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SOME REMARKS ON PROTECTION OF CULTURAL AND NATURAL HERITAGE IN THE LIGHT OF THREATS POSED BY TOURISM



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ABSTRACT

The paper addresses the issue of protecting cultural and natural heritage from the threats posed by mass tourism. The authors justify the need for research on this phenomenon and point out the role of green criminology in this area. They subsequently define the basic concepts related to tourism, tourism crime and tourism pathologies. Furthermore, referring to the theoretical achievements of criminology, the authors attempt to explain the etiology of such deeds. The article reviews selected threats against cultural and natural heritage associated with mass tourism, occurring on a local, national, regional and global scale. Based on a review of literature, research results and an analysis of applied legal, institutional and social solutions, the authors propose possibilities of counteracting this phenomenon.

KEYWORDS: cultural heritage, natural heritage, tourism, tourism crime, pathologies in tourism, criminology

JUSTIFICATION FOR RESEARCH ON THE PHENOMENON OF DAMAGES TO CULTURAL AND NATURAL HERITAGE

According to Article 5 of the Constitution of the Republic of Poland^[1], the protection of cultural and natural heritage is one of the main duties of the state, stemming from the principle of sustainable development. There is also a noticeable tendency in international law to consider these two complementary elements of heritage together^[2]. The issue of the protection of cultural and natural heritage is of scientific interest to representatives of administrative law, criminal law as well as criminology^[3]. Nowadays, one can also discuss

^[1] Constitution of the Republic of Poland of 2 April 1997 (Journal of Laws 1997, No. 78, item 483).

^[2] Convention concerning the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage, adopted in Paris on 16 November 1972 by the General Conference of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation at its seventeenth session (Journal of Laws 1976, No. 32, item 190).

^[3] See: W. Pływaczewski, E. Zębek, J. Narodowska, Odpowiedzialność za środowisko z perspektywy prawa, kryminologii i nauk przyrodniczych, Warszawa 2020.

the emergence of specialised branches of law such as nature conservation/environmental law or heritage protection law^[4].

Also within criminology, a pioneering, non-traditional, multidisciplinary sub-discipline called *green criminology/ecocriminology* emerged at the turn of the 20th and 21st century. The researchers identifying themselves with this trend go beyond the classical framework of criminology, delineated by the triad *crime – criminality – offender*. Representatives of this area of scientific interest define and explore both traditional and new criminal and pathological phenomena targeting natural and cultural heritage^[5].

A similar process of the creation of specialised sub-disciplines also took place within victimology, i.e. victim-focused science. Thus, almost in parallel with green criminology, one can observed an emergence of so-called the *green victimology* As with green criminology, green victimology goes beyond considering only humans as victims of crimes. Green victimology recognises: human victims (*environmental justice*), non-human victims (*species justice*) the environmental victims (*ecological justice*)^[6].

The transition out of the anthropocentric focus has also made it possible to develop the concept of the *non-human victim* and *environmental victims*^[7]. The view of victimhood has thus been significantly broadened. Nowadays, the entire cultural and natural heritage as well as its individual elements, e.g. monuments, cultural landscapes, natural monuments, individual plant and animal species, can be considered a victim. On the other hand,

^[4] Compare with: K. Zeidler, *Prawo ochrony dziedzictwa kultury*, Warszawa 2007; B. Rakoczy, *Prawo ochrony przyrody*, Warszawa 2009; B. Rakoczy, B. Wierzbowski, *Prawo ochrony środowiska*, Warszawa 2023.

^[5] W. Pływaczewski, Ecocriminology in Poland end Around the World – a Balance Sheet of Past Experience (with Partikular Emphasis on the Educational and Research Offer on the Police Academy in Szczytno, Przegląd Policyjny 2021, no. 2, s. 22-36.

^[6] See: D. Schlosberg, *Ecological Justice for the Anthropocene*, [in:] M. Wissenburg, D. Schlosberg (eds.), *The Palgrave Macmillan Animal Ethics Series*, Palgrave Macmillan 2014, p. 75-89; D. Haraway, *Staying with the trouble for multispecies environmental justice*, *Dialogues in Human Geography* 2018, no. 8(1), p. 102-105.

