

INTERNATIONALIZATION OF TOURISM MANAGEMENT IN POLISH CITIES: STRATEGIES, MARKETING AND STRUCTURES

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ABSTRACT: In cities, global drivers are coupled to local conditions of tourism development. The urban tourism industry, treated as an urban function, is subject to intensive internationalization, and because of its heterogeneity and complementarity it may influence the internationalization of a whole city. The internationalization of the tourist function has an impact on management activities performed by urban DMOs. The aim of the paper is to indicate the scope and extent of internationalization of destination management in Poland's ten biggest cities. On the basis of an exhaustive questionnaire survey conducted in 2013, three spheres of adaptation have been identified: strategy, marketing, changes to DMOs' organizational structures and collaboration. In addition, four modes of tourism internationalization have been distinguished: active (Gdansk and Lublin), reactive (Bydgoszcz, Szczecin and Wroclaw), active-reactive (Katowice and Poznan) and secondary (Cracow, Lodz and Warsaw). However, the multi-level and multi-organizational system of destination governance in Poland does not allow taking full advantage of the internationalization of the tourist function. **Keywords:** globalization, internationalization, city tourism, tourism management, Poland.

RESUMEN: En las ciudades, los motores globales de la economía están juntos a las condiciones locales del desarrollo turístico. El turismo urbano, entendido como una función urbana, está sujeto a un intenso proceso de internacionalización, y debido a su heterogeneidad y complementariedad puede influenciar la internacionalización de las ciudades como un todo. La internacionalización de la función turística tiene impacto en las actividades de gestión realizadas por las Organizaciones de Gestión de Destinos (DMO – *Destination Management Organizations*). El objetivo de este artículo es caracterizar el ámbito y la dimensión de la internacionalización de la gestión de destinos en las diez mayores ciudades de Polonia. Con base en una encuesta exhaustiva por investigación, realizado en 2013, fueron identificados tres dominios de adaptación: a estrategia, el marketing, y los cambios introducidos en las estructuras organizacionales de los DMO y en las formas de colaboración. Fueron adicionalmente identificados cuatro modos de internacionalización del turismo: activo (en Gdansk y Lublin), reactivo (en Bydgoszcz, Szczecin y Wroclaw), activo-reactivo (en Katowice y Poznan) y secundario (en Cracow, Lodz y Varsóvia). Sin embargo, el sistema multinivel y multiorganizacional que caracteriza la gobernación de destinos en Polonia, no permite un aprovechamiento pleno de las ventajas derivadas de la internacionalización de la función turística. **Palabras-clave:** globalización, internacionalización, turismo urbano, gestión turística, Polonia.

RESUMO: Nas cidades, os impulsionadores globais da economia estão acoplados às condições locais do desenvolvimento turístico. O turismo urbano, entendido como uma função urbana, está sujeito a um intenso processo de internacionalização, e devido à sua heteroge-

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neidade e complementaridade pode influenciar a internacionalização das cidades como um todo. A internacionalização da função turística tem impacto nas atividades de gestão realizadas pelas Organizações de Gestão de Destinos (DMO – *Destination Management Organizations*). O objetivo deste artigo é caracterizar o âmbito e a dimensão da internacionalização da gestão de destinos nas dez maiores cidades da Polónia. Com base num inquérito exaustivo por questionário, realizado em 2013, foram identificados três domínios de adaptação: a estratégia, o marketing, e as mudanças introduzidas nas estruturas organizacionais dos DMO e nas formas de colaboração. Foram adicionalmente identificados quatro modos de internacionalização do turismo: ativo (em Gdansk e Lublin), reativo (em Bydgoszcz, Szczecin e Wroclaw), ativo-reativo (em Katowice e Poznan) e secundário (em Cracow, Lodz e Varsóvia). No entanto, o sistema multi-nível e multi-organizacional que caracteriza a governação de destinos na Polónia, não permite um aproveitamento pleno das vantagens decorrentes da internacionalização da função turística. **Palavras-chave:** globalização, internacionalização, turismo urbano, gestão turística, Polónia.

INTRODUCTION

Globalization has contributed to tourism becoming a fully global phenomenon, which is viewed both as a cause and result of globalization processes (Hjalager, 2007) and as an activity based mostly on local resources and formed by complexities of local environments and relations (Vanhove, 2005). This global-local nexus (Bianchi, 2002; Cooper, 2008) is most clearly visible in cities, which have now become the biggest beneficiaries of international tourism exchange. Their historical heritage and modern buildings, accessibility and developed infrastructure as well as economic, social and political potential attract a massive number of visitors with a substantial share of international ones, which is reflected in statistics (Euromonitor International, 2013; UNWTO, 2014). Moreover, globalization has changed their role and function and, moreover, has lent them international significance in national and international division of labour and capital (Hall, 1997; Sassen, 2006; Theuns, 2008).

