermann, Scan Holiday and others, to enter the Polish market. Some of the small agencies did not survive competition and were shut down. In 2009 the number of registered travel agents fell to 2,957 [www.turystyka.crz.mg.gov.pl]. But at the same time a number of domestic travel agencies, such as Triada, Ecco Holiday, or Rainbow Tours, managed to successfully compete with the international giants. A characteristic feature of Polish travel agencies, which makes them less efficient than their foreign counterparts, is versatility, with most agents trying to combine the function of travel agency with the function of tour operator. The Polish market, however, has very interesting prospects as it about to undergo deep structural changes in response to a falling demand for traditional holidays in favour of active tourism.

An important effect of the political and economic transformation in Poland is the decentralisation of power. Regional and local governments at all levels (province, county, municipality, and city) have gained significant powers and competences to govern and represent their regions. Tourism is often perceived as a driving force of regional development. Owing to information technology advances, inter-regional competition for tourists and investors is now played out in the global arena. Local governments' motivation to develop tourism in their areas has been strengthened by the availability of European structural funds for financing regional investments as part of the social and economic cohesion policy. Poland is a beneficiary of EU programmes, expecting to receive 60 billion euros in the period 2007–2013. The money is allocated mainly to environmental projects, construction of roads and motorways, cultural development and promotion initiatives, provision of recreational infrastructures, regional promotion, personnel training and other projects and initiatives intended to make a region more attractive to investors, local communities and tourists alike [Butowski 2009]. Policy makers in Poland now understand that to be successful in the competitive struggle regions must have a clear vision for the future, set in development strategies. This vision is put into practice through the creation of new, attractive offers (products) in cooperation with all stakeholders and service providers.

1. The relationship between scientific research and tourism education

The framework for the relationship between tourism research and education is defined by the requirements specified for higher education in tourism and recreation, and the organisational structure of higher education in Poland implemented in the nineteen-nineties.

In Poland until recently tourism education at the higher level could only be provided within the “Tourism and Recreation” degree programme. Higher education institutions wishing to provide tourism education outside this degree programme could only create specialisations within other majors such as, for example, International Economic Relations. The “Tourism and Recreation” degree programme emphasises the social role of tourism. This is reflected in the educational profile of a graduate: the holder of degree in “Tourism and Recreation” should possess humanistic knowledge which allows a person to appreciate human needs and understand social processes reflected in tourism and recreation, and should equally have knowledge of natural sciences all of which provide the basis for understanding the system of interrelations between man and the environment. The Tourism and Recreation programme has strong ties with sports and physical education, placing great emphasis on fitness, human physical performance, and the paradigm of health in contemporary physical recreation. Economic and geographic issues are less prominent in the syllabus both in terms of the availability of courses and the the number of hours. This limits the possibility of incorporating multidisciplinary scientific research in economy, geography and spatial planning into the didactic process. The precursors and main beneficiaries of this teaching programme in Poland were Academies of Physical Education (now: University Schools of Physical Education). The greatest contributor to the development of the didactic process in this degree programme was Krakow’s University School of Physical Education. Academics at this institution published a series of works on the prospects of leisure education in Poland, developed a professional profile of the tourism and recreation graduate and integrated tourism research with the didactic process [Winiarski 1993, 2001; Alejziak & Winiarski 2003].

From the 2011/2012 academic year, higher education institutions in Poland can offer a new degree programme under the heading Tourism Economy, leading to the degree of *licencjat* (equivalent to a bachelor’s degree) or *magister* (equivalent of master’s degree). So far the programme is offered at the University of Economics in Poznań (both *bachelor* and *master* degrees), and the University of Economics in Katowice (*bachelor* only). The educational profile describes the graduate as a person possessing advanced knowledge in the theory and practice of the tourism economy and skills in the management of tourist enterprises. The graduate should also have the ability to make profound analyses of processes influencing tourism economy in both micro and macro-scale and be well versed in the issues of marketing, finance, international economic relations and relevant law. Additionally, it is essential for the graduate to possess knowledge about the way in which the European Union and its markets function.

The relationship between scientific research and tourism and recreation teaching reflects also the current organisation of higher education in Poland. Almost all research in this field is conducted either by the Institute of Tourism or state aca-

ademic centres of long-standing reputation in tourism research and teaching. All these academic centres had conducted tourism research long before the political and economic transformation in Poland began. Their studies focused on economic, geographic, social, and sociological issues. Amongst the most prominent academic centres conducting tourism research are such universities as the Warsaw School of Economics (WSE) with its Department of Tourism established in 1959, and the Universities of Economics in Poznań (Department of Tourism since 1973), Wrocław, Katowice and Krakow. Tourism geography is studied at such renowned academic centres as Warsaw University, University of Łódź, and the Jagiellonian University in Krakow. Social and sociological issues are researched mainly at University Schools of Physical Education (commonly known as AWFs) in Krakow (Department of Tourism and Recreation since 1976), and in Poznań. All universities use results of academic research in the didactic process.

A consequence of the socio-economic transformation was the reform of the higher education system in Poland. Among its main objectives the reform specified the accelerated education of society and the achievement of a greater percentage of citizens with an academic degree. The reform enabled the establishment of private higher education institutions and State Vocational Higher Education Schools (with the overwhelming majority of such schools offering first-cycle undergraduate courses leading to a bachelor's degree). The reform also officially established the Tourism and Recreation degree programme which posed no problems in terms of staff or syllabus when it started.

With the dynamic development of tourism in the 1990's came a greater demand for qualified staff in the tourism sector. Tourism and Recreation became a fashionable academic subject. Many private higher education institutions, State Vocational Higher Education Schools and some strong academic centres which hitherto had not conducted tourism research or taught tourism, began offering Tourism and Recreation degree courses as it was not overly complicated to organise and provide such programmes. Unfortunately, greater quantity meant lower quality teaching and poorer academic standards. The reasons were as follows:

- Very serious staff shortages. In most newly opened higher education institutions the staff consisted of persons for whom it was a second job or whose career had little to do with tourism (e.g. geographers, transport specialists, or natural science specialists).
- In newly established degree programmes, particularly those provided by private higher education institutions, scientific research was and still is marginal, or its quality leaves a lot to be desired. Performance of the staff is assessed mainly with respect to the fulfilment of teaching contractual obligations.

With an inadequate supply of qualified specialists the negative trend is continuing. The shortage of teachers and researchers of high academic stature and with expert knowledge in tourism has clear consequences in teaching curricula. Syllabuses,

though meeting minimum programme criteria, often reflect the personal interests of teachers and may be biased towards geography, natural sciences, or sociological aspects.

Admittedly, some interesting studies have been undertaken and attempts made to improve the educational process and adapt it to the dynamic changes in the political, economic, social and technological environments. However, our argument is that despite colossal quantitative expansion of tourism higher education in Poland, a vast majority of research is still conducted at the “old”, renowned universities with generations of experience in tourism research, or by people who have originated from these centres. The same can be said about the educational offer.

2. Science and education drivers contributing to the development of tourism and recreation

A vast amount of research has been conducted to build up knowledge which has found many practical applications in travel and tourism. The research areas that could be described as drivers of science and education were often inspired by necessity of the moment. Selection of examples for the purpose of this article is, however, subjective and may reflect personal preferences of the author.

The most prominent research has been conducted in the areas of macro economy, regional studies, and the tourism market with special focus on the supply side.

Macroeconomic research

From the very beginning of the economic transformation in Poland a key issue was to develop a method of statistical registration of tourism phenomena at national, regional and company levels. A pioneering research on measuring tourism flows was conducted at the University of Łódź [Liszewski 1991; Matczak 1992]. The biggest contributions to studies on statistical measurement of tourism come from the Institute of Tourism in Warsaw and the Warsaw School of Economics. These scientific centres undertake regular studies of foreign visitor expenditure [Skalska 2008], measurement of the economic effects of tourism [Dziedzic 2005, 2008], and tourism market development (hotel industry, travel agencies, air travel). The studies are conducted mainly by research groups under the management of K. Łopaciński [Byszewska-Korbel, Dziedzic & Łopaciński 2004; Dziedzic et al. 2004; Dziedzic & Łopaciński 2004]. A very interesting synthesis of theoretical background and methods employed in the measuring of tourism activity is provided in the studies made by Krakow's University School of Physical Education [Alejziak 2008, 2009,

2010]. Statistical studies of tourism are complemented with diagnoses of economic cycles. This is a speciality of the University School of Physical Education in Poznań [Bosiacki & Konys 2001; Bosiacki & Guzik 2009].

A compilation of tourism and tourism-related statistical data is provided in the form of tourism satellite accounts (TSA), produced at both national and regional level. The issues of satellite accounts have been studied since the year 1998 by Warsaw research centres: WSE and the Institute of Tourism. Specifically, worthy of attention are methodological studies by E. Dziedzic [Dziedzic 2003, and later]. A national TSA for the year 2006 was compiled by the Institute of Tourism [Skalska et al. 2009]. Works on regional TSA's are currently in progress [Skalska & Dziedzic 2009].

Regional issues

Within a broad spectrum of issues in this area the most frequently explored subjects include sustainable development, creation of new regions and strategies for their development, measurement of tourism in regions, life-cycle of products, the role of local government and stakeholder collaboration and finally regional and company competitiveness.

The issues of sustainable development have been studied since the mid-1990's [Marciszewska 1998]. Research in this field is ongoing at the Universities of Economics in Poznań, Wrocław and Katowice, and also at the Warsaw University and other research centres. An example of the Poznań scientific community's involvement in the exploration of sustainable development issues is the series of studies by A. Niezgoda on sustainable development of tourism destinations and local development strategies. [Niezgoda 2004, 2006]. The issue of sustainable development of spas was explored by Krasinski [2004]. The concept of sustainable tourism and the issue of participation of local communities in the implementation of sustainable practices were researched at the University of Economics in Wrocław [Gryszel, Jaremen & Rapacz 2008; Jaremen & Turakiewicz 2010]. The Katowice University of Economics completed research on partnership networks in the context of sustainable tourism development in the region [Żabińska 2007], and cultural determinants of sustainable development [Szubert-Zarzeczný 2008]. Very intensive studies on sustainable regional development were conducted by geographers, such as Warszýńska [2006] and Kowalczyk [2010].

A very interesting research field is the measurement of a tourism area's attractiveness with a pre-defined set of indicators and the creation of new tourist destinations on the basis of such measurement. This issue is particularly important in countries which have undergone comprehensive economic transformation and have experienced a fast growth in domestic and international tourism flows. Methodological studies in this area were conducted in the early 1990's at Warsaw University and Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznań [Krzýmowska-Kostrowicka 1992; Sołowiej

1993]. Geographers at the Warsaw University and University of Łódź made valuable contributions to the studies on tourism space and new tourism areas [Liszewski 1995, 2006; Włodarczyk 2009]. Identification of potential tourism areas and studies on tourist destinations in the context of globalisation were conducted at Warsaw University [Duridiwka 2003; Kulczyk 2007]. Studies in this area were taken up by economists from the Poznań University of Economics. Their research focused on the methods of identifying potential tourism areas [Gołembski 1999b, 2002], and location of tourism investments [Gołembski et al. 2010]. The issue of the spatial and functional development of regions through tourism was examined by the Szczecin academic community [Mayer 2008].

After Poland's accession to the European Union in 2004, the issue that gained practical significance was a formulation and implementation of tourism development strategies. Such strategies, incorporated in the broad context of socio-economic issues, provided a basis for detailed action plans and procurement of EU funds. Amongst numerous studies on development strategies, of particular interest are early works on tourism strategies in regional spatial planning [Drzewiecki 1993], and on spatial development strategies [Nawrocka 1998]. Of special value are strategy studies conducted in Poznań by academics of both the University School of Physical Education and the University of Economics. Tourism development strategies for urban areas (particularly the city of Poznań), and development paths for tourism in Poland were presented in the studies by Bosiacki [Bosiacki & Sikora 1997; Bosiacki 2000, 2006]. Development strategies for the Wielkopolska Region and Wielkopolski National Park were proposed by UEP teams [Czernek et al. 2006]. Quality in the development of tourism product strategies was investigated by Gołembski [2004a].

Tourism development can be ascertained by the level and intensity of an area's tourist function and the related measure of the product life cycle. In this context interesting studies of mountain tourist destinations were carried out at the Warsaw University and the Jagiellonian University in Krakow [Kurek 2005]. In turn, the University of Łódź studied the tourist function of cities [Jażdżewska 2008]. The issues of tourist function development were also explored in the studies undertaken by academics at the Poznań University of Economics. A very interesting methodological work by Majewska [2008] focused on financial aspects of introducing tourism into a local area, while Zmyślony [2011] analysed tourism strategic planning in urban areas. The work of a team of UEP economists resulted in a publication on the life cycle of an urban destination based on the example of the city of Poznań [Gołembski 2011].

A very important outcome of the political reform in Poland was the decentralisation of power and emancipation of local government. As a result the role of local authorities in tourism development increased significantly. At the same time it became apparent that in order to create attractive offers for tourists, all stakeholders involved in the development of the local tourism product must cooperate.

Collaboration of stakeholders, such as local governments, entrepreneurs, residents, and environmentalists, is often constrained by a variety of economic, social and cultural factors. Studies on these issues were conducted primarily in Poznań and Krakow research centres and focused on the role of the public sector in the development of local strategies for tourism products and in the stimulation of investment activity in tourism areas [Gołembski 2004b; Nawrot & Zmyślony 2004]. Some interesting doctoral dissertations concerning this issue were presented at the Poznań University of Economics, including the studies on the role of leadership [Zmyślony 2004] and local government [Majewska 2009] in the development of tourist destinations. Both dissertations were methodological, at the same time presenting very interesting case studies. In a thought-provoking qualitative study Czernek [2007, 2010] explored endogenous and exogenous determinants of collaboration in a tourist destination. Quite recently the University School of Physical Education in Poznań presented results of a study on the role of local government in the development of business tourism in the city of Poznań – a centre for conventions and trade fairs [Bosiacki & Śniadek 2011]. In Krakow, studies on the role of local government in tourism development were conducted mainly at the Jagiellonian University. The research focused on methodological questions [Derek 2007], and collaboration of local governments in tourism development [Pawlusiński 2002, 2005]. Very interesting and important studies on cross border collaboration between local governments and entrepreneurs, and on the integration of euroregions, were made at the Wrocław University of Economics [Rapacz 2004, 2006].

Collaboration leads to greater competitiveness of regions and companies in attracting investors and tourists. However, in an increasingly globalised economy and with advances in information technology, countries, regions and companies compete in a borderless, global market. Studies on competitiveness were made mainly by economists. Worthy of attention are studies which were undertaken at the Poznań University of Economics on direct competitiveness and its measurement, and indirect competitiveness [Nawrot 2006a, b]. Studies on the international competitiveness of a tourism region were undertaken by Ł. Nawrot [2008], and Nawrot and Zmyślony [2009]. Results of research on rural areas' competitiveness were presented at a conference in Calcutta [Nawrot & Nawrot 2010]. Studies were also conducted about the impact of sustainable development practices on the competitive advantage of a tourist destination [Niezgoda 2008]. A collection of papers on competitiveness of regions in the age of globalisation was published by the Poznań University of Economics in 2008 [Gołembski 2008a]. Very interesting studies were made by Warsaw researchers (Institute of Tourism and Warsaw School of Economics) who, for example, examined the impact of the issue of municipal bonds on the competitiveness of regions [Kachniewska 2008]. Other interesting studies focussed on the price competitiveness of Polish tourism products, and competitiveness of "city break products" in selected European countries [Skalska 2006, 2010a, b]. Also worth mentioning are

studies of EU policies aimed at the improvement of tourist firms' competitiveness [Zawistowska 2005], and studies undertaken in Katowice on the impact of marketing on the competitiveness of tourist regions [Żabińska 2006].

Microeconomic issues

Among the most interesting microeconomic issues are questions of service quality, innovativeness, entrepreneurship and impact of multinational corporations on the management of tourist enterprises. These are key issues for emerging free-market economies which need to improve efficiencies.

Studies on tourism product quality were undertaken already at the end of the 1990's [Gołębski 1998, 1999]. Of particular interest are studies on service quality management. Very interesting results were reported in the studies published by Kachniewska [2002, 2004, 2006]. In early years of the twenty-first century, research on quality determinants in the hotel industry was undertaken by Wrocław economists [Jaremen 2001, 2004]. Around that time Żabińska [2004] investigated the quantification of service quality for management purposes, and Kosmaczewska [2004] worked on a quality system for rural tourist accommodation. Determinants of tourism product quality were also the subject of interesting doctoral dissertations [Wąsowicz 2003]. Quite recently Poznań economists undertook intensive studies on a methodology for evaluating service quality in the hotel industry. Amongst the investigated methods of tourism quality assessment was the "critical events" model [Olszewski 2004, 2007b, 2008]. A generalisation of these studies is provided in the work on knowledge management in the process of competing through quality in the hospitality industry [Olszewski 2011]. Studies on quality measurement of hotel services were also undertaken in Wrocław [Jedlińska & Jaremen 2008], and on tourist air and sea transport quality in Szczecin [Milewski 2008]. In Poznań a research was conducted on the possibilities of implementing IQP in the region [Zmyślony 2008]. Lately, the quality issues have been taken up by geographers. The studies focused on the relationship between the quality of the geographic environment and that of tourism [Liszewski 2009].

Worth noting are the rare studies on risk management in tourism business activity. Bednarska [2004, 2005] carried out intensive studies on demand risk in hotel operations, risk management with special focus on cooperation agreements, the criteria in choosing risk management methods and, recently, hotel risk measurement [Bednarska & Białowas 2008].

As has been stated, studies on innovativeness and entrepreneurship are particularly valuable for emerging free-market economies. Such studies with respect to the tourism sector were undertaken by research centres in Poznań and Wrocław. [Gołębski 2005a, b, 2008b] investigated methods of entrepreneurship appraisal in the Polish tourism sector. Around the same time Majewska [2006] conducted studies

on stimulation of tourism entrepreneurship by local authorities. Zmysłony [2008] investigated entrepreneurship in relation to business leadership. Entrepreneurship in the Polish tourism sector, based on a case study, was investigated by Gołembski and Olszewski [2010] as part of a broader international research project. Lately, a study on innovativeness in tourism was completed by Wrocław researchers [Rapacz 2008], including a special focus on spa tourism [Januszewska 2009, 2010]. In Szczecin, researchers studied service innovations in the hotel industry [Szostak 2008], and – lately – innovativeness in all types of Polish tourism firms [Szymańska 2009].

A characteristic feature of the tourism sector and the hotel industry in particular, is the expansion of multinational corporations into local markets. These companies bring proven management systems and their proprietary corporate culture. Their presence has great impact on domestic firms which, in order not to be left behind, have to copy the best practices of the multinational giants. This phenomenon was thoroughly investigated by researchers at the University School of Physical Education in Krakow [Alejziak & Marciniak 2003]. Expansion of international hotel chains in Poland was also studied by Wrocław economists [Jedlińska 2006; Nawrocka 2008]. Similar studies were conducted with respect to tour operators [Konieczna-Domańska 2008a]. In Poznań, Średzińska-Markiewicz [2001] investigated foreign takeovers of Polish hotel enterprises which were privatised and floated on the stock exchange. The same author carried out studies on a global hotel product based on the example of multinational corporations operating in Poland [Markiewicz 2008]. Finally, studies were completed on the impact of modern management methods on a hotel's economic performance [Gołembski 2007], and on methods of measuring efficiencies in tourism enterprises [Bednarska 2007].

3. Using research results in teaching tourism

Tourism research methodologies and results are widely used in the didactic process both in the Tourism and Recreation and Tourism Economy degree programmes. Reference to research studies is particularly useful in teaching subjects such as Management of Tourism Enterprises, Local Government's Role in the Tourism Economy, Planning and Appraisal of Tourism Investments, or Quality Management in the Hotel Industry and Travel Agencies. Apart from research methodologies and results, a very important teaching resource are monographic publications, of which there have been many in recent years. Some of the examples include: Fundamentals of Recreation [Winiarski 1989], Tourism Geography and Regional Studies [Lijewski, Mikułowski & Wyrzykowski 2009; Kruczek 2009], Fundamentals of Tourism [Kurek 2007; Gaworecki 2010], and also The Basics of Hospitality and Tourism Law [Zawistowska 1999].

Many monographic publications can be used in teaching tourism economics and spatial issues. These are mainly publications on tourism economy and tourism economics [Panasiuk 2006, 2008], the tourism enterprise [Rapacz 2007; Bednarska et al. 2007], marketing in tourism and catering [Panasiuk 2005; Sala 2011], buyer behaviour [Niezgoda & Zmyślony 2006], tourism infrastructure [Kowalczyk & Derek 2010], and tourism product [Kaczmarek, Stasiak & Włodarczyk 2010]. Gołębski [2009] published a compendium of tourism in which economic, sociological and spatial issues are presented in macro, mezzo and micro scale.

4. International collaboration in tourism research and education

The most important forms of collaboration include joint research, exchange of scientific thought at conferences and through publications in journals, student exchange, and lectures delivered by visiting professors and business practitioners (regular or one-off events). In a big country such as Poland, where tourism is taught at many state and private universities, an exhaustive analysis of this issue is difficult if not impossible to make. Nevertheless, a conclusion we draw is that the level of collaboration does not adequately reflect the scientific and research potential represented by Polish institutions.

Joint research

Good examples of international collaboration in research can be found in the field of geography. In the period 2005–2008 the Jagiellonian University in Krakow with its partners from the Czech Republic and Hungary participated in a UN Global Environment Facility project under the heading “Protection and sustainable use of biological diversity through sensible development of tourism in biospheric reserves of Central and Eastern Europe”. Within the scope of a long term collaboration agreement, the Jagiellonian University and Blasé Pascal University in Clermont-Ferrand have been studying functional transformations of tourist destinations and regions in the Carpathians, Alps and Massif Central. A new joint project with universities in Ostrava (Czech Republic), Presov (Slovakia) and Žilina (Slovakia) investigates tourism changes in cross-border regions of the Polish and Slovakian Carpathian Mountains.

A joint project of the University of Łódź and Manchester Metropolitan University led to a publication in 1997 of “A comparative study of Łódź and Manchester”.

In the field of economic sciences the University of Wrocław engaged in joint projects with partners from Germany and the Czech Republic to establish a framework

of cooperation and integration in tourism in the Nysa macro-region in the run-up to Poland's accession to the European Union.

For the last ten years the Poznań University of Economics and University of Innsbruck have collaborated continuously on joint projects in tourism within the scientific and technological cooperation framework. Joint studies concerned such topics as Development of Tourism and Tourism Destination Management (2002–2003), Entrepreneurship in Tourism – a Comparative Study of Poland and Austria (2005–2006), and Destination Rejuvenation Strategies – Policies and Measures (2008–2009). The collaboration has borne fruit in the form of joint English language publications in the Poznań University of Economics Review, and the book “Entrepreneurship and Quality in Tourism in Light of Polish and International Research” (2007). Numerous joint workshops have been held.

Participation in scientific conferences

In this area there seems to be some dissatisfaction amongst the tourism research community in Poland. The reasons why Polish researchers may be under-represented at major scientific conferences are many, including financial constraints, sometimes language barriers, or an insufficient number of studies made with the use of the latest methodologies. Lack of wider contacts makes it difficult for the Polish academic community to integrate with European and global science. This has a particularly negative impact on the development of a young generation of researchers. Without doubt Polish researchers have more intensive contacts with their counterparts in Central and Eastern European countries, in particular in the Czech Republic, Slovakia, Croatia, or Ukraine. Major conferences are held in Liberec (Czech Republic), Opatija (Croatia), Lviv (Ukraine), Presov and Bratislava (Slovakia), or Belgrade (Serbia). Historically, a very important venue for tourism conferences is the School of Economics at Banska Bystrica in Slovakia.

Polish academics have clearly fewer contacts with research centres in Western Europe. Membership of prestigious international organisations or scientific forums is marginal and so are Polish presentations at major international conferences in Western Europe. Worth noting is membership of the Łódź University's Institute of Tourism Geography in the prestigious Association of Tourism and Leisure Studies (ATLAS). Worth noting are also emerging international contacts of Polish tourism statistics researchers (participation in the Lisbon International Forum on Tourism Statistics in 2010). The Krakow's University School of Physical Education has organised a major international conference on the development of tourism research. The writer of these words has been a member of AIEST since 1987 (conferences in Breda, Berlin, Cha Am, Hangthou, Athens and Macao), and Tourist Research Center (TRC) since 2004 (conferences in Brugge, Kiel, Tours, Bolzano, Poznań, Vienna and Bodrum).

Student exchange

Student exchange schemes have expanded considerably after Poland's accession to the European Union. Particularly successful is the Erasmus student exchange programme: large higher education institutions in Poland have signed agreements with dozens of universities abroad. Although many students of tourism have benefited from the scheme, new initiatives enabling closer contacts between universities offering tourism degree courses are needed. In this context we welcome the efforts that have been made to unify the curricula of tourism degree programmes during one selected semester at several European universities to enable students to continue the study at any of the institutions participating in the scheme. This initiative has been proposed by the Catholic University of Eichstätt-Ingolstadt and taken up by universities from Scandinavia, the Czech Republic, Slovakia, Latvia, Hungary and Poland.

