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Once again, we are delighted to welcome you to the 6th World Conference for Graduate Research in Tourism, Hospitality and Leisure that we are holding again with the host of Anatolia, an internationally well-respected journal of tourism and hospitality research (http://www.tandf.co.uk/journals/RANA). Almost 10 years ago, we launched this conference series to provide a forum for research collaboration and mentoring of emerging tourism researchers in order to share their research experiences. Through our journey within this period, both the graduate students and faculty members in the entire world have been inspired to contribute to the conference where the interdisciplinary aspects of tourism and hospitality areas have also been emphasized. Authors have been invited to submit papers across a wide spectrum not only in tourism, travel and hospitality but also in other relating fields on the condition that they have a close proximity with these subjects.

In addition to the earlier three award categories (best paper, best thesis, and best dissertation), commencing from the previous conference we have launched an additional best paper award specifically given in recognition of an internationally well-respected scholar who has made a lifelong contribution to the dissemination of tourism research. In addition to Professor Jafar Jafari as the presenter of this category, the organizing committee decided to nominate the best Ph.D. dissertation of this year’s submission for the recognition of Emeritus Professor Charles R. Goeldner of the University of Colorado-Boulder who has made a lifelong contribution to internationally enlarging the border of tourism research, broadening the network of tourism researchers and enriching the dimension of academic tourism literature. We are truly thankful to Professor Goeldner for his positive response to become the second nominee in this category. Through our discussions with the international tourism scholars, we will come up with a different name for the next conference’s recognition award in 2014.
In this volume, you will find the proceedings including extended abstracts of those thesis and dissertations (no more than 2,000 words) as well as full papers of research papers (no more than 5,000 words) that have been accepted for both oral and poster presentations at the conference and dealing with a wide range of aspects related to tourism, hospitality, and leisure. We are proud to emphasize that the methodologies of the contributing authors include both qualitative and quantitative methods of the scientific inquiry ranging from survey methods to case studies. With this collaboration, tourism and its major components are analyzed by both a institutionally and geographically diversified group of prospective and potential researchers affiliated with many institutions from west to east.

From an academic perspective, as it did earlier, we certainly believe that this conference will enable academically-young scholars to meet their mature counterparts to share experiences in order to advance their research knowledge and contribute to the dissemination of tourism research in wider settings. We hope that the conference attendants will return to their academic institutions and home countries feeling intellectually enriched and will also continue contributing to this growing field by making further progress in producing much richer research outputs to open new horizons for future generations of both the academia and the industry. From the social and cultural perspective, in addition to various activities, the best paper, thesis and dissertation are awarded with a package including free vacations, books and journal subscriptions with the courtesy of our sponsors.

Finally, we are very grateful for the contribution of many colleagues, speakers, track chairs, authors, reviewers, attendants and other staff and institutions who have contributed to this conference in different ways. We acknowledge the significant contribution of our keynote speakers (namely Chris Ryan, Rick Perdue, Alan Fyall), all those who have submitted their papers, and those who have participated in the conference by sharing their knowledge with others. Last but not least, attempts to organise any kind of academic events would not be a fact without having a logistic support. As such, we are profoundly grateful to the following volunteers for their enthusiastic help, patience and hardwork throughout the journey of this conference from its beginning to the end: H. Rafet Yüncü (Anadolu University), Çağıl Hale Özel (Anadolu University), Deniz Karagöz Yüncü (Anadolu University), Emrullah Tören (Anadolu University), Gözde Türktarhan (Anadolu University), Eylin Babacan (Mugla University), Duygu Babat (Mugla University), and Yeşim Coşar (Dokuz Eylul University). Without the unlimited support of the above all, we would not have been able to
achieve our mission. In addition, we would like to express our gratitude to Routledge, Detay, EMITT, Minduce, LykiaWorld Oludeniz, TOSOK, Kartaca Tour, Emerald, and University of Nevada-Las Vegas, as our main sponsors, for their generous support.

We wish you a very successful conference and enjoyable stay in Turkey.

Metin Kozak, Ph.D.
Nazmi Kozak, Ph.D.
Co-chairs
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The Development of Cultural Tourism: Socio-economic Aspects

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Abstract
This research paper seeks to study tourism and tourist activities are important components of modern life. Due to the extensive development and distribution, which has received the tourist traffic in the world, tourism is recognized as a vivid example of the global socio-economic development of the XX century.

Key words: cultural tourism, socio-economic development

Introduction
Today, tourism and tourist activities are important components of modern life. Due to the extensive development and distribution, which has received the tourist traffic in the world, tourism is recognized as a vivid example of the global socio-economic development of the 20th century. Regarding the huge role of cultural tourism in the modern world, it affects all spheres of society, including culture, economy, social life. The intensity of tourism development, the scale of tourism is largely dependent on recognition by the international community of the cultural and natural potential of the country and its heritage. At present, it is culture and heritage define the world’s attitude to the country, its attractiveness in terms of not only social relations and tourism, and business. True respect to the current conditions can be achieved not through military power, not the growth of the national territory and population, and, above all, through the contribution that the country is making to world culture, science and economy (as part of general culture) in the development of civilized relations between people, nations and people.

In this context, to recognize the importance of the country as a great power, the role of heritage and cultural values created by the people for a long period
of its existence, it becomes crucial. Tourism represents a specific activity that generates more than other areas of the world view of modern global culture, ultimately expanding the horizons of vision of human life. In the center of the sphere are the real interests of the living, very specific people, and non ideological setting like "national interest", "shared values" (Kolpaschikova, 2005).

**Literature Review**

Tourism development is a lucrative area of application of forces to develop the consciousness of society and the convergence of the civilized world, and communities. According to the data, in recent years in many countries, including in Central Asia, a new form of travel - cultural tourism become more popular. The attractiveness of this type of tourism due to the interests of the people to the cultural heritage, as well as the need to save it. In this regard, preservation of heritage and his knowledge is fundamental in the emergence of a new trend of cultural tourism (Minsafina, 2001). An introduction to the cultures and achievements of other peoples is a powerful stimulus to the development of world culture. When getting new impressions of the famous natural and cultural phenomena, the person satisfies one of the most powerful of their needs - the need for cognition. In cultural tourism, in reality the person meets the same time, what he just read or saw on television. This encounter with reality is much more memorable and impacting on his imagination than read books and seen films. New experiences allow a person to rethink their way of life, to see new horizons, to get new incentives for creative self-expression (Kolpaschikova, 2005).

Cultural tourism may be more or less specialized. In the first case, tourists are attracted by well-known architectural monuments, especially the urban landscape and lifestyle of the most famous cities. Study tours to other countries in committing tens of millions of people. The benefits of cultural tourism are the following factors:

- the opportunity to attend territorial units (states, administrative units, regions)
- increasing interest to the districts, improving the investment climate;
- Creation of new jobs;
- visits to cultural attractions, by ensuring better use of cultural potentials of the territory (Gulyaev, 2003).
In addition, cultural tourism provides certain competitive advantages. The main of which include:

- constructive and patriotic as intensify efforts to identify local and regional advantages and shared national values;
- communicate, since it is easily accepted by officials, business community and can be the basis of the consolidation of regional and national elites;
- ability to provide competitive advantages, enhancing local creativity;
- ability to attract workers with different skills and specializations (Humanities and technicians).

These advantages show the importance of technology and cultural - Tourism to launch the process of regional development, as well as demonstrate the impossibility of achieving these goals, the old management practices. An important step in this direction was taken in 1976. When in Brussels at the conference adopted the ICOMOS Charter on Cultural Tourism, which included the following of his notion as activities "related to the involvement of people moving around in the process of learning and experiencing other people's experiences with other traditions, another story, another legacy, another way of life "(Ryabov,2005). "Cultural and educational tourism is the tourism product, as a complex of tourist services to meet the needs of the traveler during his journey, that is, set of real (goods) and immaterial (services) of use-values ")(Senin,2000).

Tourism services - services subject to the tourist activity accommodation, catering, transport, information and advertising, and cultural and educational services, as well as the services of cultural institutions, sports, lifestyle and entertainment to meet the needs of tourists. At a certain stage of economic development, when the demand for travel has increased dramatically, there were vendors of such services. This led to the formation of a special type of goods - cultural tourism. The emergence of this type of tourism as a commodity led to the formation of the corresponding material and technical basis, the availability of qualified personnel for servicing tourists and purposeful management of tourist business entities. This led to the need for institutional separation of tourism in the independent sector of the economy. But we must not forget that cultural tourism is not a good first necessity of life, so it becomes an urgent need for a person only at a certain level of its income, and at a certain level of wealth of society.
Cultural tourism is also directly involved in the creation of national income. The total contribution to the economy includes both direct and indirect contribution (impact). The direct impact of this type of tourism on the economy - are the results of the tourist expenditure for the purchase of goods and services of tourism. Enterprises, which is directly received travel expenses also need to purchase goods and services in other sectors of the local economy. Thus, generate economic activity, resulting from these successive stages of consumption, and is the action.

During the direct and indirect spending from the local population accumulated income in the form of wages, rents, etc. Such an extra income residents can spend to buy domestic goods and services, thus creating a new round of economic activity. Nevertheless, there are negative aspects of cultural tourism, which could have an adverse impact on the economy. For example, the production of tourist products and services requires a transfer of resources from other sectors of the economy where the demand for them is also high. Calculating the economic impact of tourist expenditures made by means of a multiplier.

Conclusion

The specificity of cultural tourism, an impact on methods of analysis used and how to program planning, is primarily service nature of its products. To improve the cultural tourism should recognize the problem of further revival and development of domestic tourism as the main means considerable relaxation of the working population, the stimulus for the development of other related sectors of material production, infrastructure, local economy, the direction of social policy, an important factor in the spiritual life. Currently, there is an increase in the role of cultural tourism as a factor in preserving the heritage of Kazakhstan. As in politics through political image-maker of professional technology transforms ordinary people into meaningful political figure since tourism technologies make attractive and visited almost every country or city. Nowadays, Kazakhstan faces the task of active promotion of Kazakh national tourist products in the international market, the formation of the image as a country favorable for tourism and investment of large investments. Scientists of Kazakhstan, studying the problems of tourist areas are aware that a comprehensive, qualitative and quantitative development of the sphere of tourist services is impossible without a thorough study of the tourist market area, specializing in cultural tourism.
References


Cross-Cultural Service Encounter: 
A Study in Hotels in Karbala-Iraq

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Abstract

This paper focused on gaining knowledge of the dynamics of cross-cultural service interactions in hotels in Karbala-Iraq. A qualitative study was conducted, interviewing a convenient sample of hotel managers, front line service employees, and foreign guests. Thematic analysis of the data and comparison with the literature revealed: a) three main themes, encompassing the dimensions of the theoretical constructs of cultural intelligence, job performance, and service quality; and b) interplay of cause and effect relationships between the dimensions of these constructs, calling for further research to hypothesise and empirically test these relationships. The findings thus add to knowledge, as the study is the first to reveal interlocking relationships between these three constructs in cross-cultural service encounter; they also have management implications.

Key words: cross-cultural service interaction, service culture, cultural intelligence, 3T performance, service quality

Introduction

This study focuses on cross cultural service interaction between hotel service providers and foreign guests in the city of Karbala, Iraq. The service encounter literature suggests that service culture, particularly; interactions between guests and service providers affect service quality (Bitner, 1990; Stewart, 2003; Tsang, 2007). Service culture shapes the attitude and behaviour of employees, particularly, their self efficacy and adaptability (Hartline & Ferell, 1996). In this paper, we review the hospitality cross-cultural service literature, attempting to establish linkages between cultural intelligence, service performance, and service quality. We undertake an empirical study interviewing hotel managers,
front-line employees and foreign guests searching for themes that help us understand the dynamics of cross-cultural service interaction. We attempt to find support for the empirical findings of this study from the literature and discover new relationships that will aid our understanding.

**Literature review**

Service culture, Gronroos (1990) suggested, is a culture which values good service and offers it to all customers unconsciously; it is a way of life and an important norm of society. Zeithmal and Bitner (2000) viewed culture as central in service provision as it shapes the way customers evaluate services; it also affects the way frontline employees interact with customers. In the hospitality industry, Tsang (2007) found that culture is central for the quality of service delivery. Customer service, Stewart (2003) also noted, requires front line providers to be able, willing, flexible to the needs of the customers, and skillful at resolving problems which might occur during the service encounter. Ang et al. (2007) posited that a cultural environment which offers a good service culture in a culturally diverse setting suggests high task performance and high cultural intelligence. They stated that employees must have cultural intelligence to interact and communicate effectively with customers from various cultures, and show sensitiveness to the different cultures they encounter. Cultural intelligence is concerned with the ability to adapt effectively in different cultural situations (Earley & Ang, 2003). Ang et al. (2007) viewed cultural intelligence as a multifaceted construct which focuses on ability to grasp reason and behave effectively in culturally diverse settings. It looks at individuals' capacity to adjust to new cultures by measuring the meta-cognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioural dimensions of their cultural intelligence.

Early and Gibson (2002, p. 100) defined Meta-cognition as "thinking about thinking"; "knowledge and cognition about cognitive objects". Bransford, Brown, and Cocking (1999) explained, as people become more aware of their thinking and more knowledgeable about cognition they tend to act on this awareness and consequently become better learners. Cognitive cultural intelligence, on the other hand, refers to knowledge of the values, beliefs, norms, practices, and conventions of a different culture, gained through education and personal experiences (Ang et al., 2007). Motivational cultural intelligence is concerned with the individual’s desire and capability to focus attention and energy at learning about, adapting and functioning in a new culture (Kanfer & Heggestad, 1997). Individuals with high motivational cultural intelligence are more interested and open to new cultural experience (Ang et al., 2007). Behav-
Journal cultural intelligence refers to visible, overt actions of what people do in different cultural situations; it is the extent to which an individual acts – e.g. performs tasks and offers treatment - appropriately, verbally and non-verbally, in new cultural settings (Sternberg, 1986; Ang et al., 2007). Stewart (2003) proposed the ‘3T performance’ framework, to separate the physical (tangible), process (task), and interpersonal (treatment) aspects of service operations; and stressed their importance as critical aspects of service that need to be managed in order to provide high quality service.

According to Stewart, task has a temporal characteristic where there is a start and finish. For example, the tasks of doing work: correctly, as requested, in the right order, promptly, working with energy, exhibiting efforts, and showing concern for quality (Hogan & Holland, 2003). Treatment is about relationship between the service provider and the customer during the service encounter, like exhibiting courteous and professional behaviour, acknowledging and listening to the customer, reacting appropriately to the customer (Chase & Stewart, 1994) and demonstrating interpersonal skills, and showing positive attitude (Hogan & Holland, 2003). Paying attention to treatment, Stewart added, is important in services where there are cultural differences between the service provider employees and customers, and where services are highly emotionally charged and stressful. In a service context, tangibles are concerned with the physical realm, facilities and artefacts that mediate the service encounter (Stewart, 2003) as well as Bitner (1990) referred to as “servicescape”. Tangibles, Chase and Stewart (1994) indicated, can be things, such as: incorrect bills, unclean facilities and uniforms, bad odours, and loud noise. Bitner (1990) added texture, colour, and comfort of furnishings, which she suggested may influence perceived performance in the service encounter. Stewart further argued that task, treatment and tangibles are complementary and mutually supporting parts of the service experience; they act as a framework where each part offsets the weakness of the other parts; this is particularly so in the hotel service, where culture based quality improvement is likely to offset shortfalls in the task, and where improvement in treatment can make up for the shortcomings of the tangible aspects of the service.

Service quality, Stewart emphasised, is affected by the performance of service providers, as it requires employees to use their interpersonal skills and affective attributes, derived from their culture, values, beliefs and emotions. Zeithaml, Parasuraman, and Berry (1990) approached service quality from the view that there is a gap between customers’ expectations from the service and their perception of what has been delivered. They identified five consolidated
dimensions: reliability, responsiveness, tangibles, assurance, and empathy. They defined: reliability as ability to perform the promised service dependably and accurately; responsiveness as willingness to help and provide prompt service; assurance as knowledge, courtesy and ability to convey trust and confidence; empathy as caring, providing personal attention; and tangibles as appearance of physical facilities, equipment, and personnel.

In our reading of the literature, we detect a number of unarticulated relationships; for example, a strong relationship between the meta-cognitive dimension of cultural intelligence and task performance, as Pintrich (2002) found that individuals with meta-cognitive knowledge can adjust their approach to the task and activate the relevant situational knowledge for performing it in a certain context. These individuals, Ang et al. (2007) argued, are able to choose from a number of context specific knowledge structures rather than depending on habitual ones. Ang et al. (2007) also found that individuals with high cognitive cultural intelligence have complex mental representations of social interactions with particular cultural groups. Earley and Ang (2003) viewed the cognitive cultural intelligence as a critical component as it deals with the process by which information is encoded, stored, retrieved and used by the brain in performing cognitive tasks. Because knowledge about cultural similarities and differences is central to decision making and performance, and to the design and execution of tasks in cross cultural settings; pointing to a strong relationship between cognitive ability and task performance (Ang et al., 2007).

Furthermore, Schunk (1991) pointed out that an individual’s own performance is most reliable for assessing self efficacy, as the latter is raised by successes and lowered by failures in task performance. Hartline and Ferell (1996) suggested that job satisfaction, self-efficacy and adaptability are important attitudinal and behavioural responses that affect positively the ability of employees to offer customers an enhanced service quality. Individuals with high motivational cultural intelligence, Stone Romero et al. (2003) added that have higher task performance than others in encounters where the cues from the sender are unclear because of cultural differences. Beside self-knowledge, Pintrich (2002, p. 222) pointed out, "individuals also have beliefs about their motivation", including assessment of their ability to perform a task (self-efficacy). There is thus evidence to suggest that in cross cultural service encounter, high motivational cultural intelligence is related high task and high treatment performance. Similarly, Ang et al. (2007) demonstrated that a positive relationship exists between behavioural cultural intelligence and task performance; that individuals with high behavioural cultural intelligence adapt their verbal and nonverbal
behaviours to meet the expectations of people from different cultures. Moreover, Hogan and Holland (2003) also showed that non-task (i.e. treatment) performance is a manifestation of behaviour. The constructs of task, treatment and tangibles, Stewart (2003) elaborated but not empirically tested, are also directly related to service quality dimensions of reliability, responsiveness, assurance, empathy and tangibles (Zeithaml et al., 1990).

Methodology

We conducted qualitative interviewing of a purposive sample (Miles & Huberman, 1994) of hotel managers, front line service providers, and foreign guests in 5, 4, and 3 star hotels in Karbala, using semi-structured, informal interviews to facilitate informational questions (Charmaz, 1994). We developed three lists of questions in the form of aide memoirs - one for managers, one for front line employees, and one for foreign guests, based on concepts derived from the literature, commonsense knowledge (Strauss, 1987) and experience to guide the interviews. Interviews conducted in the participants’ hotels throughout the summer period of 2011; they typically lasted two hours with managers and 30 minutes with employees and guests. We explained to the participants the general aim of the research; negotiated access to the hotels, and obtained permission from the hotels’ owners and managers. We achieved informed consent to record the interviews and publish the data and analysis anonymously. We generated and transcribed seventy-five hours of interview material. To ensure referencing we assigned each hotel a unique number and star classification, and referenced respondents by their roles; and where there were more than one respondent from the same function from one hotel, we added a unique number. For example, owner/manager of the 7th hotel, 3* classification was referenced as (o/m, 3*h7), manager1 from 5* hotel 2 as (m1, 5*h2), guest 3 from 3* hotel 6 as (g3, 3*h6), and employee 4 from 4* hotel 9 as (e4, 4*h9). We used thematic analysis first to reduce data to codes, and then abstract them to higher overarching themes. The latter, we related to constructs from the literature; this helped us to arrive at new linkages between these constructs and enhanced our understanding (Bakir & Bakir, 2006 a, 2006b; Ryan & Bernard, 2003). We adhered to the “constant comparison” method (Glaser & Strauss, 1967), searching for similarities and differences by comparing units of data. Using line-by-line analysis, we tried to understand what the unit of data is about. We tried to maximise clarity and agreement to increase the validity of the identified themes (Denzin, 1997; Hammersley, 1992; Lincoln & Guba, 1985), by outlining the techniques we used, making theme identification explicit and clear so
that the reader can follow our analysis and conclusions (Ryan & Bernard, 2003). To further ensure the reliability and validity of our themes, we have shown the themes to research colleagues and they agreed the themes’ validity (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Patton, 1990). We also have confidence that we identified appropriate themes because we have used techniques of coding accepted in the research community.

**Analysis: Coding for themes:** We searched for recurring topics and subsequently themes. We looked for “indigenous categories” (Patton, 1990); we took the theme “Keeping eye on things” from the quote: “... and the rest of the employees go around keeping eye on things”; and the theme “nagging, complaining” from “... the Iranians.... nag and complain quite a lot.” In instances, respondents expressed their thoughts and experiences in metaphors from their culture (D’Andrade, 1995); a manager used the ‘gold Lira’ or ‘dollar’ metaphor in describing the Iranian visitors: “Most of our visitors are Iranians and they are here all year round; they are nicknamed in the market as the ‘gold Lira’ or ‘dollar’, it keeps its value”. From this metaphor we induced the theme: ‘Iranian visitors have lasting value’. Furthermore, shifts in content which acted as transition to a different theme occurred through, for instance, the connecting words of: ‘for’, ‘and’, ‘so’, as in this respondent’s answer: “... for security reasons, they have to leave their cars at the City’s borders... and rent a cart pushed by a person. They pay $300-$400 for the cart, so, guests arrive at the hotel unhappy, and they direct all their anger at the hotel staff....” Here, transitions are detected between the themes of: ‘security reasons’, ‘leaving cars outside City’, ‘transport by push cart’, ‘unreasonably expensive’, and ‘staff bearing the brunt’. We also found in the following quotes other relationships, such as: attributes, contingencies, examples and comparisons that were useful for identifying themes (Lindsay & Norman 1972).

....the Tanzanians who live in Europe, America and Britain, are by their very nature content [attribute]; for everything they say, thank you. And the most irritating [attribute] are the Kuwaiti guests, because they feel that they are higher than us and we are lower [comparison] than them.

...for example [example], we offer them free cups of tea as part of our Arab hospitality.

...I attempt to contact friends, owners of other hotels, and book accommodation for them; I do not want them to get annoyed [contingency].

We sorted the data into chunks where we felt a complete idea and theme were formed (Lincoln & Guba, 1985), and placed each chunk of data in a cell in the first column of a table. The corresponding themes were placed in the se-
cond column. We put similar themes together under a new label in the third column, thus creating fewer overarching themes.

A number of these themes found resonance with the concepts of the theoretical constructs of cultural intelligence, 3T performance, and service quality; the concepts and related constructs were placed in columns four and five respectively (see Table below). We illustrate this in few examples; a manager stated: “The Lebanese guests, mostly, find that our food is unsuitable for their pallet”. We reduced this data first to the theme of ‘unsuitable food’, and then coded it by the overarching theme of ‘lack of knowledge of others’ food’. This points to inadequate cognition on the part of the hotel provider; cognition is a dimension of the theoretical construct of cultural intelligence (Ang et al., 2007).

Another manager stated: “We inform the employees that ... a group of visitors from specific country with such and such characteristics will be arriving”. We first coded this data as ‘preparing employees for serving other cultures’, then to the larger theme of ‘Knowing of others’ characteristics’; knowledge is a meta-cognitive ability, and a dimension of cultural intelligence (Ang et al., 2007). Another hotel manager retorted:

... [The local employee]...works 4 or 5 months and [with the money he earns] he buys a new mobile and leaves us. And if he remains in his work, he keeps busying himself with the mobile and ‘Bluetooth’ [doing very little work]; this is the problem with the Iraqi labour. ..if he saved $1000 and borrowed few fils (coins) from here and there [from wherever he can], he bought a car and left work.

The themes of ‘lacking motivation to work’ and exhibiting ‘inappropriate service behaviour’ are extracted from this data- motivation and behaviour are dimensions of cultural intelligence (Ang et al., 2007).

The theoretical construct of 3T performance, also featured strongly in the data; a front line employee commented:

Although, the British investor who visits us must be accorded special treatment ... Importantly, all [visitors] should leave us satisfied. The hotel services [encompass] in general; cleanliness and services whether inside or outside the hotel... Yes, for example, buying things for them [the guests], or guiding them.

From this data, we derived the initial themes of: ‘special treatment to Europeans’; ‘cleanliness’, ‘overall service inside and outside’, and ‘buying for and guiding guests’. We then abstracted these lower themes to the overarching themes of: offering ‘special service treatment’, and ‘doing service tasks’ and
‘extra service performance’ through ‘tangibles’. Task, treatment and tangibles are the three dimensions of the 3T performance construct (Chase & Stewart, 1994; Hogan & Holland, 2003). Furthermore, the data and themes derived show that the dimensions of the construct of 3T performance are associated with the dimensions of service quality, as illustrated by an outraged female foreign guest:

I swore I will not go again to that hotel. I mean I stayed with them 12 days, they hurt me; I quarrel with them every day, I fight with them; I told them I will expose you, your service. I used to stand in front of the reception, and shout: you have hurt me, may God hurt you.

This data shows inappropriate task and treatment performance causing this guest’s outrage; allowing us to extract the themes of: ‘guest is hurt’, ‘she quarrels’, and ‘threatened to expose hotel’. We then abstracted these themes to the higher ones of: ‘lack of empathy with guests’, ‘lack of responsiveness’, and ‘lack of assurance’; all these themes are dimensions of service quality. We have shown in this section a glimpse of our analysis; in the next section we develop relationships between the various constructs and support them by the literature.

**Table 1.** Coding and relating to the literature

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Owner/Manager 1 (46 years old, local, Hotel 1, 3-4*, VN850009)</th>
<th>Literature</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Interview data</strong></td>
<td><strong>Data reduction: Labelling</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Bahraini people, for example, come and stay with us</strong></td>
<td>Bahrainis bring own servants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Usually, these people prefer to bring their servants with them</td>
<td>Renting restaurant and kitchen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and we rent to them the restaurant and the kitchen and we provide for them all what they need.</td>
<td>Someone knows how to serve</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They do this, because they want someone who knows how to serve them</td>
<td>Unsuitable food for Lebanese</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Lebanese guests, mostly, find that our food is unsuitable for their pallet</td>
<td>Keeping eye on things</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...and the rest of the employees go around keeping eye on things.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Managing Director (M, 52, local, local, Hotel 1, 3*-4*, VN850009)**

But this is the nature of the Iranians; the smallest of things | Knowing of others’ character | Meta-cognition | Cultural intelligence |
that go wrong, and they shout this place is ‘Kharab’ - a bad word. Or they say it is ‘kaseef’ for a small spot.

The Iraqi worker requires a lot of time off work... The whole month, nearly fifty percent of it is lost in time off work.

...and as such his contact with the guest will be little.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Guest 1 from the Emirates, Dubai, F, 55 – Hotel 3, 4*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I swore I will not go again to that hotel. I mean I stayed with them 12 days, they hurt me; I quarrel with them every day, I fight with them; I told them I will expose you, your service. I used to stand in front of the reception, and shout: you have hurt me, may God hurt you</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guest is hurt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She quarrels</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Threatened to expose hotel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of empathy with guests; lack of responsiveness; lack of assurance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empathy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Responsiveness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assurance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service quality</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Conclusion |

The findings of the study gave rise to a number of themes which are related to the theoretical constructs of cultural intelligence, 3T performance, and service quality. What has emerged is the apparent lack of appropriate service culture in the city. Associated with this are the themes of persistent “absenteeism” and “lack of motivation” on the part of the local employee which featured strongly in the data, for example:

*The Iraqi worker asks for a lot of time off work; [he comes up with excuses] one day his father dies, one day his mother dies, another, his brother dies; or so and so relative is ill... The whole month, nearly fifty percent of it is lost in time off work.*

These themes we put under the umbrella themes of ‘behaviour’ and ‘motivation’; both are dimensions of ‘cultural intelligence’. We also derived from this data the themes: ‘inappropriate service behaviour’ and ‘lack of motivation’ to work; resulting in ‘insufficient service interaction’ with the guests, a theme emerged from the data: “...This is the Iraqi worker’s problem with us ... and as such his contact with the guest will be little.” This further indicates that employees were not performing their service tasks effectively and, as such, guests were receiving inappropriate treatment. This demonstrates a strong link between the employees’ cultural intelligence dimensions of motivation and behaviour, and the 3T performance construct. Furthermore, pointing to the cross cultural envi-
ronment in the city and particular characteristics of guests from a different culture, a hotel owner responded:

*Bahraini people, for example, ...usually, ... prefer to bring their servants with them and we rent to them the restaurant and the kitchen and we provide for them all what they need ...Yes, we change bed sheets, clean the bathrooms, clean the rooms, bring their grocery too, and the rest of the employees go around keeping eye on things. When the Bahrainis arrive with their servants, I know I don’t have to do more than the cleaning.*

In bringing their servants along with them, the Bahraini guests were signalling that they require the same service they are accustomed to at home. By exhibiting inappropriate service behaviour, this local service provider does not appear to have sufficient knowledge of these guests’ service needs. Consequently the service provider is only able to: do limited tasks focusing on tangibles, and avoid communicating with, and treating guests. We derived from this data the theme of ‘lack of knowledge of Bahrainis’ service needs’- lack of knowledge is a cognitive dimension of cultural intelligence (Ang et al., 2007) - which resulted in the theme of ‘Doing tasks focusing on tangibles’- task and tangibles are dimensions of 3T performance (Stewart, 2003). We also noticed from the data that the service provider is not able to exhibit appropriate behaviour – a dimension of cultural intelligence - towards the Bahrainis, as there is an avoidance of service encounter with them, and consequently lack of treatment – a dimension of 3T performance (Hogan & Holland; Stewart).

Furthermore, the task of: “*employees go[ing] around keeping eye on things*”, resulted in the theme ‘assuring guests’ - a service quality dimension (Zeithaml et al., 1990; Stewart, 2003).

It is also evident from the data below that the theme, ‘knowledge of knowing’ the Iranians’ cultural characteristics – knowledge about knowledge is a meta-cognitive dimension of cultural intelligence - resulted in changing the way this local service provider treats them. Such knowledge enabled the employees to accept the derogatory words of *‘Kharab' [ruin] and ‘kaseef' [dirty]* and change their behaviour – a dimension of cultural intelligence- by responding with a smile; a manifestation of change in treatment- a dimension of 3T performance.

*...but this is the nature of the Iranians; the smallest of things that goes wrong, and they shout this place is ‘Kharab’. Or they say it is ‘kaseef’ if they see a small spot. In the beginning we used to get annoyed, but we got used to them. We started to respond by agreeing with them: “you are right”, “whatever you say”, with a smile.*
Associated with the construct of service performance is the construct of service quality; the latter also featured through themes derived from data. We illustrate using the same data from the outraged female foreign guest: “I swore I will not go again to that hotel. ... they hurt me; I quarrel with them every day, I fight with them;... They remain silent.”

This guest’s outrage strongly suggests that front line employees are not performing their tasks properly, nor providing appropriate treatment. This data and countless other data demonstrate strong interlinks between service quality and the 3T performance.

The empirical findings pointed to underdeveloped hospitality service culture in the cross cultural environment of the city, unmotivated front line hotel employees, and unsuitable service behaviour, which appeared to have undermined the quality of service offered to foreign guests. The themes that emerged from the data displayed the importance of the interplay of cultural intelligence, 3T performance, and service quality in this environment. This finding has not been previously articulated in the literature, and as such, constitutes a potential contribution to knowledge. It also enabled us to propose three sets of relationship: 1) cultural intelligence is related to 3T performance, 2) 3T performance is related to service quality; and 3) cultural intelligence is related to service quality. In proposing these relationships, which we will develop and empirically test in a subsequent paper, we again hope to add to knowledge in the fields of cross cultural interaction and human resource management. We also expect that our findings will have some significant implications for training and management development in the hospitality industry.

References


Tourists’ Risk Aversion and Willingness to Take Risks: The Case of Tourists Visiting Egypt after 25th January Revolution

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Abstract
Risk is an inherent component of travelers’ product and destination choice. Individuals have different perceptions of possible destination choices, and tend to be risk-averse or risk-taking to different degrees. Destinations differ in many respects; their location, historical experience, to political instability, ethnic conflicts and crime. Given these differences, the analysis of destination risk and its components is of substantial interest. A field survey based on quantitative approach using questionnaires as a tool to investigate tourists visiting Cairo; and a mail survey were conducted. The study aimed to measure visitor’s perspective on issues they consider before and after visiting Egypt after the 25th revolution circumstances. It revealed that risk perception is affected by media and marketing communication messages. And that a need to develop innovative approaches to risk management and assessment has become vital helping in risk mitigation and disaster recovery.

Key words: political instability, risk perception, decision making, destination choice, media.

Introduction
There are several external influences on the flow of tourism; some of which are natural in their origin and others very much the result of human activity called
human-caused disasters. However, the possibility of potential threat that accompanies political instability and terrorism causes a more severe reaction, affecting the future of tourism of the place. Due to its inherent characteristics, the tourism industry is particularly vulnerable to crises not confined to any geographical region, ranging from natural disasters to epidemics, and from mismanagement to security concerns. Travel research provides ample evidence for the fact that the tourism experience is associated with risk (Bentley, Page, Meyer, Chalmers, & Laird, 2001). Tourists are generally both more likely to take certain risks while travelling, and more susceptible to hazard and uncertainty in an unfamiliar environment. Political instability describes a situation “in which conditions and mechanisms of governance and rule are challenged as to their political legitimacy by elements operating from outside of the normal operations of the political system” (Hall & O’Sullivan, 1996, p. 106). Political instability may not be as blatant as terrorism; it does, however, a barrier to international tourism. Regardless of the number of occurrences, terrorism continues to capture world attention for the last two decades. Terrorist acts exacerbate public perception of danger in the world in general and at some destinations in particular such as the case of Egypt. Egypt’s attacks were particularly severe in the 1990s, when the Islamist movement “Al-Gama’a al Islamiya” targeted high level political leaders and killed hundreds in its pursuit of implementing Islamic law in Egypt (Murphy, 2002). According to US Department of State, Egypt suffered a series of deadly terrorist attacks in or near tourist sites in 2005 and 2006 – often coinciding with major local holidays. A series of bomb attacks targeting the Egyptian resort city of Sharm el Sheikh and the town of Dahab killed more than 80 people. Evidence of instability in Sinai has also been reflected in random attacks on vehicles conveying Multinational Force Observers near Rafah borders crossing in August 2005 and April 2006. In September 2008, 11 foreign tourists and 8 Egyptians were kidnapped for ransom in the remote southwestern desert region, close to the Sudanese border. They were subsequently released unharmed. In February 2009, a small bomb exploded in the main square in front of the Khan al Khalili bazaar, causing numerous casualties among foreign visitors, including the death of a young French tourist. There have been instances of instability and public disorder in some other areas of Egypt, most notably in the Nile Valley governorates of Assiut and Sohag, located between Cairo and Luxor. On January 1, 2011, a bombing attack occurred in Alexandria at a Coptic church. More than 20 deaths were reported and almost 100 were injured, from both the Christian and the Muslim communities. Just after January 25th revolution, public demonstrations occasionally took place in areas such as Tahrir Square in Cairo and in the vicinity of universities and
mosques following the Friday noon prayers, including the Azhar mosque across from the Khan El Khalili Bazaar area. While the Egyptian Government took measures against the perpetrators of these attacks, these occurrences reflect a persistent, indigenous threat of terror activities in Egypt.

January 25th and the effects upon Egypt tourism industry: The recent wave of revolution that took the region by storm shook Egypt’s tourism industry to the core. The unrest caught many authorities off guard; their reaction adversely affected much of the country’s tourist destinations, while simultaneously dropping down the Egyptian economy. Enforced curfews shut down Cairo’s airport, for days the only activity at the airport was departures, mainly of tourists that had been caught in the conflict. Airline had to reduce their frequencies as well as re-route flights that travel via Cairo International Airport, and night flights were completely cancelled (Daoud, 2011). Following the revolution, between January 27th and March 23rd, the Egyptian stock market plunged 10% (Werr, 2011); this plunge undoubtedly had an effect on Egypt’s tourism industry and will have in the future, as stock market crashes have lingering effects, particularly when the economy is as intertwined with the tourism industry as the case in Egypt. According to The Egyptian Tourist Authority (ETA), tourism represents 11% of the gross domestic product, combining direct and indirect employment, as there are 2.5 million people working in the tourism industry. The ETA estimates that the industry has been losing $25 million dollars per day since the 1st of February (Baran, 2011). In 2010, revenues from tourism reached $13 billion dollars, and the number of tourists climbed to 14 million, which provided Egypt with 20% of its return in hard currency. Due to recent circumstances the figures returned to the level they were at in 2004 before the liberalization of the Egyptian economy. An estimated 16 million tourists were expected to visit Egypt in 2011, according to the New York Times. Losses began in the aviation sector which serves as the primary means of transporting tourists to Egypt, and includes hotels, tourist sites, and entry fees, fees for an estimated 16,000 tour guides, restaurants, nightclubs and bazaars. The timing of the violence and political uncertainty couldn’t be worse — winter is the high season for visitors. Large tour operators such as Gate 1 Travel and cruise companies including Norwegian and Italian Cruise Lines have canceled Egyptian stops. Tours elsewhere in the Middle East haven’t been canceled, but travel agents are getting a steady stream of inquiries about the status of planned trips. In addition to around 70 industries that are linked one way or another to tourism revenue were affected. The chairman of the Chamber of Hotel Facilities, estimated the losses suffered by the tourism sector at about 8 billion Egyptian
pounds ($1.3 billion), adding that "current room occupancy in hotels does not exceed 4%." The Foreign & Commonwealth Office of the United Kingdom released its official “Egyptian Travel Advice”, advising that: “There is a high threat from terrorism in Egypt. Attacks could be indiscriminate, including public places frequented by expatriates and foreign travelers, such as hotels and restaurants” (current through May first, ETA, 2011). Moreover, advice is posted that “you stay away from demonstrations on Tahrir Square and follow the news on the television and radio” (British Embassy, 2011). The United Kingdom’s release is not unique; other nations have discouraged their citizens that are potentially traveling to Egypt. These first world governments, who are responsible for majority of tourism worldwide, have the main concern of avoiding any potentially damaging international conflict. International Travel companies specialized in the Egyptian Market predict that 80 percent of their customers who have already booked trips to Egypt will try to cancel. And they do not expect any calls for new bookings during the next six months. They also expect that travel to the rest of the region, including Israel and Lebanon, to be hurt too. "People will fear that the whole region will be falling apart," they said (www.msnbc.msn.com). The Egyptian Prime Minister confirmed the strategic importance of tourism for the country’s economic recovery and social stability after January 25 revolution circumstances, especially in the current transition period (UNWTO, 2011). Tourism is clearly seen as a national priority involving all areas of public policy and thus can be a major contributor to consolidate the transition. Given the current difficulties in the region, it is important for the industry to get a clear message out that the new Egypt is stable and open for business.

Destination choice decision: When tourists perceive travel to be less pleasurable due to actual or perceived risks, they exercise their freedom to select other destinations. (Sonmez, Apostopoulos & Tarlow, 1999; Floyd & Gray, 2004) note that travel statistics from around the world clearly suggest that tourism demand decreases as the perception of risks associated with a destination increases. A common finding in tourism literature is that the presence of risk, no matter if real or perceived, influences the travel decision-making process (Mawby, 2000). It is expected that risk-averse consumers will purchase more pre-packaged trips and spend fewer nights abroad visiting fewer destinations. Destination choice is made after constraints such as time, budget, and physical distance are weighed against destination image. It is likely for perceptions of crime, terrorism, or health scares including SARS, Asian and Swine flu to cause similar behavior. Many authors analyzed risk perception of tourists and found
that health, political instability, terrorism, strange food, cultural barriers, a nation’s political and religious dogma, and crime were the main identified risk factors. Other researchers have concluded that natural disasters such as the tsunami in South East Asia and hurricanes in the Caribbean are one of the main risk factors affecting destination choice (Huan, Tsai, & Lori, 2006). This idea was supported by (Crompton, 1992) assert that destinations perceived as too high risk, due to situational constraints or barriers, may become undesirable.

Destination choice decision is a function of information available from different sources (Gartner, 1993). As a form of protective behavior, travelers can alter their destination choices; modify their travel behavior; or if they decide to continue with their travel plans, they acquire information. According to (Murphy, Mascardo, & Benckendorff, 2007), travelers that love risk and want adventure did not seek a lot of information. But those who feared risk not only gathered information but also considered particular vacations and lodging facilities. Maser and Weiermair (1998) showed that the higher the perceived risk, the more information search occurs, and the more rational decision-making becomes. Potential tourists rely on others’ experiences for their decision making in an effort to decrease uncertainty and increase the exchange utility (Kotler, Bowen, & Maken, 2010).

Tourist decisions to stay home or choose safer destinations are translated into significant losses for the tourism industry of the country suffering from terrorism (Sonmez et al., 1999). Individuals planning their holidays are less likely to choose a destination with a higher threat of terrorist attacks. Host countries providing tourism services, which can be easily substituted are therefore, negatively affected by terrorist attacks to a substantial extent (Frey, Simon, & Alois, 2004). It is likely that tourists may postpone their visit until the situation appears to have calmed down. But, more likely, activity will be redirected to alternative destinations, which appear to be safer. Some destinations may be eliminated from the decision making process due to their potential costs or perceived risks attached to that destination, especially if associated with negative media images of terrorist threats (Sonmez & Graefe, 1998).

Impact of Media on travel decision making: The media has a very important relationship with tourism as it acts as a significant influence on the image of potential tourist destinations and so affecting potential tourist’s destination choice. Social media influence several components of consumer behavior such as awareness, information acquisition, opinions, attitudes, but also purchase behavior and post-purchase communications and evaluation (Mangold & Faulds,
As in other industries, also in tourism, Web 2.0 has changed significantly the way individuals plan and consume travel (Buhalis & Law, 2008). Continuous media coverage of political rebellion, military coups, strikes, protestation or regional wars can deter tourists from choosing to travel to specific destinations or even entire regions. The general public relies to a vast degree on media accounts for an understanding of terrorists’ motives, the implication of aggressive actions, and the essential details of any critical situation the destination may be facing, which as a result may affect tourists’ attitudes towards holiday destinations.

During the events of the 25th revolution, more influential than the unrest caused by protests on potential tourists, was the reaction of the security forces of the deposed president. Attempts to quell protests had tremendous effects on potential visitors worldwide through the images of police brutality broadcasted to the world via satellite news stations. The Egyptian authorities’ attempts to shield the reality of the events on the ground from the eyes of the world by cutting down the internet, and other means of communication and the revoking of Al Jazeera’s license to broadcast lead to audience fear. Repeated street battles carried on for days, live on satellite television, broadcasting an image of the country’s security that with no doubt surprised international audiences. These sponsored acts took much the same effect on the tourism industry as an act of terrorism. Despite the polar difference between 25th January events and terrorists’ attacks in Egypt, the net result is identical. By consequence, the impressions and reactions made upon third party spectators, who are the tourists, are usually the same.

**Travel warning lifted and tourist reluctant to travel:** The ambassadors of several country and the heads of different travel associations such as NTA, USTOA, ATTA and ASTA, along with tour operators and journalists starting their investigation visits to Cairo. The American ambassador Scobey met the American delegation who was on a six-day, fact-finding trip to investigate travel safety in Egypt and Jordan. They met Egyptian officials and toured Tahrir Square, the Egyptian Museum and other cultural attractions to confirm that Egypt is safe and ready for tourists, and that the Egyptian people welcomed foreign visitors with a renewed spirit and pride resulting from their revolution. Several European countries such as Britain lifted its Egypt travel warning and ordered “departure” status, clearing the way for their embassies’ personnel to return to Egypt. Americans have been slower to return to Egypt than their European counterparts, who tend to visit Red Sea resort destinations like Sharm el-Sheikh.
Ever cautious, the U.S. was among the last nations to lift its Egypt travel warning (Koch, 2011).

**Methodology**

The Study included two sample groups: international tourists (n = 92) who were contacted through a mail survey and tourists (n = 76) who were visiting Cairo after the 25th revolution. A randomly selected tourist sample was used. A target of 200 respondents was set; only 168 questionnaires were adequately completed and valid for analysis. No particular age group was chosen for this study, and balancing gender equality was taken into consideration in the sample. Tourist questionnaires were distributed to tourists during their visits to the Pyramid Plateau site in addition to the Egyptian Museum located at the heart of El Tahrir square. The tourist questionnaire included four sections. The first section was concerned with general questions such as the purpose of visitors’ trip, if they have visited Egypt before, with whom they are travelling and etc. The second section was concerned with their destination travel choice, asking them if they search for travel advice before visiting any destination, what affect their travel decision, knowing their opinions concerning most types of tourism associated with risk and uncertainty, and nature of hazards they may have faced before while travelling. The third section was focusing on evaluating their response/attitude towards threats faced in any destination they have chosen to spend their vacation, and a 5-point Likert-like scale was included to measure tourists’ perceptions of risk associated with travelling to Egypt, ranging from(1) which stands for not being important at all, and its importance increases along the scale up to the number (5) which stood for a factor being a very important attribute thus has strong influence on visitors destination choice. The fourth section was concerned with Egypt visitors’ profile, demographic questions such as gender, age, and nationality. The survey was conducted over four non consecutive weeks in July and August 2011. A pilot study was conducted on randomly selected 12 sample tourists to ensure questions and procedures would work properly for the main study.

Quantitative Content Analysis, which is based on the principles of social science of ‘measuring and counting ’was used. It is a structured method, used to examine large amounts of data content with statistic methods. Types of data analyzed consist of dichotomy yes/no decisions, nominal (categorical) scale, which is simply placing of data into categories, without any order or structure, and ordinal, which is a form of ranking, with no objective distance between
any two points on a subjective scale. SPSS (Statistical Program for Social Sciences, version 18) was the statistical analysis package used to analyze findings.

**Results**

The findings revealed that most of respondents visiting Egypt were travelling for leisure (63.11%), while (26.8%) were in business trips. Their average length of stay ranges from 6 to 10 days (41.13%), except those who were visiting Cairo (24.17%) as part of their job such as people working in media and journalism, they didn’t have a definite length of stay as it depends on the work place circumstances and unpredicted events they may face. There were 29 females and 53 males among the respondents, representing 35.3 % and 64.6 % of the total respectively. The probability of cancelling travel increases for females. It seems that woman is risk – adverse more than men so, she prefers to change her travel decision. The two domain age groups were 24-34 and 35-44, accounting for 59.8 % of the respondents. Only 8.5%, or seven respondents, were above 55 years of age or older, which revealed that elderly people are risk-adverse more than youth. Most of the socio-demographic variables such as the marital status, the age, the gender, the level of studies, and the income per capita seem to have an effect on the probability of travelling to Egypt following an attack. Internet and books are the principal sources of information used to recognize Egypt as a tourist destination followed by television and the conversations with friends. The booklets and travel agencies are the least solicited. Travel review readers perceive that other travelers’ online reviews have great impacts on their pleasure trip planning process. Almost all agree that travelers’ reviews help them learn about a travel destination, product or service, help them evaluate alternatives, help them avoid places they would not enjoy and also provide them with ideas. Over 80% also agree that reading other travelers' online reviews increases confidence in decisions, makes it easier to image what a place would be like, helps reduce risk/uncertainty, makes it easier to reach decisions, and helps with planning pleasure trips more efficiently. Frequent review readers use the Internet even more and are even more likely to look at other consumers' materials, read travel-related blogs, watch videos online and use interactive trip planners. They are more likely to use travel reviews throughout all trip planning stages and more likely think that online travel reviews are important for a variety of travel-related decisions especially if the required destination is facing troubles. Some people see that sometimes the windows of opportunity are just after revolutions and bombings. By enjoying best deals, prices virtually decreased 25% of what was written in Lonely Planet for example, in addition to enjo-
ying the calm while visiting attractions’ sites. Their comments included that to avoid the crowds; this is a great time to visit Egypt. Tourism is down 80% compared to last year. Others added that “if you want to score a deep discount on papyrus scrolls, stroll into the Egyptian Museum without waiting on line, or snap photos of the great pyramids without another traveler in sight, it is really a suitable chance”. 36% of respondents assure that may be they were more encouraged to plan for a visit to Egypt especially after lifting the travel warning which was stressed on their countries’ websites. A great percentage of Americans tend to be ‘risk averse’ when it comes to traveling abroad and they confirmed that this significant modification will give them the green light they’re looking for. Many respondents mentioned that they believe that from outside the situation looked much more chaotic than it is in reality. 47% of respondents noted that they have the feeling that people outside Egypt are very confused at the moment. The whole Middle East is going through different kinds of revolutions or unrest, and especially after Libya’s events it’s easy to think that the whole area could be dangerous. Responses of tourists visiting Cairo few months after the 25th revolution, revealed that the most common interest wasn’t the Pyramids or other famous monuments but rather it was the curiosity to observe the scene in reality, for example; the remnants of the burned out Ministry of Internal Affairs building and the routine Friday afternoon demonstrations in Tahrir Square. In addition to sharing with others the idea of the discounted rates as mentioned before. Another common comment was the remarkable chaotic traffic that was witnessed with incredibly skilled drivers, insincere but slick touts, and a strong sense of community across classes and ethnic groups was noted. Their comments came as follows; “if I had a trip planned to Egypt, I would postpone it. There are riots in many of the major cities, people have been arrested, and there’s a pretty nasty history of terrorist attacks against foreigners at many of Egypt’s top attractions”. Given the fact that the Pyramids are located right outside of Cairo, and that Cairo is on every tour itinerary, it makes sense to avoid their vacations. On the other hand, some respondents see that if they already have a tour booked, or planned to travel to Egypt in the next few weeks, or months, they should not cancel their trips, but just postpone it. They justified their opinion saying that” Egyptians who drive your tour bus, clean your hotel room, and sell to you souvenirs will all feel the burden of these cancellations more than any politician will”.

**Conclusion**

Peace and political stability are pre-requisites for international tourism as well as for local tourism. It is not easy to judge the real risk associated with travel,
but this initiates a new form of experience for travelers in which there is a positive element to risk where tourists have the excitement of danger from terrorism and other forms of hazards. It is rarely possible to quantify, the impact upon the tourist industry that can be subdivided into categories; regional, national, and international. The January 25th revolution obviously has had international impacts upon the tourist industry, primarily in regards to the opinion of the international community. However, many still ask is Egypt safe to visit? Here lies the difficulty that Egypt is facing, determining how to attract future visitors; first-world governments are still promoting the old Egypt. Creating a contrast in the marketing of post-revolution Egypt with the ways in which tourism was orchestrated in the past. The revolution set out to make changes for the better, but with over 10% of its economy relying on tourism, Egypt must be conscience of the impressions of the international community. It is therefore essential for Egyptian tourist authorities to press for stability to return to Egypt, while simultaneously promoting the January 25th revolution. Turning to social media to accelerate the lifecycle from revolution to a return to normalcy. "From Egypt with Love" with different languages seems to be trying to quickly rebrand the country, from a potentially dangerous destination, to a place full of warm and gentle people. Positive media coverage during the next phase is essential to lure tourists to the main sites such as Luxor, Hurghada, Sharm el-Sheikh and Aswan. With no doubt lifting the travel warning from official countries’ websites will go far in restoring international consumer traffic to Egypt.

Foreign tourism operators may start incorporating revolutionary attractions in their itineraries to promote “new Egypt”. Encouraging the domestic market, the Egyptians themselves, through local promotions at competitive prices. Discounted rates may exceed 50%. Planning for mega events and different summer festivals to promote social causes, arts and culture. Due to tourism’s predilection for locating relatively high-risk zones, tourism facilities and activities should be considered at both the risk analysis and warning stages of hazard assessment. The development of innovative and creative approaches to risk management and risk assessment used by tourism companies and destinations’ authorities has become a vital component helping in risk mitigation and disaster recovery. Highlighting the responsibility of the private sector, in terms of representatives of the tourism industry to be more actively involved in planning and managing tourism in Egypt. This may occur in the form of partnerships with sectors of government. Such partnerships are also likely to involve other interested parties including non-government organizations (NGOs).
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Surveying Biological Situation of Anzali Pond and Its Custody Management Strategies along with Ecotourism Area

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Abstract
As the most important international pond, now, Anzali is in a great crisis with a lot of inattention that leads to its distraction. Because of locating in a crowded area, this pond receives various kinds of chemical materials from the rivers conduced to the pond. Due to pawing of industrial and urban sewerages, solid garbage of marginal areas and pollution generated from agricultural activity, vacating polluted water of farms and large entrance of sediments, quality of international Anzali pond is reduced and is exposed to ruining. Irregular cut of trees and extreme graze of mutton in country regions has lead to sediment conveyance from these areas. Although 70% of industrial factories around Anzali pond are equipped with resolution system, but continuation of entering hospital, urban, household and industrial slop to the conducing rivers to Anzali pond leads to settlement of these slops in pond and distraction of water supply in this region which by the use of effective and scientific strategies, authorities should have especial attention to this important watery arena in the world.

Key words: nature tourism, pond biologist, ecotourism, watery ecosystem.
Introduction

Wetlands are complex, vital, and exclusive ecologies that have been destroyed by human as he thought they were unusable, and thoughtful human, by converting them into agricultural and residential lands, has tried to destroy them. Despite all these destructing actions, wetlands have remained stable regarding to different geographical conditions, and are important shelters for last survivors of plant and animal species and preserving life diversity (Public Relations of Protection Administration of Mazandaran, 2003).

Existences of exclusive natural sources, miscellaneous climates, different temperatures and precipitation have provided suitable conditions to develop ecotourism industry in Iran. This is an important approach that affects not only on improvement of current natural sources, but also on economic and social development of local and native societies that are inseparable part of natural sources.

The specified area is Anzali wetland, located in north of Iran, Gilan province. Various species of aquatics and birds live in this wetland, and it also has famous waterlily. Anzali wetland, with area of 15000 hectare, is one of the most valuable ecosystems of country. By environmental criteria, this wetland has produced exclusive conditions with more than 154 animal species and 230 plant species. Anzali wetland is also important from economical and vocational views, such that more than 6000 ton of fishes and more than 2000 pieces of birds are hunted by hunters and local people.

Unfortunately, today Anzali wetland has encountered with a lot of challenges, for example, delivery of more than 30 million ton urban waste, 15000 ton chemical fertilizers, 4000 liter agricultural poisons, waste of about 50 factories, non-native Azola, and sound and oil pollution by visitors’ boats, that impose irrecoverable damages to this area annually. Regarding to international importance of Anzali wetland, it is necessary to control delivery of industrial and urban wastes to this wetland. This text studies environmental situation of Anzali wetland and suggests managerial strategies to protect it along with ecotourism. Therefore, we first will try to better recognize ecotourism. Second, we will refer to ecological situation of Anzali wetland. Third, we will analyze strategies to prevent destruction of this wetland.

Goals of this study are:

- Study ecological situation of Anzali wetland
- Study of minatory factors and destruction of Anzali wetland
• Study of ecotourism of Anzali wetland
• Suitable strategies to resolve destruction crisis of Anzali wetland
• Advantages of protection of Anzali wetland by ecotourism view.

Problem Design

Rather than Anzali international wetland has been registered in as an international wetland in Ramsar Convention in 1975, it is known as one of the world biosphere storages by UNESCO. But, today name of Anzali wetland is located in top of the list of in danger wetlands. Anzali wetland is also important from economical and vocational view so that more than 6000 ton fishes and more than 2000 pieces of birds are hunted by hunters and local people annually. But unfortunately, today Anzali wetland has encountered with a lot of challenges, for example, delivery of more than 30 million ton urban waste, 15000 ton chemical fertilizers, 4000 liter agricultural poisons, waste of about 50 factories, non-native Azola, and sound and oil pollution by visitors’ boats, that imposes irrecoverable damages to this area annually (www.hybridcars.com).

Because of delivery of wastes and sediments, this wetland is in danger of sever pollution, and this will destroy its ecosystem seriously. So, it is important that Environment Organization, Ministry of Agriculture, and other responsible organizations do necessary actions toward solving this problem. Anzali wetland acts as a final point for upstream rivers, and prevents flood and land movement in the area (http://www.aftab.ir).

Depth of this wetland is decreased because of sedimentation and growth of plants. Upon studies, depth of the wetland was reported 6 m in 1966, but it is 1.5 m today, and less in some parts (Behruzirad, 2007, p. 568).

If this wetland dries, not only life area of birds and fishes is in danger, but lives of local people also are affected. Anzali wetland is not only place of spawning of Kaviar and white fishes, winter place for birds of passage, and growing place of rare plane species as wetland tulip, but also has economical importance for local people and country. Annually, hundreds tourists come to visit this unique wetland, and boat sportsmen also practice there (www.hybridcars.com). Recently, this wetland But, today name of Anzali wetland is located in top of the list of in danger wetlands. This text studies environmental situation of Anzali wetland and suggests managerial strategies to protect it along with ecotourism.
Ecotourism

Ecotourism or ecological tour is a kind of tourism that is provided by help of local people and natural potentials, in which tourists go to visit virgin and non-resident nature of world. These kinds of tourists are called ecotourists. Many countries supply a large part of their income for foreign ecotourists. There are also some people that travel to far places to see, for example, a rare kind of bird and taking a photo. They are called bird-viewer. Many others go to see and do skin-diving. Basic goal of tourists is nature, that is, by definition, traveling to natural regions that are protected. Ecotourism make little damage to local nature and culture (Majnunian, 2006). World Tourism Organization (WTO) defines ecotourism as:

It is a kind of tourism in which travel to natural regions has educational and enjoyment goals to see landscapes, plants, and wild life.

Some synonyms for ecotourism are:
- Tourism of environment advocates
- Tourism of nature
- Green tourism

When Thomas Cook established the first tourism company in 1841, many people welcomed tourism opportunities up to now. Today, about 6.1 milliard people from all countries spend more than 2 trillion dollars for types of tourism. Utilizing ecotourism is improving, because it is a transnational attraction. As our executive policies can affect our tourism abilities, regional tourism is affected by state policies. In macro level, a stable ecotourism has two important parts: Rise and increase of natural ecosystem protection, and protecting local and native economy (Mirsanjari, 2008).

Ecotourism features

- Participation in protection of life diversity
- Help to social welfare of native societies
- Educational experience
- Responsibility of tourists
- Handling by small companies
- Little need to use irrecoverable energy
- Emphasize on native ownership
- Producing vocational opportunities (Nouruzi, 2006, p.20).
In recent 5 years, ecotourism has found a superior place, and desire to visit natural places and wild life is increasing. This affair has produced many new situations, but also many needs for management. Today, ecotourism is much familiar, but it is misused. Recently, nature-based view is removed from this industry, and they converted ecotourism to a destructive virus in nature (Ghazvini & Nazari, 2008, p. 4).

Ecotourism in Iran

A vast set of diverse unregistered sources forms Iran’s ecotourism. This comprises a diverse spectrum of geographical landscapes and natural places. A study of Iran’s natural geography and feasibility of ecotourism of Iran indicates that it is a unique economical but released source in Iran. Exactly, ecotourist situation of Iran is because of its contiguity with equatorial region. Geographical diversity has produced many different plant and animal species in Iran, so that Iran is one of the five countries having complete ecosystem diversity (four seasons and plant and animal original species). Therefore, Iran has the potential to invest for ecotourism industry (Mirsanjari, 2006).

Anzali Wetland

This wetland was formed by forming two narrow dry jaws of 9×270 km and sinking sea water. West jaw called Anzali peninsula that continues to Kapurchal, and Mahruzeh peninsula separates two small gulf of Kapurchal and Bahmbar. Anzali wetland is very young. By geological terms, wetlands are gulfs that has been separated by a sand partition from sea and is called gulf bayou, or they are deep places that are formed by earth movements. For Anzali, recession of Caspian Sea caused its separation from the sea (Monavvari, 1990).

Location

Anzali wetland is located in south of Caspian Sea in 37°29′13″ north width and 49°18′41″ east length (Behruzirad, 2007). This wetland is limited from north to Caspian Sea, from east to Pirbazar village, form west to Kapurchal and Abkenar, and from south to Sumehsara town and part of Rasht (Taheri, 1998). Spillway basin of this wetland is 374,000 hectare, from which 53.9% is forest and range, 33.2% is agricultural lands, and 8.7% is wetland and pools. Human constructions have occupied 3.7% of land (Environment Magazine, 2008, p. 3). Area of Anzali wetland is about 140 km2. This wetland is about 30 km along east-west and is about 3 km along north-south (Behruzirad, 2007). Anzali wet-
land is separated by a sand border, on which Anzali Harbor is located, from Caspian Sea. Most of its east regions are covered by reed, but its west and central parts are open. This wetland was registered in June 1975 in Ramsar site. Fluctuations of sea and uterification (water enrichment by nutritional material) by entering waste waters caused degeneration of its ecosystem. In this regard, Ramsar Convention decided to register it in Montro list and suggested that actions to rehabilitate this wetland is urgent.

Anzali wetland is a collection of sweet waters that is fed by its spillway basin rivers such as Siahdarvishan, Hendkhaleh, and Pasikhan. Anzali wetland is a suitable living area for spawning and propagation of fishes and a warm place for different species of birds during winter. Reed is the plentiful plant in the area. The protected area of Sarkhangal is a central region of Anzali wetland, and is covered mainly by reed and cattail. This wetland is member of international wetlands of Ramsar convention. In recent years, Anzali wetland suffered from converting some of its lands to agricultural lands, sedimentation of entered waters, and growth of aquatic and non-native plants such as Azolla filiculodes (Khoshchin, 1993).

**Physical Specifications**

Anzali wetland is a natural, permanent, and sweet water one in country. About 11 major rivers and 30 minor rivers enter into this wetland after irritation of farms and rice paddies with area of about 3600 km2. By geological terms, this wetland was formed during late Paleocene and probably Holocene. Soil of its periphery includes surface and non-lime hydromorph. Sediments are green sedimentary peat and a little coarse peat silt. Maximum depth of the wetland is 25 m during spring. Upon gathered data in a 25 period, warmest month is July with 36.8°C and coldest month is February with -11.4°C, that its average is 16°C. Water temperature is 2-11°C in winter. Average annual precipitation is 1500-2000 mm and its relative moisture is 80-85%. Generally, Anzali wetland has warm and moist summers and moderate winters (Mansuri, 1993).

**Ecological specifications**

Anzali wetland is a shallow and sweet water one. This wetland is separated by a sand border with width of 1 km from Caspian Sea. Main plant cover of the wetland is reed, which their height sometimes reaches to 6 m. Azolla filiculodes plant was planted in Gilan province farm lands by Iran Scientific and Industrial Researches Organization and Agriculture Organization to produce necessary fodder for livestock and birds and green fertilizer for farms in 1984. During last
decades, because of excess entering waste waters and decrement of water level, reed and Azolla had greater growth (Kimbal, 1987).

**Protection situation**

This wetland was registered as an international wetlands in Ramsar Convention. Also, International Organization of Birds Life indicated this wetland as an important one for birds. Protected area of Siahkashim, wild shelter of Selekeh, and hunting-forbidden area of Sarkhankal are located in Anzali wetland.

**Dangers and threatening factors**

Anzali wetland encounters considerable threats, such as: Entering agricultural and industrial wastes, decrement of water level, rapid growth of reed and Azolla specially in warm weather, deterioration of spillway basin of the wetland, increment of sediments, converting margins to agricultural lands, high traffic of motor boats, excess hunting of aquatic birds, extracting birds’ eggs by native people, increment of heavy metals specially lead in water and sediments, pumping water to upstream to irrigate agricultural lands, construction of hunting cabins, accumulation of a lot of irresolvable wastes in the wetland mainly through rivers and visitors, construction of fish breeding pools around the wetland, construction of canals to guide water to upstream, changes in physical and chemical properties of water and affect on spawning and propagation of fishes.