Undoubtedly, cities are places in which the internationalization of a territory and economy begins and materializes as they enter a complex network of international connections among other urban centres. Population, activity and power are concentrated in cities, thus making them the points of convergence of traffic and the areas in which the agglomeration economy is at its maximum (Cattan, 1995). This results in enhanced competition among cities and their simultaneous integration into the transnational city network. Thus, in practice, as Taylor (Taylor, 2001) states, inter-city relations are both cooperative and competitive. In an attempt to make use of these conditions, city authorities create international strategies to boost their own potential and enhance their international competitive advantage (Jouve, 2007). It also applies to the tourist function.

After over 15 years of Poland's economic transformation (Kowalski, 2013), its cities started to recognize challenges arising from globalization and began its adaptive processes which were either spontaneous or strategic thought-out decisions taken by local governments. Internationalization of Polish cities was accelerated by the country joining the European Union and the Schengen Area (Idczak & Musiałkowska, 2012; Kowalski, 2013; Musiałkowska, 2005), which had a significant impact on the dynamics of their tourist function development and organizational changes to its planning and management (Czernek & Zmyślony, 2011).

Tourism contributes to the internationalization of cities, but when seen as an urban function, it is subject to internationalization. For this reason, an international perspective should be included in a city's strategic activities as for planning, marketing activities and changes to the organizational structure of Destination Management Organizations (DMOs). It is justified to examine the degree to which the tourist function is internationalized with reference to these spheres. The aim of the paper is to indicate the scope and extent of destination management internationalization in Polish cities. It presents preliminary results of a survey conducted between October and December 2013 that concerned three types of urban DMOs in Poland's ten biggest cities.

The paper consists of four parts. First, a threefold literature review is made. The areas of the review are: globalization and tourism relations, internationalization of cities and their tourist function, and tourism management in Polish cities. After the methodological aspects of the study, its main results are presented and discussed. As a conclusion, the main findings are highlighted.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Globalization and internationalization of tourism

Globalization in tourism is often described as both the process and outcome of market liberalization, financial deregulation and technological change that leads to greater economic integration, the reconfiguration of power relations within the international political economy, the distribution of incomes between capital and labour, and unification and development of consumer preferences (Hjalager, 2007; Stiglitz, 2002; Theuns, 2008).

Generally speaking, there are two points of view of globalization of tourism – as a process and as a context or a widely understood tourism environment. The process perspective defines globalization as a central driving force that changes and reshapes the tourism industry

in the same way in which it changes other kinds of business activity (Bianchi, 2002; Fayed & Fletcher, 2002). However, as stressed by Alejziak (2011) and Theuns (2008), tourism has an international character *per se*, from the very beginning. Meethan (2001, pp. 33–34) sees it as a form and a determinant of globalization. Following from that, Hjalager (2007, p. 438) states: “travel and tourism are among the many causes and results of globalization processes”, while Wood (2008, p. 107) adds: “changes in tourism both reflect and contribute to changes in these broader processes. In a sense, tourism is in globalization as much as globalization is in tourism”.

Particular discussions on globalization in tourism have rather the economic or political perspective and are conducted mostly on a macro-level that concerns particular and diverse manifestations of globalization and the effects that it has on the tourism sector: increasing competition, raising power of transnational corporations and regional trade agreements, changing role of states in the arena of international tourism relations, innovation, impact of ICT and social media, changing pattern of work and labour relations in global tourism, changes in the structure of world tourism demand, international tourism marketing collaboration, and security issues (Fayed & Fletcher, 2002; Go, 1996; Hjalager, 2007; Keller, 1996; Sugiyarto, Blake, & Sinclair, 2003; Theuns, 2008; Vanhove, 1996).

Globalization can be also perceived as a context within which players in tourism define meaning, seek resources and make decisions (Wood, 2008). In this case, the researchers focus their attention on the micro-level and activities conducted by particular entities or groups of entities that make up the tourism industry, i.e. enterprises, tourist organizations, local and regional authorities, and consist in adapting to development challenges ensuing from globalization processes (Cooper, 2008; Meethan, 2001; Milne & Ateljevic, 2001; Williams & Shaw, 2011; Wood, 2008). As Cooper (2008, p. 110) stresses, “globalization not only reduces borders and barriers for trade between nations, but it also renders these boundaries permeable both within and between organizations. Globalization, therefore, demands a different perspective and position to be taken on the management and operation of tourism businesses”. It needs to be added that it also concerns destinations and their management. When analysis is transferred from a macro- to a micro-level, the subject matter of research needs to be modified – research into globalization is replaced by examining internationalization, which, in turn, can be understood as a form of innovation occurring as a result of global sensitivities (Williams & Shaw, 2011). Internationalization activities performed by the destinations, organizations and firms enhance the globalization process.

