GLOBAL CHALLENGES, LOCAL SENSITIVITIES: TOWARDS INTERNATIONALIZATION OF CITY TOURISM MANAGEMENT

Piotr Zmyślony

Poznań University of Economics, Poznań, Poland

Abstract

Globalization has affected tourism industry in all areas and dimensions. Its impact could be observed both on the international and local levels, especially in cities, in which global drivers are coupled to local conditions. The paper focuses on internationalization processes of city tourism management which result from contemporary globalization challenges. Six internationalization levels are selected: strategy, changes in tourism management organizational structure, inter-organisational collaboration, augmentation of a tourist offer, expansion of a tourism space, and international marketing orientation. The results of the Poznań case study show that the tourism management organisational aspects are the hardest levels to be internationalized.

Keywords: city tourism, cities, globalization, internationalization, Poland

Paper type: Scientific paper

Introduction

Cities have now become the biggest beneficiaries of international tourism exchange. Because of their size, significance, economic, social and political potential, historical and cultural heritage, accessibility and developed infrastructure, they attract a massive number of visitors, which is reflected in international statistics (ECM, 2013; Euromonitor International, 2014). Due to its nature, economic globalization is manifested most clearly (and is recognized most widely) on a macroeconomic level. As for tourist phenomena, this is the case for a mesoeconomic level. Therefore, Milne and Ateljevic (2001) and Cooper (2011) point out that globalization processes have transcended boundaries at a variety of geographical scales, not only between states. Tourism, viewed as an activity based on local resources and occurring at the local level, is both driven by global forces, multinational corporations and international institutions, and is formed by complexities of local environments and relations (see: Alejziak, 2011; Hjalager, 2007; Theuns, 2008). In cities and regions global processes are coupled to local conditions. The globalization of an environment obviously results in internationalization occurring to a various degree and on various levels (Burdett, Rode, 2007; Milne, Ateljevic, 2001; Sassen, 2006). The process is more and more strongly felt also in urban centres located in states which do not constitute the main areas of international economic exchange, e.g. Eastern Europe, including Poland.

In this context it is important to answer the question as to what consequences for tourism management at the local level, especially in urban centres, stem from the tourism market globalization. Therefore, the aim of this paper is to identify areas and activities relating to city tourism management which are able to adapt to contemporary globalization challenges. It also attempts at defining the most crucial factors which especially result from local sensitivities and which hinder the process. Poznań, one of the biggest Polish cities, economic centres and tourist destinations, serves as a case study of such adaptive activities.

Globalization of tourism: the global challenge

Literature of the subject presents globalization of tourism from the point of view of various scientific branches and disciplines as well as numerous perspectives and analysis levels. Publications that touch upon the subject matter can be categorized using the following criteria: the manner of specifying and describing globalization that is determined by a particular scientific discipline, the perspective according to which discussion is conducted as well as the level of analysis that has an impact on in what detail the matter is examined.

Globalization in tourism is often described from the economic perspective as both the process and outcome of market liberalization, financial deregulation and technological change

1/2015

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 (Bianchi, 2002; Fayed, Fletcher, 2002; Keller, 1996; Smeral, 1996, Theuns, 2008). Hjalager (2007: 437) sees notices other areas of globalization and defines it as "increasing integration of economies, societies, and civilizations, which concerns all aspects of human life, not only economic issues: political collaboration, flow of ideas, environmental sustainability, criminal behaviour, disease, and terror".

This economic and process perspective is first of all dominated by discussions conducted on a macro- and a meso-level that concern particular and diverse manifestations of globalization and effects that it has on the tourism sector (Fayed, Fletcher, 2002; Go, 1996; Hjalager, 2007; Keller, 1996; Knowles, Diamantis, El-Mourhabi, 2001; Smeral, 1996; Sugiyarto et al., 2003; Theuns, 2008, Vanhove, 1996; Weiermair, 1996), which are sometimes the base for specifying the global tourism policy (Alejziak, 2011; Bianchi, 2002; Smeral, 1998). These manifestations may include: 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, the role of environment as a main source of wealth on the market, implementing global strategies in local markets, the demand and supply security issues, international tourism marketing collaboration and the cooperation between enterprises and destinations, but also changes in the world tourist demand, supply structure and consumer behaviour. All these areas must be treated as global challenges for tourism development felt on the level of enterprises, destinations and states.