^[7]R. White, *Green victimology and non-human victims*, *International Review of Victimology* 2018, no. 24(2), p. 239-255; See more in: R. White, *Environmental harm. An eco-justice perspective*, Policy Press University of Bristol 2013.

the concept of environmental harm has emerged as a premise for liability for environmental crimes^[8].

In terms of green criminology and green victimology, the cultural and natural environment may be victimised by mass tourism and its accompanying pathologies. Tourism crime may be understood as both acts and omissions, of a destructive/destructive nature, carried out by individuals as well as by institutions, businesses and other collective entities related to tourism, affecting various legal goods, including cultural and natural heritage and the quality of human life^[9]. On the other hand, pathologies in tourism are considered to be behaviours that do not fall into the catalogue of crimes but are socially unacceptable, unethical, deviant.

The literature also draws attention to specific human rights in tourism. These apply to tourists, tourism employees and local communities alike. It is argued that the development of tourism contributes to violating the rights of local people, destroying their living environment and culture. While the rights of tourists are protected by consumer law, the rights of tourism employees by labour law, the rights of the local communities are much less recognised^[10].

The aim of this study is to define the concepts of tourism-related crime and pathologies, to diagnose the causes of this phenomenon, to discuss selected manifestations of crime and pathologies targeting cultural and natural heritage and to propose options for counteracting these phenomena.

^[8] R. White, The criminalisation of environmental harm, Centre for Crime and Justice Studies 2008, no. 74, p. 35-37; L. Mering, Szkoda środowiskowa jako znamię przestępstw przeciwko środowisku, [in:] W. Pływaczewski (ed.), Prawnokarne i kryminologiczne aspekty ochrony środowiska, Olsztyn 2012, p. 143-157.

^[9] W. Pływaczewski, M. Duda, *Dlaczego niszczą? Kryminologiczne aspekty tzw. wandalizmu turystycznego – uwagi na tle zamachów wymierzonych w dziedzictwo kulturowe i przyrodnicze*, *Studia Prawnoustrojowe* 2024, no. 64, p. 262.

^[10] I. Florek, *Prawa człowieka w turystyce*, unpublished doctoral dissertation, Olsztyn 2019, p. 8 and 263.

INTRODUCTION TO TOURISM CRIME AND PATHOLOGIES IN TOURISM

Before analysing the issue at hand in detail, it is important to clarify the basic concepts related to tourism. Tourism is understood as organised outgoing from the place of permanent residence, including leisure travel. A person making a trip, excursion or wandering in a place other than his or her permanent residence for the purpose of active leisure is referred to as a tourist. The tourism market is defined as the totality of interchangeable, commodity and monetary relations undertaken by individuals, enterprises, organisations and institutions that represent the demand for and supply of various types of tourism goods and services^[11].

Tourism is a global phenomenon that may be limited in particular countries or areas for the following reasons:

- Political e.g. North Korea (totalitarian regime);
- Economic e.g. countries of the former Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (inadequate hotel and catering facilities);
- Climatic e.g. Sahara, South Pole, North Pole (lack of conditions for tourism);
- Cultural e.g. Bhutan (concern for nature and culture);
- Ecological e.g. Venice, Canary Islands (excessive tourist pressure);
- Epidemiological e.g. COVID pandemic (ban on movement);
- Military/security-related e.g. buffer zone at the border with Belarus (ban on being in a particular area).

Tourism is one of the important sectors of a country's income . It may stimulate the development of a given city, region or country. At the same time tourism poses threats to local communities, public safety, cultural and natural heritage $^{[12]}$.

^[11] Compare with: K. Przecławski, Socjologiczne problemy turystyki, Warszawa 1979.

^[12] The relationship between the development of tourism and the increase of crime was already remarked upon in the 1990s. Compare with: W. Alejziak, *Turystyka a przestępczość i zjawiska patologii społecznej (outline of issues and concept of research on the example of Kraków)*, *Folia Turistica* 1994, no. 5, p. 97-123.