Literature on destination planning and management (Meriläinen & Lemmetyinen, 2011; Pechlaner, Raich, & Fischer, 2009; Wang & Pizam, 2011) or destination governance (Baggio, Scott, & Cooper, 2010; Palmer, 1998; Ruhanen, Scott, Ritchie, & Tkaczynski, 2010), touches upon internationalization in general terms and most frequently see the global environment and the ensuing global competition, unification of demand attitudes and ICT development as a context in which destinations, including cities, plan their activities. Cooper (2008, p. 110) states that “the impact of global processes upon tourism can be seen at a destination perspective”, and Wang and Pizam (2011, p. ix) stress that the activities of destinations are very much in line with the development of the tourism industry at the global scale. Jenkins *et al.* (2011) emphasize the internationalization stating, that destinations’ boundaries have become redundant in a globalized economy but they are still frames of planning and management. The most international aspects, including considerations of how particular markets are chosen, cultural differences and communication forms and channels can be found in literature on destination marketing (usually combined with management issues), especially destination image and branding (Avraham, 2000; Govers & Go, 2009; Tasci, 2011).

Globalization and internationalization of cities and their tourist function

There has been a substantial number of theoretical approaches and studies on the role and function of cities in a globalized economy (Beaverstock, Smith, & Taylor, 1999; Clark, 2004; Florida, 2003; Friedmann, 1986, 1998; Hall, 1966, 1997; Sassen, 2001, 2006; Short & Kim, 1999; Taylor, 2003, 2009). In addition, a lot of research institutes attempt to measure global competitiveness or strength of cities (A.T. Kearney, 2012; EIU, 2012; Knight Frank Research, 2013; Martin Prosperity Institute, 2013; McKinsey Global Institute, 2011; PwC, 2012; Taylor, 2009; The Mori Memorial Foundation, 2013). Nowadays, cities accumulate leading resources such as capital, expertise, information, innovations and creativity, which determine the competitive advantage of places. However, apart from the conventional, hierarchical and competitive-based approach to inter-city relations, internationalization is perceived as an integration of the city into the transnational city network (Sassen, 2005, 2012; Taylor, 2009), which takes place indirectly according to the interlocking network model (Taylor, 2009), but it also does it through transport connections, global demand flows and strategic decisions of city governments.

In this context, internationalization of cities is seen as a manifestation or domain of globalization felt from the point of view of entities which make up their functional and spatial structure. It is a form of

a city's economic development consisting in the city entering a complex network of international connections among other urban centres through cross-border commercial and non-commercial flows of information, expertise, capital, commodities and people, resulting in an increase of its importance in the international arena (Fry, Radebaugh, & Soldatos, 1989; Komorowski, 2000; Szromnik, 2009). These resources circulate among urban areas in a transnational network, so cities have become more and more independent from their regional and national economies (Sassen 2006).

The most internationalized cities are described as world or global cities (Friedmann, 1986; Hall, 1966; Sassen, 2006; Short & Kim, 1999). They are major metropolitan areas which have gained a strong and particular position in the world economy and develop more intense international circuits of connections (Taylor, 2001). As studies on cities have developed, conceptualizations of world cities and global cities have emerged: as urban centres with global functional capabilities (Hall, 1966), as localizations of major multinational corporations (Hymer, 1972), as international financial centres (Reed, 1981), as control centres of capital in the new international divisions of labour (Friedmann, 1986), and as highly concentrated command points in the organization of world economy and key locations of finance and for specialist services for firms and both as sites of production and markets of innovations (Sassen, 2001; Taylor, 2001). All these concepts measure cities using various ranges of indicators and indices.