Amongst the variety of student exchange possibilities there are student apprenticeship programmes. These have also been very successful. Alas, this form of exchange is mostly unilateral: many Polish students travel abroad to work in the tourist sector, usually in Mediterranean countries, while hardly any foreign students come for an apprenticeship in Poland.

Lectures delivered at Polish universities by visiting foreign lecturers

Such lectures are delivered both by academics and practitioners. In the didactic process the importance of a first-hand contact between students and foreign lecturers cannot be overestimated as it allows students to learn about the latest achievements and innovations in tourism theory and practice. The lectures and discussions are conducted in English, providing students with an excellent opportunity to practice and improve their language skills.

Alas, these events are rare. Foreign lecturers are more frequently invited by private institutions (usually desperate for the highest quality staff) than state universities which often cannot afford such programmes. This is one of the greatest weaknesses of tourism and leisure education in Poland, depriving students of valuable international exposure.

Budgetary constraints in this area can be overcome by securing external co-financing. This is exactly the way chosen by the University of Economics in Poznań which managed to finance the establishment of the Tourism Economy degree programme with money obtained from an EU sponsored programme Workforce for the Economy. External funding has enabled the school to arrange several lectures per semester delivered by outstanding European scholars and practitioners.

Of great value are lectures and classes conducted by foreign academics and practitioners on a regular basis. Examples of such initiatives include lectures on hotel

management by a German manager of Sheraton Hotel, or regular lectures conducted by an English business practitioner at the University of Economics in Poznań.

Summary

Several general conclusions can be drawn from the above discussion. The systemic transformations in Poland have led to unprecedented quantitative and qualitative changes in the tourism sector. On the demand side we have seen a dynamic growth in tourist numbers and increased expectations regarding the structure and quality of supply. On the supply side, the market economy and globalisation processes have led to greatly increased competitiveness amongst Polish service providers. All these developments have posed serious challenges for the tourism and leisure education system.

The Polish education system itself has undergone significant transformations over the last twenty years to adapt to the changing environment. Assessment of the outcomes is not, however, unequivocally positive. What deserves a very positive rating is the development of tourism and leisure research. The research, particularly in the fields of tourism statistics, regional development, investment policy, competitiveness, entrepreneurship, quality or company management is strictly connected with teaching programmes and is used in the didactic process. Teaching programmes are progressively changed and adjusted to the needs of practice and the labour market. This concerns also the skills which are highly valued by employers, such as languages, management abilities, familiarity with relevant legal issues, ability to use computerised booking systems, etc.

A major negative of the Polish science and education in the field of tourism and leisure is an uneven quality of both research and education. This is primarily a result of the quality not keeping pace with the quantity. Certain tourism degree courses offered by both private and public higher education institutions were established without adequate teaching resources.

Another major negative are insufficient relations with foreign institutions both in research and education. While Polish universities have wider contacts with Central and Eastern European partners (ease of communication, similar experiences from the past), their collaboration with West European research and education centres is inadequate. It concerns equally joint research projects, publications and teaching (visiting professors).

It has to be said, however, that the potential of Polish research and higher education in the field of tourism and leisure is enormous and qualitative differences between institutions should in time disappear owing to personnel development at new schools and greater competition which will eliminate weaker institutions. Therefore, a conclusion is justified that Polish tourism and leisure research and education are

ready for another qualitative leap which will inevitably result in a much greater participation in the mainstream of European research and education in the field.

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Consumer surplus and macro valuation of tourism projects

Abstract: There cannot be a tourism industry without projects. These projects can take different forms, such as development of attractions, accommodation, entertainment, transport, new resorts, congress centre, events, ski infrastructure, etc.. They all involve considerable investment. This paper focuses on five topics. First, it focuses on the nature of investment appraisal and explores the difference between micro and macro approaches. Secondly, attention is paid to externalities in tourism. Indeed many projects belong to the general tourism infrastructure, and the benefits do not only accrue to the paymaster, who may not consider the negative effects. In other words, externalities must be taken into account. A third section deals with the identification of cost and benefit items or the cost-benefit scheme. Environmental costs are an important part of the scheme. In the same section we proceed with the quantification and valuation of cost and benefit items and the calculation of the NPV (net present value) and IRR (internal rate of return). In a fourth part we pay special attention to the valuation of the consumer surplus of non-priced tourism resources and more particularly to two methods often applied to measure the consumer surplus: 'The Travel Cost Method' and 'The Contingent Method'. A fifth part of the paper is focused on CBA versus economic impact analysis.

Keywords: computable general equilibrium, contingent valuation method, cost-benefit analysis, economic impact analysis, externalities, I-O appraisal, Internal Rate of Return (IRR), investment appraisal, Net Present Value (NPV), travel cost method, willingness to pay, zonal travel cost method.

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Introduction

Long experience in the tourism sector has taught us that many investment decisions are very emotional; wrong investment appraisal methods are applied and/or

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the right method is used incorrectly. Therefore, special attention to investment appraisal is very important.

Most projects in the tourism sector are the initiative of individuals or companies – tourism or financial – and here the classic investment appraisal methods apply [Vanhove 2011]. However, in tourism, more than in any other sector, the investor (or what we call the ‘paymaster’) is not a company or a tourism entrepreneur but the public sector. Indeed many projects belong to the general tourism infrastructure and the benefits do not only accrue to the paymaster, who may not consider the negative effects (This can also be the case for a project in the private sector). In other words, externalities must be taken into account. In such a case, the classic methods of investment appraisal are insufficient. Tourism is clearly an economic sector in which social cost-benefit analysis (CBA) is applicable [Burgan & Mules 2001].

A project can be appraised from the micro or the macro point of view. In the first case only benefits (receipts) and costs for the investor (private or public) come into the picture. In the second case the benefit and cost items are large in number and of different natures. The total impact of the project for the destination should be taken into account. Application of CBA is the correct method [see also Vanhove 2013].

For many tourism projects the discounted cash flow approach is insufficient. Social cost–benefit analysis is more useful. Referring to Prest and Turvey [1967], CBA can be defined as: ‘a practical way of assessing the desirability of projects, where it is important to take a long view (in the sense of looking at repercussions in the more distant as well as in the near future) and a wide view (in the sense of allowing for side effects of many kinds on many persons, industries, regions etc.) i.e. it implies the enumeration and evaluation of all the relevant costs and benefits’.

In addition to the cash flows the calculations take account of all the changes in social benefits and social costs that result from the project reducing them to monetary terms and discounting them to a present value from which the capital cost may be subtracted in order to obtain the net present value. Social CBA is by definition a macro-approach. We set the macro-economic costs and benefits against each other. Costs are defined in a special way – what level of output would have been reached if the factors of production were utilized in the rest of the economy? – i.e. costs of the project are measured in terms of its opportunity costs. Benefits are the additional benefits to the community that result from the realization of the project. The fundamental objective of a CBA is to complete the private economic calculations with figures for the economic benefits and costs of a project to its consumers and society as a whole. Some authors use the term ‘social cost benefit analysis’ (SCBA).

CBA is directly related to the externalities. ‘External benefits’ is a frequently used term in tourism. What do we understand by external benefits and are there also external costs? [see Vanhove 2011].

1. Externalities and tourism

‘Externalities’ is one of the vaguest and most ambiguous terms in economic science. We find a useful description in Boardman et al. [2001], who describe an *externality* as an effect that production or consumption has on third parties – people not involved in the production or consumption of an item. It is a by-product of production or consumption for which there is no market. ‘No market’ is not an essential part of the definition, and is not always correct [see also Bull 1995].

Other authors use the expression ‘external effects’ instead of ‘externalities’ [Sugden & Williams 1988; Mishan 1994]. They consider the social costs and benefits of a (private or public) project rather than the financial outlays and receipts that would be considered by decision-makers in private (or public) firms. There are several reasons for expecting social costs and benefits to be different from private (public) outlays and receipts. Indeed, externalities or external effects may occur for a wide variety of reasons. Some result because a particular type of technology is used (e.g. deterioration of the landscape caused by transport of electricity). Others result because of interdependencies or synergies between producers and consumers of different groups of producers. A third group of externalities occurs because of networking (e.g. a convention centre stimulates the turnover of hotels and restaurants). Others arise because of negative effects on competitive projects, companies or events.

It is clear from the above that there are positive and negative externalities. The first group produces benefits, whilst the latter imposes social costs. Stabler et al. [2010] categorize externalities as follows:

- Consumer on consumer,
- Producer on consumer,
- Producer on producer,
- Consumer on producer.

‘Externalities’ is a generic term that is used, rightly or wrongly, to justify many projects. Furthermore, in many studies several terms are used to cover externalities – indirect effects, spillover effects, induced effects, stemming effects, pecuniary effects, side effects, etc.. Many consultants in the tourism sector abuse externalities to inflate the so-called benefits of a project. Therefore, to avoid such abuses it seems appropriate to start with identification of the types of externalities.

One can make a distinction between three types of negative and three types of positive externalities: ‘unpaid’ costs and benefits; ‘underpaid’ costs and benefits and positive and negative side effects.

1.1. Negative externalities

The first category of negative externalities is *unpaid costs*. Any project or event is the initiative of a person, firm or public body. Who pays for or finances the pro-

ject is not important; we call the investor the paymaster. At this level the paymaster is responsible for the investment costs and the running costs of the project, but he also cashes in the direct payments of the consumer (e.g. entrance fees to participate in an event, the use of a ski-lift etc.). We call this the 'project' or 'micro' level.

However, in most cases the paymaster does not pay for all the costs of the project or event. Many projects provoke a lot of economic, social and/or environmental costs for which the investor does not pay. There is no free lunch. A third party will pay the bill or suffer inconvenience [Vanhove 2003; Stabler, Papatheodorou & Sinclair 2010].

Typical examples of unpaid costs in the tourism sector include water pollution, noise, traffic congestion, destruction of landscape, etc..

In the case of *underpaid costs* some costs are taken into account but not at the full price. A typical example is the expropriation of land for a big event at a price below the market value. This brings us to the notion of opportunity costs. Cost should be measured as opportunity costs.

'Opportunity costs' is another economic term that leads to a lot of interpretation problems and misunderstandings. Any tourism project requires resources that could be used to produce other goods or services instead. Tourism projects such as festivals, sporting events, theme parks, winter sports infrastructure, for example, require labour, land, capital and/or equipment. The resources used for these purposes cannot be used to produce other goods or services. Almost all public or private projects incur opportunity costs. Conceptually, these costs equal the value of the goods and services that would have been produced had the resources used in carrying them out been used instead in the best alternative way [Boardman et al. 2001]. In other words, production elsewhere is foregone.

As stated above, cost items should be measured as opportunity costs. In efficient markets, opportunity costs are equal to market prices. However, markets are not always efficient. Let us suppose that the Olympic Games are to take place in a region or country with very high unemployment. In the construction phase of the necessary infrastructure (e.g. new stadia, new sport infrastructure) and in the running of the games, hundreds or thousands of unemployed find jobs. All of them are paid a normal salary. These salaries are included in the investment and running costs at the micro-level. However, costs should be measured as opportunity costs. What are the opportunity costs of an unemployed person? His or her best alternative is probably unemployment. The corresponding contribution of unemployed people to the national product is zero (unemployment benefit is a pure transfer). There is no production (goods or services) foregone. This type of underpayment of costs is quite often a very important item in project appraisal from a macro point of view. This might be even more the case in a tourist rather than in an industrial region. Many tourism regions have high unemployment.

A third group of negative externalities relates to *side effects* on competitive projects or events. We all know of situations where a new tourism project is competing with an existing production unit in the same region – for example a new congress centre is built in a place close to a city which already has good congress facilities. In such circumstances a reduction in the turnover of the existing product can be expected. The corresponding reduction of value added should be considered as a cost item for the new event or congress centre.

1.2. Positive externalities

Again, *unpaid benefits* are the first category of positive externalities. Not all benefits of a project or an event accrue to the investor. In tourism there are many possible unpaid benefits, such as the promotion effect, international exposure, increase of property value, etc..

However, in other cases the consumer does not always pay the full price of a product or service or we are confronted with *underpaid benefits*. If the consumer pays less than the market price for a service (e.g. a performance) – benefits are measured in terms of market prices – it seems obvious that there is an underpayment of benefits.

The situation becomes more complicated when we consider the consumers' willingness to pay. This brings us to the notion of consumer surplus. The latter is one of the foundations of cost–benefit analysis [Pearce 1983; Boardman et al. 2001].

A demand curve indicates the quantities of goods or services that individuals purchase at various prices. In Figure 1, a downward-sloped demand curve is illustrated as line P_1F . The key is the link between demand schedules and the willingness to pay (WTP). Figure 1 illustrates that there is at least one consumer who is willing to pay a price of P_1 for one unit of service X. Similarly, there is at least one person who would pay a price of P_2 for the second unit of X, and there is someone who would pay P_3 for the third unit of X and so forth. The message from this exercise is that the area under the demand curve, or the sum of all the unit-wide rectangles, closely approximates to the WTP for X by all members of society. In other words, the triangle P_1P_4C and the rectangle P_4CX_3O in Figure 1 approximate society's WTP for a given amount of X, in this case the amount X_3 . Thus the sum of the triangle and the rectangular approximates the total gross benefits society would receive from consuming X_3 units of service X. The consumers pay P_4 to the producers of the tourism service. In this case, the net benefits from consuming X_3 units equal the area below the demand curve but above the price line P_4C . This triangle P_1P_4C is called the consumer surplus. When demand curves are known consumer surplus is one of the basic concepts in CBA to value impacts. The reason why consumer surplus is so important to CBA is that changes in consumer surplus can be used as reasonable approximations of society's WTP policy changes [Boardman et al. 2001].

To show how the concept of consumer surplus can be used in CBA, consider a project that results in a price change. We take a price reduction in Figure 1 from P_4 to P_5 . This would result in a benefit to consumers equal to the area of the trapezoid P_4CFP_5 . It follows both because consumers gain from paying a lower price for the X_3 units they previously purchased and because they gain from the consumption of $X_3 - X_4$ additional units.

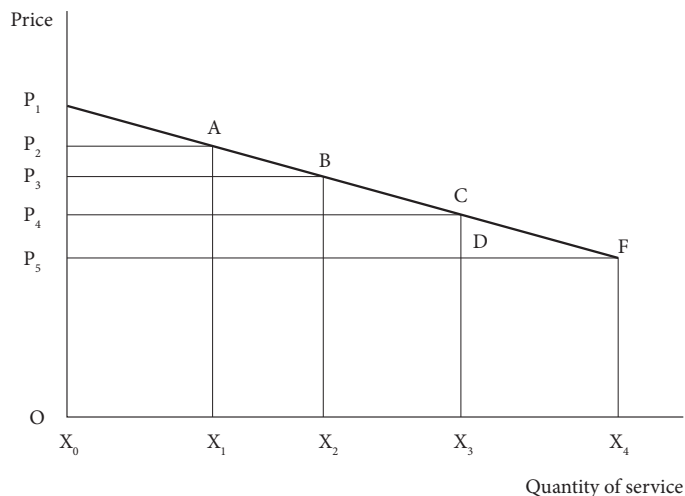


Figure 1. Consumer surplus

If there is an increase in the price, there is a loss of consumer surplus. However, if the price increase results from an imposed tax there is no loss but a simple transfer – money is transferred from consumers to the government. From the perspective of society as a whole, its net impact is zero.

Changes in consumers' surplus are measures of the effects on the welfare of individuals of changes in the prices of goods that they consume. Individuals may be affected in a very similar way if there are changes in the costs of 'factor prices' (such as labour, the use of capital and land) that they supply.

Such changes are said to lead to changes in producers' surplus [Sugden & Williams 1988]. Producer surplus is the supply-side equivalent to consumer surplus. To define producer surplus, we refer to Figure 2. At a price of P_1 , the producers receive revenues equal to the area represented by the rectangular area OP_1BX_1 . The difference between this rectangular area and the area of the rectangle under the supply curve S , that is the area AP_1B , is called producer surplus. Indeed, some producers are willing to produce at a price lower than P_1 .

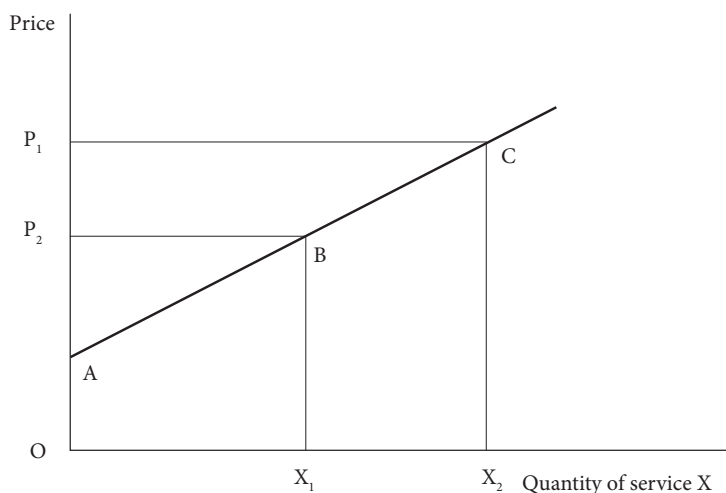


Figure 2. Producer surplus

Thus, producer surplus equals the revenues from selling X_1 less the variable costs required to produce X_1 – or the sum of total producer surplus and opportunity costs (that is areas $AP_1B + OABX_1$) corresponds to total revenues. According to Burgan and Mules [2001] producer surplus represents the return to producers for units of production up to and including the last unit above and beyond the cost of resources involved in the production. The assumption is that resources are used at their opportunity costs.

Price changes that are due to a project result in impacts on producers that can be valued in terms of changes in producer surplus. An increase in price to P_2 increases producer surplus (or economic profits) by P_1P_2CB [Boardman et al. 2001].

Most tourism projects or events have a positive impact on the turnover of many other production units such as hotels, restaurants, pubs, taxis, souvenir shops, etc., known as the *side effects* on complementary activities. It is not the turnover that counts but the additional value added created. Quite often the additional value added in complementary activities is many times greater than the value added at the micro-level.

These complementary activities have, in their turn, an impact on intermediate deliveries. We call them indirect effects (indirect income).

Care must be taken with secondary effects due to spending of earned direct and indirect income or induced effects (induced income). Should we take into account the portion of incomes resulting from an event spent by the recipients? This brings us to the famous multiplier effects, more particularly the induced effects. We have to be careful with induced effects.

2. CBA in the four steps

CBA is a practical way of assessing the desirability of projects, where it is important to take a long view and a wide view – i.e. it implies the enumeration and evaluation of all relevant costs and benefits. In CBA we try to consider all of the costs and benefits to society as a whole. That is the reason why some people refer to CBA as social cost–benefit analysis. For Boardman et al. [2001], cost–benefit analysis ‘is a policy assessment method that quantifies in monetary terms the value of all policy consequences to all members of society. The net social benefits measure the value of the policy. Social benefits minus social costs equal net social benefits’. The broad purpose of CBA is to help in social decision-making.

The foundations of CBA are the Pareto efficiency, opportunity costs, willingness to pay (see consumer surplus) and producer surplus. An allocation is Pareto-efficient if no alternative allocation can make at least one person better off without making anyone else worse off. An allocation is inefficient, therefore, if an alternative allocation can be found that would make at least one person better off without making anyone else worse off. Boardman et al. state that ‘one would have to be malevolent not to want to achieve Pareto efficiency – why forgo gains to persons that would not inflict losses on others?’. These writers make the link between positive net benefits and Pareto efficiency. If a policy has positive net benefits, then it is possible to find a set of transfers, or side payments, that makes at least one person better off without making anyone else worse off. A full understanding of this link requires some knowledge of how to measure costs and benefits in CBA. It is necessary to consider willingness to pay as the method for valuing the outputs of the policy and opportunity costs as the method for valuing the resources required to implement the policy. However, The application of CBA does not necessarily result in a Paretian improvement. According to Tisdell and Hartley [2008] gainers do not necessarily compensate the losers so some may be worse off than before the change. We refer to the items of the scheme in Table 1. In this case the income distribution issue arises. That is an aspect that we disregard in practical CBA applications. Income distribution is a political matter.

The costs are measured in terms of its opportunity costs. Benefits are the additional benefits to the community that would result from the realization of the project. Costs and benefits of a project are the timelines of consumption foregone and provided.

In a CBA, there are four important steps:

1. Identification of the cost and benefit items
2. Quantification of the cost and benefit items
3. Valuation of the cost and benefit items
4. Calculation of net present value (NPV) and/or internal rate of return (IRR).

2.1. Identification of cost and benefit items

The identification of cost and benefit items is directly related to the externalities dealt with earlier in this chapter. Table 1 might be helpful in identifying the cost and benefit items from the viewpoint of society as a whole. We applied this scheme for the first time in 1971 for the study ‘The micro and macro profitability of a congress centre in Bruges’ [WES 1971]. Four levels of costs and benefits can be distinguished. The first level is the micro-level, also called the project or paymaster’s level – in other words who pays for the project? The other three levels are related to the externalities dealt with earlier in this chapter.

This is not the only possible cost-benefit scheme. Another possible scheme is described by Scherly and Breiter [2002] and Stabler, Papatheodorou and Sinclair [2010].

2.2. Quantification of cost and benefit items

The next step is to express the items of Table 1 in quantitative terms – arrivals, nights, metres, cubic metres, volumes, etc.. We can be confronted with two possibilities; either the cost and benefit items are measurable, which is the normal situation, or the items cannot be expressed in a quantitative unit; in that case they are called intangible items. A typical intangible cost item is a destruction of the natural beauty of a landscape.

Table 1. Cost-benefit scheme

Level	Costs	Benefits
Project or paymaster’s	Investment costs Running costs	Direct receipts
‘Unpaid’ level	Unpaid use of factors of production	Unpaid satisfaction of needs
‘Underpayment’ level	Underpayment of factors of production	Underpayment of products and services
Side effects	Side effects on competitors	Side effects on complementary sectors, firms or projects

With respect to the quantification of cost and benefit items, a number of principles should be respected. The first is quite evident – it is important to avoid double counting. The cost–benefit scheme can be very helpful in avoiding one or more cost or benefit items being counted twice but even so double counting is not impossible. The development of a camping area cannot lead to higher land value of the area and

to additional value added created in the accommodation firms on the site; it should be either higher land value or additional value added.

More important is the application of the 'base case' or the 'with and without' principle rather than the 'before and after' principle. The base case is a 'do nothing' option. The 'do nothing' option requires a clear description of what is likely to occur in the absence of a project (policy change). The 'with and without' principle compares the tourism development of the project with the situation that would occur without the project – in other words it is an evaluation in terms of the difference it makes. The 'before and after' principle attributes to a project effects that are not caused by it but which occur because of the passage of time or for other irrelevant reasons (e.g. what were the costs before the new facility was implemented, and what will they be afterwards?).

An example makes it clear. The construction of a congress centre in a city will boost the number of nights stayed. It would be incorrect to attribute all additional nights to the congress centre; the number of nights would still probably have increased without the congress centre. The 'with and without' leads in this case to a lower benefit than the 'before and after'. However, there are cases where we have the opposite situation (e.g. a declining trend of nights in the city where the congress centre is built).

Furthermore it is important to emphasize that in Table 1 technological spillovers should be taken into account insofar as they alter the physical production possibilities of other producers or the satisfaction that consumers can obtain from given resources. On the other hand, pecuniary spillovers should not be taken into account if the sole effect is through prices of products or factors. There are cases involving transfers of resources from one group in the economy to another.

With respect to events crowding-out effects, expenditure switching and retained expenditure should be considered in the quantification of the different items [Ryan 1998; Ryan & Locker 2001].

2.3. Valuation of cost and benefit items

A third step in CBA is the valuation of the quantified items; the latter must be expressed in monetary units for each period of time over the economic life of the project.

In general market prices are considered to be a proxy of the social valuations; market prices of final outputs indicate the 'proper' valuation of benefits and market prices of resources the 'proper' valuation of costs. 'The prices placed on goods and services through the exchange process afford a means of measuring the value attached to those goods and services by those who participate in the exchange, and provide a basis for evaluating project effects in monetary terms' [US Government, Federal Inter-Agency River Basin Committee, Subcommittee on Benefits and Costs, 1950 – *The Green Book*].

In evaluating costs attention should always be fixed on estimating the social opportunity cost of the resources used in the project; in other words, the social value of goods and services that would have been produced if the resources had been employed in the next best alternative public or private use. For most goods and services bought by public authorities from commercial firms, as well as for labour hired in competition with private sector, the market price is an adequate measure of social opportunity cost.

In practice there is not always a market price. In these cases a shadow price or accounting price can be used [Sassone & Schaffer 1978; Mishan 1994; Bull 1995; Boardman et al. 2001]. This is the price an economist attributes to a good or a factor postulating that it is more appropriate than the existing price, if any. So the price of a water purification plant down the river can be the shadow price for the waste water from a big tourism project discharged into the river and for which the tourism project is not charged.

Many writers reserve the term 'shadow price' for outputs that are not sold in a direct market. However, shadow prices may also be used to correct the underestimation or overestimation of the value of a particular resource.

Other price standards in the absence of market prices include (see section 4):

- The alternative production cost
- Individuals' willingness to pay
- Surrogate prices based on the behaviour of economic agents (travel costs)
- The prices of similar products elsewhere.

There are still items that cannot be measured such as the improvement of a landscape by a park (in the opposite case, the value of destruction of a landscape) or increase or decrease in the rate of juvenile delinquency due to tourism development.