Among the main threats of this type are tourism-related crime and pathological social phenomena. Thus, one can speak of tourism crime and tourism pathologies. According to P.E. Tarlow, tourist crimes are crimes committed:

- By tourists against other visitors, local residents, tourist service personnel;
- By local inhabitants against tourists;
- By the tourism industry against tourists^[13].

In addition, there is a phenomenon of the so-called *travelling criminals*, i.e. offenders who visit tourist resorts with the intention of committing crimes, considering tourist attractions as *sui generis crime hot spots*^[14]. It is also noted that crime can be a tourist attraction in itself. Examples include paedophile sex tourism in Asia, abortion tourism, drug opportunities in the Netherlands, visiting famous crime sites (*Jack the Ripper walks* in London, concentration camp in Auschwitz) or prisons (Tower of London, Alcatraz)^[15]. There is also a growing interest of organised crime groups in the tourism industry^[16]. In the authors' opinion, the above typology should also contain additional type of behaviour which are crimes and pathologies committed against cultural heritage and natural heritage in areas *valuable for tourism*.

From a criminological/victimological perspective, the tourist may therefore be both the perpetrator and the victim of a crime. In addition to phenomena of a criminal nature, one should not overlook the existence of phenomena not covered by criminal responsibility (criminalisation), but often no less burdensome and socially harmful, i.e. social pathologies related to tourism.

^[13] P.E. Tarlow, Crime and Tourism, [in:] J. Wilks, D. Pendergast, P. Leggat (eds.), Tourism in turbulent time (Towards Safe Experience for Visitors), Elsevier 2006, p. 93-101.

^[14] See: E. Barclay, R.I. Mawby, C. Jones, *Tourism, Leisure, and Crime*, [in:] Oxford Handbook Topics in Criminology and Criminal Justice, Oxford University Press 2012.

^[15] R.W. Glensor, K.J. Peak, Crimes Against Tourists, Problem-Oriented Guides for Police Problem-Specific Guides Series 2024, no. 26, p. 1-40; K. Moore, T. Berno, Relationships Between Crime and Tourism, Visions in Leisure and Business 1995, vol. 14, no. 3, p. 11.

^[16] W. Pływaczewski, Współczesne trendy przestępczości zorganizowanej w Europie (analiza wybranych zjawisk przestępczych z uwzględnieniem zadań Agencji Unii Europejskiej ds. Współpracy Organów Ścigania – Europol), Studia Prawnoustrojowe 2021, no. 52, p. 403.

Undoubtedly, both tourism and crime are common phenomena. However, while the former evokes positive associations, the latter is clearly negative. At the same time, an increase in crime and pathological behaviour can have a negative impact on the development of tourism in a particular area. The perception of safety is one of the factors determining the choice of tourist destination^[17].

Studying the phenomenon of tourism crime is problematic due to methodological reasons. First of all, it would be necessary to formulate a closed catalogue (*numerus clausus*) of acts qualified as tourist offences^[18]. Moreover, there is no distinction of this category of offences in crime statistics (police, prosecution, court, penitentiary), both in the object aspect (type of crime committed), subject aspect (tourist as a perpetrator or victim of crime) and territorial aspect (tourist attractive area as a place of committing a crime). At the same time, there are so far very few scientific studies, especially of a research nature, dealing with this issue^[19].

ETIOLOGY OF TOURISM CRIME

Tourism is a phenomenon that creates many opportunities for crime. Tourists also become anonymous by being in an external environment, which encourages a greater propensity for criminal or pathological activities. At the same time, the local community does not always welcome the presence of visiting tourists, particularly those of other races, nationalities or ethnic groups.

^[17] K. Eman, B. Lobnikar, A. Petrovskiy, G. Meško, *Perceptions of safety/security as factors in selecting a tourist destination: a comparison between Portorož (Slovenia) and Gelendzhik (Russia)*, [in:] G. Meško, B. Lobnikar, K. Prislan, R. Hacin (eds.), *Criminal justice and security in Central and Eastern Europe: from common sense to evidence-based policy-making: conference proceedings*, Maribor 2018, p. 485-496.