Due to the complexity of the globalization and city phenomena, it is not possible to establish a universal set of criteria and indicators by which the degree of internationalization of cities could be judged or assessed. Labasse (1981) states that an international metropolis has to be partly a congress city, a financial centre, a seat of international organizations and a cultural centre to a varying degree. The author singles out common criteria that allow outlining the profile of such cities: they have a critical mass of preferably 1,000,000 (minimum 500,000) inhabitants, who participate in a network of economic, scientific and cultural exchange; they offer services at an international level; they have hotels and catering establishments, which enable organizing international events (congresses, exhibitions, festivals, etc.); they have communities of international residents with their associations, unions and clubs; and as business, cultural and recreational tourism centres, they enjoy the reputation of being metropolises which go far beyond the borders of a national state. Fry, Radebaugh and Soldatos (1989) single out a dozen or so features of an international city, including the existence of a developed sector of services aimed at international companies and institutions including hotels and conference facilities, the organization of international events and a developed tourism system.

Quite broad discussions on tourism globalization do not pay enough attention to the role of cities in this process, although the authors of the world city concept (Hall, 1997) and the global city (Sassen, 2006) realize the significance of tourism in creating the global impact of cities. As the concept of global cities develops, Hall (1997) stresses the role that tourism plays in the functional and spatial structure of contemporary cities. He pays particular attention to business tourism saying that it is one of the fastest-growing sectors in global cities today and one that is highly synergistic with the other growth sectors (Hall, 1997). Moreover, in cities, business tourism allies with leisure tourism because both are in part drawn to these cities, owing to their cultural reputations, with effects on the transportation, communication, personal services and entertainment-cultural sector. In Sassen's concept of global cities (2006), the tourist function has a supplementary role and its development stems from the derived demand of a city's inhabitants and business travellers. Apart from business centres developing in cities, there is a growth in the number of associated luxury consumption spheres such as shopping and entertainment centres, hotels and catering establishments. Moreover, recreational tourism is starting to benefit from a cultural sector growing in cities, therefore it is also used for revitalizing cities in order to enhance or preserve the status of a particular city in national urban systems (Sassen, 2006, p. 3 and 160).

The internationalization of the tourist function is not widely discussed in literature on urban tourism either, which is most often in the form of sociological, geographical and economic case studies of particular cities. A coherent concept of world tourism cities in this respect is proposed by Maitland and Newman (2009), who make direct references to contemporary theories of global cities. According to the authors, they are large well-located polycentric and multifunctional cities that accommodate international business, national élites, nationally and internationally important cultural assets as well as distinctive historical monuments or iconic buildings so they can offer a range of experiences. Moreover, they have an ability to produce new desirable places and areas off the beaten track and add them to already well known and crowded tourist localities and highlights (Maitland & Newman, 2009). According to the authors, global cities of tourism include New York, Paris, London, Berlin, Sydney, Chicago, Los Angeles, San Francisco, Madrid and Moscow, but they do not provide the specific criteria for their choice. The authors stress, however, that the cities stand out because of their multifunctionality and polycentricity, which, in their opinion, excludes such cities as Barcelona, Prague, Athens and even Rome. Thus, the internationalization of the tourist function is determined by large size, great economic power, multifunction-

ality, polycentricity, global connectivity, cultural diversity, strong image and touristification of the residents' activities.

The internationalization of the tourism industry in cities can be understood in two ways. First, it can be viewed as passive processes that adapt to external development conditions in a city's tourism that stem from its open functional structure. Second, it can be based on an active participation of organizations responsible for tourism planning and management in a city. Therefore, it can be controlled and integrated to some extent. Active internationalization can be defined as a set of activities performed by DMOs in cities and adapted to an international environment. In order to examine the phenomenon, it is necessary to adapt classic scientific works on internationalization of a firm (Calof & Beamish, 1995; Johanson & Vahlne, 1977; Williams & Shaw, 2011) since there are not enough in-depth literature studies.

As for firms, internationalization concerns the following functional spheres: strategy, structure, resource, products and markets (cf. Calof & Beamish, 1995). When it comes to the city level, it is possible to identify manifestations of globalization that are spheres of its impact on urban tourism which create induced levels and controlled activities (active internationalization) of urban tourism management (Table 1): the sphere of macro-environmental global factors which are the base for a strategy level; the sphere of global competition which creates two levels of internationalization: changes in tourism management organizational structure, inter-organizational collaboration; and the sphere of global demand, which creates the level of a city's international marketing orientation.

Table 1. Globalization spheres and active internationalization levels in urban tourism.