Sometimes there is opposition to the application of CBA because of the existence of intangible and/or non-measurable cost or benefit items. This is not an adequate argument. We should recognize that some items cannot be expressed in monetary terms without saying that those items should be neglected. Therefore we recommend adding (beside the table of quantifiable items) a qualitative table with costs and benefits that are intangible and/or not measurable. We call this an itemisation of the non-measurable physical benefits and costs associated with the project; it is suggested that a short description of the expected intangible effects should be added. This itemization can be helpful for the decision-makers of the project.

Very often the question is raised as to what should be done in case of price inflation and relative price changes. As a rule we recommend the application of constant prices. For convenience this will usually be the price level in the first year. Adjustments need not be made for inflation or general price increases. Uniform change in all prices can be ignored and have no influence on the value of NPV or IRR. Adjustments need to be made for relative price changes. If some prices are likely to change relative to others this should be reflected in CBA. The rule of con-

stant price also applies to the discount rate. The market interest rate is very often a combination of real interest and the inflation rate.

Stabler et al. [2010] refer to a number of methods which have been developed to value environmental attributes and which could be applied to the valuation of non-priced tourism resources:

- Contingent valuation
- Choice modelling
- Hedonic pricing
- Travel costs
- Combination of these.

Most of these methods relate to willingness to pay. The ‘travel cost method’ and the ‘Contingent valuation method’ are quite often used (see next section).

A special case is when there are adjustments to the market prices relative to taxes and subsidies. Indirect taxes are a cost to those who pay them but do not necessarily reflect economic costs to the country or the region as a whole in the sense that an increase of tax does not mean that more economic resources are required. From the viewpoint of the economy taxes and subsidies must be viewed as transfer payments which normally should be excluded in valuating the costs of a project. Thus an import tax on beef consumed in the tourism sector should not be regarded as a cost to the economy since it merely represents a transfer from the hotelkeeper to the government. Conversely, a grant for vegetable growing is clearly a benefit to the farmer but is not a benefit to the economy.

On the benefit side an indirect tax on final output should be deducted as a cost by the producer paying it but it should not be deducted from the valuation of the benefits for social cost–benefit analysis. In practice market prices (including VAT) are the yardstick to evaluate benefits based on the principle of ‘willingness to pay’. Indirect taxes are part of the price people are willing to pay. In any case indirect taxes paid by foreigners are a net benefit for the country; in tourism, the share of inbound tourism can be very important. All purchases must be cleared of VAT and other sales taxes. A tax paid to the government is a tax paid to society. This can lead to a real difference in profitability between a social cost–benefit application and a pure financial assessment.

This rule cannot be applied in all circumstances. A higher tax for pure budgetary reasons has nothing to do with willingness to pay. Thus a higher tax on fuel leads to higher transport cost savings in a CBA of a new highway project but in this case the tax has a pure transfer effect and does not contribute to any increase of welfare.

2.4. Calculation of NPV and IRR

Now we have all the elements to calculate the NPV or IRR for tourism projects. Table 1 can be transformed into the form of a calculation table [see Vanhove 2011].

For each cost and benefit item a column is provided (there can be more than one column for each generic cost and benefit item).

A crucial point in the NPV calculation is the choice of the discount rate [see also Stabler, Papatheodorou & Sinclair 2010]. The role of the discount rate is two-fold. Firstly, it makes costs and benefits accruing at different points of time commensurable. Secondly, in considering the net benefits achieved by an investment project attention has to be paid to its costs which means the foregone opportunity. The role of the discount rate is to help to ensure that these forgone opportunities which are themselves time lines of costs and benefits, are properly taken into account. The foregone opportunities can be in the public sector (consumption or investment) or the private sector (consumption or investment). In other words the discounting is necessary to allow for the time factor and the cost of capital.

3. Measurement of consumer surplus or willingness to pay

Consumer surplus is in many CBA applications an important item. This is the case for many recreation projects and events with no or a low entrance fee. This brings us to the question of valuation of non-priced tourism resources. We find two methods in literature: (a) the travel cost method (TCM) and (b) the contingent valuation method (CVM). The TCM is based on market behaviour or revealed preference while CVM methods (there are several variants) provide a stated preference framework by asking respondents about their willingness to pay (WTP) or willingness to accept [Greiner & Rolfe 2004].

3.1. Travel cost method

The method is based on the premise that the costs of using a tourist area (e.g. recreational site) can be considered as a proxy measure of visitors' willingness to pay and thus their valuation of those sites. Let us suppose that visitors do not pay to gain entry to a recreation site which is often the case. They have incurred expenditure implicitly or explicitly to travel to it. This can be used as a measure of the valuation of that site [Tisdell 2006]. It involves the travel costs incurred by visitors to a tourist site (e.g. a museum) plus any entry fee as a proxy for their effective price for visiting the area.

The TCM has two different forms. The first one concerns trips generated by individuals. The second relates to trips on a zonal base and is called zonal travel cost method (ZTCM). The operational core of the ZTCM is the trip generation function [Boardman et al., 2001]. This measures the relative frequency of visits to a recrea-

tion site from the different zones in relation to the travel cost involved in visiting the recreation site. In other words the ZTCM is based on actual visitors rather than potential visitors. The ZTCM implies the specification of the zones from which users of the site originate (concentric rings or isotime lines around the recreation site on a map). Based on a pure theoretical example Figure 3 gives the relation between average total cost per person (TC) and average visits per person (V) for zones' A through E.

Suppose that people from zone C actually pay only \$65 for each visit(based on the Boardman example). The consumer surplus for someone from zone C is obtained by adding the consumer surpluses associated with each visit across all trips (\$90 - \$65 = \$25 for the first visit, \$85-\$65= \$20 for the second visit , and \$15, \$10, \$5 , and \$0 for the third, fourth, fifth, and sixth visits respectively) which equals \$75. This amount is represented by the area of the shaded triangle in Figure 3. For more details about the method we refer to Boardman et al. [2001] and Herath [2004].

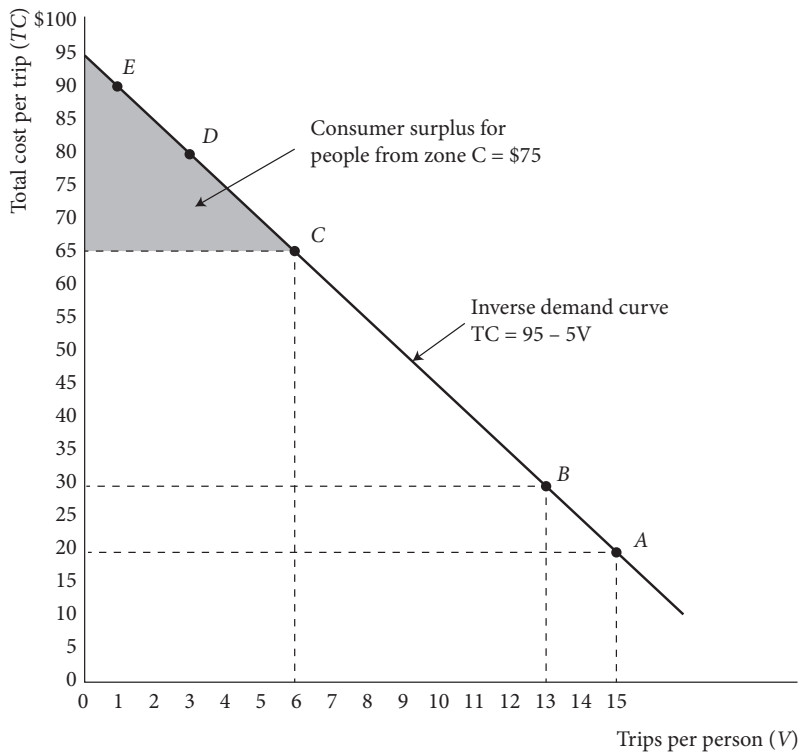


Figure 3. ZTCM and consumer surplus

Source: [Boardman et al. 2001]

3.2. Contingent valuation method

The contingent valuation method is a well-established stated preference technique for the estimation of the economic value of non-market resources. The underpinning of the method is the assumption that individuals can be induced to reveal their true willingness to pay for non-monetary goods through their behaviour in hypothetical markets [see Boardman et al. 2001; Herath & Kennedy 2004; Greiner & Rolfe 2004; Tisdell 2006; Herrero, Sanz & Dervisa 2011]. This method has several variants. The most frequently used models are:

- The open-ended model (respondents are asked to state their maximum WTP but no values are suggested).
- The iterative bidding model (proposes a series of amounts until respondents reveal their maximum WTP – increasing or decreasing).
- The dichotomous choice model (respondents are asked whether they would participate in an activity if it were to cost them € X. The € X bid amount offered to any given respondent is randomly chosen from a predetermined set of bid amounts distributed over the survey sample. Only 'yes' or 'no' are required to these pre-specified bid amounts). Table 4 shows a histogram of dichotomous-choice responses [see Boardman et al. 2001].

Figure 4 shows the distribution of responses to bid prices in the form of a histogram. The bid prices are shown on the horizontal axis (from \$0 to \$100). The vertical axis measures the percentage of respondents who answer 'yes' to the bid price offered to them. The resultant curve in Figure 4 may be viewed as the demand curve. The area under the curve provides an estimate of the individual's willingness-to pay. If the values of X are evenly spread, then the histogram can be used to obtain an estimate of the average individual's WTP by applying the formula:

$$WTP = v \sum_{k=0}^n (\text{probability acceptance at price } kv)$$

where:

- v – the interval between prices (width of the individual bars),
- n – number of values of X (number of bars).

Boardman et al. underline that researchers rarely work directly from the histogram of accepted bids. Estimates are usually made by estimating a statistical model for predicting the probability that an individual with specific characteristics will accept a particular bid price.

Prudence is always called for in applying CVM especially in case of sensitive (political) matters. Furthermore CVM and TCM do not always lead to the same result. [see Herath & Kennedy 2004].

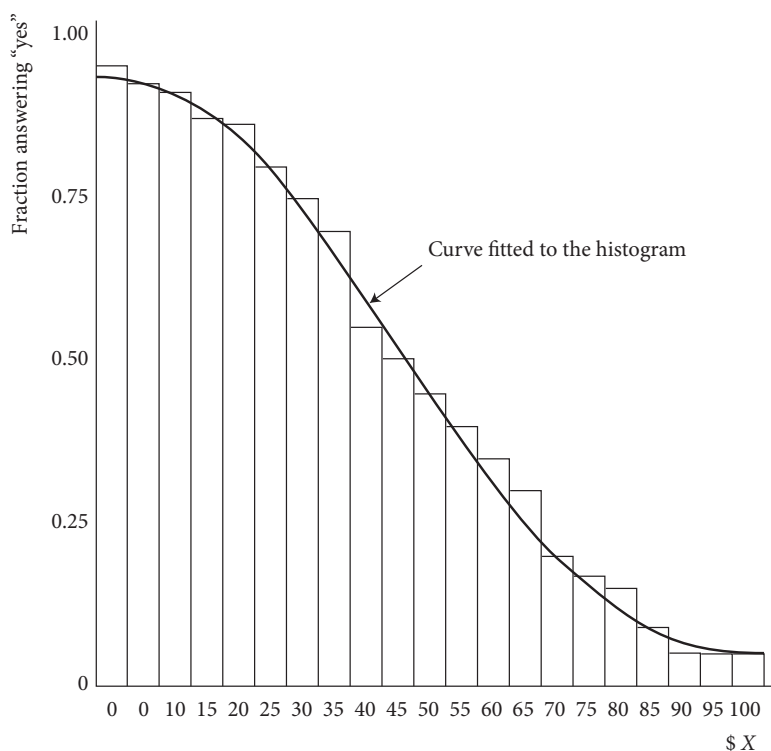


Figure 4. Histogram of Dichotomous-choice models

Source: [Boardman et al. 2001]

Nevertheless both methods are very useful to estimate the WTP and the corresponding consumer surplus. Very often they are the only alternative.

4. Cost-Benefit Analysis versus economic impact analyses

Economic impact analyses such as TSA (Tourism Satellite Account) method, National Accounts method, and I-O (input-output) method aim primarily at estimating the income and employment generation of an event, a project, additional tourism exports, etc. All these methods neglect the cost side, the positive and negative externalities and side effects. This is less the case with the CGE (computable general equilibrium) approach.

Dwyer, Forsyth and Spurr [2006] formulate the limitations of the I-O approach as follows (the same applies to other methods as well):

- Resource constraints do not exist; in other words additional resources are assumed to be unemployed with no constraints on their availability.
- Prices and costs remain fixed as economic activity expands. This means that I-O analysis excludes changes in factor and product prices which may affect employment and output of other sectors.
- There are constant ratios between inputs and output, between value added and output and there is the assumption of constant labour productivity
- Spending on new tourism products (e.g. an event) by the local population does not lead to a diversion of spending away from other goods and services.

An essential difference between CBA and CGE is the following [Vanhove 2013]. Cost-Benefit Analysis is primarily a partial equilibrium technique. It focuses on the direct impacts of a project. CGE techniques are general equilibrium. Furthermore CBA is very detailed. Unpaid and underpaid costs and benefits and side effects on complementary and competitive firms are taken into account. CGE techniques are general equilibrium but less detailed [Dwyer, Forsyth & Spurr 2006]. A CBA takes into account several costs and benefits which would not be considered in a CGE model. Dwyer and Forsyth refer to non-priced effects (e.g. noise of an event or traffic congestion) which do not get included in the markets which are modelled.

Another important difference is related to the time period covered. A tourism infrastructure project has an economic function for several decades. That is the reason why in most cases CBA takes a period of 30 years into consideration. Indeed benefits accrue during a very long period. Of course this is not the case for events. In the case of an event costs and benefits take place in the same year. This probably explains why the comparison between CBA and economic impact analyses (I-O, CGE) quite often relates to a big event.

CBA and CGE are complementary techniques. One technique picks up items that are not taken into account by the other. One of Dwyer and Forsyth's conclusions is very relevant. 'The two techniques focus on different aspects of the evaluation problem. CBA is the established technique for assessing the benefits and costs of a project, and as such, it is appropriate for an event. CGE models are the preferred technique for assessing the impact of an event on economic activity and its various dimensions such as GSP/GDP and employment'. Impact analysis and CBA become closer in case of unemployed or underused factors of production. The relative value of different methods is determined by the needs of the user and sophistication of the results required [Burgan & Mules 2001].

5. Special problems with respect to CBA

In the application of CBA we can be faced with a number of special problems. The first is risk and uncertainty. Here we take the two terms as synonymous although this is not

completely correct. Risk is inherent in all investment projects but for some projects the uncertainty might be bigger. In the tourism sector there are many projects with uncertain factors. How do we tackle risk and uncertainty? In literature, several procedures are proposed. Two have little value: risk premium to the discount rate and shortening of project life. These procedures have little value because nobody can tell us what risk premium should be taken or by how many years a project should be shortened.

We prefer to recognise that there are risks and thus recommend that two or three variants be taken for one or more cost or benefit items. The consequence of this approach is a multitude of NPVs or IRRs. However, it cannot be the intention to present 50, 100 or 200 results. Therefore, we propose to keep to three combinations:

- The most pessimistic approach. In this case the highest value is taken for each cost item and the lowest for each benefit item. If the $NPV > 0$ we obtain a positive sign in favour of the project.
- The most-optimistic approach. This uses a combination of all the lowest cost and highest benefit alternatives. An $NPV < 0$ is a negative indication against the project.
- The most likely result. Here NPV or IRR is based on a combination of all the most likely estimates of cost and benefit items.

This brings us to the sensitivity analysis [Boardman et al. 2001], with worst-and-best case analysis, the most plausible estimates and partial sensitivity. The latter is most appropriately applied to what the analyst believes to be the most important and uncertain assumptions. It can be used to find the values of numerical assumptions at which net benefits equal zero. The partial sensitivity analysis can also be applied with respect to the right choice of the discount rate.

Another approach of risk analysis is 'component analysis', based on the composition of the cost components as well as the composition of the benefit components of the NPV. Here it must be reassuring for an investor if one cost component represents 60 per cent of the NPV of the costs and there is not much uncertainty about the estimation of that item; similarly if a benefit component has a high share in the NPV of benefits and shows little risks.

Another problem are the limitations in space and time. Any project is influenced by the definition of space and time. The NPV or IRR of a project can be calculated for a resort, destination, region, county or country. The result will most probably be different with respect to the space (or area) level. Two examples make this clear. A major event, financed by the destination, can lead to important side effects which do not accrue to the inhabitants of the destination and as such cannot be considered as a benefit for the destination. However, from the national point of view these benefits should be taken into account. Another relevant example is the building of a congress centre in a city subsidized by the national government. For the city the grant means a reduction of the investment and/or operation costs but from the national point of view the subsidy should be disregarded.

Limitations in time are of a different nature. The question arises as to how long a period we should take into account in order to get a reasonable estimate of the total effect of the investment. The answer depends on many elements. The first factor is the level of the social discount rate. A high discount rate leads to a negligible NPV of a benefit accruing in 30 years or more. Other important elements include physical length of life, technological changes, emergence of competing products or projects and shifts in demand.

Final remarks

A special problem is the comparability of the profitability of a project with other projects. In most cases this is a theoretical problem; in practice there is not a similar project. A comparison of a project in one field with one in another field does not make much sense. A choice between a tourism project and an education project cannot be based on the difference in IRR; the choice is purely a political decision. It is very important to notice that a CBA can facilitate a political decision.

Sometimes it is alleged that CBA is perceived as technocratic with too much emphasis on economic efficiency. It is argued that CBA is unable to embody the socio-cultural, political factors of human existence and the complexities of ecological systems [Stabler, Papatheodorou & Sinclair 2010]. This is not completely true. Economists should focus on efficiency; public decision makers can add social considerations. Income distribution is such a social issue. Most economists cannot take income distribution into account. The latter belongs to the political level. Sustainability is not ignored in CBA. Table 1 proves this. When social and ecological factors cannot be quantified or expressed in monetary terms a qualitative table is a necessary complement.

We support the thesis of Stabler et al. [2010] “(...) the method is conceptually simple, wide ranging in its scope, well founded in economic theory, where the projected outcomes are expressed objectively in monetary terms (...)”. Within the tourism field, CBA is more and more applied. We were already confronted with CBA in the beginning of the 1970s. I applied the CBA for a congress centre in Bruges [WES 1971] and I refer to the CBA application of the French SCETO group on the famous and successful Nusa Dua tourism project in Bali.

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Renewable energy sources as a new research area in tourism¹

Abstract: The article identifies and describes a research gap in the tourism economy with regard to renewable energy sources and delineates the biggest research needs and challenges. First of all, the subject of the paper is the tourism phenomenon as a multidimensional research area. Then, the paper concentrates on the renewable energy sources (RES) market in the modern economy with particular regard to investment processes. It characterises investments and innovations in the tourism economy and presents the greatest research difficulties in this respect. The last part of the paper concerns the characteristics of a research gap in the tourism economy identified from where investments and innovations in RES meet. The summary includes effects and desired research directions related to the discussed phenomena.

Keywords: renewable energy, tourism investments, tourism innovations, research in tourism.

JEL codes: A12, E22, O13, O31, Q20, Q40.

Introduction

Modern global economic development processes show that there have been considerable changes in energy market which might imply that the third industrial revolution is underway [Jeremy 2012]. The tendency to replace fossil fuels with renewable energy carriers is likely to change many economies permanently and impact global economic processes considerably. If Germany as the biggest European economy plans to obtain 80% of their energy from renewable sources in 2050, today's EU average of 10–12% can be said to be mega-revolutionary.

Therefore, in recent years the renewable energy market has been growing at an unprecedented rate. This is related not only to modern technology development,

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but also to proposed system solutions that were originally agreed upon at EU level [REPAP 2020] and then implemented in particular member states. Poland also adopted its policy by agreeing the Renewable Energy Road Map until 2020 [Ministry 2009]. According to the EU proposals after 2020 the level of renewable energy in the EU energy mix should reach at least 20% with a target of at least 15% for Poland. Adopting the Road Map entails changes in the energy market including regulatory intervention because reaching the proposed figures would be impossible if it were not for external intervention and subsidies since renewable energy generation costs are higher than those related to producing traditional fossil fuel energy, at least for now.

Regulations for the introduction of RES will by and large relate to most economic sectors and branches [Ministry 2013]. Clearly, it will also concern the tourism economy, although impact analysis will be more complex, since the tourism economy is not a sector as indexed by the Polish Classification of Activity (PKD). At the same time, the tourism economy like RES is called a predevelopment area in the global economy. It stems not only from the scale of the phenomenon – tourism as a share of the global gross domestic product stands indirectly at almost 10% [WTTC 2012] – but also its nature – the tourism economy is based on services, information and a flexible structure [Nawrot 2012].

It must be stressed here that the projected rate of change in the modern global economy presents a challenge not only in practice but also in scientific research. The significance of the aforementioned areas means that they are the subject of numerous extensive multi-layered and interdisciplinary research studies. As much as each of these fields seems to have been explained scientifically in an adequate way, combining them may become an interesting and new research subject. A literature review conducted by the author confirms unambiguously that there is a research gap in the tourism economy to be addressed in respect of renewable energy sources, especially visible in Poland. The scarcity of knowledge and information mainly concerns development aspects, i.e. the problems of investments and innovations in the tourism economy with regard to renewable energy sources. Such a statement, however, needs to be developed and justified in order to identify research gaps in a constructive and objective way and prepare them for further research.

Therefore, the paper is an example of theoretical literature research and presents the main development trends in the tourism economy and renewable energy sources. Therefore, its aim is to identify and describe the research gap in the tourism economy with regard to renewable energy sources and pinpoint the biggest research needs and difficulties. Moreover, the paper isolates essential economic categories that are of particular interest: RES investments and innovations in the tourist market. It also aims at justifying the need to start research in these fields and conducts a literature review that will show their importance in the development of the tourism economy.

Discussion on RES as a new research area in the tourism economy should be considered in the context of basic questions about the economic reality or main functions of scientific knowledge which include [Stachak 2006]:

- Explanatory functions,
- Diagnostic functions,
- Prognostic functions,
- Practical functions.

Analysis of the particular functions enables an assessment as to whether a particular area has been researched and explained sufficiently and determines the current state of scientific knowledge in a given field.

1. Tourism as an area of scientific research

In the first place it is worth describing briefly the tourism economy from the point of view of scientific research and current research needs. Because this Journal is published for the 40th anniversary of the Tourism Department at Poznan University of Economics some statistical data will be connected with its history. In 1973, when the Department of Tourism at the Poznan Academy of Economics was set up, the number of international tourism arrivals in the world did not exceed 200 million tourists and the international tourism receipts amounted to approximately \$30 billion. In 2013, which is the Department's jubilee year, it is estimated that the number of arrivals will definitely exceed 1 billion, and the receipts will be higher than \$1.1 thousand million (Figure 1) [WTTC 2012]. It can be said that as the Department of Tourism is celebrating its 40th anniversary there is a breakthrough in the tourist market and tourism is becoming one of the most rapidly developing phenomena in the world.

Tourism as a phenomenon is of an interdisciplinary, multi-sector and multi-functional nature. There are two distinct areas of tourism impact, i.e. economic and social, but it needs to be borne in mind that the capacity of social function is extremely large and the functions often interpenetrate, hence their divisions are not homogeneous. The wide social aspect stems from the definition of tourism, according to which "in a broad sense tourism is the entirety of spatial mobility phenomena associated with a person's voluntary and temporary change of place of stay, rhythm and living environment and his or her coming into contact with the natural, cultural and social environment of the place being visited" [Przeclawski 1996, p. 30]. It is therefore possible to isolate many aspects of social and economic life which seem particularly important from the point of view of how tourism impacts the development of research activity [Alejziak 2003, 2005, Gaworecki 2007; Gołembski 2002, 2003; Wodejko 1997]: ecological, economic, educational and cognitive, cul-

tural, spatial, psychological, recreational, health-related and social, for tourism is a mass phenomenon in which almost 20% of the world population participates and the figure is bound to grow [UNWTO 2008, p. 11]. The multitude of functions and the scale of the phenomenon described earlier confirm that tourism is of interest to researchers of various scientific branches that are seemingly distant from one another, e.g. economic and medical sciences, which analyse for example the impact that a person's participation in tourism has on his or her health.

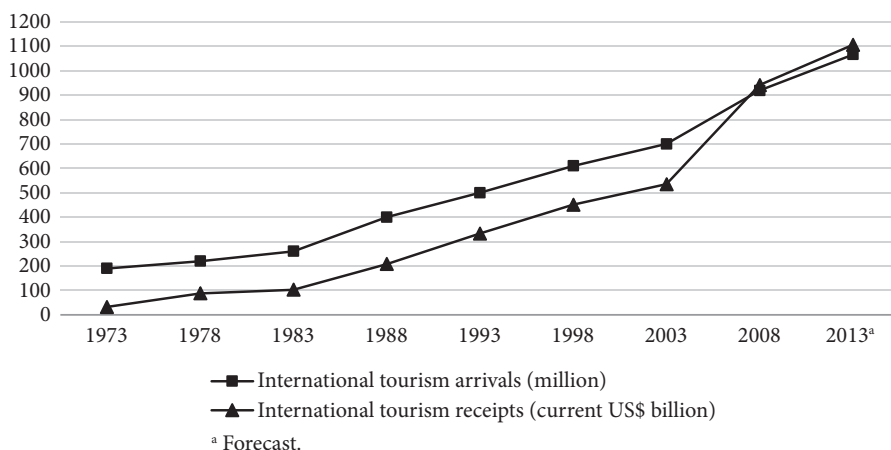


Figure 1. World tourism arrivals and growth of receipts

It is pointed out that tourism is researched in humanities and natural sciences which concentrate on economic, social, geographical, medical, psychological, philosophical and even theological issues. There are some sources that claim that research in tourism is carried out in 15 scientific disciplines [Alejziak 2005]. The paper cannot describe all of the areas because of its scope. Considering the aim of the paper, the author will pay attention mainly to social and firstly to all economic sciences. In economic sciences that generally describe efficient allocation of resources, studies of tourism concern, in practice, all levels of an economic entity:

- Global,
- Macroeconomic,
- Meso-economic – regional and branch-related,
- Microeconomic,
- Micro-micro.