**Hydraulic Performance**

This wetland deposits almost 13% of suspended particles entered in it annually, and have an important role in purification and decrement of pollution load of water, so that 38% of nutrition elements deposit in the wetland annually. Anzali wetland has an important role in preventing depreciation of soil and shores of Caspian Sea.

**Economical-social values and using the land**

Using plant sources, utilizing sediments as fertilizer, existence of Titanium in sediments, hunting fishes and birds, and attracting tourists are from values of Anzali wetland. It should be mentioned that around lands are used for agriculture and supply of fodder of livestock, boating and transportation. Also, this wetland is one of the sources of agricultural water of around lands.
Birds

They have known 145 species of birds of passage in Iran. 77 species (53%) of them are seen in Anzali wetland. About 700,000 birds of passage were observed such as ducks, geese, swan, and moorhen, which they immigrate from Siberia and other areas of world. This wetland is one of the most important places for little birds during winter. White pelican, gray-foot pelican, and white-forehead goose are from those birds that stay there during winter. This area is registered as passage for birds like white-headed duck, and black-stomached chicken. Other valuable species are birds like little swan, oak duck, bride goose, and black-headed duck that are close to extinction (http://eprquds.blogfa.com).

Plants

Plants of Anzali wetland are classified in four groups: (1) plunged plants, (2) afloat plants, (3) plunged-end plants, (4) dry plants. 11 species of plunged plants, 11 species of afloat plants, 11 species of plunged-end plants, and 6 species of dry plants are seen in Anzali wetland.

Fishes

Output of Anzali wetland goes to Caspian Sea. This cause there was a suitable place for spawning types of fishes. In other words, some of these species are only found in Anzali wetland and not seen in other south part of Caspian Sea. 39 species from 49 species of wetland fishes live exclusively in Anzali wetland.

Mammals

Among mammals in this area are forest cat, wild boar, and otter (http://www.aftab.ir).

Scientific Studies

This wetland has been noticed by interior and foreign researches because of its ecological importance. Therefore, hydrologic and geologic studies and identification of pollutants in this wetland were done by Environment Protection Organization, Agricultural Organization, Fishery, FAO, and universities (mainly Tehran University and Tarbiyat Modarres University).

It should be said that Environment Protection Organization has many research stations in Anzali wetland that they monitor water situation of the wetland by physical, chemical, and biological specifications regularly. Also, annual census of aquatic birds is done by Environment Protection Organization.
Japan International Cooperation Organization has also began the project of integrated management of spillway basin of Anzali wetland by participation of Iran. Reports suggest that 30% of marginal factories have not equipped to refining systems yet. From the experts view, equipping industrial factories continues for many years and equipping home and industrial wastes to refining systems has commenced. The most important effect of Anzali wetland is weather moderation. It is also a suitable place for spawning of fishes and birds. Its east section has a critical situation because of pollution and its west part has a more suitable situation because of more deep. Its central part suffers from ecological-environmental dangers because of traffic of motor boats.

Although self-purification is done in the wetland because of existence of aquatic plants, but it is not enough to prevent its pollution. Now, hydrologic and hydrobiologic studies are done in this wetland and designs are also afoot. These designs will be executed at rivers’ mouths to prevent entering pollutants to the wetland (Wikipedia site).

Disappearing life in Anzali wetland

Anzali wetland is one of the most important part of Caspian ecosystem that plays a critical role in continuity of wild life, supplying sweet water, and preserving living equilibrium. But, inattention to this ecosystem, this wetland is subjected to extinction. Anzali wetland is one of the 10 valuable wetlands of the world. This wetland is located among Sumehsara, Rasht, and Bandar-Anzali cities in south shore of Caspian Sea. Agricultural activities around the wetland are from the factors of its extinction. Also, growth of cities and industrial towns without correct location is another source of pollution of the wetland. Growth of Azolla in this wetland is one of the destructive factors. Now, this plant has occupied a vast part of the wetland, and if this is not prevented, it will cover all surface of the wetland during few next years. This plant has covered surface of the wetland with thickness about 10 cm that prevents sun lights to underwater. So, chemical reactions are not take place by phytoplanktons and aquatics do not obtain enough oxygen. Rather than urban wastes, agricultural poisons are also entered to the wetland through drainage. Unfortunately, this wetland has become a place to evacuate waste water and pollutants, so that most wastes and sediments are attracted by this wetland before reaching to the sea. Anzali wetland is one of the most important wetlands of Caspian Sea margin and is valuable by economical, tourism, ecological, and vocational view (http://www.azolla).
Decrement of depth of Anzali wetland

Transfer of sedimentary materials through entering rivers and deposition of suspended materials is one of the factors for life decrement of this wetland. Entering a large volume of sediments to this wetland is the most disaster of Anzali international wetland. Spillway basin of Anzali wetland is about 610 km², and a significant volume of sediments are entered through 27 rivers. Unfortunately, uncontrolled entrance of sediments accelerates decrement of depth of Anzali international wetland, so this should be prevented by practical strategies.

Boat traffic is not possible in all parts of this wetland

Finally, wetlands are converted to forests, and entering excess sediments accelerates this trend. Unfortunately, boat cannot pass in some parts of this wetland, and all institutions should notice this problem. By limonologic studies during recent years, one thousand milliard m² of different sediments have entered into this international wetland. These sediments decreased its depth from 12 m to 2-3 m. To save this wetland, rehabilitation designs should be executed. Installation of sediment traps at the mouths of entered rivers, dredging it upon scientific methods, and gathering aquatic plants including Azolla and reed are from those important actions for its rehabilitation. 70 million ton sediments enter to this wetland annually. This sediment has a high function, and can be used for pottery and hotbeds. Anzali wetland acts as a final point for upstream rivers, and prevents flood and land movement in the area. If this wetland dries, not only life area of birds and fishes is in danger, but lives of local people also are affected. (http://www.aftab.ir).

Integrated design of urban management to preserve Anzali wetland

Because of existence of Anzali wetland beside of Bandar Anzali city, this city is selected for integrate design of urban management by World Bank. By organizing Anzali wetland, fulfillment of urban waste waters of Rasht and Bandar Anzali cities, and executing development designs according to ecological affairs, extinction of this wetland can be prevented. Unsuitable design of bridges and short interval of columns can produce problems for environment of the wetland (http://eprquds.blogfa.com).

Ecological management project of Anzali wetland

Following developmental studies in Anzali wetland (2003-2005) which led to codifying wetland integrated desing, project of ecological management of
Anzali wetland will be executed from middle of 2007 up to two years. This project will concentrate on providing required mechanism to execute the integrated design. By doing this project we expect to:

- Provide a substantial structure for wetland integrated management,
- Determine monitoring style of the wetland,
- Partitioning the wetland to regions and providing designs for management strategies for each region regarding to its social, economical, and ecological situation,
- Developing fundamentals of ecological trainings,
- Developing required fundamentals and substructures for tourism industry.

**Conclusion**

Among different options of world tourism, ecotourism is from planning options because of its respect to environment protection, respect to local societies, and respect to local culture. Experts know ecotourism as the best solution to protect nature, because ecotourism provides suitable base to obey international rules from one hand, and increases public knowledge from the other hand. But what is important is that ecotourism should be offered as an industry and a source to protect nature and income-making (Hemmati, 2004).

Anzali wetland is located about 40 km from north of Rasht and in southwest of Bandar Anzali town and Caspian Sea. Extent of this wetland reaches to 120 km² because of precipitation, and diminishes to about 80 km² during summer and autumn. This wetland acts as a refinery for entering rivers that go to Caspian Sea. This wetland has a exotic ecosystem with more than 100 species of birds, 50 species of fishes, hundreds species of plants, animals, and microscopic creatures. This wetland is now subjected to a great crisis because of excess inattention. This wetland receives various kinds of organic materials through entering rivers. This wetland is subjected to extinction as a result of industrial and urban wastes, excavation of waste water from farms, and entering large amount of sediments.

Each society adopts some strategies to undertake its ecological goals like decrement of air pollution, etc including ordering rules and ethical encouragement, which each one is various by its culture and knowledge. What caused Iran’s society not to achieve its ecological goals is lack of expertise view and lack of adopting policies based on stable development in executive affairs. I wish we wouldn’t look everything from its mere economical view. I wish stable
development was not merely a word in managerial sessions. I wish we remember this sphere requires our powerful hand to be saved. Our obligation to posterity is a human ethics and we are responsible against this celestial custody (Ghazvini & Nazari, 2008, p. 4).

**Practical strategies of stable ecotourism**

The following proposals can help us to develop stable ecotourism:

- Increment of international cooperation, foreign investment, cooperation with private and public sections.
- Providing training programs to encourage people to participate in ecotourism, and develop tourism and protect nature.
- Providing technical helps for developing countries to develop and invest stable ecotourism and native tourism and providing necessary motive for individuals and groups in this section.
- Help to host societies to organize visits to maximize their profit and meanwhile minimize negative effects to environment and native culture.
- Improvement of life diversity, economical activities, etc including information access and participate to create this information (Jaber, 2006).

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Unification of Tourism Sphere in Agrarian Sector: The Kazakhstani Model in the Conditions of a Sustainable Development and Green Economy

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Abstract

The concept «multipurpose development» includes first of all a sustainable development of rural territories, and environment protection, care of environment and preservation of local culture and traditions. The high-growth version is based on a combination of agricultural work to outdoor activities in rural conditions in the world of travel business - agrotourism which is an example nonagricultural development of rural areas and includes wide rather field of knowledge in the field of economy, the organizations of business, marketing and management. Agrarian tourism, now, as the representative of an innovative look of tourism, is capable to solve many questions of a sustainable development of the country from the point of view of its environmental friendliness, sociality and migration prevention to the cities.

Keywords: sustainable development, green economy, agrotourism.

Introduction

In the Address of the President of the Republic of Kazakhstan – the Leader of the Nation N.A.Nazarbayev to the people of Kazakhstan «Social and economic modernization – the main vector of development of Kazakhstan» the separate place is given to innovations in various areas of economy as by one of the countermeasures directed to modern calls of globalization (Nazarbayev). The social importance of projects in a framework industrially - innovative development is absolute, this program remains the main reference point of modernization of
economy. All state agencies should consider this work as the main care. It is entrusted to government to provide necessary means for development of infrastructure of innovative clusters, strengthening of the Kazakhstan innovative system and increase in the budgetary expenses at financing of perspective scientific researches through allocation of innovative grants is necessary. The new law «About a science» puts a basis for system state support of a science, building of innovative potential of interaction of the state, business and a science.

The agrarian sector of Kazakhstan possesses great export opportunities and high potential for introduction of innovations. The state renders the huge help to agriculture. It is necessary to find alternative ways for business support on the village and expansions of access of farmers to financing. One of important questions of the current development is the diversification of streams of direct foreign investments into economy of Kazakhstan. Them it is necessary to send in perspective branches, for example, the tourism sphere. In the developed countries it is the share of a share of a tourist cluster to 10 percent of gross domestic product, at us - less than 1 percent. It is necessary to study as a whole about the country points of growth of tourism, it is a lot of them. The special care of the president is a strengthening of business and investment climate. In Kazakhstan «The road map of business - 2020» is successfully realized, work on implementation of the initiative of Astana «The green bridge» directed on a transfer of "green" technologies is continued. Today it is important to whole world and each state to find answers to powerful global and internal challenges.

In relation to a science about service in respect of methodological construction the scientific discipline connected with researches in sphere of tourism is related (Ananeva, Bagdasaryan & Butkevich, 2008, p.247). Subject of tourist researches as new interdisciplinary field of knowledge, tourism is built, anyway, round a definition. Tourism it and a type of economic activity, and the sphere of intercultural communications, and a form of world migratory dynamics, and option of leisure pastime, and actually, travel in geographical sense. Each of the sciences connected with this functional (the economy, a demography, sociology, geography) builds definitions from positions of own subject vision.

Formation of special interdisciplinary area of scientific knowledge of tourism put on the agenda questions of existence of a special science and its name as tourism. Recently terminology of a disciplinary cluster of tourism often includes the following components of tourist knowledge: a geographical component, a medico biological component, economic, sociological, psychological, philosophical and esthetic, cultural and anthropological, geopolitical, political
and historical components of tourist knowledge. Globalization became the key concept characterizing processes of world development. Discussion of consequences and globalization contradictions deduces on a problem of a sustainable development. Its concept admits to one of the main achievements of scientific and public thought. According to the recommendation of the United Nations, Kazakhstan accepted national strategy and the concept of a sustainable development which is an exit to a way of socially oriented development of economy, managements of public processes in the spirit of a compromise because of public interest.

The sustainable development is a process of changes in which operation of natural resources, the direction of investments, orientation of scientific and technical development, development of the personality and institutional changes are coordinated with each other and strengthen present and future potential for satisfaction of human wants and aspirations. The world commission on environment and development (WCED) and General Assembly of the United Nations recognized that environmental problems have global character and define that it is equitable to common interests of all countries on development of policy for a sustainable development. The concept of a sustainable development was logic transition from an ecologization of scientific knowledge and social and economic development to development of ecological policy and diplomacy, the right of environment, there was a new institutional component — the ministries and departments on environment. Later began to speak about an eco-development, development without destruction, need of a sustainable development of ecosystems (Perelet, 1995). Considerable majority of the international organizations included the essential ecological component focused on transition to a sustainable development in the activity.

The sustainable development concept has appeared as a result of association of three basic points of view: economic, social and ecological. Economic approach to the concept of stability of development is based on the theory of the maximum stream cumulative which can be made under condition of, at least, preservation of the cumulative capital with which help this income is made (Bobylev, 2004, p.303).

The social component of stability of development is focused on the person and directed on preservation of stability of social and cultural systems, including, on reduction of number of destructive conflicts between people. A prominent aspect of this approach is fair division of the blessings at preservation of
the cultural capital, and also fuller use of practice of the sustainable development which is available in not dominating cultures.

From the ecological point of view, the sustainable development should provide integrity of biological and physical natural systems. The coordination of the various points of view and their transfer into language of the concrete actions which are means of achievement of a sustainable development — a problem of huge complexity as all three elements of a sustainable development should be considered in a balanced manner.

Last two decades the concept of "green economy" urged to provide more harmonious coordination between the components set forth above which would be comprehensible to all groups of the countries – developed, developing and the states with transitive economy. The green economy is the economy which result of activity improves well-being of citizens and social equality, considerably reducing ecological risks and deficiency. Concept of "green economy" receives the increasing public resonance, it is actively discussed by experts, politicians and the non-governmental organizations and includes ideas of many other directions in an economic science and philosophy (feministic economy, a postmodernism, ecological economy, environment economy, anti-global studies, the theory of the international relations, etc.), connected with sustainable development problems.

Supporters of the concept of "green economy" consider that the economic system prevailing now is imperfect. Though it has yielded certain results in increase of a standard of life of people as a whole, and especially its separate groups, negative consequences of functioning of this system are considerable: these are environmental problems (climate change, desertification, biodiversity loss), an exhaustion of the natural capital, large-scale poverty, shortage of fresh water, the foodstuffs, energy, an inequality of people and the countries. All it creates threat for present and future generations. Present model of economy name «brown economy». For a survival and mankind development transition to «green economy» is required – that is to system of kinds of the economic activities connected with manufacture, distribution and consumption of the goods and services which lead to increase of well-being of the person in long-term prospect, thus without subjecting the future generations to influence of considerable ecological risks or ecological deficiency.

The big role in concept advancement «green economy» in life has brought The United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP) which members from the post-Soviet territory countries are Armenia,
Azerbaijan, Georgia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Russia, Tadzhikistan, Uzbekistan and Turkmenistan under which initiative in 2005 the strategy of "green" growth including priority directions has been accepted: rational models of consumption and manufacture; "gardening" of the enterprises and the markets; a steady infrastructure both "green" tax and budgetary reforms; investment in the natural capital; indicators of ecological efficiency. About necessity of "green" growth even more often speak in Kazakhstan, including at high political level. So, questions of "green" growth as strategy of a sustainable development for Asia and Pacific region were discussed at 6th Conference of Ministers of environment and development Asian-Pacific in 2010 in Astana. At IV Astana economic forum our country has put forward the Astana Initiative «Green bridge» which urged to unite Europe and Asian-Pacific region in questions of maintenance of ecological stability and the safe future in these regions.

**Actuality**

Among the most actual tendencies characterizing processes of globalization strengthening of a competition of regions and national economies is allocated. The understanding of essence of an inter-regional competition and mastering by methods of strengthening of competitiveness of regions become more and more actual for regional politicians and administrations. The term a competition of territories as a whole can be defined as competition between regions and cities in their aspiration to "win" various target groups of "consumers" of local resources and ability to live conditions.

In Kazakhstan until recently in public opinion, a state policy and a science the narrow approach to definition of a role and value of development of rural territories, unfortunately, dominated. As a whole concepts «development of rural territories» and «agriculture development» were considered as identical, respectively the role and value of rural areas for the country were reduced only to providing with the food and agricultural raw materials. Skillful use of potential of rural territories under the corresponding social and economic conditions generated policy of multipurpose (multilateral) development of districts that it is possible as to call small industrialization of the village based on support and development of nonagricultural initiatives (Sznajder & Przezbórska, 2006).

Multipurpose development of rural territories is an idea of activization of the village and a diversification of economic activity according to which the country people are connected not only with traditional housekeeping, but also with other types both in a production activity, and in a services sector. Strategy of multilateral development of rural territories should consist in bigger differe-
entiation of farms of these districts, and this to refusal of the multipurpose consisting mainly on production of agricultural raw materials.

Multipurpose development is interpreted not only with economic growth of the village, but also improvement of a situation in the field of a demography, a qualitative standard of living of peasants and the general development of the state and is connected with introduction in rural space of the increasing number of new nonagricultural functions. The village thus ceases to be housing space for the peasants creating mainly raw materials, it becomes integrally connected with a part of a national product where people are occupied both agriculture, and nonagricultural economic activity. Acceptance for work of country people in other spheres creates possibility of a choice of work and provokes its heterogeneity that promotes not only to increase in the income of the population, but as to growth of appeal of the village as life and work places. Thanks to these actions there comes economic activization of inhabitants of the village.

Strengthening in the world of the concept of policy of multipurpose development came in 90 years of the last century. Here the concept «multipurpose development» includes first of all a sustainable development of rural territories, and as environment protection, care of environment and preservation of local culture and traditions. Thus the importance of rural areas for society grows both in process of environmental protection updating, and by means of production of ecologically safe food. As it is paradoxical, demand for the food made in the conditions of extensive housekeeping steadily increases in the world: it is considered that it in a bigger measure guarantees parameters of quality and ecological safety.

In the conditions of growth of the international and internal tourism agricultural manufacture becomes an element of pulling of the tourists, wishing to try non-polluting products. Such version of tourist business quickly developing in the world is based on a combination of agricultural work to productive leisure in rural conditions, as agrotourism. Agrotourism is an example not agricultural development of countryside which includes wide enough field of knowledge in the field of economy, the organizations of business, marketing and management. For economy which the traditional conducted only agricultural production, it is real chance to improve a situation and to prevent migration in cities i.e. to get work in a place of the direct residing.

Tourism in the 20th century should become one of the most effective ways of formation of system of universal values. Without underestimating economic
value of tourism it is possible to ascertain that its further development only as economic phenomenon is capable to deepen only global contradictions as in tourist regions there are many problems — ecological, social and economic. Extraction of commercial profit is too frequent provides harm to environment, is frequent simply the irreversible. The exception of development of tourism especially according to economic laws of the world tourist market will allow passing on to new model of globalization which will present not commercial tourism, and social.

The uncontrollable growth of tourism caused by desire quickly to get profit, and as consequence, serious problems in the field of ecology, culture and social development, compels mankind to show care of preservation natural, historical and cultural values. Principles of protection of biosphere have been on a global scale fixed in 1992 by conference of the United Nations on environment and development in Rio de Janeiro. At conference the program document "the Agenda on the 21st century" has been approved and the Declaration on environment and development is accepted. Acceptance of the given document became the beginning of introduction of a radical innovation in tourism sphere - a principle of a sustainable development of tourism which has been offered by UNWTO. This radical innovation forces workers of tourist sphere and tourists to change the sights at tourism, at mutual relations of its participants taking into account excessive flow of tourists, losses by some resorts of their former glory, destruction of local culture, transport problems and growing resistance of local population to flow of tourists. The tourism sustainable development needs competent participation of all interested circles concerning this business, and as well in a resolute political management to provide wide participation and consensus achievement.

**Methodology**

The world tourist industry was considerably globalized also by the prompt dynamics of development became the applicant for leading world branch. Already now distances have ceased to matter no less than dividing lines of geographical borders between the countries, and development of transport sphere has made accessible for the tourist an every spot on the globe less than for days. With the beginning of process of an intensification of tourism and occurrence of its new kinds frequently positioning, as absolutely independent kinds leisure activity, the special place occupies agrotourism.

Agrarian tourism, now, as the representative innovative diversified kind of tourism, is capable to solve many questions of a sustainable development of the
country from the point of view of its ecological compatibility and a sociality. Agrotourism as the phenomenon rather new, existing about 40 years and only last decade the received rapid development abroad, and become recognized in Kazakhstan, has set of definitions and is classified differently depending on the accepted model. Initially classical model of agrotourism assumed that on village farmers or the members of their families taking from this the additional income, but not changing thus the industrial profile are engaged in the tourism organization exclusively. However in process of development of the given kind of business the existing treatment in a root has changed, agrotourism classification is presented in drawing 1.

In practice of development of tourist branch in many countries ecotourism and agrotourism – the complementary and interconnected concepts. Agrotourism represents the wide and developing direction in the tourism industry, it not always equally is understood in the different countries, its forms are dynamic, it gets into areas of tourist activity before far from ecological orientation and to limit it to too strict framework and one is unique the right definition hardly reasonably.

![Figure 1. Classification of agrarian tourism](image)

The present demands to put in concept of agrotourism other, wider sense, without being limited to the purposes of ecological education. Attention emphasis on ecological education and education creates a temptation to refer to
agrotourism all travel with the naturalists' purposes. For this reason visit of museums of the nature practically always equate to a form of ecological tourism. Agroecotourism development possibly with creation in the districts adjacent to nature protection territories, special agrotourist (landscape) parks where activities of locals for realization to tourists of services in reception and household products would have privileges and incentives. It more would correspond to the purposes and tasks of national parks. Thus functions are assigned to services of national parks on maintenance in proper condition road networks, on the organization of mass actions, for control of recreational load of natural complexes. The agroecotourism doesn't provide in the majority more financial receipts, so-called not monetary advantages are more important (Zдоров & Антонян, 2008). These advantages:

- ecological education, increase of cultural level of the population;
- creation of new workplaces;
- development of a network of infrastructure;
- conservation.

In this case the agroecotourism isn’t considered as a big niche in the tourist market, having high rates of economic growth. However, a main goal of the agrotourist – not naturalists' education, and consumption of ecological resources, including information. Incorrectly as to consider agrotourism exclusively as farmer and to connect it with existence of a farmer layer: this occupation of farmers in those countries where they are and want to be engaged in travel business. Where they aren’t present or a little, owners of means of placement - rural estates, boards, small hotels are engaged in agrotourism.

Corporate actions, holidays, anniversaries, weddings with thematic programs of collective rest on the village and on farms is a rural agrotourism. To get acquainted with local population life, to communicate with it, as a rule, foreigners wish, for our citizens the hedonistic aspiration to experience life in the village is more characteristic. Here in rural areas and picturesque vicinities with a reservoir or the wood – the sufficient basis for reception of tourists, but it is necessary to remember existence of any house that the comfort for tourists in the estate, the higher and the price for accommodation is higher. Guests can come with the various purposes – simply to have a rest, wander on the wood, to mushroom, fish or learn something new about your edge, the leisure problem is very actual for citizens. Developing tourism, we help inhabitants of the village who run to the cities for the lack of work on a residence. Moreover, with
the advent of possibility to earn such way, many city dwellers make the decision to buy the estate and to live in the country. It is very important, because such people with the enthusiasm, loving the culture and the nature are capable to involve and interest a huge number of tourists.

In other words, essentially important for rural agrotourism is or and existence in rural areas of free or conditionally free households (estates, cottages, platforms in the territory of estates for placement of tent small towns, in some countries - historical buildings of rural palaces, monasteries etc.), initially not created as hotels, but suitable for their re-equipment in means of placement of tourists, or) building of special agrotourist objects - means of placement of tourists ("national villages", "houses of the hunter/fisherman", "the cultural centers", campings, etc.), rural hotels carrying out function.

For tourists such rest is a cardinal change of conditions, allowing to remove the stress which has collected for year of work in intense city conditions, to receive the portion of health and psychological unloading. Such version of agrotourism in Kazakhstan hardly will reach in the foreseeable future such scales, as in Europe and the USA. However, according to some experts, it quite suits for a role of fashionable entertainment townspeople, and at the due approach from it the effective national project can turn out.

Excursions with residing at economy for tourists – (cows, pigs, horses, turkey-cocks, hens, goats, sheep, gardens, nurseries of agricultural and garden plants and many other things) is a farmer agrotourism. For expansion of the given direction it is possible to include as excursions in economy for experts of agriculture – for the enterprises, the organizations and the private persons, aspiring to expand the communications in sphere of professional communications (visiting of the specialized enterprises, the organization of meetings and negotiations with heads of the enterprises of sphere of agrobusiness, holding conferences, round tables, seminars, exit meetings, trips on the international and specialized agricultural exhibitions and another). It as well as possible corresponds to new values which affirm as psychology of the modern person - a unification with the nature, vivifying air, non-polluting foodstuff, conditions change, absence of density, others an image, the schedule and culture of life, possibility of participation in agricultural works and, certainly, that is important, cheapness.

Tourism development on the village is not only the additional income for local population, but is a factor stimulating development of village and rural areas as a whole. Regions plan such investments, counting that in the
conditions of crisis the similar type of tourism will appear more flexible and, besides, will help to survive to agriculture, the number of the rural dwellers who are engaged in nonagricultural activity will grow, the population employment rate in villages will raise and additional workplaces will be created.

Due to the farmer tourism the special attention is paid to social aspect of agrarian tourism. The philosophy of socially responsible tourism consists in exchanging cultural traditions, to be consolidated on the basis of national originality, getting acquainted with a life of locals, their customs and customs. Here it is important, that tourists behaved as guests whom kindly allowed to live in the house, instead of as owners to whom all around should serve. At the same time locals shouldn't treat tourists as to importunate uninvited guests, whose presence should be endured, they should understand that visitors promote improvement of an economic and social situation on their homeland.

**Results**

Thus, in the light of the carried out researches on the formulation of the methodological concept systematizing collecting of concepts, defining a scientific definition of agrotourism, we ascertain the following theses:

- agrotourism is today a new tourist product, capable to satisfy constantly growing tourist demand;
- agrotourism represents the global social process which will involve over time all countries of the world in which there is an agriculture;
- the general element connecting semantic sphere concepts of agrotourism it is necessary to consider that, modern agrotourism is considered in a complex of three directions: ecological, farmer and rural in this connection are to the same extent considered stability of tourism, its socialization and development of rural territories.

For a support on the conceptual device from a set of definitions we will formulate the following: «Agrotourism is the tourist product created with use of rural resources and presented depending on the concept of a host, providing a sustainable development of tourism and rural territories». The main function of agrotourism is effective improvement of mental and physical recovery of the person. Among economic functions we allocate creation of the market for realization of specific resources of rural areas and ekokompleks that forms financial means for their activity and stimulation of economic growth of these territories, on classification agrotourism - an element of steady tourism.
In Kazakhstan it is necessary to consider specifics of development of rural tourism, in Europe agrotourism support in many respects speaks overproduction of agricultural production, in Kazakhstan the similar situation is absent. Therefore for our country the approach within which development as agrotourism, and the most agro-industrial complex will be combined is represented to more logical. Proceeding from foreign experience, it is possible to assume that the Kazakhstan agrotourism also will pass two main stages in the development - a stage of independent formation at the expense of activity of rural businessmen and a stage of purposeful development owing to considerable external investments into the organization of rural rest. Presented in drawing 2 the Model of unification tourism of Kazakhstan in stability conditions and green economy reflects extent of state regulation of this look of tourism, direct production of an agrotourist's product, objects and subjects of agrotourism i.e. in total that in uniform interpretation it is possible to call resource ensuring agrotourism.

**Figure 2.** Unification model of tourism sphere in agrarian sector of Kazakhstan in the conditions of a sustainable development and green economy

**Conclusion**

Thus, the processes proceeding on a modern world economic scene, excite today scientists, politicians, businessmen, staticizing questions of preconditions and the crisis reasons, negative consequences of planetary scale, ways of its overcoming and an exit to a new round of development. Situation the general calls, such as aggravate environmental problems, climate, an inequality and
food security. Globalization process opens the new possibilities of development connected with the world distribution of the latest technology and forms of the organization of production, at the same time provides the high material status of the worker, demands from it scientific knowledge and will mobilize it for a creative initiative and mental abilities. In these conditions as regularity participation of the state in creation of high technologies should raise. It can be reached on the basis of continuous development and a diversification of the state scientific policy, ensuring realization of the most significant results of basic researches.

The agrotourism market is in Kazakhstan in development stages, demand of Kazakhstan citizens little-studied, at foreign leaders of tourist branch of special policy of advance of the agrotourist product to Kazakhstan while isn't present. Besides there is sufficient experience in the plan of formation of an agrotourist product from available turistky potential, competent carrying out marketing, an exit on wide, a minimum the regional market with the offer and providing to it no necessary advertizing, and as guarantees of the quality standards of tourist services, so and competitiveness of sector of agrotourism as a whole.

However, world experience shows that in Kazakhstan development of agrarian tourism can be as effective, and both with social, and from the economic point of view. Thus the maximum effect can achieve in case agrotourism will develop not spontaneously, and within the state and regional programs.

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Panemét Circenses: Agriculture in Travel and Rural Tourism

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Abstract
The aim of this paper was to examine the complex relationship between today’s post-productivist multifunctional agriculture and rural tourism. The available literature, statistical and internet based resources together with observations of the physical and non-physical manifestation of agriculture show that the historical root of agriculture and tourism are intertwined. On the demand side agriculture related tourism products are interesting for urbanites having lost their rural connections, especially in case of small-scale operations complying with a rural image. On the supply side, in the European context, countries with well-developed public infrastructure but small-enterprise based agriculture have a good opportunity to take advantage of agriculture based tourism products. Agriculture benefits from tourism by consumers brought closer to producers and for the increasingly urbanized population agriculture-connected tourism serves an educational platform.

Key words: agro-tourism, rural tourism, sustainable tourism.

Introduction
In industrialized European countries, the countryside is being impoverished, loses its population and economic foothold as a result of economic, social and cultural changes (OECD, 1994; Butler, 1998; Sharpley & Vass, 2006). In contrary to this, cities thrive with increasing populations and expanding economies but have only limited connections to nature, food and raw material production. Parallel to this, agriculture and forestry (A&F) dominates the physical appear-
ance of the countryside both through its activities and its infrastructure. Travels to the countryside and rural tourism (these two further on referred to as RT) work as bridges for urban populations to experience the countryside, a trend that is rapidly increasing today. Countryside activities, shows, fairs are proliferating and new RT products are born daily to supply the increasing demand from urban populations. Although studies discussing RT and travel in the countryside mention A&F as a factor e.g. in rural development, but the objective of this paper, namely to in-detail examine the complex relationship between A&F and RT, has not yet been carried out. The stage of this investigation was set in two countries (Sweden and Turkey) with very different fundamentals, in order to highlight characteristics of hindrance and also factors that can be built on for a sustainable bilateral development of A&F and RT.

**Literature Review**

*The development of A&F and RT*: A&F historically was not only a provider of food and raw materials but parallel to this function was also providing travelers with food and accommodation in rural areas, where such service providers were missing. Furthermore, through its image worked as an attraction, a 'destination' in itself for the urban population. Hazendonk (2008) when describing the development of travel in the countryside, draws a straight line from the Romans’ villa rustica through the Italian Renaissance’s villegiatura and 18th century British intellectuals looking for pastoral/wild landscapes till today’s travelers: the common denominator is the image, the rural idyll. This notion is further strengthened by Nilsson (2002) who besides analyzing the European development of farm tourism (FT), a subcategory of RT, points out its well staked 150 year-long history in e.g. Austria and Germany and states that a more relaxed lifestyle, wholeness and romantic-idealized pictures prevail. As Kneafsey (2001) puts it 'The rural [and its main engine A&F] is commodified not only as a physical place, but as a place with spiritual resonances, with connotations of romantic simplicity and golden traditionality'. With the arrival of the post-productivist multifunctional agriculture, this complex relationship between A&F and RT has become even more differentiated. Especially in the context of the industrialized countries as technical developments brought about a change in agriculture (e.g. irrigation, crop rotations and other improvements in plant and animal breeding, mechanization, chemical agriculture) they allowed the production of surpluses and therefore the development of trade and associated population concentration in cities. Intensification, production concentration and specialization took place (Ilbery & Bowler, 1998) and new descriptors
were created to cover previously unknown phenomena such as pluractivity, adding value and landscape maintenance. These changes also had a major impact on the demography and social development of both urban and rural areas, including large parts of the population becoming highly urbanized and thereby losing connection to food production, nature and its processes and the countryside.

Tourism: Ilbery and Bowler (1998) describe the 'redeployment of farm resources into new non-agricultural products on the farm (structural diversification)' as one of the seven alternative farm enterprise pathways that have opened up to A&F enterprise owners to reestablish themselves in a changed rural reality. Of the different types of entries to such multifunctional pathways (Wilson, 2008), farm based tourism is one that provides multiple benefits. OECD (1994) lists 17 such benefits, a short collection of which supported also by various authors (Sharpley & Vass, 2006; Kneafsey, 2001; Canovés, Villarino, Priestley, & Blanco, 2004; Gössling & Mattson, 2002; Oppermann, 1996) is provided below:

1. Being an economic source and complementing e.g. farm income and allowing people to stay in the countryside and on the farm
2. Creating jobs outside the A&F production/processing raw material bound framework
3. Making use of redundant buildings and thereby assisting conservation
4. Helping females in rural areas to realize an own income
5. Facilitating learning and opening up otherwise conservative rural societies
6. Providing social contacts in peripheral areas and helping cultural exchange

Tourism is the fastest growing sector of the economy in the world. Table 1 shows the main current figures concerning tourism in Sweden, Turkey in relation to the World. The World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC, 2011) states that in 2010 the direct contribution of tourism to global GDP has increased by 3.3%. When taking into account its wider economic impacts it generated ca. 258 million workplaces and it is expected that the total contribution to GDP with its wider economic impacts will rise by 4.3% by 2021.
Table 1. Main characteristics of travel and tourism for Turkey, Sweden and the World

<table>
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<tr>
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<th>Sweden</th>
<th>Turkey</th>
<th>World</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Travel &amp; Tourism Direct Contribution to GDP</strong></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>US$ bn</td>
<td>9,046</td>
<td>29,17</td>
<td>1850</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011 US$ bn</td>
<td>9,046</td>
<td>29,17</td>
<td>1850</td>
</tr>
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<td>% share</td>
<td>1,8</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2,8</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Travel &amp; Tourism Total Contribution to GDP</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>US$ bn</td>
<td>26,972</td>
<td>71,479</td>
<td>5987,43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011 US$ bn</td>
<td>26,972</td>
<td>71,479</td>
<td>5991,94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% share</td>
<td>5,5</td>
<td>9,9</td>
<td>9,1</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Travel &amp; Tourism Direct Contribution to Employment</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>% share</td>
<td>1,8</td>
<td>2,1</td>
<td>3,3</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Travel &amp; Tourism Total Contribution to Employment</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>% share</td>
<td>5,7</td>
<td>8</td>
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Note. Source: http://www.wttc.org

Concerning the importance of RT, Hazendonk (2008) concluded that it is of vital importance to the economy of the European countryside, with 500 000 direct and indirect jobs being dependent on it and 10-25% of all tourism income generated by this segment. Even concerning the not especially tourist oriented economy of Sweden, Bocz and Pinzke (2012) point out that tourism and RT is a booming industry, which showed improving figures even when the world economy was in turmoil in 2008.

Agriculture (A&F): When looking at the A&F of Sweden and Turkey on the national level, resulting from e.g. differences in location, climatic factors, historic and social development, they show very differently structured sectorial characteristics. These include differences such as in land ownership, average plot size, technological systems (e.g. mechanization and chemical use) but also concerning main products or processing and sales channels. Some main figures are shown in table 2 to illustrate a relation of these to demography. A good comparison on the industrialization level and efficiency of the A&F sector is visualized though through comparison of value added per agricultural worker: 3.500US$ in 2009 for Turkey while almost 60.000US$ for Sweden (FAOSTAT, 2011a, b).

Agriculture per definition is ‘the science or practice of farming, including cultivation of the soil for the growing of crops and the rearing of animals to provide food, wool, and other products [in this study forestry products as well]’ (Oxford Dictionaries, 2010). Agriculture is a complex phenomenon in itself, consisting of physical factors such as infrastructure, land, machinery and living creatures such as animals and the farmer, while certain non-physical characteristics (e.g. romantic image, lifestyle, traditionality, etc.) are also connected to it.
Multifunctionality in A&F is not a new phenomenon, as A&F comprises a wide range of activities and these are or were housed in usually many buildings that have developed over a longer period of time there exist an 'opportunity to easily house tourism-related activities, which by nature are also very diverse' (Bocz, 2012).

| Table 2. Main population related characteristics of agriculture for Sweden and Turkey |
|-------------------------------------------------|----------------------|----------------------|
|                                                  | Sweden                | Turkey               |
|                                                  | 2011                  | 2011                 |
| Total population (in millions)                   | 9.44                  | 73.64                |
| Agricultural population (in millions)            | 0.23                  | 14.23                |
| Rural population [% of total population]         | 15.23                 | 29.90                |
| Labour force in agriculture [% of total labour force] | 2.19                 | 7.96                 |

Note: Source: [http://www.fao.org](http://www.fao.org)

**A&F and Tourism (RT):** Bocz (2012) when analyzing the relationship of RT to A&F in Sweden finds that although 2.5 million buildings with origin in A&F exist (and these dominate the countryside’s rural building stock) only 26% of this stock is used today in A&F while the rest is used in housing and other activities, such as tourism. This latter use namely taking over buildings (having built for A&F originally) in rural areas is also noted by Cánoves (2004), who by referring to other authors states that in France 36% while in the UK 45% of the rural houses agriculture is substituted by tourism. Leisure and tourism work as key generators for creative reuse (Latham, 2000). Nielsen, Nissen, and Just (2010) analyzes the setting of RT and FT in an A&F context from a Danish perspective by differentiating between agricultural and rural commodities in relation to their manifestation as tourist product and the relationships in between them. He also lifts out the importance of perceived value-for-money in RT and the development of new products using A&F space but not directly connected to A&F itself such as in cases of e.g. wind power towers.

Blekesaune (2008) lifts out the major attractions of A&F to tourists by listing image, scenery and tranquility while Tyrvainen (2001) describes the importance of the natural environment and activities as attractions in RT, but also concludes that 'the destruction of old buildings [and in rural areas this mostly entails buildings of A&F] is thought to be the biggest threat to the rural environment'. Butler (1998) besides stating that 'changes in rural areas relating to lei-
sure [and thereby travel] are among the most significant to have occurred over the past three decades' explores the difference between traditional and new tourism activities and concludes that although nature based activities also experience rapid growth the new uses (often more technically oriented) are much more connected to urban activities, and traditional connectedness to rural activities is less prevalent. He also lifts out peoples’ increased interest in nature and things green, changes in taste and fashion as major driving forces behind rapid RT development. Interestingly, these urban trends resulted in city people frequently counterurbanizing, settling in rural areas (e.g. downshifters, green wavers, escape to the country movement) and because of a good understanding of the urbanized market starting RT and A&F related businesses, often in traditional or newly relearnt and rediscovered way, such as in many cases of organic farming, or producing special niche products (chilly farm in the UK, etc.).

Location plays a vital role in the relationship between A&F and RT. Nearness to urban centers and the existence of naturally amenity rich areas improves the success of RT operations in an A&F related context (Busby & Rendle, 2000; Canoves et al., 2004; Gossling & Mattson, 2002; Oppermann, 1996; Sharpley & Vass, 2006) among others through the availability of larger potential visitor pools, higher competition therefore lower prices on the service/supplier side and lesser transportation requirements and costs. Another factor connected to city nearness is infrastructure that is more developed here than in more peripheral areas.

Methodology

This background of the study was the available literature. Statistical and internet based resources created a framework for coming forward to results, together with field visits and observations of the physical (e.g. processes, infrastructure, farmer) and non-physical manifestation of agriculture (e.g. lifestyle, image, preconceptions and attitudes). Field visits were carried out to farming and RT operations in several European countries, such as Sweden, Norway, Finland, the UK, Hungary, Spain and Turkey. The collected data was first sorted and analyzed than the historical development of agriculture and tourism were examined to better understand current trends and future development. In the last phase the cases of Sweden and Turkey were examined and compared to each other.
Results

A well balanced relationship between A&F and RT offers dual benefits. The win-win relationship is well illustrated by the attraction and proliferation of A&F related products in modern societies. Country and steam fairs, petting zoos and animal sanctuaries, agricultural shows and exhibitions, magazines, films advocate rural lifestyle and small-scale produced goods from the countryside which helps bridge the gap between A&F and urbanites all through means of travel and tourism. Several subcategories of RT e.g. farm-, wine- culinary tourism have a strong, direct connection to, and are influenced by A&F: both through the remnants of its past, as a result of current agricultural issues and practices or due to approaching future trends. Furthermore, other RT activities carried out in rural areas rely on the services and facilities of A&F. Hunting and fishing tourism requires the maintenance of grounds and towers, feeding of the game in tough winters. Different types of adventure tourism also rely on A&F indirectly, in transporting tourists and gear (e.g. kayaks, canoes) to destinations or housing their offices, training centers, cafés and restaurants. Tourists visiting rural destinations buy locally (food, fuel, services, accommodation, activities, etc.), many of these products are directly connected to A&F. The ripple effects of this spending in rural areas in turn also influence businesses outside the A&F and RT sphere. Local producers can cut the ‘middle man’ thereby realize a higher income, reduce transportation costs as the market literally comes to their doorsteps and advertise for free to both visitors of their own enterprise or benefit from the increased visibility of passing by tourists flows. Seasonability, a major problem in both RT and A&F can be reduced by developing activities that complement each other so income is provided with more regularity. Farmers gain extra income from maintaining motor-cross and 4x4 driving ranges and RT entrepreneurs are not forced to buy expensive maintenance equipment and learn to operate them.

Modern societies are regularly shocked by scandals of animal welfare issues (e.g. caged poultry breeding, industrial pig fattening, etc.), deeds of chemical agriculture (e.g. rests of pesticides and herbicides in food products) or the appearance of zoonosis such as BSE or SARS. By accepting visitors part-taking in activities (planting, harvesting, slaughter, food preservation, taking care of animals, etc.) and allowing them to study farming operations on site, A&F works as an educational platform for urbanites having lost their connections to the countryside, therefore enhances understanding of natural processes. This coupled with the new more prestigious role of the farmer as a many faceted 'green entrepreneur' rearranges knowledge transfer relationships between urban and
rural. Where previously one sided flows towards the rural were dominant, a two sided exchange is now visible, where both sides benefit.

**Problem areas:** Problem areas when trying to match A&F to RT are also numerous. The smells, allergy problems, the hazardous working environment of farms and forestry operations, H&S issues (Emanuelsson & Bocz, 2011) all work as hinders. Rural populations often see tourists (mainly around popular destinations) as disturbers of peace and causers of traffic problems including noise, stress, bad air quality and visual intrusion (Dickinson, 2008) but also causing degradation to the natural environment, loss of historical and cultural values.

**A&F and RT in a Swedish/Turkish context:** Current trends in Europe show that multifunctional agriculture is an established phenomenon even among larger enterprises. On the other hand, RT is building on an ‘olde-worlde’ image of agriculture. Butler (1998) points out that ‘rural locations which have maintained their rural image are likely to remain in high demand in the future and become even more significant as tourist attractions…’ This, coupled with problems such as shortage of labor in family farming operations (Ilbery et al., 1998) trying to cope with bad economy and large number of unused buildings pinpoint a tourism to many otherwise non-economically viable small farms of today as an intersting form of diversification. Trends in statistics (see table 2) show that in 2011, Turkey still had relatively large 29,9% of its population living in rural areas, (ca. twice as much as in Sweden) and almost four times as much labor force was active in agriculture (7,96%) as in Sweden. In Sweden this almost 85% of the total (highly urbanized) population live on less than 3% of the country’s surface (Statistics Sweden, 2002), in localities (built up areas). Parallel to this, productiveness (added value production as shown previously) in agriculture is much higher in Sweden than in Turkey. These findings point out that Turkey has a relatively large rural population that still has a well preserved rural lifestyle and the type of small scale traditional style operation where over 60% of agricultural operations working on less than 5 hectares (FAO, 2012). Just what is attractive to RT visitors. In contrary to this the average farm size in Sweden is 52ha, with high degrees of mechanization and use of chemical agriculture. The comparative advantage of Turkey therefore lies in not having to relearn and reestablish traditional A&F to be able to show it to visitors through RT, it is still there naturally. These results are corroborating the findings of Akca (2006), who although coming to the same conclusion from another angle, called for more initiatives, investments and promotions for RT in Turkey. In the case of Sweden, the more technically advanced agricultural practices and mod-
ern the agriculture is usually found to be less attractive from a RT point of view although the same advantages exist for RT operators and A&F entrepreneurs to take advantage of the benefits provided by the other sector. The advantage of Sweden lies in its highly developed infrastructure and large urbanized population that can provide an easy to reach local consumer base for both RT and A&F products. On the demand side agriculture related tourism has potential for groups with urban background that have lost connection with their rural background. On the supply side, in the European context, countries with well-developed public infrastructure but small-enterprise based A&F have a good opportunity to develop agriculture based tourism products.

**Conclusion**

This study has set out to examine the complex relationship between A&F and tourism through the comparison of Sweden and Turkey in order to highlight hindrances and positive factors that can be built on for a sustainable bilateral development of A&F and RT. Findings show that A&F and RT have been influencing and relying on each other historically and that the relationship benefits enterprises in both sectors and the society as a whole, although certain problems exist. The positive sides for A&F include such as increased incomes, improved local sales opportunities and advertising while RT benefits from among others development of new products based on A&F activities or availability of services provided by the local A&F community. Negative effects of tourism on the countryside and A&F include among others noise, pollution and traffic disturbances while RT suffers from the influences A&F such as smells, allergy related or health and safety problems. On the whole though, A&F and RT together provide societal and economic benefits such as improved rural development and assist female empowerment. Most importantly though RT can help bridging the knowledge gap between the thinking of urbanites and the rural knowledge base leading to a better understanding of nature, food production and traditional values.

The comparison of Sweden and Turkey showed that a correlation exists between the A&F structure of a country and the opportunities in RT. The number of small-scale traditional agricultural enterprises in a country, average land size together with structural aspects of the agricultural production and processing are good indicators of such opportunities. Other factors influencing this development are among others development level of public infrastructure and the type of available visitor/consumer groups on the demand side of the tourism market.
Mass-tourism such as on the Mediterranean coastal areas and in city destinations (e.g. Istanbul) are already well established and known to foreign visitors. Turkey, a naturally amenity rich country with varied landscapes and a wide range of topographic and climatic conditions, has a good potential in developing new RT products based on resources from A&F. This process can also provide income to rural populations, increase knowledge transfer and potentially could help otherwise hard to solve problematic issues, such as empowerment of women in rural societies. In comparison to Turkey, Sweden has a disadvantage in RT resulting from its modern A&F practices but can also build on its advantages because of its well-developed infrastructure and large highly urbanized population.

Location (urban nearness) was found to play an important role in the development of both A&F and RT and their relationship. Foreseeably, the development of RT in an A&F context will start from urban and already established areas of mass tourism and radiate outwards along access routes such as the road and railway networks.

References


Local Cultural Heritage and Tourism Management: Key Issues for Sustainable Heritage Tourism – An Italian Perspective

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Abstract
Over the past twenty years, research on cultural tourism has sought to find a balance between tourism development and cultural heritage conservation. However scholars have not focused on the enhancement of local cultural heritage as an asset to raise awareness of new cultural destinations and prevent overcrowding in just a few cultural cities. After a discussion of literature on heritage tourism management, this paper presents the results of a survey on museum networks in the Marche Region of Italy. Research suggests that museum networks have an important role in promoting local cultural heritage, but they are not yet able to exploit economies of scale, to then ensure the museums’ survival and development as well as their contribution to sustainable tourism.

Key words: cultural heritage, sustainable tourism, heritage tourism, local museums, museum networks.

Introduction
The most distinctive feature of Italian cultural heritage is the deep relationship between museums and the local context: squares, roads, monuments, countryside and artworks preserved not only in museums, but also beyond museum doors – in churches, convents, monasteries, and other historical buildings and open spaces. Italy’s competitive advantage in cultural heritage comes not only from masterpieces preserved in the most important and biggest Italian museums, like the Uffizi Gallery in Florence or the Academia Galleries in Venice. In actuality, it is primarily in the continuity of cultural heritage, in the all-encompassing, pervasive material evidence of humanity and its environment (Toscano, 1998). For this reason Chastel (1980) called Italy a “threefold natural museum”, where the collection, the historical building where it is preserved...
and the town in which it is located are mutually linked in an exemplary manner as three different aspects of the same museum. The characteristics of Italian cultural heritage could be synthesized in 3 Cs: capillary, contextual and complementary (Golinelli, 2008).

Consequently, when defining the criteria and standards for museum management and development, the Ministerial Decree of 10 May 2001 contained a section about the relationships between the museum and its context. Indeed, according to Italian law, museums are required to broaden their mission to include heritage preserved locally.

Most of these museums – especially local ones – provide a focus for community identity and a valuable resource for education, but are not yet heritage attractions and could not be considered as the basis for local tourism development. Local museums are small and almost unknown, have scant financial and human resources, restricted opening hours and not many visitors. Consequently, they attract little investment, resulting in a vicious circle that needs a systemic solution to ensure local cultural heritage survival. Therefore, when considering local museums’ sustainable development, the phrase “the greater the use, the greater the wear and tear” (Cossons, 1989, p.193) should be changed to say “the less use, the greater the wear and tear”.

While sharing the assumptions that cultural heritage is an inimitable and irreplaceable resource (Barney, 1991) and the enhancement of cultural heritage should create long-term value according to a multidimensional and multi-stakeholder approach, this paper explores aspects of sustainable heritage tourism development that have not yet been taken into account by scholars and policy makers.

According to the resource-based approach, the research examines the capability of museum networks to enhance the distinctive features of Italian cultural heritage and overcome the management issues of local museums. Analysing the results of a survey on a sample of Marche Region’s museums, the paper aims at understanding the network capability of local museums, answering the following research questions:

- What are Italian local museums’ weaknesses?
- Which goals have local museums already achieved through network organizations?
• Are museum networks able to provide facilities and services that can ensure the museums’ survival and development as well as their contribution to local sustainable tourism?
• Which benefits have museum networks not yet explored?

**Literature Review**

Since the 1970s, due to pay increases, higher education and the expansion of the “new middle class”, cultural tourism has become one of the most significant and fastest growing components of tourism across Europe as a whole. Since then literature on tourism management has been captivated with the idea of cultural tourism, investigating and clarifying its components, goals and perspectives. Analysing different definitions, Hughes (1996) concluded that:

> Cultural tourism includes visits to historic buildings and sites, museums, art galleries, etc. and also to view contemporary paintings or sculpture or to attend the performing arts (Richards 1994). The former is also distinguished as “historical tourism” (Smith, 1989) or “heritage tourism”. Prentice (1993), however, also uses the term “heritage tourism” to include natural history attractions and the performing arts. The second form of cultural tourism may be classified as “arts tourism” though this term is used by Myerscough (1988) to cover museums and art galleries as well. Moreover, the purpose of “cultural” tourists may be to experience “culture” in the sense of a distinct way of life. Aspects of this have been described as “ethnic tourism” (Smith 1989). As such, most tourism is “cultural” in that visits will usually involve some exposure to aspects of other cultures. (Hughes 1996, p.707)

Considering the increasing attention on heritage tourism, Palmer defined heritage as “the buzz word of the 1990s” (1999, p.315). Heritage tourism, as part of the broader category of “cultural tourism”, has become the major pillar of the tourism strategy of the European Commission and its emergence “has spawned a veritable plethora of studies dedicated to the analysis of the heritage phenomenon and the reasons for its spectacular growth” (Richards, 1996, p.262). In particular, a narrow definition, considering heritage as all the cultural traditions, places and values that people, through policy makers, are proud to conserve, has been drawn more broadly, associating heritage with a “special sense of belonging and of continuity that is different for each person” (Millar, 1989, p.13). In addition, a supply-side approach, based on specific site attributes (Garrod & Fyall, 2001, p.1050), has been opposed in favour of a demand-
side approach, based on tourists’ motivations and perceptions (Poria, Butler & Airey, 2001, 2003).

First of all, literature on heritage tourism management focused on heritage marketing, analysing tourism demand, postmodern cultural consumptions and the role of cultural heritage in the quest for authenticity (Richards, 1996; Timothy & Boyd, 2003). Moreover, according to a supply-side approach, many academic textbooks concentrated on Heritage Visitor Attractions management (Leask & Yeoman, 2009; Timothy & Boyd, 2003).

Concerning the Italian context, since the end of the 1980s scholars have pointed out “the lack of heritage management in a country that has Europe’s largest potential supply of heritage attractions (Irish Tourist Board, 1988)” (Richards, 1996, p.269). In particular, literature on cultural destination management has stressed the lack of coordination between “actors in charge of heritage management and those in charge of tourism development at the local level” (De Carlo & Dubini, 2010, p.33). Moreover, research has considered the reputation of an area, analysing the relationship between cultural heritage and its location (Siano & Siglioccolo, 2008; Siano, Eagle, Confetto & Siglioccolo, 2010).

However, little academic attention has been paid to exploring the relationship between heritage management and sustainable tourism development (Aas, Ladkin & Fletcher, 2005; Caserta & Russo, 2002; du Cros, 2001; Garrod & Fyall 2000; McKercher & du Cros, 2008; Silberberg, 1995). In this perspective, scholars have investigated the carrying capacity of tourism, stressing the negative effects of tourism on heritage (traffic, pollution, congestion, etc.) and concentrating on conservation aspects of heritage tourism – e.g. heritage physical use and overuse. In order to prevent destruction or near-destruction of historical landmarks as well as the natural environment, they have tried to find a balance between tourism and cultural heritage management, between tourist consumption of extrinsic values and conservation of intrinsic values. Therefore, interest has been shown in assessing the conditions that must be met in order to secure heritage tourism sustainability, such as pricing decisions – e.g. “token” pricing strategies, timed tickets, limiting parking space, etc. (Garrod & Fyall, 2000). Furthermore, research has analysed the decline in “high-paying” demand segments, increasingly substituted by visitors with lower quality expectations, and its consequences on heritage use and preservation (Caserta & Russo, 2002). As suggested by Montella (2003) the results of excessive and indiscriminate crowding and cultural heritage physical consumption have resulted in significantly higher costs than benefits, especially for public expenditures.
Moreover, they have distorted the perception and configuration of cultural items and their context, contributing to the increasing deterioration of most Italian local heritage sites far away from the “superstar” museums and cultural cities.

Given this context, this paper focuses on the possibility of taking advantage of the opportunity from new and increased tourism demand in search of “authentic” local culture (Cicerchia, 2009), raising awareness of new potential cultural destinations in the tourism market, and then reducing negative externalities and diseconomies coming from the concentration of tourism flows in a few cultural cities.

Considering that the achievement of these goals requires that local museums provide essential facilities and services for tourism development, the research analyses the capability of networks to overcome museum weaknesses and change them from unknown destinations to the main attractions of a cultural itinerary.

Methodology

This paper analyses the network capability of Italian museums through a qualitative-quantitative research on Marche Region’s local museums. The research was organised in three steps: 1) the analysis of Marche Region’s laws and planning documents; 2) the selection and analysis of data from the “Regional Museum Information System”; 3) a survey on a sample of 61 local museums.

The enhancement of Marche Region’s “diffused museum” through regional rules and actions

In the Marche Region actions to enhance local cultural heritage turned a corner in 1998, when all movable and immovable heritage property, both public and private, of archaeological, naturalistic or cultural interest, was connected with local museums, to functionally organize a diffused museum system (article 1, paragraph 4, Regional Law n. 6 “New rules on preservation and enhancement of Marche’s cultural heritage and organization of the diffused museum in a system”)iii.

R.L. 6/98 began a process of gathering information, enhancement and promotion of cultural institutes, including for tourism. European Community funds, available through the “Docup Marche 2000-2006”iv, in conjunction with the law, accelerated the creation of network experiences, aimed at obtaining funding for the structural restoration and functional adjustment of local cultur-
al heritage, to promote the enhancement of the diffused museum’s areas. However, both the Cultural Annual Report of the Marche Region (Righettini, 2006) and research carried out by the University of Macerata through the analysis of some local museums (2007) described the lack of management in cultural institutes and the need for enhancement and museum services’ development: during the 1990s Community and Region interventions supported the improvement of museum facilities, and also promoted a “network building” capability, solely for the reduction of installation costs (for infrastructure projects), not to decrease normal management costs and obtain economies of scale.

Considering these limitations, the “Por Fesr Marche 2007-2013”, approved by the European Commission with the decision C (2007) 3986 (17 August 2007), shifted the focus of cultural actions from conservation to enhancement and from single institutions to territories (Priority 5). Although we must wait until 2013 for a complete report regarding the new European cohesion policy, it seems that the programme pays more attention to the productive vision of the cultural system, its enhancement for social development and integrated cultural actions.

Finally, in 2010, with Regional Law n. 4 (“Rules on cultural heritage and activities”), the Marche Region decided to organize unified and integrated services to support cultural institutions and areas, as well as to promote territorial or thematic networks and systems, in order to guarantee sustainable management and the development of cultural institutes (article 16).

The Marche Region’s Museum Information System

In 2007, the Marche Region set up the “Regional Museum Information System” as a permanent and dynamic tool to plan and monitor interventions in museums (R.L. 4/2010, article 20). By means of a special self-evaluation form the database gathers information about conditions in museums relating to the eight areas of the abovementioned M.D. of 10 May 2001.

The first on-line self-evaluation campaign was carried out in 2008. This first process registered 260 museums (Osservatorio Cultura Marche, 2008). Considering that many museum organizations did not participate in the project at that time, there could be more than 300 museums in the Marche Region.

Regarding the museum features, the first campaign reported that 68% of the 260 registered institutions were local (municipal), 2% belonged to other public institutions (provinces, universities, etc.) and 30% were private (15% of the private museums were church-owned).
As regarding the types of collections in the museums, the campaign found the following:

- 44% art;
- 14% specialized material, e.g. wine labels;
- 13% archaeology;
- 12% ethnography;
- 6% natural history and science;
- 4% history;
- 4% territory;
- 3% technology and science.

A full 60% of these institutions had no mission statement, 77% had no regulations whatsoever, and 87% had no independent balance sheet.

As far as staff is concerned, only 38% had actual employees, 65% did not have any directors and 71% did not employ any custodial staff. Moreover, 85% did not utilize evening security services, and 48% possessed cultural objects that had not yet been inventoried.

Concerning weekly operating hours, only 32% were open for more than 24 hours a week and 24% between 6 and 24 hours; 27% of the registered museums had no fixed opening time.

The first museum evaluation registered 22 museum networks distributed throughout the 4 provinces as follows:

- Province of Ancona: 3;
- Province of Ascoli Piceno and Fermo: 6;
- Province of Macerata: 6;
- Province of Pesaro and Urbino: 7.

In addition to confirming the distinctive and critical features of the regional museum system highlighted by the University of Macerata in 2007, these data are an exemplary illustration of the fragmented and heterogeneous museum situation in the centre of Italy, where there are many public, local and small museums, in many cases almost unknown, which mainly own historical or artistic collections, have scant resources and a blurred identity. Facilities and
supplies are not the only weaknesses; museum performances – e.g. conservation and visitor services management – must be considered as well.

The network capability of Marche Region’s museums

The local survey explored the strengths and weaknesses of Marche Region’s museums, focusing on network capability and benefits of network organizations, in order to identify possible opportunities that have not yet been exploited.

Between February and March 2011, a semi-structured questionnaire was submitted to 61 local museums, a representative sample of the heterogeneity and complexity of the regional museum system, as regarding the types of collections, property and capillary distribution.

Fifty-nine percent (59%) of the interviewed museums were local institutions (57% were civic and 2% were provincial), 21% were ecclesiastical, 8% private, 3% university museums and 2% national.

Considering the types of collections in the museums, the survey registered the following:

- 41% art;
- 18% specialized material;
- 17% archaeology;
- 10% ethnography and anthropology;
- 7% natural history and science;
- 3% history;
- 11% territory;
- 1% technology and science.

As far as the distribution of the sample: 6 museums are in the Province of Pesaro and Urbino, 10 in the Province of Ancona, 11 in the Province of Fermo, 15 in the Province of Ascoli Piceno, and 19 in the Province of Macerata.

The research consisted of a wide range of questions, primarily, although not exclusively, quantitative, which examined both museum management (services, relationships with visitors and other stakeholders, marketing strategies, etc.) and their participation in museum networks, as well as their achievements and benefits.
Regarding museums’ visitors, 50% of the interviewed museums have less than 2,500 visitors per year; among these institutions, 23% register between 1,000 and 2,500 visitors, while 13% oscillate between 500 and 1,000 and 14% have less than 500 visitors. As far as the remaining 50% is concerned, 21% register between 2,500 and 5,000 visitors per year, 16% between 5,000 and 10,000 and 13% exceed 10,000 visitors. This last range includes museums in some of the most important cultural towns of the Region, such as Fermo or Macerata, or museums which have had over 15,000 visitors for important cultural events, such as the civic museum of Civitanova Marche during the Festival “Tutti in gioco” (Everyone in play).

Concerning staff, 40% of the interviewed museums have volunteers, 18% have employees with open-ended contracts, 13% have employees with fixed-term contracts, 16% have employees with other kinds of contracts, and 16% make use of external employees. Moreover, people with an open-ended or a fixed-term contract are very often public employees who also deal with other offices and activities (libraries, education, cultural events, etc.) and are not actual museum employees. For eight of the 13 museums making use of voluntary workers, volunteers are not additional help for museum professionals, but the only museum human resources.

Considering these data we can conclude that the interviewed museums are a representative sample of the regional museum system, not only because of the variety of their collections, but also due to the lack of management skills. If we analyse the relationships with visitors and other local stakeholders, only 18% of them have a service charter (in many cases not yet available to the public) and only 6% have periodic meetings with local stakeholders.

As far as network capability is concerned, the large majority of those interviewed (82%) answered that they participate in museum networks. However, when asked about the network management of museum services, 56% of the interviewees answered that they do not respect the same opening hours as organizations in the same network; only 20% of them have the same opening hours and 24% did not know. Considering the pricing policies, only 33% of the interviewees sell cards to visit many museums (43% of them have only single tickets and 24% did not answer).

Focusing on network marketing strategies, the interviewees revealed a weak network visibility. Even though more than half of the museums (61%) have a museum corporate identity for brochures and booklets, the percentage lowers if road signs are considered (31%). When analysing the museum setting, 30%
adopt the same design for boards and labels, 21% for museum furniture, display and renovation and 20% for museum signs. Finally, less than 2% have a uniform for front-office staff.