Once the purely economic perspective is abandoned, globalization can be perceived as a context within which the players in tourism define meaning, seek resources, and make decisions (Wood, 2008). This view is characteristic of research representing an interdisciplinary approach (Cooper, 2008), which makes use of achievements in microeconomics, geography, sociology, political sciences, management, marketing, administration, and other sciences (Cooper, 2008; Milne, Ateljevic, 2001; Meethan, 2001; Williams, Shaw, 2011, 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. As Cooper (2008: 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". 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 examination of internationalization, which, in turn, can be

understood as a form of innovation occurring as a result of global sensitivities (Williams, Shaw, 2011).

31

The combination of two points of view of globalization of tourism – as a process and as a context or a widely understood tourism environment - gives rise to a discussion about interrelations of globalization and tourism. The process perspective defines globalization as a central driving force that changes and reshapes tourism industry in the same way in which it changes other kinds of business activity (Bianchi, 2002; Fayed, Williams, 2002). However, as stressed by Alejziak (2011) and Theuns (2008), tourism has an international character by its nature, from the very beginning. Meethan (2001: 33–34) sees it as a form and a determinant of globalization. In addition, internationalization activities performed by the entities that create it enhance the globalization process. Following from that, Hjalager (2007: 438) states: "travel and tourism are among the many causes and results of globalization processes", while Wood (2008: 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".

Globalization and internationalization of tourism in cities

Irrespective of the adopted research perspective, discussions on globalization of tourism do not pay enough attention to the role of cities and regions in this process, despite the fact that Cooper (2008: 110) states that "the impact of global processes upon tourism can be seen at both a sectoral and destination perspective", and that Smeral (1996: 392) adds that "the different destinations compete worldwide, through globalisation". Cities' great significance can be indirectly inferred from the notion of the global/local nexus described by Bianchi (2002) and Cooper (2008). The problem of the impact that globalization has on urban tourism industry is looked into by e.g. Church and Frost (2004), Maitland and Newman (2009) and Zmyślony (2011), who base their discussions on the theory of internationalization of cities and organization of local space (Clark, 2004; Sassen, 2006: Porter, 1990; Short, Kim; 1999), and, to a lesser extent, on the theory of corporate internationalization (Calof, Beamish, 1995).

Global processes have reinforced the local level, lending it an international significance. Porter (1990) states that in a global economy, in which classical factors of production are more and more accessible, the enduring competitive advantages lie increasingly in local sources like differential knowledge, information flow, skilled labour force, relationships, motivation, and mutual reinforcement that cannot be matched from a distance (cf. Porter, 1990: 154-159). According to Cattan (1995), cities are the points at which the internationalization process of a territory begins and materializes. 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. In this respect, cities actively contribute to the integration of territories within an international network (p. 303). Hall (1966), Friedmann (1986), Castells (1992), Short and Kim (1999), Sassen (2006) and many

researchers suggest that certain major metropolitan areas have gained a strong and particular position in the world economy, which is one of the forms of globalization. These areas have a status of global cities and develop international circuits of connections (cf. Castells, 1992; Sassen, 2006). However, not only global cities experience impacts of globalization: adaptive changes also take place in other cities that have a status of regional centres.

Generally speaking, 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 nature. Second, as shown by Cavusgil (1984), it can be based on an active participation of entities responsible for developing tourism in a city. In addition, it can be controlled and integrated to some extent. According to Calof and Beamish's (1995: 116) definition of globalization, it can be defined as a set of activities performed

in a city and adapted to an international environment.

As for firms, internationalization concerns the following functional spheres: strategy, structure, resource, products and markets (cf. Calof, Beamish, 1995). When it comes to city level, it is possible to identify manifestations of globalization that are spheres of its impact on urban tourism. Moreover, each sphere contributes to creating induced levels and controlled activities (active internationalization). Globalization spheres and internationalization levels (Tab. 1) are: the sphere of macroenvironmental global factors which are the base for a strategy level; the sphere of global competition which creates four levels of internationalization: changes in tourism management organizational structure, inter-organisational collaboration, augmentation of a tourist offer and expansion of a city's tourism space; and the sphere of global demand, which creates the level of a city's international marketing orientation (cf. Zmyślony, 2014).