These are only a few papers devoted to tourism in various levels of the economy. They also concern all three economic disciplines, namely economics, management and commodity science. Moreover, scientific research also includes a discipline called tourism economics [Wodejko 1997], which can be divided into functional

economics and thematic sections that make research more detailed. G. Gołembski [2003] isolates four thematic blocks that can be particularly used for solving current problems related to the development of tourism:

- Local economy, together with transport and logistics,
- Marketing and market analysis,
- Public and corporate finances,
- Organisation and management together with labour economics.

Therefore, it can be seen that the research interest is focused on both topics related to both the public and private spheres. Research studies include problems associated with a tourist region, companies operating in the market and demand. Research is conducted in functional and branch-related systems, with various objective, subjective, time and spatial scopes. The scale and importance of the phenomenon show its potential as an area of scientific research, although there is no consensus as to whether the topic has been exhausted or just the opposite – whether the level of scientific knowledge about tourism is sufficiently high. A detailed review of Polish research is presented in Chapter 2 by G. Gołembski.

Synthesis of all possible interactions between tourism and a chosen research area may lead one to believe that research achievements are complex and adequate, but this is not the case. Despite the high level of research activity in so many areas it can be stated that the level of knowledge about it is still insufficient and requires further research using more and more advanced methods [Alejziak 2003]. Such a state of affairs stems from several important reasons.

It needs to be highlighted at this point that there are many problems with research processes in the tourism economy which stem from its nature. It is stated that tourism is perceived as a discipline with an accentuated heterogeneous structure, which subsequently creates numerous problems. Tourism is characterised by the following features: a multifaceted and interdisciplinary aspect, diversity of forms of participation and organizational structures, flexibility and tremendous dynamics of development and strong concentration in time and space. The aforementioned features of tourism hinder research into this particular phenomenon and as a consequence tourism still remains poorly explored [Alejziak 2005].

It can therefore be concluded that research activity undertaken in the current objective scopes is still necessary. It should also be noticed that changes occurring in the modern economy create new challenges and reveal new research areas which may be of interest to tourism researchers. RES is undoubtedly one such area, the rapid development of which will have an impact on the tourism economy too. It is therefore particularly important and equally challenging to study interactions amongst the described phenomena.

The RES market, which impacts various sectors, is also characterised by a considerable degree of dispersion. This means that attempts at research into the relationship between the tourism economy are twice as difficult which explains the scarcity

of research in this respect. It can therefore be stated that despite efforts to undertake research in the field it is a relatively new research area, especially with regard to investment and innovation, which will be discussed later in the paper.

2. Renewable energy sources as fast growing multisector area in modern economy

Energy demand in the global economy is a significant challenge, especially since the increase in demand in this segment over the past 40 years has had an exponential growth. It is assumed that by 2035 energy demand will have grown by more than 30% [International 2011], which raises important concerns in the context of environmental pollution and the depletion of natural resources such as coal, oil and gas [Ligus 2010].

Renewable energy sources do not limit available resources: sun, wind, rivers or biomass. It is assumed that they remain stable and will not be depleted as long as the solar system will still work together with the Earth [Ligus 2010]. In addition, due to their renewable nature, they do not increase the share of carbon dioxide in the atmosphere which is sometimes regarded as one of the reasons for the increase in the Earth's average temperature and the associated greenhouse effect. Their use is recommended as one of the ways to reduce the negative consequences of environment exploitation and the implementation of sustainable development [Yang 2010]. In 2010 they accounted for about 8% of world energy consumption and it is assumed that this share will continue to grow to the level of 15% in 2035. What is more, total renewable energy investment reached \$257 billion in 2011, in comparison to \$220 billion in 2010 and \$161 billion in 2009 (Figure 2) [IRENA 2012]. What is crucial is that these are forecasts concerning an increase in investments in this field for the next decade. This will not be even changed by a 5% drop in RES investments in 2012. It needs to be explained at this point that the fall was mainly due to dramatically lower solar energy prices and weakened US and EU markets. What is particularly beneficial is the decrease in the prices of renewable energy installations because this means an accelerated process of implementing investments in the development of renewable energy, especially in countries with a relatively reduced purchasing power. It is even estimated that the RES market will be one of the fastest growing markets in the world and that it will impact various sectors. It is also projected that the market will have a considerable influence on the tourism economy [IRENA 2013].

The increased interest and use of renewable energy sources can also be observed in Poland. It is estimated that the share of energy produced from renewable sources in Poland amounted to about 8% of total consumption in 2010 which means 60TWh.

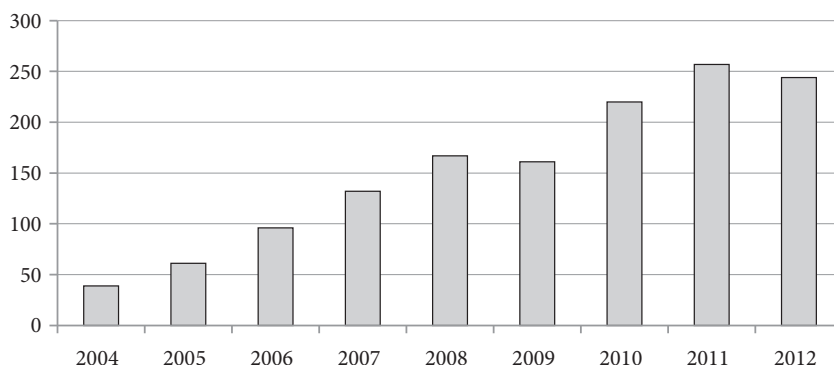


Figure 2. Global new investment in renewable energy (USD billion)

It needs to be stressed that the share will continue to grow and is estimated to reach 15% in 2020 in order to achieve the level of 20% in the European Union.

Based on current statistics it can be stated that the Polish market for renewable energy sources is not developing as fast as in other EU member states, but its growth is inevitable for several reasons:

- rising prices of traditional energy carriers prevailing in the Polish and world economies: coal, natural gas, crude oil, processed fuels, including heating oil,
- agreed targets for the use of renewable energy usage in Poland which is to amount to 15% of the share in final energy consumption. In the European Union the share is expected to stand at 20% [Ligus 2010, p.128] with the current share in Poland being 9.4%,
- a worldwide tendency to reduce the amount of greenhouse gases, including CO₂, confirmed in documents from consecutive environmental summits in Stockholm, Rio de Janeiro, Berlin, Kyoto and Johannesburg, which exerts pressure on Polish economic entities,
- financing renewable energy projects is one of the priorities of national energy economy, with additional grants from the EU which allotted 3 billion Euro only for priority 9 and 10. It should be mentioned that there are also funds from Regional Operational Programmes assigned to individual voivodeships,
- obligations with regard to the energy policy which force certain adjustments. Moreover, due to economic reasons, apart from top-down changes, bottom-up initiatives can also be expected,
- in 2013 and 2020, the cost of electricity will increase rapidly in Poland and the European Union because of the compulsory purchase of licenses for greenhouse gas emissions.

As a consequence this means investment expenditure on RES installations amounting to 27 billion Euro just in the Polish market by 2020. Considering the

fact that thousands of entities will participate in the development of the Polish renewable sources market (entrepreneurs, farmers, households), this is bound to be accompanied by relevant research both from the point of view of the consumer and the producer. The market will have a crucial entity – the prosumer, i.e. both the energy producer and consumer, especially considering the fact that a dynamic development of microinstallations and microenergetics (prosumers energetics) is projected [Instytut 2013]. Therefore, as far as the Polish renewable energy market is concerned, it is crucial to enact legislation by means of which the following aims will be achieved [Ministry 2009]:

- increasing energy security and environmental protection through, for example, efficient use of renewable energy sources,
- rational use of renewable energy sources considering the implementation of the Republic of Poland's long-term economic development policy, fulfilling obligations ensuing from international agreements and the improving innovativeness and competitiveness of the Polish economy,
- shaping mechanisms and tools for generating electricity, heat, cold or agricultural biogas in renewable energy installations,
- ensuring that end users are supplied with renewable energy, heat, cold or agricultural biogas in an optimal and sustainable manner,
- creating innovative solutions with regard to generation of electricity, heat, cold or agricultural biogas in renewable energy installations,
- creating new jobs as a result of new renewable energy installations having been commissioned,
- ensuring that agricultural and related industry by-products and waste are used for energy purposes.

First of all, the renewable energy sources act will ensure the achievement of targets related to renewable sources of energy specified in government documents adopted by the Polish Council of Ministers, i.e. Poland's Energy Policy until 2030 and the National Renewable Energy Action Plan.

Despite the scale of the phenomenon the RES market is a relatively new branch of economic activity which means that there are serious gaps in its scientific explanation and a great need for research. However, the market, like the tourism economy, is extremely challenging to examine.

Despite the development conditions the RES market is facing certain problems with regard to research that is carried out. It stems from its dispersion and multifaceted character, which means that there is a global problem with appropriate statistics in the RES market. This is the case not only in developing countries but also in those in which gathering statistical data is at the highest level. It is even believed that there are a number of areas of statistical concern that may have a growing impact on tracking the renewable share over time. Current statistics do not accurately reflect or capture the impact of [IRENA 2013]:

- traditional biomass,
- small, distributed, grid-connected power generation (e.g. small-scale PV or wind),
- off-grid and mini-grid power generation,
- direct production of solar heat (e.g. solar water heaters, solar dryers),
- differences between renewable (biogenic), waste-based fuels and other waste resources,
- the reduction of transmission and distribution losses due to distributed electricity production,
- the renewable ambient heat that heat pumps capture/transfer using small amounts of electricity,
- interregional integration of electricity or biomass trade.

Therefore, objective research difficulties will be encountered in the RES market in many areas, including the tourism economy. The question should be asked as to what research area should be of particular interest where the tourism economy and the RES market meet.

3. RES investments and innovations as a highly significant research gap in tourism

The deliberations presented above show that the next years will see a revolution in the national power industry and a breakthrough in building a renewable, energy based economy. The investment potential in the renewable power industry until 2020 amounts to 27 billion euros. According to the Institute for Renewable Energy and the renewable energy bill the share of the so-called micro-installations and microenergetics (prosumers energetics) alone may reach 10–20 billion zloty [IEO 2013]. Renewable energy producers are dispersed as opposed to those operating in the commercial power industry. Renewable energy will be developed by a great number of investors and entrepreneurs, including households, farms, agritourism farms, accommodation sites, catering facilities, transport companies and public sector entities involved in tourism development. It is also a market for dozens of installation companies, equipment producers and widely understood institutional partners (local authorities, banks, agencies), engineering and consultancy companies. It is therefore an undoubtedly innovative market of modern and intelligent electric power systems and micronetworks.

The described tendencies reveal two essential economic categories which are inextricably linked to the development of the RES market. One of them is investment which is essential for achieving the specified targets. The other is innovation since the RES market is characterised by modern technologies, specialist knowledge transfers and, last but not least, innovation diffusion. Technologies that enable the

use of renewable energy sources are modern and innovative and their use confirms that the sector's potential is innovative too. Using innovation is also associated with the implementation of investment processes which form the basis for sustained development of companies, sectors and regions. This, in turn, determines research of the RES market in the tourism economy. Therefore, it seems that further attention should be paid to the two economic categories. It happens for a reason.

In the literature of the subject issues related to investments are the basis for development economics, detailed and functional economics. Being one of the main factors behind economic growth and development investments have become the subject of deliberations in all economic trends, sectors and levels including microeconomics, mesoeconomics and macroeconomics [Hirschleifer 1970; Kamerschen, McKenzie & Nardineli 1991].

The problem of investment is also the concern of tourism industry specialists. What needs to be stressed, however, is a certain objective cognitive problem stemming from the dispersion and the heterogeneous nature of the tourism economy. It can be observed that there is a characteristic similarity to the RES market which has a certain consequence on further discussions and conclusions. Tourism investments have an exceptionally wide objective and subjective scope [Nawrot & Zmysłony 2009] and include entities operating in the private and public sectors, profit-oriented and non-profit-making investments as well as tangible and intangible projects. Therefore, the level of investment in the tourism economy in the world is approximately \$1 billion which confirms the enormous scale of this phenomenon (Figure 2) – this amount also includes RES investments, although there is no detailed information available.

For this reason research into investment in tourism requires an individual approach and it is also necessary to specify how strongly it is related to tourism which

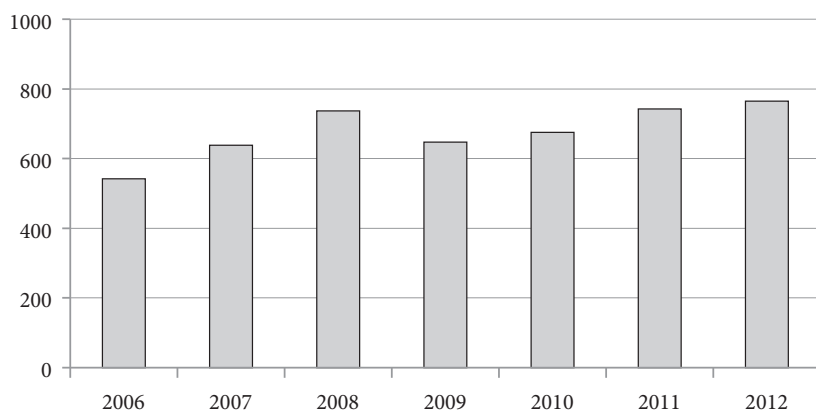


Figure 3. Tourism investments (in USD billion – nominal prices) [WTTC 2012]

determines its branch division into tourism and tourism related research. Reference literature concentrates on aspects related to programming investments, efficiency assessment and conditions of investment development in regions [Nawrot & Zmysłony 2009], international capital flow in tourism [Brown 2000; Endo 2006], and the investment impact on regional development [Forsyth & Dwyer 2003; Rosentraub & Joo 2009].

The problem of innovation is researched as often as the problem of investments which stems from the great significance attached to this economic category regarded as an additional production factor in addition to land, capital and labour, which is stated by Schumpeter and Drucker [Rogers 2003; Keller 2004]. The development of general research has resulted in extending the classic understanding of innovation as seen by Schumpeter referring to the product area and the production process to include organisation and marketing [Rogers 2003; Oslo Manual 2008]. The evolution of the definition has led to a strengthening of the development of research into the innovation diffusion process. The adaptation of the innovation theory in relation to service sectors, in turn, has stressed the role of information and knowledge in this process [Hertog 2002; Hjalager 2002; Keller 2006; Hall & Williams 2008]. This is reflected in projects related to and research into innovations in the tourism economy in which they are regarded as a major key to success that opens up new development possibilities [Poon 1993].

The development of tourism economics together with a new innovation paradigm has resulted in many works touching upon the matter meaning that it has become a global issue [Keller 2006; European Commission 2010]. At the 2003 OECD summit and the 2005 AIENT summit the problem of innovation was accepted and assumed as key to the development of tourism which triggered detailed research into the area [Keller 2004, 2006; Waiermair 2005; European Commission 2006; Hall & Williams 2008]. There are high expectations regarding innovations in the tourism economy, especially in the area of competitiveness and changes to the market structure, globalisation and tourism product life cycles as well as a new orientation of tourist regions [Keller 2004]. What is more, research works on innovation in the tourism economy tend to be specialised which seems to be a natural process with a deductive nature. One of the tendencies is to concentrate on the relationship between innovations in the tourism economy and sustainable development [UNEP 2003; Tourism 2007; UNWTO 2008; European Commission 2010; Nawrot 2012]. The problem of the use of sustainable energy in the tourism economy is becoming part of this trend. The issue has not been researched in depth yet and there is still a wide gap to be addressed as far as this is concerned.

What is important from the point of view of this paper is the fact that the problem of investment in renewable energy sources in the tourism economy is not researched very often and the existing works concentrate on identifying a range of possibilities and technical aspects [UNEP 2003; TOUREG 2010]. It needs to be

said that the regional projects mentioned do not concern many countries, including Poland. There are no results, however, relating to the level of investment, the structure of investment, the reasons why investments are made in renewable energy sources and, finally, relevant factors that hinder or increase investment demand in relation to RES in the tourism economy.

One of the few projects in which renewable energy sources and the tourism economy are researched jointly is a study under the 7th framework programme TOUREG Innovation and Tourism Knowledge. The problem of renewable energy sources, however, is not the dominant issue in the project which does not consider investment. In fact, the project mentions only groups of possibilities without considering a wider research context. When the current significance of renewable energy sources and sustainable development is taken into account, it can be stated that the existing research and cognitive gaps should be filled (Figure 4).

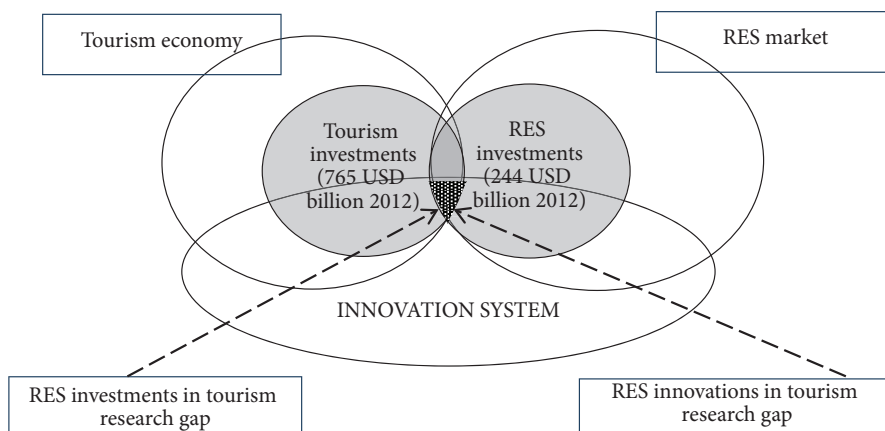


Figure 4. Renewable energy in tourism – possible research areas with regard to investments and innovations

Therefore, it needs to be said that the problem of innovation and investment in renewable energy sources in the tourism economy is new and only recognised to a small degree which means that it requires extensive research, especially in Poland. As far as this combination is concerned, the academic and practical achievements are relatively insignificant. Each of the elements as a separate issue to be researched has been looked into theoretically and empirically but the attempts to determine relationships concerning innovations and investments into renewable energy sources in the tourism economy should fill the research gap in tourism and tourism economics.

Conclusions

To summarise it should be stressed once again that renewable energy sources will be of more and more interest to Poland and the world. This will be mainly conditioned by rising prices of traditional energy carriers, Poland's obligations regarding CO₂ emission, renewable energy use indexes and subsidising the technologies, e.g. by the EU. The rapidly developing RES market will indeed have an impact on the tourism economy but the state of knowledge of the area should be regarded as insufficient, especially compared to the problem of innovation and investment. There has been no complex research as far as the suggested combination is concerned which means that researching it will fill the gap in tourism economics in the future and proves that the problem is innovative.

The paper will be followed up by research into the scope described. The legitimacy of the thematic assumptions presented in it is confirmed by the fact that they have been approved by relevant institutions in Poland². What is considered important is that the knowledge of the way in which the tourism economy operates especially in relation to its innovative potential associated with the use of natural resources in economic processes. In particular, the research gap will be filled through:

- recognising a new and, according to experts, prospective phenomenon, i.e. using RES in tourism,
- determining the volume of RES investments in the tourism economy which were of minor importance not long ago,
- examining the extent in which RES technologies are used by entities operating in the travel and tourism economy, determining the reasons behind their investment decisions in this respect and identifying factors that enhance and hinder the implementation of these decisions,
- proposing the methodology of measuring the innovation absorption capability in the area of RES in the tourism economy and creating a theoretical model to explain relationships in the market,
- developing diagrams of innovation diffusion in the tourism space.

Completing the research tasks presented will allow organised scientific knowledge of use to society to be obtained. This is the role of scientific research.

For this reason scientific research into renewable energy sources in the tourism economy seems to be extremely crucial and fulfil functions that have not been recognised so far:

² The research project supervised by the author of the paper on investments and innovations in the travel and tourism industry has been accepted and financed by the National Science Centre, Poland, under a system of financing scientific research. Detailed methodological assumptions and scientific concepts will be the subject of academic publications by the research team in the very near future.

- explanatory functions that make it possible to find and understand the state of things and phenomena occurring in the tourism economy with regard to renewable energy sources, including the investment processes occurring in the market; it is possible to recognise hidden dimensions and causes behind the state of things,
- diagnostic functions that supplement explanatory functions and that aim at explaining the cause and result relationships of discovered relations where the tourism economy and renewable energy sources meet,
- predictive functions that fit into postulate economic trends and make use of diagnostic knowledge to predict the state of things and the course of phenomena in the RES market in the tourism economy,
- practical functions that make it possible to use economic knowledge of the RES market in the tourism economy for practical purposes and the implementation of economic policies, implementing RES technologies in companies and facilitating processes of innovation diffusion in the tourism market.

To conclude it can be added that particular functions have to be implemented systematically. In other words, it is difficult to extend scientific knowledge of diagnostic or prognostic functions without fulfilling an explanatory function. It is impossible to realise the practical function of conducting an economic policy concerned with renewable sources of energy in the tourism economy without finding out about the scale of the phenomenon, investment levels and the speed of innovation diffusion. Therefore, it seems that the problems raised here will become an important research area in tourism economics and part of a trend in economic sciences and current global economy development tendencies in the future.

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Fundamentals of tourism: What makes a person a potential tourist and a region a potential tourism destination?

Abstract: The paper introduces a conceptual structural model to describe which central factors determine whether and where tourism takes place. It refers to five factors that are considered to be a prerequisite for tourism: assets, amenities (or facilities) and accessibility on the side of a potential destination, and ability and motivation to travel on the demand side. Empirical evidence is presented based on large sample population surveys in Germany of the strong influence of these five factors. Whether a person becomes a potential tourist or not depends strongly on ability and on the motivational intensity. In addition, the perception of assets, amenities, and accessibility (rated for 10 regions/countries) is essential for the selection of regions considered for the initial consideration set. Both findings support the structure and links used in the conceptual model. They thus emphasize the importance of these basic factors as fundamentals of tourism. The model is helpful in providing a basic understanding of the tourism system. Consequently, when whatever crisis may affect tourism in a source market or a destination, these basic factors should be considered.

Keywords: tourism demand factors, destination prerequisites, crisis assessment.

JEL codes: O10, R11.

Introduction

The term “Tourism” is used to describe behaviour on the one hand, and the offer enabling this behaviour or making it attractive on the other [UN 2010, pp. 9–10]. A travelling person, the tourist, and a region to which she or he travels to, the destination, are essential for tourism. There is no, and will be no tourism without one of the two factors. This paper is about these tourism prerequisites.

To have a closer look at the prerequisites for tourism may generally be considered a good idea. It seems especially important though, with the manifold factors

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affecting tourism and leading quite often (at least possibly) to a temporary crisis or persistent challenge. Here, the question is whether and how these events will put an impact on tourism. Understanding the fundamentals of tourism might be helpful in assessing the impacts.

Think of unexpected incidents (such as terrorist attacks [e.g., September 11, 2001, in the U.S.], natural disasters [e.g., the tsunami in Thailand in 2004, the tsunami in Japan in 2011, or the volcanic eruption in Iceland in 2011] or sudden pandemic diseases [e.g., different types of 'flu during the first decade of the 21st century]) or – on the other hand – of more persisting threats, such as economic destabilization in a region or country (take Greece in the years 2009 to 2012 as an example) or climate change processes. As a cross-sectional industry, tourism is greatly influenced by internal and external drivers, which include economic, environmental, political, social and technological dimensions. These driving forces form a complex global tourism system within a dynamic framework. Therefore, global tourism must adopt a specific orientation to cope with crises and challenges effectively and responsibly.

In a recent study, von Bergner and Lohmann [2013] have researched the nature of challenges for global tourism. According to their approach, a challenge may derive from key drivers originating from outside of tourism (exogenous) and/or from within the industry (endogenous). Challenges may be caused by sudden single events or by developments over time that may arise slowly or quickly. How to cope with a crisis or a challenge depends on the way(s) the specific event or process affects tourism or a part of it [Ritchie et al. 2013], as an example of a crisis [oil spill], and Scott, Hall and Gössling [2012], as an example of a challenge [climate change]). We argue that whenever one tries to understand the impacts of such an event or process on tourism one should consider the basic factors, the fundamentals of tourism, and the links between the specific event and these basic factors.