Moreover, in 62% of the museums, visitors can find information about other museums in the network, but only 34% of them have a guide or catalogue of the network’s other museums. Using a five-point Likert scale, museums were asked to score perceived benefits of network organization. Even though the score never achieves 4 points (good), the highest score concerns museums’ visibility (3,50), followed by inter-institution cooperation (3,30), service quality (3,18), staff involvement (3,07), and visitors’ increase (2,98). Least positive are the full use of personnel’s productive capacity (2,21), and economies of scale (2,47).

As far as the benefits for the local context, museums gave a positive – though not optimal – answer about territory promotion (3,33) and citizens’ awareness of cultural and environment protection (3,21). Lower scores were given to social cohesion (2,84), start-up for new economical activities and entrepreneurship (2,40), employment increase (2,37), and the development of activities in other sectors (2,23).

When asking which strategies cultural networks currently follow to enhance participant museums and their deep relationship with the local context, interviewees gave the highest score to guided tours and special openings during local cultural events (3,88). They also assigned average importance to the presentation of the local cultural offerings (3,50), the presentation of the diffused museum, links between museum items and local context, history of museums and their collections, and the organization of tourist cultural tours (3,38), followed by the presentation of the network’s museums and how to find them (3,23) and the organization of events in association with local cultural institutions and firms (3,15). Not much value was given to the updating of information and education tools (2,85), to the promotion of scientific research and publishing about the network’s museums and collections (2,80), the explanation of the original use value of cultural items (2,62) or the presentation and marketing of local products (wine and food, craft, etc.) inside museums (2,18).

Furthermore, the majority of interviewees did not manage to explain actions that have been used to develop these strategies, nor the evaluation methods and tools employed to measure them and results actually achieved. They only mentioned the production of brochures and booklets and the organization of cultural tours and exhibitions.
Results

Even though Marche Region has promoted laws and initiatives to develop local museums, the analysis of data from the Museum Information System (2007) and the survey carried out during 2011 confirm a profound lack of management skills in Marche Region’s local museums. The most relevant are the absence of qualified personnel, poor quality of service, and primarily restricted opening hours. Since the late 1990s, Marche Region’s museums have established museum networks, following the example of corporate networks in Italian industrial districts, in order to overcome these issues. Since then, they have aimed to achieve a competitive position managing relational capabilities and cooperation.

Research suggests that museum networks have an important role in promoting local cultural heritage and raising awareness about local museums. However, up to this time local museum networks have not gone beyond a simple goal of marketing communication through events, guided tours, brochures and guides, and they are still too weak to succeed in innovating the services their museums offer. In particular, they still have too little capacity to exploit economies of scale, scope and learning, which could ensure the museums’ survival and development as well as their contribution to the sustainable innovation of the local tourism sector. Concerning staff, for example, small museums do not share their personnel and do not make full use of their productive capacity. Moreover, the survey revealed that museum staff do not trust the management capability of museum networks. Finally, even though local cultural heritage is an asset that raises awareness of a territory, museum networks have not succeeded in using it as a key resource.

Conclusion

This paper documents the extent that sustainable cultural tourism issues affect the preservation of overloaded big cultural cities, as well as the survival of local cultural heritage. As far as local cultural destinations are concerned, it is argued here that research has neglected the possibility of preserving local cultural heritage through – not against – enhancement. Rather, relationships between local museums should be promoted in order to achieve economies of scale, scope and learning, and then provide the necessary cultural facilities and improve museum service quality for local tourism development.

Therefore, “variable geometry networks” (Cerquetti, 2008) could be developed to overcome local museum weaknesses. The scale of museum networks
should be appropriate to the efficient margin of different supply of services (each museum could participate in one museum network for one type of supplies and in a wider network for other supplies).

In summary, the application of this strategy would allow: (1) an increase in the level of museum facilities and services; (2) local museums to become pivots of a cultural itinerary rather than just unknown destinations; (3) the museums to take advantage of the opportunity of new and increased cultural experience-based tourism demand in search of authenticity; (4) to reduce negative externalities and diseconomies due to the concentration of the flows in just a few cultural cities; (5) to open new possibilities for local entrepreneurship in tourism and the “Made in Italy” industry and to promote sustainable development of local destinations (Figure 1).

Finally, the development of cultural tourism through cultural heritage enhancement could promote new economic and environmental planning tools, stimulating people’s awareness and participation in the maintenance and management of cultural and historical sites and developing a joint interest of tourism participants and local authorities in inter-sector policies and programming (Primicerio, 1993).

![Figure 1. A multi-purpose development of local museum networks](image-url)
Acknowledgements

The empirical research from which this paper is drawn was conducted with a sample of Marche Region’s museums in 2011. The author expresses sincere appreciation to all the students and staff of the local museums involved in the survey.

References


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i “Marche” (also known as “The Marches”) is one of the 20 regions of Italy. The name of the region derives from the plural name of *marca*, originally referring to the medieval March of Ancona and nearby marches of Camerino and Fermo. Marche region is located in the centre of Italy, on the Adriatic Sea. It has 1.560.785 inhabitants and extends over an area of 9,365,86 km².

The tourism slogan of the Region is “*Le Marche: l’Italia in una regione*” (The Marches: Italy in one region). The regional cultural heritage is scattered throughout many small walled towns, castles, hill forts, sanctuaries and abbeys.

ii Concerning heritage tourism between the 1970s and the 1990s, ATLAS database, for example, indicates that “heritage visits in Europe rose by 100% between 1970 and 1991 (…). The pattern of growth in heritage demand does show considerable variation from one country to another, ranging from over 200% in the UK between 1970 and 1991, through 130% in France, to only 18% in Italy.” (Richards 1996: 269)

iii L.R. 6/98 “*Nuove norme in material di salvaguardia e valorizzazione del patrimonio culturale delle Marche e di organizzazione in sistema del museo diffuso*”.

iv The “Docup (*Documento Unico di Programmazione*) Marche” is a planning document through which the Marche Region used European Funding for the regional economic development from 2000 to 2006.

v The “Por Fesr (*Programma Operativo Regionale – Fondo Europeo di Sviluppo Regionale*) Marche” is the Marche’s programme 2007-2013 to use European Funding.

vi L.R. 4/2010 ‘*Norme in materia di beni e attività culturali*’.

vii The format of the five-level Likert scale was the following: 1. not at all; 2. not much; 3. average; 4. much; 5. very much.
Effects of Adventure Education Activities on Self-Efficacy and Interpersonal Communicational Competence: A Perspective of Experiential Marketing

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Abstract
The importance of employee's training has become prominent in corporate world. The main purpose of training, from employee's viewpoint, is to enhance personal abilities, attitude, and self-confidence. For organizations, on the other hand, training can help to build up organizational cohesion, and to improve interpersonal relationship as well as professional knowledge. Adventure education, for its focus on participants’ experience, can help to improve self-efficacy and interpersonal communicational competence, and has become popular for being adopted as corporate training courses in recent years. At the same time, the concept of experiential marketing also attracted the attention of more practitioners. This research was designed not only to explore the effects of adventure education which might form self-efficacy and interpersonal communicational competence, but also to investigate experiential elements embedded in adventure education by adopting the Strategic Experiential Modules as a framework.

Key words: experiential marketing, strategic experiential Module, adventure education, self-efficacy, interpersonal communicational competence.
Introduction

Recent years have seen increased attention being given to manpower in corporate world. Land, capital, equipment and assets are no longer primarily factors to gain profit within the corporate business; instead of regarding factors, many corporates start to strengthen professional education training toward its own staffs. The purpose of corporate training, however, based on the research of Swanson (1987), may divide into two aspects: First, as for individual ones, the corporate training is mainly to promote individual’s ability, manner, self-confident, and so on; once promoting, not only achievements and salary of individuals may result well, but they also could be offered better job choices in the future. Second, from organization’s viewpoint, corporate training includes promoting the quality of staff, increasing the profit rate, promoting cohesion within the organization, improving the interpersonal relationship, and increasing the adaptation of staffs as well as their professional knowledge and so on.

Different goals of corporate training must go through different training methods to achieve certain effect. Therefore, the challenge that corporates have been facing for years is how implement the curriculum of corporate training properly in order to improve employees’ self-understanding. In recent years experiential education has been particularly influential in contributing insights into one of learning self-understanding methods. The so-called experiential education or the training is active learning; namely, giving staffs an actual or simulation experience so they could learn from each other, and its form contains adventure education, outdoor training, and so on.

In the US, adventure education has been implementing to the curriculum of corporate training for a while. Corporates implement these experiential group activities to inspire staffs’ innovation and problem-solving ability through facing challenges in order to improve self efficacy and self-concept (Scott, 1988; Wagner, Baldwin, & Roland, 1991). Regarding above, this research conducts the idea of experiential marketing, regards the participants as the consumers, and utilizes the marketing strategy to experience the viewpoint of modules to discuss the five essential factors of adventure education, namely sense, feel, think, action, and relate. Meanwhile, exploring the influence on employees’ self-efficacy and interpersonal communication while implementing the adventure education in training programs is another issue to be addressed in this paper.

Purpose of Research

According to the theory of adventure education, this research utilizes the activity facilities, namely whitewater rafting, rock climbing field, and adventurous
trail, to draw up a set of training program which related to the employees’ self-efficacy and interpersonal communication. A questionnaire survey would be conducted before the activity, during the activity progress, and after the activity, respectively. The aim of this research is therefore threefold: (a) to discuss the strategic experiential modules (SEMs) within the adventure education activity based on the marketing viewpoint; (b) to examine whether a correlation exists between SEMs within the training program of adventure education and changing of self-efficacy from the participants; (c) to determine whether a correlation exists between SEMs within the training program of adventure education and interpersonal communication.

**Local of the Research**

This research was carried out in MingDao University, and utilizes available sources, namely school facilities, exercising ground and equipment, to design training activities of adventure education. The training goal is to promote employees’ self-efficacy and interpersonal communication. The participates in this study were 60 employees worked in CC securities corporation from the three divisions of Yuanlin, TaiPing, and Taichung.

**Literature Review**

The main goal of this research is to understand the adventure education from the viewpoint of experiential marketing to better determine the influence on the employees’ self-efficacy and interpersonal communication. Related literature review will discuss SEMs, adventure education, self-relate, and interpersonal communication as follows.

**Experiential Marketing**

In 1999 an argument of experiential marketing was proposed by Shmitt that has been the theory of many Taiwanese scholars utilizing to conduct substantial studies ever since. For instance, some researchers reported that the experiential marketing is demanded by sense, which creates an unique sentiment or consciousness. Going through the stimulation of images, sense of hearing, sense of tasting and sense of smelling, customers will be motivated and urged by their purchasing desire; therefore, the goal of marketing is achieved. The experiential marketing does not neglect the rational quality and the functional demand; it stands for the foundmental quality to strengthen its perception and the sense demands. Some researchers believed that the experiential marketing basically does not follow the steps of traditional rationality marketing, it deve-
lopes its own advantage aspects and discards disadvantage ones to analyze product function and its benefits.

Schmitt (1999) proposed a foundation framework to manage customers’ experience for experiential marketing that has combined with viewpoint of traditional marketing and concerns of social behaviour with psychological theory of individual consumer. This framework contains two aspects: Strategic experiential modules (SEMs) and expros. SEMs is strategy-based of experiential marketing, whereas expros is the tactical tool. SEMs contains five types of experiential marketing:

*Sense*: Sense is about imagine, hearing, smelling, tasting and touching which provides joyful, excited, and satisfaction.

*Feel*: Feel is about consumer’s intrinsic emotion, and its goal creates the emotion experience. The major part of emotion is occurred during cousming. The emotion marketing needs is to understand what stimulation could truly trigger the mood as well as urge the consumer to participate the cousming action volunteerly.

*Think*: Think means intelligence, and its goal is to utilize the creative method to build up cousmer’s cognition and experience of problem-solving.

*Action*: Its goal is to affect individuals’ action experience, life status and its interaction. Because of individuals’ action experience increasing, the action marketing points out the substitution method of work, life status and its interaction in order to enrich consumer’s life.

*Relate*: It contains sense, feel, think, and action. However, the connecting marketing comes across individual personality, personal sentiment. With “individual experience”, individual could relate to ideal self-ego, others, and culture. Its primarily purpouse is to achieve the desire of self-improvement and gain trust with others include classmates, friends, spouse, family, and colleagues; therefore, it makes connection with people and an extensive social system and further establishes a stronger and powerful brand relation and the social community

Regarding above, the experiential of sense, feel, and think is primarily triggered by cosumer’s sense, mind, and thought, in which the condition could be immidate and short. In terms of action and relate, however, they integrate in a wider situation and the social factor with others’ influence; therefore, the origin of experience is mostly formed by accumulation and persistant.
Adventure Education

Adventure Education utilized the natural field as experimental location and emphasized on participants’ learning and reflection straightforwardly. In this study, adventure education focuses on two aspects which are interpersonal and intrapersonal. There are other additional essential elements within the processing of adventure education such as adventure, risk, challenge, stress, and so forth. Moreover, the participants reflected some unique experience such as flow or peak adventure experience which is the characteristic of the adventure education. (Scott, 1988).

Self Efficacy

Self-efficacy, introduced by Bandura in 1977 and 1978 as an essential element of social learning theory. It refers to the result of an individual having an interaction with outside environment and self ability, experience and achievement. Specifically, self-efficacy has the function of uniting behavior and achieving the goal; in other words, self-efficacy is not passive but active which contains the cognition, society and the behavior (Bandura, 1977; 1978; 1980; 1982; 1986 and 1997).

Interpersonal Communication Competence

Some researchers mentioned that if an individual could establish successful interpersonal relationship and communication competence, then he/she could obtain happiness and satisfy with life and career, and further acquire joyful life and pleasure with interpersonality. Communication competence should contain the following elements: performative competence and process competence. Interpersonal communication pattern has the following competences: interpretive competence, goal competence, role competence, message competence (Trenholm, S. & Jensen, A., 1988 and 1996).

Methodology

This research utilized the questionnaire to collect the data. The way of collecting data was having the questionnaire after the activity, within the activity, and before the activity, respectively. Before the activity, the participants would be given the questionnaire of self-efficacy and interpersonal communication competence. During the activity, the participants would be given the questionnaire of experiential survey. After the activity was over around two weeks, the participants would be given the same questionnaire of self-efficacy and interpersonal communication competence.
Analysis was conducted using the SPSS-PC (Version 10.0) and AMOS (Version 5.0) statistical software package. A descriptive analysis was used to test population statistic in the participant; Next, Confirmation Factor Analysis; CFA was used to analysis confirms the use to study validity of the tool; then we adopted the Paired-samples T Test and used the Stepwise to be the approach of Regression Analysis.

**Results**

In this study, 57 volunteers were selected through the CC securities corporation from the three divisions. The background information of each participant is shown in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1. Sample description</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Item</strong></td>
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<td>Average monthly income</td>
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**Self-efficacy and interpersonal communication competence of participants before and after activity**

Table 2 discovers a significant result of three variables, before the activity, within the activity and after the activity. Means could also reveal that the participants’ various abilities become better than before having the activity.
Table 2. Paired-samples t test: self-efficacy

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<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Samples</th>
<th>Standard deviation</th>
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<th>Significance</th>
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<tbody>
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<td>Self-efficacy</td>
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<td>3.7332</td>
<td>0.2881</td>
<td>-2.291</td>
<td>0.026**</td>
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<td></td>
<td>After</td>
<td>3.9026</td>
<td>0.5726</td>
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<td>General Self-efficacy</td>
<td>Before</td>
<td>3.7822</td>
<td>0.2631</td>
<td>-1.718</td>
<td>0.091*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>After</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Self-efficacy</td>
<td>Before</td>
<td>3.6812</td>
<td>0.3968</td>
<td>-2.555</td>
<td>0.013**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>After</td>
<td>3.8918</td>
<td>0.6160</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 illustrates that there is no significant difference of communication stability and clearness. The means of other items are also presented that the participants’ various abilities become better than before having the activity.

Table 3. Result of paired-samples t test: interpersonal communication

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Samples</th>
<th>Standard deviation</th>
<th>t value</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Interpersonal communication</td>
<td>Before</td>
<td>3.5616</td>
<td>0.3048</td>
<td>-3.854</td>
<td>0.000***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>After</td>
<td>3.8743</td>
<td>0.6110</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication adequately</td>
<td>Before</td>
<td>3.6211</td>
<td>0.3940</td>
<td>-4.182</td>
<td>0.000***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>After</td>
<td>3.9649</td>
<td>0.5771</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication stability</td>
<td>Before</td>
<td>3.7953</td>
<td>0.4071</td>
<td>-0.791</td>
<td>0.431</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>After</td>
<td>3.8830</td>
<td>0.6592</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication humorously</td>
<td>Before</td>
<td>3.3509</td>
<td>0.5856</td>
<td>-5.106</td>
<td>0.000***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>After</td>
<td>3.8070</td>
<td>0.7209</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication clearness</td>
<td>Before</td>
<td>3.8480</td>
<td>0.3677</td>
<td>-0.432</td>
<td>0.668</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>After</td>
<td>3.8889</td>
<td>0.6706</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication acquaintance</td>
<td>Before</td>
<td>3.5029</td>
<td>0.5423</td>
<td>-3.588</td>
<td>0.001***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>After</td>
<td>3.9006</td>
<td>0.6725</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication maturity</td>
<td>Before</td>
<td>3.2515</td>
<td>0.6051</td>
<td>-4.773</td>
<td>0.000***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>After</td>
<td>3.8012</td>
<td>0.7423</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

***P<0.01 , **P<0.05 , *P<0.1

With the analysis of questionnaire of pre-test and post-test, the result provides the participants’ behavior changing in detail from the items of self-efficacy and interpersonal communication competence before and after activity as shown in Table 4.
### Table 4. Result of paired-samples t test by items

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>The content of the questionnaire items</th>
<th>t value</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>General Self-efficacy</strong></td>
<td>03</td>
<td>For my work, if I cannot do it perfect at the first time, I will try harder.</td>
<td>-2.581</td>
<td>0.012**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>09</td>
<td>When I decided to do something, I will practice immediately.</td>
<td>-1.764</td>
<td>0.083*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
<td>When I learn something new, if can not success at the first time, I will give up.</td>
<td>-1.694</td>
<td>0.096*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>13</td>
<td>Failure will encourage me try harder.</td>
<td>-2.538</td>
<td>0.014**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Social Self-efficacy</strong></td>
<td>19</td>
<td>If I meet someone I want to make friend with, I will be on the initiative.</td>
<td>-2.509</td>
<td>0.015**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>21</td>
<td>If I meet someone I want to make friend with, though he or she is desolate, I won't give up immediately.</td>
<td>-3.778</td>
<td>0.000***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>23</td>
<td>I always make the new friends by myself.</td>
<td>-3.714</td>
<td>0.000***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Communication adequately</strong></td>
<td>07</td>
<td>When I talk with others, I will consider others’ feeling.</td>
<td>-1.902</td>
<td>0.062*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>17</td>
<td>When someone show their humorous I will give the appropriate response.</td>
<td>-2.810</td>
<td>0.007**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>18</td>
<td>In the conversation with others, my expression is always appropriate.</td>
<td>-3.822</td>
<td>0.000***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>19</td>
<td>My expression always let others feel comfortable.</td>
<td>-3.385</td>
<td>0.001**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>20</td>
<td>I can grasp the situation and express the suitable opinion.</td>
<td>-3.164</td>
<td>0.003**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Communication humorously</strong></td>
<td>14</td>
<td>In the tense situation, I will crack a joke and try to make the atmosphere to be better.</td>
<td>-3.723</td>
<td>0.000***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>15</td>
<td>I will teases myself when I feel embarrassed.</td>
<td>-3.469</td>
<td>0.001**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>16</td>
<td>When I got the negative commentary from others, I will give the feedback in humorous.</td>
<td>-4.930</td>
<td>0.000***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Communication acquaintance</strong></td>
<td>06</td>
<td>When I communicate with others, I will try to let them feel that he or she is very important.</td>
<td>-2.961</td>
<td>0.004**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>09</td>
<td>I like to make the new friends from different group.</td>
<td>-3.265</td>
<td>0.002**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
<td>I like to make the new friends.</td>
<td>-1.968</td>
<td>0.054*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Communication maturity</strong></td>
<td>04</td>
<td>When I talk with others I am always relaxed.</td>
<td>-3.182</td>
<td>0.002**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>05</td>
<td>Even I stay in the tense situation, I can keep calm.</td>
<td>-3.310</td>
<td>0.002**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>08</td>
<td>I am always very active in my Social activity.</td>
<td>-4.302</td>
<td>0.000***</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

***P<0.01, **P<0.05, *P<0.1

This research discovers that the results of general self-efficacy, the self-efficacy of social relation, the communication adequately, the communication humorously, the communication acquaintance, and the communication maturity, are significant because the participants has changed their certain behavior after activity or gain some faith because of activity. Therefore, adventure education has significant influence on changing of self-efficacy and interpersonal communication competence based on the analyzing data.

### Regression Analysis

#### 3.1 Challenging Valley Activity

(1). Regression analysis of SEMs of experiential marketing and self-efficacy
This part of analysis is utilized five major SEMs of challenging valley activity as independent variable. Two aspects of self-efficacy are general self-efficacy and self-efficacy of social relation as dependant variable to progress the regression analysis. The module presents significant result as shown in Table 5.

**Table 5. Regression analysis of SEMs of challenging valley activity and self-efficacy**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent variable</th>
<th>Dependent variable</th>
<th>Self-efficacy</th>
<th>General self-efficacy</th>
<th>Self-efficacy of social relation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experiential Marketing: Think</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F value</td>
<td>9.772**</td>
<td>10.274**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R2</td>
<td>0.151</td>
<td>0.157</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted R2</td>
<td>0.135</td>
<td>0.142</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<0.05 ; **p<0.01 ; ***p<0.001

(2). Regression analysis of SEMs of experiential marketing and interpersonal communication competence.

This part of analysis is utilized five major SEMs of challenging valley activity as independent variable, whereas six elements of interpersonal communication competence are “communication adequately”, “communication stability”, “communication humorously”, “communication clearness”, “communication acquaintance”, and “communication maturity” as dependent variable to progress the regression analysis. The module presents significance result in Table 6.

**Table 6. Regression analysis of SEMs of challenging valley activity and interpersonal communication competence**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interpersonal Communication Competence</th>
<th>Communication adequately</th>
<th>Communication stability</th>
<th>Communication humorously</th>
<th>Communication clearness</th>
<th>Communication acquaintance</th>
<th>Communication maturity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experiential Marketing: Think</td>
<td>0.464</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F value</td>
<td>15.22***</td>
<td>7.493**</td>
<td>6.689*</td>
<td>8.951**</td>
<td>6.755*</td>
<td>8.757**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R2</td>
<td>0.216</td>
<td>0.120</td>
<td>0.108</td>
<td>0.140</td>
<td>0.109</td>
<td>0.137</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted R2</td>
<td>0.201</td>
<td>0.104</td>
<td>0.092</td>
<td>0.124</td>
<td>0.093</td>
<td>0.122</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<0.05 ; **p<0.01 ; ***p<0.001
2 Rock Climbing Activity

(1). Regression analysis of SEMs of experiential marketing and self-efficacy

This part of analysis is utilized five major SEMs of rock climbing activity as independent variable whereas two aspects of self-efficacy are general self-efficacy and self-efficacy of social relation as dependant variable to progress the regression analysis. No significant correlation was uncovered between regarding the independent variable and dependent variable.

(2). Regression analysis of SEMs of experiential marketing and interpersonal communication competence

This part of analysis is utilized five major SEMs of rock climbing activity as independent variable, whereas six elements of interpersonal communication competence are “communication adequately”, “communication stability”, “communication humorously”, “communication clearness”, “communication acquaintance”, and “communication maturity” as dependent variable to progress the regression analysis. The module presents significance result in Table 7.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 7. Regression analysis of SEMs of Whitewater rafting and interpersonal communication competence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Independent variable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experiential Marketing:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F Value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted R2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<0.05 ; **p<0.01 ; ***p<0.001

3.3 Whitewater Rafting

(1). Regression analysis of SEMs of experiential marketing and self-efficacy

This part of analysis is utilized five major SEMs of whitewater rafting as independent variable whereas two aspects of self-efficacy are general self-efficacy and self-efficacy of social relation as dependant variable to progress the regression analysis. The module presents significant result in Table 8.
Table 8. Regression analysis of SEMs of whitewater rafting and self-efficacy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent variable</th>
<th>Self-efficacy</th>
<th>β Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>General self-efficacy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Self-efficacy of social relation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experiential Marketing: Relate</td>
<td>0.403</td>
<td>0.473</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F Value</td>
<td>10.643**</td>
<td>15.814***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R2</td>
<td>0.162</td>
<td>0.223</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted R2</td>
<td>0.147</td>
<td>0.209</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<0.05 ; **p<0.01 ; ***p<0.001

(2). Regression analysis of SEMs of experiential marketing and interpersonal communication competence.

This part of analysis is utilized five major SEMs of whitewater rafting as independent variable, whereas six elements of interpersonal communication competence are “communication adequately”, “communication stability”, “communication humorously”, “communication clearness”, “communication acquaintance”, and “communication maturity” as dependent variable to progress the regression analysis. The module presents significance result in Table 9.

Table 9. Regression analysis of SEMs of whitewater rafting and interpersonal communication competence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interpersonal communication competence</th>
<th>β Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Communication adequately</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication stability</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication humorously</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication clearness</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication acquaintance</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication maturity</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experiential Marketing: Relate</td>
<td>0.664</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experiential Marketing: Act</td>
<td>-0.274</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experiential Marketing: Relate</td>
<td>0.380</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experiential Marketing: Feel</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experiential Marketing: Think</td>
<td>0.272</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experiential Marketing: Relate</td>
<td>0.353</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F Value</td>
<td>13.088***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R2</td>
<td>0.326</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted R2</td>
<td>0.302</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<0.05 ; **p<0.01 ; ***p<0.001
Conclusion

This study revealed that the training program of adventure education improves interpersonal communication competence of corporate employees in communication adequately, communication humorously, communication acquaintance, and communication maturity. However, there is no significant differences on communication stability and communication clearness. The communication stability for testing is to measure whether the participants feel stress or unsatisfy under the social occasion; however, feeling stress and unsatisfy is necessary because that is the purpose of designing adventure element into the field of adventure education. The communication clearness is to measure whether the participants could express their idea clearly or speak clearly. This is not the main theme which the adventure education discusses for it; therefore, there is no significant difference. All different activities in adventure education have the SEMs of experiential marketing, so the participants have different feeling and reflection toward different activity which related to their self-efficacy and interpersonal communication competence.

The challenging valley activity is the highly exploration of pedagogical activity, and adventure education could utilize this advantage to achieve the participants’ improvement of self-efficacy and the interpersonal communication competence. Whitewater rafting is the activity which needs two people to work together, in which highly related to the experience in adventure education. Specifically, mission accomplished needs good communication between the two and excellent team work. Adventure education could depend on this result and the training needs of corporation to offer further reference when having activity design with the SEMs in order to achieve the training purpose of adventure education.

Future research is necessary to determine with the study of interpersonal relationship, not only in interpersonal communication competence, but also including communication, cooperation, trust, conflict solving, problem solving, and influence of leader. Besides self-efficacy, self relation includes self-concept, confidence, and spirituality in order to prove and discuss the result of this study.

References


Travel 2.0. Iran Travel Blogs Building the Destination Image of Iran

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Abstract
This paper explores the image that Iran has on travel blogs and attempts to investigate the capacity of these social media instruments to influence their readers’ view of this country. It departs from the emerging role of the Internet as a powerful source of information and image formation. Both qualitative and quantitative methods are used in a study case-design with a clear focus on the former. The findings of this paper are in a clear contradiction with the current negative image Iran has in the Western media as travellers present it as a safe and hospitable country. This dichotomy strengthens the ability of the Internet to present several opposing images of the same destination, adding layers of complexity and subjectivity to the concept.

Key words: travel blogs, destination image, social media, image formation.

Introduction
Destination image has in the minds of its potential visitors is one of the most important features in the decision making process. We choose a precise destination influenced by our cultural and educational background, but also by different and various information sources that act as both commercial and non-commercial image formation agents. One of the most powerful sources is the Internet and its great spread and popularity across the world make researchers state that it is taking in the 21st century the role the brochure played in image creation in the 19th and 20th century (Bowen & Clarke, 2009). The Internet has the capacity to create and recreate destination attractiveness beyond the control of DMOs and to give its users the possibility to share honest and trusted impressions through social media. These applications allow and encourage the spread of a variety of different images of the same destination and sometimes the result is nowhere in the middle, but jumps instead from pure harmony to
pure disaster. This is the case of Iran, almost daily negatively highlighted in the Western media for its nuclear programs, hate of America, Islamic government and its crimes against human rights. Probably twenty years ago this would have been the only image we could have had on Iran in the absence of an actual visit or interaction with people who had really been there. Nevertheless, the Internet has more sides to each story and through a simple online search one can find user generated content like travel blogs that contradict the media generated image with a highly positive and personal picture of beautiful and hospitable Iran.

Through this subject approach, the paper tries to bring a contribution to the field of the online destination image research. The relevancy of the research is backed by the growing popularity of Internet use for planning, booking and travel related activities. The total value of the global online segment is estimated at 256 billion US$ in 2010, representing 30% of the total travel market, with more than 50% of leisure trips and 40% of business trips being booked online (WTTC, 2011). Furthermore, the relevancy of the topic is strengthened by the fact that more research efforts are needed in order to better understand the formation and implications of destination images online in the case of user-generated content applications. Moreover, contemporary Iran as a tourist destination has received only sporadic attention in the literature and further studies are necessary to evaluate the potential that tourism would have in mediating some of its economic problems and encouraging more openness towards its own citizens and the rest of the world.

**Literature Review**

Destination image has emerged as a research topic for tourism scholars in the beginning of the ‘70s. Since then, the subject became highly popular and its critical importance in the process of travel decisions was acknowledged by both researchers (Echtner & Ritchie, 1991; Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Chon, 1992) and marketing practitioners. However, there exists a level of criticism regarding the outcomes as lacking a conceptual framework (Echtner & Ritchie, 1993) that has also been extended to the absence of solid theory (Fakeye & Crompton, 1991, p. 10) and the ignored role of visual representations in image creation (Mackay & Fesenmaier, 1997; Mackay & Couldwell, 2004).

According to Gallarza, Saura and Calderon (2002), destination image is dynamic and so it changes across time and space. This could not be more obvious online, where DMOs have lost their monopoly of building images to other players who are perceived as more trustworthy and honest (Dickinger, 2011).
Furthermore, the destination image can be formed online without the actual intent of going there, by simply surfing and gathering information (Govers & Go, 2003). Some researchers argue that, in this new world of technological change, globalization and fierce competition, where DMOs lost their traditional influential role on media content, the deconstruction of the traditional destination image theory is unavoidable (Govers & Go, 2003). But before going more in depth with the role of the Internet in the destination image process, a brief analysis of the concept, the formation and its measurement are necessary.

The definitions proposed in the first two decades of research were criticized for being vague and attribute oriented by Echtner and Ritchie (1991) who come up their own conceptual approach. They define destination image “as not only the perceptions of individual destination attributes, but also the holistic impressions made by the destination” (Echtner & Ritchie, 1991, p. 43). The attribute and the holistic components have both a functional and psychological dimension to which they add a third dimension of common-unique that they consider to have been overlooked in previous research. A decade later, Gallarza et al. (2002) synthesise the difficulty of reaching a common conceptualization of destination image as the consequence of its complexity, relative, subjective and dynamic nature.

The formation of the image has also received consistent attention and several distinct models were proposed, a general agreement existing over the importance of information sources as image formation agents in the development process. These sources are either organic, like family and friends, or induced, controlled by the DMOs, like travel agents and guidebooks. Initial formation models concentrated on the role and influence of these agents (Phelps, 1986; Mansfeld, 1992) and the cognitive, affective and conative dimensions of the image (Gartner, 1993 in Baloglu & McCleary, 1999). More recent image formation models acknowledge the importance of personal factors and socio-demographics of tourists (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999) along with the extent of the traveling experience (Beerli & Martín, 2004). In what regards the measurement, most researches have employed quantitative methods (Pike, 2002) although the use of qualitative techniques has been advocated from the early 90s for their capacity to capture holistic or unique images (Echtner & Ritchie, 1993).

Internet and Web 2.0. as image formation agents

As mentioned before, the formation of the destination image is a complex process, and its overwhelming importance is given by the fact that tourism offers intangible experiences. In this case, images become more valuable than re-
ality (Gallarza et al., 2002). Online mediums add even more complexity to the phenomenon because the use of Internet has “fundamentally reshaped the way tourism related information is distributed and the way people plan for and consume travel” (Buhalis & Law, 2008). Acting as a very powerful information source, the Internet is innovative and displays some unique characteristics like accessibility, updating, real-time information service and interactive communications (Bonn, Fur, & Susskind, 1999 in Frias, Rodriguez, & Castaeda, 2008). The role of the Internet as an image formation agent is further empowered by the global use and power of social media or Web 2.0. Based on collective participation, user generated content and software applications that help people around the globe meet online and change opinions, social media is in its own an image formation agent that people rely on for its perceived trustworthiness.

The research on social media as an image formation agent is still at an early stage due to the relative novelty of this Internet instrument. However, many scholars have approached this field stating their unanimous belief in the important role played by social media in online travel. Despite the growing interest, these studies lack a clear theoretical basis. Most papers focus on implications of social media use in online travel or on tourists’ motivations for choosing, but do not generate an adequate theoretical framing.

The chosen type of social media for this paper, the travel blogs, can act as either autonomous, unsolicited or solicited organic image formation agents according to Garner’s (1993) classification (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999). In today’s online reality, travel blogs are becoming increasingly powerful in forming images that correspond to the perceptions and experiences of their authors who, as long as perceived as honest, have the power to influence other fellow users. Nevertheless, extended research is necessary to better understand the role of travel blogs in the image formation process due to its great potential in producing highly-trusted information.

Methodology
The paper employed a mixed method approach in order to capture different and relevant aspects of the research question. The image Iran has on travel blogs was explored through qualitative content analysis for the narratives and semiotic photo analysis, based on Roland Barthes’ approach, for the visual. Two methods were used to collect the data for the qualitative research. In the first stage, the author searched for “travel blogs Iran” on Google search engine after enabling the Blogs option from the toolbar. The first page of results was analysed and seven travel blogs were considered relevant for the research. On-
ly one of them was hosted on a personal website (icedchai.com) and the rest on travel communities like travelpod.com or travelblog.org. These two blog platforms were further searched for entries on Iran and three more travel blogs were included on the list of relevant results.

The second method looked for the most popular travel blogs on Iran using the measuring tools of Alexa Traffic Rank, recognised as one of the best in this field. Only one additional travel blog was considered relevant through this method (Uncorneredmarket.com). The posts on Iran from eleven blogs were finally collected, nine hosted by travelpod.com and travelblog.org and two hosted on personal websites (icedchai.com, uncorneredmarket.com) which resulted in 100 pages of text (Arial 11, 1.5 paragraph size, A4 format). The selected narratives were coded and analyzed using NVivo 9, a computer assisted qualitative data analysis software that codes narratives through nodes. The relevancy of the nodes was revised twice and a total number of fifteen nodes was saved. The most popular nodes featured local encounters (192 references), tourist reflection (107 reflections) and history (105).

The photographs used for the visual imagery analysis were collected from the same travel blogs as the text. Taking into consideration the limitations of the paper in time and size, three revisions regarding the size, the quality and the relevance were applied to the first group of 300 photos and therefore only 31 of them were submitted to a semiotic analysis.

A web survey was employed in the second sequence of the research as an indicator of the influence of travel blogs in building the destination image of Iran. However, its limitations are given by its convenience sampling and low number of completed questionnaires caused by a lack of time resources. The web survey has four sections and twenty-four questions. Three of them were designed as open-ended in order to elicit the word connections people make with Iran, to capture their image of Iran as a travel destination and to find out what their impressions were after reading the two selected posts considered the most relevant at the moment of the data collection. The rest of the questions are close ended (multiple choices, Yes/No), partial open-ended, scaled (Likert scale) and ranking (on a scale from 1 to 7). The two posts included in the web survey are available at the following web addresses:

Results

Content and visual analysis: The content analysis of the narratives brought to light a complex, subjective, relative and dynamic image of Iran, the four essential dimensions of destination image identified by Gallarza et al. (2002). The complexity and the relative nature of the image is given by the numerous sets of opposing pairs identified in the researched text as travelers are constantly amazed and dazzled by what they consider to be the real Iran and its wrongly perceived image in the Western societies. A first and solid opposition is drawn from the start, as the travellers’ pre-visit image of Iran is clearly non-touristic and somehow mythical, as it is perceived to be a place of unknown and danger that challenges the traveller to go off the beaten track. By the end of their journey, all travellers would have changed this initial image to a highly positive one, based on people’s hospitality, kindness and human authenticity. Several other opposing pairs were further discovered in almost all the coded content, starting with the landscape, as the elements of nature seem to be in a constant opposition with each other. Another opposition noticed at this level is between towns and villages as representatives of the modern and the traditional ways of life. A significant one is identified inside the capital, Tehran, between the autonomous and developed North, in comparison to the poor and conservative South. A further opposition exists here, this time between the Iranian towns as part of the Oriental world and the Western reality as tourists are amazed by the bazaars they visit, that gain a more connotative understanding of authenticity. All the four dimensions identified by Gallarza et al. (2002) presented in the image of the Iranian culture, described in a clear opposition with the Western laic culture. In this case, the complex and relative nature is given by the diversity of its elements while the accentuated Western point of view of the travellers highlights its subjectivity and the variety of cultural practices adds a layer of dynamism.

These dimensions also characterise the narratives coded in “Local encounters”, the most popular theme of the travel posts. The images obtained through local encounters are built mostly through an affective perspective and the uniqueness of the people is presented from a very human perspective. This image is very subjective as women tend to describe it through the lens of the strict social code. Women travellers felt left aside when Iranian men did not shake their hands, avoided talking directly to them and were the object of general curiosity when driving a car. Surprisingly, this strict segregation gave some of them the chance to talk more with the Iranian women, previously imagined as
shy and oppressed, but afterwards characterized as brave, modern and very intelligent.

Taking a general view, it is easy to observe that the tangible features of the overall image are less accentuated and the general feeling is that Iran is a place outside the norm, where people’s hospitality and kind view of the world contradict without any right of appeal all the stereotypes of danger created by the Western pop culture. The various images of Iran that travellers develop in their journey makes them highly reflexive on subjects like politics, culture, solidarity and their place in the world. This selflessness is a particular feature of the analysed narratives and it is hard to believe they would have had this emotional journey visiting a destination similar to their developed world.

The oppositions that build the diverse images of Iran are further emphasised through the content of the visuals. The 31 photos were divided in two main groups: Host and Host & Guests. The first was further subdivided according to gender, a key element of the Iranian culture, in Women, Men and Mixed Groups. Clear differentiations are observable between the Iranian men and women. In opposition to women, men are mostly pictured actively, in public spaces, working, emphasising this way the gender segregation of the Iranian society. However, the photos in which women appear tend to have a personal dimension and a certain level of communication between them and the photographer is noticeable in most cases. The three levels of signs: denotative, connotative and mythological were applied to all pictures. Due to space limitations, only three representative photos and their analysis will be further presented.

*Picture 1.*
A group of adolescent school girls is presented in this first picture in a clear opposition between traditional and modernity. The girls wear headscarves, but also elements of Western fashion like snickers, jeans and sunglasses. The group of girls occupies the foreground of the image and it is more difficult to spot the level of communication between the photographer and the subjects as the technical approach used is a wide angle. According to the text description, the girls are standing in front of a historical site near Yazd. This connection with their heritage legacy could mean, at a connotative level, their national pride and commitment to Iranian national identity. At a mythological level, the pictures displays both a feeling of women solidarity and an additional sign of emergent westernisation of the Iranian culture.

![Picture 2](image1)

*Picture 2.*

![Picture 3](image2)

*Picture 3.*

In Picture 2, we see a family of four, probably the mother with her two daughters and son on a picnic, a traditional Iranian practice. They are sitting on a Persian carpet and, in the left side of the picture, we notice a samovar for tea
making, another indicator of tradition that is the second order of sign. The photo is shot in a social mode from the same level of the subjects inspiring a feeling of equality, natural and human interaction. Observing from the background presence, they are in a public space, aspect also underlined by women’s scarfs. However, the social code does not interfere with the atmosphere of joy and friendliness of the picture and we could say the unity of the Iranian family is the myth of this image. In search of authenticity, tourists often desire to explore the Other from an inside perspective, taking part in their rituals and assuming for a short time their way of life. This is the case of Picture 3, shot with a medium focal distance, where the tourist is the only male presence of the group, maybe a mother with her daughters who are all placed in the foreground. He sits at the same level as his guests so they are all acting as equals and the hospitality is considered the connotative sign. Several oppositions are noticeable and the first is that the little girl is not wearing a scarf. Her non-covered presence makes her look like belonging to a different world. A second one is the difference between the older, conservatively dressed, and the younger women who wear make-up and show more of their hair, symbols of their feminine sexuality. They also have modern clothes, despite the fact that they are black. Therefore, we could say the generation gap built on modernisation is the myth of this photo. Some major aspects of the Iranian image have evolved from the visual analysis. It is obvious that travellers are reproducing through their photos certain clichés of the Iranian identity, based on gender segregation and strict rules of social conduct. However, they manage to capture a supplementary image of kindness, innocence, friendliness and hospitality, psychological aspects that are more difficult to reveal through photography and request an honest and personal commitment from the part of the photographer. None of the photos reproduced the negative or violent images in which Iran is pictured in the Western media.

Web Survey findings

The respondents of the web survey are mostly women (81%), highly educated and Internet proficient, who prefer traveling in small group and who book their own travels online (81,8%) using the destination’s website as a main source of information. The questions regarding Iran occupied the first two sections of the survey. Two questions were asked to see if the respondents had already visited the country, only one did, and if they had any intention of going or revisiting. The answers show a clear absence of touristic interest toward this country as 32% of respondents opted for “very unlikely” and only 8% said
they are “very likely” to visit. Next, the author tried to elicit the organic image of Iran by asking respondents to write the first three words that come to their mind when they think about this country. Using NVivo 9, the author analysed the word frequency of their answers and the findings paint a negative organic image of Iran as the most used words were: war, Muslim, nuclear, dangerous, religion, Islam with less connection to Iranian history and heritage. This image is further enforced by the answers to the next opened questions that captures a more detailed image of Iran, this time as a travel destination. The answers were coded in NVivo 9.0 and several themes were identified, the main aspect being the safety concerns related to a visit to Iran that some of the respondents present in a clear opposition to some positive image they have of Iranian hospitality and places to see. Most respondents associate a possible Iranian experience with cultural tourism related activities, closely connected with its heritage sites and exotic image. A theme of Orientalism is further identified as respondents mention the desert, riding a camel, high temperatures and specific architecture. The Islamic identity is a very strong theme, emphasized for its connection with the oppressive nature of the regime. However, one important aspect is underlined by a woman respondent who, although believes Iran to be very intolerant with women, mentions the lack of information she has on this country. In fact, the animated movie Persepolis is her only source. This absence of information is further noticed by another woman respondent who believes Iran to be a truly beautiful place despite its negative image and emphasizes that no positive pictures are shown in the media. At this level, we could argue that the image of Iran is somehow connected with the general image of the Third World countries, a place of beauty, cultural authenticity, but also of danger and with a general negative Western projected image.

Next, precise attribute of Iran’s image were measured before and after the reading of the two travel posts. The twelve attributes were ranked on a scale from 1 to 7 and reading the experience of the travel bloggers seems to have improved significantly Iran’s image for the respondents of the web survey, as shown in the figures presented below.
The values given to the attributes changed in all cases and some of the differences are considerable. For instance, the previous strong image of danger has lowered substantially from 1.48 to 0.14, slightly above the neutral value. Even the perception of Islamic identity that was previously very solid (2.44) is in this
second phase substantially attenuated to a value of 1.70. Other two attributes that measure important dimension like modernity (from -1.00 to 0.38) and oppressive (from 0.63 to -0.10) received different values that reflect an image improvement. Respondents also changed their impression regarding the hospitality of the Iranian people that shifts from a negative -0.12 to a positive 1.10 and seem more convinced that Iran has unique heritage sites. Central touristic elements like good accommodation (from -1.28 to -0.62) and transport system (from -1.56 to -0.81) have received values that bring a moderate, but important improvement. We cannot argue that all respondents now have a strong positive image of Iran. It is obvious that two travel posts are not enough to overcome the constant negative image built in time, more or less fairly, by Western media and pop culture. However, in this analyzed case it is clear that travel blogs have the capacity of influencing in a positive way the image of a destination, even a conflicted one like Iran. What is more surprising is that these respondents rarely read travel blogs, 68.2% monthly and 27.3% never and none of them has one. However, they agree that travel blogs are trustworthy (31.8%) and informative (86.4%). The author considers that a future more accurate web survey, sampled from the population of travel blogs readers, could present important evidence in establishing the role of travel blogs in the process of image formation.

Conclusion

The purpose of this paper was to capture and analyze the destination image of Iran on travel blogs, seen as an honest source of information given its user-generated content, and to observe if this particular image has the capacity to influence people’s beliefs of this country. Travel blogs are considered by the author of this paper as very modern image formation agents that have the potential of becoming a major actor in the future process of destination image formation. Choosing a conflicted destination like Iran is one of the ways through which their role can be observed and their power tested. In this case, the travel blogs create a complete different image than the one generated by the Western media. Therefore, it is important to highlight again this distinct feature of the Internet as an image formation agent that allows the existence of contradicting images of the same entity. The destination image of Iran we get from reading these travel blogs is generally positive and deeply personal, built on a level of trustworthiness and reflexivity that would not be possible to encounter using traditional information sources. The results of the three research methods complete the picture of a complex, relative, subjective and dynamic destination
image of Iran. There is a clear and strong opposition between the image presented by those who were actually there and the general media created image. This is obvious in the findings of the survey, but also in the pre-visit perspective of the bloggers.

What makes the Iranian case even more special is its limited presence on the tourism market and the bad press it constantly gets in the Western media. Despite this, people are inspired to visit it and to share what seems to be an emotional journey of connecting two opposing worlds, the Orient and the Occident. Their personalized discovery and impressions of a very different culture have the capacity to set a power of example for their readers and other fellow users. One indicator of this are the findings of the web survey presented earlier, that although cannot be generalized due to the limitations of the instrument, point out a certain tendency towards it. The complexity of the destination image developed by the chosen social media instrument in the Iranian case is impressive and the author considers it would have been very difficult to capture it through the single use of quantitative methods. Moreover, the author believes qualitative methods are more appropriate in the study of online destination image that is unstable, personal and constantly changing and that further studies are necessary to establish what is a travel blogs’ precise role in this process and what are the dimension of its influence on readers in matters of time and space.

The author also acknowledges the limitations of the quantitative research due to a general lack of time resources and the inherent limitations of the overall project.

References


Is Stagnation a Symptom of Decline in Băile Tinca Spa (Western Romania)?

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Abstract

Băile Tinca Spa is a local tourist spa located in north western Romania, close to the Hungarian border. The spa’s sole attraction consists of the waters’ quality and properties for health improvement. Health tourism which characterizes Băile Tinca Spa provides a standardized product for standardized motivations, in this case remedies of the digestive tube, metabolism and nutritional diseases. Based on the destination lifecycle model and the obtained results from longitudinal data series of the tourist flow to the destination and other economical indicators we intended to determine whether the spa’s stagnation is a heralding symptom for decline.

Key words: stagnation, tourism product, health tourism.

Literature Review

A dormant niche of tourism, i.e. health tourism is burgeoning again as more of its proponents are emerging as well as academia interested to research and explore it (Erfurt-Cooper & Cooper, 2009; Kumar, 2009; Reisman, 2010; Smith & Puczko, 2008; Bodeker & Cohen, 2008; Tresidder, 2011). We can distinguish between its two facets: traditional making use of the thermal and/or mineral
springs for treatment cures, usually the privilege of well-off people in the past and modern, adjusted to the contemporary society’s needs with packages for the mind and body relaxation, wellness spa and yoga centres as well as tourists whose trips are primarily motivated by health recovery involving medical interventions away from the home country. The latter type of tourism, quite controversial for its ethical and moral issues (especially in the case of organs’ harvesting), but a reality of the contemporary society refers to medical tourism. “It differs from other forms of health-based tourism by the fact that the trip or vacation involves some form of medical intervention, which may vary from simple plastic surgery to liver or kidney transplants” (Tresidder, 2011: 266).

Health tourism is a concept centred mainly on resorts designed to pamper or improve the body and relax the mind(www.discovermedicaltourism.com). The rejuvenation experience sought by travellers, the idea of meeting new places and people is even more emphasized by health tourism which involves a self pampering in order to attain a state of well-being and relaxation (Tressider, 2011). As Tressider (2011) states health tourism, besides improving the health and being a reliant upon mineral water and climate has diversified its products across time, spas not being any longer mere places for the undertaking of treatments. The generated by-products refer to the fitness and stress relief, stress management, meditation, retreats, thus combining body pampering, relaxation and wellness offers.

Wellness in the tourism industry relates to natural hot and mineral springs and their benefitting therapeutical effects. The wellness facilities and programmes have become a worldwide attraction, difficult to pinpoint on a temporal scale due to the penury of written records (Erfurt-Cooper and Cooper, 2009). The first spa resort was set up on the shores of the Dead Sea around 25 BC and is associated to Pharaoh Cleopatra and the bathing facilities which the Romans have built later during their expansion period throughout today’s Europe, the Middle East and North Africa. In an etymological study, Korstanje (2007) refers to spas as the Romans’ centres of pleasure, initially built inside Rome and only subsequently dislocated at the city’s outskirts. Thus “an entire chain of villages for leisure purposes [were built] in the outskirts of the big Roman cities, where patricians and noblemen would rest and seek pleasure” (Korstanje, 2007:2).

Subsequent records emerge about a spa’s frequentation, connected to the town Spa in Belgium when in the 14th c. tourists took advantage of the befitting therapy provided by the hot springs of this health resort.
In the 19th c., thermal features became a pretext for travelling or visiting a country or a region, “from where a new tourist fashion emerged which has transformed many localities into pleasure resorts” (Lozato-Giotard 2003:161), a trend which also holds true in the case of Baile Tinca Spa.

Therefore all new health tourism-related emerging trends as well as old ones still target health improvement, this being also the main motivation for travelling in the Baile Tinca Spa (fig. 1), which relies on an older tourist consumption fashion, mineral waters used for the internal and external cure for the body recovery and rejuvenation, a fashion which” is as ancient as pre-history and as up-to-date as tomorrow” (Erfurt-Cooper & Cooper, 2009:1-25).

![Figure 1. Snapshot from Baile Tinca Spa](image)

**Facts and Figures about Health Tourism in Romania**

In the case of Romania, it is also the Romans who have discovered and exploited the beneficial effects of the curative thermal and mineral springs, such reference being made since the Romans’ occupancy period, a fact which enables us to refer to a spa-originated tourist tradition in Romania (Tatar et al., 2008). Official documents about the first spas on the Romanian territory date since the Roman age (Băile Herculane Spa, Geoagiu Băi Spa, Sacelu, Moneasa Spa), mainly known and used for the treatment of rheumatism (Teodoreanu, 2004) and only later re-discovered and properly planned for tourist purposes in the 19th century, as Cianga (2006) emphasizes. Certain spas gained such reputation
at European level so that the water from various mineral springs was bottled and transported to Paris starting with 19th century (Pop et al., 2007). During 1850-1918 more tourist spas start to develop based on their thermal and mineral resources (Slanic Moldova, Tusnad, Govora, Baile Herculane, etc) amounting to 20 spas spread throughout all the Romanian Carpathian range. At present, there are over 160 existing spas (ANT Strategy 2006) with underground thermal and mineral waters, salt mines, sulphurous thermal and mineral springs and a protective bio climate, a fact which renders Romanian spa resorts an ideal place for health improvement, wellness or relaxation (Pop et al., 2007).

The largest international spas, in terms of the accommodation capacity ranging between 2,500 and 8,500 beds are as follows: Băile Felix (6069 beds), Călimănești-Căciulata, Băile Herculane, Sovata, Slănic Moldova, Băile Olănești, Băile Govora, Vatra Dornei, Covasna, Buziaș, nonetheless the spas’ accommodation share is of 14.8% of the entire accommodation capacity of Romania (ANT, 2006:36).

At present Romania boasts one-third of the thermal and mineral water supply of Europe (Pop et al., 2007), some of them unique or very scarce at a European level such as mofetele (natural emissions of carbon dioxide) in the area of the Eastern Carpathians or the sapropelic muds from Lacul Sarat or Techerghiol (ANT, 2006).

Despite the immense quality of waters and natural facilities encouraging health tourism development, it is faced with a continuous drop in the number of accommodation establishments, number of tourists, arrivals and overnights, economic indicators revealed by the charts below. In 2009 the number of beds decreased with 18.2% versus 1999.

By analyzing the two charts referring to the health-tourism production (fig.2) and consumption (fig.3) patterns in Romania relatively constant figures can be recorded on a decade’s time lapse (1999-2009) slightly decreasing from 45 768 in 1999 to 37419 beds in 2009. This feature can be accounted by the fact that the much of the public-owned land and villas of these spas were given back to the rightful private owners by a national policy or due to a status change, the passage from the state to the private or individual exploitation with material interests on the short term or under the management of the Ministry of Tourism whose main purpose was to promote the tourist area for other tourist activities and less the medical profile (Teodoreanu, 2004). The land retrocession also had a positive effect in the sense that many of these hotels started to
upgrade (to 3 and 4 star hotels) in a percentage of 60% or new accommodation units were built (ANT, 2006).

![Dynamics of the number of accommodation places within Romanian spas](chart1.png)

**Figure 2.** Dynamics of the number of accommodation places within Romanian spas (Source: ANT 2006, Romanian Tourism, Statistical Abstract, 2010, INS)

![Dynamics of tourists’ overnights within Romanian spas](chart2.png)

**Figure 3.** Dynamics of tourists’ overnights within Romanian spas (Source: ANT 2006, Romanian Tourism, Statistical Abstract, 2010, INS)

The consumption pattern expressed by the number of overnights follows the same decreasing trend (4624687 in 2009 versus slightly higher values, i.e. 5406773 in 1999). There are more factors accounting for this slow-paced but significant drop nonetheless one major cause would be the low-scale infrastructure investment (ANT, 2006).

An encouraging symptom is also the fact that the occupancy rate in the Romanian resorts was of 48,6% in 2004, a quite high share given the fact that accommodation units are used in a proportion of 50-60% at a world level. The average stay with Romanian health resorts and spas is of 8,1 days which accounts for quite a large share versus other types of tourism unfolding in Romania. This can also be accounted for the fact that people undertaking recuperative treatments, be they retired or youth usually require a longer stay (cca. two weeks) for the cure to pay off. Most of the tourists encountered within Romania’s spas and health resorts are Romanians (93,3%) and foreigners to a very low degree. The overnights follow a fluctuating trend (fig 2), with uprising trends in the case of foreign tourists frequency (ANT, 2006). The tourist generating international markets for this type of tourism are Hungary (26,98%), Germany (19,96%), Israel (18,82%), Austria (5,13%) and Italy (4,03%).
As a concluding remark, emphasized by the ANT (2006) 70% of the tourists from spas and health resorts are over 50% years old and 80% of them come for treatment and cures, the latter remark also holding true for the Baile Tinca Spa (revealed from the interviews with the private stakeholder providing treatment and accommodation facilities on 05.01.2012 ). Another important issue in terms of economic flow is the fact that 50% spend below 100 euros during their stay. Baile Tinca Spa holds a very small share from the health-tourism related production and consumption, namely 319 beds or 0.8% versus the national spa-related accommodation capacity of 37419 beds, thus accounting for its classification as a local interest tourist spa.

The Tourist Product in Baile Tinca Spa

Băile Tinca Spa [geographically set at the intersection of the `46º47' parallel North latitude with the 21º56’ meridian, longitude East] is located in north western Romania at an approximate altitude of 125 m.

It is a local interest tourist spa which follows the linear urban arrangement, being a unipolar and mononuclear (Lozato-Giotard, 2003) spa as the tourists’ prime motivation is treatment and cure, so (health) tourism mainly unfolds within the thermal/mineral establishments, from the treatment facilities to the accommodation units, only rarely engaging into the passive discovery of the receiving region. The spa overlaps the locality’s hearth with a population of 4222 inhabitants (www.kia.hu) and a surface of 141.99 km (Antal, 2008).

The cure features of Tinca Spa consists in mineral water springs (fig.4) used for both the internal and external cure, features also emphasized by Gaceu et al. (2009: 197-198): “The water from the first spring is mineral, sodium bicarbonate, slightly chlorosodic, hypotonic and hypothermal. It is recommended in the internal diet in afflictions of the digestive tract (enterocolitis, gastroenterocolitis, colitis), chronic inflammatory afflictions of the urinary system, urinary lithiasis. The chemical composition of this water is: chlorine (0.07 mg/l), sulphates (620 mg/l), bicarbonate (2220 mg/l), sodium (897.2 mg/l), potassium (45.4 mg/l), calcium (50 mg/l). The fourth spring contains an alkaline sparkling mineral, of the type Vichy-Gelestins with a pleasant taste and crystalline colour. It is recommended in gastrointestinal afflictions, hepatic-biliary ones, acid urinary lithiasis and has a complex xhemical composition: chlorine (246.2 mg/l), brome (0.2 mg/l), iodine (0.37 mg/l), nitrates (0.62 mg/l), sulphates (0.4 mg/l), bicarbonates (3507 mg/l), sodium (1114.6 mg/l), potassium (57.8 mg/l), lithium (0.55 mg/l), magnesium (62 mg/l), iron (2.5 mg/l), amidogen (4.8 mg/l), carbon dioxide (1720 mg/l) and a mineralogy of 6974.44 mg/l).
These water features mainly target certain diseases’ recovery such as rheumatism afflictions, hip diseases, polyarthritis, infertility by the following procedures: thermo-mineral baths; galvanic baths; electrical currents; electrical power; iodized galvanizations; Trabert currents; ultrasounds; magneto-diaflux; massage; medical gymnastics; paraffin wrapping. The cost of 1 procedure ranges between 1,5-2 Euro. Within the study of Gaceu et al. (2009) on a sample of 10 subjects it was emphasized that most afflictions are cured in percentages ranging from 50%-100%.

Health tourism in Baile Tinca is closely connected with the transition periods of the Romanian economy, the arrivals in the resort (1571 arrivals in 2005 and 1037 arrivals in 2009) corresponding strikingly to the state-subsidized treatment coupons (2000 treatment coupons in 2004 and 1100 coupons in 2009) issued by each county’s House of Pensions, a fact also supported by the private stakeholder S.C. Turism Crisul S.A. Tinca. Therefore in this case the resort survives through the allocation of state-subsidized coupons to the elderly for the health improvement. The coupons are distributed (from February-December) through each County’s House of Pensions at the cost of app.1900 RON (euro 437 euro) for 18 days. The price for the coupon varies according to a person’s income, for instance for the pensioners it is half of the pension’s value. From the sample interviews carried out on 05.01.2012 it was emphasized that an elderly whose pension is of 800 RON (184 Euro) enjoyed the benefits of the
trip at the cost of 400 RON (100 euro, 50% of value of the pension) the rest of the value being state-subsidized. It is a standardized (package) product including treatment (4 procedures), accommodation and meals.

Despite the validated positive impact of such treatments, the standardized tourist product appealing a standardized clientele does not seem to be a viable solution to keep the tourism business afloat in Băile Tinca Spa. Standardized tourist products were a commonplace under communist rule in Romania, the tourist production being standardized (conceived so as to sustain domestic mass tourism) and the product undifferentiated (Shaw and Williams, 2004), providing similar facilities and experiences for a collective clientele at a low cost, and Baile Tinca Spa is not exception and continues to rely its business on the same approach. Despite the low fares still practiced by the private stakeholder S.C. Turism Crisul S.A. Tinca (with Romanian and American shares) for treatment (between 1,5-2 Euro/procedure) and accommodation (26 Euro for a twin room) the recuperative cure alone does not seem to appeal to the modern proponents of health tourism, more interested in wellness and prevention treatments, because as Teodoreanu (2004:123) states it is cheaper to prevent than to treat.

As emphasized by Marson (2011) most spa tourism are currently faced with stagnation and in order to prevent decline they could resort to the concept of niche “to refresh their tourist offering and enhance the destination image” (Marson, 2011: 12). Therefore a further fragmentation into supplementary activities could boost tourists’ frequency in Baile Tinca Spa.

In the same context Tressider (2011: 268) asserts that tourism benefits are usually “supplemented by the usual activities of sightseeing, experiencing local culture and enjoying the environment”, an exceptional natural feature which can be visually consumed nearby Tinca Spa being the Daffodils Clearing from Goronişte where “Narcissus augustifolius, the daffodil grows here at the lowest altitude of the country – 100 m spread throughout deciduous forests, in a variable density, from compact areas of 1m-10 m in diameter, up to areas in which the specimens grow secluded” (Cretu et al., 2012). Surrounding Baile Tinca Spa there are many wet areas and swamps, oak and hornbeam forest of extreme importance for the migratory puddle/pool birds, unique and outstanding areas which Romania is attempting to protect in appliance with NATURA 2000, and by its proper set up into a nature park, as proposed by Cretu et al. (2012), these natural assets could complement cure in Tinca Spa. Therefore the main motivation (cure) could be supplemented by niche tourism (eco-tourism) and its sub-
sections (bird watching, etc), and subsequently a shift away from the standardized product would occur.

The turning towards niche tourism (eco-tourists) could also help revitalize the occupancy rate of camp sites which barely hosted 66 arrivals in 2008, an allegedly accommodation establishment in line with eco-tourists lifestyle.

**Life Cycle Concept and Stagnation Heralding Decline in Baile Tinca Spa**

The tourism area life cycle concept belongs to Butler who pioneered it in the tourism studies and which has enjoyed a great debate and application in subsequent valuable tourism studies (some of them gathered within the seminal work *The Tourism area Life Cycle, Vol. 1, Applications and Modifications* accomplished under the thoughtful editorship of Richard W. Butler, 2006), and represents the focal point for the analysis of the current case study.

**Methodology**

Despite the ascertained fact that case studies tend to be biased by the authors’ personal views in the presentation of facts and the carry out of the analysis, nonetheless surmountable when triangulation is taken into account (a combination a range of methodologies, including qualitative and quantitative surveys) (Beeton, 2005), in order not to lack rigour for the research herewith we have attempted to follow the guidelines of a well-designed case study which envisages that it “must be significant, complete, consider alternative perspectives, display sufficient evidence and be composed in an engaging manner” (Beeton, 2005:42).

In this context, for the case study referring to Baile Tinca Spa sample interviews were carried out with the beneficiaries of the afore mentioned state-subsidized treatment coupons as well as quantitative longitudinal data series (from the National Institute of Statistics and form consulting the reference) which aimed mainly tourist production (statistics referring to the accommodation capacity) and the tourist consumption (tourists’ overnights, tourist arrivals) so as to provide a diagnosis of the spa’s current stage and to set forth certain alternatives. The data were selected with a view to illustrate the theory that each spa undergoes a certain dynamic cyclicity, reaching rejuvenation/decline, thus aiming to emphasize the stage this spa has reached. The study limitations refer to the fact that the longitudinal data series are incomplete, with syncope on the time line due to the lack of recorded data furnished by state authorities.
(INS) or the private stakeholder, the sole tourism business provider (S.C. Turism Crisul S.A. Tinca) within Tinca Spa.