^[18] R.I. Mawby R.I., Crime and tourism: what the available statistics do or do not tell us', International Journal of Tourism Policy 2017, vol. 7, no. 2, p. 81-92.

^[19] A review of the sparse literature in this area is provided in the papers: A. Lisowska, *Crime in Tourism Destinations: Research Review, Tourism* 2017, no. 27(1), p. 31-39; H. Mataković, I.C. Mataković, *The impact of crime on security in tourism, Security & Defence* 2019, vol. 27, no. 5, p. 2-20.

When explaining the etiology of criminal and pathological behaviour related to tourism, reference can be made to the theoretical output of criminology. Most often these are standard criminological theories explaining different types of crime. Theoretical explanations of only tourism crime are rare. In the literature, the following criminological theories can most often be referred to:

- Routine activity theory (L.E. Cohen, M. Felson) three elements must be present for a crime to occur: motivated offenders, suitable victimisation targets, absence of a guardian who can prevent victimisation. Tourists are suitable targets because they are carrying money or valuables and are in an unfamiliar environment^[20].
- *Hot spots theory* (J.C. Crotts) crime rates may be higher in tourist attraction areas with suitable conditions for tourist attacks^[21].
- *Economic theory of crime* (G. Becker) people engage in criminal activities if they find that their profits will be greater than if they invested time, money and other resources in legitimate activities. The growth of tourism increases the opportunities for criminal activities due to the increased number of potential victims^[22].

In the context of crimes against cultural and natural heritage, it is important to recall S. Cohen's theory explaining vandalism-like behaviour. The author created a classification of vandalism acts, which at the same time refers to the motivation of the perpetrator and he distinguished between: possessive vandalism, playful vandalism, malicious vandalism, vengeful vandalism, tactical vandalism, ideological vandalism^[23].

Probably the only theory focusing exclusively on tourism crime is the socalled *tourism crime cycle* created by B. Prideaux, who differentiated four types

^[20] L.E. Cohen, M. Felson, Social Change and Crime Rate Trends: A Routine Activity Approach, American Sociological Review 1979, no. 44(4), p. 588-608.

^[21] J.C. Crotts, Theoretical Perspectives on Tourist Criminal Victimisation, The Journal of Tourism Studies 1996, no. 1, p. 2-9.

^[22] G. Becker, Crime and Punishment: An Economic Approach, Journal of Political Economy 1968, no. 76(2), p. 169-217.

^[23] S. Cohen, Hooligans, vandals and the community. A study of social reaction to juvenile delinquency, London 1969, p. 200-220.

of tourism: local, regional, national, mass. This author believes that as tourist destinations grow, crime levels also increase. The highest crime rates are found in destinations that are perceived as so-called hedonistic destinations, which are mainly visited by younger tourists and are distinguished by uninhibited fun, adventure, casual sex and alcohol and drug use. At the same time, these places employ low-paid seasonal workers who, faced with poor employment opportunities in the off-season, also use drugs and alcohol. They obtain funds to buy stimulants from theft and fencing of stolen goods from tourists. According to this author, the places with *family values* that offer activities for all ages are the opposite of hedonistic destinations, and thus crime rates are lower there^[24]. Similar conclusions were reached by P. Brunt and Z. Hambly, who introduced into the literature the concept of *holiday crime*. They conducted a comprehensive review of the literature on tourism and its impact on crime. These authors noted that not only do tourist-attractive locations show higher crime rates, but tourism itself is a determinant of higher levels of deviant behaviour^[25].

CHOSEN MANIFESTATIONS OF HARM TO VALUABLE CULTURAL AND ENVIRONMENTAL ASSETS ASSOCIATED WITH MASS TOURISM

The phenomenology of threats to cultural and natural heritage associated with mass tourism covers a wide spectrum of behaviour. Some of them are undoubtedly criminal in nature, others are located in the area of social pathologies. Among the most common are:

Vandalism of cultural heritage (damage to monuments, graffiti on the facades
of historic buildings, placing disfiguring advertisements on monuments)^[26].