Impact of globalization spheres	Internationalization levels
Macro-environmental global factors	Tourism strategy
Global competition	Changes in tourism management organizational structure Inter-organizational collaboration
Global demand	International marketing orientation

Source: Authors

Despite the fact that cities function in the global tourist market *per se* and have assets with international significance, they are not "born global" (cf. Knight & Cavusgil, 1996). Their internationalization is in the form of incremental decisions and successive actions of many actors (Ruhanen et al., 2010; Wang & Pizam, 2011). It can occur gradually, e.g. as a result of investments that raise the tourist attractiveness of a city, which was the case for Barcelona and Bilbao (Maitland, 2008;

Smith, 2006), or as a result of changes arising from the implementation of strategic decisions. However, broadly speaking, the degree of their international involvement stems from their expanded experience and enhanced knowledge of international markets and is in line with assumptions of the Uppsala model and other traditional approaches (Bilkey & Tesar, 1977; Cavusgil, 1984; Johanson & Vahlne, 1977), i.e. the initial and experimental foreign expansion into the psychologically closest markets is preceded by the success on the domestic market, rather than stemming from the impact of the push mechanism or an intervention on part of an “outside agent”.

Tourism management system in Polish cities

In Poland, tourism is managed on a local and regional level by self-government units and tourist organizations (Figure 1), which is in line with the general idea of territorial self-governance present in democratic countries and the separation of tourist administration from promotion and stimulation of tourism development. There are three self-governmental levels (provinces, districts and communes) and two organizational levels of tourism (regional and local) (Poland, 2012; Polska Organizacja Turystyczna, 2009). Poland’s largest cities may belong to various categories depending on their size and metropolitan and regional functions: there are communes with district rights and because they are the capitals of regions, they are seats of province marshals. They are also seats of regional tourist organizations (RTOs) and – as the most popular destinations in their regions – mostly seats of local tourist organization (LTOs).

Competences of self-governments units with reference to tourism differ depending on their level. In general, province marshals are responsible for the realization and implementation of tasks delegated by the governmental administration. They mainly come up with strategies of development, including tourism. Competencies of districts and communes cover all public affairs of local importance which include infrastructure development, ensuring of safety, environmental matters, place marketing and tourism. Self-governmental units of all levels have funds for developing tourism as part of public budgets (Poland, 2012). Tourism matters are delegated to specially created tourist departments or included into larger departments in city councils because of the heterogeneity of tourism.

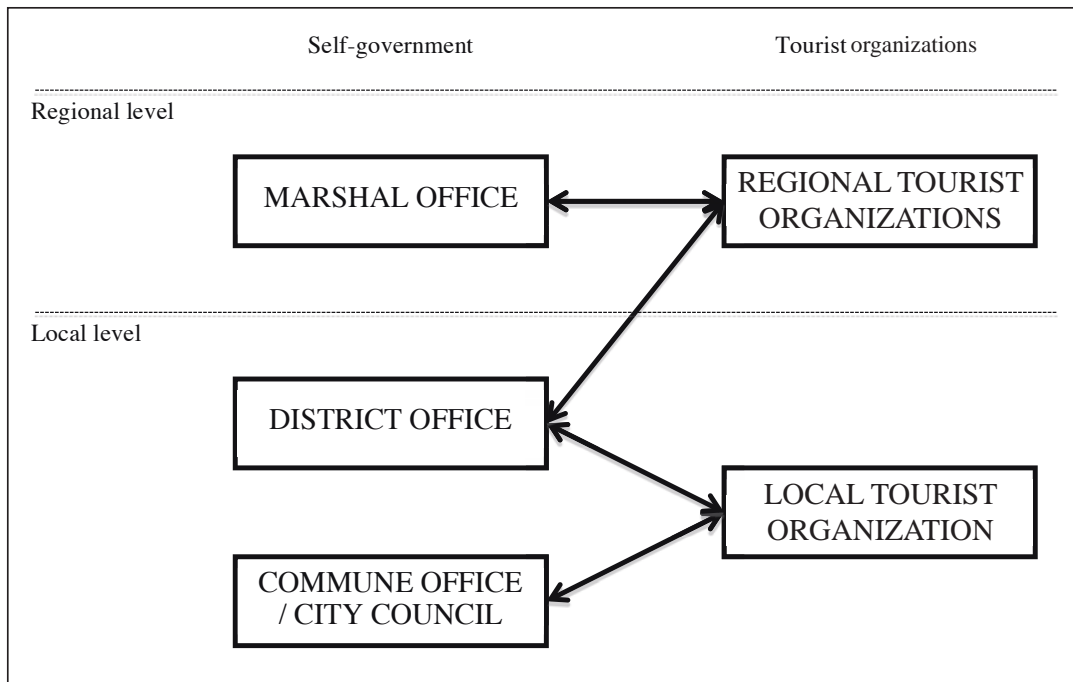


Figure 1. Tourism management system in Poland – regional and local level.