The tourism area life cycle (Butler, 2006) or the life span of a resort/spa refers to dynamic stages in the evolution of a resort such as: exploration where the guest – host relationships are established, at this stage irregular visitation patterns occur. At the involvement stage tourist facilities are built, whereas at the development stage the generating markets for tourists will have been identified and advertised, old facilities replaced by newer ones. At the consolidation stage the tourists still exceed the number of local residents. All the capacity levels are reached at the next stage- the stagnation meanwhile heralding some environmental, social and economic problems. From this stage onwards a resort can either witness demise, its decline or rejuvenation if appropriate planning steps are taken.

Results

In the case of Baile Tinca Spa there is a long tradition of health tourism ever since the first improvements of treatment facilities were carried out and which occurred in 1815, a period which is attributable to the exploratory stage. Some study limitations occur here since the statistical data in terms of tourist frequency, despite persistent attempts, could not be obtained. These improvements might have been probably done as a result of the locality’s development since around 1800 it has been raised to the status of town (a status which it does not enjoy at present being a commune). Later, in the year 1895, the facilities were improved and extended, the accommodation facilities holding up to 70 housing possibilities (involvement stage), a food complex, treatment facility equipped with medical devices, medical assistance assured by trained doctors (Gaceu et al., 2009). A product diversification followed in 1983 when nine chalets were built with 58 places which were used only during summer time by the tourists during their holidays or at the end of the week and one year later, still during communist rule, in 1984 a new hotel was built, the accommodation capacity having thus increased to 140 places, nonetheless the spa’s activity was still seasonal (Gaceu et al, 2009).

The communist period started for Romania in 1948; for almost 20 years, Romanian authorities followed the Soviet Union model and gave no special attention to tourism, the change intervened after Romania’s refusal to participate in the military invasion of Czechoslovakia, which triggered a positive attitude of western societies and foreigners towards Romania (Pop et al, 2007). “By
the end of the 1970s Romanian tourism was blooming and the hotel industry appeared to be strong and healthy, in the protected environment offered by communism, as all were state owned (Pop et al, 2007:21)”. This uprising trend is also translated in the increasing numbers of tourists within Baile Tinca Spa, thus in 1985 a number of 6342 tourists could be registered, this period referring to the development stage.

Despite this boom for the tourism industry of Baile Tinca Spa the communist regime brought many drawbacks for the local population, mainly in terms of the people’s free expression of the religious, political and spiritual opinions and beliefs, convictions for which some locals were condemned and deported to the canal for forced labour, a place from where they never returned(www.baile-tinca.bihor.ro).

![Figure 5. Tourists’ arrivals in Baile Tinca Spa during 1985-2010](source: Processed data from the County National Institute of Bihor)

The afore-mentioned development stage is evident in the analysis of the tourists’ arrivals, reaching a climax in 1990 when 8251 arrivals were registered, followed by a drastic drop in 1995 when barely 3066 arrivals could be registered (fig.5). This sudden decrease intervened on the backdrop of the political regime change, i.e. from communism (which favoured a booming domestic tourism) to democracy (creating favourable circumstances for the free mobility of outgoing tourists) as well as other factors such as decaying infrastructure. At the beginning of the 1990s Romanian accommodations looked obsolete, stale, dusty, and sometimes unfriendly. “The fixtures and furniture had not been changed since the mid 1970s and despite minimal renovations, the materials and room designs remained at the same level” (Pop et al., 2007:10). Further-
more the numbers continue to drop since 2000 when 1315 arrivals were registered, stabilizing (with light variations) this number for a 9-year time lapse. The inevitable demise is heralded by the mere 500 arrivals in 2010. Despite the decaying tourist infrastructure people continued to come for treatments within spas. The stagnation stage (stabilizing the tourist flow between 1500-500 arrivals annually) could be a symptom of future decline unless a product diversification is envisaged.

During this analysis a similarity was noticed in the sense that the number of coupons issued by the County House of Pensions almost overlaps the number of arrivals in the spa, an indicator of the fact that health tourism business in Tinca Spa is exclusively state-dependant. Less state-issued treatment coupons translates in less arrivals in the resort (in 2004, 2000 treatment coupons were allocated by the CNPAS, in 2009 there were 1100 coupons allocated Gaceu, 2009).

**Analysis of the Accommodation Supply in Tinca Spa**

The development of accommodation has normally accompanied the growth of resorts (Page, 2003), a fact also illustrated by the chart (fig.4) in reference to Baile Tinca Spa when a new accommodation establishment (Hotel Parc) appeared to the forefront in 2000, creating opportunities for development and later on (in 2007) replacing completely the obsolete accommodation establishments (villas), the latter registering no arrivals since 2007. The accommodation establishments range from villas (functional until 2007), one camp site (witnessing a decrease at present) and one hotel (e.g. The Parc Hotel functional since 2000) which emerges as the most preeminent form of accommodation in the spa, also witnessing the highest occupancy rate (44590 places-days in 2008 and 14000 places-days in 2010 versus the camp site which registered 8494 places-days in 2008 and 0 places/day in 2010 as furnished by the INS, Bihor).

The obsolete form of accommodation (the villas) was replaced with a newer one the Hotel Parc (fig.5) providing initially 182 places at its debut and 70 places more recently, in 2010. Interviews with the private destination stakeholder (S.C. Turism Crisul S.A. Tinca) in the area revealed that even after the treatment premises and the hotel were renovated in 2006, the number of tourists did not revitalize, but on the contrary it is continually dropping. This situation might also be a consequence of the fact that during the current democracy regime the Ministry of Tourism leads a policy which aims to replace the stay for cure with the entertainment one (Teodoreanu, 2004). In this context many treatment facilities within spas decay, in the case of Tinca Spa, deprivation of
any complementary services translates into a lack of appeal for the destination and the destination stakeholders’ attempts, which turned out to be unsuccessful, to revitalize the local tourism product maintains the business afloat but prompts the symptoms of decline.

Figure 4. Accommodation capacity in Baile Tinca Spa

Figure 5. The accommodation establishment with the highest occupancy
In the context in which accommodation is viewed as a tourist product (Page, 2003) the budget hotel (rated with 2 and 3 stars) which “ultimately emphasizes price a key determinant for product formulation” (Page, 2003:167) does not seem to bring any advantage for tourists’ recruitment either. In this context the price of a double room ranges between 20 and 26 Euro/day and the meal 11 Euro/day (Gaceu et al, 2009).

Compared to other resorts which build resort complexes with the hotel/accommodation as key elements around which leisure facilities/activities/events are structured (Page, 2003), an approach which the private stakeholder has also attempted by upgrading the hotel, turned out to be unsuccessful, therefore a further product fragmentation such as niche tourism could be a more viable solution as debated previously.

**Conclusion**

Baile Tinca Spa has the reputation of a local interest tourist spa, its ranking being also given by the small-size scale of tourist production, i.e 0.8% of the entire spa-related accommodation capacity of Romania. Tourist consumption follows the same decreasing pattern, all on the backdrop of a standardized product provided for a collective clientele, the latter assured currently almost exclusively by the state through the state-subsidized treatment coupons. Due to the economic transition process and crises less and less coupons are issued and consequently less arrivals are registered. An important under-capitalized accommodation establishment, the camp sites could be revitalized by a turn towards niche (eco-tourism) tourism as a supplement to health tourism, as the surrounding area holds inestimable natural and avifaunistic assets, some species even threatened at a European level. An underpinning statement of this approach is that tourism motivations and desires have shifted from the old style standardized motivations (providing similar experiences for a collective clientele) towards “experiences that may be more adventurous and meaningful” (Marson, 2011:10).

The stages during the spa’ life span (fig.6) were analyzed through the angle of the accommodation supply and demand, as well as the historical and political circumstances favourable for health tourism in Baile Tinca Spa, levelling or even impeding its development. Thus the exploratory stage started in 1815 with the set up of treatment facilities, followed by an involvement period when the state started to build diverse accommodation establishments ranging from villas, chalets and hotels during 1895-1984. The development stage is emphasized by the large scale tourist arrivals (compared to the locality’s 4222 inhabit-
ants) in the spa, exploding in 1990 when 8251 arrivals were registered. The stagnation stage (stabilizing the tourist flow between 1500-500 arrivals annually on decade’s time span) seems to herald an infallible decline. It is an ascertained fact that destinations are vulnerable to fluctuations (Marson, 2011) in demand therefore spas need to adapt to modern consumers needs and desires and probably Baile Tinca Spa would rejuvenate if it followed this predicament.

Figure 6. Lifecycle of Baile Tinca Spa
Source: authors’ own elaboration based on Butler, 2006 concept

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A Conceptual Study on Recreational Leadership

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Abstract

During the 20th century, recreation has become a major service industry that offers wide-range and diversified activities for people who want to make good use of their leisure time. Therefore, there has been a need for individuals that would form, plan, manage and lead these recreation activities. These individuals are called recreational leaders. This study aims to provide a leadership model by analyzing well known leadership models and theories and factors that are unique to the recreation field. After a comprehensive review of the literature and the factors that are unique to recreation field following results have been reached. Recreational leaders should have the ability to recognize and adapt social, economic and psychological changes before their participants and they need to evaluate their own personality and traits, participants’ characteristics and status, location of the activity, their position in the organization before they decide on a leadership style.

Key words: leadership models, recreation, recreational leadership.

Introduction

Parallel to the developments in the field of industry and technology, the use of free time to create personal and social happiness has become a necessity. So that, in today’s modern societies, the form of recreation activities is seen as a welfare indicator such as safety, income per capita and health. For this reason, the importance given to recreation activities, which enable individuals to renew themselves to carry out their daily duties and responsibilities and provide them personal satisfaction and joy, is increasing day by day. Meeting the recreation needs of the people is perceived as a social responsibility by public institutions, civil organizations, service organizations, commercial investors and business. To form the recreation activities needed, there is a need for individuals who
will form, plan and manage recreational activities. Since the 19th century, recreation leaders have been seen as the pioneers of the service industry.

In order to benefit from recreation activities, effective and efficient utilization of leisure time, providing a variety of activities that people can participate willingly, the presence of a recreational leader that will help, guide and influence people participating those activities are required. In other words, recreational leadership is one of the factors that is essential for the success and continuity of recreation activities.

Although there are many scientific researches and studies regarding leadership in management literature, only a few studies conducted on recreation. In this study, a conceptual examination of recreational leadership will be presented by using the well-known theories of leadership and factors that are unique to the recreation environment.

**Conceptual Framework**

Recreation is defined as the activities that people participate with their free will to feel mentally and physically renewed. Nowadays, both public and private institutions are organizing many different recreation activities to satisfy people with different interests and expectations. As a result of this, recreation organizations diversify their recreation activities according to people’s interests and expectations, and tend to have a complex organizational structure with many branches and departments. This results in an increased importance of the leadership in recreation organizations.

Humans are social beings by nature. They are influenced by each other and affect each other. Individuals, who have higher influential power than others, become leader in a group. Although they might be at different levels, it is possible to say that leadership exists in all human communities. There are natural leaders in game groups, gangs and neighbors whereas in professional life, there are expert leaders with a high degree of technical and administrative knowledge and experience. Unlike in sociology, expert leaders are studied in management literature.

Leadership can be defined as the process of directing a group of people to achieve the objectives of a specific individual or group just by influencing and guiding their activities. As stated before, leadership does not require a formal organization. Leadership naturally occurs when a particular group follows a specific person to accomplish specific goals. The leader is the person who forms
a common purpose for the group members by evaluating their ambiguous thoughts and desires, and directs their efforts to accomplish it.

Recreational leaders have similar responsibilities as organizational leaders. These responsibilities include delivering the joy of being a group member, making them happy to be in that group, directing participants to specific activities and events, and influencing them. Unlike the leaders in management field, recreational leaders have one extra role in social life. This is the role on the development of social capital. Social capital cannot be formed by a single individual. It is formed by groups of people coming together who use same language and norms. It is the network that creates values, mutual support and sense of responsibility among group members. Recreation leaders have an important role in the creation of this network. Rojek (2000) claims that unplanned and purposeless leisure-time activities are among the causative factors of the activities that disrupt social integrity such as drug addiction, alcoholism, the search for dangerous sexuality, violence and murder. In addition, a study conducted on children (Lewin, Lippitt & White, 1938) revealed that when the leadership is not practiced, children exhibit hostile and offensive behaviors and their motivation decreases. Therefore, the presence of a leader’s guidance is seen as a crucial factor in both developing social capital and preservation of peaceful environment in the society. The person that provides this guidance in recreation activities is called “Recreational Leader.”

**Literature Review on Leadership Theories and Recreational Leadership**

In literature, recreational leadership is explained by general leadership theories and approaches (Karaküçük, 2008). Chronologically, these theories and approaches are "Traits Approach", "Behavioral Approach", "Contingency Leadership Theory" and "Modern Leadership Theories" (House & Baetz, 1979). Early studies of the leadership were focused on how to differentiate good leaders from weak leaders. At this stage, this question is raised, "What are the elements that make up an effective leader?”. In this context, the first approach developed in leadership theories was “Traits Approach”. The main aim of the traits approach was to identify and measure the traits of the leaders which separate them from the other group members by creating objective data to identify personal characteristics that enable them to be leaders (Zaccaro, 2007). According to this approach, the traits and personal characteristics that separate the leaders from their followers are “physical qualities” such as appearance, height and weight, “personality traits” such as internal balance, maturity, ability to control surroundings, “personal skills” such as intelligence, analysis and synthesis ca-
pacity, reasoning and judging capabilities, “social skills” such as effective communication, persuasion, ability to influence and negotiation (Mosley, 1998).

Recreation activities are usually carried out by people that have different characteristics and in a wide variety of ways. Therefore, creating a common set of traits for recreational leaders is almost impossible. However, as far as the traits approach concerned, studies suggest that a recreational leader should be honest, fair, very energetic and friendly, and self-confident; should show tolerance to stress; should exhibit a positive attitude towards people; should have the ability to talk and empathize with other people, detailed memory and persuasion power, as well as intelligence, pleasant image and communication skills (Russel, 2001).

Although researches in the management field could not manage to establish a specific traits set for the leaders, traits approach is an important approach for recreational leadership. The researchers admit that it is impossible to establish one specific trait set which can be applied to all leadership styles; but they argue that certain leadership style requires certain personality characteristics and traits (House & Baetz, 1979). For example, a recreation leader working as a dance instructor should be physically flexible, have strong communication and observation skills and be in sync with the group members. On the other hand, a mountaineering instructor should be adventurous, physically strong, confident and inspiring (Gray, 1984).

Traits approach states that leadership consists of skills, abilities and qualifications. However, the research showed that not all the leaders had the same traits. In some occasions, although there were group members who had better traits than the leader, they could not become leader (Stogdill, 1948). These results suggest that to understand the process of leadership fully, it is essential to observe other variables. As a result of these studies, behavioral approach has emerged. In leadership, prominent behavioral approaches are presented in Ohio State, Michigan State, Harvard University, Likert’s system 4 and Blake and Mouton’s Leadership Grid studies (Mosley, 1998). All of these studies aimed to identify and differentiate different kinds of leadership styles by analyzing leaders’ behaviors. Behavioral approach emphasized on three leadership styles. These are namely “Democratic Leadership”, “Autocratic Leadership” and “Laissez-Faire Leadership” (Köktaş, 2004).

Democratic leaders share their power and authority with group members. In this kind of leadership, every single group member has equal voice in planning, supervision and management stages (Foels, Driskell, Mullen & Salas,
Leader works as one of his subordinates and provides guidance. On the other hand, in autocratic leadership, it is just the opposite. Leader does not share leading power with the group members and instead makes all the decisions by himself/herself. His or her relationship with the group members is very limited. Leader does not allow group members to affect his or her decisions. In laissez-faire leadership, leaders give all his power to the group members. This leadership style is appropriate in cases where all the group members are very well-trained and have a high level of expertise (Skogstad, Einarsen, Aasland & Hetland, 2007).

In recreation activities, autocratic leadership style is suitable for the groups that are newly formed or have no or little experience (Russel, 2001). Previous studies showed that when democratic leadership style is practiced on this kind of groups, the ability of decision making decreases and in some cases decisions cannot be made. A study conducted on 10-11 years-old children, tried to analyze the effects of different recreational leadership styles. The results revealed that when autocratic leadership style was practiced, children were loyal to the leader, they exhibited ego-centric behavior and their productivity (the number of hobby projects completed) was very high. On the other hand, when democratic leadership style was practiced on the same children, they were enterprising and friendly, they exhibited responsible behavior and the quality of the hobby projects was much higher than the autocratic leadership style. When the laissez-faire leadership style was practiced, the children exhibited hostile and aggressive behavior, their motivation was low, and hobby tasks were slowly and randomly realized (Lewin, Lippitt & White, 1938).

Based on the behavioral theories of leadership, the following conclusions regarding to the recreational leadership can be reached. If the purpose of the recreation activity is productivity, if participants are not informed about the recreation activity and have different expectations, if the desired outcome is the completion of recreation activity without any deviations from the plans, “autocratic leadership”; if the participants have a shared vision and expectations, and if a quality experience is desired, “democratic leadership”; if the participants have great adaptability and high level of knowledge and expertise, “laissez-faire leadership” would be more appropriate (Singer, 1972).

The researches, which are conducted in the recreation field, have shown that behavioral approach to the leadership cannot be used in all recreation areas. A study conducted by Danielson, Zelhart and Drake in 1975 aimed to prove that sport coaching was an autocratic leadership practice (Danielson, Zelhart &
Drake, 1975). However, the findings of the research conducted on 160 middle school and high school students were contradictory. It showed that coaching was not only an autocratic leadership practice but it also comprises of a communication process focused on the players’ development and had a democratic side. Since the results of the study revealed that there is no pure autocratic or democratic leadership style, newer studies in recreational leadership have focused on Blake and Mouton’s leadership grid studies (Russel, 2001). According to Blake and Mouton, the best way to practice leadership is not to be only autocratic or democratic but being both at the same time (Martin, Cashel, Wagstaff & Breunig, 2006).

Contingency leadership theory is one of the other main leadership theories. This theory suggests that leader’s behaviors and characteristics are shaped by the situation that leader is in. Therefore, the leadership style which is practiced by the leader depends on the situation. In other words, there is no single leadership style that is suitable for all situations.

![Figure 1. Conditions shaping the leadership style](image-url)

Source: Kılıç, 2003, p.48

As shown in the Figure 1, the conditions that determine the type of the leadership are characteristics of the purpose, leader’s personality and experience, superiors’, peers’ and followers’ expectations and behaviors, and organizational climate (Kılıç, 2003, p.48). Fiedler’s Leadership Theory, Vroom and
Yetton’s Normative Leadership Theory, House and Mitchell’s Theory of Path and Goal, Hersey and Blanchard’s Life Cycle Theory can be given as examples of Contingency leadership theories (Graeff, 1983).

According to this theory, leadership is a dynamic process which changes from situation to situation and participant to participant. Situational factors such as the group members’ characteristics and their objectives and environmental factors such as the conditions of the playground can affect leader’s behaviors and actions (Eren, 2009). This aspect of contingency theories can be adapted to recreational leadership since recreation activities could take place in a wide variety of places and ways. For instance, being a good football team captain does not mean that he or she can be a good leader at a fitness centre. Also the leadership style which is suitable for a new group of participants would not be suitable for an experienced group (Kozak & Yüncü, 2008). The leadership style that is practiced in the beginning of the recreation activity would not be the same at the end. In the field of recreation, leadership styles need to be changed according to situations, participants’ level of maturity and environmental conditions. Thus, leadership in recreation activities should be varying according to conditions (Karaküçük, 2008).

Recent studies of the recreational leadership are addressed with new and modern leadership approaches. The first approach developed under the modern leadership theories is called “Charismatic Leadership”. It was first put forward by Max Weber, and then developed by Robert House in 1976. According to this approach, leader exhibits his or her personal qualities and behavior pattern in such balanced and systematic way, this exhibition puts him in a privileged place in the eyes of group members. Members trust him and embrace his or her ideals as their own. According to Bass (1990), Martin Luther King, Jr. Mahatma Gandhi and John F. Kennedy are the examples of charismatic leaders. In the field of recreation, world-wide known artists, actors, sportsmen are dragging millions of people and influencing them with their charisma. Therefore, they exhibit good examples of charismatic leadership.

One of the goals of recreation activities is to ensure continuity of recreation activities in participants’ life. In other words, recreational leaders do not just want participants to complete a certain recreation activity. Most of the time, they want to create a change in participants’ life by the means of recreation activities (Martin, Cashel, Wagstaff & Breunig, 2006). Therefore, transformational leadership has been adopted by many recreation leaders in their fields.
Due to its nature, recreation is a service. Therefore, it is the most appropriate field to practice servant leadership. Servant leaders see humans as the most advanced and respectful beings on Earth. For this reason, leadership practices have to benefit humans and their nature. Servant leader displays the determination and effort to do whatever necessary for the social and financial welfare of his followers (Fındıkçı, 2009). As far as the history of recreation is concerned, it can be seen that many people fit in the definition of servant leader. Many recreation pioneers such as Lee, Gulick, Enderis, and Hill have shown the best examples of servant leadership. Setting off to alleviate the hardships of the slaves and the young, and to entertain them, Joseph Lee, with the recreation organization he formed, has become a role model for the USA and proved the efficiency and the necessity of recreation for society. Later, he expanded his organization with the help of the government, and assured the society that creating recreational areas is necessary for people to spend their spare time efficiently (Russel, 2001).

As recreational leadership changes according to leaders’ traits, behaviors, and relationships with group members and conditions, it also changes according to the position of the leader in recreation organization. For instance, it is impossible for a lower level activity leader to demonstrate an autocratic leadership style with reward and punishment practices. Therefore, it would be useful to explain how leadership styles are shaped in different levels of recreation organizations.

Nowadays, recreation activities are no longer activities that are carried out by individuals. It is a major service product that is provided by public agencies and private companies in an organized matter (Karaküçük, 2008). Therefore, in the field of recreational leadership, leadership styles vary according to the position of leader in the organization, leader’s responsibilities and expectations of the participants (Thompson, 2010). Unlike the past, today’s recreational leaders have to take into account the hierarchical positions as well as other factors. Figure 2 shows the types of leadership styles in different levels of recreation organizations. Despite the absence of standardized job descriptions, it is possible to establish common characteristics for recreational leaders working in different levels.
In the lower levels of a recreation organization hierarchy, there are leaders that provide services directly to participants. These leaders have one to one contact with the people that recreation organization serves (Little & Watkins, 2004). They should have detailed technical knowledge and skill about the recreation activity. They are also known as activity leaders. Tennis coaches, dance instructors and tour guides can be given as examples of activity leaders. These leaders should have good communication and social skills so they can unite the participants around certain goals and ideas (Köktaş, 2004). Also they play trainer, motivator, consulter roles while leading their followers (Russel, 2001).

Main factor that determines the leadership style of an activity leader is the participants’ knowledge, skills and motivation levels. Normally activity leaders follow three stages when implementing their leading strategies. In the first stage, leader undertakes the designer role. By evaluating the participants’ knowledge, experience and motivation, leader designs the team tasks, and identify the needed material and equipment for the activity. At the second stage, leader assumes the role of creative leader. This role is important after the team has been established. At this stage, performance goals are determined with the team members and team’s decision making and ability to take action is evaluated. At the third and final stage, leader assumes the coaching role. He/she only observes and leads team in the right direction if necessary (Martin, Cashel, Wagstaff & Breunig, 2006).

The leaders located in the middle level of the recreation organizations hierarchy are called “Supervisory Recreational Leaders”. The basic function of the-
The main difference between the recreational leaders and organizational leaders is that their followers. The followers of a recreational leader are volunteers. Therefore, they do not have any concerns regarding monetary gain or profit. Since the participants of recreation activities are volunteers, it is not hard to motivate them. However if the motivation of the leader is lower than the
participant, it may create dissatisfaction among recreation activity participants. Also unlike organizational leaders, recreational leaders do not have any authority over their followers. Thus, recreational leaders depend on their personal qualities and traits more than organizational leaders do. As far as the traits concerned, recreational leaders should be honest, fair, energetic, self-confident, tolerant, positive, and intelligent people with advanced communication skills, motivation and persuasive powers (Kozak & Yüncü, 2008; Russel, 2001).

Another theory which is often used in examining recreational leaders is “Behavioral Leadership Theories”. Studies that are conducted within the scope of this theory state that there are three leadership styles namely “Autocratic”, “Democratic” and “Laissez-Faire” leadership (Foels, Driskell, Mullen & Salas, 2000; Martin, Cashel, Wagstaff & Breunig, 2006). Organizational leaders’ behaviors are basically determined by their organization’s goals and objectives whereas recreational leaders’ behaviors are determined by participants. According to this theory, if the participants’ aim is productivity, and if they are not knowledgeable about the recreation activity “autocratic leadership”, if the participants have a shared vision and a common goal and if they expect quality experience “democratic leadership”, if participants are compiled and have high level of experience and knowledge about the recreation activity “laissez-faire leadership” would be appropriate (Singer, 1972).

Recreation groups are not always composed of individuals who have similar characteristics and goals. Therefore, recreational leaders should be able to measure each and every participant’s level of maturity, experience, skills and abilities and should demonstrate leadership styles accordingly. As a result of this, a pure autocratic, democratic or laissez-faire leadership style cannot be practiced in recreation activities. It is more appropriate for the recreational leaders to adapt a leadership style that can be used in different situations (Jordan, 1999).

As a result, recreation leaders need to evaluate their own personality and traits, participants’ characteristics and status, location of the activities, and their position in the organization, before they decide to practice a certain leadership style. As in the past, creativity, ability to adapt new situations, willingness, sensitivity and being energetic are the noticeable features of successful recreational leaders. However, today’s recreational leaders cannot be autocratic as the early recreational leaders used to be. Today, they rather undertake the role of facilitator, assistant and enabler. Recreational leaders should be able to internalize the improvements and changes before participants and be able to reflect them in
their behaviors. Thus, recreational leaders need to embrace transformational leadership. Inability to recognize and adapt to social, economic and psychological changes poses a great threat for recreational leaders. In today’s world, the leaders leading recreation services need to be ready to adapt new changes and help others to adapt these changes.

References


Improving Consumer Experience at Food Festivals

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Abstract

The paper analyses consumer experiences applied on a single-case study. The “Future Food Camp” (FFC) in Aalborg, Denmark, is investigated by qualitative research methods. An approach is introduced that combines the fields of food festival, food tourism and experience economy theories. The analysis consists of a two-dimensional construct based on the conceptions of interaction, senses and memories. Results show how friendship can become an important aspect for a visitor’s personal environment in food festivals. Additionally, a broader definition for the term memorabilia is proposed. The findings illustrate how consumer experiences can increase the attractiveness of food events. Main difficulties for the organisers comprise the challenge to expand the event, making it attractive for a broader audience, involving both locals and tourists.

Key words: food festival, experience economy, interaction, senses, memories.
Introduction

The central focus of this paper is consumers' food festival experiences. The original idea came from a proposal of the Danish regional tourism development organisation VisitNordjylland (VNJ) as a challenge to establish a network among small regional food festivals to gain more visibility, attract more visitors emphasising the local factor of high quality and developing a national or even international appeal. The decision to focus on consumer experience at a food festival shaped the paper as a case study about the Future Food Camp (FFC), a food festival held in the cultural centre Nordkraft in Aalborg, Denmark, November 2011. The results of the paper indicate how knowledge about participants’ wishes might help to develop the FFC further, in terms of expanding the event and attracting tourists. Since getting a better understanding of consumers' behaviour is important for VNJ, it was decided to investigate aspects of social togetherness, sense stimulation and learning process during the food festival. Therefore the central inquiry of the research is: What characterises consumers’ experiences at food festivals and how can these theoretical and empirical discussions improve the FFC as an attraction for visitors? The answer will be facilitated with the aid of the following sub-questions:

- How does the co-creation of the event affect visitors' experience?
- How are senses' stimulation and memories involved?

Methodology

This paper is based on a combination of a phenomenological and a hermeneutic approach. The hermeneutic circle (Collin & Køppe, 2008) is essential while answering the problem formulation. Originally the focus was consumer behaviour and motivation, but due to the hermeneutic circle the further knowledge about the visitors changed and the focus was narrowed down to experiences. The two dimensions (and the sub questions), the social and the individuals, were also highlighted because of the hermeneutic process, where knowledge was developed through empirical collection. It can be important to consider social constructivism, which represents perceptions of the world in first person perspective, created by societal processes (Collin & Køppe, 2008).

Case study

The FFC is examined as a single-case study (Yin, 2009; Bryman, 2008). It can be categorised as a “unique case” (Yin, 2009; Bryman, 2008), which represents a situation that comprises characteristics and conditions, which cannot be observed
at other events in that way. FFC is based on the monthly-organised market in Nordkraft. Yet, this time, the organisers enabled workshops and booths that differentiated the festival from the regular market. The attempt by VNJ to develop a farmers’ market into a food festival, as in the example of the FFC, is still in progress, which is why characteristics of the FFC are neither those of a pure farmers’ market nor of a common food festival. Additionally, limitations in time, size and finances made it very difficult comparing the FFC to other food events in North Jutland or beyond that.

**Methodology**

The cross-analysis of the data will be based on meaning condensation (Kvale, 1996). The research methods were participant observation and interviews. During the observations the observers did not interfere with the setting in order to get an impression of natural behaviour at the FFC (Bryman, 2008). The observers’ role in approaching people at the FFC was like Gold’s *observer-as-participant* (Bryman, 2008, p. 410), where the observers mostly functioned as an interviewer. 20 short semi-structured interviews, lasting 5-12 minutes, were conducted during the FFC, with interviewees aged between 16 and 72. They were randomly chosen. The purpose of the short interviews was useable in order to get a broad overview about visitors’ experiences during the FFC and to identify their motivations, expectations/satisfaction and improvement/loyalty. The 5 in-depth interviews were held in order to gain deeper knowledge about the visitors experience at the FFC, and were held three weeks after the event. All the interviewees attended the FFC and were all in their 20ies. The themes selected for the interviews were: memories, engagement of the senses, interaction (level of involvement during the festival), social aspect (interaction with other guests) and attraction. These themes cover the sub questions and their two dimension of social and individual.

**Theory**

Four main concepts of consumer-consumer interaction, consumer-producer interaction, senses and memories are discussed within experience economy and assigned to a two-folded dimension. Both concepts of interaction comprise the social dimension, while senses and memories are assigned to the individual dimension. The learning aspect, highlighted in the paper through the work of Csikszentmihalyi (1975), involves the individual and the social. It is shown as an own conception cutting through the other ones.
Consumer-consumer interaction focuses on the importance of the personal surrounding of the consumer and the individual’s activity. The two concepts of experiencing by being and doing (Ek, Larsen, Hornskov & Mansfeldt, 2008) and the experiencing by gazing (Urry, 2002) are confronted with each other. Moreover, it is highlighted that the creation of an experience depends to a certain degree also on the consumers. The organisers are not able to create and give the event tout court to the participants, instead it is the interaction among participants that determines the creation of the event (Andersson, Larson & Mossberg, 2009). Finally, the experience room is analysed itself, as the surrounding has an impact on the feeling of the individual Andersson, Larson & Mossberg, 2009).

For the consumer-producer interaction, the learning aspect emerges. It plays a key role in creating the experience and one main idea of experience economy is to encourage consumers to learn and engage themselves in the interaction process. A focus is put on the self-change for the individual. It is explained how consumer-producer interaction changes consumers’ personal considerations and how this leads to a learning outcome. Finally, it concerns consumers’ challenges resultant from the interaction with the producer (Csikszentmihalyi, 1975).

Concerning senses, it is shown how these can be used in order to create a stronger experience. From this general point of view, the significance of multi-sensuous experiences is examined. As different authors (Ek et al., 2008; Urry, 2002; Waade & Jørgensen, 2010) claim that multi-sensuous experiences lead to a more intense experience, it is essential for proof. Finally, it is analysed how outer stimuli of senses lead to reflections of the individual and whether this has a learning effect on the consumer.

Boswijk, Thijssen and Peelen (2007) illustrate the importance of memorabilia during the consumer process, which is investigated in the analysis. Besides that, also the correlation between senses, experiences and the learning aspect about a certain product is investigated. This idea is based on the basic principle of Boswijk et al. (2007), who argue that there is a relationship between senses, emotions and memorable experiences. For the analysis, additionally the learning aspect is incorporated in order to see whether learning about something involves senses and emotions and leads hence to a memorable experience.

Figure 1 illustrates the theoretical tool of this paper visually:
Results

The findings of the analysis is summarised according to the four aspects of the theoretical framework.

Consumer-consumer interaction

Regarding the interaction among participants, several of the examined theories have found a confirmation. For instance:

- The presence of crowd can be a problematic element and should not be underestimated.
- Experiencing by doing and being is superior to experiencing by gazing.
- Participants manifest a desire to be active.
- Experiencing a food festival has analogies with co-creating a staged event.
- The organisers cannot give an event; it is the combination of the interaction among the participants and their engagement that creates the event itself.
- The food event is not a static phenomenon but rather a flow extended in time and space.
• Some new elements emerged from the interviews could extend the theoretical setting:
• Experiencing with a friend lengthens the stay at the event and enhances the level of personal engagement in activities.

**Consumer-producer interaction**

• The co-creation activities exist on different levels, from the dialogue with producers to total immersion into physical preparation of food.
• The visitors were pleasantly surprised to found out that the monthly food market was turned into a festival and that they were able to bring home not only food but also knowledge and experience, showing appreciation in being actively engaged.

The findings of the case study show that the customers want more than just to browse and buy goods at food festival like FFC. Specifically, they want:
• A good way of getting information about the food products with direct contact with producers.
• To have bigger variety in activities in which they can interact.
• To be more challenged.
• To broaden their horizon and be inspired to cook differently at home.

**Senses**

• All five senses shall be engaged in order to have a strong and memorable experience.
• The consumers are aware of their senses’ engagement, but many do not reflect on the multi-sensuous aspect of the event.
• Sight and taste were the senses involved the most. The sight generates first-hand impressions in visitors and can inspire association with previous experiences or make them react to what they see in a positive or negative way. The taste gives the consumers the opportunity to try new products and can modify consumers’ normal food habits, helping them to learn something new.
• Hearing, touch and smell were not particularly stimulated in the interviewees and therefore can be argued that the organisers could improve the festival in order to provide a stronger and more memorable experience.
Memories

- The acquisition of a product becomes a memorable experience, while it simultaneously shapes the actual experience. Besides that, interaction is essential for the acquisition of products or memorabilia.

- Finally, the paper considers the learning aspect as a form of memorabilia, which is new for the study of Boswijk et al. In the example of the FFC most visitors learned something through the workshop, where they took away the memorabilia of learning. The results indicate that a correlation between senses, emotions, memorable experiences and the learning aspect might exist. However, a follow-up study is necessary in this context.

Summarised can be said that this section contributes to the existent literature through two new findings concerning memorabilia. Both concepts consumer-producer interaction and the learning aspect provide an informative basis that they could be included into the principles for a memorable experience, as described by Boswijk et al. (2007). Yet, further research about these conceptions is necessary in order to proof these findings.

Conclusion

The paper contributes to the existent literature in the following way:

- Experiencing a food festival with a friend extends the stay at the event and enhances the level of personal engagement in activities.

- Consumer-producer interaction showed that activities exist on different levels, from the dialogue to the preparation of food.

- The interaction is also a possibility to get more information about food directly from the producers.

- Co-creation broadens the horizon of visitors and they are inspired to cook at home.

- Senses affect a process of decision-making concerning the purchase of the product.

- Memories, consumer-producer interaction, consumer-consumer interaction and the learning aspect were considered as possible forms of memorabilia and can lead to a memorable after-experience.
Based on the interviews some suggestions to VNJ were made:

- Make the event bigger by using more space.
- Provide variation of activities similar to the food workshop.
- Include more raw ingredients like fresh fruits and vegetables.
- Arrange surprising performances like food theatres and food concerts to create a sense of novelty.
- Invite more famous chefs and celebrities.

All these aspects can be contemplated in order to make the food festival experience become stronger to the consumers and hereby improving the FFC.

References


Perceived Tourism Impacts and the Desire for Tourism

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Abstract
This study examined the effects of three separate tourism impacts variables on resident desire for additional tourism development in their community. Socio-cultural, economic, and environmental impacts were all hypothesized to negatively influence resident desire for tourism. Seven communities in Colorado (n = 298) were included in the on-site survey study. Results from a structural equation model indicated that only the socio-cultural impacts dimension was a significant predictor of desired tourism. Implications for further research and tourism practitioners are discussed.

Key words: tourism impacts, tourism development, desired tourism.

Introduction
Tourism is viewed as a means of development by many communities in Colorado, however, social, cultural, economic, and environmental impacts are often a result of such tourism development. Many studies have shown the extent to which communities support tourism development is in large part a function of the impacts they perceive (Andereck & Vogt, 2000; Cottrell & Vaske, 2006; Gursoy, Jurowski, & Uysal, 2002; Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004; Harrill & Potts, 2003; Jurowski, Uysal, & Williams, 1997; Lankford & Howard, 1994; Long, Perdue, & Allen, 1990; Mason & Cheyne, 2000; Perdue, Long, & Allen, 1987; Perdue, Long, & Allen, 1990; Yoon, Gursoy & Chen, 2001). There is some disagreement as to
which perceived impacts influence the desire for tourism. The purpose of this research is to explore the influence of socio-cultural, economic, and environmental impacts on residents’ desire for additional tourism development in their communities.

**Literature Review**

Social exchange theory is employed in this study as a means of understanding how residents exchange social, cultural, economic, and environmental resources. The theory, when applied to tourism development, states that residents will support further tourism development if an exchange with tourists supplies them with a net benefit (Yoon et al., 2001). In tourism literature this has classically taken the form of exchanging economic benefit for negative social and environmental impacts (Harrill, 2004). Previous research has often employed this theory when studying the effects of tourism impacts on resident desire for tourism development (Gursoy et al., 2002; Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004; Perdue et al., 1987; Perdue et al., 1990; Harrill, 2004; Jurowski et al., 1997).

Previous research in Colorado has demonstrated that residents were in favor of additional tourism development when impacts were perceived as positive. Conversely, residents were not in favor of additional tourism development when impacts were perceived as negative (Perdue et al., 1987; Perdue et al., 1990). Other research has likewise shown that perceived benefits and perceived costs are related to resident support for tourism (Gursoy et al., 2002). More specifically, Gursoy and Rutherford (2004) demonstrated that, among other variables, economic, social, and cultural impacts affected resident support for tourism. Similarly, a study in Virginia demonstrated that economic, social, cultural, and environmental impacts all indirectly influenced residents’ support for tourism (Yoon et al., 2001). In addition, many studies show that the economy and economic impacts have a larger influence than other impact variables on the desire for tourism development (Cottrell & Vaske, 2006, Gursoy et al., 2002; Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004; Harrill & Potts, 2003; Jurowski et al., 1997; Lankford & Howard, 1994; Yoon et al., 2001).

Based on the previous research the following hypotheses are proposed. See Figure 1 for a graphical representation of the proposed hypotheses.

- **H1** – As negative perceptions of socio-cultural impacts increase, the support for additional tourism development will decrease.
- **H2** – As negative perceptions of economic impacts increase, the support for additional tourism development will decrease.
- H3 – As negative perceptions of environmental impacts increase, the support for additional tourism development will decrease.

![Model showing the hypothesized influence of tourism impacts on desired tourism.](image)

**Figure 1.** Model showing the hypothesized influence of tourism impacts on desired tourism.

**Methodology**

Data for this study were obtained from surveys of residents of seven communities in Colorado including Loveland, Boulder, Golden, Morrison, Idaho Springs, Breckenridge, and Aspen. On-site surveys were distributed to residents in community centers, public areas, and private residences in October and November of 2010. Of the 390 surveys distributed, a total of 298 were returned giving a response rate of 76%.

A total of four concepts were examined: socio-cultural impacts, economic impacts, environmental impacts, and desired tourism. Statements used to construct the concepts were adapted from the tourism impact attitude scale (TIAS) and existing literature (Lankford & Howard, 1994; Long et al., 1990).
Resident socio-cultural impact was constructed from four variables designed to measure perceived social and cultural costs of tourism development in their community. Respondents indicated their level of agreement with the following four statements:

1. Tourism has caused local tension toward tourists.
2. Tourism growth has increased crowding in our community.
3. Tourism has negatively changed our traditional community culture.
4. Tourists negatively affect our community’s way of life.

All four statements were coded on a 5-point scale ranging from “strongly agree” (2) to “strongly disagree” (-2).

A scale measuring the extent to which residents perceive negative economic impacts due to tourism development was constructed from two variables. Respondents indicated their level of agreement with the following two statements:

1. Tourism has resulted in an increased cost of living in our community.
2. I feel that prices have increased due to tourism.

Both statements were coded on a 5-point scale ranging from “strongly agree” (2) to “strongly disagree” (-2).

Residents’ perceived environmental impacts were constructed from five variables designed to measure perceived environmental costs of tourism development in their area. Respondents indicated their level of agreement with the following five statements:

1. Tourism in my community has caused an increase in litter.
2. Tourism in my community has caused an increase in noise pollution.
3. Tourism in my community has caused an increase in air pollution.
4. Tourism in my community has caused an increase in light pollution.
5. Tourism in my community has caused an increase in water pollution.

All five statements were coded on a 5-point scale ranging from “strongly agree” (2) to “strongly disagree” (-2).

The concept measuring the extent to which residents desired additional tourism in their communities was constructed from 4 variables. Respondents indicated their level of agreement with the following four statements:

1. I would like to see an increase in tourism development in this community.
2. I would like to see more tourists visit this community.
3. There are too many tourists in this area.
4. I hope the amount of tourists will gradually decrease in this community.

Statements 3 and 4 were recoded to reflect a desire for additional tourism. All five statements were coded on a 5-point scale ranging from “strongly agree” (2) to “strongly disagree” (-2).

To determine the internal consistency of the four concepts being tested a reliability analysis was conducted using SPSS for Windows. Cronbach’s alpha scores were reported for each concept. In addition, a confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to test if the socio-cultural impacts, economic impacts, environmental impacts, and desired tourism constructs were a good fit to the data. Finally, a structural equation model was employed to test the predictive validity of each of the three impacts variables in the model. Both the confirmatory factor analysis and the structural equation model used LISREL 8.80 student version.

Results

The mean scores demonstrated general disagreement with most of the socio-cultural impacts ($M < -.12, SD < 1.02$ in all but one case, Table 1). Most residents agreed that economic and environmental impacts were present in their communities ($M > .05, SD < 1.24$ in all cases). On average, residents desired additional tourism in their communities ($M > .04, SD < 1.26$ in all cases).

Reliability analysis supported the combination of each of the impacts constructs. The Cronbach’s alpha for socio-cultural impacts was .70, for economic impacts .82, and for environmental impacts .87 (Table 1). The desired tourism construct was also reliable ($\alpha = .77$).

Confirmatory factor analysis revealed that the data provided an acceptable fit to the socio-cultural impacts, economic impacts, environmental impacts, and desired tourism constructs. The socio-cultural impacts and desired tourism statements all had standardized factor loadings above .50 and standard errors below .75 (Table 1). The two economic impacts statements as well as the environmental impacts statements had higher standardized factor loadings (above .72) and lower standard errors (below .48).
Table 1. Items measuring socio-cultural impacts, economic impacts, environmental impacts, and desired tourism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>$M$</th>
<th>$SD$</th>
<th>Standardized factor loading</th>
<th>$SE$</th>
<th>$t$ Value$^a$</th>
<th>$\alpha$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Socio-cultural impacts</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism has caused local tension toward tourists</td>
<td>-.12</td>
<td>.95</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td>.75</td>
<td>8.11</td>
<td>.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism growth has increased crowding in our community</td>
<td>.21</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>.58</td>
<td>.66</td>
<td>9.74</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism has negatively changed our traditional community culture</td>
<td>-.39</td>
<td>.90</td>
<td>.69</td>
<td>.52</td>
<td>11.96</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourists negatively affect our community’s way of life</td>
<td>-.60</td>
<td>.84</td>
<td>.68</td>
<td>.54</td>
<td>11.73</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Economic Impacts</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism has resulted in an increased cost of living in our community</td>
<td>.30</td>
<td>1.23</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td>.36</td>
<td>12.26</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel that prices have increased due to tourism</td>
<td>.27</td>
<td>1.32</td>
<td>.87</td>
<td>.24</td>
<td>13.13</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Environmental Impacts</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism has caused an increase in litter</td>
<td>.38</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td>.72</td>
<td>.48</td>
<td>13.78</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism has caused an increase in noise pollution</td>
<td>.24</td>
<td>1.23</td>
<td>.74</td>
<td>.45</td>
<td>14.25</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism has caused an increase in air pollution</td>
<td>.23</td>
<td>1.18</td>
<td>.74</td>
<td>.45</td>
<td>14.25</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism has caused an increase in light pollution</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>.79</td>
<td>.38</td>
<td>15.52</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism has caused an increase in water pollution</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>.79</td>
<td>.37</td>
<td>15.70</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Desired Tourism</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I would like to see an increase in tourism development in this community</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td>.54</td>
<td>.71$^b$</td>
<td>10.59</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I would like to see more tourists visit this area</td>
<td>.22</td>
<td>1.19</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td>.75$^b$</td>
<td>11.37</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There are too many tourists in this area$^c$</td>
<td>.55</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>.75</td>
<td>.44</td>
<td>7.61</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I hope the amount of tourists will gradually decrease in this community$^c$</td>
<td>.54</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td>.69</td>
<td>.53</td>
<td>7.46</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* All statements were coded on a 5-point scale ranging from “strongly agree” (2) to strongly disagree (-2).

$^a$ All $t$ values significant at $p<.001$.

$^b$ These errors were allowed to correlate giving a standard error of .51.

$^c$ These items were reverse coded.
Seven indicators suggest an overall good fit for the structural equation model ($\chi^2 = 153.39, p < .001; \chi^2 /df = 1.85; $ $\text{RMSEA} = .053; \text{GFI} = .94; \text{CFI} = .98; \text{NFI} = .96; \text{RMR} = .065, \text{Figure 2}$). The model reveals that socio-cultural impacts had a significant negative effect on desired tourism ($\beta = -.63, p < .05$). Both economic impacts and environmental impacts had negative effects on desired tourism but were not significant. Overall, the model explained 49% of the variance in the desired tourism construct ($R^2 = .49$).

Figure 2. Model showing the influence of tourism impacts on desired tourism.

Asterisk indicates significant at $p < .05$. $\chi^2 (83, n = 298) = 153.39, p < .001; \chi^2 /df = 1.85; \text{RMSEA} = .053; \text{GFI} = .94; \text{CFI} = .98; \text{NFI} = .96; \text{RMR} = .065.$

**Conclusion**

The results only supported the first hypothesis; as negative perceptions of socio-cultural impacts increased, the support for additional tourism development decreased. Economic and environmental impacts did not significantly influ-
ence resident desire for additional tourism. This is in contrast to previous research in this area which shows economic impacts as the main predictor of the desire for additional tourism development (Cottrell & Vaske, 2006, Gursoy et al., 2002; Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004; Harrill & Potts, 2003; Jurowski et al., 1997; Lankford & Howard, 1994; Yoon et al., 2001).

The range of communities selected in this study may have influenced these results. Comparing a community with a high degree of tourism like Aspen with Loveland, an area with very little tourism, may cause for variability in the data. Perhaps, Colorado residents as a whole value their communities’ social and cultural resources more than other communities in previous studies. More qualitative studies may be needed in this area to better understand exactly why residents support or do not support tourism development in their community.

A major limitation to this study is the sample size. The sample is not large enough to generalize findings to Colorado as a whole. Likewise, the sample for each individual community is too small to statistically show differences. Future research showing differences at the community level would be valuable for a better understanding of how impacts are perceived in communities with differing levels of tourism development.

The results of this study should be valuable to tourism practitioners. Findings from the studied communities suggest that social and cultural costs are a major determinant of public acceptance of further tourism development. Though other studies have shown that all impacts variables are important, this research highlights the particular importance of social and cultural impacts in the communities studied. Communicating efforts to reduce the impacts to socio-cultural resources is one method of building public support and acceptance of tourism development in these areas.

References


Influence of Place Attachment on Resident Perceptions of Tourism

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Abstract

This research explored the connections between place attachment and resident perceptions of tourism. Aspects of place attachment such as place identity and place dependence were tested against tourism dependence for strength of correlation and relationship to perceived impacts of tourism. Survey data were collected from residents of eight communities in Colorado. The researcher hypothesized that there would exist a positive relationship between place dependence and place identity, as well as a negative relationship between place identity and tourism impacts. Results from this research show that place dependence has a direct effect on place identity ($\beta = .61, p < .001$). Place identity was found to have a significant effect on a variety of tourism impacts.

Key words: place attachment, residents’ perceptions, place identity, tourism impacts.

Introduction

The use of tourism for economic development has become a popular strategy for many communities. However, many residents risk the very attributes which make their community special by accepting increasing amounts of tourism de-
velopment. Without proper planning, tourism development could ultimately lead to a loss of sense of place for many community members. The purpose of this research is to explore the influence of place attachment on impacts of tourism and resident desire for additional tourism.

This research combines two theoretical perspectives currently employed in the tourism literature: community attachment and social exchange theory (Harril & Potts, 2003). Community attachment states that the more attached residents are to their community, the more negative they are about tourism development (Um & Crompton, 1987; Harrill, 2004). Social exchange theory involves the trading of community resources. In the tourism literature, this usually takes the form of trading positive economic benefits for negative social and environmental impacts (Harrill, 2004). Social exchange theory posits that when there exists a high degree of resource exchange, impacts are viewed positively by residents. Conversely, when the rate of resource exchange is low, impacts are viewed negatively by residents (Ap, 1992). For example, if a community received a high degree of economic stimulation via tourism as a result of a new hotel construction, even though the new construction caused a substantial amount of traffic and congestion, the impacts would still be viewed positively.

**Literature review**

The bonds that form between people and places have often been studied from a variety of perspectives. The connection has been termed ‘sense of place’ (Tuan, 1977), ‘place bonding’ (Hammitt, Backlund, & Bixler, 2004), ‘community attachment’ (McCool & Martin, 1994) and ‘place attachment’ (Moore & Graefe, 1994; Williams & Roggenbuck, 1989). Place attachment is defined in environmental psychology as an emotional or cognitive connection between a person and a particular place (Altman & Low, 1992). Place attachment is typically broken down into two separate concepts of place identity and place dependence (Williams & Vaske, 2003; Williams & Roggenbuck, 1992; Williams & Roggenbuck, 1989). The concept of place identity refers to an emotional attachment to a specific area (Williams & Roggenbuck, 1989). The specific feeling one gets from returning home after a long journey serves as an adequate example. In this study, place identity is similarly conceptualized by how strongly residents feel attached to and identify with their community.

The concept of place dependence refers to the importance of a place for supplying an outlet for goal accomplishment (Williams & Roggenbuck, 1989). For example, a rock climber may depend on access to a certain challenging crag
in order to fulfill the goal of climbing a certain route. In this study, place dependence is similarly conceptualized by how well a community supplies a resident with what they like to do as well as the satisfaction a resident receives by being in the community.

The concept of tourism dependence is similar to that of place dependence. Instead of depending on a place for one’s goal attainment, however, an individual would depend on tourism for their livelihood. Tourism dependence differs in the fact that it possesses a primarily economic view of dependence, whereas place dependence encompasses a variety of goal oriented attributes. Tourism dependence is traditionally operationalized using ratios involving per capita lodging receipts (Smith & Krannich, 1998). However, this measurement does not take into account how residents may depend on tourism for social, cultural, and recreational opportunities. Therefore, in this study tourism dependence is conceptualized as residents’ dependence on tourism to fulfill economic, social, cultural, and recreational goals.

Community attachment is a similar concept to place attachment found in tourism literature. One critical difference is that community attachment is geographically bound around a community. McCool and Martin (1994) define community attachment as, “the extent and pattern of social participation and integration into the community, and sentiment or affect toward the community” (p. 30).

Community attachment has been measured in a variety of ways. The concept has been operationalized simply as length of residency (Williams, McDonald, Riden, & Uysal, 1995), combined with birthplace and heritage (Um & Crompton, 1987), combined with community sentiment (McCool & Martin, 1994), or as a combination of all of the above with reported number of friends and social connections (Harril & Potts, 2003). In this study, community attachment is conceptualized as a combined measure of place identity and place dependence.

Previous research measuring the influence of community attachment on perceptions of tourism impacts and the desire for additional tourism present mixed results. In an exploratory study in Charleston, North Carolina, researchers found no significant relationship between community attachment and resident support for additional tourism (Harril & Potts, 2003). However, this study did reveal significant model paths between cultural and economic benefits and community attachment. In a study conducted in southwestern Virginia, researchers found that residents who were more attached to their
community viewed tourism impacts more favorably (Williams et al., 1995). McCool and Martin (1994) found that strongly attached respondents rated positive impacts of tourism higher than unattached respondents, however, more attached respondents were also more concerned with sharing the cost of tourism. This indicates that attached residents were more concerned at both ends of the positive/negative impacts spectrum.

The influence tourism impacts have on support for additional tourism growth has been studied extensively in the tourism literature (Andereck & Vogt, 2000; Gursoy, Jurowski, & Uysal, 2002; Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004; Jurowski, Uysal, & Daniel, 1997; Long, Perdue, & Allen, 1990; Perdue, Long, & Allen, 1990; Perdue, Long, & Allen, 1987). Most findings indicate that as perceived negative impacts increase, the desire for additional tourism decreases (Andereck & Vogt, 2000; Gursoy et al., 2002; Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004; Jurowski et al., 1997; Perdue et al., 1990). Impacts have been viewed in a variety of ways across studies, most typically including economic impacts, social impacts, cultural impacts and environmental impacts.

Cultural impacts refer to residents’ feelings of either positive or negative cultural change. They are also conceptualized as a community’s ability to preserve and participate in its unique culture. Social impacts refer to positive and negative interactions with tourists, including perceptions of crowding, and creation of recreational opportunities. The emphasis here is on interactions with other people. Economic impacts are conceptualized as costs such as an increase cost of living and benefits such as more employment opportunities being available. Environmental impacts include both positive and negative impacts such as the incentive to conserve natural areas and the perceived increase in pollution.

Based on the literature, the following hypotheses were tested (Figure 1):

- H1: As place dependence increases, place identity will increase.
- H2: As tourism dependence increases, place identity will increase.
- H3: As place identity increases, reported negative impacts will decrease.
- H4: As reported negative impacts increases, the desire for more tourism will decrease.
Methodology

In April 2010, 364 on-site surveys were distributed to residents of eight communities in Colorado. The communities in the study included Walden, Fort Collins, Golden, Idaho Springs, Black Hawk, Frisco, Breckenridge, and Manitou Springs. Surveys were distributed to residents in community centers and public areas using a convenience sample. Dates and times of implementation were kept flexible, though most surveys were distributed over weekends. Residents were asked if they would like to participate by taking a survey after the study was explained and confidentiality was assured. Of the 364 surveys distributed, a total of 323 surveys were returned (response rate = 89%).

The survey consisted of 43 statements focusing on tourism impacts, place attachment, tourism attachment, and desired tourism. Statements were based on attitudinal responses and rated on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 “strongly agree” to 5 “strongly disagree.” Perceptions of tourism impacts consisted of four separate categories including environmental impacts, cultural impacts, social impacts, and economic impacts. Each impact category consisted of four statements (two positively worded and two negatively worded) with the exception of environmental impacts which consisted of eight statements. Place attachment consisted of two separate categories: place identity and place dependence. These variables consisted of four and three statements respectively.
Tourism dependence and desired tourism concept consisted of four statements each. Statements for the survey were developed existing literature, including Lankford and Howard, 1994; Long et al, 1990; McCool and Martin, 1994; and Williams and Vaske, 2003. See Table 1 for a list of survey statements.

**Table 1.** Reliability analysis of variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale Items</th>
<th>Cronbach alpha</th>
<th>Item correlation</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Place Dependence</strong></td>
<td>.80</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This community is the best place for what I like to do</td>
<td>.58</td>
<td>2.29</td>
<td>.97</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I get more satisfaction out of being in this community than any other</td>
<td>.74</td>
<td>2.30</td>
<td>.98</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No other community can compare to our community</td>
<td>.63</td>
<td>2.65</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Tourism Dependence</strong></td>
<td>.77</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I depend on tourism for a majority of my income</td>
<td>.65</td>
<td>2.24</td>
<td>1.29</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I depend on tourism for cultural or social activities</td>
<td>.52</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>1.11</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I rely on tourism development to provide recreation opportunities for locals</td>
<td>.46</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My job depends on tourism</td>
<td>.66</td>
<td>2.29</td>
<td>1.30</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Place Identity</strong></td>
<td>.84</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I identify strongly with this community</td>
<td>.72</td>
<td>2.11</td>
<td>.90</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This community is very special to me</td>
<td>.81</td>
<td>1.91</td>
<td>.82</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel a strong personal attachment to this community</td>
<td>.57</td>
<td>2.07</td>
<td>1.46</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This community means a lot to me</td>
<td>.79</td>
<td>1.96</td>
<td>.85</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cultural Impacts</strong></td>
<td>.70</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism promotes cultural exchange between tourists and residents</td>
<td>.49</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>.89</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism has negatively changed our traditional community culture</td>
<td>.53</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>.92</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism encourages participation in a variety of cultural activities by local residents</td>
<td>.45</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>.94</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourists negatively affect our community’s way of life</td>
<td>.48</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>.96</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Social Impacts</strong></td>
<td>.69</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I enjoy meeting tourists that visit our area</td>
<td>.53</td>
<td>4.01</td>
<td>.93</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism in my area has caused local tension toward tourists</td>
<td>.49</td>
<td>3.24</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism growth has increased crowding in our community</td>
<td>.45</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Economic Impacts</strong></td>
<td>.88</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism has resulted in an increased cost of living in our community</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td>2.73</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel that prices have increased due to tourism</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td>2.84</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Environmental Impacts</strong></td>
<td>.87</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism in my community has caused an increase in litter</td>
<td>.66</td>
<td>2.54</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism in my community has caused an increase in noise pollution</td>
<td>.74</td>
<td>2.81</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Tourism in my community has caused an increase in air pollution & .74 & 2.88 & 1.03  
Tourism in my community has caused an increase in light pollution & .66 & 3.09 & 1.00  
Tourism in my community has caused an increase in water pollution & .72 & 2.88 & 1.03  
The presence of tourists has led to conflicts with local wildlife populations & .56 & 2.88 & 1.06  
Tourism development has not detracted from the beauty of the natural environment & .46 & 3.25 & 1.13  
Desire for Tourism & .89  
There are too many tourists in this area & .79 & 2.24 & 1.01  
I hope the amount of tourists will gradually decrease in this community & .72 & 2.11 & 1.00  
I would like to see more tourists visit this community & .81 & 2.25 & 1.01  
I would like to see an increase in tourism development in this community & .74 & 2.54 & 1.16  

**Note.** Survey items were measured using a five-point scale where 1 = Strongly Agree and 5 = Strongly Disagree. All positive measures were re-coded into negative measures.

Reliability analysis tests for the internal consistency of items and results in the creation of a scale. To be accurate, all individual items within each concept must be rated in the same direction. In order to make all impact concepts negative, positively worded impact items were re-coded into negative variables. In order to make the desired tourism concept positive, negatively worded desired tourism items were re-coded into positive variables. Reliability analyses were conducted on each of the variables being studied which were then converted into scales. Variables with an inter item correlation < .40 were removed from the scale. Scales with Cronbach’s alpha scores < .65 were also removed.

Six separate regressions were conducted in order to obtain estimates of the path coefficients and the relative influence of the independent variables on the dependent variables. Place identity was regressed on place dependence and tourism dependence. Four impact variables, cultural impacts, social impacts, environmental impacts, and economic impacts, were regressed separately on place dependence, tourism dependence, and place identity. Finally, desired tourism growth was regressed on place identity, place dependence, and tourism dependence, as well as on each of the four impacts. The resulting standardized beta coefficients ($\beta$) represent the direct relationship between two concepts. The resulting coefficient of determination ($R^2$) represents the percent of variability in the dependent variable that is explained by the independent variable (Vaske, 2008).
Results

All of the measured variables were found to have reliable internal consistency after removing items with total correlations below .4 ($\alpha > .70$, in all cases, Table 1). The statement, ‘Tourism provides more recreational activities for locals’ was removed from the social impacts scale due to low inter item correlation scores. Similarly, the statements ‘Tourism has resulted in more employment opportunities in this community’ and ‘Tourism has resulted in more business for local small businesses’ were removed from the economic impacts scale. The statement, ‘Tourism provides an incentive to conserve natural areas’ was removed from the environmental impacts scale.

Place dependence had a substantial positive effect on place identity ($\beta = .61$, $p < .001$). Tourism dependence offered no additional explanatory power when included in the model. The total model explained 37% of the variability in place identity ($R^2 = .373$, $p < .001$, Figure 2).

Place identity had a minimal negative effect on cultural impacts ($\beta = -.23$, $p = .001$). Tourism dependence also had a minimal negative effect on cultural impacts ($\beta = -.19$, $p < .001$). Place dependence offered no additional explanatory power when included in the model. The total model explained 10% of the variability in cultural impacts ($R^2 = .104$, $p < .001$). Place identity had a minimal negative effect on social impacts ($\beta = -.27$, $p < .001$). Tourism dependence also had a minimal negative effect on social impacts ($\beta = -.17$, $p = .002$). Place dependence offered no additional explanatory power when included in the model. The total model explained 7% of the variability in social impacts ($R^2 = .073$, $p < .001$). The models for environmental impacts and economic impacts were both insignificant ($R^2 = .012$, $p > .05$, Figure 2). Tourism dependence had a minimal positive effect on desired tourism ($\beta = .26$, $p < .001$). Cultural impacts, social impacts, and environmental impacts all had a minimal negative effect on desired tourism ($\beta > -.19$, $p \leq .001$). Economic impacts, place dependence, and place identity offered no additional explanatory power when included in the model. The total model explained 41% of the variance in desired tourism ($R^2 = .414$, $p < .001$, Figure 2).
Figure 2. Regression model showing analysis results.

Note. Dotted lines are not significant, * refers to significant at $p < .05$, and insignificant pathways for place dependence not shown.

Conclusion

The results supported three of the four hypotheses. However, before discussing the hypotheses, results from the reliability tests merit attention. The statement that was removed from the social impacts scale (‘Tourism provides more recreational opportunities for locals’) may have been too specific for assessing social impacts across all communities. The term ‘recreational opportunities’ may be interpreted differently among residents. For example, one resident may consider shopping as a recreational activity while for another, the word ‘recreational activity’ may conjure ideas of skiing or hiking in the mountains. The two statements removed from the economic impacts scale were both positively worded. However, when re-coded into negative statements, reliability analysis still revealed a negative correlation with the other two economic impact statements. Ancillary analyses indicated that residents were reporting both negative and positive economic impacts simultaneously. The ability of residents to report at both ends of the economic impacts spectrum has implications for further tourism impact studies. Future studies may need to consider
measuring economic impacts as two separate concepts in the future: negative economic impacts and positive economic impacts.

Finally, the statement removed from the environmental impacts scale (‘Tourism provides an incentive to conserve natural areas’) may have been interpreted as an economic incentive and thus not fit appropriately into the environmental impacts scale.

Hypothesis 1 was supported. Place dependence was found to have a substantial influence on place identity and no significant influence on any other variable in the model. This contradicts study findings in the field of tourism that treat place dependence and place identity as similar level variables (Kyle, Graefe, Manning, & Bacon, 2004; White, Virden, & van Riper, 2008). The results give support to the idea that place identity is a mediating variable for place dependence and its indirect effect on tourism impacts. Hypothesis 2 was not supported. Tourism dependence had no additional influence on place identity. Results suggest that tourism dependence may operate separately from notions of place attachment and directly affect tourism impacts. For the model under investigation in this study, tourism dependence is seen as an exogenous variable similar to place dependence.