^[24] B. Prideaux, *The tourism crime cycle: A beach destination case study*, [in:] A. Pizam, Y. Mansfeld (eds.), *Tourism, Crime and International Security Issues*, Wiley 1996, p. 59-76.

^[25] P. Brunt, Z. Hambly, Tourism and crime: a review, Crime Prevention and Community Safety: An International Journal 1999, vol. 1(2), p. 25-36; P. Brunt, R.I. Mawby, Z. Hambly, Tourist victimisation and fear of crime on holiday, Tourism Management 2000, no. 21, p. 417-424.

^[26] J. Narodowska, M. Duda, Wandalizm zabytków z perspektywy kryminologicznej, Santander Art and Culture Law Review 2017, no. 1(3), p. 37-52.

- Invasive underwater tourism (destruction of historic wrecks, desecration of underwater cemeteries) and exploration (illegal use of metal detectors, seizure of archaeological artefacts)^[27].
- Fisheries and hunting poaching (harvesting elephant tusks, rhino horns, shark fins, whale meat)^[28].
- Harvesting of CITES wildlife specimens (shells, turtle shells, snake and crocodile skin products, parrots and other songbirds)^[29].
- Plundering of raw materials for holiday souvenirs (amber, coral reef)[30].
- Abuse of animals used in tourism (horses in tourist sleds, birds posing for photographs)^[31].
- Environmental pollution (municipal waste, litter left behind by tourists, car exhaust fumes, airborne carbon footprint)^[32].
- Appropriation of valuable natural and cultural areas and their conversion into entertainment and recreation centres (wild development, large hotel and restaurant complexes, amusement parks)^[33].

^[27] M. Duda, Nielegalne poszukiwania zabytków jako zagrożenie dla dziedzictwa kulturalnego, [in:] W. Pływaczewski, B. Gadecki (eds.), Ochrona dziedzictwa kulturowego i naturalnego. Perspektywa prawna i kryminologiczna, Warszawa 2015, p. 152-170.

^[28] See: J. Narodowska, *Przestępstwa kłusownictwa rybackiego na wodach śródlądowych. Studium prawnokarne i kryminologiczne*, Olsztyn 2016.

^[29] See: W. Pływaczewski, Nielegalny rynek chronionych gatunków dzikiej fauny i flory. Geneza, przejawy, przeciwdziałanie, Szczytno 2016.

^[30] M. Duda, Organised crime in the cross-border amber traffic. Aetiology, phenomenology and combating a criminal market, [in:] P.C. van Duyne, J. Banach-Gutierrez, G.A. Antonopoulos, K. von Lampe, P. Larsson, J. Harvey (eds.), Green and Transnational Crime in Europe and Beyond: Synergies and Challenges, Routledge 2025, p. 200-212 (paper in print).

^[31] J. Narodowska, Korelacja pomiędzy agresją wobec zwierząt a agresją wobec ludzi w świetle badań aktowych, Archiwum Kryminologii 2018, vol. XL, p. 327-370; J. Narodowska, Criminological and legal aspects of the illegal dog market in Poland, [in:] P.C. van Duyne, J. Banach-Gutierrez, G.A. Antonopoulos, K. von Lampe, P. Larsson, J. Harvey (eds.), Green and Transnational Crime in Europe and Beyond: Synergies and Challenges, Routledge 2025, p. 213-228 (paper in print). [32] W. Pływaczewski, Turystyka i jej wpływ na zanieczyszczenie środowiska, [in:] W. Pływaczewski, Sz. Buczyński (eds.), Gospodarka odpadami. Problematyka prawna i ekokryminologiczna, Olsztyn 2013, p. 94-107.

^[33] W. Pływaczewski, Zawłaszczanie przestrzeni przyrodniczej i kulturowej – uwagi na tle zjawiska dewastacji krajobrazu, [in:] W. Pływaczewski, B. Gadecki (eds.), Ochrona dziedzictwa kulturowego i naturalnego. Perspektywa prawna i kryminologiczna, Warszawa 2015, p. 11-34.