As a basis for such an understanding this paper aims at (a) identifying the elements which are necessary for a person to become a potential traveller and a region to become a potential destination and their position and relationships in a proposed conceptual scheme [Lohmann 2009b] and (b) finding some empirical evidence with respect to these elements and supporting this model. The empirical evidence is based on a large scale representative survey of the holiday travel behaviour of Germans and their tourism related attitudes, motivations and interests, the so-called Reiseanalyse [Schrader & Sonntag 2013].

1. Tourism basics

A travelling person, the tourist, and a region to which she or he travels to, the destination, are essential for tourism. Other aspects, although they might be impor-

tant, are secondary. This assumption is in line with a great deal of tourism literature [Burkart & Medlik 1981, p. 42] and with the basic definitions provided in the “International Recommendations for Tourism Statistics” [UN 2010]:

“Travel refers to the activity of travellers. A traveller is someone who moves between different geographic locations for any purpose and any duration“ (p. 9).

„A visitor is a traveller taking a trip to a main destination outside his/her usual environment, for less than a year, for any main purpose (business, leisure or other personal purpose) other than to be employed by a resident entity in the country or place visited. These trips taken by visitors qualify as tourism trips. Tourism refers to the activity of visitors“ (p. 10).

Both definitions refer to the travelling person and the place visited as the basic elements of tourism.

Quite often, however, these basic essentials are not actively presented or discussed. In some papers the importance of the person travelling and the destination is simply stated as a starting point for the argumentation [Seddighi & Theocharous 2002] or clandestinely pop up in conceptual graphs and figures [Pearce 2005, p. 17]. Our approach is to focus on these aspects actively:

- What are the necessary requirements for a normal person to become a potential holiday tourist?
- What are the necessary requirements for a normal region to become a potential destination for holiday tourism?

To this end we make use of a conceptual structural model to describe which central factors determine whether and where tourism takes place (Figure 1; for preliminary versions [Lohmann et al. 1998; Lohmann 2009b]). In defining what leads to potential demand and a potential offer in tourism, it refers to the five factors being a prerequisites for tourism: (1) ability and (2) motivation to travel on the demand side and (3) assets, (4) amenities (or facilities) and (5) accessibility on the side of the region to become a potential destination.

Assets refer to physical features, [the beauty of mountains), but may also be used in connection with some kind of event. Amenities are those essential services that tourists need such as accommodation, food and local transport. Finally, accessibility refers to the means of transportation to the destination as well as the psychological distance (‘to be reached easily’) and the possibility of booking a trip to that specific destination (distribution channels). The assumption is that a region becomes a potentially successful tourist destination (in the sense that it is able to attract a large number of tourists) only if the region is perceived by potential tourists as having all these three characteristics.

Conversely, a person becomes a potential tourist only if she/he is able to travel (usually a question of time, money and health) and has the motivation to do so.

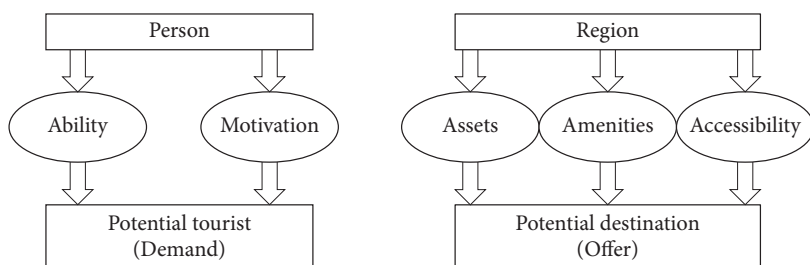


Figure 1. Tourism prerequisites

Both, ability and motivation, are fundamental for the readiness to participate in holiday travel. They are not only necessary predispositions for a person to become a potential holiday traveller but they also play an important role in determining the choice of a destination, the kind of activities during the vacation, etc.

The five factors have been identified and discussed in the literature [Burkart & Medlik 1974/1981, pp. 45–47; Holloway 1994, pp. 6–9], with respect to the destination factors [Thibault 1984, pp. 37–51], on the ability in terms of time and money as a base for leisure behaviour [Hudson 1999, p. 7; Pearce 2005, p. 51] on motivation). It is quite common to name these aspects (assets) together with their specific shape (what is it that makes destination x attractive?) when it comes to analyzing the travellers' choice process and its determinants [Seddighi & Theocharous 2002].

In Figure 2 a model is proposed, using the same concepts whilst integrating them in a broader context and framework. The model can be looked at as a “conceptual scheme” in the sense described by Pearce [2005, pp. 12–15]: It goes beyond mere statements of the observed world but it is not, however, a fully functioning theory. It may prove helpful to organize scientific information and to allocate different phenomena in tourism. The model has already been used for determining possible impacts of external factors to tourism [Lohmann 2001a] and challenges in destination management [Lohmann 2009a].

The model in Figure 2 gives (in the upper line) examples of what may lead to ability or motivation with a person or constitute assets, amenities or accessibility for a region. In addition, it provides other factors and interactive processes (communication) responsible for bringing a potential tourist and a potential destination together, resulting in factual tourism. It is here through communication that far away events can play a role and lead to a crisis in tourism. In many cases, it is the image of a region, i.e. the perception by the potential consumer that impacts a tourist's decision whether and where to travel [Hudson 1999, p. 15], providing input for the destination choice process. On this basis a potential tourist is able to assign a region from of his awareness set to his consideration set or excluded set [Um & Crompton 1999, p. 85]. The whole system is embedded in a wider general framework which includes society, economy, nature, politics, technological development etc.

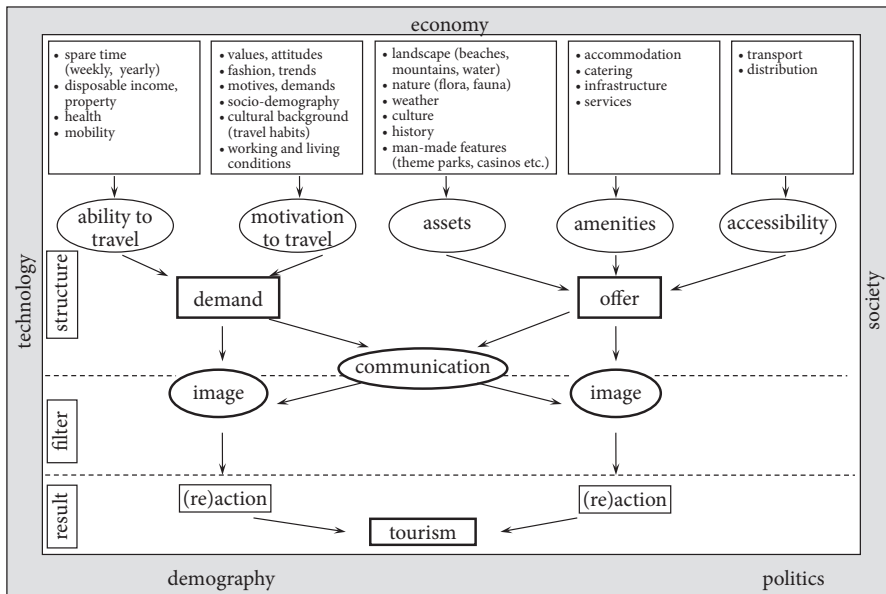


Figure 2. Conceptual scheme: tourism basics – framework and prerequisites

Undoubtedly, the model and its structure appear at least plausible. Nevertheless, given its fundamental importance, we tried to submit the five prime factors to an empirical investigation, taking the situation in Germany as an example. The aim was to check the “behavioural relevance” of these factors. Starting with the demand side, we used the data of a regular national survey on the holiday travel behaviour of Germans to define two extreme groups of consumers with very high and very low motivation and ability respectively, and took a closer look at their holiday travel intentions for the near future. So the research question here is: Do “ability” and “motivation” have a clear impact on becoming a potential tourist? Is, in a group of respondents where one of these factors is not present or on a very low level, the share of potential tourists significantly smaller compared to a group of respondents where both factors are at a high level?

In a second step, we addressed the three factors said to be important for a region to become a potential tourist destination. Again we made use of a consumer survey in Germany. The research question was, whether regions which are perceived as attractive (assets) *plus* as offering appropriate facilities (amenities) *plus* as easy accessibility (accessibility) are considered more often as a potential destination than regions, where one of these factors is not present, at least not in the consumers’ perception.

2. Demand basics – empirical investigation

The model identifies “ability” and “motivation” as basic factors which have to be present, otherwise there would be no potential tourists and hence no tourism. Motivation is an “initial point in studying tourist behaviour and beyond that for understanding systems of tourism [Pearce 2005, p. 51]. Psychologists have developed a rather fine-tuned vocabulary and a variety of concepts to describe and analyze the different aspects and facets of motivation, its intensity, reasons and directions, and its relation to action [Brehm & Self 1989]. Motivation for tourist behaviour is a multi-layered process with a hierarchical and sequential order. In this model, however, “motivation” refers only to the basic and general willingness to engage oneself in travel activities. We do not ask why, we are not interested in directions, we simply take into account if there is any motivation or not, or more precisely the intensity of this willingness to travel.

Contrary to the issue of motivation, there is no vast theoretical framework concerning the concept of ability. Tourism literature often refers to “constraints” instead of ability, thus highlighting the other side of the coin. The topics, however, are the same: time, health, money, and a political framework allowing private mobility [Lew, Hall & Timothy 2008, p. 34]. Swarbrooke & Horner [2007, p. 63] describe the same aspects as “circumstances”. Income is probably the most prominent factor affecting the ability to travel and one assumes, that the decision to travel or not to travel is strongly related to this factor [Nicolau & Más 2005, p. 51].

The model requires both, ability and motivation. Of course, a certain weakness in one aspect (ability, e.g. limited funds) can be balanced by a higher motivational intensity. But if one of the factors is not present at all, we expect the person not to be a potential tourist. In reality it would be very difficult to find a person with zero ability and/or zero motivation to travel. Therefore, for empirical testing we try to identify groups of people on both ends of the scale, i.e. respondents with a very low ability and/or motivational intensity will be compared to those with no constraints and a lot of motivational power.

For empirical testing, we use the data of a German survey, the so-called Reiseanalyse RA (travel analysis). This yearly survey is designed to monitor the holiday travel behaviour and travel-related opinions and attitudes of Germans and has been carried out annually since 1970, using the same method and a comparable set of questions in the questionnaire [Schrader & Sonntag 2013; Lohmann 2001b]. The survey is organised by the FUR, Forschungsgemeinschaft Urlaub und Reisen e.V., Kiel, an independent non-profit organisation of domestic and international users of tourism research in Germany (www.reiseanalyse.de). Data is based on face-to-face interviews with a representative sample (German-speaking population aged 14 years and above, living in private households in Germany) of more than 7,500 respondents, the interviews being carried out in January 2013. The sample

is randomly selected in several steps. In addition to the face-to-face interviews, in November 2012 a representative sample of n= 2,500 was interviewed in an online-survey (here referred to as “RAonline 11/2012”).

The central factors influencing possible demand (independent variables) have been defined within the framework of the Reiseanalyse 2013 as follows:

- High ability = respondents (rs) with a monthly household net income of 5000 Euro or more
- Low ability = rs with a monthly household net income up to 1000 Euro
- High motivation = rs interested in visiting more than 10 foreign destinations
- Low motivation = rs not interested in visiting any foreign destinations.

With the help of these variables we analyze two groups, one which has both high ability and high motivation to travel and another, where at least one of these variables is lacking.

The status of a potential tourist has been defined by the expressed holiday travel intentions in January 2013 for the rest of the year. Those definitely planning a trip are considered to be a potential traveller (dependent variable).

Results are displayed in Table 1. The share of potential travellers with a definite travel intention for 2013 is significantly larger in the high ability + high motivation group compared with the group of rs with low or no motivation or ability.

Table 1. Holiday travel intentions and ability (income) and motivation (destination interest) to travel

	Total pop. (Germans 14 years+)	rs stating	
		high ability ^a + high motivation ^c	low ability ^b and/or low motivation ^d
n =	7815	102	97
Holiday travel intention ^e n (%)	4260 (54.9%)	79 (77.8%)	14 (14.0%)
chi ² =30,53; df = 1; p = <0,001			

rs = respondents

^a High ability = rs with a monthly household net income of 5000 Euro or more.

^b Low ability = rs with a monthly household net income up to 1,000 Euro.

^c High motivation = rs interested in visiting more than 10 foreign destinations.

^d Low motivation = rs not interested in visiting any foreign destinations.

^e Holiday travel intention = rs definitely planning a holiday trip in 2013.

Database: [FUR 2013; RA 2013].

We find the same picture in the currently available data set of the RA *online* 11/2012, a survey carried out in November 2012 which included questions related to expectations about the personal situation and holiday travel plans for the coming

year. In this case the sample is smaller, but the possibilities to define groups rather close to the conceptual scheme in the model are better due to different questions (referring directly to time and money as ability factors) in the survey. On the basis of this dataset we define:

- Ability = rs expecting to have sufficient financial means and time to travel next year
- No Ability = rs expecting to have either no sufficient financial means or no time (or both) to travel next year
- Motivation = rs already in November joyfully anticipating next year's holiday trip
- No Motivation = rs in November not no pleasure in anticipating next year's holiday trip.

With the help of these variables we again analyze two groups, one of which has both the ability and the motivation to travel and another, where at least one of these variables is lacking. The status of a potential tourist here has been defined by the expressed holiday travel intentions in November 2012 for the coming year. Again, the results in Table 2 show that the share of potential tourists is significantly and much larger in the ability + motivation group (98% vs. 50%). However, the share of 50% potential tourists in the no-ability or no-motivation group is still quite high. This may indicate that the post-hoc operationalization of this group out of the data of this survey has its limits, especially with regard to motivation.

Table 2. Potential tourist share and ability and motivation to travel

Number of cases/%	Total pop. (German speaking, 14–70 years)	rs stating	
		ability ^a + motivation ^c to travel	no ability ^b and/or no motivation ^d to travel
n =	2514	909	214
Potential Tourists ^e n (%)	2062 (82,0%)	891 (98.0%)	107 (50.0%)
chi ² = 28,58; df = 1; p = <0,001			

rs = respondents.

^a Ability = respondents (rs) expecting to have sufficient financial means and time to travel next year.

^b No ability = rs expecting to have either no sufficient financial means or no time (or both) to travel next year.

^c Motivation = rs already in November joyfully anticipating next year's holiday trip.

^d No motivation = rs in November not joyfully anticipating next year's holiday trip.

^e Potential tourists = rs expecting to go on at least one holiday trip in the next year and already have a definitive idea either about the destination or about the organisation of the trip.

Database: [FUR 2013: RA 2013 – RA online 11/2012].

Further analysis of this data is still ahead, looking e.g. for the effects of different combinations of ability and motivation, for different ways to operationalize the two

concepts within the framework of a survey and the questionnaire, and for related factors which may be responsible for a low/high ability and motivation. So far we can note that the data strongly support the relations assumed in the model.

Of course, this empirical approach has its limits and raises a lot of points for discussion. Just to name some of them:

- We are not able to identify absolute non-motivation or non-ability respondents in the sample (which in theoretical terms would be crucial).
- The operationalisation for ability and motivation is rather narrow and does not provide a complete picture, e.g. regarding ability we did not look at the aspects of health
- Social influences may modify decisions and thus the status of a potential traveller [low motivation of an individual may be compensated by a high motivation from his spouse).

Nevertheless, we can already state that being a potential holiday traveller strongly depends on the factors of ability and motivational intensity. This supports the conceptual scheme of the tourism basics. We leave the open questions and discussion points for further research.

3. Destination basics – empirical investigation

The model (Figure 2) states, that the “prime factors” constituting “the tourist qualities of a destination” [Burkart & Medlik 1974, p. 46] assets, amenities, and accessibility (the three “a”) are necessary, indispensable prerequisites for a region to become a potential tourism destination. Looking at the fundamental character of this assumption an empirical investigation should be the ‘natural’ next step to take. Our research question here is, whether the selection of regions admitted to the initial consideration set [Um & Crompton 1999, p. 85] of a potential tourist depends on the perceived realisation of the three “a” in a given country or region.

In a representative survey of the German population respondents were asked in face-to-face interviews to assess ten countries/regions with respect to the total assets (labelled as attractiveness – “attracts me as a destination for holidays”), the amenities (“offers facilities for tourists which I like when on holiday”), and accessibility (“is accessible without problems for me”). Respondents could also state, that none of these factors are appropriate for a given country or that they simply have no idea about this region. The list of countries represents a rather broad variety of destinations in order to stimulate different ratings: Austria, Belgium, Hawaii, Mallorca, Poland, Schleswig-Holstein (one of the German federal states ‘Länder’ in the north), Sweden, South Africa, South Korea, and Thuringia (another German federal state, in central Germany). The assessments were taken as independent variables.

Furthermore a as dependent variable, the respondents stated, in which of these countries they spent a holiday within the last five years (= behavioural relevance) or want to do so in the coming five years (consideration set). The survey has been carried out with a representative sample of n = 1.000 Germans aged 14 years or older, living in private households, in January 2000. Some of the results have been reported earlier [Lohmann 2009b].

In line with the literature and the model the expectation is that if these three aspects / features of a region are really important, people should prefer those destinations which they consider attractive, with appropriate facilities, and accessible to those which do not fulfil these requirements. Furthermore all three features must come together, if a single one lacks, the destination will have a significantly lower probability of being part of the consideration set. Thus, for a given country we will compare two groups: (1) rating the destination “a+a+a” and (2) rating the country a “one or two a” destination. We expect group (1) to have a higher preference for the destination than group (2). We do not research here what it is that makes a region attractive, what the right amenities are and what really constitutes accessibility. We simply concentrate on the perceived realisation of these factors.

The data allows a ranking of destinations with respect to the three prime factors (Sweden is more attractive than Hawaii; Austria ranks best in amenities; Belgium is more easily accessible than South Africa) and derived calculations. It also turned

Table 3. Perceived features of a region and behavioral relevance and consideration set – the case of Majorca (Mallorca)

in %	Total pop. (Germans 14 years+) (n = 1000)	rs rating Majorca	
		a+a+a ^a (n = 120)	one or two “a” ^b (n = 529)
Have been there with- in the last five years	19,0	37,3	25,6
		chi ² = 7,004; df = 1; p = 0,00	
Will most probably go there within the next five years	13,0	29,4	17,2
		chi ² = 8,95; df = 1; p = 0,00	

rs = respondents.

^a Majorca perceived as attractive, as offering appropriate facilities, and as easily accessible.

^b Majorca perceived as having max. two out of the three features.

Database: representative survey in Germany, n = 1000.

Source: [Lohmann 2009b].

out that with regard to some countries (South Korea, Belgium) many Germans simply do not have any idea whether these basic factors apply or not.

With respect to the actual research question we have analysed the data for Austria, Majorca and Schleswig-Holstein. As the results for all of these three countries showed the same pattern, we take Majorca as a *pars-pro-toto* example (tab. 3). Respondents who put Majorca into the “a+a+a”-category are more interested in spending a holiday there (and in fact have done so more often within the last years) than those who rate the same country a one or two “a” destination (let alone those, who see none of the three prime factors realised in this country). In addition, but not visible in the table: for respondents rating Majorca “a+a+a” the island is the most preferred destination out of the ten presented. And: respondents rating Majorca as a “no a” destination do not want to spend a holiday there at all.

Given the great number of possible holiday destinations (many of our respondents identified more than one destination as offering a+a+a) it is reasonable to assume that even a country offering all three features will not “automatically” be visited by all those seeing the prerequisites realised. In addition, other aspects of other destinations (prices) or personal motivation (curiosity to explore something new) may influence the consideration set at different stages and the factual destination choice.

As with the demand side empirical approach, a lot of work for an in-depth analysis lies also ahead here, too. But we can clearly see that the three “prime factors” constituting “the tourist qualities of a destination” do significantly influence destination choice preferences. In tourism these prime factors are of utmost relevance, but quite often their role is underestimated or completely overlooked.

Discussion

A travelling *person*, the tourist, and a *region* to which she or he travels to, the destination, are essential for tourism. This paper tried to identify the factors necessary, the prerequisites, for a person to become a potential traveller and for a region to become a potential tourist destination. A conceptual model was proposed, focusing on two factors (ability and motivation) for the demand side and three factors (assets, amenities, and accessibility) for the region (tourism offer).

We have presented some empirical evidence based on large sample population surveys in Germany for the strong influence of these five factors. According to the data, whether a person becomes a potential tourist or not, strongly depends on time and money (“ability”) and on motivational intensity (“motivation”). Both factors must be present; otherwise it is quite unlikely that a person turns into a potential tourist. On the other hand, whether a region is considered a potential destination for tourism depends on the perception of assets (attractiveness), amenities, and ac-

cessibility. Both findings support the concepts and structure used in the conceptual model. They thus emphasize the importance of these basic factors as fundamentals of tourism.

The model in turn is helpful in providing a basic understanding of the tourism system. In respect of the variety of possible internal and external drivers of global tourism, obviously, the consideration of the basic factors depicted in the conceptual model is important. It helps to sort things and aspects, and it comes it is very useful for impact analysis [Lohmann 2001a].

Why did international tourism in the world did not collapse totally after the events of 9/11 in 2001? Because the effects of the shocking terror attacks in the USA barely impacted the basic requirements for tourism on the demand side (ability and general motivation) for most of the international source markets. Of course, people around the world were very concerned and shocked, but it did not affect their private income, their health and their interest to spend a good time in the sunshine. On the other hand, the three basic factors for regions remained the same, except for some destinations in the USA for a limited time span in autumn 2001.

Thus, when facing sudden events like political crises or natural disasters or long-term developments like an ageing society or climate change, the conceptual model points out where to look for possible impacts. Just a few examples:

- The algae plaque in the Adriatic Sea in 1989 [Dall’Aglio & Gasperoni 1991] has been quite a challenge for tourism on the north eastern shores of Italy. It hit tourism by affecting one of the basic *assets* of a seaside destination, the quality of the water and the beach. Holiday tourism demand in general in important source markets like Germany has not been affected, but the impact could be measured in the region affected (reduced number of tourists and over-nights). In line with the conceptual model, communication played an important role, as potential tourists learned about the algae plaque through the media and considered this information in their decision process [Danielsson 1996].
- In 2004 a tsunami in Indonesia and Thailand destroyed most of the touristic infrastructure of the western coastline and bordering regions. In this case, for the regions affected all of a sudden the basic destination factors, mainly *amenities*, were no longer present. Consequently, the number of arrivals and overnights in the area decreased instantly [UN-Thailand 2006, p. 18]. General holiday demand in the source markets remained unaffected. As soon as the three “a’s” were back again, tourism in Thailand made a restart.
- The financial or economic crisis in the world and in Europe at the end of the last decade in 2008/2009 had the power to influence one of the basic requirements on the demand side: the *ability* to travel. In Germany, this crisis was at first felt by rather wealthy people. Their ability to travel was not really affected, thus, and total demand did not go down to a huge extent. Nevertheless, the reduced ability was visible in the time series data of German holiday behaviour: The demand for

less expensive holidays and domestic or nearby destinations increased; average holiday travel expenditure per trip/person went down from Euro 834 in 2008 to Euro 820 in 2009 [Sonntag & Aderhold 2010, pp. 5–6].

- International tourism to Egypt declined following the “Arab spring” and the years of unrest and instability since them. One reason here may be reduced *availability*: air carrier and tour operators cut capacities, cruise line operators avoided ports of call in Egypt preceding a possible decline in demand. In addition, *communication* processes has lead nowadays to an image as an insecure destination with potential customers. Thus, tourism in the whole country declined [Nassar 2012, p. 172]. Referring to our conceptual model, one may argue that, given the assets of Egypt as a destination and the up-to-date amenities in parts of the country, tourism will make a quick recovery once the accessibility issue has been solved and the communication of security problems has stopped.

These few examples have shown the usefulness and the usability of the conceptual model as presented in Figure 2 as a tool for a first assessment of possible impacts in a crisis or with respect to a long-term development. Along with that it may be used as a guideline for further research in a given context of a specific event.

With the knowledge of the basic framework and prerequisites the impact of upcoming known challenges can be estimated by e.g. a destination in advance. The identification of the essential factors of the tourism product and the awareness of possible threats may be a main competitive advantage in tourism as strategies to cope with major consequences can be prepared.

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The quality of work life in competitive potential development in the tourism industry: A conceptual model and research propositions¹

Abstract: In order to be able to deal successfully with the challenges of increased competition tourism enterprises have to take measures to acquire adequate labour resources and to maintain a sustainable competitive advantage based on these resources. The aim of the paper is to create a conceptual model explaining relations between the quality of work life and competitive potential in the tourism industry. It is argued that the quality of work life, which is measured as a discrepancy between expectations towards work and its perceptions, is affected by individual and organisational factors, whilst its influence on competitive potential is moderated by individual characteristics and local labour market conditions. **Keywords:** quality of work life, human resources, competitive potential, tourism industry. **JEL codes:** J24, J28, L83.

Introduction

Changes taking place in the contemporary tourism market concern both demand and supply – customers' rising expectations are accompanied by an increasing competition within the sector. As a result the tourism market is already a buyer's market and acquiring and maintaining a competitive advantage is more and more difficult. In order to deal successfully with the challenges of increased international competition and many new emerging consumer preferences the organisations in the industry have to seek new sources of competitive advantage.