Hypothesis 3 was mostly supported. All impact concepts were significantly correlated in the hypothesized direction to place identity with the exception of environmental impacts. However, all of the direct relationships had minimal practical significance. Tourism dependence also had a minimal negative effect on three of the four impact concepts. The explained variance in the impact concepts was also minimal or non-significant. The fact that tourism dependence had nearly as much direct effect on the impact variables as place identity further justifies its position outside the concept of place attachment.

Hypothesis 4 was mostly supported. Three of the four impact variables were significantly correlated in the hypothesized direction to desired tourism with the exception of economic impacts. However, all of the direct relationships had minimal practical significance. Tourism dependence also had an unanticipated minimal direct effect on desired tourism. The combined variables explained a substantial amount of the variance in desired tourism (41%). The direct relationship between tourism dependence and desired tourism was greater than any single impact variable. This, along with its influence on the impact variables directly, suggests that tourism dependence may play a substantial role in influencing desired tourism.
As social exchange theory would predict, this research reveals that residents may place different emphases on impacts related to tourism which therefore alter their desire for additional tourism growth in their respective communities. In this instance, residents may place less importance on economic benefits and greater importance on social and environmental impacts when considering an exchange of community resources for additional tourism development. Also, as other studies have shown, the dependence on tourism can alter residents’ perceptions of tourism impacts (Smith & Krannich, 1998). Furthermore, the results indirectly support the hypothesis proposed by community attachment theory. This study, along with others, shows that the greater attachment a person has to a community, the more they will report negative impacts (Kyle et al, 2004). However, contradictory findings have also been shown in the literature (McCool & Martin, 1994). Findings similar to previous research also suggest that the more negatively impacts are perceived; the less residents will desire additional tourism (Perdue et al, 1990; Gursoy et al, 2002; and Um & Crompton, 1987).

These results justify the use of more advanced analytical techniques such as covariance structure analysis through LISREL. Such analysis has been shown to be effective in other studies by allowing for the testing of multiple dependent variables at once as well as accounting for indirect effects of other variables (Kyle et al, 2004; Gursoy et al, 2002; and Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004).

This study has several limitations. By using a convenience sample instead of a random sample, results cannot be generalized to the general population. Also, due to a limited sample size for each community, differences in communities cannot be assessed. Using multivariate regression limits the ability to test for indirect effects of the variables and thus limits the strength of the results. Also, by operationalizing the impact variables as negative; positive impacts or answers on both ends of the impacts scale spectrum may have been missed.

This study has implications for management and tourism development. Tourism development at the community level must consider the residents. Concepts such as place attachment indicate that there is more to communities than merely bricks and mortar. Communities contain not only an economic fabric but also cultural, social, and environmental fabrics that are woven together into unique tapestries. It is with a delicate balance that tourism may enter such communities without disruption. With proper planning, tourism may not only avoid disruption but add another layer to the community that is in keeping with the residents’ desired future and sense of place.
References


Internet versus Travel Agencies: 
A Latent Gold Segmentation in the Context of Italy

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Abstract  
This study investigates the views of Italian consumers for and against the disintermediation of hotel reservations. A web-based survey is carried out, and 1,699 complete questionnaires from Italian consumers are obtained to be used for statistical analysis. Applying a latent gold segmentation on three factors identified running an exploratory factor analysis, three clusters were identified, namely: “Offline buyers”, “Mixed” and “Heavy Online Buyers”. Chi-square test shows that significant differences between the three clusters exist based on age, education degree, monthly household income and region of residence. Based on the overall findings, implications for hotel marketers are discussed and suggestions for further research are given.

Key words: disintermediation, latent segmentation, socio-demographic characteristics.

Introduction  
According with Internet World Stats (2011) there are currently 6,930,055,154 internet users in the world with significant penetration ratios in countries all over the world. Internet has reshaped the way people plan for, buy and consume tourist products and services (Buhalis & Law, 2008), dramatically changing the role of tourism intermediaries. In particular, internet has allowed hospi-
tality companies to reach their customers directly in order to offer them promotions and sales (Law & Lau, 2005), thus rendering the role of traditional travel agencies questionable. In 2009, the total gross value of bookings for European hotels was €75.1 billion. Of this, €14.3 billion came from bookings made online, representing an online penetration of 19%. A study carried out by Econcsultancy (2011) on a sample of 5,000 UK travellers, reported 71% of respondents researching online by using desktop computer (57%), mobile phone (7%) or tablet computer/Ipad (6%), with just 56% of people booking travel products on the web, thus suggesting that people are seeking reassurance via other channels. The same study reported respondents using traditional agents to search for information or booking with a significant lower percentage, respectively 20% and 14%. In 2009, Italian gross hotel bookings reached €9.8 billion, 4.5% of which was generated through direct online bookings. Based upon the above data, the smaller Italian online travel market seems to be an anomaly compared to that of other leading and foreign countries. One reason for this is that in Italy the operations of traditional agencies are still strong and able to control most of the distribution of potential business. According to FIAVET (the Italian federation of travel agencies), in the first semester of 2009, 18.2% of Italian tourists used travel agencies. However, some recent research reported consumers returning back to use traditional travel agencies. A study by Forrester Research found the percentage of leisure travellers who would be interested in using a traditional travel agent vs. a website ticked up to 28% in 2010 from 23% in 2008. In a survey carried out by the American Society for Travel Agents (ASTA), 44% of agents said that they had more clients in 2010 than they’d had the previous year, with hotel being one of service category with the strongest rebound.

That said it seems that worldwide, and in Italy in particular, debate on the topic of disintermediation and re-intermediation is still open and researchers are discussing the future of traditional intermediaries (Gentile, 2002). In particular, poor research exists investigating the views of Italian online buyers either for or against the disintermediation of hotel reservations. This study therefore is intended to address this point by presenting and discussing findings obtained applying cluster analysis to a sample of 1,699 Italian consumers.

**Literature Review**

The disintermediation hypothesis, that is the idea that the role of the middleman will be eliminated (Buhalis, 1998), has captured the attention of both researchers and practitioners. Prominent arguments exist in literature for and against disintermediation of the tourism distribution channel. Among the ar-
Arguments in favour of disintermediation are, for example, the great flexibility and variety of consumer choice made possible by internet, the poor level of training and competence of travel agency personnel and the fact that travel agencies are biased towards suppliers who offer overriding commissions. On the other hand, among the arguments against disintermediation, we can consider, for example, the time-saving that travel agencies grant their customers, the human touch they provide and the reduction in uncertainty and insecurity they ensure by assuming the responsibility for all arrangements (Buhalis, 1998). Broadly, internet and ITC produce positive and negative effects for consumers. On the one hand, internet and ITC allow tourists to save time and costs when searching for information, to stimulate and expand e-WOM (Del Chiappa, 2011a), to voice their complaints, to buy tailor-made products and to access a wider selection of travel service providers anytime and anywhere (Anckar, 2003). On the other hand, consumers are often required to face the sort of information overload that the large amount of information available online can create, and to spend a lot of time evaluating options and making choices without the support of a professional travel agent (Anckar, 2003). Further, many users are reluctant to provide some personal information online because they don’t trust e-commerce security (Yoon, 2002).

Tourists using the internet to make their hotel bookings can be divided into those who only wish to acquire information (lookers) and those who also use it to buy tourism services and products (bookers). For example, Jun, Vogt, and Mackay (2007) reported 25% of consumers using internet to search information about hotels and then finalizing offline their purchase. Lookers differ from bookers in several socio-demographic characteristics and in their internet usage (number of years they have been using internet, number of hours they surf the internet per week, etc.). For example, it was shown that the propensity to purchase online increases with age, education level and income (Bonn, Furr & Susskind, 1998; Law, Leung & Wong, 2004). Grønflaten (2011) found younger groups being less likely than senior groups to prefer travel agents when searching for information. Further, Grønflaten (2011) found people older than 59 and on an organized tour being likely to choose the combination of travel agents and face to face. Graeupl and McCabe (2003) found “grey market” using the internet mainly for information search. Prior research also showed that consumers’ information search differs by travel product characteristics (Card, Chen, & Cole, 2003). So for example high-risk product consumers use internet to collect and exchange information but they don’t use it to purchase online because they think they have a) insufficient information to tangibilize services
b) insure system to buy online (Jun, Vogt, & Mackay, 2010). Further, people usually buy convenience and standard goods online, while they rely heavily on traditional intermediaries when buying complex products (Werther & Klein, 1999). Similarly, it was highlighted that tourists are more willing to buy low-involvement products through the internet than high-involvement products (Chu, 2001). Finally, prior research found that short-haul travellers perceive traditional travel agents as biased operators (because they are commission-oriented) and less flexible or able to offer a good variety of choices (Law et al., 2004). So, despite the rise in the number of internet sites that allow tourists to make hotel reservations directly, travel agencies seem able to continue playing an important role in the marketing mix of a significant majority of hotels (Ku, Wu & Lin 2010), at least to reach customers belonging to specific segments and who are looking for complex, high-involvement products. For example, Kim and Kim (2004) found business travellers still use traditional travel agencies when making hotel reservations. Also Gronflaten (2011) have recently reported business travellers even more likely to prefer travel agents, although the difference between this group and holidaymakers was found to be not significant. Further, Gronflaten (2011) underline the need to consider the topic of disintermediation adopting an information search perspective and making a distinction between information sources and information channels. According with this perspective the issue of disintermediation should be analyzed both as a choice between two information sources (travel agents vs. service providers) and as a choice between two information channels (face-to-face vs. internet).

Methodology

The present study was carried out to investigate the Italian buyers in favour or against the disintermediation of hotel reservations. For this purpose, the study targeted exclusively tourists residing in Italy and aged more than 16 years old. A snowball sampling technique was used allowing the study to reach people from all regions of Italy. Allowing for a three-week survey period, a total of 1,699 valid questionnaires was returned. The survey used was divided into two parts. In the first part, respondents were asked to reply to some general demographic questions. In the second part of the questionnaire respondents were asked to tell us a) if they had any previous experience of booking hotel rooms online b) how many times a year they usually use the internet to make hotel reservations c) if they have ever changed the accommodation suggested by a travel agency based on reviews and comments posted online, and to express to what extent they agree or disagree with a list of 12 statements specifically cho-
sen to investigate online buyers’ views for and against the disintermediation of hotel reservations. A 5-point Likert scale was used (1=completely agree; 5=completely disagree) to indicate their answers. The English items used in the questionnaire were drawn from international literature and were translated into Italian by a professional translator, using back-translation for quality assurance. The questionnaire was then pilot-tested by Italian travellers who were not involved in the research. This was done to verify the validity of its content, the comprehensibility of the questions and the scale used to make the assessments. No concerns were reported in the pilot-tests.

The data was coded and analyzed using SPSS v. 19.0. The first step was developed applying an exploratory factor analysis (EFA). To this purpose, principal components analysis (PCA) was run. Factor scores created during the factor analytic process were used as variables to develop a cluster analysis. Specifically, a latent segmentation methodology was used to define a segmentation and profiling of the Italian tourists who make hotel reservations. This kind of procedure allows the assignment of individuals to the segments based on their probability of belonging to the clusters, breaking with the restrictions of deterministic assignment inherent to the non-hierarchic cluster analysis (Dillon & Kumar, 1994). This methodology assigns the individuals to different segments under the assumption that the data stems from a mixture of distribution probabilities or, in other words, from various groups or homogenous segments that are mixed in unknown proportions (McLachlan & Basford, 1988). The advantage of latent class models is that they allow the incorporation of variables with different measurement scales (continual, ordinal or nominal) (Vermunt & Magidson, 2005). Based on the positioning of the different individuals, with regard to the variables, we can obtain different grouping patterns that fulfill the principles of maximum internal coherence and maximum external differentiation. To carry out the latent segmentation, we have opted for using Latent Gold 4.5 statistical software.

**Results**

The first step to develop a EFA is to analyze the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure and the Bartlett’s test of sphericity. The KMO is greater than 0.80 and Bartlett’s test of sphericity was highly significant (0.0000), indicating good model acceptability thus making it acceptable to proceed a factor analysis for the data. After factor extraction, an orthogonal varimax rotation was performed on factors with eigenvalues ≥1.0 thus allowing to minimize the number of variables having high loadings on a particular factor. Three factors resulted from
the analysis, accounting for 57.65% of the symptomatic variance. The factor structure was consistent because all the variables have a factor loading >0.5 for the factor that they allowed.

Factor 1, which accounted for 32.74% of the variance, was characterized by travel agencies preference and includes all the variables reflecting the preference to make hotel reservations using travel agencies. Factor 2, which accounted for 15.63% of the variance, was characterized by disintermediation preferences and includes variables reflecting the preference to search and book hotels online. Finally, Factor 3, which accounted for 9.27% of the variance, was characterized by the use of the Internet as an information tool and includes two variables which refer to the use of the Internet as a complementary tool to choose an adequate hotel.

A latent segmentation approach

Based on the factor loadings obtained in the PCA, we applied a cluster analysis to segment the Italian tourists according to their perceptions and attitude toward the topic of disintermediation. To achieve this aim, we have also used three additional questions: “The use of the Internet any time to make hotel reservations when they travel” (measured as yes or no), “How many times a year they usually use the Internet to make hotel reservations” (measured from none until more than 4) and “If they have ever changed the hotel accommodation that had been suggested by a travel agency after having read reviews and comments posted online” (measured as yes or no). Based on the positioning of the different individuals, with regard to these variables, we obtained different grouping patterns which fulfil the principles of maximum internal coherence and maximum external differentiation. To do this, we use Latent Gold 4.5. statistical software. In applying the latent segmentation approach, the first step consists of selecting the optimum number of segments. The model used estimated from one (no heterogeneity existed) up to eight (i.e. eight segments or heterogeneity existed).

Table 1 shows the estimation process summary and the fit indexes for each of the eight models. The fit of the model was evaluated with the Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC), which allows the identification of the model with the least number of classes that best fits to the data. The lowest BIC value was considered as the best model indicator (Vermunt & Magidson, 2005). Moreover, the Consistent Akaike Information Criterion (CAIC) has a similar structure that BIC seen that they involve the same information. Lower information index val-
ues indicate better fit. In this case, the best alternative was reflected in a final solution of three different user groups, as the BIC and CAIC is minimized in this case. Moreover, the other statistics included in Table 1 indicate that our model has a good fit, because the entropy statistic \(E_s\) and \(R^2\) are near 1.

**Table 1.** Summary of the results of the models

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of conglomerates</th>
<th>LL</th>
<th>BIC(LL)</th>
<th>CAIC(LL)</th>
<th>Npar</th>
<th>Class.Err.</th>
<th>(E_s)</th>
<th>(R^2)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1-Cluster</td>
<td>-11425.0480</td>
<td>22939.3424</td>
<td>22951.3424</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-Cluster</td>
<td>-9897.1567</td>
<td>19965.3691</td>
<td>19988.3691</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>3-Cluster</strong></td>
<td><strong>-9791.0264</strong></td>
<td><strong>19834.9179</strong></td>
<td><strong>19868.9179</strong></td>
<td><strong>34</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.0827</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.77</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.75</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-Cluster</td>
<td>-9752.5889</td>
<td>19839.8522</td>
<td>19884.8522</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>0.1891</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td>0.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-Cluster</td>
<td>-9726.2491</td>
<td>19868.9818</td>
<td>19924.9818</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>0.2494</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>0.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-Cluster</td>
<td>-9712.7127</td>
<td>19923.7182</td>
<td>19990.7182</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>0.2661</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>0.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7-Cluster</td>
<td>-9683.8840</td>
<td>19947.8700</td>
<td>20025.8700</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>0.2480</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td>0.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8-Cluster</td>
<td>-9667.3201</td>
<td>19996.5515</td>
<td>20085.5515</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>0.2373</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>0.58</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(LL=\log\text{-likelihood; BIC=}\text{Bayesian Information Criterion; CAIC=}\text{Consistent Akaike Information Criterion; Npar=}\text{number of parameters; Class.Err.=}\text{classification error; }E_s=\text{entropy R-squared; }R^2=\text{Standard R-squared}\)

We have analyzed the Wald statistic, to evaluate the statistical significance within a group of estimated parameters (Table 2). For all the indicators we obtained a significant p-value associated with the Wald statistics, which corrobate that each indicator discriminates between the clusters in a significant way (Vermunt and Magidson, 2005). Table 3 also contains the profiles of each of the clusters obtained. In the upper part the size and name assigned to the three groups is shown: “Offline buyers” (cluster 1: 15.32%), “Mixed” (cluster 2: 70.10%) and “Heavy Online buyers” (cluster 3: 14.57%). Further, Table 3 shows the average score that takes each segment in each of the obtained factors (note that can take values between -1 and 1, as we explained previously) and the other studied indicators.

Thus the “Offline buyer” has never used Internet to make hotel reservations and prefers to obtain all the information in travel agencies. The “Mixed” cluster has ever made a hotel reservation by the Internet, although one or two times. As the previous cluster, this group prefers to obtain information and to book in travel agencies, but it is more probable that “Mixed” tourists use Internet as an information tool and to make online reservations. Moreover, the “Mixed” cluster do not usually change the hotel accommodation that has been suggested by a travel agency after having read reviews and comments posted online. Finally, the “Heavy Online buyers” cluster prefers to make hotel reservations by the
Internet and with high frequency. Consumers in this cluster express a high trustworthiness toward the reviews and comments posted online by other tourists and they usually change the hotel suggested by a travel agency if they read bad comments. Figure 1 visually represents the profile of consumers belonging to each of the aforementioned clusters.

**Table 2.** Cluster profiles obtained (indicators)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clusters</th>
<th>Offline buyer</th>
<th>Mixed</th>
<th>Online buyer</th>
<th>Wald</th>
<th>p-value</th>
<th>R²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cluster Size</td>
<td>15.32%</td>
<td>70.10%</td>
<td>14.57%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Indicators</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 1. Travel agencies preference</td>
<td>0.5243</td>
<td>0.0146</td>
<td>-0.6110</td>
<td>113.8747</td>
<td>1.9e-25</td>
<td>0.0971</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 2. Online preference</td>
<td>-0.2598</td>
<td>-0.1039</td>
<td>0.7737</td>
<td>156.9267</td>
<td>8.4e-35</td>
<td>0.1051</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 3. Internet as information tool</td>
<td>-0.3409</td>
<td>-0.0438</td>
<td>0.5721</td>
<td>108.6444</td>
<td>2.6e-24</td>
<td>0.0669</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have used Internet to make hotel reservations?</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>0.9989</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
<td>0.0002</td>
<td>19.3150</td>
<td>6.4e-5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>0.0011</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
<td>0.9998</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Times at year that you make hotel reservations over the internet</td>
<td>No use Internet</td>
<td>0.9985</td>
<td>0.0002</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
<td>96.4624</td>
<td>1.1e-21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 or 2</td>
<td>0.0015</td>
<td>0.7839</td>
<td>0.3778</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 or 4</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
<td>0.1662</td>
<td>0.2956</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>More than 4</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
<td>0.0497</td>
<td>0.3265</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Change the hotel after having read online comments</td>
<td>No use Internet</td>
<td>0.9989</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
<td>0.0002</td>
<td>56.8722</td>
<td>1.3e-11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>0.0007</td>
<td>0.7381</td>
<td>0.4293</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>0.0003</td>
<td>0.2619</td>
<td>0.5705</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 1.** The profile of consumers contained in each cluster (indicators): a graphic representation
To complete the composition of the three segments, we analyzed the profile of the resulting groups according to the information from other variables. Table 3 shows the groups’ composition based on some descriptive criteria included in the analysis. Tests associated with statistic chi-square ($\chi^2$) conclude that significant differences exist between the segments regarding age, education degree, monthly household income and region of residence. Contrariwise, any significant difference exists based on gender. With regard to the age, most of surveyed tourists are between 26 and 35 years old. However, there is a high proportion in the “Offline buyers” cluster that are less than 18 (28.8%), in the “Mixed” cluster that are between 18 and 25 (25.1%), and in the “Heavy Online buyers” cluster that are between 36 and 45 (25.6%). Our findings report men using internet more than women do, thus not confirming prior research (Kim et al., 2007). The higher proportion of tourist in the “Offline buyer” cluster has secondary school studies (49.6%) and in the “Mixed” and “Heavy Online buyers” clusters has university degree (44% and 47.3%, respectively).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 3. Profile of latent segments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Descriptive criteria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Education</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Monthly household income (€)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is worth noting there is a higher proportion of tourist in the “Heavy Online buyers” cluster that has a high education than in the other groups.
Overall, a higher proportion of tourists with higher monthly household income are more active in the Internet searching for information about hotels and making online hotel reservations (except for those with incomes above 7000 Euros).

**Conclusions**

Applying a latent segmentation statistical technique to a sample of 1,699 tourists residing in Italy and aged more than 16 years old, this study identified three different segments of consumers based on their views for and against the topic of disintermediation, that is: “Offline buyers”, “Mixed” and “Heavy Online buyers”. On the whole, findings in this study confirm the previous studies that had found that the propensity to purchase online increases with age, education level and income (Bonn et al., 1998; Law et al., 2004). Further, showed the three segments also differ in the way they change the accommodation that had been suggested by a travel agent after having read UGC online web reports. These conclusions are significant for both researchers and hospitality managers. On the one hand, they provide further insight into the scientific debate on disintermediation for booking hotel rooms in Italy. On the other hand, these findings offer suggestions to both hotel marketers and traditional travel agencies. The lodging industry should design their websites to be more attractive for Italian middle-aged and richer people who travel often and are heavy users of internet as a tool for both searching for and booking hotels. Further, hotel marketers not only should focus on direct sales, but they would need also to monitor their brand reputation as projected in reviews and comments that consumers upload online taking particularly care of those onto Online Travel Agencies (OTAs). Indeed, it is by looking at ratings and comments within these websites that consumers’ decision making actually starts in most instances (Anderson, 2009; Del Chiappa, 2011). Further, recent research carried out in America (Yoo, Lee, Gretzel & Fesenmaier, 2009) and Italy (Del Chiappa, 2011a) found tourists attributing different levels of credibility and trustworthiness to different types of Travel 2.0 sources, with OTAs being the most credible and the most able to influence tourists’ choices. Further, findings suggest that travel agents should create and maintain a presence in the electronic market place in order to survive and recover their competitiveness (Anckar, 2003). At the same time, they should move away from being booking offices and become travel managers, advisers and consultants (Buhalis, 1998) thus retaining a secure and competitive position in the chain of distribution (Bennet, 1993). This is also what hotel practitioners often think when they argue that travel agencies
will remain important in the travel and tourism industry, at least for certain
target segments and specific types of products (Law & Lau, 2005).

Although this study helps fill a gap in existing knowledge in literature and
does propose some implications for practitioners, limitations still remain. First-
ly, we used a convenience sample. As a consequence, the sample cannot be
considered representative of Italian online buyers, even though its size is signifi-
cant, and findings cannot be generalized. However, we know of no other pub-
lished papers of this nature that were able to use such a big sample and/or
probabilistic method of sampling. In the future, it would be interesting to study
whether and how Italian traditional agencies are currently using internet in
their marketing strategy. According to some pioneer research (Gronflaten,
2011) in the future it could also be interesting to consider the problem of disi-
nermediation in Italy adopting an information search perspective and making a
distinction between information sources and information channels.

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Environmental and Socio-Cultural Dysfunctions Generated by Mass Tourism: The Case of Mazuria Lakes – Poland

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Abstract
The paper discusses the correlations between different types of tourists and, so called, tourism functions and dysfunctions. The research was done in Masuria Lakes (the area of great natural interest, with very limited tourism capacity). Masuria was the candidate of Poland for new seven world wonders; however, it never had a status of landscape protected area. It gives for the research more possibilities to look at “natural” activities, not limited by the law regulations. The unique natural values and relatively short distance from tourism source areas have led to crossing tourism capacity limits. Furthermore, the types of tourism present in this region (sailing, motorboats, lake camping, angling, team building, second houses etc.) are mutually exclusive. In case of high tourism intensity conflicts become unavoidable. Spontaneous, uncontrolled tourism development, lack of legal restrictions or obligatory fees for cleaning – all that has led to tourism dysfunctions on large scale.

Key words: mass tourism, types of tourism, recreational tourism, leisure tourism.

Introduction
The aim of this paper is to discuss the correlations between different types of tourist (the typology is based on their activities) and the creation of so called tourism functions and dysfunctions. The paper makes a part of larger research project aiming to identify the nature-based tourism potential, the socio-cultural dynamics and possible dysfunctions of by different type of tourists in Poland and Iceland. The research was comparative and focused on the problem of degradation of natural environment and socio-cultural tourist dysfunctions, in terms of mass tourism, from an Icelandic and Polish perspective. The results were the guidelines for lecturing on tourism faculties, books for the tour operators as well as the academic book for students (in Polish). The regions chosen for Poland were the Tatra Mountain National Park, Beskidzka 5 and the Masuria Lakes – most representatives for the topic of this article.
The Masuria Lakes Region was the candidate of Poland for new seven world wonders; however, it never had a status of national park, or landscape protected area. It give for the research more possibilities to look at “natural” tourist activities, not limited by the law regulations as it happens in most of areas of outstanding natural value in Poland (Including Tatra one) where many activities are simply forbidden.

For many years the tourism occurred in natural & landscape parks, was considered to be the most sustainable one. Several authors had used the name of eco tourism for all activities happening in the nature. Looking at negative consequences (tourism dysfunctions), the eco tourism was seen as the “good one”, a contradiction to the mass tourism (the bad one). That interpretation was almost unique in Polish Academia, and in consequence in tourism policy actors. What’s more the promotion of tourism in areas of great natural interest was seen as a kind of patriotism (Denek, 1997; Kowalczyk, 2002; Zaręba, 2000). The citizens of Poland had to visit all important attractions of the country.

In the recent years the discussion about sustainable tourism and its relation with eco tourism and the nature, become more complex (Duffy, 2002). Some authors pointed out the motivation of tourist visiting the nature (Jóhannesson, Huijbens, & Sharpley, 2010). E. Huijbens (2011) for experiencing nature motivations is distinguishing: beauty, religion, escape, challenge, romanticism and history, solitude, intimacy, learning and discovery, knowing that there is untouched nature and technology in survival. Following particular motivation, experiencing the nature, even in same place, can be totally different.

For Masuria we can find all those motivations represented by sometimes contradictory type of tourist. Ex. Challenge can be seen as sail over the whole Masuria track during one stay for the sailing boats or get a fastest speed in the same way for the motor boats. In both cases we cannot talk about knowing the untouched nature. Different type of motivation same as different types of activities influence the real impact of tourists on nature.

Talking about impact of tourism we should not forget about the abortiveness of the region – much smaller for areas of great natural interest than for others.

Tourism capacity is an indicator of the maximum number of tourists a given tourism area can accept without changing its character or lowering the service quality as such. An example of service quality lowering may be adding an extra storey to a building of an already operating hotel (which results in more crowd
at the pool, queues to the elevator, lack of sufficient number of tables in the restaurant, etc.). In extreme cases the changes caused by exceeding the tourism capacity lead to a process named self-detriment through tourism (Shaw & Williams 1996). For obvious reasons some places are exposed more substantially to detriment caused by low tourism capacity more than others. The examples of such areas are small islands, desert zones (due to the lack of drinking water), regions of fragile fauna and flora (due to the risk of species destruction etc. The area of Masuria Lakes is the example of limited absorption due to the nature.

**Methodology**

The research tools were primarily semi structured interviews with key industry stakeholder, but also stakeholder focus groups, participant and non participant observation, and secondary data analysis (Belsky, 2004; Denzin & Lincoln, 1994; Hammersley & Atkinson, 1995). The term dysfunctions are understood as negative consequences of tourism development, which contradict or work against intended or planned development goals. Dysfunctions can lead to a loss of balance in natural environments (environmental dysfunctions) and/or intervene in a negative way as perceived by locals (socio-cultural dysfunctions).

The scope of factors which can generate these dysfunctions is obviously very large. But in the context of this research the aims were to identify these dysfunctions in terms of the type of tourist, type of tourism attractions and activities, which we deem as the most important (Dłużewska, 2009; Przeclawski, 1979).

The starting point for the analysis of tourism dysfunctions was the scheme „Tourism and its functions and dysfunctions” (Dłużewska, 2009) prepared to analyze tourism dysfunctions in the world.

Through analysing the origin of those visiting the regions under study we propose to understand the general behaviour and the generation of knowledge of the region. Whilst analysing the type of tourist is indicative of the travel expectations and travel organization of the participants (Cohen, 1984; Podemski, 2004; Przeclawski, 1979).
Results

Masuria (formerly North Mazovia, Prussian Masovia, Prussian Masuria) is a historical and ethnographical area in north-eastern Poland. Geographically it constitutes part of the Masurian Lake District and the Iława Lake District. Administratively it constitutes a part of the Warmian-Masurian Voivodships.

The Land of Great Masurian Lakes is situated in the Masurian Lake District, with the largest polish lake – Śniardwy – of an area amounting to 113.8 km² and a circumference exceeding 80 km. Besides the Śniardwy Lake, the largest lakes in Masuria are: Mamry, Niegocin, Beldany, Tałty, Seksty, Łuknajno, Tajty, Dargin and many others. The number of large and small lakes situated in this region is reflected in the common name of Masuria – The Great Lake Land. The largest lakes are connected by channels and sluices, build as early as in the times when Masuria belonged to Prussia, building a branched sailing route (the
so called North Masuria and South Masuria). Within the Land of Great Masurian Lakes there are numerous woods (i.e. the Pisz Forest) abounding in mushrooms and other forest undergrowth treasures. The region offers numerous bicycle and canoeing routes. The Pisz Forest holds stocks of wildly living konekes (Polish primitive horses) with a breeding farm of the species managed by the Polish Academy of Sciences station in Popielno) or wild animal park in Kadzidłowo. Numerous horse stud farms are also situated in this area. Due to the unique natural characteristics the Land of Great Masurian Lakes is representing Poland in a global competition for new seven world wonders.

Masuria offers various possibilities of tourism activities: sailing, motorboat, angling, leisure (second houses, holiday camps, campsites), agritourism, canoeing, cycling, urban weekend activities (e.g. Mikołajki), sightseeing, integration tourism (team building) and many more. Masuria is visited not only by tourists interested in its natural values, but also by ethno-cultural tourists from Germany. The locals assign the greatest prestige to German tourists and those who stay at private houses and guest houses.

The tourists representing various categories have different, often mutually exclusive motivations. They frequently enter into conflicts and mutually prevent proper recreation. Conflicts emerge repeatedly also between the locals and tourists. The most important motivations of travelling in respect of tourists representing different categories are provided below.

Sailing tourism

Until the change of the political system in 1989 sailing yachts in Masuria were rather a rare view. Tourists used their own boats and sailing tourism was therefore a privilege available for a confined group of people. Since 1990 numerous yacht chartering companies emerged in this area. Officially in 2011 over 40 large chartering companies conducted business activity in the region, of which the most important ones (Ahoj, Sailor) have a few hundreds of yachts of various categories at their disposal. Sailing yachts are made available also within the so called grey economy – many locals have several yachts which are available for tourists in the sailing season. Thanks to the impressive range of sailing yachts offered and very competitive chartering prices the number of tourists spending their vacation under the sails is growing every year. The proportions have turned and at present in Masuria the number of chartered yachts exceeds the number of private boats which are at present a true rarity. The lakes have become crowded. The sailing route is often quite narrow, therefore it is important to know who has the right of way in a given situation. No sailing li-
License is required to charter smaller units. The crews on chartered yachts are not always apt at sailing, they sometimes fail to recognize the right of way and therefore constitute a threat to others.

The character of sailing harbors has also changed. They are loud, numerous integration parties with large amounts of alcohol consumed are organized there. No wonder that old sailors started avoiding these places. Unlike western Europe Masuria has no club harbors where only members are allowed to stay. As a result, the sailors overnight at lake shores more and more often. They avoid places which can be reached by car, they do not moor at campsites, in order to avoid contacts with other types of tourists. Every year the number of places where sailors can moor their boats for the night is dropping. Numerous private residences are being built at lake shores, taking over the areas where boats used to moor. The Polish law allows for mooring at every shore, but not for going ashore. Therefore, the competition among sailors is vast due to the lack of places to stay overnight.

Another reason for conflict are discrepant motivations of people participating in this type of tourism. Sailors used to seek for peace, quiet and close contact with nature; now many of them are looking for loud entertainment.

The participants of sailing tourism who „squat” on shores for the night generate environmental dysfunctions – they often leave garbage right at the mooring site (even if they bury it, the present intensity of tourism makes this disposal method ineffective) and treat the forest as a toilet.

Sailing tourism is a major landscape attraction for the remaining groups of tourists. Yet the locals perceive it negatively, you could even say it is considered as the worse type of tourism in Masuria, for usually it does not bring any profits for the locals: the sailors do not spend money on accommodation, food or entertainment and additionally they pollute the environment. They pay for the chartering, yet the chartering companies are usually owned to people from outside the region.

**Motorboat tourism**

Eight companies providing motor yachts chartering services are registered in Masuria. The motorboats are also provided by sailing companies (such as Ahoj). Vast number of the motorboats available belong to private owners. In any case we are dealing with a large percentage of sea motorboats which should be sailing on far larger waters. In order to sail on a boat safely on the sea, and even on sea gulfs, sailors need special qualifications. Masuria’s condi-
tions are easier. There are no legal restrictions specifying the minimum size of the reservoir for such a boat, which makes Masuria one of the most popular places to sail for motorboat tourists. These tourists most frequently visit Mikołajki, where at night they can visit pubs and discos. Often the party is later “relocated” to the lake shore. Tourists drink alcohol while sailing or listen to very loud music. The participants of motorboat tourism constitute substantial danger to other tourists, especially tourists doing recreation and canoeing. High waves caused by large, sea motorboats often capsize canoes. The number of dangerous collisions with people swimming at the shores or lying on air-mattresses is growing. Motorboat amateurs also reduce the comfort of sailors’ recreation (large waves destroy the yachts moored at the lake shore).

**Angling tourism**

Only few participants of this type of tourism use accommodation available at private houses. The majority overnights in their own tents or camping cars situated at campsites. Their expenditures for accommodation are at a minimum level. The anglers go to bars and restaurants extremely rarely. They prepare their meals on their own, with the use of gas bottles. They usually arrive in their private cars, which allows them for bringing large amounts of food reserves. The profits of local inhabitants on this tourism type are scarce. Some (usually the more affluent ones, staying at guest houses, in agritourism farms, or having their own summer houses) angle sitting on the boards of small, usually private boats. They choose small, non-sailable water reservoirs. This group of tourists usually does not come into conflicts with the tourists of other categories. Yet vast number of angling tourists angles directly on water routes. Due to large fish shoals in the channels and by the bridges anglers occupy mostly these areas. They angle „from the shore” – sit on camp chairs and cast their fishing rods mostly in the very middle of the waters, which prevents yacht sailing, motorboat sailing or canoeing. These anglers are a nightmare for sailors and motorboat enthusiasts, which causes frequent conflicts.

**Recreational tourism (second houses)**

The most important source area for this type of tourism is Warsaw (time to destination: ca. 3-4 hours) and the Tricity: Gdańsk, Gdynia, Sopot (time to destination: 3 hours). The relative vicinity of Masuria from the perspective of large agglomerations is the decisive factor for its popularity in terms of weekend tourism. The increasing financial wealth of the Polish society has created conditions for buying the so called second houses. Second houses take over more and
more lake shore areas every year. Private residences emerge in areas where sailors used to moor their boats, thus creating an obstacle for sailing tourism. At the same time they are constructed exactly in those spots where sailing tourism is booming and ensures increased attractiveness of cultural landscape. An extreme example of such situation is the Warsaw Lake – Jezioro Warszawskie – situated in the ultimate vicinity of the capital. In 2000 it provided several places for mooring yachts. In the summer season 2011 only 2 such places on the whole lake remained. This influenced substantially the reduction of sailing tourism on this reservoir and as a result also the reduction of attractiveness of this area for stationary tourists.

**Leisure tourism (holiday centers, campsites)**

Similarly to private residences, the holiday centers and campsites are often located at lake shores visited by sailors due to their landscape richness. Leisure tourists are often conflicted with “water” tourists (sailors, motorboat enthusiasts). In the areas taken by the holiday centers there is no possibility to moor a boat, and besides these locations are often loud (the noise is carried further by the lake waters). The tourists staying at holiday centers are not familiar with water regulations – they let themselves be carried away on their air-mattresses right into sailing routes, they complain that sailors should make turns like cars to bypass them, etc. They disturb, cause a threat to sailors and motorboat users and remain in danger themselves.

**Team building**

Integration camps, unlike motivation camps, are usually organized for large groups of employees, sometimes for whole company teams (50–300 people). The integration events are crowded, loud and accompanied by large amounts of alcohol. The participants of integration tourism often take part in sailing and motorboat activities (in most cases just as an “additional” activity, since typical integration programmes are usually realized on boats). They overnight in hotels or aboard the yachts moored in city harbors. These tourists “disturb” all other tourists (even those who seek entertainment). On the other hand the locals treat them positively due to the money spent by the companies organizing these events.

**Conclusion**

The listed types of tourism are mutually exclusive by definition. In case of small tourism intensity their coexistence does not necessarily lead to conflicts.
On the other hand in case of intense tourism conflicts become unavoidable. The unique natural values of and relatively short distance to the Masurian Lake District from tourism source areas (Warsaw, Tricity) have led to crossing tourism capacity limits in this region. Already on the current tourism level numerous dysfunctions are noticed both within the local society and the tourist groups, as well as in the natural environment. Woods are full of human excrements, empty cans, glass. Spontaneous, uncontrolled tourism development, lack of legal restrictions for most invasive types of tourism, lack of obligatory fees for cleaning – all that has led to tourism dysfunctions on large scale.

References


Investigating the Degree of Visitors’ Satisfaction in a Museum

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Abstract

This paper investigates consumer satisfaction of visitors to a museum. To achieve this aim an empirical analysis on a sample of 359 visitors to the Archaeological Museum G.A. Sanna in Sassari (Italy) is presented. A theoretical model is proposed to investigate the determinants that influence visitors’ satisfaction, including socio-demographic characteristics, motivations and visit experience. Empirically, an ordered logit is employed to test prior hypotheses. Findings highlight that respondents are satisfied by the actual experience in the museum and length of the time spent at the museum. Factors such as nationality, gender, education also play a role in their overall level of satisfaction. Based upon the empirical findings, implications for museum managers are drawn.

Key words: museum; motivations, visit experience, customer satisfaction, ordered logit.

Introduction

Hughes (1998) reported culture being a significant factor influencing the choice of a city as a tourism destination. Cultural activity is regarded as a form of tourism that can be considered as an important lever for economic develop-
ment (Brida, Meleddu, & Pulina 2012), with museums playing an important role in defining destination’s heritage for both residents and tourists (Gil & Ritchie 2009). According to Johnson (2003), worldwide museums are becoming even more marketing-oriented paying greater attention to the needs of their visitors. Hence, from an economic, management and marketing perspective it is important to investigate consumer’s motivation, satisfaction and loyalty visiting a destination to experience its cultural and museums heritage (Tobelem, 1998). Familiar and satisfied visitors with the destination and its cultural attractions have a higher likelihood to return to the destination and/or to recommend it to others, thus providing an income source to be used to enhance business and increase the welfare of local communities (Oppermann, 2000). The objective of the present paper is to investigate the degree of satisfaction of people visiting a museum. To this aim, a theoretical model is proposed to understand what makes visitors satisfied with their experience. Empirically, an ordered logit analysis is carried out employing survey data collected at the Archaeological Museum G.A. Sanna in Sassari (Italy) in the months from August to November 2011. Ad hoc marketing and management policy directions are drawn based upon the descriptive analysis and econometric results. The paper is structured in the following manner. In the next section, a literature review is provided. In the third section, the relevant methodology is presented. The fourth section presents the main findings and discussion. Concluding remarks are given in the last section.

**Literature Review**

Relative to the attributes of that specific destination, consumer satisfaction is a function of the extent to which consumers’ expectations are fulfilled (Clemons & Woodruff, 1992). Tourists’ satisfaction is also influenced by the variety and type of activities and services that they can experience during their stay (Nykiel, 1997). Among these activities, museums are an important component of a tourism destination (Jansen & Van, 1996). Hence, it is a reasonable to investigate in depth what motivates individuals (both residents and tourists) to visit a museum (Thyne, 2001), what they expect when visiting a museum and what makes them satisfied with their experience (Gil & Ritchie, 2009). According to previous research, there are several motives that influence the decision to visit a museum such as: to be entertained, to learn, to visit a particular exhibition, being with people and enjoying social interaction, to do something worthwhile (Kotler & Kotler, 2000; Prentice, Guerin & McGugan, 1998). According with Bigne, Mattilla and Andreu (2008) once a tourist is at a tourism attraction, such
as a museum, his/her satisfaction is not merely influenced by the technical aspect of the product itself, but also by the emotional, cognitive, social values associated with it (Caldwell, 2002; Martin, Castellanos, & Oviedo, 2010; Rowley, 1999). Affective and emotional dimensions of service experience and image (being with people, enjoying social interaction, etc) have a greater influence on the image of a visitor to a museum compared to the cognitive dimension (quality, general appearance, museum shop, etc) (Martin et al., 2010; Gil & Ritchie, 2009). These findings are different from those of De Rojas and Camanero (2008), who found perceived quality affecting satisfaction more than emotional experiences. Consumers with higher satisfaction with service experience will have higher usage intention than consumers with lower satisfaction level (Bigne et al., 2008). Moreover, it is reasonable to expect that the higher satisfaction, the greater the likelihood that the consumers will repeat the visitation to a destination (Kozak, 2001) and museum and/or recommend it to others (Anderson, Fornell & Lehmann, 1994; Harrison & Shaw, 2004). The present paper links to the specific strand of research that investigates what motivates individuals to visit a museum and what makes them satisfied with their experience.

**Methodology**

The theoretical framework developed in this paper is underpinned to the Lancastrian consumer theory (Lancaster, 1966). According to the standard economic theory the agents select the best option after a hypothetical exhaustive analysis of all possible decisions. Hence, consumers maximize their satisfaction subject to the goods characteristics. Other elements, such as expectations, perceptions and experience, also contribute to consumer utility maximization. The visitor chooses to consume the bundle of goods \( x \) according to their characteristics, subject to an income constraint \( M \), and considering the prices of the purchased good \( p(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_c) \) and the other goods \( d \), as follows:

\[
\text{Max } U(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_c) \text{ subject to } p(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_c) + d = M \quad (1)
\]

Considering a museum, several elements contribute to determine consumer satisfaction. The museum incorporates a bundle of characteristics and perceived features that determine the utility of each consumer. Therefore, the visitor/consumer chooses to visit the museum if and only if he/she meets his/her preferences and satisfaction. In turn, satisfaction is a function of personal characteristics income, education, age, as well as entry fees, time spent at the museum and pull and push factors.
Visitors’ latent preferences are determined by their perception towards museum characteristics that contribute to maximize their utility.

Hence, the satisfaction function for a museum visitor can be presented in the following form:

\[ S_j = (x_j, p_j, Y, t, \eta_i, \varepsilon_j) \] (2)

Specifically, the consumer-visitor is satisfied with his/her visit at the museum \( j \) according to the museum characteristics \( x_j \), prices \( p_j \), income \( Y \), time \( t \) allocated to visiting the museum, individual non-observable characteristics \( \eta_i \) and site non-observable characteristics \( \varepsilon_j \). Since consumers-visiters do not share the same set of factors in their utility function, it is important to account for heterogeneity in a way to account for those who may prefer to visit other attractions.

**The econometric specification**

To test the theoretical framework an econometric analysis is applied. The dependent variable, “how much visitors are satisfied with the visit at the museum Sanna”, is defined by a 5-point Likert scale and it ranges from "very unsatisfied", "unsatisfied", "indifferent" to "satisfied" and "very satisfied". Hence, an ordered logit model needs to be implemented, where both the ordinal nature of the dependent variable and the difference between a level and another are treated as a ranking. The model consists of the following latent regression:

\[
Y^* = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + \varepsilon \\
Y = 0 \text{ if } Y^* \leq 0 \\
Y = 1 \text{ if } 0 < Y^* \leq \mu_1 \\
Y = 2 \text{ if } \mu_1 < Y^* \leq \mu_2 \\
Y = 3 \text{ if } \mu_2 < Y^* \leq \mu_3 \\
Y = 4 \text{ if } \mu_3 < Y^* \leq \mu_4
\] (3)

where \( Y^* \) is not observable, \( Y \) are the observed values, or indicators, and have a censoring specification. The \( \beta \)'s are unknown parameters to be estimated together with \( \varepsilon \). Since an opinion survey is run, the respondents have their own intensity of feelings that depends on a set of factors \( X \) and certain unobservable determinants \( \varepsilon \). In this case, five options have been given and they choose the
indicator that most closely represents their own view on how satisfied they were by the visit.

Model (1) is then calibrated on probabilities. The assumption is that the residual is normally distributed and hence the mean and variance of the residual is normalized to zero and one, leading to the following probabilities:

\[
P_1 = \text{Prob}(y = 0 | x) = \phi(-x \beta)
\]

\[
P_2 = \text{Prob}(y = 1 | x) = \phi(\mu_1 - x \beta) - \phi(-x \beta)
\]

\[
P_3 = \text{Prob}(y = 2 | x) = \phi(\mu_2 - x \beta) - \phi(\mu_1 - x \beta)
\]

\[
P_4 = \text{Prob}(y = 3 | x) = \phi(\mu_3 - x \beta) - \phi(\mu_2 - x \beta)
\]

\[
P_5 = \text{Prob}(y = 4 | x) = 1 - \phi(\mu_3 - x \beta)
\]

For all the probabilities to be positive the following condition also needs to hold (see Greene, 2003):

\[
0 < \theta_j < \theta_{j+1} < \ldots < \theta_{J-1} \quad J = 1, \ldots, J
\]

The ordered logit specification assumes that the coefficients that express the relationship between the lowest indicator versus all higher indicators of the dependent variable are the same as those that describe the relationship between the next lowest category and all higher categories (and so on). Hence, if the relationship between all pairs of groups is the same, a sole set of coefficients is estimated. Under this condition, the parallel regression holds.

In the empirical literature, odds ratio are commonly reported and are given by the following expression:

\[
\text{Odds ratio} = \exp(b)
\]

Specifically, an odds ratio greater than one, associated with positive estimated parameters, indicate that higher values on the explanatory variable make it more likely that the respondent will be in a higher category of Y than the lower ones. Conversely, an odd ratio less than one, associated with the neg-
ative estimated parameters, indicates that higher values on the explanatory variable increase the chance of being in a lower category.

The Case Study

The Giovanni Antonio Sanna Museum (from now on the Sanna Museum) was inaugurated in 1931 based upon the private collection owned by an important Sardinian entrepreneur and an antiquarian collector Senator Giovanni Antonio Sanna (Lo Schiavo, 1991; Touring Club Italiano, 2005). Since then, there has been a notable growth of the archeological and ethnographic collections, thanks to additions of other private collections (e.g. Chessa, Dessì, Clement) and artifacts collected since 1958 through research and excavations carried out by the local Superintendence for Archaeological Heritage. New wings of the museum were built to contain these new finds. These modifications took place between 1966 and 1973, when the museum was re-opened with a modernized new look, displaying ethnographic and artistic pieces in a separate wing and leaving adequate space for the continuously growing archeological sections. Since its foundation, the Sanna Museum is the most important in Sardinia devoted to preserving archeological finds and disseminate cultural knowledge. It is a versatile museum that keeps a very important archaeological section, an art gallery and an ethnographical selection. It counts twelve different sections other than the entrance and the conference room. It exhibits an Art gallery with more than 360 paintings, through to the XIV century to the contemporary age. The Educational room is dedicated to the prehistoric age. The Prehistoric room contains the most ancient materials, from the foxilised wood to the handmade (lower Paleolithic to late Neolithic). The Monte d’Accoddi Room is dedicated to the homonymous Prehistorical Temple. The Hipogean Graves’ Room contains findings from Domus de Janas (typical funeral chambers), mainly of the Copper Age and the Bronze Age. The Megalithic Graves’ room is dedicated to Giant’s Graves and Dolmens, mosaic and epigraphic documents, coming mainly from Turris Libisonis (nowadays, Porto Torres). The Nuragic Room is devoted to the unique Nuragic civilization, lasting only in Sardinia from the Bronze Age 18th century BC to the 2nd century AD. The Roman Rooms illustrate the Roman civilization in the Island while the Phoenician-Punical Rooms contain findings dated back to the 11th and 9th BC. In March 2000, the new Section “medieval and modern” was inaugurated and contains vases, weapons, harnesses, jewels coming from different Sardinian areas. Lastly, the ethnographical section hosts objects of arts and traditions from all parts of Sardinia.
Results

Sergardi and Biraghi (2007) report cultural tourism flows in Italy being quite stable during the year (from a minimum of 20% to a maximum of 31%), with higher flows occurring between September and November. For this reason data was collected in the period between August to November 2011, thus gaining also the opportunity to collect data from both residents and tourists. The questionnaires were administered at the Sanna museum via face-to-face interviews. Respondents were selected with a quota random sampling procedure based on age and gender, to capture heterogeneous demographic features. Although this procedure may lead to bias because not everyone gets a chance to be selected, it does however overcomes the potential bias derived from a random sample procedure, as the trial may be likely to over-represent specific demographic characteristics, such as gender or age. Based on visitors flows in the previous equivalent months, a minimum number of 357 participants was set as a target. These calculations were based on a five percent margin of error and a 95% confidence level. The response distribution rate was 90%. A total of 359 interviews was successfully collected.

The questionnaire contained 37 questions in total, organized in four blocks: the first section asked information on the visit to the museum; the second section asked information about the visitors’ trip to the city of Sassari, if they are not resident in Sassari; the third section contained a sequence of questions on the socio-demographic and economics characteristics of the visitor. A 5-point Likert scale was used in the questions either on the importance, agreement, or likelihood, that quantify variables on motivation, satisfaction, loyalty ranging from negative to positive. The main characteristics of the sample are analysed in order to give a better picture on visitors’ characteristics and expenditure pattern (Tables 1-2). Most of the visitors (62%) are from Italy. They are mostly female (54%) and married or de-facto (54%). Visitors with an age between 28 and 57 are more interested in visiting the museum than either youngsters (13.6%) or older than 72 years old (2.6%). Respondents with an age between 58 and 72 are also well represented (24.6%). Approximately 50% of the respondents were educated at college level. As far as income is concerned, 42.5% of the sample had a middle to high average income (between 26 and 50 thousand euro), while 29.6% earn 25.000 euros per year or less. As far as the employment status is concerned, the majority were occupied either as autonomous workers or as full-time/part-time workers (all together 57.4%). It is important to note that for 71% of the sample this was their first visit to the Sanna museum and only 49% had visited another museum in Sardinia. 64% of the respondents paid an en-
entrance fee with an average cost of 4.85 euro. Finally, the average time of visit was approximately one hour and a half with a minimum of 20 minutes and a maximum of four hours.

Table 1 reports non-residents preferring to stay in rented apartments, with an average expenditure per night of 67 euro. Besides, those who stay in either hotels or bed and breakfast spend on average less than a week on vacation.

Table 1. Expenditure on accommodation of people visiting Sanna museum

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of accommodation</th>
<th>Number of nights (mean)</th>
<th>Cost per night (mean)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hotel</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>86 €</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B&amp;B</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>47 €</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rented Apartment</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>67 €</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friend/Relatives House</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>0 €</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>29 €</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. Expenditure pattern of people visiting Sanna museum (by categories)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Observations</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Food and beverage</td>
<td>195</td>
<td>52 €</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transport</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>25 €</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Souvenirs</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>33 €</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>9 €</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourist guide</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>7 €</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Round trip</td>
<td>192</td>
<td>425 €</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>61 €</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 shows that the highest expense consists of the round trip cost from visitors’ place of residence and the destination (425 euro). Food and beverage also play an important role on visitors’ budget, with an average expenditure of 52 euro per person, followed by expenses in souvenirs (33 euro) and transport (25 euro).

What makes visitors satisfied and unsatisfied: preliminary results:

From a descriptive analysis of survey data it emerges that exogenous factors exist that drive visitors to the Sanna Museum. In the literature, two typologies have been identified that is pull and push factors. Among the first category, people visit the museum mainly for a specific interest (45%), curiosity (40%), to learn something new (37%) and to do something worthwhile (14%). A push factor to visit the museum is to deepen the knowledge about the Nuragic history in Sardinia.
Although most of the visitors (51% good and 39% very good) declared to have a good opinion about the showrooms and other services used during their visit, a few key issues do emerge. Specifically, respondents were asked to provide some suggestions about the museum activities, services and facilities to improve their experience in the museum. 163 people (that is 45.4% of the sample) provided a comment. Specifically, a problem reported by 33% of respondents is the caption translation in other languages. In fact most of the descriptions of the archeological items are presented only in Italian and this prevents non Italian speakers to fully benefit from the exposition. However, the information issue is a common problem in several areas, since 31% of the respondents asked for more visit guides, museum maps and information services along with more linguistically qualified staff. The absence of an adequate advertising was also noticed. 15% of respondents signaled the need to provide more attention to the building status together with other building facilities such as the air conditioner, illumination (especially in the ethnographic room) and in general the exposition status. Another 11% highlighted the absence of drinking and restorative services, bookshop and museum shop. At the same time, 10% noticed the lack of children and educational activities and suggested improving the visiting path with a more interactive itinerary. The presence of the education room within the museum may be exploited to address more educational activities that would increase the number of visits to the museum. These further services would also improve the museums social and cultural function. Given that a push factor to visit the museum is to deepen knowledge about Sardinian history, it may be worthwhile to create a network between the museum and the archeological sites scattered in the area, and Sardinia as a whole, organising group excursions for interested visitors. An added value to the museum visit may derive from the inclusion of visit guides with languages expertise as well as the introduction of a multimedia electronic guide (a device designed to provide audio, visual or textual content) at the site. A higher investment in advertising would benefit the museum and its mission in the long run.

The ordered logit results: In the ordered logit model the dependent variable measures to what degree respondents felt satisfied from their visit to the Sanna museum. This is an ordinal variable that takes values from one (i.e. very unsatisfied) to five (i.e. a very satisfied). A set of socio-demographic and economic determinants are included into the specification as explanatory variables, namely: nationality (nat= dichotomous variable that takes the value one if Italian and zero otherwise); gender, where male is the reference group (gen); age and its square (ages); resident’s education (ed1=no education as the reference
group; ed2 = primary school; ed3 = secondary school; ed4 = high school; ed5 = degree/higher level of education; resident’s income (income); respondent’s entrance fee (fam); time spent at the museum, expressed in minutes (tspent); respondent’s visiting group (company = a dichotomous variable that takes the value 1 if the respondent is with an organized group and zero otherwise); how the respondent felt during his/her visit at the museum (ftired = dichotomous variable that assumes a value if the respondent felt tired and zero otherwise; flearn = dichotomous variable that assumes a value one if the respondent felt he/she was learning something new and zero otherwise; fguided = dichotomous variable that assumes a value one if the respondent felt to be guided during his/her visit and zero otherwise); finally, two pull factors are included in the final econometric specification (pprof = dichotomous variable that assumes a value equal to one if the respondent visited the museum for professional or academic reasons and zero otherwise; pworth = dichotomous variable that assumes a value equal to one if the respondent thought that the visit was worthwhile and zero otherwise).

Table 3 provides results obtained by running the ordered logit model. This specification is, in fact, empirically better than the generalised ordered logit specification as found from the log-likelihood ratio test, where the null hypothesis fails to be rejected (\( \chi^2(42) = 54.66 \) - p-value 0.100). Hence, one assumes that the effect of the explanatory variables on the dependent variable does not vary across the range of Y.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Odds ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nat (foreign ref. category)</td>
<td>2.165 (0.823)**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen (female ref. category)</td>
<td>0.502 (0.188)*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>0.954 (0.084)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ages</td>
<td>1.000 (0.001)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education (ref. group, high education=edu5)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Edu1 (no education)</td>
<td>0.272 (0.197)*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Edu2 (primary school)</td>
<td>4.818 (3.527)**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Edu3 (secondary school)</td>
<td>2.125 (1.203)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Edu4 (high school)</td>
<td>1.158 (0.558)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income</td>
<td>0.847 (0.111)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fam (entry fee)</td>
<td>0.953 (0.059)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tspent (time spent at the museum, in minutes)</td>
<td>1.012 (0.007)*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Company (ref. not an organised group)</td>
<td>0.091 (0.140)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ftired (felt tired)</td>
<td>0.675 (0.137)*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(table continues)
From the econometric results, it emerges that being male and individuals who are visiting the museum with an organised group decreases the likelihood of being in a higher satisfaction category. Moreover, feeling tired during the visit of the museum also increases the chances of being in a lower satisfaction category. On the other hand, empirical findings highlight that being Italian increase the likelihood of being in a higher satisfaction category. Also, a primary level of education increases the probability of being in a higher satisfaction category; nevertheless, from a technical perspective, it is worthwhile pointing out that in this case the standard error is relatively high (3.527). The amount of time spent visiting the museum, (tspend) plays a role in explaining the degree of satisfaction; this variable presents an odds ratio greater than one suggesting that the visit is likely to be associated with a higher level of satisfaction. Positive coefficient values have also been found for the experience at the museum (flearn and fguided) and for the pull factor visiting the museum for professional/academic reasons (pprof), the latter presents the highest odds ratio indicating that such a pull motivation increases the likelihood of being in a higher satisfaction category.

Conclusion

This study has analysed the factors that influence museum visitors’ satisfaction. The case study is the archaeological museum Giovanni Antonio Sanna in Sassari, in the province capital in the North-West of Sardinia (Italy). To run the empirical analysis, a sample of 359 face-to-face interviews was collected during the span of time between August and November 2011. An ordered logit analysis has been run to investigate what socio-demographic and economic determinants, as well as other experience and motivations factors, influence visitors’ level of satisfaction. The empirical findings have revealed that, on the one hand, respondents visiting the Sanna museum is mainly satisfied by pull factors rather than push factors, the actual experience at the museum, length of
the visit and the group they were with. Factors such as gender, nationality, education also play a role in visitors’ overall level of satisfaction.

This study has several relevant implications for managers responsible for marketing and for creating/measuring customer satisfaction in museums. According to prior research (Gil & Ritchie, 2011) it is evident that managers should invest to build a full service experience for their visitors not neglecting technical aspects and convenience. In line with other empirical studies such as Martín-Ruiz, Castellanos-Verdugo and Oviedo-García (2010), the findings reveal the importance of creating/maintaining an appropriate combination of processes, employees and physical amenities, that allow visitors to relax during the visitation, to avoid any sensation of being tired or bored, to learn something new and to feel guided during their visit. Further the use of appropriate technology (touch screen, multilingual audio guides, visual media, etc.) would be useful to satisfy the needs and wishes of visitors, especially for those expressing quite high expectations because of their prior experience in visiting museums worldwide.

Results also suggest to adapt the experience/services coherently with the wishes and desires of different consumer segments thus enhancing the satisfaction of those segments expressing the lowest score, that is male and individuals visiting the museum with an organised group and those people visiting the museum other than for a professional/academic reason. Results show satisfaction increasing as the length of visitation increases thus underlying the opportunity to create and develop ancillary services, experiences, enjoyment for leisure and cultural activities (e.g. exhibitions, concerts, thematic experiences) that motivate consumers to spend more time at the museum and/or allow museum’s managers to seek new ways to reach a broader public and compete effectively with other leisure activities within the destination. This is particularly true for the Sanna Museum whose product/experience is built basically only around the permanent exposition, while ancillary services are substantially absent. A further strand of research, based on the present study, may be aimed at investigating residents’ willingness-to-pay to invest in a restyled museum, that is able to attract not only external demand but also local people, as an education and cultural activity centre. Indeed, the Sanna Museum has a great potentiality that so far has not entirely been exploited.

References


Usage of QR Code in the Tourism Industry

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Abstract
QR (Quick Response) code scanning allows the user to obtain in-depth information about the scanned item. Apps used for scanning QR codes can be found on nearly all smartphone devices. Travelers who have smartphone, equipped with the correct reader software, can easily access QR coded information (text, photo, video, web page, etc.) when it is available. Travelers can scan QR coded galleries, places, vineyards or monuments when they are visiting and reach the detailed information without using even a travel guide. The aim of this study is to explore the QR code usage opportunities in the tourism industry in the Information Age.

Keywords: QR code, information technology, tourism management.

Introduction
Buhalis and Law (2008:610) signify that “technological progress and tourism have been going hand in hand for years”. Today tourists have tendency to use technology in every possible event. On the road, mobile phones support various needs of a tourist. Popularity of mobile Internet access and smart mobile devices are becoming valuable, especially in tourism. Mobile tagging, based on QR codes, offers an opportunity to increase the accessibility of mobile services and receive in-depth information instantly. QR codes may be able to provide additional luxury among tourists. The first part of this ongoing study will explore the QR code opportunities and implementations in tourism, in the second part, awareness of QR code usage among tourist visiting Istanbul will be explored.

QR Code
In general, classic 1D barcodes show us “product identification” and QR codes put emphasis on “product descriptions” (Lingyan, Zewei, Min, & Weining, 2008). QR codes provide an irreplaceable identifier for objects and applications
to automatic checkout system, commerce, industry, hospital, and etc. (Starnberger, Froihofer & Goeschka, 2009). A smart phone can read the content from tags directly. At this point a security issues are the first concern both for user and the code provider. When barcodes contain privacy information, it may result in the risk of security issue (Rouillard, 2008). Chuang, Hu & Ko (2010) argues about the security of the QR code system, as the writer explains that the confidential data is often stored in the back-end database. When a QR code is scanned, it only gets a network link from a tag and after connected to the back-end database through the Internet, hence, the user must be connected to the Internet. Only the user who has access right can login database to retrieve the information. If there is no limitation, everyone can access the product description instantly. In our research the QR codes used in tourism industry have no access limitations, they are designed for everyone who scans them.

**Technical information about QR code**

The QR coding system first developed in Japan. The Japanese company Denson-Wave developed the QR code in 1994 (Denso, 2011). Figure 1 shows the basic structure of QR code. QR code can be refereed to ISO/IEC18004.

![Figure 1. The basic structure of QR code](image)

QR code can store 7,089 numeric characters and 4,296 alphanumeric characters. A mobile phone with camera function can get the content from a barcode quickly and easily. QR codes carry data on both horizontally and vertically, thus QR codes are better than 1D barcodes in data capacity. Even if 30% areas of barcode are damaged, QR codes still can be recognized correctly
The most common 2D barcodes and technical specifications of them listed below.

Table 1. Different types of 2D barcodes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>3D Code</th>
<th>QR code</th>
<th>PDF417</th>
<th>Datamatrix</th>
<th>Maxi Code</th>
<th>Color Code</th>
<th>Microsoft Tag Color Code (HCCB)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Developer</td>
<td>Denso Today, Denso Wave Symbol Technologies</td>
<td>RvSI Acuity CMatrix</td>
<td>UPS</td>
<td>Yonsei University, Korea</td>
<td>Microsoft (Gavin Jaddie)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type</td>
<td>2D matrix</td>
<td>stacked bar codes</td>
<td>Matrix</td>
<td>Matrix</td>
<td>color matrix</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Numeric capacity</td>
<td>7089</td>
<td>2710</td>
<td>3116</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alphanumeric capacity</td>
<td>4296</td>
<td>1850</td>
<td>2355</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Binary capacity</td>
<td>2953</td>
<td>1018</td>
<td>1556</td>
<td>34</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kanji capacity</td>
<td>1817</td>
<td>554</td>
<td>773</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Main features</td>
<td>large capacity, small size, high speed scan</td>
<td>large capacity</td>
<td>small size</td>
<td>high speed scan</td>
<td>server based business model</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Main usage</td>
<td>Logistics, factory automation, mobile phone tags</td>
<td>office automation</td>
<td>factory automation mobile tags</td>
<td>logistics</td>
<td>TV multimedia advertising</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard</td>
<td>AIM, JIS, ISO</td>
<td>AIM ISO</td>
<td>AIM, ISO</td>
<td>AIM, ISO</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


QR codes are becoming increasingly popular with today’s mobile culture. Figure 2 shows results of a recent survey conducted by a British company, Econsultancy. The survey question was “Which of the following mobile channels or technologies do you plan to invest in during 2012?” (Econsultancy, 2012).
Significant numbers of results show that mobile applications and QR code investment rank in the first rows. The figure gives us an idea that companies are considering investment on QR code. On the other hand QR code users growing in certain developed countries. A survey conducted by 3GVision (a worldwide 1D/2D code reader company) shows us the growth numbers of QR code usage around the world (2d-code, 2012).