- Devastation and plundering of valuable environmental and cultural heritage resources (landscape degradation, deforestation, *sand mafia*, structural investments in valuable natural areas) [34].
- *Trampling* of valuable cultural and natural areas (destruction of wildlife habitats, frightening of animals, causing fires, mass mountain tourism, invasive sports such as quad biking).
- Falsification of protected traditional and regional food products (designations: Protected designation of origin PDO, Protected Geographical Indication PGI, Geographical indications GI) [35].
- Replacement of traditional craft products specific to the region with mass-produced Chinese imitations (e.g. Murano glass, Bolesławiec porcelain, Czech glass, Turkish carpets).
- Displacement of local communities and takeover of indigenous properties (private housing converted into rental flats e.g. Barcelona, Venice) [36].
- Disrespect for local culture, customs and traditions (disruption of the night time, indecent behaviour, inappropriate dress in places of worship, drunken brawls, topless beachcombing).
- Cruise ships (generation of waste and exhaust fumes, destruction of waterfronts by waves caused by ships, large numbers of tourists visiting tourist attractions but not using hotel and catering facilities).
- The attention should also be drawn to crimes that are less detrimental to cultural and natural heritage but are also inextricably linked to mass tourism^[37]. Such manifestations of tourist crime include:

^[34] W. Pływaczewski, J. Narodowska, M. Duda, *Przeciwdziałanie deforestacji oraz nielegalnemu handlowi drewnem w świetle dorobku zielonej kryminologii, Studia Prawnoustrojowe* 2023, no. 60, p. 325-345.

^[35] B. Pachuca-Smulska, Chroniona nazwa pochodzenia a fałszerstwa na rynku żywności na przykładzie sera Parmigiano Reggiano, [in:] W. Pływaczewski, A. Lewkowicz (eds.), Przeciwdziałanie patologiom na rynku żywności, Szczytno 2015, p. 149-164.

^[36] K. Rzeczkowska, Ograniczenia sprzedaży zabytków nieruchomych jako forma ochrony dziedzictwa historycznego, artystycznego, naukowego, [in:] W. Pływaczewski, R. Źróbek (eds.), Patologie na rynku nieruchomości. Przyczyny, przejawy, przeciwdziałanie, Olsztyn 2016, p. 187-196.

 $^{^{[37]}}$ R.W. Glensor, K.J. Peak, Crimes Against Tourists, Problem-Oriented Guides for Police Problem-Specific Guides Series 2004, no. 26, p. 1.

- Crime against tourists' property (theft, burglary, robbery).
- Juvenile crime (street gangs of thieves and fraudsters).
- Economic crime (false accommodation offers, product weight fraud in restaurants, evasion of taxation, non-payment of local fees, gambling in casinos, smuggling by tourists).
- Cybercrime (ATM skimming, theft of personal data in the hotel booking process).
- Drug crime (trafficking in drugs and other psychoactive substances).
- Sexual crime (prostitution of juveniles, paedophile tourism, abortion tourism).
- Hooligan crime (hooligan behaviour under the influence of alcohol and drugs, hate crimes).
- Organised crime (money laundering in the tourism sector, gang activities).
- Terrorist crime (terrorist attacks in popular tourist destinations).

POSSIBILITIES OF COUNTERACTING TOURIST CRIME AND PATHOLOGIES AGAINST CULTURAL AND NATURAL HERITAGE

Counteracting negative phenomena related to tourism requires actions both at the legislative level (international agreements, national law, local legal measures), at the institutional level (activities of the police, municipal guards, border services, conservation authorities) and at the social level (raising awareness of tourists, NGO activities). In the authors' opinion, in order to achieve the required objective, one should take into account the specificities of the tourist destination and combination of solutions such as:

- Restricting the expansion of mass tourism in over-reception destinations (limiting tourist arrivals, tourism taxes, higher cost of stay).
- Expanding the global tourism offer with new, alternative, less exploited destinations and forms of tourism (e.g. rural and agritourism, specialised tourism, individual tourism, eco-tourism, contemplative tourism).