Source: (Poland, 2012)

RTOs and LTOs, in turn, are, by definition, autonomous bodies involved in tourism promotion and development. The way in which their competences are divided and their mutual relations are not determined formally. RTOs are mandatory bodies responsible for these issues in every province and LTOs are responsible for marketing tourist attractions and developing tourist products on the local level but their performance is optional (Butowski, 2004; Poland, 2012). Both types of the organizations are associations of public, private and non-profit stakeholders. Despite the fact that self-governments are members of RTOs and LTOs which can be formally commissioned to carry out tasks related to tourism promotion and development, they are usually involved in tourism management independently (Polska Organizacja Turystyczna, 2009). Relevant regulations do not set out detailed rules for membership of self-governments at various levels in RTOs and LTOs (Migdal, 2009), which leads to doubling activities and differences in organizational solutions in particular cities. As a result, in practice, metropolitan cities have four organizational models of urban tourism management:

1. Activity on part of the city council and both types of tourist organizations, whereby a particular LTO plays a supplementary or marginal role (Bydgoszcz, Cracow, Lublin);
2. Activity on part of the city council and both types of tourist organizations (Warsaw);

3. Activity on part of the city council and both types of tourist organizations, whereby a particular RTO plays a marginal role by concentrating on the development of a region (Gdansk, Poznan);
4. Activity on part of the city council and RTO with no LTO (Katowice, Lodz, Szczecin, Wroclaw).

The extent to which entities are able to manage tourism effectively in the aforementioned cities depends on their individual potential, abilities and impact. However, organizational solutions do depend on the cohesion and quality of tourism management in the cities and may have a considerable effect on the extent of tourism management internationalization. Considering the practical aspect of research into internationalization, organizational solutions determine the number of respondents that were supposed to have been reached.

DATA AND METHODOLOGY

The insufficient literature with respect to tourism management internationalization in cities and the great complexity inherent in urban tourism led to the necessity to carry out research which was mainly exploratory (Babbie, 2007) and partly descriptive. It was assumed that research into internationalization should comprise Poland's largest cities, i.e. those with over 300,000 inhabitants within their administrative borders; in other words, those who had the potential of becoming metropolises now or in the future. Exhaustive research was carried out in order to recognize the organizational structure of tourism management in the Polish cities. Both quantitative and qualitative data were collected, which was justified by the lack of time and spatial difficulties in reaching all the DMOs. Based on an informal in-depth interview with the CEO of the Poznan Tourism Organization, a research tool was devised which finally consisted of 52 mostly closed and partially closed questions (only four of them were open) divided into the following sections: tourism development potential, internationalization of tourism development strategy, policy of tourism internationalization, internationalization of tourism marketing, internationalization of structures and collaboration and characteristics of a town/city and its DMO. It was determined that the general population totalled 24 entities in 10 cities. The names and addresses of those in charge of the DMOs were specified based on analysis of secondary data, i.e. Internet resources and relevant documents of the Polish Tourism Organization (2009). Because of the complexity of the research problem area, two modes of questionnaire survey were chosen: face-to-face and Internet. As for the first mode, a questionnaire was carried out during the Regional and Local Tourist Organizations Forum held by the Polish Tourist Organ-

ization in Zawiercie, Poland, 2-4 October 2013, and during the Tour Salon tourist fair, 22-25 October 2013. Afterwards, respondents were emailed a link to the questionnaire form (using the *moje-ankieta.pl* engine) and a letter of intent which stressed the importance and usefulness of the research to ensure a high response rate. The exclusive nature of the research was also emphasized by a recommendation letter from the vice-president of the Polish NTO appended to the emails. In order to generate interest in the research subject, a summary of the research project was attached and a presentation of research results was promised (cf. Bean & Roszkowski, 1995; Jobber & O'Reilly, 1998). Five filled-in questionnaires were obtained using direct method; however, meeting respondents face-to-face ensured a high response rate of the internet survey. The remaining questionnaires were sent out to all the DMOs in October and November 2013. Two email reminders were sent every 10 days to increase the number of participating organizations, followed by a telephone reminder. Finally, 18 questionnaires were returned, which amounted to a 75% response rate. All the cities were represented by self-governments. In addition, six RTOs and two LTOs participated in the study (see Table 2).

Table 2. Structure of the respondents population

Type of DMO/city	Bydgoszcz	Gdansk	Katowice	Cracow	Lublin	Lodz	Poznan	Szczecin	Warsaw	Wroclaw	Total
City councils	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	10
Regional Tourist Organizations	-	x	+	-	+	+	x	+	+	+	6
Local Tourist Organizations	-	-	x	-	-	x	+	x	+	x	2
Total	1	1	2	1	2	2	2	2	3	2	18

Source: own study

Because of the explanatory nature of the study and the low number of respondents of three types, the paper further presents the results of the initial descriptive qualitative data analysis concerning the three international levels isolated and described in the literature review section.