**Worldwide usage on growth path:** Q3/2011 growing by 20.0% over Q2/2011, with daily scans coming from 141 different countries around the world. QR code usage in North America continues to expand in Q3/2011 with 42.1% growth in the USA and 35.1% growth in Canada compared to Q2/2011. QR code activity in the Spain and Australia showed a significant growth in Q3/2011 of 66.5%, and 50.9% respectively over Q2/2011.

Top 10 users of mobile barcodes during Q3/2011

1. (1) United States
2. (2) Germany
3. (5) Canada
4. (3) UK
5. (4) Italy
6. (6) Netherlands
7. (7) France
8. (9) Spain
9. (10) Australia
10. (8) Hong Kong

The above numbers are based on the total number of QR code, Datamatrix and UPC/EAN scans recorded by 3GVision system during the relevant periods.
Because of 3GVision’s prominence in many markets worldwide, they believe that these numbers are likely to be indicative of global mobile barcode activity. Japan is not included during the survey.

**QR Code Generator and Readers**

Special QR code generation app is used to create QR code. Once you create the QR code a printer prints this code for your usage. Free QR code generators are available at Android, iOS, BlackBerry, HP webOS, Symbian OS, and Windows Mobile markets support typical application. Today the most popular application stores mostly offer the scanner programs free of charge. Popular ones are: i-nigma, Bakodo, QRset and Scan. Some of them can scan 1D and 2D codes.

**QR Code Usage in Tourism Sector**

QR code technology has completely redefined the potential utility and function of signage. Instead of being a stand alone, one off product with a fixed message communicated in just a single language, signage can now serve as a portal to an interactive world whereby people can easily access a much greater depth of content related to a given sign.

The tourism industry is commonly considered as an innovative activity (Buhalis & Law, 2008).

The essential feature of the QR code system is that it allows material buried deep within a website to be accessed via a smart phone. What needs to happen in support of this is for the requisite web pages to be built and integrated into a customized website. A key thing to note here is that the means to translate this content into any one of over 120 languages is now with us and hence the value of this media in communicating with people of non-English speaking backgrounds is enormous.

While the technologies associated with portable electronic devices will continue to evolve and improve, as will their overall uptake and use by domestic and international visitors, the current systems are sufficient to justify integrating them into the overall visitor communication product platform.

QR code can be very usable on the following tourism areas:

**Museums and Galleries**

Museum and art galleries may offer detailed explanation about the items and the artworks without spending large amount of money. Museums use QR
codes to offer a multi-media experience for their visitors. An exhibit can only display so much information, but a QR code can hold even more video, data, pictures, audio or combination of presentation media. Guided tours can become a video guided tour for the visitor. Traditional headphone informative systems may be backed up by QR codes and videos bring the artworks alive. Today some galleries use different presentation techniques for attracting more art lovers. An Australian company, Grande Exhibitions, created Van Gogh Alive experiences in Karaköy/Istanbul, at Antrepo 3. Grande Exhibitions undertook a challenging assignment to create this new Van Gogh Alive exhibition completely from scratch; utilizing the latest technology, new choreography and creative direction - incorporating new music and images to tell the story of Vincent van Gogh in greater depth than the first exhibition. Photographs and video have also been augmented with Van Gogh's works to demonstrate his sources of inspiration.

The Cleveland Museum of Art and Bologna’s Museum of Archeology are using QR codes to do audio tours of their collections. The tour is for the new galleries: ancient Near East, Greek, Roman, Egyptian art; Byzantine and medieval art; African art; and prints and drawings. Once the code has been scanned, the user is taken to an online version of the audio tour.

The Brooklyn Museum has been taking QR code use one step further. Rather than simply being satisfied with QR codes for artist information, the Brooklyn Museum is experimenting with using QR tags to enhance information about accessibility and even printed two versions of the museum map – a traditional one and one with QR codes.

Smithsonian Natural History Museum in Washington DC used QR codes as part of an exhibit on Neanderthals. And their exhibit about Neanderthal man included QR codes for mobile apps letting visitors see what they would look like as Neanderthals and enabled them to share the photo with their friends on facebook (Smithsonian, 2012).

Similarly, the National Museum of Scotland uses Tales of Things too. Around 80 objects in the Scotland: A Changing Nation gallery has been ‘tagged’ with QR codes. The visitor is taken straight to a website page with further detail about the item, from video and audio clips to images and fun facts.
Accommodation Sector

QR codes are used on cards in the rooms, notices in elevators, at the concierge desk and message boards in the lobby to engage clients with tips on where to dine or what to do during their stay.

Upon scanning the QR code, users are diverted to the hotel website’s blog which contains the latest events, restaurant tips, attractions and activity recommendations, our favorite shops, etc. From here the guest can also navigate to social media pages. This is a simple way to increase the guest service level in a hotel, and at the same time connect the guest through social media platforms such as the property’s blog, Facebook, Twitter and Google+ profiles. These codes could also direct users to help and information about local restaurants, attractions and activities in the area. You could even create a call to action whereby scanning the QR code gives guests money off their dinner or a free drink in the bar.

A hotel in Turkey has just announced the usage of QR code at Otium Eco Club Side. The hotel uses QR code in the following areas for different purposes;

- Motorway hotel signs with QR code on them show the hotel address and the communication data to the smart phone users and they can easily receive the information visually.

- Otium Hotel restaurant menus use QR codes that give the users nutritional information for each menu item in detail.

- Restaurant menus with QR code will show the related preparation videos of the menu item. They believe that families with children watch these children menu preparation videos with great interest (turizmhabercisi, 2011).

A hotel may convert the elevator on the effective sales tool. Placing a QR code you can use travel times from one floor to another to deliver services to customers, new proposals and other information of interest.

Restaurants and Bars

Restaurants can also easily utilize QR codes to give their customers more information about the food and drink being served that wouldn’t otherwise fit on the menu. Scanning QR codes on the menu could give users calorie and recipe information, but you could also use the technology to direct customers to preparation videos to show them exactly what goes into your food.
and why your food is better than the competitors’. Again, you could create a call to action on advertising boards outside the restaurant whereby scanning the QR code gives customers discounts on the food or a free glass of wine with their meal – you could also reveal a secret menu or dish available only to customers who’ve scanned the QR code. Everyone loves to be exclusive.

Micro-brewery WJ King have recently become the first brewery in the world to put their head brewer into every pub – and to make the most of new marketing technology, they’ve starting putting QR codes onto each and every bottle of beer and onto all pump clips. WJ King’s customers generally want to know how their food and drink is made and prepared and to exploit this, WJ King are using QR codes to direct customers to information about the brewing process as well as the flavor profile and style of each beer so that customers can make informed choices about which of their beers to try.

Coming up with useful and creative content to direct your customers to is probably the most important thing to keep in mind when developing a new QR code campaign. But you should also take a leaf out of WJ King’s book and know your target market inside out – that way, your QR code campaign has a much higher chance of succeeding (Kingbeer, 2012).

Similar usage is very popular at Radisson Edwardian, which operates several hotels around the UK. It has been running QR code campaigns recently.

These include adding QR codes to its menus, which send users to videos of dishes being prepared. They found that a lot of people were tech and social media savvy, and a surprising number of people picked up on it quickly.
The same hotel have a lot of original art works in their hotels, and Radisson Edwardian plan to add QR codes to give background information on for their guests (Econsultancy, 2012).

Restaurant, hotel and pub companies are beginning to tune into the benefits smart phone payments can provide, both for the business and its customers. McDonalds, Costa and Starbucks have recently introduced contactless payment, while customers at the latter are able to automatically send and pay for their order via a downloadable application. From iPhone applications and QR codes to eGift vouchers and pre-pay cards, paying for goods and services using a smart phone is fast becoming a replacement for credit cards and cash.

Air Travel Sector

Today many airlines use QR code for promotion and boarding. Securidox, a document delivery firm, believe that the inclusion of a QR code on their securely delivered airline boarding passes will not only enable the passengers’ smooth transit through their airport, but also it will take them immediately to the airline’s onboard sales portal. Airports can also use them to facilitate fast-track security or parking offers.

When asked, Mark Scott MD of Securidox said, “ID is essential, but a boarding pass is the one piece of paper that every passenger must have to travel. We can add web page specific QR codes to each of our boarding passes, so that the mobile traveller can then scan for pre-flight offers. We are developing this idea with Ivor Smith of dutyfreeonarrival.com who has secured QR codes and airline duty free data for every world airline” (Securidox, 2012).

Dutch airline KLM have taken serious approach to social media by allowing fans to check in to their flights in Holland recently by scanning a QR code on the floor. It has been made for KLM Queen’s day. Using the code made a fast check in for the passengers. Delta uses QR code boarding passes. Gate employees can scan the bar code and see the details of your flight. Scandinavian Airlines, who recently launched the “Couple Up to Buckle Up” 2 for 1 campaign that used two unique QR codes across every touch point (emails, facebook app, banners, print ads .etc), leveraging an insight into how couples most commonly book trips.

Couples would each scan the QR code assigned to them, which would sync their half of a video based offer and reveal the discount code split across both screens. During the campaign they sold out every ticket available Flysas (2011).
The mobile boarding pass is essentially a paperless e-ticket. Here is how it works:

- The airline sends your boarding document, with a link to your QR code, directly to your mobile device via e-mail.
- You click the link in the email to retrieve your QR code.
- Anytime you need to present your boarding pass – at security checkpoints or at the gate – you hold up your QR code to a scanner, which reads the information.
- The QR code acts as a unique link to all of your flight information.

If you have a seat change or upgrade, or a change in the departure gate, your boarding pass can be refreshed electronically to display the new information. The pass can also be used to check any bags at self-service machines, airline counters and curbside kiosks.

For Qantas, the QR Code boarding pass system is being implemented for domestic flights and is available via the Mobile check-in counter, as opposed to the conventional long lines at the airport. These mobile check-in counters will be made available at Brisbane, Canberra, Adelaide, Melbourne, Perth airports.

United Airlines has added QR Codes as part of their mobile check-in process. In Turkey Pegasus Airlines uses mobile check in process recently.

**Guided Street Tours and Open Air Museums**

Visiting a foreign city can be interesting if the city streets have the informative codes. Many cities use the codes for providing area information to the tourist. QR codes can take you to the history of the area where you are.

QR codes are now found at many locations such as D.C. libraries and bus stops. In fact, a recent initiative has placed QR codes on the local D.C. Circulator buses to offer citizens new ways to engage with their services in real time. Each QR code is personalized to each bus – allowing riders to quickly get up-to-the moment progress reports, post traffic status updates, view bus schedules per route and stop and, of course, interact by commenting or tweeting.

Ready or not, the discovery of information is digitized. It’s e-discovery. Museum exhibit placards or written displays now have QR codes which allow visitors to quickly link their real-world experience to rich web content via their smart phone. Such QR codes on museum placards are at the National Museum of Natural History, the National Museum of the American Indian, and more.
In Manchester, UK, Decoding Art has just been launched. The 20 monuments that now come with their own QR codes can be covered on foot in about an hour; the casual interpretation provided by conservator Beth Courtney en route keeps the pace flowing, while 12 audio commentaries by historian and broadcaster Jonathan Schofield help animate the scene (Manchestergalleries, 2011).

Streets, castles, vineyards, rivers, parks all open air venues can inform the tourist with QR code.

Philippine wireless leader Smart Communications, Inc. (Smart) and Cebu-based website MyCebu.ph have partnered to deliver information on tourism and heritage sites to mobile phones and tablets through QR code scanning. The project is being undertaken in partnership with the Department of Tourism.

Smart and MyCebu.ph will place special markers on tourism and heritage sites all over Cebu. The markers will contain a snippet of information about the site and a QR code that, when scanned, will open an article about the landmark.

The highlight of the tour was the display of the San Juan Bautista parish church through a QR code marker at the chapel that is built on where the church used to stand. The parish church is described by historical records as the most opulent in Cebu.

Same kind of scheme started in the UK. This scheme will run in Shrewsbury, Leicester, Chester, Rochester and Rutland as a pilot for six months (visitengland, 2012).

**Shops**

Gift shops use QR codes for the same purpose, information about the product. Some shops add music to the product. Shops turn the QR codes in to successful marketing campaigns.

J.C. Penney (USA department store) used QR codes last Christmas season to create a special experience for both gift givers and receivers. During the holiday season, J.C. Penney offered a QR code promotion at 1,100 of their stores. But, rather than simply linking customers to a QR code created by them, they are letting the customers do the creating. By going to customer service, shoppers get QR code gift tags that allow them to scan the code, record a personal voice message, and then affix the tag to their gift. Once the gift recipient scans
the QR code, they hear the pre-recorded message from the gift-giver (Jcpsanta, 2011).

In Korea Tesco company launch a campaign called “Let the store come to people”. They created a virtual Tesco store at the metro station. Customers have been purchasing the products by scanning the QR code of the product, later when they finish shopping; purchased products are delivered to the home addresses. After the campaign the company’s online sales increased %130 (youtube, 2012).

Conclusion

Technology and tourism are two areas that people involved in their daily life today. This study has identified the usage of QR codes in various areas in tourism. In Turkey, these implementations are not common yet, although ownership of cellular phone is high, awareness of these practices still looks away from desired point. Another part of this study will investigate the potential of awareness of QR code usage among tourist visiting Istanbul will be explored.

References


Prominent Elements for Providing Quality in Thermal Hotel Enterprises from the Perspective of Managers

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Abstract

Human beings have benefited from healing waters throughout history. Thermal hotel managements offer their customers both hotel and spa services. Offering this healing water to customers and quality of service is very important for customers. The aim of this study is to determine the prominent service elements for providing quality in hotel managements from the perspectives of thermal hotel managers. Accordingly, the opinions of the five-star thermal hotel managers were asked. Questionnaire method has been preferred for data collection. In this context, the managers were asked to order the prominent elements for providing quality in services according to the degree of importance. The order of importance and importance averages have been used for data analysis. The results revealed that managers perceive the first impression of customers and provision of fast, high quality, clean and hygienic service as the primarily important element regarding the presentation of thermal treatment and accommodation services.

Key words: thermal tourism, hospitality management, service quality.

Introduction

Quality is a concept that refers to the features of a product meeting the needs of consumer best in a specific period and providing enough and satisfactory usage opportunity. It is more difficult to define the term quality in service sector than others. The “production process” of services includes the interaction of employees and customers, and this makes the stability and reliability of the
service process and thus realization of the product difficult. Quality judgments of an intangible service are determined by individual customer’s perceptions and expectations, making it difficult to discover and correct service failures (Hays & Hill, 2000).

There are several opinions regarding the definition of service quality. The definitions of service quality focus on meeting the needs and wishes of customers and on what degree the offered services meet the expectations of customers (Lewis, 1993). While service quality is defined by an opinion as meeting the needs, wishes and expectations of customers and going beyond (Öztürk, 1998), according to another opinion, it is better to use the term perceived service instead of service quality and perceived quality is defined as the performance difference between expectations and experiences (Parasuraman et. al., 1985).

Service quality is investigated in two different ways as compulsory and attractive quality. While compulsory quality constitutes the expectations of customer, the part that goes beyond the customer expectations refers to attractive quality. Compulsory quality error rate is explained by indicators such as recycling rate, number of complaints etc. Attractive quality is related to positive sides of a product or a service and superior features that make a company different from others. While the lack of compulsory quality causes dissatisfaction on customers, the lack of attractive quality in service does not create dissatisfaction (Oral, 2001; Murat & Çelik, 2007). However, it is necessary to provide the customer with the elements that constitute the service quality without any fault. When the literature of service quality is examined, it is seen that dimensions of service quality are investigated in ten dimensions by Parasuraman et. al., (1988a) as physical means, reliability, eagerness, proficiency, kindness, credibility, safety, accessibility, communication and understanding customer; in three dimensions by Ghobadian et.al. (1994) as physical quality, combined quality and interaction quality, and in three dimensions by Lehtinen & Lehtinen (1991) as physical quality, interaction quality and management quality. On the other hand, Wong & Sohal (2003) classified service quality in five dimensions as reliability, ability of responding, assurance, empathy, and concrete elements. Sureshchandar, et. al. (2001) classified service quality with customer perception in five dimensions as “core service”, “human element of service delivery”, “systematization/standization of service delivery: non-human element”, “concrete services-service extensions” and “social responsibility”. As Oh notices, hotel enterprises should have a holistic approach for improving service quality and customer satisfaction (1999). Accordingly, every phase of
quality dimension will provide the formation of service quality, and the level of this quality will lead to customer satisfaction (Emir, 2007).

There are a lot of factors that affect the perception and expectations of customers from a product or service. Differences between expected and perceived values arise from various features of customers and services. Perceived service quality is accepted as the level of difference between customers’ expectations and perceptions. Perceived quality reveals the thoughts of customer regarding the superiority of a service or a product, and it is known that determining the standards of perceived quality is quite difficult. Perceived quality is customer’s value judgments for the completeness of a good or service without any lack. It is the comparison of customer expectations with performance perception (Parasuraman et. al., 1988b). Perceived quality of a service can be defined as the end of an evaluation period in which expectations and perceptions of a customer consuming a service are compared. A customer compares the expected service and the perceived service and as a result of this process the perceived service quality is formed. For this reason, service quality depends on the difference between “expected and perceived service” (Gürbüz & Ergülen, 2006; Grönroos, 1984). In determining the service quality, if the expectations of a customer is lower than perceptions, the service quality is high; if perceptions are lower than expectations, the service quality is low and not satisfactory (Tavmergen, 2002). Converting the service quality into a strong mean of rivalry requires a continuous effort in order to provide service superiority. Performing continuously above the desired service level and benefiting from the advantage of going beyond the expected level is of great importance for managements (Parasuraman et. al., 1991). In order to increase the service quality in an enterprise, managers should perceive service expectations correctly, base this on studies, and arrange the work processes correctly (İslamoğlu et. al., 2006). For this reason, managers’ evaluation of hotel services has great importance because employees having executive duties in managements will tend to reflect these mentioned expectations naturally to their managements. In this context, the studies that will be conducted to measure the perceptions of the related personnel will be of great importance for providing data to improve quality. On the other hand, success in hotel managements is directly related with customer satisfaction. In thermal hotel managements whose main product is health and leisure, the food-beverage, accommodation, employee and entertainment are also important for customer satisfaction. In several studies (Koçbek, 2005; Yıldırım, 2005; Demir, 2006; Emir, 2007; Murat & Çelik, 2007; Tayfun & Kara 2007; Yılmaz, 2007; Keskin, 2008; Karakaya, 2009; Shengelbayeva, 2009) carried out with this aim,
service quality was determined according to customer views. However, in this study, evaluations on service quality have been done via managers’ perspectives and the elements which are more important for providing quality for service departments of hotel enterprises have been examined. The obtained results are thought to contribute to the related literature and tourism sector with a new perspective.

Methodology

The research population includes 44 senior and mid-level managers in four five-star thermal hotels in Afyonkarahisar. The reason for the inclusion of five-star thermal hotels in this study is that the thermal treatment services offered in these hotels are more qualified and comprehensive, and these hotels have a broader organizational structure. As a result of the limited population and not being able to reach the whole population, sampling method was not used and it was aimed to reach all the senior and mid-level managers in five-star thermal hotel managements. Accordingly, questionnaire method was used in the evaluation of managers regarding the offered services in hotel managements. Several studies (Koçbek, 2005; Yıldırım, 2005; Demir, 2006; Emir, 2007; Murat & Çelik, 2007; Tayfun & Kara 2007; Yılmaz, 2007; Keskin, 2008; Karakaya, 2009; Shengelbayeva, 2009) were benefited in the formation of the questionnaire. Questionnaires were delivered to the managers in the population by contacting one manager in each hotel. The questionnaire given to the managers included 39 (front-office: 5, housekeeping: 5, food and beverage: 7, treatment services: 6, general service departments: 10) items. The questionnaire forms were distributed to 44 hotel managers by hand and collected in the same way. In the analysis process, since three forms were not answered and one form was filled incorrectly, 40 questionnaire forms were analyzed. In the questionnaire, the managers were asked to order the statements related to providing the quality in the service departments according to the order of importance and the results were analyzed via SPSS by computing the order of importance and means.

Results

Table 1 presents the order of importance and mean scores of the managers’ opinions regarding the elements playing a role in providing service quality in thermal hotel managements. According to this, for providing the service quality related to front-office, managers finds “sincere welcoming in the hotel entrance” as the primary important element with a mean score of 4.4; “entering the hotel, and fast and faultless registration process” as the secondary im-
portant element with a mean score of 3.5; “giving a room appropriate for customer’s preference” as the third important element with a mean score of 2.8; “giving information to customers about the services and departments in hotel” as the fourth important element with a mean score of 2.5; “informing the customers about the time of meals and other activities” as the fifth important element. These results related to the front-office reveals that first impressions of customers regarding the hotel enterprises is the most important element according to managers.

For providing the service quality related to housekeeping services, while “preparation of the room in time” was the first with 4.2 mean score and “rooms’ being comfortable and cosy” was the second with the mean score of 3.3, “offering room services in accordance with customers’ desires perfectly” was the least (fifth) minded element. The importance of this element’s being regarded as low by most of the managers is a striking result. The reason for this can be explained by the thought that room service is not among the primary duties of housekeeping services.

For providing the quality for food-beverage services, while the managers stated that “foods and beverages being delicious and high quality” has the highest importance with 5.8 mean score, they gave the element “having halls for feast organizations” the least importance. It is possible to explain this situation with the fact that feast organizations do not have an important place among the services offered by food-beverage department or a different hall is not needed to hold feast organizations.

Table 1. Manager opinions regarding the elements that influence the provision of service quality

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Service Departments</th>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Order of Importance</th>
<th>Importance</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Evaluations related to front-office department</td>
<td>A sincere welcoming in the hotel entrance</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Entering the hotel, and fast and faultless registration process</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Giving a room appropriate for customer’s preference</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Giving information to customers about the services and departments in hotel</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Informing the customers about the time of meals and other activities</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evaluations related to housekeeping department</td>
<td>Preparation of the room in time</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rooms being comfortable and cosy</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Providing cleanliness and tidiness of the rooms as it is required</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Properties and technical equipment meeting the needs of customers in</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evaluations related to food-beverage department</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Offering room services in accordance with customers’ desires perfectly</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foods and beverages being delicious and high quality</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equipments being high quality and clean in restaurants and bars</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High quality and fast service</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cleaning and air-conditioning being on a desired level in restaurants and bars</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decoration and design of the restaurants and bars reflecting the quality of the management</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Placing vegetarian and diet food and beverages on the menus</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having halls for feast organizations</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Evaluations related to employees</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Employees having a smiling face and being kind</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employees paying attention to cleaning and hygiene</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employees having the necessary knowledge and ability for their job</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employees doing their work fast and correctly</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employees paying attention to the communication with customers</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employees having knowledge about first-aid</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Evaluations related to treatment center services</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Having enough number of health staff</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Providing cleaning and hygiene in the units</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The staffs being experienced</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having necessary equipment for treatment</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informing the customers about treatment services</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having emergency services</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Evaluations related to general services</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mutual areas being clean and tidy in the hotel</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General physical condition and furnishing being on a sufficient level</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Customers feeling themselves safe and relaxed in the hotel</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All the services being offered in time and correctly</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sorting out the problems and complaints stated by the customers</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having necessary precautions for fire, health and security</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Customers having communication with all the managers and employees easily</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Placing informative signs in the hotel where necessary</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The appropriateness of the price with the service quality in the hotel</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having sport and entertainment facilities for children and adults</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The most important elements thought by the participants for providing the quality related to employees were “employees having a smiling face and being kind” with 5.3 mean score and “employees paying attention to cleaning and hygiene” with a mean score of 4.1. On the hand, the least important element was thought to be “Employees having knowledge about first-aid” by the managers with a mean score of 2.0.

While the first two most important elements for providing service quality in treatment center services in thermal hotel managements according to managers were “Having enough number of health staff” and “Providing cleaning and hygiene in the units”, the least important element thought by the managers was “having emergency services”.

On the other hand, the managers regarded “Mutual areas being clean and tidy in the hotel” with 7.3 mean score and “General physical condition and furnishing being on a sufficient level” with 6.8 mean score as the most important elements for providing service quality in general services. The least important elements on this issue according managers were “The appropriateness of the price with the service quality in the hotel” and “Having sport and entertainment facilities for children and adults”.

**Conclusion**

Hotel enterprises in tourism sector need to increase their service quality to meet customer expectations that differ each and every day. The managements that want to survive in this rivalry environment must satisfy their customers more than other enterprises. Customers get satisfied if they get a more qualified service than the previous one. At this point, service quality is related to what degree the service being offered meets the expectations of a customer. The important thing here is how the services offered by hotel enterprises are perceived not by managers but by customers and what kind of endeavors the managers make in order to determine these perceptions. It is necessary for quality and customer satisfaction to determine the standards of the services that complement each other in thermal hotel enterprises. In this scope, 40 thermal hotel managers in Afyonkarahisar participated in this study in order to determine the prominent elements for the provision of the quality in thermal hotel enterprises. When the findings of this study are examined in general, the elements having the highest degree of importance according to managers are presented in Table 2 with their importance mean scores.
Table 2. The statements having the highest degree of importance according to managers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Departments</th>
<th>The statements having the highest degree of importance</th>
<th>Importance Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Front-office</td>
<td>A sincere welcoming in the hotel entrance</td>
<td>4.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>House-keeping</td>
<td>Preparation of the room in time</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food-beverage</td>
<td>Foods and beverages being delicious and high quality</td>
<td>5.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employees</td>
<td>Employees having a smiling face and being kind</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Treatment centre</td>
<td>Having enough number of health staff</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Convention services</td>
<td>Having meeting halls with sufficient capacities for various usages</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General services</td>
<td>Mutual areas being clean and tidy in the hotel</td>
<td>7.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to summarized findings in Table 2, the statements having the highest degree of importance were determined as “A sincere welcoming in the hotel entrance” for front-office, “Preparation of the room in time” for housekeeping, “Foods and beverages being delicious and high quality” for food and beverages, “Employee’s having a smiling face and being kind” for employees, “Having enough number of health staff” for cure centre, and “Mutual areas being clean and tidy in the hotel” for general services.

Besides meeting customers’ expectations and increasing their satisfaction levels, employees in hotel managements have also important roles in offering services appropriate for standards. Meeting the expectations, and as a result of this, providing satisfaction is directly related to service quality. Providing the service quality depends on employees’ attitudes and behaviors that sometimes form a part of services and sometimes the whole of it. Although there is a myriad of conflicting results in literature for setting up strategies and goals (Cronin et. al., 2000), the results obtained from the studies carried out in this area support this case. In the study “Measuring the service quality in hotel managements in terms of managers and customers” carried out by Yılmaz (2007), it was found that both managers and customers have high expectations regarding the issues of “staffs being eager to serve”, “staffs assuring the customers” and “staffs being polite and respectful”. In another study conducted by Karakaya (2009), it was revealed that customers have high expectations on the issues of “staffs having a smiling face while doing his/her job” and “staffs being clean and good-looking”. Qualities and attitudes of employees who have very important functions in the presentation of services and providing the service quality are the most important factors in providing customer satisfaction. In this study, the participating managers regarded the smiling face, kindness,
cleaning and hygiene as the elements having high degree of importance for employees.

The managers stated that “having a sufficient number of health staff” in treatment centers was the most important element for them. It is possible to see in different studies conducted on this issue that customer expectations in thermal hotel enterprises center around accommodation and food-beverage services, and it is also possible to encounter studies with results giving less importance to cure services. With these results, it can be seen that customer expectations and managers’ opinions show parallelism because having a sufficient number of health stuff who will present these services and providing cleaning and hygiene are the most important issues for this unit which offers health and treatment services, and have the highest degree of importance accepted by everyone.

Presentation of food and beverage services, general services, accommodation and treatment services are the primary reasons of customers for coming to thermal hotel enterprises and thus, meeting customer expectations is important for the enterprise to continue its activities. For this reason, managers should pay attention to the studies carried out on customer expectations and satisfaction. Although linking customer perceptual measurements with organizational variables is difficult methodically (Zeithaml, 2000), the services offered in hotel enterprises should be evaluated and compared by hotel managers in order to harmonize customer expectations and managers’ opinions at specific times as it was done in this study. This issue will contribute a lot to meeting customer expectations.

References


Features of the Development of Innovative Processes in Tourism
PhD Students of the Eurasian National University ENU

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Abstract
This paper describes the features of the development of innovative processes in tourism, which today is one of the most promising directions of development of the national economy of the RK.

Key words: innovative processes, postgraduate students.

Introduction
The statement of the Government of the Republic of Kazakhstan on the main directions of economic and social policies and economic indicators forecast for 2006, one of the priorities are the creation of an innovative economy and the development of non-oil sector. In 2006, the second phase of the Strategy of Industrial and Innovation Development of Kazakhstan, scheduled for 2003-2015. One of the main tasks of the second stage - is the creation and implementation of cluster development approach in the priority sectors of the economy. In June 2005, approved a plan to create and develop pilot clusters "Tourism". (Nazarbaev, 2000) The decision of the Government of 01.03.06 was pointed out that the implementation of cluster projects will be implemented by combining the efforts of small and medium-sized businesses, as well as in addition to the vertically-integrated companies through outsourcing arrangements and the role of domestic business in the major oil projects. Cluster development is by far one of the most promising directions of development of the national economy.

The state's role in the economic development of the cluster is to create a favorable business climate for private entrepreneurs as key participants in the project and the economy as a whole, which will provide better performance. The need to develop non-oil sector, strengthening the competitiveness of do-
Domestic products and support of Kazakh producers dictated, first of all, the intention of Kazakhstan in the years to become a member of the World Trade Organization. Further modernization and diversification of the economy as one of the priorities of the country not once mentioned the Head of State Nursultan Nazarbayev. According to him, the main purpose of Innovation Development Strategy is to diversify the economy through the development of competitive industries in the non-oil sectors of the economy and the reduction of economic growth from exports of raw materials. At the 14th plenary meeting of the Foreign Investors Council in November 2005, Nazarbayev stressed that Kazakhstan has formed a system of state development institutions such as the Development Bank, the Investment Fund of Kazakhstan National Innovation Fund, the State Corporation for Export and Investment Insurance, Center Marketing and Analytical Research, Center for Engineering and Technology Transfer.

In Kazakhstan, marketing and analytical studies have been conducted by consulting companies JE Austin Associates and the Economic Competitiveness Group to determine the competitiveness of economic sectors of the economy of Kazakhstan and which resulted in the pilot areas were selected.

Active development of tourism in the second half of XX century. Its reserves are permanent (continuous) innovation. The stimulating effect on innovation in tourism has a variety of factors:

- new areas of science and technology, the emergence of new technologies;
- economic and political situation in some regions and countries;
- innovations undertaken by international organizations, the rules of economic relations, established by the World Trade Organization, new forms of cooperation, being introduced by the World Tourism Organization, decisions of international or regional tourist organizations, associations, generating new knowledge about the tourist resources in different regions of the globe and information on additional opportunities for tourist travel;
- state laws and other legal acts that determine the economic and political principles of operation of tourism enterprises, including the development of the state concept of tourism development, the adoption of new regulations on the socio-economic issues;
- changes in the markets: the emergence of new tourist destinations, the disparity of services offered to the needs of travel, changing patterns of demand, the emergence of new demands from consumers for quality tourism product;
• innovation in the activities of manufacturing industries closely related to the tourism business (transport companies, hotels, recreational facilities, communication facilities, etc.);
• the desire of companies to strengthen market positioning and the struggle for survival;
• unexpected events that do not depend on the will of the people: environmental and technological disasters, acts of terrorism, and others (Nikitinsky, 2008).

Innovations in tourism are stimulated and in some EU countries. For example, in Italy was adopted a law “About the reform of national legislation of tourism”. By this Act tourist enterprises equated to industrial, on them were spread exemptions, deductions, subsidies, incentives and benefits of any kind, which are provided by acting legislative standards for the industrial sector, of course, within the financial capabilities for this purpose. The law is aimed at strengthening the mutual cooperation of various agencies and institutions to pursue a single national policy in sphere of tourism, also to use fully capabilities of entrepreneurship in tourist activities. (Makogonov, Ivanov, & Nikitinsky, 2009)

The most complete cluster theory is presented in the work of american scientist M.Porter. Among other foreign researchers can distinguish scholarly works of A. Marshall, E.Bergman, E.Fazer, S. Rosenfeld, E.Dakhmen, J.A. Tolenado, D.Sole, M.Enwrite etc. Issues of cluster formation was given attention in the studies of local scientists E.F.Avdokushina, N.N.Volkova, L.S. Markov, A.A. Migranyan, V.Pilipenko, T.V.Pogodina, Y. Ryabchenyuk, T. Sakhno, A.V.Tkach, V.P.Tretyak, T. Tsihan, M.A. Yagolnitser etc. However, it should be noted that in the local (Soviet) literature the problems associated with the functioning of the clusters are not sufficiently developed. Issues of formation and realization of regional cluster policies are poorly understood.

**Methodology**

Tourist activity is based on a foundation of accumulated knowledges. That’s why we must first examine past experiences, to relate it to the present, to become an expert in our field, and only then begin to incarnate new ideas and innovations. One sign of success in the market is increasing of market share. Searches are show that not advertising and actively promoting of the product provide a steady growth of market share, but the innovation in all areas of tourist activity does. Innovation processes take place in international and national
control systems of tourist activity, the development of new technologies (e-commerce, the creation of virtual travel agencies); forms of marketing, creating a tourist product.

As already noted, the introduction of e-business allows you to:

- Use more cost-effective channels of relations with companies and target markets.
- Consumers easier and faster to acquire tourist product, which leads to an increase in turnover and expenditure.
- Provide a higher level of service and customer retention.
- -Reduce costs through more efficient internal operations and simplify procedures for business transactions. (Zenkin, 2003).

Important aspect of diplomatic recognition of interstate tourist relations is partnership carried out in the framework of the agreement in 1979 on the relations and connections of the World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) to the program of the United Nations Development Program (UNDP). By agreement were defined the directions of providing multilateral assistance in every economic and social sector related to tourism development, measures to make strengthen the material base of tourism in states - the members of the World Tourism Organization. Most of the projects funded by UNDP are realizing by the UN itself or by one of the 26 related and affiliated institutions, based on a model agreement between the UNWTO as the executing agency and UNDP. If we talk about the UNWTO, a specialized UN agency, then one of its general activity is to spread and to install innovations and accumulated experiences in the field of tourism among the countries of the world.

In autumn 1980 in Manila (Philippines) was held the World Conference on Tourism. It adopted the Manila Declaration on World Tourism, which recognizes that world tourism can be developed only on the basis of equity, sovereign equality, noninterference in internal affairs and cooperation among all States irrespective of their economic and social systems, and its ultimate goal is to improve the quality of life for all people.

Declaration of the World Tourism Conference in Acapulco (Mexico, 1982) recommended to states in the implementation of the choice of technologies in the field of tourism harmoniously link local and foreign technologies, adapt them to specific conditions and use proven applied methods.
Held in April 1989 in The Hague Inter-Parliamentary Conference on Tourism adopted the Hague Declaration on Tourism. There was noted that tourism can be an effective tool for promoting social and economic growth for all countries, if at the same time take the necessary steps to address the most urgent national problems and to achieve an acceptable level of self-sufficiency with which the country should not spend more than what it hopes to get from tourism. It must enter into comprehensive development of the country’s other priority areas of the economy, and need to stimulate domestic tourism as well as international.

At the XVI General Assembly of the World Tourism Organization, held in 2001 in Seoul and Osaka, have been adopted the Seoul Declaration, "Peace and Tourism" and the Osaka Millennium Declaration. In the Millennium Declaration, which was prepared and approved by the leaders of the world tourism from the public and private sectors, there is a section "Tourism and Information Technology". It notes that the success of tourism enterprises and Tourist Center are largely dependent on the opportunities of information technology and the Internet. Government departments, national tourism administrations and tourist areas of the marketing organization (DMO) should, in close collaboration with the private sector and regional and local authorities to actively create and refine complex databases to ensure the competitiveness of tourism e-business.

At the appropriate level should be protected the rights of consumers and the system of operational conflict resolution and advanced technology should be introduced for convenience and comfort of travelers, simplification and harmonization of documentation required when crossing borders.

In general, this declaration can be considered as the program of action in the field of innovation in tourism.

In the declaration, "Peace and Tourism" it was proclaimed: "We aim to promote cooperation in the exchange of knowledge, information, technology and human resources related to tourism areas between developed and developing countries; to cooperate to make knowledge-based tourism industry and to fill the missing links in the economic, social and cultural environment and technology; also to contribute in the social development and prosperity of mankind."

Sustainable tourism development requires an adequate participation of all stakeholders which are relevant to this field and needs the strong political leadership to the same extent to ensure wide participation and attainment of consensus. The attainment of sustainable tourism is a continuous process requiring
constant monitoring of the environmental impact by introducing, if necessary, appropriate preventive and / or corrective actions.

The main difference between the mass models (traditional) and sustainable tourism (see Table 1) lies in the fact that some of the benefits derived in the case of sustainable tourism development is directed to the recovery of the resource base and improving production of technology services. In 2000, the well-known tour operators in cooperation with UNEP (United Nations Programme on Environmental Protection), the UN Commission on Education, Science and Culture Organization (UNESCO) and the World Tourism Organization have created a voluntary non-profit partnership "Tour Operators Initiative for Sustainable Tourism Development» (TOI), which is open to all new members.

Members of the partnership determine sustainable development as a basis for their business and work together to promote practices and methods that are compatible with sustainable development. They seek to prevent pollution of the environment, save the plants, animals and ecological systems, biological diversity; protect and preserve the landscape and the cultural and natural heritage, to respect the integrity of local cultures and avoiding negative effects on social structure; cooperate with the local community and nations to use local products and skills of local workers. In 2002, UNWTO jointly with UNCTAD has created a "Sustainable Tourism - a pledge to eradicate poverty» (ST-EP).

Table 1. The comparison of stable and mass (conventional) tourism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors for comparison</th>
<th>Sustainable Tourism</th>
<th>Mass (Traditional) tourism</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The Attraction of tourists</td>
<td>Volumes of providing tourist services in line with the socio-economic, environmental features area, which determine the nature of tourism activities.</td>
<td>Tourist activity is focused a permanent increase in tourist flows. The volume of provision tourism services are limited only by the capacity of the material and technical base.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The behavior of tourists</td>
<td>Visitors during their stay follow a definite pattern of behavior in accordance with the culture of the visited areas. The behavior of visitors does not cause damage to natural resources, traditions and customs of the local population.</td>
<td>Customers bring their way of life and behavior in the area of recreation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The attitude to nature</td>
<td>For visitors the existence of natural objects, rather than the consumer value.</td>
<td>Dominated by consumerist attitude of visitors to natural sites. Natural objects are evaluated on the basis of their usefulness to humans.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The relationship of visitors and local people</td>
<td>Friendly, respectful relationships whose purpose is to recognize the new culture.</td>
<td>Formal relations. Visitors find themselves masters, which should serve.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
There are currently a number of international programs for the implementation of sustainable tourism. One of them is a program of integrated coastal zone management (Integrated Coastal Zone Management), which has the status of the Code and adopted by most countries in Europe, intensively developed in America, is relevant for Russia. The purpose of this program: accounting of specific social and environmental conditions of marine coastal life in the organization and management of coastal zones. European training program Integrated Coastal Zone Management funded by the European Union. Government of Belarus took decision (№573, 30.05.2005) about creation of 27 touristic zones on country’s territory, forming auspicious conditions for the economic development and attracting national and foreign investments into the industry of tourism, keeping and rationally using the natural potential and historic heritage. (Zenkin, 2004)

Last time there was fast development of so called non-traditional types of tourism, exactly – ecologic, rural, extreme, adventure and socially responsible. The philosophy of socially responsible tourism is in exchange of cultural traditions, the consolidation on the base of the national original, getting acquainted with the life of local residents, their customs and traditions. It is very important that tourists should behave like guests, who are allowed to live in the house, but not as owners, for whom everything is permitted. In the same time local residents shouldn’t attend for tourists like noisy non-invited guests, whose visit is irritating them. (Fathutdinov, 2003). They ought to understand that visitors help for the economic and social development of the region. Scheme of governing the socially responsible tourism is presented on the Figure 1.

![Figure 1](image_url)
Conclusion

Sustainable tourism should also maintain a high level of meeting the needs of tourists, using multi-dimensional queries tourists, raising their awareness (awareness) about the sustainability and promoting the practice of sustainable tourism among them. Socially responsible tourism recognizes the significant role of local communities, their social responsibility for own territory. This method of valuation the tourism’s role in economy, which is being used in many countries, can be referred to basic innovations. It is based on the collection and analysis of vast statistic information’s quantity, which weren’t taken into account in the valuation of the tourism and its impact on economy of each country. The entry of Kazakhstan in WTO will lead to acknowledgement and necessity of execution the documents of International organization of standards. Conditions, on which our country will entry in WTO, directly touch interests of Russian businessmen in sphere of recycling industry and giving touristic service on international and internal markets (Senin, 2003). Character and structure of the tourism change. New technologies give opportunity for universal organization of vacations, competitive to traditional supply. New types of tourism come on the place of traditional standardized mass tourism, made on the base of demand.

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Effective Factors for Attracting Medical Tourism in Iran

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Abstract

It is confidentially predicted that over the next decade, Asia will have one of the fastest growing tourist populations in the world. Medical tourism in Asia is however relatively new, brought on in the aftermath of the Asian financial crisis that led first private hospitals in some Asian countries to seek alternative revenue sources. Nowadays many Asian countries such as Iran with high potentiality for attract medical tourism have sought to enter this market. This paper sets out to determine the effective factor for attracting medical tourism to Iran and examined the actual potential that foreign patients represent based on costs, quality and recognizing other aspect of marketing mix and investigated the role of the government and related organizations in this markets, Iranian medical facilities according to special situation of Iran can provide a massive potential for medical and health tourism and Iran become a hub of medical tourism in the region in future.

Key words: medical tourism, motivations, tourist attractions.

Introduction

The first and most important growth factor for medical tourism in developing countries is the enormous costs of treatments and therapies in the developed countries. Natural resources for therapy and treatment in developing Asian countries, has led to patient by different religions in the world and caused to
growth of this market for these countries. Also Iran with high potentiality for attract medical tourism have sought to enter this market. The special geographical location of Iran, The ancient history of Iran in medicine, the skilled specialists in various fields, special climate, vast natural recourses such as warm spa and mud areas for therapy are the other important factors for promoting medical tourism industry in Iran. The variance and the low price of medical services by considering the geographical situation of border lines of Iran are of effective factors to attract medical tourism. This paper aims to provide required recommendations, investigating the weaknesses and strengths of country for attracting the tourists as well as providing alternatives for proper performance of related organizations and extracting the proper factors mixed with marketing for attracting the medical tourism in Iran.

**Literature Review**

Medical Tourism includes a tourist who travels to another country to use the climate and natural attractions as well as medical facilities for treating him/herself. In 2003, for the first time tourism therapy in Iran’s Attractions was considered by Ministry of Health; but what was more considered by Ministry of health was employment of medical graduates not prosperity of medical tourism.

Preparing the general plan of health tourism is considered as actions taken in the health tourism headquarter of cultural heritage, handicraft and tourism organization. Presence in fairs overseas, particularly in the countries of Persian Gulf was another actions of organization.

Some of cases stressed in this plan is the attempt for attracting the patients, providing the arrangements for entrance of patients to Iran, supervision on medical centers and collecting the statistics of patients, upon this plan, hospital and medical institutes having activity in medical tourism, must be considered as first class hospitals and also provide a set of suitable medical services as well. Another action plan in Ministry of health is issuance of medical visa that upon the agreement of state department, it will be considered some points for people who receiving such visa as well as accelerated visa issuance.

Medical Tourism is a new situation for development of Iranian tourism that can both attract tourists by proper planning in different organizations and ministries for development of tourism attraction.

Based on tourism attractions, climate and monuments, Iran has the 54th rank through the world, no rank in Medical tourism. This is while, medical tourism may be called as third industry through the world and some countries like
Spain is earning by this industry. Today, by industrialization of countries and prevalence of different pains physically and spiritually in men, the discussion “Medical tourism” is accounted as one of the developing parts of tourism industry in Iran and world; however, in our country it can be seen a trouble and that is if this part of tourism may be flourished or despite facilities considered for it, it may be ignored and forgotten?

Medical Tourism in our country is an intra-organizational subject such that cultural heritage, tourism organization, ministry of health, state department and ministry of welfare are accounted as organizations that are involving in this important. Some of the competitors of Iran for medical tourism in the region include India, Singapore, Dubai Land, and Jordan that are planning for attracting the patients of Asian countries. According to practitioners, equipping the special and super special medical centers as well as providing the proper facilities in this sector may help to development of this industry. According to the notice of experts, generally about 7 thousands of patients with incentive of tourism and in order for treatment are entering to our country that while developing the tourism sector, roads and hotels may result in removing a part of financial problems of medical system.

Jordan is earning annually about 500 million dollars and Egypt earns 400 million dollars from the place of medical tourism, while income from medical tourism in Iran is very low and tourists merely refer to Iran from Persian Gulf countries due to their family relations and they might refer to medical centers for treatment.

The role of embassies of Iran in other countries may not be ignored, because advertisement by ambassadors and representative of Iran overseas may enjoy high importance for development of medical tourism. Some must for developing this industry include organizing, promoting the medical facilities in the country, providing the field of exploitation for them for foreign tourists, preparing the full insurance coverage for foreign tourists, executing the guideline for establishing the medical tourist centers. The outcome of studies indicate that skilled human resources, equipping the medical centers, organizing the situation of airports, removing the problems related to visa, providing the suitable possibilities may be accounted as most important indices for development of medical tourism industry. In some medical fields like heart, plastic surgery, kidney implant, liver and eye implant, Iran has some saying; therefore, it must be suitably planed for attracting these types of tourism and its treatment. For
example, cost of conducting a surgical operation in Germany is 100,000 Euro but this costs about 10 million Rials in Iran.

Unfortunately, there is no proper advertisement globally for recognizing the medical and tourism capabilities in Iran and public media may play important role in this field. Today, medical tourism industry values higher than oil and gold industry. In medical tourism sector, it is not only attended to tourist attraction, but beyond it, this sector may promote the situation of Iran, practically, politically, socially and regionally. Iran territory with four seasons has many capacities and natural attractions such that each one may lonely attract the tourists to it. This is while; we couldn’t yet introduce the hot water springs and development of tourism infrastructures in these regions by proper planning and policy making and have no considerable portion in tourism therapy development.

Hot water springs have many curability for diseases such as skin, nerve and mental, gut, anemia, pulmonary and heart diseases and if we can recognize and revive these hot water springs, we may see the presence of many domestic and foreign tourists in such regions. Annually, about 45 million tourists through the world use of hot water springs for treating different diseases, but among them, while having most hot water springs comparing other countries, our country has no portion of such tourists and could not yet obtain a situation globally, for this reason, this capacity may be used like other historical works and capacities. According to its planning until the end of fourth development plan, Iran government must provide 30% of medical needs of country by exporting the medical goods and services and tourism therapy. In this framework, income from medical tourism may be beneficent for our country that is developing. Some Asian counties and even newly independent countries of Caspian Sea are considerably advertising for their medical services among patients of region and even world. According to statistics of WHO, annually about 5 billion dollars is spending for treating the Asian patients in European and USA.

The studies of medical tourism in Asia between 2008 and 2012 was one of the fastest growing markets in Asia conducted together with increased number of applicants for traveling to such countries from other countries through the world aiming to receive medical aids. According to the same studies, the most important factor for this growth is lower cost of medical cures as well as relatively good services adapted by Heath Standard in such countries. Expensive costs of medical cures in developed countries, particularly USA and UK are also one of the main factors for increasing the number of tourists who need
such services with low cost. In addition, some medical tourism facilities play important role in development of new markets of medical tourism in Asia. These studies indicate that there are six great and prominent Asian markets covered by such studies and come with fundamental differences based on cost, infrastructures, human resources, definitions and different perception of patient, competitions and level of state supports.

**Conclusion**

Now, how we can turn such strengths to opportunities by strategic management with minimizing the weaknesses and threats and finally turn them to opportunities? For answering to above question, the first step is changing the view, particularly among policy makers who only see oil and gas reservoirs as sources of income because this newly emerged industry may provide the country with high benefits while paying less costs several provinces in the country are susceptible to attract medical tourism, one can change any geographical region of country to a strong and active pole for medical tourism:

In the north of country, provinces such as Gilan, Golestan, Ardebil we have several mineral hot water springs with therapeutically effect may be turned to a strong pole and provide proper market for countries of Caspian Sea and other countries connected to them. Western and Eastern Azerbaijan provinces having many hot water springs and their neighborhood with Uromieh Lake may be another pole and provide proper market for Caucasian countries and Turkey.

In the east of country, Khorasan province, having equipped and good hospital, may accept people through world as well as Afghan and Pakistan people. Tehran province, having medical facilities more than other provinces as well as skilled specialists may be an objective of all health tourists. In the center of country, Yazd town has one of the infertility centers (Center for Infertility Research of Shahid Sadoogi Medical Science University) know as an infertility scientific pole by ministry of health next to Morteza Ali hot water spring (a boiling spring with two types of cold and hot water in Iranian desert) that is considered as tourism attractions in Yazd, may be another unique pole for health tourism. And in the south of country, Shiraz, with its old history has been known by most tourists domestically and globally. Presence of equipped hospital according to global standards and skilled practitioners in most branches of medical science, fields such as ophthalmology, cosmetic surgery, heart, jaw and face,... has turned Shiraz as the pioneer of Tourism therapy in the country.
The contiguity of Fars with Hormozgan province, having many hot water springs turned this province to an objective pole of most tourists of Persian Gulf countries. In this newly emerged market, the countries that will conquer that could implement the motto of “Health Tourism” and that is nothing unless “facilities like developed countries’, costs in the range of third world countries”. Because in most countries through the world (like UK and Australia), some surgery operations like cosmetics and dentistry,... may not be insured. High costs, on one side and long waiting time, on the other side forces many people enjoy such services in their tourist travels. Now, if a country could for example provide dentistry services with low cost (or even free of charge), and or other surgery operations as fast as possible with state of art equipment, and consider the marketing plans for attracting the tourists, it may be succeeded.

References
Ecotourism Capacity and Potential of Dashti Salt Dome in Iran

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Abstract
Ecotourism is a kind of tourism that not only protects natural resources but also considers cultural and social values of local community. Pondering natural geography of Iran and capacity of each Ecotourism attraction show that ecotourism has attractive sites, one of the splendid site is Dashti salt dome with beautiful land scape and unique natural phenomena can attract international & national tourism. It is located in 144 km distance from Bushehr port in south east of Bushehr port, south of Iran. Data were collected by visiting the site & written documents. Be used climatical methods like TCI.

Objective : this discussion attempts to introduce the unique geosite Dashti salt dome that can be an international attraction also shows the best time to visiting there & salt therapy by using climatic elements and methods.

Key words: salt dome, ecotourism, tourism planning.

Introduction
As Iran containing a variety of geology phenomena, is one of the first 5 countries that have the most variety of land on the earth, also with regard to uncounted cultural and historical attractions has a very appropriate situation to attract and develop the tourism and geotourism industry that should be used correctly and logically and continuously. This industry that is about identify the geological attractions, give a chance to the traveler to directly achieve to his own ideal attraction in the nature in minimum time without spending much money and time. People of each society should be encouraged for deciding in local resource. The possibility of interference and having opportunities for incorporative in native deciding depends on politic situations, criteria, structures and the scale of direct effect of decisions at people’s life.
Sufficient recognition of problems and facilities is the first step for planning and weakness in this case causes unsuccess. The most important reasons of programming is subject thinking of programmers in the experiential and scientific view. So, with correct and appropriate planning and implementation multifunctional projects in ecotourism regions, we can introduce these regions to the national and international tourists, interested researchers and students. One of the attractions of ecotourism and geotourism in Iran is the salty domes. Salty domes of Dashti is one of the natural endowments that can be presented as a promenade and natural attraction to the interested in nature people or as a didactic studio to the researchers and students who are interested in discover the amazement of geology. Can capabilities of dome of Dashti effect on the gradation of tourism of this region especially in Bushehr province? Can these capabilities guide this region of Iran toward the sustainable tourism and attract more tourists?

**Methodology**

The method of research is base on the aim is practical and nature of it is descriptive, analitic. For the rating of this dome with different point of views in this research, we use the power and potentials and capabilities of salty dome of Dashti and evaluate the various attractions of this dome with observation and interview with natives.

**The Purpose of Research**

The total purpose of this research is recognition and presentation of various parts of salty dome of Dashti to the researchers and students as the one of ecotourism and geotourism attractions, since they can use this unique and phenomenon.

**Geographic Location of Dome of Dashti**

Salty dome of Dashti in Jashk village in 144 kilometer east west of the port and in 60 kilometer of Khormoj city Dashti township. Summit of this salty mountain, is 1350 meter higher than it’s plain. This mountain has 12 kilometer length and 4.5 kilometer width. The extent of the dome is about 3666 hectare and the height of summit is 1490 meter of sea level. The formation of dome is northwest to southeast and it stretch from the western deploy to the Gonkhak and Jashk village and continue from the eastern deploy from the Baghan and Khormoj to the Darvisahi village. The access way to the dome from the vest from the 3 kilometer after Gonkhak village through the sidetrack of old mine of salty rock
that act in the region and from the east of dome after passing Shanbe. In the rainy season, the water of river surround the plains of Dashti and because of many vaporization, salt remain on the soil and make the salinity lands.

Salty Dome of Dashti

Salty dome of Dashti has two deploy eastern and western. The eastern deploy has started outskirt of Gonkhak village and stretched to the Jashk village and in western deploy has stretched from the Drvishi village to the Kordelan and Baghan. Salty dome of Dashti from the southern and northern deploy has surrounded by two desalinated mountain.
MIN_ELEV=24.181 m
MAX_ELEV=1486.422 m
AVG_ELEV=734.195 m
STD_DEV_ELEV=435.57102 m
MAX_SLOPE=56.342171°
AVG_SLOPE=18.930491°
STD_DEV_SLOPE=9.985790°
Cut Volume: 21383217602 cubic meters
Cut 2D Surface Area: 30.12 sq km
Cut 3D Surface Area: 32.5 sq km

Start Position: 51.7438647828, 28.3109459563
Start Height: 31.7 m
End Position: 51.6480522828, 28.1950084563
End Height: 102.561 m
Straight-Line Distance: 15.92 km
3D Distance on Surface: 16.5 km
Vertical Difference (Start to Finish): 70.9 m
Minimum Elevation on Path: 28.006 m
Maximum Elevation on Path: 1473.928 m
Azimuth: 216° 13' 5.4"
Slope/Tilt: 0.26°

**Division of Geology’s Phenomenon of Salty Dome of Dashti**

Technically, each geology attraction base on its value and importance and also scale of grace has a rank to attract tourist. In this paper, we use three divisions to determine the ranks of salty dome of Dashti.

**Proposal division of Nabavi 1378**

In this division, geology’s phenomenon base on value have divided in six groups for work and age groups and also their grace for inbound and out-
bound tourists: 1) being rare; 2) pattern; 3) being unique; 4) provincial phenomenon;

1. **being rare**: some phenomenon are not abundant and their rare does not make grace and will have a lot of demanding.

2. **pattern**: has a lot of value for didactic purpose and has attraction for usual tourists. With regard to these salty domes exist in a wide surface of Zagros height and central Iran, as if it’s seen 114 salty dome in outskirt of south especially Hormozgan and Bushehr provinces. So salty domes of Dashti is not unique but since this dome has been put as national nature in the view of aesthetics and also having a collection of inimitable waterfalls and salty caves, we can put this in 2,3,4 group and use this for tourism exploitation in the province or country.

**Proposal division of Amri Kazemi 1387**

In this division, generally, geology phenomenon of Iran with the geology heritage of sites have divided on three main groups with regard to scale of value and importance. 1) zonular site; 2) national site; 3) international site. According to this division, salty dome of Dashti is placed in zonular site and also existence of a rich collection of geology-ancient phenomenon can present Bushehr as a prone site for universal registration.

**Division base on the type of formation and nature (Amri Kazemi 1385)**

In this division, geology phenomenon has divided to various groups base on the type of formation and nature.

1. Magmatism; 2) erosion; 3) techtonic and hard rock; 4) engineering and environmental geology; 5) related to ecotourism; 6) sedimental

Salty dome of Dashti is placed to the following division according to the unique features: salty dome of Dashti like other salty domes of Hormozgan in Zagros has Infakambrin age and has distanced it’s own layers and reached to the surface of the earth, hence we can correlate this phenomenon to the third group of factors (techtonic and hard rocks). With regard to the series of Hormoz in a confused collection of magmatic and evaporiate rocks that magmatismeniz has effect on the formation of this phenomenon.
The value of tourism of salty dome of Dashti

The ecotourism effect of salty dome of Dashti, because of possessing some tourism’s scores has a especial role in geology of tourism industry. These scores contain:

![Image](image1.png)

This dome stands around the Khormoj city (from the west to the Gonkhak and Jashk village, from the east, from the Khormoj and Kordelan village to the Darvishi village, accessibility is through the terrestrial road. Scheduling by research centers of universities and an education for students who are interested in these kinds of phenomenon to visit. Salty waterfalls, salty caves, and salty fridges, goblin throne or tunnel cauliflower valley, salty fountains, waterfalls and salty volcano.

![Image](image2.png)
### Table 1. Introduction of different attraction of flaty salty Dome

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Image</th>
<th>Definitions</th>
<th>Phenomenon</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><img src="image1.png" alt="Salty waterfalls" /></td>
<td>Salty waterfalls: natural waterfalls that in the way of natural domes channel and in down foothills in different size give especial beauty to the area and in warm season due to large evaporation of water, thick salty crystals will produce that with motion of water on the salty crystals and sun glow, a beautiful view will produce.</td>
<td>Salty waterfalls</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><img src="image2.png" alt="Salty caves" /></td>
<td>Salty caves are one of dome 's tourism attraction that produce with dissolution of salty tartar and parade in caves in the form of icicle. Icicles with different size are so beautiful that the caves nominates with the shape of these icicles for example in grapeshape cave, icicles dargled in form of grape and show a vineyard view or candy cave, presence of white and slick icicles will attract view of any viewefals, salt dom cave or eagle paw cave, extent of caves are from 30 to 1500 m that 1500 m cave arc stary caves.</td>
<td>Salty caves</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><img src="image3.png" alt="Salty fridges" /></td>
<td>Salty fridges are one of the salty valley dome tourism attraction that placed in incline surface and constitute in form of stairs and due to the beautiful shape and amazing colors contribute a very attractive view, because of their likeness to ice fridges, they called salty fridge there are great and swall pits in the way of cand which evaporate of water in it, they rising like diamond.</td>
<td>Salty fridges</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><img src="image4.png" alt="Goblin throne or fannel" /></td>
<td>Are one of the salty valley dome tourism attraction that due to difference in rock's erosion are in form of big and small pites. Some of them are called from their shape like god finger pile or hat in hand or goblin's hom, piles are like guards for dome city.</td>
<td>Goblin throne or fannel</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6. Cauliflower valleys is most wonderful place with unique and beautiful in dome valleys that have smooth surface with cauliflower shape. There is salty bud and smooth water with amazing sound and cute walls in this place. Although there is no study in the case of forming of these salty crystals.

Salty fountains: waterfalls and salty volcano are much salty fountains which can be seen a dome city that also are in form of salty volcanos pasty salt with water come out and flow and due to high percent of salt and evaporation, there are different shapess of waterfalls. We don’t know about exact of salty fountain that there is so many salt, and active fountain dome. Most important tourism attraction of salty valleys dome are done structures that any passenger from Khormoj to Kangan can see salty dome like snowy mountains there is very cute colors like red, white, green, black, orange, brown due to salty and industrial. These salt arc contain of a lot of yellow surface, orange potassium and red iron. One of the minerals is prit or polish gold which is consist of sulfur and iron.

Native culture and historical and natural places in Khormoj city, show antiquity of this city. Mohammad khan dashti castle, Khormoj fireplace and rest of historical Khormoj city are in this city.

**Conclusion**

In this article, salty valleys dome is introduced as a tourism and rare place and we can improve income of dome’s people and prevent migration of villagers with proper advertising and assist of directors. These movements need Comprehensive Planning to reach sustainable development and ecotourism can
help improving self Fertility & culture of Local this unique neutral phenomena attracts researchers, educational tourism. It is now Local attraction but it can be improved as national & international attraction so this part of Boshehr Province can be geotourism site.

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Tourists Evaluation of Wellbeing Tourism in Portugal

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Abstract
Despite the number of research about health and wellbeing tourism it continues to be a topic that deserves further research since both cognitive and emotional factors can influence significantly tourist perception of a destination and finally the tourists’ satisfaction evaluation. Thus, the aim of this research is to assess tourists’ satisfaction of health and wellbeing tourists visiting Portugal. Therefore, the study employs a multiple-item scale to explore the important variables to evaluate satisfaction of tourists travelling for wellbeing purposes. It makes use of a methodology based on the CHAID Diagram Tree to assess satisfaction. The results suggest that tourists may change their evaluation process of holidays in accordance to their trip purposes. Although, the founded correlation between cognitive and emotional aspects, it clearly demonstrates that individuals’ emotions and motivations are critical to enhance tourists’ satisfaction. Furthermore, this research provides insights to understand wellbeing tourists’ satisfaction issues, which may be considered critical to marketers at an organizational level as well as at the regional level.

Key words: satisfaction, health tourism, wellbeing, consumer behaviour, CHAID.

Introduction
From the very simple to the most complex studies in tourism it is widely accepted that people are travelling constantly for different reasons. While some individuals travel for business, others do it for leisure, seeking different experiences, such as: ecotourism, adventure tourism, fitness holidays, as well as for
health and wellbeing purposes (Chernish & Spivack, 1998). Particularly in this sense, the pressure and levels of stress in the every-day-life of the industrialized nations have been a critical factor to the growing importance of health and wellbeing in tourism discipline. As García-Altés (2005) highlights, several factors, such as: population ageing, lifestyle changes and tourism alternatives, are determinants of this new paradigm of tourism – health and wellbeing. An individual’s wellbeing is nowadays one of the most significant drivers in the choice of health tourism destinations. Tourists are devoted for experiences that combine the pleasure of travel with their wellbeing (García-Altés, 2005).

Despite the academic debate around the interchangeable use of the concepts of quality of life and wellbeing, it is acknowledged that wellbeing relates to the cognitive and emotional aspect of happiness while quality of life is the sum of the cognitive and measurable life conditions of a human being (Landesman, 1986; Felce & Perry, 1995). Therefore, wellbeing in tourism can be seen as a pendulum between the state of disequilibrium in individuals’ every-day-life and the restored equilibrium achieved during 'wellbeing vacation periods'. As Howard and Seth (1973) states, through the theory of equilibrium, a disruption of equilibrium leads to a course of action to satisfy the need of the organism and ultimately to restore the equilibrium.