- Diversifying tourist destinations, discovering and promoting new, hitherto little-known destinations (e.g. Scandinavia, countries of the former Union of Soviet Socialist Republics).
- Promoting sustainable tourism, i.e. tourism that protects valuable nature, cultural heritage and respects local communities by implementing the ESG principle in the tourism industry (E environment, S social responsibility, G corporate governance).
- Implementation and enforcement of criminal and administrative laws protecting cultural and natural heritages from destruction (e.g. tightening of criminal penalties for the destruction of cultural and landscape assets in 2024 Italy).
- Strengthening the physical protection of places/sites of particular value for world culture and nature against acts of looting and devastation (e.g. limited access, staff support for tourist police, coordination of nature and culture protection services and police, technical forms of security e.g. monitoring, drones, CCTV, alarms).
- Establishing of the so-called *tourist police* in particularly attractive tourist destinations (such services operate in Egypt, Thailand, Turkey, among others).
- Cooperation of national and international public services, state and local government institutions (police, municipal police, border guards, conservation authorities) and NGOs^[38].
- Environmental and cultural education of tourists (preventive tourist police actions, media campaigns, official administrative recommendations).

^[38] Among the services, institutions and organisations contributing to tackling the risks of mass tourism at regional and global level one can distinguish: UNTWO – United Nations World Tourism Organization, UNESCO – United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, ICCWC – International Consortium on Combating Wildlife Crime, IUCN – International Union for Conservation of Nature, WTTC – World Travel and Tourism Council, AIT – Alliance Internationale de Tourisme, UFTAA – Universal Federation of Travel Agents Association, ETC – European Travel Commission, ATLAS – Association for Tourism and Leisure Education and Research, INTERPOL – International Criminal Police Organization, EUROPOL – European Union Agency for Law Enforcement Cooperation.

 Providing the society with information on crime and pathologies related to tourism in a clear and simple way to enable the identification of security risks and the control of potential threats.

CLOSING WORD

Apart from its undoubted glow, the tourism also has shadows in the form of negative behaviour of tourists^[39]. These may take the form of punishable, non-compliant with legal norms (crimes) or unethical, non-compliant with social norms (social pathologies). The above behaviours create the phenomenon of tourism crime understood *sensu largo*. Tourists, local inhabitants and tourism industry actors can act as both perpetrators and victims in the context of this phenomenon. Attention should also be paid to a specific category of actors vulnerable to being victimised by mass tourism-related crimes, which is cultural and natural heritage.

This study may be a contribution and stimulus to the discussion on the need to protect the world's cultural and natural heritage from the threats posed by mass tourism. It diagnoses the most significant threats in this area and proposes various options for countering them. The authors are aware that the complete elimination of tourist crime is not possible. However, efforts in this direction should be made based on the existing theoretical achievements of criminology, empirical research in this area and proven solutions implemented in practice in other tourist destinations.

As already mentioned in the paper, green victimology distinguishes three types of victims, i.e. human victims, non-human victims and environmental victims. It should be noted that the latter two groups of victims are unable to defend themselves against victimization and assert their rights. Consequently,

^[39] See also: M. Shahzalal, Positive and Negative Impacts of Tourism on Culture: A Critical Review of Examples from the Contemporary Literature, Journal of Tourism, Hospitality and Sports 2016, vol. 20, p. 30-34; U. Sunlu, Environmental impacts of tourism, [in:] D. Camarda, L. Grassini (eds.), Local resources and global trades: Environments and agriculture in the Mediterranean region, Bari: CIHEAM 2003, p. 263-270; M.M. Sadeghian, Negative Environmental Impacts of Tourism, a Brief Review, Journal of Novel Applied Sciences 2019, vol. 8(3), p. 71-76.

they need advocacy. This role, in addition to the institutions established to directly protection of valuable cultural assets and natural resources, is performed by local communities, scholars and representatives of NGOs acting on behalf of cultural and natural heritage. However, the key role in counteracting tourism crime committed against culture and natural heritage shall be played by societies that are also tourists. Thus, the prevention activities should be directed at educating the public about the threats of tourism and undertaking other activities in the field of criminological prevention.

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