FINDINGS

In general, in all of the surveyed cities, tourism was the most often considered a complementary sector of the urban economy: that was

the case in Bydgoszcz, Lodz and Szczecin. Respondents from Katowice, Lublin, Wrocław and Warsaw saw it as complementary or significant (although respondents representing the city councils claimed it was less important), those from Poznan and Gdansk as significant and those in Cracow as leading. The differences in the assessment did not reflect the same respondents' evaluation of their city's competitive position on the domestic tourism market. Almost all the respondents said it was moderate when it came to the number of tourists and high as for the increase in the number of tourists and the rise in the number of beds over the last five years. Only Warsaw respondents saw themselves as market leaders in terms of the first indicator.

All but one city implemented tourism development strategies. In Bydgoszcz, Gdansk, Lodz and Katowice it was part of the cities' overall development strategy or marketing strategy. A tourism development strategy as a separate document was drawn up in Poznan, Wrocław, Warsaw, Lublin and Cracow. In Szczecin, no strategy was implemented.

The assessment of the importance of tourism in the urban economy, presented as the first in the survey, was connected with their international orientation in the implemented strategies. Respondents from Cracow, Warsaw and Gdansk admitted that internationalization was strongly emphasized in the documents. Poznan respondents said it was strongly emphasized, whereas those from the remaining cities said that little attention was paid to internationalization. Respondents from all the cities but Cracow did not agree that expansion into foreign markets had been preceded by the success on the domestic market. However, in the case of Gdansk, Lublin, Poznan (and Cracow as well), internationalization had helped them establish and strengthen their competitive positions in Poland. Despite the DMOs' claims that activities in the Polish and foreign markets were interconnected, only Wrocław respondents saw foreign expansion as a reason for reducing the city's competitive position on the domestic market.

Based on answers to the question as to what extent activities of DMOs focused on foreign markets, it can be stated that DMOs' activities are oriented towards international expansion in Gdansk, Poznan and Warsaw, in which the share amounts to over 50%. In Cracow, its DMO's activities are internationalized to a considerable degree and the city's 80% of activities are oriented internationally. Activities undertaken in Lodz, Szczecin, Lublin, Wrocław, Bydgoszcz and Katowice are oriented internally (fewer than 50% of activities have international orientation).

The most often mentioned motive which pulled the cities into the international tourist market was increasing tourist volumes from abroad (72% of the mentions), increasing transport accessibility of the cities (67%), and improving their overall competitive positions in the political, economic or cultural international arena (61%).

With reference to marketing, most of the researched urban DMOs used host market orientation as their overall orientation on the foreign tourist markets, considering the diversity and nature of their selected markets. Two cities, Katowice and Bydgoszcz, indicated that they were focused mainly on certain psychologically closest markets, whereby the domestic and international orientations were the same or similar. The Lodz DMOs used a mix of these two orientations.

Asked to indicate the geographical scope of tourist internationalization of their cities, all the cities associated it with psychological closeness, which means that the DMOs undertook occasional (Szczecin, Katowice and Lodz) or long-term activities (the rest of the cities) on the geographically and culturally closest European markets. However, the decision to expand a city's promotional involvement in a selected foreign tourist market was mostly influenced by the visitor volume from the market (72% of the mentions) and less often impacted by parallel activities of Polish NTOs (44%) and psychological closeness of the market (33%). The knowledge about the market was as significant as intuition (22%) and psychological distance of the market (37%).

The Polish urban DMOs had diversified strategies of international expansion. Five of them (Lodz, Cracow, Gdansk, Poznan and Warsaw) used demographic and buyer behaviour-based segmentation and expanded internationally, promoting only selected urban products from the domestic market. The Bydgoszcz DMO declared that they used geographical market segmentation and expanded internationally, promoting the same urban products as those on the domestic market. Lublin, Katowice and Wroclaw used two of these marketing strategies, and Poznan tried to use an innovative approach, additionally promoting some new urban products different from those on the domestic market.