Considering this, wellbeing tourist satisfaction can be considered critical to evaluate tourist experiences and expectations. Every individual measures satisfaction differently, since a satisfactory experience, as Bultena and Klessing (1969) state, is achieved through the equilibrium between aspirations and the perceived reality of those experiences. Furthermore, Woodside, Frey and Daly (1989) considered that the majority of individuals’ conceptualize satisfaction as a measure of comparison between expectations and experience. In this sense, and considering that health tourism is an emerging market in Europe, Portugal retains less than 1.4% of the total of European health travelers, although it has the existing infrastructures and environmental conditions that support the development of wellness and wellbeing tourism, (PENT, 2006). The relevance of this research relates to the lack of empirical studies to understand the issues of satisfaction regarding wellbeing tourism. Quality of life and individuals’ wellbeing are one of the primordial concerns of many European countries. Furthermore, this research intends to be able to identify and measure tourists’ satisfaction towards health and wellbeing holidays. Considering this, as well as the lack of research relating wellbeing and satisfaction this research aims to evaluate tourist satisfaction of international tourists travelling to Portugal for wellbeing purposes.
The study adopts a multiple-item satisfaction scale supported through consumer behaviour literature to understand how tourists access wellness and wellbeing tourism in Portugal. The results of this study are important to define marketing actions able to enhance the competitive positioning of this form of tourism as well as to increase the preference and usage by tourists. As Sayili, et al. (2007) states, satisfaction studies focus on wellbeing tourists are willing to be useful conceptually to generate a deeper knowledge on the factors affecting tourists’ satisfaction.

Literature Review

Wellness and Wellbeing Tourism: Despite the widely use of the terms wellness, health or medical tourism in the academic body, there is no universal agreement regarding the boundaries of such terms. Consequently, several researches interchangeably the terms, although for the purpose of this study it assumes that the tourism activity of this market focus on the segment for “healthy” people, which has as main driven preserve or improve their health. It assumes that wellbeing tourism relates directly to a wellness state that implies an *ex-ante momentum*. As opposite of medical tourism, wellbeing tourism activities are based on the sense of refreshment and renewal of individuals spending holiday periods in the acquisition of health capital (Reisman, 2010).

Furthermore, the concept of health tourism has emerged through the current demand for an improved quality of life (Sonmez & Apostolopoulos, 2009; Smyth, 2005). Accordingly, the notions of medical and wellness can be addressed as subsets of health tourism acting as drivers in the choice of tourism destinations. Despite the separation into different products, it is widely accepted that health tourism focus on individuals who are concerned with their sense of wellbeing (Reisman, 2010; Lee & Spisto, 2007). Therefore, at some point it is accepted that wellbeing tourism conceptually converge a tourist definition (Douglas, Douglas & Derret, 2001), with the specific interest on the balance between body, mind and spirit relying more on a philosophy of life than on a cognitive approach. Furthermore, scholars in general address wellbeing as a subset of health tourism, although the concept of wellbeing and quality of live still ambiguous in the academic debate. Some authors conceptualize wellbeing as part of the quality of life paradigm. In this sense, the emphasis is on the subjective experiences rather than on the tangible conditions of life (Naess, 1999; Diener & Suh, 1997). While others explore the cognitive notions of the concept making use of subjective responses to access the tangible and objective circum-
stances of life (Pollard & Lee, 2003). Notwithstanding, in general, wellbeing can be related to cognitive and emotional aspects of happiness.

Considering the emotional and the cognitive features of health, a new path emerges towards an understanding of health tourism as an umbrella for the subsets of medical and wellness tourism (Voigt et al., 2010). Therefore, wellbeing construct can be considered a construct comprising both physical and psychological aspects of tourists. As the WHO (2006) states, the concept of health comprises the physical, mental and social wellbeing components of individuals and not only the absence of disease or infirmity. Further, considering the importance of health and wellbeing on individuals, the academic research regarding the interrelationship between health, wellbeing and tourism has been subject of relative little attention of scholars (Hunter-Jones, 2005; Connell, 2006; Sayili et al. 2007). However, in recent years' health tourism grasp the attention from the academic body due to its economic importance. Despite the contribution of few authors, for instance see: Garcías-Altés, (2005), Connell (2006); Sayili et al. (2007), studies exploring the relationship between wellbeing tourism and satisfaction regarding wellness and health facilities are scant.

Tourist satisfaction: In the last few decades the literature regarding the issues of satisfaction has received considerable attention from tourism researchers (del Bosque & Martín, 2008). Among consumer behavior researchers, satisfaction as a post-consumption judgment of a product or service is one of the leading researched themes. In tourism, major researchers have carefully explored the contributing factors to positive or negative evaluation of satisfaction by tourists. Conventionally, satisfaction was conceptualized as a cognitive state, influenced by expectations, perceptions and attributes performances evaluations (Oliver, 1980; Parasuraman, Zeithmal & Berry, 1985; Pizam & Millman, 1993; Ross & Iso-Ahola, 1991). More recently, the academic literature recognized the influence of emotions. Researchers of Bigné, Andreu and Gnoth (2005), del Bosque and Martín (2008), Hong (2003), Matilla and Wirtz, (2000), Oliver (1997) Rojas and Camarero (2008), among others, states that emotions can play an important role in satisfaction formation. Bearing in mind that satisfaction can be summarized as the function between the product performance, the individuals’ perceptions and the individuals’ motivations. The outcome, or the weight of satisfaction, is the balance between the tourist experience along with the anticipated and desired expectations. As Moutinho (1982) suggests, satisfaction is conceptualized based on the increase of the existent equilibrium between performance and perceptions of individuals.
Although the conceptualization of satisfaction based on expectation has been criticized, for instance see: Arnould and Price (1993) and Miller (1977), authors also found correlation between the levels of satisfaction and the individuals motivations on holidays. As Troung (2005) mentions, the destination attractiveness is related to the capacity that a destination has to satisfy and fulfil tourists needs and motivations. Given this, and bearing in mind the particular characteristics of the object of this research, wellbeing tourism, it may be assumed that in order to satisfy their needs wellbeing tourists evaluate the destination based on the particular destination tangible facilities and attractions, as well as on the their explicit and implicit individual desires. The intrinsic aspects of tourists are critical to fully recognize the entire extend of satisfaction evaluation in the ex-post consumption momentum. As Bagozzi, Gopinath and Nyer (1999) state distinct services and products are keen to generate different reactions in view of different inherent preferences, wants and need. Thus, considering that wellbeing tourists are a group of tourists with peculiar interests (Douglas, Douglas and Derett, 2001), theoretically for the purpose of this research it is assumed that satisfaction in ex-post evaluation benefits’ from a view congregating the implicit individual needs and desires, as well as the destination attributes and facilities performances. Accordingly, Oliver (1980) suggests that satisfaction arise through the evaluation of performance alongside with expectations.

**Conceptualization of the study**

The conceptual model of this study grounds on the principle that identifying predictor variables of tourist satisfaction for specific purposes is critical to particular tourism services (Gountas & Gountas, 2007). The limited literature relating tourism with medical/wellbeing purposes absorb the relationship between satisfaction and wellbeing tourism. As Sayili, et al. (2007) mentions, studies regarding wellbeing tourism need to explore market characteristics, as well as the factors affecting tourists’ satisfaction. Bearing this in mind, the conceptual framework considers that satisfaction refers to the emotional state of fulfilment that tourist has after concluding their holidays experiences. Moreover, satisfying tourist experiences critically influence life satisfaction (Neal, Sirgy & Uysal, 1999). For this reason, the described conceptual model takes into consideration the tourists’ consumption stages: ex-ante consumption, consumption and ex-post consumption. For that reason, this paper attempts to identify the critical wellbeing satisfaction factors of tourists visiting wellbeing facilities in two major tourist regions of Portugal. Although, comprising the tourist consumption
stages, the research aims to evaluate wellbeing tourist satisfaction grounded on a cognitive-affective approach and consequently focus on the *ex-post* stage of tourist consumption. As del Bosque and Martin (2008) states, tourist satisfaction is the cognitive-affective state derived from the tourist experience. For that reason, the conceptual model proposes that tourist mental representations of objects – cognitions, such as: expectations and beliefs, along with the emotions and feelings are critical to evaluate an ex-post tourist consumption experience. Considering satisfaction as one of the critical issues to understand the psychological process of individuals, the model comprises a set of variables that can be grouped according with two major frameworks. The Heider (1958) cognitive theory, concerning to the individuals mental representation of objects, described in the model as: Attributes and Facilities as well as, Expectations and Perceptions. The emotional approach that conceptualizes the emotional responses derived from the consumption experience exposed in the model through the path Individual Needs and Desires. As Decrop (1999) mentions, a critical component of a destination is the emotion that a tourist retains from the touristic experience.

![Figure 1. Conceptual model for wellbeing tourist satisfaction](image)

Furthermore, the model considers that an evaluation of tourist satisfaction is a continuum process that cross-cut the different stages of a tourist journey. As mentioned by Neal and Gursoy (2008) satisfaction towards travel and tourism services is the outcome of the accumulated satisfaction along the different stag-
es of the tourist experience. Thus, the study purposes that a satisfaction multiple-item scale is willing to evaluate tourist satisfaction regardless the purposes of the trip, although it must consider that different trip purposes may lead to distinct touristic evaluations. Considering this, wellbeing tourist satisfaction can be considered critical to evaluate tourist experiences and expectations. Every individual measures satisfaction differently, since a satisfactory experience as Bultena and Klessing (1969) states is achieved through the equilibrium between aspirations and the perceived reality of those experiences. Furthermore, Woodside, Frey and Daly (1989) considered that the majority of individuals’ conceptualize satisfaction as a measure of comparison between expectations and experience.

**Methodology**

Study Place: The empirical work was developed based on questionnaires conducted on the departing gates of the Airport. According to the research aim, only fulfilled questionnaires of the international tourists visiting Algarve and Madeira were considered to further analysis. Accordingly, the questionnaire collection took place in two of the major touristic areas of Portugal, namely: Faro and Madeira (PENT, 2006). Considering the importance of the international markets for tourism in Portugal the questionnaire was translated and distributed in three different languages: French, German and English. Further, to ensure the reliability of the data a random sample of 50 tourists from the convenient nationalities was undertaken. The sample was stratified in accordance with the major markets considering number of overnights in Portugal, by country of origin. Furthermore to ensure reliability of the results the sample was also stratified by region. As table 1 demonstrates, it considered the weight that each market has on the total of inbound tourists in both regions. Being Germany / Netherland and UK / Ireland the more representative markets on the samples respectively with 34.6% and 34.5%. Also, that the regions importance in the overall inbound market the sample was homogeneously distributed. From the total n = 555 questionnaires, 297 were collected in Faro Airport, while 258 regard to Madeira Airport. Furthermore, and acknowledging that Spain is one of the big four international markets travelling to Portugal (PENT, 2006), the weight of the sample 2.7% reflects the constraint of collecting data at airports. Spain is the neighboured country which leads tourists to other transportation preferences rather than airplanes.
Table 1. Sample stratification

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Markets</th>
<th>( % )</th>
<th>Airport Location</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Faro</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany/ Netherland</td>
<td>34.6</td>
<td>42.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nordic Countries</td>
<td>14.2</td>
<td>14.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK and Ireland</td>
<td>34.5</td>
<td>47.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France/ Belgium</td>
<td>12.9</td>
<td>46.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain/ Italy</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The departing tourists were selected from the airport area based on two major criteria. First only tourists engaged in wellness/ wellbeing activities were selected to answer the questionnaire. Secondly, both regions are international recognized as touristic destination since it contains the important attributes that classifies region as tourist destination: Attractions, Accessibilities, Amenities, Available packages, Activities and Ancillary services (for instance see: Buhalis, 2000). Among the attractions, and considering the specific aim of the research, Algarve and Madeira contains wellbeing tourism attributes, natural or man-made, able to attract international tourists for the area.

Measurement Scales: The questionnaire was structured based on three different sets of questions: (1) Trip Characteristics; (2) Multiple-item scale regarding the tourists satisfaction towards wellness/wellbeing holidays (3) Socio-demographic Characteristics. Therefore, the first set comprises closed ended questions for: “type of accommodation”; “travelling companion” and “trip purpose”. The second section represents the items regarding the satisfaction towards wellness and wellbeing. The first list of items corresponds to the cognitive aspects of a wellbeing destination, while the second stands for the emotional or the individual components of a wellbeing vacation. In addition, the third set of questions explored in the survey regards to the socio-demographic information of the respondents and comprises the items: age, gender, social status, education, family income and occupation. Despite the questionnaire parts both subsets were coded to facilitate the input of data in SPSS software. Further, the items included in the questionnaire in order to evaluate wellbeing tourism were selected from international literature regarding the issues of satisfaction considering previous works of Bigné, Sánchez, & Sánchez, 2001; Correia, Barros and Silvestre, 2007; Murphy, Pritchard, and Smith, 2000; Yoon and Uysal, 2005; Ryan & Glendon, 1998, Baker & Crompton, 2000; Moutinho, 1987; Barbeau, 1985, Spreng & Olshavsky, 1993, Kozak, 2002, among others, as well
as satisfaction towards wellbeing tourist places Sayili et al. (2008). Taking into account the previous literature exploring satisfaction issues, the research considered the important attributes willing to evaluate tourist consumption experience of wellbeing through cognitions alongside with emotions. The 32 multiple-item scale of satisfaction items included in the questionnaire reflect the particular features of destinations, as well as the specific objectives of the study and were named: “do something different in family”, “get away from the usual life”, “do what most others have not done”, “try as many things as possible”, “to know a new place”, “learn about cultures”, “to go where my friend didn’t went”, “to relive good times”, “seek novelty and change”, “have fun”, “visit a region where I haven’t been before”, “know interesting people”, “to be at a place with fame and reputation”, “go to recommended places”, “cleanliness”, “safety and security”, “landscape and nature”, “to in a place with culture and history”, “available information”, “sports equipments”, “transportation facilities”, “closeness to home country”, “accommodation”, “gastronomy”, “price”, “weather conditions”, “relaxing environment”, “accessibilities”, “social life”, “hospitality”, “originality and exoticism”, “beaches”, and “sightseeing and excursions”. The multiple-scale items were measured through 3 points Likert scale being 1 = Dissatisfied and 3 = Very satisfied.

Data Collection: The questionnaires were distributed at the International Airport of Faro and in Madeira Airport. From the total of the administered questionnaires 650 were delivered fulfilled, although 95 were discarding for further analysis due to missing information. Given this, the research analysis was based on 555 questionnaires, collected along the year of 2010. A convenience sample was used to collect the questionnaires since identifying foreign tourist at the departure airport gate that had been spending holidays for wellbeing purposes was a complex task. Even though, a filter question allows the selection/exclusion of individuals of this research: “Have you travelled to Portugal with wellness and wellbeing purposes?”. Furthermore, the questionnaires collection was carried out at the boarding gates to ensure that only foreign tourists were selected.

Data Analysis: Considering the available data and the aim of the research the analytical option of this study relies on the CHAID algorithm firstly purposed by Kass (1975). In the field of consumer behaviour several researches explored Kass (1975) algorithm to support marketers and managerial decision. CHAID Tree analysis can be described as a predictive procedure (Chen, 2003) to understand segments towards a certain dependent variable (criterion) exploring two or more independent variables. Although the categories of inde-
Independent variables CHAID procedure relies on the significance of Chi-square test. As Chen (2003) research demonstrates, CHAID Tree can be applied to explore satisfaction issues. Furthermore, other authors used CHAID analysis to explore heterogeneity in consumer, such as Chung, et al. (2004) in the research exploring hotel preferences for guest room customers. Considering the criterion-based studies several algorithms have been used by researchers, although the majority of classifiers are distinguished through the applied measurement scales. CHAID algorithm is a classification method that enables analysis of categorical data. This technique was considered to serve the purposes of the present study due to the capacity of exploring categorical levels of the independent variable (Chen, 2003).

The independent variable utilized to perform CHAID analysis in this study contains two categorical levels: Group 1 – Dissatisfied wellbeing tourists, Group - 2 Satisfied wellbeing tourists and, Group 3 – Very Satisfied wellbeing tourists. The results of the study were treated based on SPSS 17.0 version that comprises an exhaustive CHAID technique, allowing more accurate results (Biggs et al., 1991; Byrd and Gustke, 2004; Vassiliadis, 2008). Bearing this in mind, the outcome analysis of this research presents a diagram tree where the nodes are ordered based on Chi-square significance relating the criterion variable to the predictor variables until significance correlations were achieved.

**Results**

Sample Characteristics Analysis: This study was based on the questionnaire structured into three different sets of questions. Considering the purpose of the research the second set of questions regards to the multiple-item attributes to assess wellbeing tourist satisfaction. Thus, the first as well as third set of questions coded in the questionnaire regard to the trip and socio-demographic characteristics. As table 2 reveals, most of the international tourists are employed (67.9%), married (68.1%) with a graduate degree (69.7%). Furthermore, the socio-demographic characteristics of the sample regarding age, gender, family income as well as the travel companion variables demonstrates to some extent homogeneous distributions among categories. Even though, as presented in table 2 the sample is composed in its majority by females (53.2%). Further, 37.5% of the respondents have 51 or more years, with the next most significant category being 31 to 50 years (36.4%). The variable travel companion demonstrates that 45.0% of the sample travels in couples while only 0.9% decided to go on holidays in a travelling group.
Table 2. Respondent characteristics (n = 555)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>(%)</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>(%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Up to 30</td>
<td>25.2</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>53.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-50</td>
<td>36.4</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>46.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51 and over</td>
<td>37.5</td>
<td>Non Responses</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non Responses</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>Education</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Up to High School</td>
<td>24.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>University</td>
<td>69.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Non Responses</td>
<td>6.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupation</td>
<td></td>
<td>Travel Companion</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employed</td>
<td>67.9</td>
<td>Couple</td>
<td>45.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non Active</td>
<td>16.8</td>
<td>Family</td>
<td>28.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pensioner</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>Friends</td>
<td>11.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non Responses</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>Alone</td>
<td>11.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Status</td>
<td></td>
<td>Travelling in Group</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>26.1</td>
<td>Other</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>68.1</td>
<td>Type of Accommodation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorced</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>Hotel and Aparthotel</td>
<td>55.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Widower</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>Rented House</td>
<td>9.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non Responses</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>Own or Family/ Friends</td>
<td>29.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Other</td>
<td>6.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family Income (Monthly average)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Up to 3500€</td>
<td>36.4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3501€-5000€</td>
<td>22.2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5001€ and over</td>
<td>31.5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non Responses</td>
<td>9.9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Furthermore, on average tourists travelling for Algarve and Madeira for wellness and wellbeing purposes have 45 years old, staying in hotels and aparthotel (55.0%) being the category family and friends house the second most relevant with 29.0% of the samples which suggests a prior knowledge of destinations by tourists.

Criterion and Predictor Variables: Prior to a detailed description of the research results a chi-square analysis for the multiple-item scale was performed to extract from the multiple-items the criterion variable. The dependent variable “get away from the usual life” was recoded in three categories being 1 dissatisfied, 2 satisfied and 3 very satisfied since the questionnaire grounded in a 5 point Likert scale being 1 very dissatisfied and 5 very satisfied. The exhaustive CHAID procedure was carried out on SPSS 17.0 version by means of a segmentation scheme. From the criterion variable firstly selected 31 items remain for
coded in accordance to the criterion variable to function as predictors. The CHAID procedure utilized the chi-square tests to extract the key independent predictors to structure the segments of interest. The tree was built based on the criteria that the larger significant relationships with the criterion variable was the first descriptor that provide the basis to split the test in several nodes. Considering this, the CHAID analysis results demonstrates that five independent variable were utilized and further divided in into 12 nodes until significance was found among the variables. The number of terminal nodes presented in the CHAID tree was 7 and the maximum tree depth 3. The minimum criterion to split the nodes was 25 considering previous chi-square analysis demonstrates that 25 out of the 31 independent variables presented the most significant chi-square. From the CHAID procedure the further process adopt in order to retain the actionable nodes of interest for the three categories of the criterion variable. The gain nodes represents “the percentage of total cases in the target category in each node, computed as: (node target n / total target n) x 100″ (SPSS, 2007, p. 29). Considering the gain of nodes index above 100% for the three categories of interest as table 3 demonstrates, it indicates the nodes with a higher rate in each of the categories that may influence the overall sample. As table 3 demonstrates nodes 9, 8 and 3 in a category satisfied present index above 100%, respectively (323.7%, 241.9% and 111.7%). For the very satisfied category nodes 7, 11, 10 and 5 demonstrates an index score over 100.0%. Also, the category dissatisfied demonstrates two nodes able to influence negatively the overall sample, being it the nodes 3 and 5. Furthermore, the exhaustive CHAID performed demonstrates an estimated error of .175 and a standard error of .016 meaning that 82.5% of the overall classification cases in the sample are correctly classified.

Moreover, as table 4 also demonstrates 93.9% of the cases in the observed category Very Satisfied were correctly classified while the categories Dissatisfied and Satisfied presented classification rates of 56.7% and 59.1% respectively. Although CHAID analysis contains the possibility for correct the misclassification of cases in categories Satisfied and Dissatisfied it is not recommended, since an increase in cost of misclassification when the model presents an error of.175 induces inflation on the risk value making the interpretation less straightforward (SPPS, 2007).
Table 3. Gain of nodes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nodes</th>
<th>Node</th>
<th>Gain</th>
<th>Response Rate</th>
<th>Index (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>N (%)</td>
<td>N (%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfied</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>15.1</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>16.2</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
<td>121</td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>27.2</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very Satisfied</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>27.2</td>
<td>145</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
<td>121</td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>16.2</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>15.1</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dissatisfied</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>16.2</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
<td>121</td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>16.1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>27.2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4. CHAID classification

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Observed</th>
<th>Dissatisfied</th>
<th>Satisfied</th>
<th>Very Satisfied</th>
<th>Correct (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dissatisfied</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>56.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfied</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>59.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very Satisfied</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>353</td>
<td>93.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall (%)</td>
<td>5.4%</td>
<td>19.8%</td>
<td>74.8%</td>
<td>82.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**CHAID results:** The results of CHAID procedure show five variables as descriptors for splitting nodes. In this sense, the variables “do something different with the family”, “have fun”, “social life”, accommodation” and “seek novelty and change” were the considered descriptors for the present study. The first split arises from the variable “do something different with the family” with a $x^2 = 161.219$, df.=1 and a p-value of .000. Considering the respondents (n=555) 89.2% of individuals were very satisfied (node 2), while in node 1 the category “satisfied” represents 51.7% of the splitting. The dissatisfied and satisfied individuals represented through node 1 allowed the variable “have fun” ($x^2 =$...
81.575, df.=2, p-value of .000) to a further division into three nodes. The node 3 representing the category very dissatisfied presents a score 56.7% for dissatisfied category, while 70.0% of node 5 are represented in the category very satisfied. Also, being satisfied accounts for 80.0% of node 4. Moreover, the variable “accommodation” tigers the last splitting nodes resulting from node 4. In this sense, with an n=110 and $x^2= 13.903$, df.=1 and a p-value of .001 the variable allowed two nodes, respectively 8 (Very Satisfied) and 9 (Dissatisfied/ Satisfied). Node 8 contemplates an n=26, where approximately 57.7% of individuals are very satisfied being 42.3% of the sample satisfied with the accommodation services in the wellbeing destination. On the same path node 9 is constructed with the merged categories satisfied and dissatisfied of accommodation variable. With a n=84 the most important category in node 9 is satisfied (86.9%) being the category very satisfied the second most relevant (9.5%) while dissatisfied category only represents 3.6% of the total sample. As figure 2 presents, the split of node 2 is attributed to the variable “social life” with a p-value =.000, $x^2= 16.322$ and df.=1. Therefore, the categories dissatisfied and satisfied of the variable “social life” account for the split of node 6, while the category very satisfied relates to node 7. As CHAID procedure presents, 96.0% of individuals are represented in category very satisfied in node 7. Node 6, comprising an n=174 and being the most representative category very satisfied, respectively with 83.3% of the sample, is further divided in two smaller nodes (Node 10 and Node 11), derived from the variable “seek novelty and change” ($x^2= 8.684$, df.=1, p-value=.013). Node 10 accounts for n=121 and from the three categories dissatisfied with novelty and change represents 4.1%, satisfied accounts for 17.4% while very satisfied being the most important category represents 78.5%. In the same path node 11 contains a n=51 being the category very satisfied the most relevant with 94.3% of the total sample while the remaining 5.7% are represented by the category satisfied.

**Conclusion**

Given the complexity of the research surrounding satisfaction issues in the tourism field and bearing in mind the balance between the experiences and desired expectations of tourists this research attempted to recognize the particular purpose of travelling for wellbeing purposes. In order to achieve such aim it grounds on the academic literature recognizing that emotions are critical to evaluate satisfaction formation of tourists (Bigné, Andreu & Gnoth, 2005; del Bosque & Martín, 2008; Hong, 2003, among others. Further, as Neal, Sirgy and Uysal (1999) mentions, satisfaction of tourist experiences influences considera-
bly individuals’ life satisfaction. Thus, satisfaction is critical not only for the duration one’s holiday, but also to influence individuals’ subsequent life.

Fig. 2. Multiple-item scale of satisfaction towards wellbeing holidays – CHAID result.

Through the particular set point of this research the results suggest that individuals engaged in wellbeing tourism purposes may evaluate satisfaction as a balanced equilibrium between individuals expectations/ emotions and the attributes performance at the destination level. Although, as CHAID diagram Tree (Figure 2) presents the findings are in accordance to Naess (1999) and Diener and Suh (1997) that emphasized the subjective experiences of individuals. From multiple-scale items utilized a total of five variables were considered in the diagram tree. The variables social life, have fun, do something different with family and seek novelty and change representing the intrinsic aspects of individuals account for 80.0% of the variables included in the CHAID diagram three. In the same path the variable accommodation, directly related to the cognitive attributes of a destination, also contributed to explain tourist satisfaction when wellbeing is the main travelling purpose.

Furthermore, the results show that tourists travelling to Algarve or Madeira for wellbeing purposes assess the experience at the destination through emotional factors rather than trough cognitive factors. At the emotional level wellbeing experience is assessed by the chance to do something different with fami-
ly, from the chance of having a social life and fun as well as by the novelty and change that this form of tourism is able to provide to tourists. At cognitive level the only factor that emerges is the accommodation which is not surprising since mostly Spas and thermal facilities are willing to be directly related to hotel enterprises.

In this sense, the study results suggest that tourist may change their evaluation process of holidays in accordance to their trip purposes. Although the founded correlation between cognitive and emotional aspects in wellbeing tourism, it clearly demonstrates that individuals emotions and motivations are critical to enhance tourists’ satisfaction. This is in accordance to Arnould and Price (1993) and Miller (1977) researchers that found correlations between the levels of satisfaction and the individuals motivations on holidays. Considering the particular contextual setting, this research provides a perspective to understand wellbeing tourists satisfaction issues at an organizational level as well as at the regional level: Algarve and Madeira. Although the methodological limitations derived from the limited scarcity of time and resources the research results contributes to a deeper knowledge of the critical variables to evaluate wellbeing destinations, particularly Algarve and Madeira context. Furthermore, at a theoretical level and considering future developments, a multiple-scale item that considers more variables directly related to health and wellbeing would be valuable to measure satisfaction towards health and wellbeing products. The conceptual model as well as the multiple-item scale resultant from the literature applied in this research considered the particular features of Algarve and Madeira. Although, the theoretical limitations this study contributes to the literature with a methodological breakdown to the conventional ways of assessing variables correlations. A further research in health and wellbeing is needed, since the results demonstrates interesting paths to a sustainable and continuum development of this particular type of tourism product that could be one of the main streams in tourism in 21st century.

References


Business Effectiveness in Tourism Rural Areas:  
The Case of Greece

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Abstract

The core business mission of the small and middle size (SMEs) corporations is doing competitive sustainable business to be market active. However, research on the measurement of destination management and business effectiveness, is a growing new research field. The research methodology is based on a model for management and business effectiveness of rural tourism enterprises and the tourism development of rural areas. The proposed DMBE model includes based on the literature review process ten theoretical dimensions. We have used this theoretical construct to measure the DMBE model in 174 Greek rural tourism enterprises. According to the results, DMBE measurement model was finally indicated as a two dimensional DMBE measurement model in terms of its EFA results. Further, it is clarified that the new two dimensions namely “Local leadership and government synergetic support” and “Capable and skilful staff” have useful managerial implications to provide.

Key words: rural tourism, destination management, business effectiveness, rural tourism.

Introduction

According to Hellenic organization for standardization (2007), rural tourism enterprises in Greece are enterprises that are activated in rural tourism destinations – in regions with small population and limited development of tourism substructures – and provide one of the following services: accommodation,
feeding, sightseeing and sensitization about the nature and environmental edu-
cation.

As we can see in figure 1 rural tourism enterprises in Greece are separated in the following categories:

- Enterprises situated in villages with their main competitive advantage the exceptional natural beauty (mountainous or not) which attract visi-
tors and tourists, exploiting the beauty of their place.
- Rural tourism enterprises in islands and coasts focusing on tourist and visitors which exploit the sun and the sea mainly during the summer.
- Traditional settlements with an exceptional architecture which attracts the resident of the cemented urban centres.
- Ecological enterprises in regions which are close to protected areas, such as national forests and wetland habitats, which attract tourists for their natural beauty, but mainly because of ecology issues.
- Rural tourism enterprises in partnership associations, women are usu-
ally the members of the partnerships (Anthopoulou, 2010; Gidarakou et al., 2000; Gidarakou, 1999), and they offer their local products and au-
thentic hospitality.

Figure 1. Rural tourism enterprise categories in Greece. Self constructed based on the data of Hellenic organization for standardization (2007)
All the previously mentioned types of rural tourism in Greece take place in rural regions; the type of accommodation mainly includes rooms within the house of the farming family or rooms at the extension of the house, or autonomous rooms outside the house, so as to secure the privacy of the family and of the visitors. Rural tourism is able to contribute to the local development. It is suggested as an “alternative” solution for peripheral development, because it contributes to the decrease of sub employment in the rural sector, the increase of the family income and consequently to the socio-economic support and reformation of the local rural communities (Laiou-Antoniou, 1985; Apostolopoulos et al., 1998; Gidarakou et al., 2000; Koutsou, 2002).

Entrepreneurs are usually the first who welcome changes in rural areas. Entrepreneurship provides the catalyst for increasing productivity, as well as increasing diversity and volume of goods and services produced in an area (Acs & Armington, 2004). Without the entrepreneurs the exchange and circulation in the economy would be impossible, and therefore they have a crucial role in the system since they deal directly with supply and demand, and they lead the system forwards or backwards. Several researchers examined rural tourism demand incentives (Putzel, 1984; Nickerson et al. 2001; Ingram, 2002; Wilson et al., 2001) and others analyzed rural tourism supply incentives (Sidali, et al., 2007; Schulze, et al., 2007; McGehee & Kim, 2004). Although in Greece there are studies about women partnerships and their role in rural tourism development (Iakovidou & Turner, 1995; Karasavoglou & Florou, 2006; Anthopoulou, 2010), the role of local communities (Andriotis, 2005; Erotikritakis & Adriotis, 2006), small enterprises (Kornilaki, et al., 2006) and local authorities (Adriotis, 2002), there are no researches on a Pan-Hellenic level about supply side and entrepreneurship of rural tourism in Greece. They start up this activity firstly for economic reasons (Getz & Carlsen, 2000; Busby and Rendle 2000; Weaver and Fennell 1997; Miller, et al, 2001; McGehee & Kim, 2004; Nickerson et al., 2001). There are a lot of different researches which determine the reasons why a business plan related to tourism succeeds. As we can see, the main factors are the following: Entrepreneurial skills (Sidali, et al., 2007; Schulze et al., 2007), community context (Wilson et al., 2001), size (Schulze, et al., 2007; McGehee & Kim, 2004; Nickerson et al., 2001) and geographical characteristics (Nickerson et al., 2001).

The entrepreneurs become successful when they manage to share the rural experience with outsiders (McGehee & Kim, 2004; Nicerson et al., 2001), when there are opportunities to socialize (McGehee & Kim, 2004; Nicerson et al., 2001), when they meet new people (McGehee & Kim, 2004; Nicerson et al,
2001), and when they are more professionally engaged to rural tourism which results in turning the supplementary income from this activity into their basic income. (Schulze, et al., 2007).

This study investigates the effect of different incentives and actors in rural tourism enterprises in Greece, and examines rural people who created and operate a business within the rural environment. The purpose of this research is to conduct useful conclusions about how to shape the perceptions of investors regarding the investment activities in rural tourism. Furthermore, identifies the motives that prompted traders to deal with this type of tourism and the factors that have influence to get this business decision.

**Methodology**

The questionnaire we created, for conducting this survey, was based on the standards of Wilson et al. (2001) research. They study, the unity and the factors for successful development of rural tourism. Therefore, it explores the following areas:

1. Effective organisation of tourist package
2. Capable Leadership
3. Support and attendance of Local Administration
4. Financing and management of financing sources
5. Co-ordination and collaborations between the private investors and the local leadership
6. Strategic planning
7. Co-ordination and collaboration between businessmen of tourism enterprises in rural areas
8. Local offices for visitor briefing and congress organisation
9. Technical aid and information for tourism development and promotion
10. Tourism support from point of view of local community

The survey population is all rural tourism hotel enterprises all around Greece that were recovered in websites on Agro SA and the Greek Network of Rural Accommodation. From these two rural tourism websites, are considered the main ones for rural tourism in Greece and we manage to draw 652 rural tourism hotel companies. Firstly, we contacted with all the companies by phone and inform them that they can complete an electronic questionnaire or those who wished could receive a questionnaire by ordinary mail. 174 businessmen answered and therefore the response rate amounts to 26.69%.
We used a questionnaire for the survey which contains a total of 76 questions and sub questions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area</th>
<th>Number of Companies</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Companies Surveyed</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Peloponius</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>18.71%</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>14.94%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Epirus</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>15.03%</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>11.49%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thessaly</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>13.80%</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>8.05%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crete</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>13.65%</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>11.49%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Macedonia</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>13.19%</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>24.14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sterea ellada</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>11.20%</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>16.09%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Aegean</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>5.52%</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3.45%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ionián</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>3.99%</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4.60%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thraki</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>3.07%</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4.60%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North Aegean</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1.84%</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>652</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
<td><strong>174</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Results

Based on the results of the table 3 hierarchically the dimensions of “Capable Leadership” (19.0 mean score), “Effective organisation of tourist package” (17.7), “Financing and management of financing sources” (11.0), “Support and attendance of Local Administration” (9.0) and “Strategic planning” (8.6), are for the group of the 174 entrepreneurs the five most important factors (or else dimensions) for destination management and business effectiveness (DMBE).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimensions of the DMBE model</th>
<th>Weights in %</th>
<th>Hierarchy based on the importance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Effective organisation of tourist package</td>
<td>17.7</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Capable Leadership</td>
<td>19.0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Support and attendance of Local Administration</td>
<td>9.0</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Financing and management of financing sources</td>
<td>11.0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Co-ordination and collaborations between the private investors and the local leadership</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Strategic planning</td>
<td>8.6</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Co-ordination and collaboration between businessmen of tourism enterprises in rural areas</td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Local offices for visitor briefing and congress organisation convention and visitor information</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Technical aid and information for tourism development and promotion</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Tourism support from point of view of local community</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note:* In the questionnaire the entrepreneurs marked the 10 dimensions in an adding scale that led to the total of 100 units.
Findings from the first Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)

To investigate the dimensionality of destination management and business effectiveness (DMBE) we have adapted the theoretical 10 dimensional model discussed above, the study conducts exploratory factor analysis utilizing Varimax rotation. The PCA exploratory factorial analysis was chosen because our goal is to create an empirical conclusion from examining the data structure of our research. Also the sample size theoretically allows the execution of a factorial analysis and the sample size exceeds the five test cases for each variable we analyse (5 cases × 46 variables = 230 > n = 174) (Pallant, 2005: 172-178). The small sample size should be appropriate for the analysis that is planned (Israel, 2003) and Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) argue that that a smaller sample size (e.g. of 150 cases) should be sufficient if the results have high factor loading marker variables (above .80) (Pallant, 2005, p. 174). The factor loading must be at least .50 before a variable may be assigned to a certain factor, and this practical rule requires a minimum sample size of 100 cases when we identify the significant factor loading on the basis of sample size. A factor loading will be statistically significant for our sample if it is greater than or equal to .50 (Janssens et al., 2008, p. 260-261). The results of the exploratory factorial analysis resulted in the existence of ten major factors that explain 77.043% of total variance. Also, for the clarification of the number of factors who will be retained can be undertaken by the Parallel Analysis of Horn (1965) (Watkins, 2000). Then, to confirm the number of factors that should be maintained, the results provided by Parallel Analysis (PA) (Watkins, 2000) were taken into account. The factors of the exploratory factorial analysis before were compared with the randomly distributed values of PA. The factors that had larger eigenvalues were kept for further analysis (Pallant, 2005) (Table 3 pa analysis). The results of the PA do not support the theoretical model of the DMBE on the existence of ten dimensions. The results of the PA analysis support the existence of six dimensions.

Then the factor loadings were examined. Due to the small sample size the most important loadings (.80 and over) (Pallant, 2005) of the first factor named “dimension 1” were presented in the items:

a. "The local leadership collaborates and helps” (value 0.858),

b. “The local leadership recognizes the needs of private businessmen and investors” (0.843),

c. "The local government supports us with financial capital for creation of tourist booklets, with energies of guarantee of smooth road circula-
tion and supports us upgrading the aesthetics of landscapes and other places in the region" (0.829),

d. "The collaborations are strengthened between institutions of the local government and the private individuals (businessmen) with regard to the planning and the promotion of the tourist product" (0.800) in the second factor named “dimension 4” in the items:

   a. "We allocate capable individuals that manage equitable the available resources and ensure the right management of financial capital and resources from the financing" (0.827),

   b. "Our staff are enthusiastic, comprehend the importance of tourism, create prospects and promote the tourism" (0.812) and

   c. "Our staff learned to collaborate between them so that they face the lacks and the different problems» (0.805).

Table 3. Comparison of Eigen values of the exploratory factorial analysis (EFA) with the critical values; the evaluation criteria resulting from the Parallel Analysis (PA).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of factors</th>
<th>Eigenvalues of the EFA</th>
<th>Critical value of the PA</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>13.525</td>
<td>2.1723</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>7.954</td>
<td>2.0298</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.896</td>
<td>1.9359</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.327</td>
<td>1.8524</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.004</td>
<td>1.7781</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>1.724</td>
<td>1.7047</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>1.529</td>
<td>1.6382</td>
<td>Rejected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>1.256</td>
<td>1.5806</td>
<td>Rejected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>1.168</td>
<td>1.5210</td>
<td>Rejected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>1.056</td>
<td>1.4683</td>
<td>Rejected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>.931</td>
<td>1.4164</td>
<td>Rejected..</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: We determine here with the Parallel Analysis the number of factors (components) to retain. So, we use in the second column the list of eigenvalues from the Total variance explained table of the SPSS statistical output. We calculate the third column with the use of the additional MonteCarlo PCA for Parallel Analysis statistical program. The program calculate the average eigenvalues for hundred randomly generated samples. At next we compare the first eigenvalue of the second column with the corresponding first random based value generated by the MonteCarlo PCA for Parallel Analysis statistical program. The number of variables we use are 46, the number of subjects 174 and the number of replications 100. Larger eigenvalues than the criterion value of the MonteCarlo PCA for parallel analysis program, shows that this factor is an acceptable factor (retained factor).

All the other factors did not include high factor loadings above the value .80 to marker variables for smaller sample sizes.
The two basic dimensions can be new renamed as: 1. "Local leadership and government synergetic support" and includes the following four items a) "The local leadership collaborates and helps" (value 0.858), b) “The local leadership recognizes the needs of private businessmen and investors” (0.843), c) "The local government supports us with financial capital for creation of tourist booklets, with energies of guarantee of smooth road circulation and supports us upgrading the aesthetics of landscapes and other places in the region" (0.829) and fourth item d) " The collaborations are strengthened between institutions of the local government and the private individuals (businessmen) with regard to the planning and the promotion of the tourist product " (0.800). The second dimension is named as “Capable and skilful staff “ and includes the following three descriptive items, a) " We allocate capable individuals that manage equitable the available resources and ensure the right management of financial capital and resources from the financing " (0.827)¶, ¶b) " Our staff are enthusiastic, comprehend the importance of tourism, create prospects and promote the tourism " (0.812) and c) " Our staff learned to collaborate between them so that they face the lacks and the different problems " (0.805).

Conclusion

The results of our analysis enforced the hypothesis that the success of the destination management and business effectiveness (DMBE) in a rural area seems to be related with a two DMBE dimensional model. The entrepreneurs of rural enterprises believe that “Local leadership and government synergetic support” but also the “Capable and skilful staff”, are important factors and they characterize their every day destination management and business effectiveness (DMBE) actions. This two dimensional model can be useful for strategic managerial implications in tourist areas. The local rural area administrators and planners but also every management staff responsible for the tourism development of the area, can measure and support the tourism destination strategy based on this two organisational factors. In figure 2 we present a strategic tool for a situation analysis related with the DMBE actions in a rural area.

In the “I” section [values 0.5 and above for the two dimensions] the staff of the entrepreneurs is rated as very capable and skilful but also the local authorities as effective leaders that, collaborates and helps, recognizes the needs of private businessmen and investors and supports synergies between the local administration and the business community also they help them with financial capital for creation of tourist booklets, guarantee the smooth road circulation and supports the landscape design of the region.
For the (DMBE) matrix of the above figure the researchers and practitioners can use the following measurement tools.

**“Local leadership and government synergetic support” measurement tool**

Give for each of the four items a score from 0.0 to 1.0

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 &quot;The local leadership collaborates and helps&quot;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 &quot;The local leadership recognizes the needs of private businessmen and investors&quot;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 &quot;The local government supports us with financial capital for creation of tourist booklets, with energies of guarantee of smooth road circulation and supports us upgrading the aesthetics of landscapes and other places in the region&quot;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 &quot;The collaborations are strengthened between institutions of the local government and the private individuals (businessmen) with regard to the planning and the promotion of the tourist product&quot;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total Sum \( \left( \Sigma \frac{1+4}{4} \right) \)

---

**“Capable and skilful staff” measurement tool**

Give for each of the three items a score from 0.0 to 1.0

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 &quot;We allocate capable individuals that manage equitable the available resources and ensure the right management of financial capital and resources from the financing&quot;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 &quot;Our staff are enthusiastic, comprehend the importance of tourism, create prospects and promote the tourism&quot;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 &quot;Our staff learned to collaborate between them so that they face the lacks and the different problems&quot;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total Sum \( \left( \Sigma \frac{1+3}{3} \right) \)

---

Other researchers can analyse more cases with the same analysis and measurement tool in different countries to enforce more knowledge about the basic
dimensions of management and business effectiveness in tourism rural areas. Also it’s very important to use and test in the every day praxis the proposed managerial tool that we promote here as the Destination management and business effectiveness (DMBE) matrix.

References


On the Need to Instrumentalize Culture for Tourism

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Abstract
In recent years, Turkey heads towards large scale investments due to many factors. Presented as major steps for national development facing long-lasting economic challenges, these projects are regarded as affirmative by public. Yet, the fact that these projects to be completed by centennial celebrations of Republic in 2023 or before have adverse impacts on cultural heritage is not taken into consideration. As one of the richest cities of the country in terms of ecological values of historical and natural conservation areas and cultural heritage, the adverse impacts upon this heritage should be dwelt upon for each investment in Izmir and the adopted approach should take its departure point from guiding outcomes of international studies on cultural heritage. The paper will first focus on worldwide studies on cultural heritage comparing Turkish Heritage Policies with those of other countries and will then dwell upon Cultural Heritage Area Management Plan for Pergamon, an important sub-province of Izmir with its location on the River Basin of Aegean Waters and its archeological and natural assets, touristic potentials and various investments. The discussion concludes by compromising between ecology and economy.

Key words: cultural heritage, tourism policy.

Introduction
Natural and the built (cultural) environment reflect the socio-economic, cultural, technological and political characteristics of the time. In other words, environment takes its shape from impacts of the period, in turn determining the approach of conservation. Turkey has plenty of assets to be preserved as historical and natural property. These entities are taken under protection by Law No. 2863 on Conservation of Cultural and Natural Property. The international dis-
courses on “common heritage of mankind” “cities of world heritage” are currently binding the act of conservation. Contrarily though, Turkey lacks any organization plan for single buildings or for areas with specific boundaries.

Adopting the principle concerned with the need for an organization system, the World Heritage Center (WHC) offers an organization plan outlining the ways of how the universal value of every specific area in world heritage list should be preserved (BIB, 2009, p. 60-63). The below discussion will dwell upon the main approach for natural and cultural heritage in the world and in Turkey and will follow with how such an approach is disregarded for the sake of populist concerns in Turkey and what shall be done in return.

Natural and Cultural Heritage in the World

Regulations for sensitiveness to cultural heritage date to early twenty-first century. In Western countries, for instance, the opinion on differing impacts of a monument in its singular location and within its surrounding became official in 1931 (Sey, 2000). In following course, first article of the Venice Charter extended the concept of “historic monument” in a much broader sense. Translated into 28 different languages including Turkish while receiving considerable support of mainly European countries, the charter embraces not only single architectural work, but also urban or rural settings with unchanged spatial characteristics or only limited changes to vernacular architecture (Sey, 2000).

Studies on natural and cultural heritage are guided by many organizations around the world. The leading ones can be mentioned as follows:

**International Council of Monuments and Sites (ICOMOS)**: As a non-governmental organization for World Cultural Heritage since 1965, ICOMOS runs its activities in association with UNESCO. It is also an advisory institution for UNESCO “World Heritage Committee”. Acting as a forum for experts on conservation, ICOMOS provides information on conferences on conservation and cultural heritage and formulates principles, techniques and policies.

**International Center for the Study of the Preservation and Restoration of Cultural Property, (ICCROM)**: It is an intergovernmental organization for studies held in five programmes including training, information, research, cooperation and advocacy for preservation of cultural heritage since 1956.

**United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, (UNESCO)**: Targeted at preservation of historical buildings, conservation sites and natural richness as cornerstones of civilizations, no matter the country or the region,
the Convention concerning the Protection of World Cultural and Natural Heritage is signed in Paris headquarters of UNESCO in 1972. Additions to this convention defined “tangible” and “intangible” cultural heritage as well. In Stockholm Conference Action Plan on Cultural Policies for Development in 1998, UNESCO emphasized the widespread protection of cultural heritage in its creative diversity.

Organisation of World Heritage Cities (OWHC): It was founded in 1993 for contributing to implementations of UNESCO on cultural heritage and to collaborate with other organizations pursuing similar goals.

World Monuments Fund (WMF): Since 1965, in more than 90 countries, the organization works with help of various donations for preservation and restoration of cultural heritage under threat.

The pan-European Federation for Cultural Heritage (Europa Nostra): In 1963, it was founded by a group of heritage non-governmental organizations, headed by Italia Nostra in the Office of the Council of Europe in Paris. It is committed to safeguarding Europe’s cultural heritage and landscapes.

International Council of Museums (ICOM): As the only organization representing museums and museum professionals since 1946, it assists members in their mission to preserve, conserve and share cultural heritage.

International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN): It is an international organization founded in 1948 for protection of natural resources.

Organizations such as United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) and Regional Environment Center (REC) are significant for their works on natural property as well (BİB, 2009, p.40).

Evidently, there are organizations which carry out comprehensive work with United Nations and European Council. Their binding documents reinforcing protection of cultural heritage are as follows:

- European Cultural Convention (1954)
- Convention on Wetlands of International Importance (Ramsar Convention, 1971)
- Convention Concerning the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage (1972)
- Convention for the Protection of the Mediterranean Sea Against Pollution (Barcelona Convention, 1975)
- Convention on the Conservation of European Wildlife and Natural Habitats (Bern Convention, 1979)
- Convention for the Protection of the Architectural Heritage of Europe (1985)
- Convention on the Protection of the Black Sea Against Pollution (Bucharest Convention, 1993)
- Protocol Concerning Specially Protected Areas and Biological Diversity in the Mediterranean (1995)

**European Landscape Convention (2000)**

Above-mentioned organizations and documents undertake crucial roles in protection of cultural heritage in terms of documentation and dissemination of knowledge on scientific problems of conservation, provision of support for related research, consultancy in technical problems, technical staff training and upgrading the applications in restoration. They also are binding in preparation of compendium for world cultural heritage, but also legislation procedures for regulations, charters and declarations (Şahin & Güner). The worldwide approach to natural and cultural heritage is evidently in no position to be altered by spontaneous decisions of investment.

**Approach to Natural and Cultural Heritage in Turkey**

In Turkish Constitution, the 63rd article on protection of cultural and natural property is supported also by article no. 43 on use of coasts, no.44 on land ownership, no. 45 on protection of those working in agriculture, stockbreeding and related production fields, no. 56 on health, environment and housing and no. 169 on protection and development of forestry areas. Signed in as a member
of UNESCO and ICCROM, Turkey seems sensitive to natural and cultural heritage, yet in appearance.

The first regulation targeted only at conservation and “area management” in Turkey is the National Parks Law No. 2873 coming into force in 1983\(^{\text{rd}}\) (BİB, 2009). There additionally are plenty of regulations for safeguarding natural and cultural heritage. Among these, the leading regulations are:

- Forestry Law No. 6831
- National Parks Law No. 2873
- Law No. 2863 on Conservation of Cultural and Natural Property
- Environment Law No. 2872
- Tourism Encouragement Law No. 2634
- Bosphorus Law No. 2960
- Development Law No. 3194
- Law No. 4533 on Historical National Gallipoli Peninsula Garden Park
- Law No. 4915 on Terrestrial Hunting
- Law No. 4122 on National Forestation and Erosion Control Mobilization
- Animal Law No. 5199
- Regulation on Identification and Registration of Cultural and Natural Property to be Protected
- Law No. 5366 on Usage of Timeworn Historical and Cultural Real Property with Restoration, Protection and its Implementing Regulation
- National Parks Law No. 2873 and Regulation on National Parks
- Coast Law No. 3621 and its Implementing Regulation
- Decree Law no.383 on the Establishment of the Environmental Protection Agency for Special Areas
- Regulation on Exchange of Immovable Property in Cultural and Natural Heritage sites having ban on construction with Immovable Property of Treasury
- Regulation on Renting Immovable Property of Historical and Aesthetic Value
- Regulation on Research, Drilling and Excavation of Cultural and Natural Property

The most comprehensive law on cultural heritage pertains to Laws numbered 3386 and 5226 amending the Law No. 2863 on the Protection of Cultural
and National Property in Turkey. The amendments to Law No. 2863 aided in drawing a legal background for concepts of management area and management plan. Central and local governments as well as provincial administrations are given the duty and responsibility for protection of natural and cultural heritage in terms of execution of regulations.

Izmir-Bergama Case Reflecting the Political Approach for Natural and Cultural Heritage

Izmir is one of the richest cities of Turkey in terms of its natural and historical assets. The below table gives the number of various conservation sites around Izmir and Turkey and the corresponding rate of sites.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Conservation Site</th>
<th>Place</th>
<th>Corresponding Rate (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Archaeological Site</td>
<td>Turkey 9272</td>
<td>Izmir 401</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban Conservation Site</td>
<td>239</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural Heritage Sites</td>
<td>1266</td>
<td>295</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Historical Heritage Sites</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban Archaeological Sites</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Conservation Sites (in superposition)</td>
<td>419</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>11377</td>
<td>805</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Considering that there are 81 provinces in Turkey, the table manifests richness of Izmir’s natural and cultural heritage, covering 7% of all conservation sites.

The well-known heritage sites are given below by years of their registration:

- Izmir Çiğli Bird’s Paradise – 1st degree Natural Site (1985)
- Culture park (Fair) – Natural site (1992)
- Doğançay and Ataturk Forestry - 1st degree Natural Site (1992)
- İnciraltı – 1st, 2nd, and 3rd degree Natural Site (2002)
- Çiçekliköy and its environs - 1st degree Natural Site (2002)
- Kavaklıdere 1st degree Natural Site (2002)
- Gökdere - 1st degree Natural Site (2002)
Regardless of such richness in terms of its heritage sites, a booklet titled “35 projects for Izmir 35” is published on 03.06.2011 prior to the elections of June 12th, 2011 and explained the investment projects. None of these proposed projects, however, were based on any study with possible ecological and cultural impacts. In other words, the concern for being “elected” has gone beyond ecological values.

Projects can be grouped into four in terms of scale and content (ŞPO, 2011, p. 3):

- Projects with nationwide impacts
- Projects with regionwide impacts
- Projects with citywide impacts
- Sectoral projects

These 35 projects are further grouped in terms of their direct, indirect and unexpected adverse impacts upon heritage assets within, in proximity to or far from the place of location as follows:

**Table 2:** Direct, indirect or unexpected impacts of 35 projects for Izmir on heritage

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Projects with Direct Impact</th>
<th>Projects with Indirect Impact</th>
<th>Projects with Unexpected Adverse Impact</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ephesus Ancient Port</td>
<td>Agora and City Center Renewal</td>
<td>Adnan Menderes Airport Domestic Lines Terminal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>İzmir – Çeşme Marine Highway</td>
<td>Fishermen’s Piers</td>
<td>City of Informatics and R&amp;D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>İzmir Highway and RailTransit</td>
<td>EGERAY</td>
<td>Informatics-Supported Life</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Konak Tunnel</td>
<td>İzmir – Ankara Highway</td>
<td>Bornova, Ödemiş, Tire Cultural Centers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bay Regeneration Project</td>
<td>İzmir – Antalya Highway</td>
<td>Stock Exchange for Marine Products</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Northern Aegean Port</td>
<td>İzmir – Istanbul Highway</td>
<td>Digital History Library</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>İzmir – Ankara High-Speed Train Line</td>
<td>Accessible Life</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>İzmir Subways</td>
<td>E-Trade Headquarters İzmir</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Istanbul – İzmir High-Speed Train Line</td>
<td>Olympic Stadiums</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kedalaşpa Logistics Center</td>
<td>Student Activity Centers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kedalaşpa – Turgutlu and Kiraz – Ödemiş Railroads</td>
<td>Medical City</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cruise Port</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Northern Highway</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sabuncukeli Tunnel</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Urban Renewal Project</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Industrial Enterprises in Agriculture and Stockbreeding</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Vecili Hürkuş Airport</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Marinas</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As manifest in the table, 69% of all projects (24) will have either direct or indirect impacts upon natural and cultural property, because no attention has been paid to zoning. xvi
These projects are put on the urban agenda without any scientific studies held by the Ministry of Transportation in a non-participatory approach formulated within an unplanned, incremental, yet top-to-bottom system that conflicts even with the institutional frameworks. While the Ministry did even not start preparations of the Transportation Master Plan based on the Strategy Document of Transportation and Communication in Turkey, the proposed projects represent thorough discrepancy and deviation from planned development (ŞPO, 2011).

Even though the picture displayed by Turkey in national and international grounds protects itself in legal terms, the populist attitudes adopted mainly in greater cities cause natural and cultural heritage be neglected.

Despite such circumstances, Izmir also shelters ecologically- and culturally-sensitive developments.

For instance, as result of valuable data obtained from compendium studies, strategic plans and conservation plans recently held by the Ministry, the application for Pergamon to be listed in the UNESCO World Heritage City List was successfully accepted in the tentative list by April 2011. Bergama Municipality plans to work for becoming a permanent nominee in January 2013 (Bergama Municipality, 2009).

Pergamon has been home to many civilizations in its history. Prior to the Ottoman period, Pergamon was the city of Greek Era, Hellenistic period, period of Principalities, the Roman and Byzantine periods, during which many buildings were built. Among Pergamon’s significant heritage assets take place the Acropolis, Asclepieion Health Center, Serapion temple (Red Basilica), Roman Theater – amphi-theater – Stadium, Tumuluses, Seljukian Minaret, Ulu Mosque, Çukurhan, Taşhan, Küplü Bath, İncirli Small Mosque, Kurşunlu Mosque, Tabaklar Bath, Hadji Hekim Mosque, Hadji Hekim Bath, Parmaklı Small Mosque, Lalelı Small Mosque, Ansarlı Mosque, Şadırvanlı Mosque, Kulaksziz Mosque, Bedesten, and Allianoıxií (Oyan, 2003; Yaraş, 2002). According to the data by Conservation Council, there are 571 listed buildings within Pergamon Conservation Site (Bergama Municipality, 2009).

As result of designation of some areas as conservation sites by Higher Conservation Council in 1984, the Master Plan and Development Plan were successively prepared and the Development Plan was revised in 2002 (Gökçen Oyan, 2003). However, the most important deficit of planning was lack of any guidance of conservation plan to protect and develop the historical and cultural ur-
ban pattern. In addition, boundaries and types of conservation sites that were identified in 1984 kept being altered in various periods. Thus, a conservation plan including the 1st, 2nd and 3rd degree Archaeological Sites, Urban-Archaeological sites and Urban+3rd degree Archaeological sites should be prepared with due focus on 571 listed buildings in monumental and public architecture. By this way, investments can foster ecologically- and culturally-sensitive development. These investments can even become flagship projects.

**Conclusion**

Management plans share one major aspect in common, which defines that plans should be guiding with reference to specific characteristics of land as well as targets of management, and that this should involve a process to be repeatedly reviewed in order to conform to changing circumstances and goals. Area management and management plan works held for urban and historical areas can overcome adverse pressures against heritage areas, aid in visibility of cultural resources and are regarded as a component of planning measures to upgrade environmental quality. Considering in terms of future prospects, neither mere conserving nor more utilizing approaches can be effective enough. Taking precautionary measures against problems of concrete bureaucratic structure of central government may be subject to delays in implementation (Toprak, 2003). In this regard, sustainability of the balance between use and protection of resources is crucial. Therefore, practical solutions for environmental problems may be achieved via cooperation of public and private sectors and non-governmental organizations (Yavaş & Palabıyık, 2006).

There are many problems in heritage, given as follows:

Almost all institutions are either authorized and/or responsible for natural and cultural heritage. Therefore, there cannot be any coordination between related institutions, central and local public bodies for widespread sustainable protection of cultural heritage. Furthermore, since conservation-related concepts are mainly translations into Turkish, there occur misunderstandings/misinterpretations of their content by different institutions. This problem may be overcome via sound governance.

Local governments that do not receive sufficient subsidy from the central government fail to give priority to natural, historical-cultural property or tend to deprive from these assets for the sake of “economical gains”. In other words, these assets are converted into income-generating functions, resulting in loss of their natural and cultural features (BİB, 2009). Article 17 of Law No.2863
renders preparation of Conservation Plans for conservation site obligatory. Following designation of an area as conservation site, it is adjudged that execution of all plans be ceased, Terms and Conditions of Transition Period be determined in three months and Conservation Plans be prepared by related administrations in two years time. This regulation is based on the idea to have all conservation sites be planned and due implementations be made. In the surrounding interactive area, plan decisions and notes of 1/25.000 plan, if any, have to be reconsidered, but this is not enough for any site to become integrated or be in interaction with the city, because the Development Law is not based on protection of conservation sites and cultural property. Conservation sites are subject to severe pressures from the city and its inhabitants for development, but due to lack of social and physical integration, they cannot be planned as integrated parts of urban environment. Development Law lacks conservation-related concepts and approaches, leaving this mission to Law No. 2863. This results in neglect of areas located in urban or rural areas not covered by law, meaning that “conservation” is not emphasized in planning terms.

Law No. 5226 amending Law No. 2863 brings statements that transfer property owners’ rights for urban development, but since the Development Law does not include any corresponding statement for “transfer of development rights”, the article could not be executed until this day. Concepts of Management Area, Management Plan, Area Management, Museum Management and Monumental Council, were all introduced as part of Turkish regulations on conservation, but no concrete results could be attained in practice. Even though the approach of holistic conservation and revitalization is adopted globally, the social and economic role in safeguarding cultural and urban heritage could not be thoroughly covered in Turkish urban development processes. In Turkey, planning is influenced by political environment targets of being elected via large-scale and visible projects and spontaneous decisions of investments. While planning cannot keep its hierarchical sequence from upper to lower scales in practice, upper scale plan decisions cannot provide any binding means to protect assets\textsuperscript{xx}. Therefore, Turkey is yet devoid of any planning practice based on conservation and ecologically-sensitive utilization of cultural heritage.

References


ii Accepted in the 2nd International Congress of Architects and Technicians of Historical Monuments, the treaty is deemed as the international constitution of conservation matters.

iii For further details, please See ICOMOS Türkiye (2005); Topuz, 1998: 73-86.

iv For further details, please see ICCROM (2005).

v For further details, please see UNESCO (2011).

vi For further details, please see OWHC (2012).

vii For further details, please see WMF (2012).

viii For further details, please see Europa Nostra (ud).

ix For further details, please see ICOM (2010).

x For further details, please see IUCN (2012).

xi "The purpose of the Law is to establish the principles governing the selection and designation of National Parks, Nature Parks, Natural Monuments and Nature Reserve areas of national and international value and protection development and management of such places without spoiling their characteristics.” (Article 1)

xii Articles no. 3/10, 3/11 and 3/12 added definitions of “management area”, “management plan” and “junction point” to the law. Statements of the law are further clarified by its implementing regulation dated 27.11.2005 published in the Official Gazette numbered 26006 on Foundation and Duties of Monument Council, Area Management and procedures and principles in determination of Management Areas.

xiii Among the central public institutions can be named the Council of Ministers, Bosphorus Higher Planning Coordination Council, Southeastern Anatolia Project Regional Development Administration, Ministry of Environment and Urbanization, Ministry of Culture and Tourism, Ministry of Forestry and Water Works, Ministry of Health, Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Works and the General Directorate of Foundations, Department of National Palaces.

xiv Adapted from KTB, 2008.

xv For further project details, please See. Yıldırım, B. (2011).

xvi For example, the route of Izmir Highway and Rail Transit Project passes through the conservation site for Gediz Delta and Bird’s Paradise. The project similarly does not take into account any boundaries such as those of 1st Degree Conservation Site, Ecological Impact Zone Boundary, Wetland Boundaries, Absolute Conservation Zone Boundary, Wetland Buffer Zone Boundary, Ramsar Boundary or Wildlife Protection Zone Boundary etc.

xvii Allianoi is announced as 1st Degree Archaeological Site by Izmir No. 1 Conservation Council for Cultural and Natural Property on date 29.03.2001.

xviii For further details, please see the following: whc.unesco.org/opgutoc.htm; Lodge and Terrace (2006): Thorsell 1995; Young and Young, 1993; Ndosi 1992; Eurositem, 1999; Law No. 5226 dated 27.07.2004 and published in Official Gazette numbered 25535.

xix Law No. 5366 can be given as an example.

xx Regional Master Plans are yet not drawn for the entire country. Additionally, even Special Environmental Protection Zones are devoid of Master Plans and related Development Plans. Plans made for these areas are either on upper scale, are repeatedly revised or are just lower scale plans. See Efe (2010) for further details.
Economic Impact of Cultural Event: Evidence from Thaipusam Festival Visitors’ Spending

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Abstract
Cultural events are now gradually being observed more as a vital element of Malaysian economic development. Festivals and special events have always been associated with tourism as tourism has been recognized as one of the leading growth sectors in income generation. Cultural events are increasingly being used as instruments for promoting tourism and boosting the regional economy in Malaysia. This is often reflected in the level of Malaysian government assistance made available to them. However, it is difficult to assess the extent of the contribution of the festival to local economic growth, and most studies do not examine this issue beyond standard multiplier impacts. Therefore, this study tends to measure the Thaipusam visitors’ motivation, satisfaction and their spending patterns. The data were gathered by using questionnaires and more than 900 respondents that attended both events were randomly selected and surveyed. The results show enormous spending generation, suggesting some justification for government assistance for local festivals as a tourism strategy based on the level of the visitors’ motivation and satisfaction. Additionally, policy implications related to increasing the volume of visitors and their spending are discussed.