Table 1. Globalization spheres and internationalization levels in city tourism management

Impact of globalization spheres	Internationalization levels
Macro-environmental global factors	Strategy
Global competition	Changes in tourism management organizational structure
	Inter-organisational collaboration
	Augmentation of a tourist offer
	Expansion of a city's tourism space
Global demand	International marketing orientation

Source: adopted from P. Zmyślony (2014)

The impact that macro-environmental global factors have is perceived through processes described in the previous part of the paper as global challenges for tourism development. They not only start adaptive changes in activities of many entities and institutions (e.g. adjusting the offer to the needs of new segments of visitors), but also activate the awareness of the need for active change in order to take advantage of chances occurring in the global environment on part of people managing institutions responsible for developing a city's tourism, i.e. the city's authorities and destination management organizations. Calof and Beamish (1995) state that increasing involvement in international operations first of all requires adopting a suitable strategy so that local sensitivities are adjusted to global challenges to the fullest extent possible.

General principles and methodology of building up a regional tourist strategy should be based on strategic management (Bryson, Alston, 2005), whose main ideas are external orientation instead of concentrating on internal development problems, and engagement of all stakeholders in developing a city's tourism. The strategy makes it possible to answer three fundamental questions: where are we?, where do we want to be?, and how to reach there?, which are also key to internationalization decisions and activities. It needs to be stressed that as for spatial strategies, the only way to build up an international competitive advantage is a drive at distinctiveness. Building up a new competitive advantage on the global market is based on

determining the identity and isolating resources which differentiate a city from other destinations in the global marketplace (Knowles et al., 2001). As Maitland and Newman (2009: 137) emphasize, "this is an evidence of globalization – distinctiveness has become an essential asset in economic competition". This opinion is borne out by Hall and Williams (2002), who say that globalization forces destinations into strategies of differentiation and encourage locally-based place identities.

Globalization broadens the range of competition felt by destinations. Cities react to the expansion by aiming at raising their resources competitiveness through augmenting their tourist offer, which creates another level of internationalization. Cities present new options to spend free time to international visitors and residents and revitalize and enrich classical tourist attractions. They strive at making both historical attractions and modern objects enjoyable to visitors (Aleksandrova et al., 2011: 149; Clark, 2004: 294; Maitland, Newman 2009a: 11). The building of modern museums, stadiums, congress and cultural centres, amusement parks, organization of big events, revitalization of the whole quarters and districts, repackaged culture and heritage and café cultures: these are only some of the initiatives - the tools to increase the tourist attractiveness. Tourism has become part of mass consumption industry. Clark (2004) states that cities have become entertainment machines, in which consumption has replaced production and has become the main driver for modern urban development and urban policy. Culture, enter1/2015

tainment, and urban amenities are used to enhance cities' locations – for present and future residents, tourists, conventioneers, and shoppers (Clark 2004: 1 and 293–294). Expanding a city's tourist offer results in increasing the city's tourist space, which leads to opening up opportunities for visitors to discover new attractions off the beaten track, previously unknown to mass tourism (Maitland, Newman, 2009a: 2).

Moreover, the actual tourist space goes beyond the city's fixed administrative boundaries and blends with suburban areas, thus creating a metropolitan tourist region (Liszewski, 2005). In this way, the city's cultural core is enhanced by natural attractions as well as sports and recreational infrastructure. The key challenge is to change the perspective of building up a tourist offer and managing tourism – decisions should be taken based on partner structures created on the level of a local unit (cooperation of a city's authorities with the authorities of suburban local units) and between sectors (entities of the private, public and non-profit sectors). As Knowles et al. (2001) state, in globalization conditions "successful destination policy rests on strong partnerships between the different stakeholders and on a coherent, consistent and collaborative marketing approach to create identities that are unique.

Therefore, all public sector and private sector organizations must work in partnership to pursue differentiation strategies". It needs to be borne in mind, however, that an organization responsible for managing tourism should be clearly isolated and operate on clear organizational principles. Only an entity especially created and isolated for the needs of managing tourism in a region and not engaged in other activities is capable of ensuring a professional level of service in this respect. This change is becoming a key challenge for European cities, especially Eastern European ones, in which tourism is managed on a public level, and which attempt to internationalize their tourist industry.