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The fastest growing economic activity, a significant element of international business trading, a leading factor of local and regional development, a leading employer – these are terms often used by academics in the field of the economics of tourism [Alejsiak 2000; Gołembski 2002]. At the same time certain researchers dealing with these problems draw attention to challenges that are faced by contemporary tourism companies and which the organisations have to handle in the process of competing for production factors, especially labour resources [Keller 2004; Baum 2007]. The limited competitiveness in the labour market stems from the nature of demand by tourists, especially the time concentration which results in a fluctuation of demand for the labour force and also from the activity dispersion which is demonstrated through the dominance of small enterprises [Bednarska 2012]. Under these conditions the efficient competition for employees is hindered.

The aim of the paper is to create a conceptual model explaining relations between the quality of work life and competitive potential in the tourism industry. It also puts forward research propositions concerning determinants of possibilities of acquiring labour resources and maintaining a sustainable competitive advantage based on these resources by tourism enterprises. Although it is generally recognised that human capital is the foundation of competitiveness in the modern economy there is a notable gap in the literature regarding links between tourism-related work quality and competitive potential. The paper opens by giving an insight into the concept of the quality of work life, its theoretical background and consequences. The second section is devoted to reviewing the literature on the sources of competitive advantage and the labour market in tourism. From this the research model is developed. Finally the overall implications and recommendations for future research are proposed and the main conclusions reached are summarised.

1. Quality of work life – background and consequences

Quality of work life is a multi-faceted concept that encompasses both subjective (individual) and objective (organizational) criteria [Martel & Dupuis 2006; Green 2006; Gallie 2009] and it stems from the way in which employees perceive entities that offer work. Based on, amongst other things, their previous experience and personal needs, employees form their expectations for work and the possibility of fulfilling them is the basic criterion for choosing their employer. When it comes to the evaluation of potential employers, job seekers' perceptions are affected by the industry in which company operates [Cable & Graham 2000]. Thus, companies must be aware of inter-organizational interdependence which influences their reputation due to spill-over effects [Barnett & Hoffman 2008].

The considerations on quality of work life are conceptually supported by several socio-economic theoretical models specifically signalling theory, search and matching theory, stakeholder theory and expectancy theory.

Spence's signalling theory (1973) suggests that the labour market is characterised by information asymmetry and, consequently, hiring decisions are taken under uncertainty. Prior to commencing a job a potential employee cannot assess the quality of working conditions, nor is an employer sure of the capabilities of an individual at the time he hires him [Spence 1973]. Given the long-term implications of employment contracts for the employee and the employer both parties are motivated to reduce this information asymmetry and minimize the risk of adverse selection. Thus it is in the best interests of a potential employee to find out as much as they can about a prospective employer and for a prospective employer to signal to the labour market their competencies and characteristics. In other words because job choice takes place under imperfect information, job seekers interpret available data as signal about the working conditions in the organization and use them to assess the appropriateness of the employer.

Mortensen & Pissarides's search-matching theory (1994) reflects the permanence of the mismatch between supply and demand in the labour market. The mismatch is a result of costs incurred by both parties to find appropriate job opportunities and appropriate candidates to fill vacancies. Labour market equilibrium strongly depends on the intensity with which workers search for and on their decision when to accept a job offer [Mortensen & Pissarides 1994]. Information about job quality definitely affects the matching process between employees and employers.

Freeman's stakeholder theory (1984) implies the existence of a duty to all groups and individuals with a legitimate 'stake' in the activities of the firm – not only to the shareholders who own the enterprise in the financial sense [Ewing et al. 2002]. It suggests that companies must be responsive to the competing demands of those who can affect or are affected by the achievement of the organization's objectives. There seems to be a general consensus that employees are a key stakeholder group who co-operate with customers, suppliers and other stakeholders to co-create value. Like each group of stakeholders employees represent interests of intrinsic value and they merit consideration for their own sake and not merely because of their ability to further the interests of some other group [Donaldson & Preston 1995].

Vroom's expectancy theory (1964) postulates that an individual's behaviour is influenced by a multiplicative combination of a person's subjective assessment that effort will lead to specific outcomes and the extent to which the outcomes are valued. In line with the expectancy theory total motivation to join an organisation as an employee is as much a function of the calculated attractiveness of an organisation (itself the function of beliefs about the firm's attributes and the importance of each attribute) and the applicant's evaluations of the likelihood of being offered a position in that organization [Knox & Freeman 2006].

Perception of the quality of work life is of great importance both at a micro- and macroeconomic level. Favourable employment conditions give rise to high internal work motivation and satisfaction, high quality and productivity in work performance, low staff absenteeism and turnover. Consequently they lead to an enhancement of productivity from allocated resources and an improvement of the financial outcomes of enterprises [Heskett et al. 1994; Grönroos 1994]. Subjective satisfaction with the work experienced by individuals can cause a higher productivity of the whole economy through stimulating the creativity and innovativeness of workers. It also affects the decision of the workforce to enter, stay with or leave certain sectors, therefore it induces structural changes in the economy [Bukowski 2010].

2. Research rationale

Competition is omnipresent which means that it is a necessity to create and protect competitive advantages [Godziszewski 2006]. Amidst rising competition in the tourism market and rapid changes in the expectations of customers tourism companies are also forced to intensify their activity in relation to producing and safeguarding competitive advantages. Competitive advantage became the focal point of extensive research as the resource-based view appeared [Prahalad & Hamel 1990; Barney 1991], although the reasons why business entities succeed were also examined by the positioning school [Porter 1985].

According to the resource-based view of the firm reasons why a company reaches a competitive advantage can be found within the company itself and are viewed as the competitive potential. It describes a company's relative ability to compete in the future (where 'relative' is understood as 'the one referring to competitors' ability) [Gorynia 2002]. The competitive potential of business entities generally includes their tangible and intangible resources which are indispensable for the entities to be able to operate in a competitive market [Stankiewicz 2005].

The reference literature has two main trends in discussions on competitiveness in the tourism industry – on the meso- and micro-level. In the literature concerning tourist destinations the causes of gaining a competitive advantage are mainly thought of as environmental and anthropogenic values and tourist infrastructure as the determinants of an area's tourist attractiveness [Dwyer & Kim 2003]. In relatively few models the importance of human resources is stressed as a reason for gaining a competitive advantage [Poon 1993; Ritchie & Crouch 2003]. The researchers claim that the major causes of tourist companies gaining a competitive advantage are: human resources [Canina, Walsh & Enz 2006], knowledge [Haas & Hansen 2004], innovations [Simonceska 2010], technology [Bilgihan et al. 2011], locali-

sation [Dubé & Renaghan 1999], relations with other entities [Rodríguez-Díaz & Espino-Rodríguez 2006].

Each business entity, regardless of its organisational and legal frame or type of activity undertaken, aims at acquiring, processing and using resources to satisfy specific social needs. Specific resources and abilities that enable the entity to maintain a competitive advantage in the future are called strategic resources [Schoemaker & Amit 1997]. They ensure the entity's sustainable uniqueness and, as a result, a sustainable competitive advantage [Oblój 2007]. A company's success in the market is dependent on whether it has properly selected tangible and intangible resources and whether it is able to use them innovatively and efficiently. This means that the source of a competitive advantage is the combination of exceptional abilities and resources which help create a value for a customer [Evans, Campbell & Stonehouse. 2003]. At present it can be noticed that there is a marked increase in the significance of intangible resources because advantages based on tangible elements of a product are easily copied [Nonaka, Toyama & Nagata 2000]. The advantages include labour resources which have abilities and competences that can be viewed as autotelic [Zajac 2008]. With a rising significance of services it is the employees' qualifications, motivation and efficiency that is key in creating the competitive advantage of business entities.

One of the most essential features of economic activity in tourism is high labour intensity. This stems from the dominant share of services in tourism and travel-related activities, especially simultaneous services which are susceptible to the human factor being substituted for the capital factor to a small degree [Kusluvan 2003]. An entity that wishes to conduct business activity in the tourism market and compete with other entities effectively must make sure that it has an appropriate number of employees and that the employees are committed and have proper vocational qualifications. Only if these conditions are met are companies able to carry out their tasks at a proper level and meet tourists' rising expectations. The ability to acquire and maintain suitable labour resources is mainly dependent on the quality of employment offered by a particular business entity. Employees who are sufficiently satisfied with their working conditions are loyal to their company and their attitudes and behaviour are conducive to providing a high level of service as well as maintaining a positive and sustainable rapport with the buyers which translates into optimizing the company's profitability [Heskett et al. 1994; Van Looy et al. 2003].

The long-lasting success of tourism organisations is conditioned by the attraction of well-educated, motivated and committed people who experience job satisfaction [Roney & Öztin 2007]. As can be seen in the previous research works attracting and keeping such competent employees in tourism presents a considerable challenge [Keller 2004; Richardson 2009]. In line with the concept of the dual labour market in which employment is divided into the primary and secondary sector [Doeringer & Piore 1971], employment in tourism is characterised by numerous features typical of the secondary labour market [Jameson 1998]. The sector offers jobs that are

not very attractive and that do not have social prestige, working conditions are not stable and do not provide job security, very often employees are offered short-term employment contracts, part-time jobs or civil-law contracts which means that employment is temporary and employees' interests are not sufficiently represented. The secondary sector offers low pay, few fringe benefits, limited professional development prospects and slim promotion chances [Smandek 1993]. It has very often been diagnosed that the work is low paid, does not require high qualifications, is related to a low social status and does not bring satisfaction [Barron et al. 2007; Roney & Öztin 2007].

Another particular problem that tourism organisations face is a high employee turnover [Riley, Ladkin & Szivas 2002; Walsh & Taylor 2007]. A barrier to creating a competitive advantage based on human resources is the negative perception of tourism industry as employer [Wood 2003; Bednarska & Olszewski 2010]. As a result work in tourism is treated as an initial and transitional stage of someone's professional career and not an opportunity for long-term career development [Jiang & Tribe 2009].

The low attractiveness of business entities as employers creates difficulties in attracting and keeping the best employees which may lead to the deterioration of the competitive potential. The studies conducted of the literature and empirical research show that employees' negative attitude may be the cause of the difficulty in acquiring and keeping indispensable labour resources in the tourism industry [Hausknecht, Rodda & Howard 2009]. That means that only when organisations work towards identifying employees' expectations and then strive to meet these expectations can they hope to successfully compete in attracting and retaining the best available candidates and in acquiring and maintaining a competitive advantage in the tourist market.

3. Conceptual framework

In the light of the literature review on sources of competitive advantage and the labour market in tourism what appears interesting is the research problem expressed in the following question: what is the ability of the tourism industry to compete for labour resources and to create a sustainable competitive advantage in the contemporary market and what are the determinants of this ability? In order to clarify the main problem five detailed questions have been posed:

- what are the expectations of actual and prospective employees towards tourism enterprises as employers?
- how are tourism organizations perceived as employers?
- is there a mismatch between expectations of employees concerning working conditions and perceptions of these conditions in the tourism labour market?

- what factors impact the differences of the level and structure of a possible mismatch?
- what moderating factors influence the strength of a relationship between the quality of work life and the competitive potential in the tourism industry?

The authors argue that because of the inherent features of the tourism industry its ability to obtain and maintain a sustainable competitive advantage based on human resources is limited, which stems from the low quality of work life understood as a mismatch between the expectations of actual and prospective employees towards working conditions and the perception of these conditions. Based on the discussion the following propositions are developed:

P1: The quality of work life in tourism influences the competitive potential of tourism enterprises.

P2: The strength of a relationship between the quality of work life and the competitive potential is moderated by individual characteristics and the local labour market conditions.

P3: The quality of work life is affected by individual and organisational factors. The aforementioned propositions are summarised in the following conceptual model.

On the basis of literature studies it is assumed that the ability to compete for labour resources is influenced by the quality of work life in the tourism industry. The

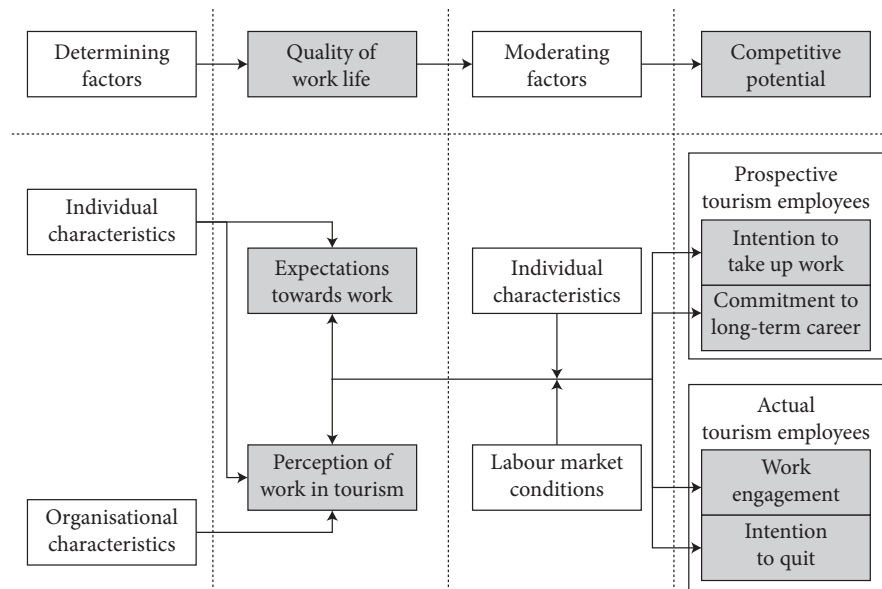


Figure 1. Conceptual framework of relations between the quality of work life and competitive potential in the tourism industry

measure of work quality is a mismatch understood as a discrepancy between expectations of actual and prospective employees concerning working conditions and perceptions of these conditions.

In the model the competitive potential is seen as the ability to acquire and maintain labour resources. The dimensions are specified through:

- the propensity to take up work in the tourism industry (prospective employees),
- the propensity to develop a long-term career in the tourism industry (prospective employees),
- work engagement (actual employees),
- loyalty towards their employers (actual employees).

Moreover four groups of potential factors which affect the competitive potential in the tourism industry directly or indirectly have been specified. Two of them determine the quality of work life (by impacting perceived employment conditions or expectations); the other two assess the strength of relations between the work quality and the competitive potential. Next, each group is assigned with a list of variables subject to measurement:

- job and organisational attributes that are the basis for determining work quality
 - job content, economic benefits, development opportunities, social relations, reputation;
- organisational factors influencing the way in which work conditions are perceived
 - size, level of internationalisation, chain affiliation, ownership and management relations and type of services offered;
- local labour market conditions that impact the work quality-competitive potential relations – alternative possibilities for taking up employment;
- individual characteristics that determine both the quality of work life (the expectations towards and the perceptions of working conditions) and the relations between the work quality and the competitive potential – sex, age, the person's and their family's professional experience.

4. Discussion and implications

Due to the knowledge gap in research into the ability to compete for labour resources and to subsequently gain a sustainable competitive advantage in the tourism industry on a micro- and meso-level, this paper develops a model explaining the relations between the quality of work life and the competitive potential. The discussion includes both a meso- and micro-economic perspective, which means that the results of the investigation may not only contribute to the development of science but also to obtaining better performance outcomes by tourism companies.

The previous research on work quality in tourism included actual employees' perspectives [Qu, Ryan & Chu 2001; Kandasamy & Ancheri 2009] or students' (as prospective employees) perspectives [Richardson 2009; Jiang & Tribe 2009]. Furthermore most of the studies were limited to one university or one company. There has been no complex research, however, in which opinions of these two groups are considered jointly and in which entities representing the whole country are included.

The research areas including industry competitiveness, human resources as a source of competitive advantage and quality of work life in tourism have not been thoroughly and comprehensively explored in Polish and foreign literature. The greatest value of the proposed model stems from a combination of these issues and referring them to particular conditions in which entities operate in the tourism industry. The realisation of the research will therefore make a significant contribution to the current knowledge of tourism economics, especially when it comes to the competitive potential of the tourism industry and behaviours of entities operating in the resources market. The study will contribute to personnel economics which has emerged as a significant subfield of labour economics – this line of research considers interactions between a firm and workers and seeks to explain the human resources and internal labour market practices of organizations from an optimization perspective. It focuses on matching firms and workers and its consequences for an organisation's performance [Lazear & Shaw 2007].

By investigating the research propositions developed in the paper it will be possible to:

- determine the hierarchy of expectations for employment conditions and their degree of diversification,
- diagnose the way in which working conditions in the tourism industry are perceived and create a ranking of job attributes,
- measure the discrepancy between expectations concerning working conditions and perceptions of these conditions which, as a result, will enable the determination of the work quality,
- measure the impact of factors that represent the level of a mismatch,
- identify factors that effect the relation between the quality of work life and the competitive potential.

Reaching the assumed goals will also make it possible to carry out further research and make comparisons across sectors (by extending the subjective scope) and internationally (by extending the spatial scope). In addition the research is also important for economic policy because it is in line with European Union's Europe 2020 headline targets to create the conditions for a more competitive economy with higher employment. Besides which it highlights shared values leading to the improvement in the quality of life for the of whole society.

Conclusions

It is generally assumed that the only value that cannot be replicated by the competitors and that provides a real, exceptional and sustainable advantage over others is people [Wright, McMahan & McWilliams 1994]. The role of the service provider in the consumer's perception of the service organisation is paramount. This is particularly so in tourism companies where the visitor experience is based to an enormous extent on interaction with employees. By adapting to individual customer requirements and enabling the co-creation of a personalised service experience the staff has the potential to influence the perceived value of offerings. High job satisfaction obtained by employees is the prerequisite for high satisfaction obtained by customers. It contributes to staff engagement, loyalty, willingness to invest in firm-specific human capital, service effort and customer orientation, hence it adds to the quality of human assets.

Although it is recognised that human capital is the foundation for raising the competitiveness of tourism companies in the modern economy there are relatively few empirical studies on the quality of work life in tourism. The present conceptual framework attempts to address this gap – the realisation of the research and verification of proposed model will contribute to existing knowledge in the scientific field of economics and its specialist subfields: tourism economics, economics of enterprise and labour economics. The importance of such an investigation is paramount given the strategic role that tourism employees play in sustaining competitiveness in the marketplace.

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The role of culture in building regional innovation systems and its impact on business tourism – The case of the Nuremberg Metropolitan Region

The Times They Are a-Changin' [Bob Dylan 1964]

Abstract: In recent years increased attention has been paid to the role of culture and creativity as significant factors influencing economic development. Another crucial phenomenon shaping the economy is the great importance of regionalism. Culture, creativity and regionalism seem to facilitate coping with the troubles of our times in a better way.

This paper aims to contribute to a better understanding of the ways culture and creativity influence the building of a regional innovation system. A review of crucial literature considering the regional innovation system and the role of culture and creativity in the economic development is provided. The conclusion from qualitative research suggests that the significance of creativity in the Nuremberg Metropolitan Region is widely acknowledged and is an attempt to exploit this finding.

Keywords: regional innovation systems, metropolitan region, culture, creativity, Nuremberg.
JEL codes: O31, P48, R11.

Introduction

The development of national economies and societies has been strongly influenced by the process of globalization in recent years and will be for years to come – the impact on people is increasing across the world. On the one hand globalization led to productivity growth and to the improvement of living standards in broad sections of the population. On the other hand fears of market uncertainties are growing in an increasingly apparently smaller, faster moving and more communicative world.

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During the course of globalization something remarkable has happened to the region: it lost its importance through new forms of communication, global alignment, etc. and at the same time became of enormous significance. Regionalization and localization are a response to the rise in uncertainty due to the transformation processes of globalization. There is an increasing need to be regionally rooted and to consume regionally produced products. This form of regionalization creates reliability and a form of stability for the inhabitants.

Continuous product and process innovations are prerequisites for the stability of regions. Prolonged collaboration and interaction between firms and the actors around them lead to innovations and thus also to stability. Regional Innovation Systems (RIS) are a concomitant phenomenon of the globalization and regionalisation processes. However, in order to remain innovative, instability and disorder are needed as Joseph Schumpeter mentioned in 1942. A significant contribution to uncertainty represents culture. Culture generates instability and leads therefore to uncertainty but exactly this uncertainty is important as an innovation factor.

This poses the central question for this paper: “To what extent do culture and creativity contribute to the building of regional innovation systems?” Because of the huge complexity of the examined problem a qualitative research approach was chosen. The case study research was conducted in the Nuremberg Metropolitan Region (NMR).

The paper is structured as follows: Having provided the introduction to the subject of the research problem, a literature review describing the significant issue of regional innovation systems as well as the interplay between culture and regional development is presented. This section concludes with a conceptual framework for further considerations. Thereafter, the NMR is introduced as an example of an area having features to be investigated in the context of innovation, culture and creativity. Following on a brief characteristic of applied methodological tools and findings from the empirical investigation is described. Finally, the paper closes with a conclusion, limitations and a proposal for further research.

1. Theoretical framework

Derived from the concept of the national innovation system introduced by C. Freeman in 1987 and subsequently developed on the base of the regional science, industrial district, innovative milieu, cluster, and learning regions theory, the model of RIS can be regarded as a response to the currently observed and above mentioned transformations and the focus on regionalization. Because of the growing role of innovations as a source of competitive advantage and the need for new policies before consideration of regional inequalities and divergences [Asheim, Smith & Dughton 2011], the interest in

RIS rose. It should be noted that the increasing importance of place-specific and non-economic factors also influenced the regional development [Asheim & Isaksen 2002].

A growing amount of literature and research on RIS over the last decades can be observed. Albeit that this field still remains relatively new with an opportunity to research new issues.

The central assumption, which underscores the RIS approach, is the notion of interaction between related innovation organizations such as enterprises, universities, research institutions and the institutional environment. The basic idea behind the RIS approach is the “economic and social interactions between agents, spanning the public and private sectors to engender and diffuse innovation within regions embedded in wider national and global systems” [Asheim, Smith & Dughton 2011]. Innovation is seen as a process involving diversity factors that are external and internal to firms, whereas the interactions play the decisive role [Doloreux 2002]. The core of RIS consists of “interacting knowledge generation and exploitation sub-systems linked to global, national and other regional systems that may stretch across several sectors in the regional economy” [Asheim & Coenen 2005, p. 1174]

In general, there are four basic elements of RIS. The first element are the firms which provide the economic base and should be considered as learning organizations. The second element consists of institutions such as industrial research and development, universities or governments, which have an impact on creation, development, transfer and utilization of technologies. The third is knowledge infrastructure which identifies organizations playing a crucial role by means of producing, financing, coordinating, supervising and assessing the innovation efforts. The fourth element is called “policy-oriented regional innovation” and improves interactions between the three other core elements of RIS. Other important functions of the RIS concept are interactive learning, knowledge production, proximity and social embeddedness [Doloreux 2002].

The great advantage of the RIS approach as an analytical framework lies in the fact that networks play a central role that allows numerous actors and issues to be combined. Additional benefits are the potential of development and the dynamic and holistic character of the concept. These advantages can be confirmed by recently published research demonstrating the development of this issue [Cooke 2005] as the concept of Cross Border Innovation System [Weidenfeld 2013] or a discussion of regional open innovation [Tödling, Van Reine & Dörhöfer 2011]. Also important is the awareness that innovation is an interactive process in which both science-based and experienced-based learning take place and the final result cannot be predicted in advance with any certainty. Further advantages lie in the appreciation that innovation not only results from R&D activities and science but also from non-market relationships [Lundvall et al. 2002]. Another important aspect of RIS is, as the name suggests, the regional character and the significance of this for the economic development [Doloreux & Parto 2005] as well as from broadly discussed regional success

stories [Asheim & Coenen 2005]. Moreover, the RIS approach enables us to take into consideration differences between various regions by investigating the character of innovational behaviour taking place there [Tödling & Trippl 2005]. Cooke [1997] emphasizes that RIS is especially interesting because it can be characterised as systemic cooperative, trust-dependent and associational. The concept is particularly positive, because it recognises the importance of a learning and social milieu in social development and economic growth [Doloreux & Parto 2005, p. 138].

Although there are many types of RIS [Asheim & Isaksen 2002; Doloreux 2002; Asheim 2007; Pechlaner et al. 2012] the common ground is the central role of innovations. These are carried out by means of a network of diverse actors buttressed by an institutional framework [Asheim 2007]. Without dealing with the numerous facets of the innovation, only the most important topics for further consideration are highlighted at this point. It is generally conceded that innovations are the crucial factor in maintaining and achieving competitiveness in a globalizing economy. The fundamental question in this context is “What are the key factors influencing innovativeness?”. The research on this topic depicts the variety of aspects made up of external ones (related to the market, customer and incentives for innovativeness) and internal ones (connected with employees, knowledge, strategy and entrepreneur) [Zehrer, Pechlaner & Reuter 2013]. As a consequence of the fact that some places possess a greater ability to create innovations and are characterized by high innovativeness among the firms located there [Simmie 2002; Gabe & Abel 2011] it should be acknowledged that several location specific factors influencing innovation exist. Florida [2007] describes this phenomenon with the term “spiky world”, which underlines the concentration of innovation activity in a limited number of cities. On looking at the patent statistics and the residence of the most cited scientists in their relative field, we observe a huge focus on only a few places in the world.