The research shows that internationalization of the tourist function influenced the changes to the organizational structure of DMOs to a varying degree. Generally speaking, the Cracow DMO underwent significant changes and built its new organizational structure. In the Wroclaw RTO basic changes were made and new units responsible for international affairs were created. In most cities, the internationalization of their DMOs led to partial or minor changes to or development of existing organizational units, departments or positions. The Szczecin and Katowice DMOs did not change at all. In particular, internationalization tasks were added for selected positions in 11 DMOs. In addition, a Polish characteristic response to internationalization is to create urban convention bureaus, which was the case in as many as seven cities: Gdansk, Katowice, Poznan, Wroclaw, Bydgoszcz, Cracow and Warsaw. Six cities created new visitor centres for foreign visitors, however, only the Warsaw LTO created a new department of international marketing. No DMOs created foreign offices in their key markets.

Moreover, international orientation enhanced cooperation. According to respondents, it boosted collaboration efforts of 12 DMOs significantly or completely. Only the Bydgoszcz DMO reported a slight extension of collaboration efforts, and the Szczecin DMOs did not mention cooperation.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

It can be inferred from the results presented in the paper that internationalization of the tourist function is so complex and has so many aspects that it is impossible to determine its intensity and scope unambiguously with reference to particular spheres of destination management. It cannot be stated with any certainty that Polish cities have adopted a classical model of gradual involvement in international activities, as described in the Uppsala model and by its protagonists (Bilkey & Tesar, 1977; Cavusgil, 1984; Johanson & Vahlne, 1977), and presented in the review section of the paper. It can also be concluded that the degree of their international involvement stems from their expanded experience and enhanced knowledge of international markets. However, the knowledge of foreign markets and psychological closeness are not significant factors that accelerate their international tourist expansion. Analysis of selected questions shows that Polish urban DMOs do not in general implement a thought-out strategy of internationalization of the tourist function and their activities in this respect are rather characterized by occasionality, passive adaptation to demand trends (which, in turn, stem from decisions of transnational corporations, especially airlines, hotel chains and organizers of international events and meetings). The high level of internalization of tourism promotion and development activities is only declarative and is not confirmed by detailed research. It may of course arise from the nature of the method used – particular respondents stressed involvement realizing that it was important at least as a research subject. Nevertheless, on the basis of respondents' answers, the cities were clustered into four groups (Figure 2):

1. Active internationalization cities which started to internationalize their tourist functions as new steps resulting from a strategic decision of their DMOs;
2. Reactive internationalization cities in which internationalization was caused by a rising demand on part of foreign tourists, so marketing activities have been focused on the markets from which tourists come;
3. Active-reactive internationalization cities which have reacted to an increasing number of foreign guests by preparing a strategy adjusted to the new conditions;

4. Secondary internationalization cities in which full internationalization started as a result of cultural, political or sport mega-events, despite the fact that the cities had already been visited by foreign tourists, which means they went through a stage of passive internationalization.

It should be added that international events are additional drivers of DMOs' conscious decisions and activities with regard to internationalization of the tourist function, also in the case of the cities included in other clusters. That was the case for Lublin and Wrocław, which competed for the title of the European Capital of Culture 2016.

Active internationalization	Reactive internationalization	Active-reactive internationalization	Secondary internationalization
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gdańsk • Lublin 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Bydgoszcz • Szczecin • Wrocław 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Katowice • Poznań 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Kraków • Łódź • Warsaw

Figure 2. Four modes of tourist management internationalization in Polish cities

Source: own study

Despite the DMOs' declarations with regard to conscious internationalization decisions presented in Figure 2, internationalization of the tourist function in Polish cities is caused by a rising international demand, which is confirmed by answers to other questions which clearly show the big role that international tourist volumes play when marketing decisions are taken. It must also be stressed that the scope and dynamics of internationalization of the tourist function depends largely on overall tourist development and the ensuing significance and role of tourism in urban function structures. Cities in which their tourist function is complementary, namely Szczecin, Bydgoszcz, Lodz and partially Katowice, undertake passive adoptive activities. Their DMOs are the least involved in international marketing expansion and have organizational structures which are the least adapted for the purposes.

The Polish cities are also characterized by the fact that management knowledge, experience and skill and the ensuing international orientation common for all DMOs, are not dependent on a DMO's business and are in contrast with ideas proposed by Seiser (2008). The limited internationalization of tourism management in the Polish cities is reflected by rather moderate changes to the organizational structures of DMOs. In cities where the tourist function is relatively the most internationalized, changes to the structures are substantial, i.e. in Cracow, Gdansk and Wrocław. Nevertheless, internationalization of tourism management causes collaborative efforts to intensify within the cities, which is in line with the literature on both the internationalization

and nature of tourism. The research has shown that a city's network connectivity (Taylor, 2009) requires internal networks of business and social relationships to be strengthened.

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