Another aspect of globalization impacting urban tourism is tourist demand manifesting itself not necessarily in terms of greater volumes of visitors in a city, but rather in terms of defining who the contemporary recipient of a tourist product is. The typological structure of people visiting cities has become diversified. Visitors are experienced international city users who are often familiar with and attached in some way to the cities they visit (Maitland, Newman, 2009b: 135). Furthermore, globalization has an impact on the process of touristification of life in a city. Residents' consumption behaviours are changed by their own experience as tourists; moreover, the size of a city and the number of tourists highlights make them behave like tourists in their own city. That is why clear demarcations between leisure and work places, recreation and work activities, and leisure and work time are eroded, and with them the delineation between hosts and visitors and touristic and non-touristic activities (Maitland, Newman, 2009a: 4). Therefore, globalization contributes to expanding the market of tourist product consumers; the difference lies in the structure of the product's consumption. In the case of inhabitants, it is of selective nature, whereas visitors satisfy their needs in their destination in a complex way. In this case the city's whole orientation is subject to internationalization – an international market starts with a city's inhabitants.

Methodology

To reach the objective of the study desk research was conducted and secondary data were utilized in the form of strategic documents and scientific publications. As a methodological framework a descriptive single-case study has been utilised. The main reason is that the internationalization of urban tourism industry is a quite new and rarely discussed phenomenon. There is still no detailed description of the whole process dedicated to the urban tourism function. Studying the theories of world cities (Hall, 1966; 1997; 2001), global cities (Sassen, 2006) or informational cities (Castells, 1992; 2010) we can only find limited and random considerations on the role of tourism function in the process of internationalization of cities. Furthermore, internationalisation as such and in relation to the urban strategies and managment is the complex phenomenon which is not readily distinguished from its temporal context, so there is a need to cover the contextual conditions and formulate the issue broadly (Yin, 1993). Moreover, it is hardly measureable by using primary sources. That is why a single-case study method based on secondary research techniques was utilised.

Poznań was chosen because of its international industrial and tourist potential. Being the oldest and the fifth largest Polish city, Poznań is a strong trade, service, industrial, academic, and cultural centre, located in the mid-western Poland with 8165 beds in 75 accommodation establishments. In 2013, the city was visited by 615 thousand tourists (158 thousand international tourists, with a total number of 1.017 thousand overnight stays (304 thousands international stays) (NSO, 2014). The international intensity of tourism mobility (calculated as a share of international tourists/overnight stays of international tourists in the collective tourism establishments in the total tourism volumes) oscillates at around one fourth, although it can be noticed that there has been a negative decreased tendency for the last 18 years: in 1995, the share of foreign tourists stood at 42%, it then decreased steadily in the following years to reach the level of 26% in 2013 (for overnight stays the share amounted to 36% in 1995 and 30% in 2013) (NSO, 2014). In-depth study carried out in 2004 (Podemski 2004) estimated that Poznań had been visited by 1.7 million tourists every year, including 0.8 million from abroad, but since then this estimation has not been repeated.

As the aim of the presented research focuses on the internationalization of Poznań's tourism management, strategic documents related to this process were examined, i.e. city development strategy, tourism development strategy and the city's promotional strategy. The research covers the years 2007–2012 when the process of planning and implementation of these strategies took place. The main limitation of using the case study method is that the findings cannot be generalised.

Internationalization of Poznań's tourism industry

The internationalization of Poznan's tourism industry can be noticed on all the levels mentioned in the previous part of the paper, but they have a various degree of intensity and

effectiveness, which results from local sensitivities and influences the interrelations among the levels.

As for the strategic level, internationalization processes started in 2007, when the city's authorities took the decision to abandon occasional and non-integrated promotional activities and started work on building up a marketing strategy. In 2008, the "Strategy for Poznan Brand Promotion" (JUST, IKER, 2008) was adopted, which formulated principles behind the city's brand and indicated the directions and goals of its marketing activities. The key challenge presented in the Strategy was for the city to go beyond the country level and attain the status of a European metropolis, which translated in Poznań becoming the most important non-capital Polish city. In general, the strategy was meant to result in the city participating in the global network of the flow of people, capital and connections, promoting Poznań abroad, developing the 'Poznań character' concept synonymous with accurate solutions. In line with the strategy, the city was also to be associated with good preparation, high level and competences, and great opportunities and low risks in the eyes of foreign tourists. The strategy outlined two levels of action: a domestic level on which Poznań had an established image, and an international one on which the awareness of Poznań was very low, which makes it impossible to determine the city's image. The international claim "Poznan. Western Energy, Eastern Style" was implemented, as referring to Poland's image. Tourism was treated as one of the dimensions of the city's image, and the city's visitors were further segmented and became four out of twelve main segments of the city's activities promoting its image.