Florida derives the concentration of innovation from the existence of the “creative class”, which is characterised by an engagement “in work whose function is to create meaningful new forms” [Florida 2003, p. 8]. This class consists of two groups. The first one is the “super-creative core”, which includes scientists and engineers, university professors, poets and novelists, artists, entertainers, actors, designers, and architects, as well as the “thought leadership” of modern society: non-fiction writers, editors, cultural figures, think-tank researchers, analysts, and other opinion-makers. The second group, which is called “creative professionals”, consists of people who work in a wide range of knowledge-based occupations in high-tech sectors, financial services, the legal and health-care professions and business management. These individuals are crucial to the innovativeness of companies, because they generate new knowledge and new ideas. Florida argues that economic growth occurs due to the presence of tolerance, diversity, and openness [Florida 2007, p. 38.]. Florida’s seminal investigations highlighted interest on creativity being the vital force of regional development [Lee, Florida & Zoltan 2004; McGranahan & Wojan 2007;

Donegan et. al 2008; Boschma & Fritsch 2009; Rutten & Gelissen 2008; Jureniene 2010; Mellander, Pettersson & Öner 2011; Drejerska 2012].

Besides creativity culture also belongs to the shaping elements of a region. Culture can be defined as a “value system, which is shared by members of a local or regional area” [Cooke, Uranga & Etxebarria 1997, p. 488] and can be measured by indicators of individual values and beliefs, such as trust and respect for others and confidence in the link between individual effort and economic success [Tabellini 2010, p. 679], whereas trust-building is especially important in regional innovation systems [Cooke, Uranga & Etxebarria 1997, p. 489]. Regional culture can be seen as a set of traditions, common values, understandings, conventions and a common language [Cooke & Rehfeld 2011].

Another approach underlines that culture can be seen “as a touristic resource [which] can be defined cumulatively as points of attraction being composed of artefacts and representations from the fields of history, folklore, religion and art, in the form of historical buildings, parks and gardens, museums, theatres, music, dance, festivals, pageants and other events that induce potential guests to visit a destination” [Saretzki & Furnell 2013, p. 64].

It is also worth emphasizing that the quality of the cultural offers belong to the “soft location factors”, which are hard to measure and quantify [Pechlaner, Innerhofer & Bachinger 2010].

From the company’s point of view, culture is seen “as the sets of social conventions, embracing behavioural norms, standards, customs and the ‘rules of the game’ that underlie social interactions within the firm. These conventions are in turn linked to a deeper set of underlying core values (also called philosophies or ideologies) that provide more general guidance in shaping behavior patterns within the firm” [James 2005, p. 1199]. Subsequently regional culture consists of “systems of collective beliefs, ideologies, understandings and conventions being imported into the cultural cores of firms, and hence shaping firms’ systems of organizational control, rule systems and decision making processes “ [James 2005, p. 1199].

Leaving the question of a definition of culture aside, it can be summarized that culture is a broad phenomenon which is directly connected with creativity. Both culture and creativity are recognized as “factors attracting population and as a dynamic part of the economy with strong growth” [Mellander, Pettersson & Öner 2011, p. 246]. The dual role of the culture is highlighted by Herrero et al. [2002] on one hand as a “collective remembrance and society identification” and on the other as a “source of richness” that “generates economic activities”.

One can consider culture and creativity as a “melting pot” including intangible elements such as values, beliefs and attitudes as well as the tangible part of it where the cultural offers plays an important role.

The contribution of culture to the economic growth through generating employment, income, production as well as inducing effects in related sectors [Herrero et al.

2002; Saayman & Saayman 2006] is well recognized. But on the other side culture can be also treated as a “kind of ‘dustbin category’ in regional studies for anything one cannot explain” [James 2005, p. 1199] or a “magic substitute for all the lost factories” [Hall 2000, p. 640]. Nevertheless, we observe a growing body of work that emphasizes the importance of culture as a factor influencing economic development, entrepreneurship or innovativeness [Santagata 2002; Beugelsdijk & Noorderhaven 2004; James 2005; Herrero et al. 2002; Aoyama 2009; Tabellini 2010; Heley, Gardner & Watkin 2011].

The regional cultural context shapes innovations [James 2005, p. 1198]. To the characteristics of regional culture belong trust, openness and risk-taking which in turn influences also the nature of networks [Tödling, Van Reine & Dörhöfer 2011]. Prior researches also demonstrated that progress in science and technology profits from the development of the cultural and artistic world [Oliveira & Silva 2011]. Peculiarity of the region, expressed in its culture and creativity set the context for innovativeness. The exploration of the relationship between innovation and creativity can be approached using numerous methods. The link between innovation and creativity on the national level has been demonstrated [Lorenz & Lundvall 2010]. Moreover in some research fields these terms are used interchangeably [Kahl et al. 2010]. Creativity is thought to be a necessary antecedent to innovation as well as a part of the innovation process [Williams & McGuire 2010]. Creativity can also be considered as the base for culture which plays a role of inspiration for creative people [Tretter, Pechlaner & Märk 2013]. Culture affects the way people consider risk, opportunities, rewards and therefore shapes the character of national innovation [Williams & McGuire 2010]. The impact of culture and cultural networks on innovation also has great importance [Lange, Pechlaner & Abfalter 2009].

The increasing complexity of the innovation process observed in recent years results from numerous sources of knowledge as well as from a growing interdependence among actors [Asheim 2007]. As to some extend the innovation process is uncontrollable [Tödling, Van Reine & Dörhöfer 2011] it can be assumed that several factors are responsible for this and that they also have an impact on the development of the innovation process. Culture is seen as uncontrollable also, possessing the potential of disruption. The common ground of innovations and culture also lies in their uncertainties. These can be considered in three dimensions: market/demand turbulence, technological turbulence and competitive intensity [Uzkurt et al. 2012]. It is demonstrated that the first two dimensions have a positive effect on innovativeness. Regarding the fact that culture can be seen as a factor leading to uncertainty it can also be hypothesized that culture can influence innovativeness.

While the innovation process is to a certain degree unpredictable, it can be reckoned that disruption, destruction, irritation, transgression, confusion and every form of “breakup” are responsible for this. These terms are in turn often associated with creativity and culture. One of these phenomena might possibly be the cause of both innovation and creativity.

Another possible way of dealing with the subject of innovation and culture is courage which is an inherent part of creativity in two areas. Courage is required to be creative and for the implementation of innovations [Glüher 2009, p. 56]. Courage, denoted as “overcoming of obstacles through hope” [Harris 2003, p. 375] is only rarely the main topic in innovation research but the need for more of it is recognised and often mentioned. [Harris 2003]. Subsequently courage can also be perceived as one of the important catalysts of innovation and creativity and part of culture.

As mentioned above, the access to innovation through culture and creativity can be diverse. Summarising, culture and creativity can be thought of as facilitator in the innovation process [Tödling, Van Reine & Dörhöfer 2011]. While the process of innovation involves many actors and depends on numerous factors, we investigated the role of culture with regard to building regional innovation systems.

Nevertheless, culture and creativity are important for the development of a region, which possesses three different functions [Scherere 2010, pp. 286–287; Bieger et al. 2006, p. 19]. First of all, regions are destinations which means that they are “target areas for potential guests, which perceive a geographic area for themselves in terms of content (product) and location (region), necessary to satisfy their needs and demands during the stay” [Bieger 2002, p. 56]. Secondly, they are spaces to live and therefore should provide good living conditions. Thirdly, they are locations for companies which requires the necessity of having special features. Several studies depict a strong interaction between these functions [Mellander, Florida & Stolarick 2011; Andereck & Nyaupane 2011]. A region as a company-location must attract skilled workers which can be achieved by good economic conditions and a positive social environment. Factors such as beauty, charm and image are also important, which in turn is linked to culture.

The importance of integrating tourism and culture is recognized and explored in a networking context [Arnaboldi & Spiller 2011]. It is also taken up in studies

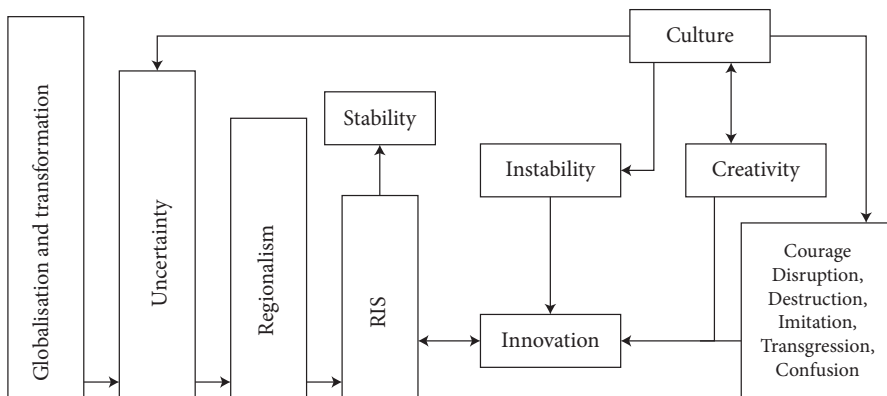


Figure 1. Conceptual framework

of RIS [Cooke & Rehfeld 2011]. But the involvement of tourism and culture in the RIS approach remains to be researched.

Accordingly, the aim of the further empirical considerations is to determine to what extent culture influences interactions amongst the diverse actors connected with tourism. We have to investigate the network and the cooperation in the region to ascertain the role of culture in building regional innovation systems. To limit our research we concentrated on business tourism.

The literature review shows that a large number of different aspects must be considered when analyzing the subject of this paper. The authors propose a conceptual framework [in Figure 1] to provide a basis for further considerations.

2. Empirical investigation

2.1. The Nuremberg Metropolitan Region

The NMR is one of eleven metropolitan regions of Germany and was officially created in 2005. Its main cities are Nuremberg, Erlangen and Fuerth. The NMR covers, with the surrounding area, 21 349 square kilometers – approximately one third of Bavaria. It consists of 22 administrative districts and 11 self-governing towns.

In 2010 the NMR was estimated to have 3.45 million residents (a density of 161 persons/square kilometer), whereas 27 million people live within a radius of 200 km. Foreigners make up a large part of the population but the portion varies from 13–17% in cities to less than 5% in the rural areas [Europäische 2012, p. 17].

As far as the regional economy is concerned the NMR is characterised by a dominance of medium-size companies with numerous “hidden champions” and high spatial concentration. The region is also home to a number of global players such as Siemens, Schaeffler, Adidas and Puma. The 160,000 companies which are located in the NMR generated about 106 billion euros of gross domestic product in 2009. Over 60% of the employees within the NMR work in the service sector but simultaneously the NMR has the second highest percentage of employees in the industrial and manufacturing industries amongst all metropolitan regions in Germany. In June 2012 75,291 persons were unemployed and the unemployment rate decreased from 7,8 percent in June 2006 to 4 percent. This is still above the average rate for Bavaria.

Excellent educational facilities of 18 universities and colleges as well as 35 research institutes (such as Max-Planck or Fraunhofer) contribute to the innovative potential of the region. It has 72,000 students (2010/2011) which is an increase of 15 % during the last 5 years. The region is also considered highly innovative for a variety of reasons such as the presence of the Medical Valley which is an international leader in medical technology and medicine.

The NMR is also served by an extensive network of highways. Several important road connections pass through this area. The airport in Nuremberg is one of the 10 largest in Germany. The Rhine-Main-Danube Canal also contributes to accessibility.

Tourism in the region annually welcomes almost 6 million guests which results in more than thirteen million overnight stays. The most important highlights are Nuremberg, Bamberg and Bayreuth. There are several major annual festivals such as the “Richard Wagner” in Bayreuth or the “International Organ Week-Musica Sacra”. The region is the site of the Germanic National Museum which is the largest museum in Germany dedicated to the history of culture. Other characteristics are a broad variety of breweries, Franconian wine and the famous Nuremberg sausages.

The important elements of tourism in the NMR include business tourism which is strong not only due to the many companies but also because of the trade fairs. The Nuremberg Fair is one of the 15 largest exhibition companies in the world and amongst the top ten in Germany. In recent years the Nuremberg Fair has experienced a significant rise in revenue, profit, booked space and number of exhibitors. It is home to many internationally acclaimed exhibitions such as the International Toy Fair. Another essential segment of business tourism are conventions and meetings.

The slogan of the NMR is “A home for creative minds”, which highlights the significant and acknowledged role of creativity in the development of this region. Just during the past few years a rapidly increasing number of cooperation initiatives could be observed. “An alliance in support of qualified professionals” or “The most family-friendly economic region” exemplify two of these initiatives [Europäische 2012].

2.2. Data collection and analysis

To address the question of the extent to which culture and creativity contribute to the building of the RIS in the NMR seven interviews have been conducted in August 2013. The interview partners had been selected because of their leading position in different fields pivotal for the aim of this study. These sectors are: research institute (interview 1), culture (2), tourism companies (3 and 4), tourism association (5), local administration – marketing (6), local administration – creativity and cooperation (7). The approximately half-hour long interviews have been conducted in German and have been audio taped and transcribed. The interview questionnaires have been semi-structured and have covered the following topics: general characteristics of the NMR, type of existing cooperations, role of culture and creativity, problems of tourism development.

For the analysis of the qualitative interviews the method GABEK® (GAnzheitliche BEwältigung sprachlich erfasster Komplexität/Holistic cope of linguistically recognized complexity) is suitable, which was developed by Joseph Zelger at the Institute of Philosophy of the University of Innsbruck. The method is based on the conversation theory of Gordon Pask and the theory of perception shapes of Carl Stumpf [Raich 2008].

„The method enables the visualization of underlying feelings, values, attitudes, and their mutual relations in social organizations” [Abfalter 2010, p. 322, translated by authors].

The result of qualitative interviews are “unstructured normal, respectively colloquial language texts, in which the respondents reflect their thoughts and feelings in their own way” [Abfalter 2010, p. 322, translated by authors]. With the help of GABEK® the interviews can be structured and evaluated. Since the working and procedure of GABEK® is clearly defined, the method attains a high reliability. Although the subjective influence cannot be completely excluded in comparison to other qualitative methods it is greatly reduced.

2.3. Empirical findings

The empirical research has depicted some interesting characteristics, relationships and problems observed in the NMR. Figure 2 shows a net graph, which displays the perceived important issues appertaining to the subject of the Metropolitan Region.

The NMR is perceived as a diversified region with two main centres, Nuremberg and Erlangen. This variety emerges from the existence of both urban and rural elements in the region. We can also observe that culture is important for all these issues and is directly related to creativity. Other perceived characteristics of the region are an optimal size and a “spatial distribution”. One of the interviewees specified it in the following statement: “We have all the advantages of the metropolis without

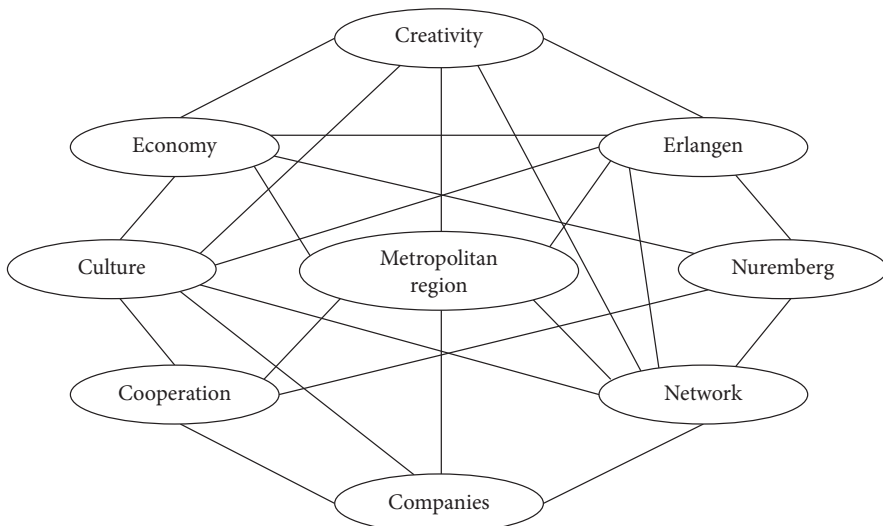


Figure 2: Network Graphic „Metropolitan Region”

Source: own illustration, created with GABEK

having the specific disadvantages” [Interview 2, p. 1]. The central role of Nuremberg in the perception sometimes seems to be a problem because the character of this city is shaped by the neighbouring cities nearby. Further characteristics of the metropolis are its good price-quality ratio as well as a high quality of life. “You have a great mosaic, where everything is available. (...) You have a wonderful offer in all fields: culture, innovation, technology, skills. This is what constitutes the NMR: diversity” [Interview 5, p. 1] and furthermore: “It is the ‘perfect’ size of a city – you can go everywhere on foot, here it is just wonderful” [Interview 5, p. 1].

Cooperation is of essential importance in the NMR. It is acknowledged by all the interviewed persons, that cooperation is the only way to make progress. Good cooperation means to have a “win-win” situation, profitability for all, equality, cooperation on a level playing field. A good cooperation involves representatives of research, universities and companies. The following quotation from one of the interviews underlines this statement: “For cooperation the most important issues are: openness, clarity, common goal. If you have a common goal, you will work together” [Interview 5, p.1].

After demonstrating the illustrations of the NMR the question regarding the role of culture and creativity in this area arises. The following figure 3 shows the relationship between the key variables mentioned in the context of “creative people”.

The results confirm the crucial role of creativity for innovation which is clarified in the following quotation: “Creativity and industry support each other. Creativity brings industry forward” [Interview 7, p. 2]. Besides creativity culture also plays a vi-

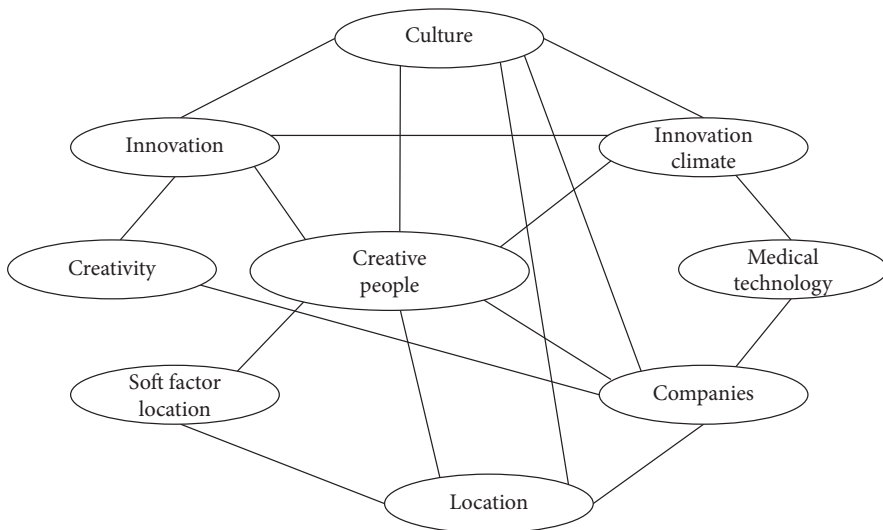


Figure 3. Network Graphic „creative people”

Source: own illustration, created with GABEK

tal role in this interaction. While on the one hand “culture and creative economy” have often been mentioned, on the other hand it has also been stated, that “creativity is not the same as culture, but you cannot define creativity without defining culture” [Interview 2, p. 1].

As far as the innovation character of the region is concerned one must point out that the innovation potential is mostly associated with the existence of the medical valley.

Figure 3 illustrates that creativity not only affects the innovation potential of a region but that it is also an essential location factor for companies. This is in line with Florida’s point of view [Florida 2007].

To summarise the findings derived from figure 3 it can be stated that culture and creativity influence the innovation potential of a region. The following statement strengthens this thought: “I think that culture has an impact on the people in the region, they live, work, (...). People are affected by the region in the way how they think, work, talk (...)” [Interview 4, p. 2].

The following figure 4 depicts associations with culture.

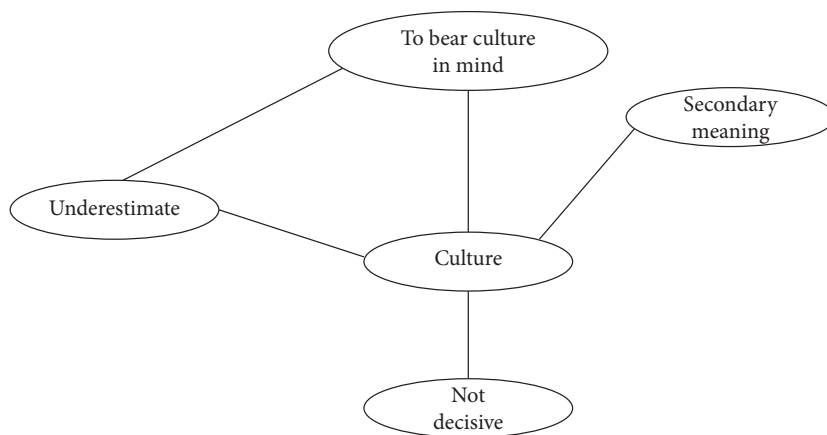


Figure 4. Network Graphic „culture“
Source: own illustration, created with GABEK

The figure above reveals that the role of culture is ambivalent. On the one hand it is recognised that culture is not the decisive factor for development, but simultaneously it is appreciated that the role of culture is greater than commonly perceived. This can be clarified with the following statement: “For a destination the cultural image is very important. Without culture it does not work, but it is not the decisive factor. The competency of the region is crucial. You cannot underestimate culture” [Interview 5, p. 3].

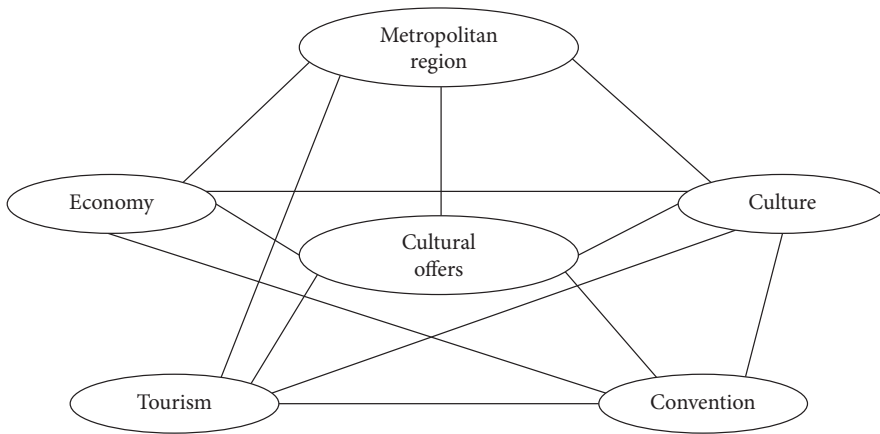


Figure 5. Network Graphic „cultural offers”

Source: own illustration, created with GABEK

One of the visible parts of culture is the cultural offer. In the following figure 5 we can see the important topics associated with this.

As predicted the “cultural offers” are an important factor not only for culture: There are also obvious connections with the economy and tourism. The next significant topic is conventions which is strongly associated with culture, economy and tourism. It must be underlined that cultural offers are relatively easy to describe in their relation to other elements of regional culture. It is important for the convention industry.

The central question in our research concerns the problem of business tourism and its impact on innovation. The following figure 6 illustrates the causal relationships based on the key-term “business travel”.

The network graphic indicates the importance of culture with regard to business travel. Both congress and trade fair tourism can profit from a rich regional culture. It is also important to point out that business tourism can also have an immense impact on leisure tourism. Since the city “convinces just at second glance” [Interview 5, p. 1], business tourism can be seen as a development facilitator in the NMR. Before coming to the NMR business people can discover how many possibilities this location has to offer. This induces investment in the region, spending a holiday with the family or even creating an impulse to move here. So the positive perception of this place experienced during the trip can spread and hereby indirectly amplify the innovation potential of the NMR. This can be seen in the following statements: „When we get [private] tourists to Nuremberg then they can see that we have a trade fair, a convention centre, a lot of industry – so they might want to do business here. If on the other hand a business tourist experiences a wonderful

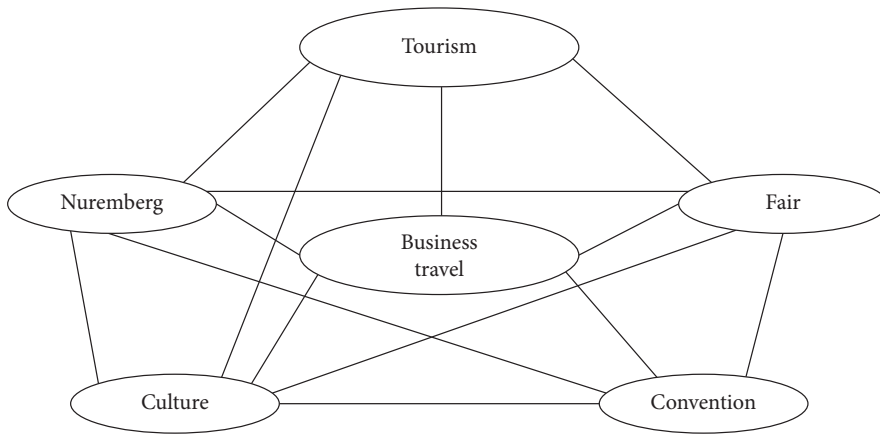


Figure 6. Network Graphic “business travel”

Source: own illustration, created with GABEK

cultural highlight there is a good chance that he will return later as a private tourist” [Interview 3, p. 4].