Furthermore, the city's international orientation was reinforced and even widened while work was carried on "Development Strategy for the City of Poznan to 2030" (City of Poznań, 2010a). The strategy paid attention to three internationalization factors: metropolitan development, inclusion of the city in the European network of cities and knowledge-based economy. Tourism was included in two out of four strategic areas: "City of Knowledge, Culture, Tourism and Sports" and "Poznań Metropolis". The main objective of the strategy regarding tourism development had a purely international dimension: the objective was for Poznań to attain the status of an international centre for culture and tourism. Moreover, tourism was included in one of 21 strategic programs, titled "Poznań for Tourists", which had a seven-page description of strategic challenges, objectives and projects in this respect.

Public sector officials' uncontrollable urge to create strategy documents, which seems inherent in the work of the sector, contributed to developing yet another planning document, namely "Tourism Development Strategy for the City of Poznań to 2030" (City of Poznań, 2011a) as an extension to the program "Poznań for Tourists". The strategy was created by a wide range of stakeholders interested in developing tourism, which was not possible at the time a general strategy was being created. The work was carried out till 2011. The internationalization of urban tourism industry manifested itself on all possible levels. The central point of the strategy on the basis of which objectives, tasks and development programs were designed in more detail. The strategy treated Poznań as a recognized and pro-

fessionally managed European urban tourism centre in twenty years' time whose history and cultural and economic potential was the base for creating an innovative and metropolitan tourist offer. The European market was a reference for raising and evaluating the competitive position. The spatial range of activities was defined as the area of an urban agglomeration, and not a city within its administrative boundaries. Attention was paid to innovativeness as a factor that should develop a tourist offer and directions of changes in the organizational structure of tourism management in a city.

All the described strategies referred to the remaining levels of the internationalization of a city's tourism industry. The level of international marketing orientation was included in the premises and implementation of the "Strategy for Poznań Brand Promotion". Since the strategy was adopted, the city has organized a dozen or so coherent promotional campaigns that have been targeted not only at tourists, but also other groups of recipients of the city's brand. As stated in the sequential internationalization theory (Cavusgil, 1984), attention was paid to the most recognizable and profitable markets: German, British and Spanish ones as well as Irish and Croatian ones thanks to the 2012 European Football Championship. In addition, the Tourism Development Strategy also provided for the joint satisfaction of the needs of residents, on-day visitors and tourists by raising the synergy of the tourist products offered. However, it was necessary to improve internal marketing communication without which inhabitants would not be aware of the city's rising tourist and recreational attractiveness.

Internationalization concerning a city's tourist space expansion and cooperation was implemented through another strategy created for the metropolitan level, namely "The Strategy for the Development of Poznań Agglomeration - Metropolia Poznań 2020" (CBM, 2010). Matters relating to tourism development were included in the program "Metropolitan Tourist Offer", in which the main emphasis was placed on the coherence of activities and organizational innovativeness. One indispensable condition of exploiting Poznań's tourist potential was to strengthen the cooperation between its authorities and local authorities within the metropolitan area. In line with the principle of subsidiarity, activities were proposed according to which independent operation of local authorities was hardly possible, not very effective and too costly, which means it needed support. The activities included: creating a system of current monitoring and evaluating the development of the city's tourism industry, the integrated tourist information and promotion as well as preparing two metropolitan products: business tourism and recreational and sports tourism.

Internationalization concerning the augmentation of a tourist offer was also realized in the form of numerous investments that raise the city's competitive potential on the tourism market with considerable use of EU structural funds. The most crucial ones made between 2000–2012 included: the development of the Archaeological Reserve and the Heritage Centre of the interactive Ostrów Tumski, which was a state-of-the-art museum offering exhibitions on the history of Poland and the city, the redevelopment of the City Culture Centre, the redevelopment of the City Stadium, and the development of the

"Malta" Baths. In addition, numerous technical and transport infrastructure investments were realized, which have enhanced the international opening of Poznań (City of Poznań, 2011b).

Changes to the organizational structure of tourism management were the biggest obstacle to internationalizing Poznań's tourism industry. The Tourism Development Strategy paid attention to the ineffective organizational structure that was not adjusted to global challenges. A local destinations management organization called the Poznań Tourist Organization and created in 2003 played a relatively insignificant role. In 2012 the organization had 51 members and its yearly budget below 100,000 euro was dependent on the public sector, especially the City Hall. Moreover, five institutions were directly engaged in tourism development and marketing, four of which were an integral part of the City Hall's organizational structure. This resulted in competency dispersion, incoherence of activities, duplicated objectives, priorities, financial, physical and human resources. What is more, the institutions mentioned had to compete for finance and did not have clear responsibilities for pro-tourism activities. Considering global development challenges it was proposed that one management centre should be created that would have an organizational support of the tourism industry and cumulate knowledge of how to conduct business activity. As for promotion, such an organization would cooperate with the City's Promotion Office in implementing the Strategy for the Poznań Brand Promotion, and would be independent as to the distribution of finance and rights to use Poznań brand and would operate in the agglomeration area. These conditions were met by the Poznań Tourist Organization provided it received greater financial support. The resistance on part of the City Hall's excessively layered and complex structure had so far proved stronger than globalization forces. The Strategy was adopted on condition that the structure of tourism management was changed, but this requirement was not met for 2 years since the Strategy was proposed. It was not known either when the relevant changes would take place. The local political relations and the inflexibility of the public sector seriously hindered the internationalization of the city's tourism industry both in the organizational and strategic sense.

Conclusions

Globalization greatly affects the tourism industry, which is evident not only with reference to the whole sector or its microlevel, but also in cities. Globalization processes strengthen the bargaining power of cities which are more and more dependent on state systems in the light of a rising dependence between business activity and international markets as well as trade routes (cf. Sassen, 2006; Theuns, 2011). Globalization forces and changes are confronted with the complicated and heterogeneous structure of the city's tourism industry, which is also influenced by many social, economic, political and environmental factors. What is more, globalization has an impact on adaptive changes occurring in the city's tourism industry that can be viewed as a sign of internationalization. The spheres of globalization influencing cities' tourism industry mentioned in the paper and the levels of internationalization ensuing from them can be classified as an enterprise's functional scopes which are subject to internationalization activities. The level of an offer development and a tourist space expansion corresponds to the spheres of resources and a product whereas the level of changes in the market orientation is matched with the sphere of the market served. The level of changes in the organizational structure and the level of cooperation among entities correspond to the sphere of organization, and the scope of the operations strategy is the same. It needs to be noticed that the last three levels are matched with management functions: planning, organization and coordination. After the fact that these functions can be adapted to the area of place management is considered, it can be inferred from the case of Poznań that the main obstacles to the internationalization of the tourism management occur in the coordination level which is most deeply rooted in the local development reality. However, these problems are deeply rooted in the heterogeneous nature of tourism industry (Gołembski, 2009; Vanhove, 2010; Wodejko, 1998). As far as the single-case study has been utilised in the research, these results should be verified by more case studies based on other Polish or European cities with comparable size and tourism industry specifics. It should be also stressed that the presented study is only based on the planning and organizational implementation's aspects of the internationalization processes within the tourism management area. Therefore, it does not cover the possible effects of these decisions and actions in the area of the internationalization of the city's tourism industry and its impact on the internationalization of the whole city. Such a study is suggested as an implication for further research. Despite these obstacles the internationalization of the tourism industry should be treated as the only way of raising cities' competitiveness both on the tourism market and the general dimension.

Acknowledgements

The paper was written under a project "Tourism function in the process of cities' internationalization" granted by the Polish National Science Centre (NCN) N N112 383840 (3838/B/H03/2011/40).

References:

Aleksandrova, A., Rogova, S. & Sluka N. (2011). Miasta globalne w systemie ośrodków turystyki międzynarodowej, In: B. Włodarczyk (ed.), *Turystyka*. Łódź: Wydawnictwo UŁ, 137–152.

Alejziak, W. (2011). A Global Tourism Policy – Utopia, Alternative or Necessity? Folia Turistica, 25(1), 313–356.

Bianchi, R. (2002). Towards a new political economy of global tourism, In: R. Sharpley, D. Telfer (eds.), *Tourism and development: Concepts and issues.* Clevendon: Channel View, 265–299.

Bryson, J.M. & Alston, F.K. (2005). Strategic planning for public and non-profit organizations: A guide to strengthening and sustaining organizational achievement. Third edition. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Burdett, R. & Rode, P. (2007). The Urban Age Project. In: R. Burdett, D. Sudjic (eds.), *The Endless City.* London-New York: Phaidon Press, 8–31.