Based upon these thoughts we can state that business tourism can contribute positively to the innovativeness of a region and influence the awareness of the importance of culture which in turn has also an impact on innovativeness. But culture has only a moderating role.

This finding is in line with previous research showing that culture is an important factor influencing the image of a destination [Joppe, Martin & Waalen 2001; Chen & Phou 2013]. But simultaneously it is not the decisive criterion influencing the choice of a convention location, whereas the image is essential [Chen 2006]. At first glance one cannot recognise the real value of culture. The following quotation illustrates this thought: „The economy and the well paid people influence culture positively (...) it also works in the opposite way” [Interview 4, p. 3].

Proximity is of crucial importance for the NMR which has been mentioned by many interview partners. Many researchers also underlined that proximity has a pivotal influence on the existence of the RIS and that it refers to the shared regional culture [f.e. Doloreux 2002, p. 250].

Concluding the empirical research several problems in the NMR should be highlighted. The first one is connected with its image. The discrepancy between the perception of “what we have” and “what is known about what we have” is broadly acknowledged. The following quotation illustrates this notion: “Self-image and public-image are different. We are strong in several areas, we have innovations. In other sectors certain regions are better or they are said to be better. Perhaps we do not have enough self-confidence to present our topics to the outside world. (...) I think that most people do not value Nuremberg. A lot is going on here (...). But nobody knows about it”

[Interview 5, p. 2]. The problem of the missing openness when talking about success is explained by another interview partner: “It is a mentality problem” [Interview 6, p. 2]. One needs time to discover the advantages of this place. “The place does not attract at first glance, only at a second” [Interview 5, p. 1]. The next statement indicates another problem: “What is missing is the courage to be open and to put aside one’s own perception. (...) I miss courage in the NMR” [Interview 4, p. 4].

Conclusions, limitation and proposal for further research

This study has aimed to shed light on the ways in which culture affects the building of regional innovation systems. Certain elements of our theoretical findings were confirmed by empirical research.

The results outlined above lead to the following conclusion. The role of culture in building the regional innovation system lies in moderating. The NMR possesses great potential but this could and should be better communicated by all actors in the region. Changes in the NMR are positive due to the intensified work on cooperation and network building. The factors influencing the further development of the NMR can be found in culture and creativity. There is a need for better cooperation between different sectors. The NMR should aim to improve its image for inhabitants and to engender a feeling of living in a unique place. Medical technology is of particular interest in the NMR. Culture should be taken into account when trying to understand regional development. The obvious challenge lies in creating conditions conducive to innovation.

Our research has been limited by the small number of samples. The investigation was conducted only in one region. However this location turned out to be a very good example of a place where the potential of culture and creativity has not yet been properly exploited, although there are increasingly efforts to change this, which is underlined in the following statement: “Our goal is to integrate culture and creativity in the companies from other branches” [Interview 7, p. 3]. Image problems and a lack of openness have a common ground in regional culture. We should point out that most of our interview partners have appreciated the positive changes in recent years. This can be explained by an expanding support from the institutional environment and a growing number of network initiatives.

The problem of an exact definition of the term “culture” leads to a further limitation of this study. Culture remains inadequately conceptualized, theorized and empirically verified [James 2005, p. 1213], which in turn influences the validity of the findings and prevents the comparison of the research evidence.

The NMR is an excellent example of a place where the potential of culture and creativity as well as the importance of cooperation are acknowledged. Due to the

fact that most initiatives are relatively new it will be interesting to study future progress in this field.

The idea of looking for “something intangible that permits innovation to proceed in some places but not in others” [James 2005, p. 1198] should be examined in further research.

The aim of this paper is not to determine whether the NMR is an example of RIS. It should be emphasised that it is difficult to recognize an existence of RIS, because there is not only one typical RIS. Moreover it is difficult to ascertain whether there is a sufficient mass of innovation and range of interaction already available to constitute a RIS [Doloreux 2004, p. 492]. But our research indicates, that – without having the image of it – the NMR can be a very good example of a place where RIS is just in the building process because the crucial elements of RIS – cooperation, interaction, network – underpinned by the institutional environment are certainly available. Further research should take this point into consideration.

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Prosumers in the tourism market: the characteristics and determinants of their behaviour

Abstract: The goal of this article is to characterise the prosumer as a specific consumer category in the tourist market. The author presents the general characteristics of a prosumer and how his/her behaviour is conditioned as a result of general social trends as well as specific features of the tourist market. In order to empirically illustrate the issues involved the author presents results of a direct survey conducted with 3 representatives of various types of tourist companies (a tour operator, a travel agent, an airline representative). The interviewees noted their customers' intensified activity. While customers have greater expectations and requirements, their knowledge does not translate into cooperation with tourist agencies. The respondents claimed that the new customers interested in new forms of the product included primarily young people as well as business people acquainted with new technologies. It was emphasized that customers as we know them are active but not always professional. Individual customers consider themselves professionals yet oftentimes their professionalism is limited to the transactions' convenience (e.g. only telephone contacts and bank transfers) accompanied by a low price found on the Internet rather than a general knowledge of the market.

Keywords: prosumer, tourist market, social trends.

Jel codes: M10, D83, Z13.

Introduction

The phenomenon of prosumption is related to the process of withdrawing from the traditional mass production and customization (i.e. mass individualization of products) which may be interpreted as a preview of a return to the former stage of the consumer-company relation. The process of customization results from the

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contemporary market's excessive disintegration; there are few market segments or niches which are sufficiently large to be profitable [Kotler & Trias de Bes 2004, p. 207]. The goal of this article is to provide a profile of a prosumer in the tourist market. Special attention will be paid to the conditions and characteristics of the tourist market which affect behaviour in this consumer category.

According to A. Toffler [2001], prosumers form a category of customers taking part in the process of co-creating a product so that it satisfies the customer's needs in the best possible way. This stems from the fact that the more people differ in respect of their jobs, the less similar their consumption needs are and the more they demand to be treated like individuals. Consumers start to make choices not only because a particular product fulfils specific functions but also because the product reflects a consumer's lifestyle, personality, identity and image and fits into a broader pattern of purchased products and services. Therefore, consumer goods partly lose their typical use value to the benefit of symbolic values [Bylok, 2012, p. 346]. These processes result in consumers' increased interest in managing tasks previously attributed to other market players. This may include purchases in a supermarket (the customer performs the work of a seller), booking a hotel through a website or an independent air ticket booking. Toffler noticed the growing prestige of self-sufficiency [2001, p. 416]. While at the time when the capitalist market developed some people (at least the middle classes) referred with disdain to any physical work, in modern times people tend to be proud of doing things single-handedly. As a result, hobbies are flourishing together with the consumers' own efforts in designing goods and services. The differences between the producers and the consumers are blurring when the latter are increasingly involved in the production process. In the context of the relations between consumers and producers, prosumption takes place when products are tailored to the consumer's specific needs by making it possible for the consumers to get involved in designing the products [Bylok 2012, p. 353; Tapscott & Williams 2008, pp. 215–218]. This train of thought can be followed when we assume that potential customers may experiment when creating a product while their suggestions of changes are taken into consideration by the market. By this token customers are treated as partners.

1. A prosumer's characteristics

At present, a "prosumer" is defined as an active consumer involved in the production process and consumption to a larger degree than an average buyer. A consumer's market activity may refer to cooperation between the consumer and the producer in the process of creating goods and services. It may also refer to creating a network of other consumers, fulfilling the role of opinion leaders, etc.

According to J. Wójcik [2009, p. 370], a contemporary prosumer may be defined as follows:

- a professional consumer
- a proactive consumer.

An active consumer does not need to be professional as activity may be limited to looking for information. This holds true for reading other consumers' opinions in online chat-rooms and taking advantage of this information in purchase decision making. Therefore, the notions of an active and a professional consumer are not mutually exclusive yet they do not need to overlap.

Prosumerism as we know it today relates also to cooperation between many consumers who act jointly, exchange information, help each other and as a result benefit from it [Staniszewski 2013, p. 2]. Owing to a quick exchange of information through the Internet, consumers may organize themselves in groups which act as advisors. An information network (a conglomerate of individual activities of independent Internet users) is increasingly common yet also increasingly anonymous [Kozłowski 2009, p. 41]. Consumer networks make it possible to take advantage of other people's experiences and become independent from corporate information.

Prosumers may therefore be defined as extra-active consumers who take advantage of their own work but do not mind if others benefit from the results of their efforts. A prosumer is therefore likely to be more competent and knowledgeable about a product. C.K. Prahalad and V. Ramaswamy [2005, p. 8] predict that B2B and B2C companies operating in the market (where the producer is most important) may be replaced by C2B2C (consumer to business to consumer) companies.

One should accept the opinion of J. Wójcik who emphasized that a consumer could not be included into the group of prosumers solely on the basis of the consumer's activity. It is necessary to evaluate the results of the activity [Wójcik 2009, p. 376]. The mere act of looking for opinions about a product in the Internet does not make the searcher a member of the prosumer category. However, it is difficult to establish a limit which, once passed, clearly indicates that an individual's activity allows use of it in the production process.

To sum up, the following definition can be suggested: a prosumer is a more-than-average active consumer who is aware of his/her individual needs, is knowledgeable about the products, shares that knowledge with other consumers and is active in designing (creating) the product. A prosumer is involved in the process of creating and selling a product by spreading information to other consumers. Therefore, a prosumer may also be deemed an opinion leader because he/she tends to set trends of general consumer behaviour.

While prosumers do not form a homogenous group they have some features in common, namely involvement in the process of disseminating information and an innovative nature.

2. Features of the tourist market as a determinant of prosumers' behaviour

Prosumption in the tourist market is affected by both general special processes typical of contemporary markets as well as the specific features of the tourist market. The general processes include:

- increased amount of free time,
- withdrawal from the so-called synchronization defined as a combination of work rhythms, mobility and relaxation,
- individualization of consumers' behaviour and the corresponding individualization of the product,
- consumers' knowledge developed about products stemming from experience and education,
- increased requirement for product quality.

Free time is the time beyond professional work to be used discretionarily and in line with one's interests, used for relaxation, developing one's interests and participating in the achievements of our civilization, cultural events, etc. [Gołembski & Niezgoda 2012, p. 172]. A consumer's activity in creating a product for his/her own use stems from the fact that he/she has limited free time and wants to use this time as effectively as possible [Bylok 2012, p. 342]. A majority of tourist activities takes place in free time. Withdrawal from synchronization resulting from the so-called "third wave" [Toffler 2001] allows the prosumer to combine professional activity and relaxation in the tourist market. As a result, the difference between free time and work time blurs [Kachniewska et al. 2012, p. 144]. A case in point is making use of recreation services during a conference or touring a city where congresses or trade fairs are held. The effect of synchronization is the so-called "planned spontaneity". It blurs the differences between private, spontaneous and seemingly selfless activities and those focused on benefits. Consumers post online information about their stays, holidays, etc. and in return, they expect others to recommend venues worth visiting (where to eat, sleep, what to do in your free time etc.).

As for tourist supply, the tourist market is **dominated by services while the tourist product is complex**. This complexity stems from tourists' extraordinarily diversified expectations and needs, the complicated structure of the tourist product and, finally, the great diversification of entities involved in providing services and goods valued by tourists [Kachniewska et al. 2012, p. 57]. Another trend typical of the tourist market is **individualization** which results in tourists looking for new packages of services and types of relaxation. This trend may bring about certain tourists' aversion to famous venues and resorts. This is because tourists know these venues and will be looking for their own sets of services ("build up their own holidays"). Searching a tourist offer single-handedly results in the growing signifi-

cance of the Internet in promoting regions. As an increasing number of individual tourists resort to the Internet, their decisions about the destination and the services depend on the offer's online availability as well as other consumers' opinions. The tourist market is very susceptible to changes brought about by the Internet. An observation of buyers' behaviour, including e-readiness, encourages tourist agencies to intensify online activities. Research into the Polish tourist industry has revealed that 99% of travel agents use the Internet on a daily basis [Kachniewska et al. 2012, p. 144].

In the tourist market consumers interact with other website users and co-create value not only with one company but also with entire communities of professionals, service providers and other consumers. As C.K. Prahalad and V. Ramaswamy put it [2005, p. 24], **co-creation replaces the process of exchange**. For this process to be completed the following prerequisites must be fulfilled: existence of a forum for dialogue between the consumer and the company as well as the existence of rules regulating participation in the forum to ensure orderly, effective interaction. The opportunities provided by an online exchange of information focus the dialogue between various users and between users and producers on issues of interest to both parties. Service providers make use of the content placed on websites by service users (e.g. an employee of a travel agency helping a customer to find a hotel resorts to information placed on social portals and in online chat-rooms). The process of co-creation results in the customer's improved specialist knowledge and leads to self-respect.

During research into tourist demand, **the buyers' ever-increasing new needs and requirements** were noticed which may trigger off more involvement in the search for and exchange of information as well as the creation of a tourist product. Increase in affluence enhances the individual quality of life. Tourists tend to manage their time more independently and more frequently decide to organize their holidays individually. Tourists want to use time "effectively". This means that when they are on holiday they want to see and experience as much as possible. People tend to maximise experience per time unit [Nieżgoda 2010, p. 26]. The requirement of a quick choice of many experiences involves the so-called "chameleon behaviour" [Roth & Schrandt 1992]. During a single trip a tourist may play many roles, resort for example to very expensive accommodation and very cheap means of transport, save on food and at the same time buy very expensive clothes, etc.. Resorting to many options of diversified services also necessitates increased activity, looking for information, knowledge and flexibility in behaviour. These are the characteristics of prosumers.

Contemporary consumers tend to care more about their health; this is related to **environmental behaviour**. As a result of growing environmental awareness a new consumer has emerged, willing to purchase ecological goods and services, to change his/her lifestyle, habits and consumption in order to protect the natural environment.

An active Internet user the modern tourist who is highly aware of environmental issues may encourage others to be environmentally friendly and communicate to tourism service providers the need for an offer compliant with the requirements of environmental protection [Niezgoda 2011, p. 37]. The complexity of the tourist product calls for the cooperation between many entities affecting the product's shape. As a result of the need for cooperation the level of environmental education needs to be comparably high for all stakeholders [Byrd 2007, p. 8]. Interaction between prosumers and service providers may be conducive to the transformation of the tourist product into an environmental one.

An analysis of the segments of potential buyers in the tourist market indicates that **the significance of stable customers is growing** as they generate a relatively large (stable) income yet are more demanding [Niezgoda 2010, p. 25]. This stems from the fact that former experiences are the most frequent factor affecting stays in famous and popular locations [Franch et al. 2006]. If a consumer actively shares information, looks for similar participants in the tourist market and consciously creates his/her product, he/she may be included in the prosumers category.

Global standardization is an important trend resulting from general globalization processes; as a result, traditional reference groups like the place of work or the family are decreasing in importance. As a result of standardization the contemporary tourist is increasingly more aware of the opportunities for satisfying his/her needs and requirements stemming from world service standards. In the location this may be facilitated by numerous options of attractions, services and the possibilities of spending time [Niezgoda 2010, p. 23]. A tourist may purchase a standard package of services yet in the final destination he/she may look for a diversified offer, for example an opportunity to purchase local products, take part in a trip organized by a local agency, take up a fashionable sport, etc.. One could therefore assume that as a result of general globalization individualization processes are at the same time confronted with the growing significance of standardization throughout the world. The consequence of the simultaneous occurrence of individualization and standardization is that presumption seems to be a solution referred to by Tapscot and Williams [2008, p. 194] as a "win/win situation": customers will get what they want whilst companies may take advantage of their knowledge in research and development. To summarise, the features of the tourist market affecting prosumers' behaviour include:

- the complexity of the tourist product and an opportunity to individually create packages;
- the diversification of consumers' needs and an emergence of an unlimited number of ways to satisfy these needs;
- the renewable (restitutional) nature of demand.

These features affect the behaviour of individuals purchasing comprehensive services (tourist packages) as well as partial services (e.g. hotel accommodation).

3. The prosumer as viewed by service providers in the tourist market – empirical illustration

The tourist market is an arena for processes which result in treating consumers as prosumers. A question arises which consumers in the tourist market may be referred to as prosumers. In order to illustrate such considerations investigative research was conducted by means of a direct standardised survey. It was a qualitative survey while the respondents included employees of 3 types of tourist companies: travel agencies i.e. an operator who acts like a middleman in selling tourist services (company A), an operator selling air tickets (company B) and a tour operator (entity C). The qualitative research is of explanatory rather than decisive nature whilst the goal of exploration research is to identify the phenomenon in question. The selection of the three representatives of supply in the tourist market enables the illustration of a specific issue and to highlight detailed issues which could be verified by means of more detailed research. The selection of the three interlocutors also allows the method to be considered a case study.

An increase in consumers' requirements and expectations was observed in the past 10 years in the surveyed companies. Customers of travel agents expect a ready-made and detailed offer. The customers tend to know the market better and therefore their expectations are higher. However, these expectations relate primarily to competitive prices and acceptable sales conditions. Customers demand that returns are accepted and complaints acknowledged. Customers are much more experienced and have more "purchase courage". When buying air tickets, consumers expect "product range diversity" i.e. more diversified connections, different and convenient flight times, departures at a specified time of day, the shortest possible travel time or even selection of a specific airline alliance. On top of that customers demand better booking conditions, air ticket cancellation, larger luggage allowance without an extra fee, changes to the ticket, etc.. However customers' knowledge is not always professional. A representative of an air ticket seller says:

Oftentimes customers conceal the fact that they know better connections. They come to an agent and check if we suggest the least expensive offer. Various institutions confuse the customers so that they demand unrealistic conditions like the return of money for a ticket cancelled one day before the flight. The Internet encourages unrealistic expectations and misleading interpretations of the regulations by the customer.

Sellers of holiday packages and airline connections alike are of an opinion that the Internet makes customers "turn their backs on agencies" and look for offers single-handedly. Travel agencies are visited by customers who cannot organize their holidays themselves, do not have the time, cannot arrange the organization or want

to “avoid problems” and do not want to make an effort to plan a trip on their own. A tour operator noticed: *we have had stable customers for more than a dozen years who choose the same destination every year and accommodation in the same place.* Such attitudes could not be further from the notion of prosumption.

Oftentimes, customers are informed by a travel agent about a hotel they are interested in and then book it on an online portal, be it a booking portal or a tour operator’s website. The interviewee added:

The customers who keep coming back to a travel agency are those who have problems with organizing holidays on their own. If they do not have difficulties they ask about a hotel and organize everything single-handedly without visiting the agent again.

Customers make us of social platforms; many tourists choose hotels or sellers influenced by opinions in online chat-rooms. However, sometimes consumers’ opinions (e.g. on services rendered in a hotel) placed in the Internet vary. Customers do not understand that expectations may be different and therefore the perceived product quality will also vary. The tour operator stated:

We also have customers who look for “something” that is reminiscent of what their friends told them. They cannot present their expectations in a specific way.

“Backpackers” are extremely active in looking for cheap airline connections. They look for promotions and the cheapest tickets; within an hour of finding an offer online they can notify other people. Unfortunately, this offer is also an inconvenient one. The interviewee added:

Customers do not understand that the connections they have found are more onerous, oftentimes “unacceptable” or even unsafe. They do not understand that we cannot fulfil their expectations. They find it irritating that airlines follow certain rules which cannot be breached. The worst scenario is when the price is the main criterion adopted by tourists.

Resorting to online portals and social platforms also raises expectations of technical amenities. Some customers check information in the Internet many times and then visit a travel agent in order to make the ultimate decision. There are also customers who are so used to online purchases that they do not want to visit a travel agent even if only to collect travel documents. What is more customers who buy air tickets want to minimize contacts with the agency personnel or any other service providers. This is why they even want to *check in at the airport by phone*. Looking for new solutions in a travel agency may come down to a requirement to create new sets of services. Following numerous bankruptcies of travel agents in Poland in the summer of 2012 some customers grew suspicious of ready-made packages. Instead

they look for packages consisting of a scheduled flight + accommodation in a specific hotel. This behaviour is also evidence of the customers' growing experience and ability to take care of their own comfort.

A prosumer's very important trait is cooperation with the service provider which in turn makes use of solutions suggested by customers. It turns out that the interviewees do not use tips given by customers. The tour operator did not take any notice of any suggestions from the customers except for price comparisons, oftentimes referring to different tourist destinations. On top of that, service providers think that information placed by consumers online *is not reliable*.

The following comment was made in a travel agency:

When a customer finds an interesting offer he/she forgets about the agency and organizes the trip single-handedly. It is the agency that looks for information for the customer but the customer does not come back and therefore does not share the information.

Customers are educated, they want everything ready-made but often come to the agency with an intent of making a complaint. As if they were on a lookout for mistakes and wanted to make complaints. This indicates, however, that their knowledge is greater and expectations higher.

A similar attitude was presented by a representative of an air ticket seller:

The agency does not use the consumers' suggestions, does not trust information found by them in the Internet because we know it is unrealistic. When a customer demands a most inconvenient if not unsafe connection, we are very reluctant to comply with the request.

This situation is related to the characteristics of tourist services which are related to satisfying the needs of the customers who sometimes are less knowledgeable about the ingredients of a tourist product than the service provider. A customer may not realize that his/her requirements may be in conflict with his/her efforts to spend holidays safely. Care for the customer is also reflected in the fact that an agency employee resorts to the Internet in order to check opinions about hotels, the general situation in the country of destination, the prices offered by other service providers. The interviewee emphasized that he was especially interested in various information that could be of use to the customers when the interviewee did not visit the destination chosen by the customer. One could therefore state that the service providers under scrutiny do not make use of customers' knowledge when preparing an offer yet this knowledge proves helpful in estimating the general situation in the tourist market.

To sum up, the interviewees noticed the customers' increased activity. The customers have greater expectation and requirements of the service provider's offer. However, their knowledge does not translate onto cooperation with the agency.

Generally greater interest in the Internet was noted (not only in tourism). The decreased interest in direct services affects the general drop in interest in ready-made packages. The first stage following the system transformation in Poland has passed leaving Poles enthusiastic about travel, often failing to request specific travel conditions.

The respondents claimed that new customers interested in new product forms included primarily young people as well as business people acquainted with new technologies.

The respondents emphasized therefore that customers tended to be active but not always professional. Individual customers consider themselves professional yet frequently their professionalism is limited to the convenience of the transaction (e.g. only telephone contact and a bank transfer or a low price found in the Internet) rather than general knowledge of the market. An institution is an altogether different type of customer. Very frequently contacts with travel agencies are initiated by experienced employees in charge of travel arrangements in the company. The interviewees refer to this type of contact as a very professional cooperation.

Conclusions and discussion

The tourist market is an arena of processes as the result of which a new type of consumer has emerged which can be dubbed a prosumer. His/her major characteristics include more widespread activity in looking for offers, resorting to the Internet, official websites of service providers as well as booking and social portals. Prosumers demand more convenient conditions of transactions. This holds true for possible cancellation, exchange of offers as well as convenient technical conditions i.e. booking online, over the phone or by e-mail. Many prosumers no longer want to enter into direct contact with agencies.

Compared with other products and services the tourist product is accompanied by some obstacles in using solutions suggested by customers. Safety requirements and rules of international exchange often make it impossible to make use of a customer's offer. On the other hand in their operations travel agencies often resort to consumers' projects in preparing the offer. A case in point is the creation of a product tailored to a customer's needs. Consumers' activity and knowledge does not always translate into cooperation with the service provider. The customer does not share his/her experiences with the service provider but can share them with other consumers using an online platform.

An analysis of prosumer behaviour in the tourist market sheds light on a bilateral relation i.e. the characteristics of the tourist market affect consumer behaviour and consumer behaviour enforces certain changes in tourist supply. As a result of con-

sumers' online activity, companies have access to information about consumers' private lives through social media like Facebook and Twitter. This is why they are able, for example, to send special travel offers before a planned wedding. Companies may analyse recommendations posted online and respond with tailored price strategies.

As online activity or an ability to look for an offer have become notions of a modern lifestyle, companies will be forced to create online or real-life status symbols of their customers by making it possible for the customer to present his/her achievements online. One may expect a growing number of individuals interested in using, posting, recommending and sharing information with other web users. If the exchange relates to a hermetic, own group, the consumers are referred to as twinsumers [Bzdyra, Maciorowski 2011, p. 77]. As a result, companies should search for channels of information targeted not only at potential consumers in the broadly-defined web but also at precisely defined groups. This leads to a blurring of the differences between institutional and individual customers. Depending on a company's skills and response these self-organizing communities of prosumers may either create great opportunities or pose a threat.

Willingness to share information about one's experiences is related to creating one's image. It serves to represent individual traits which may be emphasized by selecting a unique set of tourist services. Therefore, image creation and positioning play an increasingly important role in an offer. However, one should not confuse prosumption with focus on the customer; the latter consists of companies deciding about a product's basic structure whilst customers have an opportunity to modify some of its elements.

The fact that in online communities and prosumers share information and exchange tips on the product's shape allows innovations to spread more quickly. According to Tapscot and Williams [2008, p. 187]: "The new generation of prosumers treat the world as a place of creation rather than consumption. The world is an arena where one's innovative solutions can be presented". However, the dramatically growing number of prosumer communities leads to the question that if all innovations initiated by consumers are right, ethical and in line with the company's interests. Such problems should be pondered before the innovations are introduced. However, if a company does not respond to prosumers' ideas with an offer it may be disregarded as a potential service provider.

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