Calof, J.L. & Beamish, P.W. (1995). Adapting to foreign markets: Explaining internationalization. *International Business Review*, 4(2), 115–131.

Cattan, N. (1995). Attractivity and internationalisation of major European cities: The example of air traffic. *Urban Studies*, 32(2), 303–312.

Cavusgil, S.T. (1984). Differences among exporting firms based on their degree of internationalization. *Journal of Business Research*, 12(2), 195–208.

Clark, T.N. (2004). The City as An Entertainment Machine. Research in Urban Policy, 9, Oxford: Elsevier.

Church, A. & Frost, M. (2004). Tourism, the global city and the labour market in London. *Tourism Geographies*, 6(2), 208–228.

Castells, M. (1992). The Informational City: Economic Restructuring and Urban Development. Oxford: Wiley.

Castells, M. (2010). Globalisation, networking, urbanisation: Reflections on the spatial dynamics of the information age. *Urban Studies*, 47(13), 2737–2745.

CBM (2011). Strategia rozwoju aglomeracji poznańskiej – Metropolia Poznań 2020. Poznań: Centrum Badań Metropolitalnych, Uniwersytet im. Adama Mickiewicza w Poznaniu.

City of Poznań (2010). Development Strategy for the City of Poznan to 2030. Poznań: City Development Department, Poznań City Hall.

City of Poznań (2011a). *Strategia rozwoju turystyki w Poznaniu do 2030 roku*. Poznań: Centrum Turystyki Kulturowej TRAKT, Poznań City Hall, unpublished.

City of Poznań (2011b). Poznań 2000–2011: The City is Changing. Selected investments, interesting facts from the city's life. Poznań: City Development Department, Poznań City Hall.

Cooper, C. (2008). Globalization Is More than an Economic Phenomenon. Tourism Recreation Research, 33(1), 109-111.

ECM (2013). The European Cities Benchmarking Report 2012–2013. Dijon: European Cities Marketing.

Euromonitor International (2014), Euromonitor International's top city destinations ranking. Retrieved from:

http://blog.euromonitor.com/2014/01/euromonitor-internationals-top-city-destinations-ranking.html (access date: 27.01.2014).

Fayed, H. & Fletcher, J. (2002). Globalisation of economic activity issues for tourism. *Tourism Economics*, 8(2), 207–230. Friedmann, J. (1986). The World City Hypothesis. *Development and Change*, 17, 69–83.

Go, F. (1996). Globalisation and Corporate Organisation. In: P. Keller (ed.), *Globalisation and Tourism*. Reports of 46th AIEST Congress in Rotorua (New Zealand). St-Gall: AIEST, 261–302.

Gołembski, G. (2009). Kompendium wiedzy o turystyce. Second edition. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN.

Hall, C.M. & Williams, A. (2002). Tourism and Migration: New Relationships Between Production and Consumption. London: Kluwer Academic.

Hall, P. (1966). The World Cities. London: Heinemann.

Hall, P. (1997). *Megacities, World Cities and Global Cities*. Rotterdam: The Megacities Foundation, Retrieved from http://www.megacities.nl/lecture 1/lecture.html (access date: 7.03.2014).

Hall, P. (2001). Global city-regions in the twenty-first century. In: A. J. Scott (ed.), *Global City-Regions: Trends, Theory, Policy*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 59–77.

Hjalager, A.M. (2007). Stages in the economic globalization of tourism. Annals of Tourism Research, 34(2): 437-457.

JUST, IKER (2008). Strategy for Poznan Brand Promotion. Poznań: Poznań City Hall.

Kaller, P. (1996). Globalisation and Tourism: A fascinating topic of research. In: P. Keller (ed.), *Globalisation and Tourism*. Reports of 46th AIEST Congress in Rotorua (New Zealand). St-Gall: AIEST, 9–20.

Knowles, T., Diamantis, D. & El-Mourhabi, J.B. (2001). The globalization of tourism and hospitality: A strategic perspective. London: Continuum.

Law, C.M. (2002). Urban Tourism: The Visitor Economy and The Growth of Large Cities. 2nd edition. London: Continuum.

Liszewski, S. (2005). A metropolitan tourism region: the example of Łódź. *Turyzm*, 5(1–2), 121–138.

Maitland, R. & Newman, P. (2009a). Developing World Tourism Cities. In: R. Maitland, P. Newman (eds.), World Tourism Cities: Developing Tourism off The Beaten Track. Oxon: Routledge, 1–21.

Maitland, R. & Newman, P. (2009b). Conclusions. In: R. Maitland, P. Newman (eds.), World Tourism Cities: Developing Tourism off The Beaten Track. Oxon: Routledge, 134–140.

Meethan, K. (2001). Tourism in Global Society. Hampshire-New York: Palgrave.

Milne, S. & Atlejevic, I. (2001). Tourism, economic development and the global-local nexus: Theory embracing complexity. *Tourism Geographies*, 3(4): 369–393.

NSO (2014). Bank Danych Lokalnych. Główny Urząd Statystyczny – National Statistics Office. Retrieved from http://stat.gov.pl/bdl/app/strona.html (access date: 24.08. 2014).

Podemski, K. (2004). *Inbound domestic and foreign tourist traffic and utilisation of conference facilities in Poznań and the Poznań Area.* Survey carried out at the request of The City Development Department of the Poznań City Hall. Poznań:

Q-Market Research. Retrieved from http://www.poznan.pl/mim/s8a/en/studies,doc,1398/inbound-domestic-and-foreign-tour-ist-traffic-and-utilisation-of-conference-facilities-in-poznan-and-the-poznan-area,11160.html (access date: 12.03.2012).

Porter, M.E. (1990). The Competitive Advantage of The Nations. London: MacMillan.

Sassen, S. (2006). Cities in a World Economy. Third edition, Thousand Oaks: Pine Forge Press.

Short, J. R. & Kim, Y. (1999). Globalisation and the City. Harlow: Addison Wesley Longman.

Smeral, E. (1996). Globalisation and changes in the competitiveness of tourism destinations. In: P. Keller (ed.), *Globalisation and Tourism*. Reports of 46th AIEST Congress in Rotorua (New Zealand). St-Gall: AIEST, 391–416.

Smeral, E. (1998). The impact of globalization on small and medium enterprises: New challenges for tourism policies in European countries. *Tourism Management*, 19(4), 371–380.

Sugiyarto, G., Blake, A. & Sinclair, M.T. (2003). Tourism and globalization: Economic impact in Indonesia. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 30(3), 683–701.

Theuns, H.L. (2008). Globalization and tourism: Pros and cons. Tourism Recreation Research, 33(1), 99-105.

Vanhove, N. (1996). Globalisation of tourist demand: The underlying factors and the impact on marketing strategy. In: P. Keller (ed.), *Globalisation and Tourism*, Reports of 46th AIEST Congress in Rotorua (New Zealand). St-Gall: AIEST, 47–114.

Vanhove, N. (2010). The Economics of Tourism Destinations (2nd edition), Elsevier, London.

Weiermair, K. (1996). Globalisation in tourism: Impact and implications for tourist manpower, employment and systems of training/schooling. In: P. Keller (ed.), *Globalisation and Tourism*. Reports of 46th AIEST Congress in Rotorua (New Zealand). St-Gall: AIEST, 245–257.

Williams, A.M. & Shaw, G. (2011). Internationalization and innovation in tourism. *Annals of Tourism Review*, 38(1), 27–51.

Wodejko, S. (1998). Ekonomiczne zagadnienia turystyki. Warszawa: WSHiP.

Wood, R.E. (2008). Globalization and tourism: Mapping the terrain. *Tourism Recreation Research*, 33(1), 106–108.

Yin, R. (2009). Case Study Research: Design and Methods. Fourth edition. Newbury Park: Sage Publications.

Zmyślony, P. (2011). Globalization, tourism and cities: Pros and cons. Folia Turistica, 25(1), 299-312.

Zmyślony, P. (2014). Internationalization of tourism management in Polish cities: Strategies, marketing and structures. *European Journal of Tourism, Hospitality and Recreation*, 5(3), 69–89.

Piotr Zmyślony

An author and co-author of several papers and textbooks on city and urban tourism, internationalisation of tourism industry, destination governance, destination leadership, collaboration and partnerships in tourism, destination marketing, and consumer behaviour in tourism.

E-Mail: p.zmyslony@ue.poznan.pl, telephone: +4861 8543527, +4861 8543766.

Address: Poznań University of Economics, Faculty of International Business and Economics, Department of Tourism, Al. Niepodległości 10, 61–875 Poznań, Poland.