Key words: cultural event, motivation, satisfaction, economic impacts.

Introduction
Events are now gradually being observed more as a vital element of tourism development and marketing plans. Since most of the events have emerged because of non-touristic reasons such as religious holidays, competitions, community leisure, or cultural celebrations, there is obviously a tendency to take advantage of them in the name of tourism and to develop new events intentionally as tourist attractions (Getz, 1997). Festivals and special events play an im-
important role in the lives of society as they offer essential activities and a channel for locals and visitors to spend as well as augmenting the image of the local communities.

Cultural diversity is one of the uniqueness in Malaysia and this country has become a role model in maintaining harmonious relationship within diverse culture. Thaipusam is an event that showcases how diverse culture can work together in demonstrating our unique culture to the world. Thaipusam was celebrated throughout Malaysia by Hindus on the tenth month of the Hindu calendar. Thaipusam is a day for penance and atonement among the Hindu community. Thaipusam is a time for Hindu devotees to fulfil a vow they have made to the Lord Muruga, also known as Lord Subramaniam. The displays of devotion are varied, but the most devout prepare themselves for weeks, purifying themselves by fasting and celibacy. In a state of religious ecstasy thousands of devotees carrying body piercing kavadis - a frame decorated with colored papers, tinsels, fresh flowers, and fruits as a form of penance, makes this a once in lifetime experience.

**Empirical Study**

Janeczko, Mules & Ritchie (2002) found that among all forms of tourism, the fastest growing are events and festivals. They have gradually become methods of stimulating local economies especially in rural areas. Both of them have been used with enormous achievement in various areas as a way to attract people to regions that naturally have an allure for seasonal tourists. The time and the duration of events and festivals are suitable for most of our society to be part of the activities and at the same time, it can attract new visitors to come to some regions which are new to them. This extra publicity plays an important part as it is an indirect way of promoting the region to others, which actually providing a chance to get hold of a market which was unattainable before (Hill, 2003). With the amount of new money being brought in by these new visitors, it will further expand the market and later heightened both real and potential revenue generation.

Economic factor is one of the important elements in promoting high-profile international events as the economic dimension of event has always been linked to economic growth and creating new frontier for the economy. Lee & Taylor (2005) states that tourism which includes recreation and leisure activities can bring an assortment of economic impacts into a country. In an area, tourists contribute to sales, profits, jobs, tax revenues and income. The direct primary effects occur within tourism sectors including lodging, restaurants, trans-
portation, amusements and retail trade. Besides that tourism sector can also be affected by the secondary effects. Secondary can be indirect and induced effects. These impacts or results may influence the country’s gross output, sales, income, employment, or added value.

Malaysia has been growing interest and intensive government investment in tourism industry Hanafiah, Harun and Jamaluddin (2010). However, besides all the positive impacts of hosting event and festival, there are some negative impacts on the economy that need to be considered. The purpose of this study is to explore the impacts of tourism event towards the country. Yet, this study is primarily to measure the overall economic impacts of the tourism event based on the expenditure of international tourists.

**Methodology**

Convenience sampling was used to ensure all the three different groups of visitors are included in the data during the field survey. Quantitative research method was implemented in this research as a set of questionnaire that consists of 46 items was designed based on the objectives of the research. Close-ended questions that use a nominal type scale had been chosen to be used in the research. The questionnaires used 5-points Likert scales developed from the information gathers from literature review. To test whether the dimensions were trustworthy, this paper adapted the most commonly used indicators of internal consistency which is Cronbach’s Alpha coefficient. As the tested value was above 0.60, therefore it can be considered acceptable and reliable by Hair, J., Money, A., Samouel, P., & Page, M. (2007). A series of analysis such as frequency distribution and cross tabulation were used in this study and the data is presented using tables and charts for better illustration.

**Result**

**Visitors’ Motivation**

*Table 1. Visitors’ motivation*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Local Residence</th>
<th>Visitors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Domestic</td>
<td>Foreign</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recommendation from friends or relatives</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spend time with family</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experience local festival environment</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experience local customs and cultures</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participate in the festival</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Majority of the foreign visitors are motivated to attend Thaipusam festival to experience local customs and cultures (n=167) followed by to experience local festival environment (n=85). 154 local residence and domestic visitors were mainly motivated to get the valuable experience of local festival environment. There were activities during the event and some of the visitors claimed that they were there to participate those activities conducted in the festival.

**Visitors’ Satisfaction**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attributes</th>
<th>Strongly Dissatisfied</th>
<th>Dissatisfied</th>
<th>Neither</th>
<th>Satisfied</th>
<th>Strongly Satisfied</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Location</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>395</td>
<td>206</td>
<td>3.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safety &amp; Security</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>407</td>
<td>204</td>
<td>4.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>381</td>
<td>177</td>
<td>3.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parking</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>263</td>
<td>205</td>
<td>127</td>
<td>3.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cleanliness</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>121</td>
<td>361</td>
<td>217</td>
<td>4.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F &amp; B Outlet</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>376</td>
<td>224</td>
<td>4.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall Satisfaction</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>360</td>
<td>312</td>
<td>4.32</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Overall, everybody seems to be satisfied with the location of the event (M=3.99) and majority of the respondents were satisfied with the safety and security measures of the event most probably due to the presence of policemen around. Respondents were also satisfied with the signage and information booth at the location of the event. It is well-known that parking is always a problem in the area especially when there is an event being held. It is proven by the results where almost every visitor categorized themselves closer to the neutral position of “neither” (M=3.37) especially the KL residence (M=3.36) and domestic visitor (M=3.14) where they drove their own cars. However, the score for foreign visitor (M=3.56) shows the propensity of the magnitude leaning slightly towards the scale of agreement. Most of them used public transportation in the city; hence parking is not really a problem.

In term of food and beverages outlet, foreign visitor group were satisfied as they appreciated the varieties and the experience testing different types of Malaysian foods. Similar thing can be said to the KL residence (M=4.05) and domestic visitor (M=4.01) where they satisfied with the food and beverage outlets at the location presumably due to the quality, simplicity and prices of the food and beverage items. Overall, the most satisfied group with the whole event was the foreign visitor (M = 4.38) which might has been contributed by their remarkable scores in every question in the event performance section. The levels
of satisfaction for the other two groups were not far behind. All in all, it can be said that this event created a memorable experience for all visitors (M= 4.32)

**Visitors’ Spending**

**Table 3: Visitors’ Spending**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>KL Visitor (RM)</th>
<th>Domestic Visitor (RM)</th>
<th>Foreign Visitor (RM)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Food and Beverage</td>
<td>6,624</td>
<td>24,679</td>
<td>39,208</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retail Shopping</td>
<td>11,836</td>
<td>34,732</td>
<td>70,027</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lodging</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>14,406</td>
<td>114,124</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local Transportation</td>
<td>4,914</td>
<td>12,590</td>
<td>22,965</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>8,700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>23,414</td>
<td><strong>86,607</strong></td>
<td><strong>255,024</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is no doubt that foreign visitors spent the largest amount of money to the event recorded at RM 255,024. But, the largest proportion contributed to the total amount was their spending on lodging. At RM 114, 124, the figure shows a majestic gap between the rests. Based on the table, RM 86, 607 was spent by domestic visitors, falls second nowhere near close to the foreign visitor’s total. Unlike the spending pattern of the foreign visitors, the total spending of domestic visitor was largely resulted from their spending on retail shopping.

**Economic Contribution**

**Table 4. Economic contribution**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Local Visitor</th>
<th>Foreign Visitor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total spending</strong></td>
<td>RM 110,021</td>
<td>RM 255,024</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sample (n)</strong></td>
<td>389</td>
<td>351</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Per capita expenditure</strong></td>
<td>RM 282.83</td>
<td>RM 726.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Census</strong></td>
<td>16,696 people</td>
<td>4,768 people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total expenditure</strong></td>
<td>Rm 4,722,129.68</td>
<td>Rm 3,464,238.08</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The meaningfulness of this study is enhanced with the information on the economic contribution of the event. The total spending is divided with number of sample to get the ‘per capita expenditure’. The result is then multiplied by number of people who turned up at the event (head count) to calculate the total expenditure. There were 16,696 Malaysian attended the event. Therefore, a rough amount of RM 4,722,129.68 was gained from the event from this group. The number of foreign visitors was not as great as local people but their contribution of RM 3,464,238.08 cannot be overlooked. All in all, this event has
brought in a remarkable amount of visitor spending approximately at RM 8,186,367.76.

Conclusion

The above results show that the claim that cultural festivals (Thaipusam) can act as tourism promoters is not without justification. However, the magnitude of this effect needs to be kept in proportion. While visitors' expenditures are a central element in creating a growth dynamic, care needs to be taken in accurately representing their full effect, avoiding doublecounting and the inclusion of expenditures that would have occurred in the absence of the festival. This study has also shown that it is possible to progress beyond the standard estimations of expenditure-induced income multipliers so prevalent in the professional literature (Kim et al. 1998). This study also illustrated a practical approach for converting local expenditure patterns into local income change.

In conclusion, our results may seem to suggest that cultural festivals have a particularly important “signaling” effect that may in some instances complement or equal the more tangible economic effects with which they are commonly associated. While the relative shares of these two effects have not been directly examined here, the continued high levels of public support for festivals and the relatively great levels of local economic growth that they yield seem to indicate some form of nonmarket benefit (such as local image creation) associated with the festival. This, of course, is a rich subject for further investigation. Our findings, however, do suggest to economic-development practitioners and policy makers the need for incorporating nonmarket measures of value when analyzing the festival as an instrument of tourism promotion.

Acknowledgment

We would like to thanks Research Management Institute (RMI), Universiti Teknologi MARA Malaysia for their financial support under Dana Kecemerlangan Grant.

References


Assessment Geomorphotourism Potentials in Karstic Regions: 
The Case Study of Tazeh Kand Village of Maragheh Township

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Abstract
Based on the importance of tourism as an authorization for the sustainable development in the third world countries, the importance of this research is declared in this regard. With this approach the aim of this research is the assessment of potential geotourism of Tazeh Kand Village of Maragheh Township in East Azerbaijan. In term of morphogenesis, the study area is depended on the Karst genesis and these parameter cerates the beautiful geo-sites which are the main tourist attraction places in the area. Therefore, with respect to the goals of the study, the data were collected through field works and library-based sources and were evaluated by using the Pralong technique. In this paper for estimation of geo-touristic values of the existing phenomena in the study area; aesthetic, scientific, cultural, historical, and finally social parameters were analyzed in relation to the geomorphology and its applied aspects. Results of this research show the scientific preference of some obstacles (like the deficiency of the appropriate connection networks) the capabilities of geo-sites in terms of geo-tourism were verified. The planning and management approaches can be regarded as an effective step toward the economic development of this deprived area.

Key words: Tazeh Kand Village, geotourism, Karstic Regions, Pralong Technique.

Introduction
Geotourism is a special form of the tourism in which geo cites are considered by tourists. A geosite can be a landscape, set of different ground roughness (land forms) or individual land form, rocky outcrop and also fossil layers or special fossil (Dowling & Newsome, 2006). This kind of tourism is synonym of geographical tourism by the aim of discovering an area with all natural and human related elements (Reynard, 2008) that has been gained attention by UNESCO after considering geoparks. In deed geotourism emphasizes geomorphology, geological and geographical characteristics as the media for all human
activities (Servati & Kazazi, 2006). This type of tourism provides opportunity for study of the geology forms and places for comprehension of geological scientific subjects and generalization of them and develops local economics by scientific, research tours and tourism preserves environment. In general geotourism is a comprehensive form of sustainable tourism involving subject matters in different tourism scopes like rural tourism (Clarc & Chabrel, 2007; Ilbery & Kneafsey, 2007; Oliver & Jenkins, 2003; Saxena, Clark, Oliver, & Ilbery, 2007) cultural heritage tourism (Boyd, 2002; Kang & Moscardo, 2006; Moscardo & Pearce, 1999) based on tourism association (Blackstock, 2005; Joppe, 1996) poor supporting tourism (Ashley & Roe, 2002) and ecotourism (Ceballos, 1996; Scheyvens, 1999). From geotourism view point, in Iran, karst areas (more than eleven percent of total regions) have potential from scientific and appearance perspective resulted from karst process by different climates. Unique geomorphologic places have been formed by these processes that attract thousands tourists in national and regional level every year. But it could not be obtained position in international level as a result of less research in this case so studies are necessity.

Valuable descriptive studies have been conducted (Coratza et al, 2008; Ghasemi Yalouz Agaj et al, 2010) and quantitative methods have been employed (Rybar, 2010; Pralong, 2005; Comanescu & Dobre, 2009; Giardino et al, 2010; Boley et al, 2010). But there is no scientific case study highlighting the region geotourism value. So, this research aims to evaluate the karst areas geotourism capabilities of Tazekand Sofla village by using Pralong method. In this relation these forms have been explained scientifically and valued in the case study village.

**Geotourism in the karst areas**

According to Kranjc term of karst is originated from old Romans. It is originated from Kara means rocky ground and then it was entered to Hindu and European languages. In north Yugoslavia Kars means bare rocky ground and it is name of a region in boundary of Yugoslavia and Italy adjacent to Trieste. This word has been changed gradually into Karst in Germany. For this reason most of the explanations refer to this period (Kranjc, 2010). Then in middle of ninth century, it entered in literature and geomorphology (Servati & Eshghi, 2003). In academic definition karst refers to land with special hydrology and forms by high solubility and porous rocks (Ford & Williams, 1989) Karst forms mainly are seen in limestone. Beginning of karst stage requires to 60 percent carbonate
calcium and for expansion stage it needs 90 percent carbonate calcium. Following limestone solution formula is used for formation of karst:

\[
\begin{align*}
CO_2 + H_2O &\leftrightarrow H_2CO_3 \\
H_2CO_3 &\leftrightarrow H^+ + HCO_3^- \\
CO_3^{2-} + H^+ &\leftrightarrow Ca^{2+} + CO_3^{2-} \\
CO_3^{2-} + H^+ &\leftrightarrow HCO_3^- \\
\text{Summary Equation} &
\end{align*}
\]

\[
CaCO_3 + H_2O + CO_2 \leftrightarrow Ca^{2+} + 2HCO_3^-
\]

From lithology view point Tazekand Sofla village district is formed by Lar structure by limestone as main part of the formation. Mountainous and semi arid climate and lithology influence calcification in this area. The main kast forming factors are as follows:

1- Carbonate and carbonate-dolomite structures
2- Expansion of break and gaps resulted from mechanical and chemical aeration
3- Relatively proper precipitation and flowing of water inside limestone
4- Proper height and domination of acidity water
5- Solubility process in carbonate-dolomite stones

These factors form unique geosites in this region that attract thousands of tourists every year. These formations are affected by karst fixation processes like cave, doline, spring, natural bridge and karn and microkarn. Also there is a stream (Mardag River) that adds to the beauty of the zone from autistic view point. These formations have been explained scientifically and pictorially and they are evaluated by using geotouristic value Pralong method (Karst forms).

**Karst forms**

*Cave*: Natural hole or serial of natural holes than an individual can enter it. While the caves of karst areas are in places that dissolution plays an important role in rock erosion (Ford & Williams, 1989). Hamponil cave formed in Lar structure is one of the biggest unknown caves. Entrance in 1536 meters of sea is the reason for formation of this cave. Atmospheric waters are acidity agent penetrates inside of the layers and splits. The diameter of this entrance is three meters and it leads to big hall by big and intricate wells formed as a result of dissolution. In spite of beautiful landscape in this height, the wells formed in
Lar structure inside Hamponil cave attract visitors in scientific, adventure and aesthetic scopes (Figure 1).

*Spring:* Springs are points where ground water, recharged at higher elevations, emerges at the surface. Depending on the nature of the recharge and of the storage/transmission characteristics of the aquifer through which the water has flowed, they may be permanent (perennial), seasonal or intermittent. In karst areas reversing springs called Estavelles are found, particularly in association with poljes. Another common feature of karst areas is the presence of permanent ‘underflow’ springs and higher, intermittent, ‘overflow’ springs. Karst springs are the output points from a dendrite network of conduits, some of which may be large enough for human exploration (caves). They therefore tend to be both larger and more variable in quantity and quality than springs that emerge from coarse granular or fractured media (Goudie, 2004).

The spring in studied karst area is located in west of Hamponil cave in height of 1475 meter. Water of this spring depends on precipitation and it is intermittent spring. There are no special forms in this spring because of lack of opportunity in warming and settlement or in other words carbonate calcium precipitation. In spite of this fact it is attractive landscape for visitors (Figure 1).

*Natural Bridge:* Remnant arch-shaped formation developed through erosion of the surrounding bedrock. Natural bridges, or stone arches, are unusual features that predominantly develop in horizontally bedded sedimentary rocks such as sandstone and limestone, though they hardly ever occur in metamorphosed or igneous rocks. They may form in a variety of ways, though all are ephemeral and will eventually collapse (Goudie, 2004).

Dissolution and mechanical aeration are the main studied factors in formation of this natural bridge by attractive landscape (Figure 1).

*Karn:* karns are different shaped and size aerated curvature surfaces found in karsts squares usually in limestone, dolomites and also gypsy, salt and silicates. These forms are rough facet in karst areas and they add in region beauty and accelerators of karst fixation (Figure 1).

Finally there is Mardag stream originated from south of Hamponil cave and ended to Uremia Lake. This river deepens Lar structure and it flows in sandy stone and it is one of the main tourism places (Figure 1).


**Study area geographical specifications**

The study region has located in North West of Iran in Marageh province adjacent to Mardag River in district of lower Tazeh Kand sofla village. Karst formations were formed in height of 1470 meters from sea in Lar structure (Massive cherty limestone and dolomite limestone), under area climate and lithology. The studied region is located between 37° and 17" in mathematics position and 32°-37° and 21° and 26° north longitude and 46° and 20' and 24° and 46, 16° and 6° east latitude (map 1).

The highest point in Lar structure affected by climatic and lithology condition is in Hampoeil cave in height of 1536 meters of sea level and the lowest point has located in Mardag valley by 1410 meter in south west of the cave. The distance between Hampoeil cave and Marageh province is approximately 8 kilometers. The average precipitation is 360 mm and it reaches 400 mm in high precipitation.
Methodology

Geosites tourism value is calculated by following equation according to Pralong method based on four aspects of (social, economic, cultural and historical, scientific and appearance beauty):

Tourism value = (social –economic+ cultural -historical +scientific + appearance beauty)/4

In this formula the weights are equal.

1-calculation of appearance beauty value

Total score=(score of item 5+ score of item 4+ score of item 3+ score of item 2+ score of item 1)/5

These scores are calculated according to Table 1. In this formula the weights are equal.

Table 1. Scoring criterion in evaluating appearance beauty value of a geomorphologic place

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criteria / scores</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>0.25</th>
<th>0.5</th>
<th>0.75</th>
<th>1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Scenic 1: Number of view points</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>2 or 3</td>
<td>4,5 or 6</td>
<td>More than 6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Scenic 1 considers the number of viewpoints accessible by a pedestrian pathway. Each must present a particular angle of view and be situated less than 1 km from the site.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scenic 2: Average distance to view point’s [m]</th>
<th>-</th>
<th>Less than 50</th>
<th>Between 50 and 200</th>
<th>Between 200 and 500</th>
<th>More than 500</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Linked to Scenic 1, Scenic 2 corresponds to the sum of the shortest distances between each viewpoint and the site divided by the number of viewpoints taken into account by Scenic 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scenic 3: Surface</th>
<th>-</th>
<th>small</th>
<th>moderate</th>
<th>large</th>
<th>Very large</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

For Scenic 3, the whole surface of the site is considered. For each kind of site (glacier, cave, etc.) a quantitative scale of area scoring [ha] is defined in relation to all the identical sites of the study territory.
6th World Conference for Graduate Research in Tourism, Hospitality and Leisure

Sce 4: Elevation

For Sce 4, the whole elevation of the site is considered. For each kind of site (glacier, cave, etc.) a quantitative scale of elevation scoring [m] is defined in relation to all the identical sites of the study territory.

Sce 5: Colour contrasts with site surroundings

Sce 5 considers the colour contrast between the site and its direct environment. A particular colour includes all its numerous shades; dark grey and light grey are considered as identical colours.

2-calculation of scientific value

Total scores = (score of item 6 + score of item 5 + (0/5 * item 4) + (0/5 * item 3) + score of item 3 + score of item 2 + score of item 1)/5

These scores are calculated according to Table 2. In this formula weight of items 3 and 4 are reduced since both of them are evaluated as rare indices related to item 3.

Table 2. Scoring criterion in evaluating scientific value of a geomorphologic place

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criteria / scores</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>0.25</th>
<th>0.5</th>
<th>0.75</th>
<th>1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Scientific 1: Palaeogeographical interest</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>low</td>
<td>moderate</td>
<td>high</td>
<td>Very high</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Scientific 1 depends on the palaeogeographical interest of the site as testimony for reconstructing the morphoclimatic evolution of a territory. A historical study site has a greater interest.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sci 2: Representativeness</th>
<th>nil</th>
<th>low</th>
<th>moderate</th>
<th>high</th>
<th>Very high</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Sci 2 depends on the didactic and exemplary characteristics of the site for laymen in geomorphology. The site legibility is due to its own quality and general configuration.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sci 3: Area [%]</th>
<th>-</th>
<th>Less than 25</th>
<th>Between 25 and 50</th>
<th>Between 50 and 90</th>
<th>More than 90</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

For Sci 3, the score is assessed by the site area divided by the whole area occupied by all identical sites of the study territory as defined by Sce 3. The final score is expressed in percent.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sci 4: Rarity</th>
<th>More than 7</th>
<th>Between 5 and 7</th>
<th>Between 3 and 4</th>
<th>Between 1 and 2</th>
<th>unique</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

For Sci 4, the score is assessed by the number of identical sites of the study territory as defined by Sce 3. A rare site may be an example of a different morphoclimatic environment from the present.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sci 5: Integrity</th>
<th>destroyed</th>
<th>Strongly deteriorated</th>
<th>Moderately deteriorated</th>
<th>Weakly deteriorated</th>
<th>inact</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Sci 5 depends on existence of natural hazard, on natural evolution and on human (infrastructure, crowds, vandalism) factors that affect the site and its degree of preservation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sci 6: Ecological interest</th>
<th>nil</th>
<th>low</th>
<th>moderate</th>
<th>high</th>
<th>Very high</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Sci 6 depends on the interest (species rarity), diversity (species number) and natural dynamic (ability of environment to evolve naturally) of fauna and flora of the site.

3- Calculation of cultural value

Total score = (score of item 5 + score of item 4 + score of item 3 + score of item 2*2 + score of item 1)/6
These scores are calculated based on Table 3. In this formula weight of item 2 is calculated twice since it is possible to involve literary speeches besides iconography.

**Table 3.** Scoring criterion in evaluating cultural value of a geomorphologic place

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criteria / scores</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>0.25</th>
<th>0.5</th>
<th>0.75</th>
<th>1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cultural 1: Cultural and historical customs</td>
<td>Without link</td>
<td>Weakly linked</td>
<td>Moderately linked</td>
<td>Strongly linked</td>
<td>Initiatory of custom(s)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural 1 depends on the symbolic relevance and heritage weight of the site for a community. This criterion is defined by the cultural and historical customs without taking into account physical vestiges or buildings.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cult 2: Iconographic representations</td>
<td>Never represented</td>
<td>Represented 1 and 5</td>
<td>Represented 6 and 20</td>
<td>Represented 21 and 50</td>
<td>Represented 50 or more</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To assess Cult 2, all historical pictures of the site are counted (painting, drawing, engraving, photography). Quality of picture(s) may be taken into account by giving a higher score.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cult 3: Historical and archaeological relevance</td>
<td>No vestige or building</td>
<td>Weak relevance</td>
<td>Medium relevance</td>
<td>High relevance</td>
<td>Very high relevance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cult 3 is defined by the presence and relevance of historical, architectural and (or) archaeological vestiges and (or) buildings on the site. Their quality may be considered by giving a higher score.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cult 4: Religious and metaphysical relevance</td>
<td>No relevance</td>
<td>Weak relevance</td>
<td>Medium relevance</td>
<td>High relevance</td>
<td>Very high relevance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cult 4 is defined by the religious and (or) metaphysical relevance related to the site. This criterion includes popular beliefs.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cult 5: Art and cultural event</td>
<td>never</td>
<td>occasionally</td>
<td>At least once a year</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To assess Cult 5, art and cultural events concerning the site are considered. An event may take place on the site itself or not. A no longer existing event can still give an average score.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4- **Calculation of economic value**

Total score= (score of item 5+ score of item 4+ score of item 3+ score of item 2+ score of item 1)/5

These scores are calculated based on table 3. In this formula weight of all aspects is equal since they are equal in determination of economic value of a geomorphologic place.
Table 4. Scoring criterion in evaluating economic value of a geomorphologic place

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criteria / scores</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>0.25</th>
<th>0.5</th>
<th>0.75</th>
<th>1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Economic 1: Accessibility</td>
<td>More than 1 km of track</td>
<td>Less than 1 km of track</td>
<td>by a local road</td>
<td>By a road of regional importance</td>
<td>By a road of national importance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eco 2: Natural risks</td>
<td>uncontrollable</td>
<td>not controlled</td>
<td>Partially controlled</td>
<td>Controlled residual</td>
<td>No risk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eco 3: Annual number of visitors in the region</td>
<td>less than 10,000</td>
<td>between 10,000 and 100,000</td>
<td>between 0.1 and 0.5 million</td>
<td>Between 0.5 and 1 million</td>
<td>More than 1 million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eco 4: Official level of protection</td>
<td>complete</td>
<td>limiting</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Not limiting</td>
<td>Not protection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eco 5: Attraction</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>local</td>
<td>regional</td>
<td>national</td>
<td>international</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Evaluating economic value of a geomorphologic place involves:

Efficiency value = (quality criterion and Efficiency level)

Efficiency level is determined by the relationship between these values and it indicates level of spatial and time utilization of a geomorphologic place while quality of efficiency is calculated based on using geomorphologic place tourism criterion. In this condition different criteria by different scoring system are employed:

Efficiency level = (score of item 4+ score of item 3+ score of item 2+ score of item 1)/4

It is determined according to table 5.

Efficiency quality = (score of item 4+ score of item 3+ score of item 2+ score of item 1)/4

The scores of the above items are determined based on Table 6.
Table 5. Scoring criterion in evaluating efficiency of a geomorphologic place

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criteria / scores</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>0.25</th>
<th>0.5</th>
<th>0.75</th>
<th>1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Degree 1: Used surface [ha]</td>
<td>nil or ex situ</td>
<td>less than 1</td>
<td>between 1 and 5</td>
<td>between 5 and 10</td>
<td>more than 10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Degree 1 depends on the surface used for tourist and economic exploitation of the site. This surface may be totally, partially or not at all situated on the site.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Deg 2: Number of infrastructure</th>
<th>Nil or ex situ</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>Between 2 and 5</th>
<th>Between 6 and 10</th>
<th>More than 10</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

To assess Deg 2, infrastructure of conveyance, information, accommodation, visits and souvenirs situated on the used surface are taken into account. Pedestrian paths are not considered.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Deg 3: Seasonal occupancy [day]</th>
<th>-</th>
<th>From 1 to 90 (1 season)</th>
<th>From 91 to 180 (2 season)</th>
<th>From 181 to 270 (3 season)</th>
<th>From 271 to 360 (4 season)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Deg 3 depends on the number of days or seasons of use of the site surface per year. In case of discontinuous exploitation during the year, the score is the result of the annual mean.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Deg 4: Daily occupancy [hour]</th>
<th>-</th>
<th>Less than 3 hours</th>
<th>Between 3 and 6 hours</th>
<th>Between 6 and 9 hours</th>
<th>More than 9 hours</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Deg 4 depends on the number of daily hours of use of the site surface. In case of variable daily exploitation during the year, the score is the result of the annual mean.

Table 6. Scoring criterion in evaluating efficiency quality of a geomorphologic place

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CRITERIA / SCORES</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>0.25</th>
<th>0.5</th>
<th>0.75</th>
<th>1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Modality 1: use of the scenic value</td>
<td>No advertising optimization</td>
<td>1 support &amp; 1 product</td>
<td>1 support &amp; some products</td>
<td>Some means of support &amp; 1 product</td>
<td>Some means of support &amp; products</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Modality 1 depends on the use of the scenic features of the site assessed by its advertising optimization via different types of support (brochure, billboard, web site, media, etc.) and products.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mod 2: Use of the scientific value</th>
<th>no didactic optimization</th>
<th>1 support &amp; 1 product</th>
<th>1 support &amp; several products</th>
<th>several means of support &amp; 1 product</th>
<th>several means of support &amp; products</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Mod 2 depends on the use of the scientific interests of the site assessed by its didactic optimization via different means of support (exhibition, guided tour, educational signs) and products.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mod 3: Use of the cultural value</th>
<th>no didactic optimization</th>
<th>1 support &amp; 1 product</th>
<th>1 support &amp; several products</th>
<th>several means of support &amp; 1 product</th>
<th>several means of support &amp; products</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Mod 3 depends on the use of the cultural interests of the site assessed by its didactic optimization via different means of support (exhibition, guided tour, educational signs) and products.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mod 4: Use of the economic value [person]</th>
<th>no visitor</th>
<th>less than 5</th>
<th>Between 5 and 2</th>
<th>Between 20 and 100</th>
<th>More than 100</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Mod 4 depends on the use of the economic potential of the site assessed by its number of visitors per year. The score does not express the profit earning of the site.

Final evaluation

The scores provide possibility of comparison of tourism and efficiency values and they indicate capability of case study region geotourism in case of organization and direct target planning. Pralong evaluation criteria showed that scientific value by score of 0.66 and cultural value of 0.17 have the highest and less scores. The close values of economic value and apparent beauty indicates
fitness of the studied region. This fitness could help region environment preservation by proper management (Table 7).

**Table 7.** Summary of evaluation of tourism and efficacy values by Pralong method in Tazekand sofla village

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criterion/geosite</th>
<th>Lar structure Karst forms in district of Tazekand sofla village</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>appearance beauty value</td>
<td>0.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scientific value</td>
<td>0.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural value</td>
<td>0.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic value</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism value</td>
<td>0.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Efficacy level value</td>
<td>0.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Efficacy quality value</td>
<td>0.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Efficacy value</td>
<td>Average</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Conclusion**

Tourism has been studied in environment, agriculture, human and economic sciences by different goals and methods (Hydari, 2008). But geotourism has been gained attention in recent decades. Geotourism is a special form of tourism that geosites are considered by tourists. A geosite can be a landscape, land surface roughness forms (landforms) or single land form or rock outcrop or fossil layers. This kind of tourism provides opportunity for study of geology forms and places for understanding of scientific subject matter and it develops local economic by scientific tourism and environmental preservation. According to the importance of the tourism as a passport for sustainable development in developing countries, the karst district of Tazekand sofla is selected and studied by the aim of evaluation of by using Pralong method. The results showed that scientific value by score of 0.66 and cultural value of 0.17 have the highest and less scores. The close values of economic value and apparent beauty indicates fitness of the studied region. This fitness could help region environment preservation by proper management. In spite of barriers (like lack of welfare facilities and data base and ill organized communication network) the results confirm studied geotourism capacities from geotourism viewpoint and indicate programming and management as an effective step in development of this deprived region.

**References**


Assessment and Analysis of the Factors Affecting Tourism Development Using the SWOT Strategic Model

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Abstract
In this research, the main aim has been the recognition of the attractions, and the tourism capabilities of this village through field studies and observations, as well as the study of internal and external factors influencing the tourism development by using a SWOT technique. The results of the study on Gonbarof Village indicate 18 strength and 9 weakness points, along with 10 opportunity and 8 threat points, all of which assert tourism potential of the area. The combination of elements in the SWOT matrix presents strategies for the geotourism development in relation to the sustainable development. In this research the geotourism attractions have been of the most important strength points of the area under study and the lack of infrastructures are regarded as the most imperative obstacles against the development of the this area. Provided that the harmony is created between the considered dimensions, and the Government also supports it, the strategies mentioned through the SWOT Matrix can provide the yardsticks for the development of the village through the sustainable economy and the prevention of village-to-city emigration.

Key words: geotourism, SWOT, Gonbarof village, strategy.

Introduction
Tourism is one of the main contemporary human phenomena in the last fifty years and it has been changed to socio-economical phenomenon all over the world (Moradi & Fayazi, 2006). The modern world in post modern situation based on social, economical and cultural aspects have made new social and economical forms. In this trend, tourism has changed so that spending free times has become part of human right besides other rights shaping foundation
of life in post modern era (Papeli Yazdi & Sagaei, 2004). Attention to tourism indicates this fact that this trend influences social, cultural and economical and even environmental aspects in every nation (Perace, 1989). De Kadet called tourism as development passport in 1976. According to Turner theory (1976) tourism industry is a promising, complex and changeable industry for developing countries (Hydari, 2008). This industry is important in nation’s economic and social development so that the economists called it invisible export (Rezvani, 1996). Basically economic development of a country requires investment in different sectors and activities. Employment, production and welfare are impossible without investment in foundational and principle plans (Shakeri & Salimi, 2007). Because of the importance and potential positive and negative economic, social, cultural, political and environmental effects, this sustainable tourism expansion is impossible without planning (Khaksari, 2004).

Tourism has different forms depended on environmental conditions (Cater, 2000). Nature-based tourism involves all concentrated tourism; tourism by excitement motivation and tourism by trivial consequences (Goodwin, 1995). In this relation rural tourism is considered as relative advantage resulted from today economic reciprocal reaction based on free trade and approach to adjustment of country economic principles (Weaver, 2006). By natural capabilities and attractions, villages could be considered as geotourism centers. Geotourism provides opportunity for the study of locations and places for understanding of geologic scientific subject matters and universalization of them and develops local economic by scientific, investigational tours, tourism and environment preservation. According to above mentioned subjects there is no real paradox and challenge between preservation of still nature and propaganda of tourism. As a result geotourism can be considered as tourism sustainable plans. By discovered fitness process, the world can be comprehended in a rational way. According to the importance of the subject, we want to identify the strong and weak points, inner threats and foreign opportunities of tourism in the study area and propose optimal strategies and approaches for propagation of the tourism in technical way in addition to the introduction of Gunbarf rural tourism attractions.

The importance and necessity of the research

Today tourism has been developed and most of the nations have improved their status by this strategy (Jafari Rendi, 2009). This industry is important in nation’s economic and social development so that the economists called it invisible export (Rezvani, 1996). De Kadet called tourism as development pass-
port (1976) and Turner (1976) explained that tourism industry is a promising, complex and changeable industry for developing countries (Hydari, 2008). Indeed attention to tourism indicates the fact that this trend leads to economic, cultural, social and even environmental changes in every country (Perace, 1989). This subject is so important that September 29th was announced world tourism day by United Nations (Moradi & Fayazi, 2007), so prehistory trips for finding food have been changed to superior industry in present era. Development of geotourism in Gunbarf village has following advantages:

1- Employment and prevention of immigration to cities
2- Improvement of economic status
3- Preservation of environmental and geotourism resources in the region
4- Improvement of foundations and optimal communication in the village.

Utilization of all geotourism capabilities in this village require the aid of government, private and especially native individuals for reaching the proper position which can play an effective role in development of the village and surrounding districts.

**Background**

Geotourism is a new form of tourism gained attention after considering geoparks by UNESCO in 2000 so, international geopark network was established. Iran introduced Lut desert, district of Sahand and Sabalan Mountains for registration in this network (Gaderi Zadeh, 2009). Although tourism and geotourism are new terms but many researchers have conducted them in the world and in Iran. We address to some researches:

Ibrahim Zadeh, Aga Zadeh (2009) analyzed effective factors on tourism in coastal area of Chabahar by SWOT model and they suggested management reformation, propaganda empowerment region responsible sympathy and development of ecotourism as the main solutions for development of tourism in this region. Karroubi (2008) investigated natural tourism and necessity of support of this industry in Iran and emphasized on its advantages and reduction of unemployment and poverty in the society. Mohammadi Deh Cheshmeh and ZangiAbadi (2008) investigated the feasibility of ecotourism capabilities of Chaharmahal Bakhtiari province by SWOT method and suggested beautiful nature and climate as strong points and multicity of decision makers and weakness of organizations as weak points. In this research we tried to identify
the village tourism attraction by emphasize on geotourism through systemic view and proposed principle strategies for development and preservation of natural resources in relation with economic and welfare expansion technically.

**Introduction of the study area**

Osku is one of the cities of east Azerbaijan provinces nearby Tabriz. Its township has located 30 km from center having 1170.9 km² area (2.67 percent of the province area). This city is neighbor with Bostan Abad from north and Urmia lake from west by 46.6’ and 30” latitude and 37’,55 ” longitude. The population of this region is distributed in three towns and five villages in different social formations as individual and group workings. This town has villages with tourism potentials like Kandovan and Gonbarof. Gonbarof is summer area with hills as remainders of Sahand volcano 35 km of south east of Osku with 3500 households. Rose flowers are planted in this region. In harvest season 29 tons of flowers are harvested daily. So Rose festival is held every year.

![Figure 1. Gonbarof geographical situation](image)
SWOT Analysis

Britannica encyclopedia defines strategy from military viewpoint as art of planning and management of operation and proposes three characteristics in scope of operation, long term operation and replacement of forces for discrimination with tactic (Gafarian & Amarzadeh, 2007). In strategic view perspective management is guidance strategic decision making (Rahman Seresht, 2006). Basically strategy is not improvement but it is doing different work or doing same affair by different method. Yun (1993) suggests that tourism organizations should be aware of opportunities and threats of changing visitors’ values, attitudes and ideas in order to obtain useful and target goals. SWOT analysis is abstract of elements in analysis of strategy. In this analysis inner and outside status of the organization were investigated and proposed in key words (Rahman Seresht & Jsamshid nejad, 2000). SWOT consists of initial words of strength, weakness, opportunity and threat. S is an endogenous case and it has significant effect. W is an endogenous case by negative effect that is an exogenous factor by significant effect and T is a factor that prevents success and progress. After determination of four factors, SWOT analysis was used in Minimax method so that a strategy was adopted that uses strong points and opportunities and reduces weakness and threats (Table 1). This model is one of the strategic instruments for confirmation of inner systemic strong and weak points with outer systemic opportunities and threats (Harrison & Johnson,
2004). Indeed there are four strategies resulted from analysis and combination of external and internal situations:

a. Optimal solution with internal weakness and external threats: weak points and threats are reduced.

b. Solution proportionate with internal weakness and external strategies: it should be reduced weak points.

c. Solution proportionate with organizational internal strong points: this strategy is designed by emphasis on using organizational internal strong points for encountering environmental threats.

d. Solution proportionate with internal weakness and external strategies: using internal strong points for utilization of external opportunities lead to the optimal situation (Rahman Seresht, 2006).

**Table 1.** Matrix of threats, opportunities, strong points and weak points of SWOT (Soltani, Gazi Nouri)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Always suitable</th>
<th>Strong points</th>
<th>Weak points</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1-</td>
<td>1-</td>
<td>1-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-</td>
<td>2-</td>
<td>2-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-</td>
<td>3-</td>
<td>3-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-</td>
<td>4-</td>
<td>4-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-list strong points</td>
<td>5-list weak points</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-</td>
<td>6-</td>
<td>6-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7-</td>
<td>7-</td>
<td>7-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Opportunities</th>
<th>So strategies</th>
<th>WO strategies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1-</td>
<td>1-</td>
<td>1-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-</td>
<td>2-</td>
<td>2-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-</td>
<td>3-</td>
<td>3-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-</td>
<td>4-by employing strong points use opportunities</td>
<td>4-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-list opportunists</td>
<td>5-</td>
<td>5- by using opportunists eliminate weak points</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-</td>
<td>6-</td>
<td>6-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7-</td>
<td>7-</td>
<td>7-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>T threats</th>
<th>ST strategies</th>
<th>WT strategies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1-</td>
<td>1-</td>
<td>1-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-</td>
<td>2-</td>
<td>2-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-</td>
<td>3-</td>
<td>3-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-</td>
<td>4-use strong points for avoiding threats</td>
<td>4-reduce weak points and avoid threats</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-list threats</td>
<td>5-</td>
<td>5-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-</td>
<td>6-</td>
<td>6-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7-</td>
<td>7-</td>
<td>7-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
SWOT analysis findings on Gonbarof village

Analysis of internal and external environment

All organizational activities are done in internal and external media. Identification of effective factors on this media environment helps managers in finding strategies for promotion.

Environment affects on activities. These effects are divided into two categories:

1- those that affect directly from inside
2- those that affect outside in macro level

Evaluation of inner environment

External and internal factors are inside of the organization and they are controlled by organization. After investigation of the internal factors, the main identified factors are placed in internal factors evaluation matrix. The number of factors involving strong and weak points in Gunbarf is expressed. At first the strong and weak points are placed on matrix and then primary steps of SWOT are carried out.

Table 2: Gonbarof strong and weak points’ matrix

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Serial</th>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Coefficient</th>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Final score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Gunbarf river</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Gotour Su spa</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Waterfall(Kordarasi, Elkhchi Yurdi)</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Beautiful caves (Ezat Koheli &amp; Chopor Koheli)</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Chichah Chaman (optimal place for skating)</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Green valleys and hill with roses</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Rocks proper for climbing</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Village old and traditional texture</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Oliya region(old)</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Proper connection network</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Potential for construction of rose essence and porcelain</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Responsible believe in employment by develop-ment of tourism</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Attitude of private sector for investment in tourism</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Young and educated forces</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Polite interaction of people with tourists</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>People customs</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Utilization of water and electricity</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Tourism responsible and people participation in introduction of tourism phenomena</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Improper health facilities</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.08</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Weak points

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Serial</th>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Coefficient</th>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Final score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Improper residency and welfare facilities</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>Lack of specialist forces in guiding tourists</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>Cultural and social barriers and non familiarity of people with interaction with tourists</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>Lack of waste collection</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>Weak traffic signs in tourism regions</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>Lack of required information for participation of private sector for investment</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>Lack of proper and asphalt connection network for visit of natural attraction</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>Lack of recreational, historical and cultural maps</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.92</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Findings of internal environment evaluation

The score of Gunbarf village in internal factors evaluation was more than 2.9. So according to SWOT technique value more than 2.5 indicate internal strong point (Tarshizan, 2008). By proper strategy and investment in rural tourism it can obtain advantages for residents and country.

### Evaluation of external environment

Our goal is to identify threats and opportunities affected the village from outside. But such approach threats and opportunities (political and economical aspects etc) are evaluated.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Internal environment</th>
<th>serial</th>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Coefficient</th>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Final score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Opportunities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>New occupational opportunities</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td>Increase motivation for traveling and recreation by the aim of identification of the region</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td>Possibility of raising bees</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td>Adjacent to tourism pole like Kandovan</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td>High profit investment</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td>Adjacent to Tabriz metropolitan</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
<td>Region potential for welfare and recreation</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
<td>Government attention to planning and investment in tourism sector</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
<td>Consideration of investment by private sector</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
<td>Region geology and tourism factors</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td></td>
<td>Destruction of the environment and land factors</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td></td>
<td>Elimination of traditional culture by increase of tourists</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Findings of external environment evaluation

In external factors matrix the score of Gonbarof village is 3.04 and values more than 2.5 indicate optimal condition in this region. This village poses optimal situation for development of tourism industry related to external factors. This score shows more opportunity than threats. The development tourism in the village requires optimal strategies for eliminating weak points and neutralizing threats.

Table 4. Sum of combinatory factors in analysis of SWOT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SO</th>
<th>WT</th>
<th>ST</th>
<th>WO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4.59</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>2.91</td>
<td>3.03</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Internal factors</th>
<th>External factors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S</td>
<td>W</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.23</td>
<td>0.67</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Combined factors coefficients

Conclusion

Tourism industry is one of the main strategies for development and especially economic development for third world nations because of its economic, social and cultural potentials. This industry requires planning and management for obtaining goals. Tourism development solution involves many strategies because of multidimensional aspect. By this solution strategic planning requires coordination and organization of the components. SWOT matrix offers four solutions in this relation (SO, ST, WO, and WT). There is correlation between different economic, social and related component aspects. In case of coordina-
tion among aspects and support of government, these strategies provide opportunities for development of the village, employment and welfare and prevent immigration. According to the results of the tables Gunbarf village has 18 strong points, 9 weak points, 18 opportunities and 8 threats for geotourism. According to proposed coefficients and combination of factors and following strategies could be useful for development of geo tourism and tourism in Gunbarof village.

References


Development of a Sustainable Tourism Management Framework for Mapungubwe National Park

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Abstract
South Africa is a country blessed with numerous heritage resources. One such resource is Mapungubwe National Park (MNP) and World Heritage site. The site of MNP was once the capital of an ancient African kingdom which played a pivotal role in the development of southern African society. This site is situated in an isolated area of the country and experiences relatively poor tourism numbers. The park is additionally under pressure from the threat of mining, the legacy of agricultural activities around the park and the development of a transfrontier conservation area with Botswana and Zimbabwe. This study aims at developing a sustainable tourism management framework for this unique national park taking into account all the mentioned challenges. This study strives to obtain input from tourists, national park management and land owners around the park. This study once complete will provide a structured framework for the development of management plans, strategies and policies for the promotion of sustainable tourism in MNP as well as other World Heritage sites located in protected areas.

Key words: national parks, World Heritage site, sustainable tourism, tourism management.
Introduction

Tourism is seen as the world’s largest industry (Hall 2008:1) and it is predicted by the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) that tourism will contribute 9.6% of the world’s gross domestic product (GDP) and will employ over 120 million people by 2021 (WTTC 2011a). The WTTC further predicts that in South Africa tourism will contribute 11.5% of GDP and employ over 1.7 million people by 2021 (WTTC 2011b). One of South Africa’s best selling features is its natural beauty and wildlife and numerous tourists visit the region in order to appreciate the natural environment including the dynamic ecosystems and landscapes that are on offer (Parker & Khare, 2005). South African National Parks (SANParks) is the custodian responsible for the conservation of unique and sensitive ecosystems in the country. At present SANParks manage over 4 million hectares of protected land, consisting of 21 national parks each responsible for protecting different biodiversities (SANParks, 2011). One such park is Mapungubwe National Park and World Heritage site (hereafter referred to as MNP) situated in the Limpopo province.

The MNP is relatively small in size compared to other national parks, just under 20 000 ha (SANParks, 2010), and lies on the South African side of the confluence of the Limpopo and Shashe Rivers (see Figure 1). Although the park is small, it comprises significant national and international heritage resources, predominantly those associated with the ruins of the ancient Kingdom of Mapungubwe.
Literature Review

MNP may be considered a relatively new national park; it was only officially established in the mid 1990’s. Although the park showcases a significant world heritage attraction, tourism numbers are relatively low, coupled with management, and developmental challenges as well as threats to the site’s world heritage status (Biyase, 2011). These factors play an important role in the sustainability of the park.

A present development at MNP is the process of park transition towards a transfrontier conservation area (TFCA) with Zimbabwe and Botswana. This itself has its own unique challenges, regarding management issues associated with the control and access to resources (Hanks, 2000; Ferreira, 2004; Duffy, 2005) and visitor management. Apart from the just mentioned, MNP has indicated that it also faces the following major external challenges (threats identified in submission document to UNESCO) (ICOMOS, 2003):

- Agriculture (on private lands) – Some of these private lands lie within the MNP.
- Mining – Coal mining in the areas surrounding MNP which threaten World Heritage status also noted by Biyase (2011).
- Potential visitors’ pressure and criminal damage – Such as over-use, graffiti and theft.

MNP is split in two by private land in the form of private nature reserves and agricultural land. The presence and legacy of agriculture is present throughout the park. This challenge exists even as the park progresses towards the creation of a TFCA. Another form of industrial development, in the form of mining (on the outskirts to the east of the park) is placing additional pressure on the sustainability of the park (Biyase, 2011). Within the park (internal) there are also a set of unique challenges and threats namely; numerous changes in its management structures over recent months for example park managers. Continuous changes in management which may not bode well to the creation of a positive organisational culture and organisational cohesion (Lausten, 2002). Lausten (2002) notes that management performance is affected in an environment where there are threats of dismissal. The park management plan of MNP gives the impression that the park also faces problems with marketing as MNP has one of the lowest average occupancy rates of national parks in South Africa (25%) (SANParks, 2010). In the park management plan numerous visitor activities are listed however tourism is hampered by a lack of facilities such as shops,
restaurant/s and good roads. Combined the just mentioned issues (internal and external) may threaten the sustainability of tourism in the park.

Sustainability, although often primarily associated with ecology consists of three pillars. These pillars are the following:

- **Economic sustainability** – this includes promoting the viability of business enterprises in the long term.
- **Social sustainability** – this involves promoting and respecting human rights and equal opportunities for all in society.
- **Environmental sustainability** – this forms the basis for the protection of resources; especially resources originating from non-renewable sources (Hall, 2008, p. 20).

In order to manage tourism in the park, with its complicated internal and external challenges, there is a need for a special management framework. MNP through SANParks has developed a multi-stakeholder management plan known as strategic adaptive management (SAM). This management plan is consistent with the management plans of other national parks (not park specific) as they are all developed around the approach of SAM (SANParks, 2010). Meffe *et al.* (2002: 96) define adaptive management (AM) as ‘*the process of treating natural resources management as an experiment such that the practicality of trial and error is added to the rigour and explicitness of the scientific experiment, producing learning that is both relevant and valid*’. Grant *et al.* (2008), as cited by Roux and Foxcroft (2011), takes adaptive management a bit further by including a forward-looking dimension, thus strategic management. This created the concept of SAM which in essence is strategic, adaptive and participatory of stakeholders.

Essentially strategic management entails the development of an organisational vision/mission, identifying the organisation’s external threats and opportunities and internal strengths and weaknesses, establishing long-term objectives and generating strategies to peruse in order to achieve the set goals and objectives (David 2005). Strategic planning as indicated in Figure 2, flows through a number of stages. For the purposes of this study, the strategic mission and objectives of SANParks and MNP will be used to guide the study in order to facilitate the development of a sustainable tourism framework.
Indicators are important tools for the achievement of sustainability objectives (Hall, 2008). Indicators themselves are considered by Hall (2008) to be frameworks of sustainability, adaptable to various scenarios. In the case of a sustainable tourism framework it will be necessary to identify these indicators in order to develop a specific, measurable, attainable, realistic and timely management framework. Indicators are primarily quantitative in nature but there is a need for the development of qualitative indicators for sustainable tourism (Miller, 2000). In order to promote the success of any management plan it is essential to identify and include all the stakeholders (de la Harpe, 2004), this may also assist in developing sustainable tourism indicators.

Chan (2009) notes the importance of multi stakeholder participation in the management of national parks. In the case of Penang National Park (Malaysia) the national government is the custodian of national parks, as is the case in South Africa with SANParks. However Chan (2009); Moswete, Thapa and Child (2010) advise that although national government is the custodian, it is imperative that government and NGO’s are included in managing national parks.

Another stakeholder group identified by Papageorgiou (2001); Navarette, Lora and González-Arenas (2004); Nicholas and Thapa (2010) as a component
of management frameworks are tourists themselves. Papageorgiou (2001) notes that initially park management plans that include tourists were created to manage the impact of tourism activities on the biological integrity of the park. However it is argued that the most effective way to manage the tourism-biological system interaction is through education.

Farrell and Marion (2002) suggest the incorporation of protected area visitor impact management frameworks (PAVIM). PAVIM strives to mediate the impacts of tourists on the environment in cases such as soil erosion, wildlife disturbance and crowding; thus environmental impact. PAVIM according to Farrell and Marion (2002:40) is an instrument designed to incorporate the achievements obtained from the development of frameworks such as carrying capacity and limits of acceptable change. PAVIM is flexible of multi-strategy selection and incorporates public involvement as well as expert involvement; this framework thus should be suitable for the strategy currently employed by SANParks, namely SAM.

National park management plans additionally should include a component of appraisal. Carter, Wood and Barker (2003) identify environmental appraisal (strategic environmental assessment) and sustainability appraisal (SA) as components of such plans. Lee and Kirpartick (2000) distinguish between two basic categories of SA, namely; inclusive SA and incremental SA. Inclusive SA would assess the components of sustainable management as one appraisal, whereas incremental SA assesses each component of sustainable management on an individual basis. In terms of MNP (through SAM) an inclusive SA approach would be best suited to address the development of a tourism management framework as all aspects of sustainability will be addressed within one research study.

In terms of current management, AM has been applied successfully on the management of ecosystems and natural environments within protected areas such as SANParks, however little application has been found within a business context. SAM as a contemporary form of AM would face a similar problem. Strategically MNP has set a mission and objectives toward which all management frameworks should be aligned.

Six primary objectives have been identified (SANParks, 2010) in order to achieve the park’s mission which is stated as; “Mapungubwe Cultural Landscape will be managed and developed to conserve its cultural heritage and biodiversity for all” (SANParks 2010). The objectives for MNP are;
I. Outstanding universal value objective  
   a. Consolidation objective (Enlarge the park and achieve TFCA)  
   b. Authenticity objective (To promote cultural authenticity)  
   c. Cultural heritage objective (manage and promote the WHS)  
   d. Biodiversity objective (restore and conserve biodiversity)  

II. Appropriate and sustainable tourism objective. The vision of which is “become a fully operational national park that provides for the needs of visitors, enhances the visitor experience and maintains a good balance between tourism and heritage conservation” (SANParks 2010:59).  

III. Cooperation and support objective (Foster long-term relationships with stakeholders)  

IV. Education and research objective (Develop park as education and research resource)  

V. External threat mitigation objective (Mitigate external threats to the park)  

VI. Enabling objective (management and administrative support)  

MNP thus possesses the initial aims of a strategic management plan, namely the purpose and vision and goals (See Figure 2). However, no evidence has been found to support the completion of an internal and external environmental analysis from a tourism perspective in order to develop methods tools and techniques (indicators) to promote sustainable tourism. The attainment of objective II (sustainability) of the MNP management plan within the scope of SAM, would require a thorough analysis of these environments.  

Lu and Nepal (2009) note that tourism is a resource-intensive industry which needs to be sustainably managed. Tourism resources such as world heritage sites (Landorf 2009) and natural resources in conservation areas (Catibog-Sinah & Wen, 2008) have been associated with a contribution to tourism growth. Catibog-Sinah and Wen (2008) note that sustainable tourism at such sites is often referred to as ecotourism, and that although the principles of sustainable development and its application towards tourism was addressed at the World Summit on Sustainable Development (WSSD) in 2002, in many developing countries this concept is unclear and difficult to implement. Almost two decades ago Ioannides (1995) cautioned that sustainable tourism development will struggle with implementation if clear strategies are not adopted especially in developing countries.
The MNP management plan (SANParks 2010) was a recent development and as such data and research is needed to implement the aims of this plan. There is a need for the development of a sustainable tourism management framework that fulfils objective II of the park management plan. This framework should lie within the progression of SAM (which itself is a new concept) with adaptation of learning from processes such as PAVIM and SA. This framework should result from engagement with management stakeholders (these include local land owners) and tourists in order to achieve the core constructs of sustainability. The framework should additionally envisage achieving the mission of the park in correlation with the other five objectives.

The reason for undertaking this study is to develop a sustainable tourism management framework for MNP that will encompass aspects of sustainable tourism management within a localised context, developed within the structure of SAM. This framework will provide park management and SANParks with a foundation of research and a management guide for the achievement of sustainable tourism. This management framework should additionally provide a basis for the further development of research into the management of World Heritage sites within national parks and protected areas.

Methodology

For the purposes of this research a two-pronged approach will be used. Firstly a descriptive research approach will be employed to obtain a greater understanding of how visitors to the park perceive the issues facing sustainability. The research will be primarily quantitative and will be collected by means of a self-completion questionnaire. The second approach will be focused on park management and land owners surrounding the park. This research will be both exploratory and descriptive in nature. Personal interviews will be conducted by means of an interviewer-administered questionnaire. The purpose of obtaining data from park visitors non-probability sampling will be used. More specifically a web-based survey will be conducted utilising a database from SANParks of previous overnight visitors to MNP. Respondents will be forwarded an electronic questionnaire shortly after the completion of their stay at MNP, in this process they will be notified and encouraged to participate. The timeframe for the survey is expected to last one month or until the desired sample size has been reached.

The additional sampling method that will be used will focus on the public sector stakeholders of MNP. This sample will be determined using non-probability sampling through more specifically purposive sampling. This form
of sampling is characterised by the use of judgement to attain a representative sample of representatives (Jennings, 2001) and is effective in terms of convenience and economy (Welman, Kruger & Mitchell, 2005). This type of sampling has been indicated as suitable by Moswete, Thapa and Child (2010) in their investigation on the assessment of public sector perspectives in the Kgalagadi TFCA. The sample will be drawn from public sector representatives of MNP including members of management from the SANParks head office to management at the park and local land owners. As there is a need to obtain sufficient and well-rounded data, saturation sampling will additionally be employed.

For all sets of questionnaires a pilot study will be conducted in order to determine, that the categories provided for questions are valid and reliable measures, that the terms used, will be understandable and that the question order flows. The pilot study will also aim to determine how long the questionnaire will take to complete. The pilot study will be undertaken within the work environment of the researcher.

Results

Data obtained from park visitors will be interpreted through descriptive statistics such as frequency tables. A multivariate analysis will be done utilising a factor analysis. A factor analysis is beneficial when used to examine underlying constructs influencing the responses on a number of measurable variables (DeCoster 1998); this allows the researcher to identify key constructs that influence variables or to eliminate those that are not relevant to the study. Data gathered from the second and third questionnaire will be gathered by means of an audio recorder and transcribed into text. From this memo open coding, axial coding and selective coding will be employed through the use of Atlas.ti to analyse data.

Conclusion

The MNP is a young national park that has a unique set of management challenges in terms of sustainability. The sustainability issues facing tourism in the park are summarised in Figure 3.
Research has been conducted on current issues relating to the development of models and guidelines for the sustainable management of tourism in protected areas. However these guidelines are predominantly created in developed countries resulting in problems with implementation on a local context within a developing country. MNP has identified the need to develop and manage sustainable tourism in the park (Objective II). In order to achieve this objective, research is needed in order to create a sustainable tourism management framework for the park. To build on this need the current overall management strategy of the park does not address the relationship between tourists and key sustainability issues such as mining, private land ownership, TFCA issues and management challenges. In order to promote the sustainability of the park, a management framework is proposed that fulfils the mandate of SANParks in terms of the conservation, tourism and community engagement. This framework should lie within the context of SAM, but should be contemporary, in terms of adaptation to the park’s unique problems and through knowledge obtained from other management frameworks.

References


Understanding the Influence of Interpersonal Relationships on Tourism Mobility

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Abstract
Travel plays a part in shaping the perception of self through experiences of other people and places. ‘Finding yourself’ through travel has been widely accepted in the tourism literature; however, relatively little has been documented about how identity can influence an individual’s travel choices. This paper investigates how the social world in which we live and the relationships within that world shape identity and can influence tourism decisions. In order to gain insight into identity there must be an understanding of the narratives used to create and affirm identities. A narrative interview method was used with 22 participants. Results demonstrate how interpersonal relationships shape the self and identity which can have an impact on a tourist’s travel behavior.

Key words: tourism mobility, personal interrelationship, tourist behavior.

Introduction
It is thought that identity issues lie at the heart of our desire for greater tourism mobility (Becken, 2007). While it is widely accepted that travel can play a part in shaping the self (e.g. Noy, 2004), less is understood about how the self can shape tourism mobility. Beyond the tourism field there is a large body of research on identity issues spanning psychology and sociology. This paper will focus on one aspect of the field, how interpersonal relationships can shape tourism mobility. The networks in which our everyday lives are situated are now spread throughout the world (Axhausen, 2002) but despite the communication technology available that brings people closer together, networks still require occasional face to face contact in order to be maintained (Urry, 2003). According to Anderson and Chen (2002) our ‘selves’ are dependent on the significant others in our lives and the self is relational, i.e. it can change depending on the relationships with others. This would indicate that interpersonal relations can and do shape the self. Based on an inductive, qualitative approach,
this paper analyses the various ways in which the relational self influences tourism mobility.

**Literature Review**

Mobility, sociability and tourism: Urry (2000) argues that mobility is the defining factor of contemporary society. Pooley, Turnbull, & Adams (2005) support this notion arguing that mobility is what enables people to live their lives, without being able to move it would not be possible to function. In addition to this they suggest that mobility has a social function. The interactions resulting from the possibility of movement produce the “development and cementation of friendships, social networks and local communities” (Pooley et al., p. 120). I argue here that tourism mobility helps to strengthen family relationships, both through the physical ‘connectedness’ of being in the same place at the same time and also in an emotional manner. In addition, Pooley et al. (2005) suggest that mobility can assist in the construction of personal identity, through an individual’s mobility choices, in the same way that choice of clothing can aid identity. Whilst these authors are dealing with ‘everyday mobility’ everything they say can be transferred to tourism mobility.

Urry (2003) suggests that modern wide reaching networks, although created partly through the ‘informational revolution’, actually require occasional face-to-face meetings in order to sustain the relationships within that network. He goes on to say that “transport is mostly a means to certain socially patterned activities and not the point of such activities” (Urry, 2003, p. 156). Haldrup (2004) takes a different view by stating “tourists’ movements in space are not incidental but ways of encountering landscapes and places through the deployment of various styles of movement”. In addition, Dickinson, Lumsden, and Robbins (2011) suggest tourist travel presents a social opportunity by providing an example of a mother who talks about using a long train journey in order to enjoy more time with her family, not just as the mode of transportation. In this paper I will argue that the physical mobility is not just about enjoying the place or mode of transport but also the company that you are in.

Rickley-Boyd (2010, p. 271) researched undertaken at a tourist attraction in America indicated that for most visitors the outing was very much a family experience confirming the notion that “companions are one of the social benefits of tourism experiences.” The importance of shared experiences within tourism can be noted through the theories of Urry (1990) who refers to the ‘collective gaze’ and Haldrup and Larsen (2003) who discuss the ‘family gaze’. Trauer and Ryan (2005) thus argue that the holiday is not the purchase of ‘place’ but of
‘time’ to create an intimacy with a significant others. Haldrup and Larsen (2003, p. 24) argue that tourists photos are about “producing social relations rather than consuming places” which would suggest that they view the actual location/destination of the holiday to be irrelevant but that the family interaction is the most important thing to come from the holiday and subsequent photos taken whilst on holiday. However, this is not the case, the destination acts as the basis, the ‘scene’ for the family performance. They go on to propose that “much family tourism is fuelled by the desire to find a home where families imagine themselves as being a real loving family; doing various mundane social activities together as a tightknit affectionate unit: going for hikes, playing games, barbequing and so on” (Haldrup & Larsen, 2003, p. 26). These authors suggest the purpose of the holiday is not the search for ‘other’ but trying to make sense in their own relationships through the shared experience of the tourism trip. They believe that in modern society such negation is necessary because the values and institutions that once fused families are losing power therefore modern families require acts, such as holidays and the resulting narratives, to create meaning, constancy and even love in their relationships. Larsen et al. (2006) support the idea that tourism is not just about experiencing the other but is about having the experience with a significant other. They even go as far as suggesting that “families are most at home when away from home” (Larsen, Urry, & Axhausen, 2006, p. 45).

Crompton (1979) produced one of the earliest studies indicating that holidays could be used as ways to demonstrate, refine or modify identities. Another finding of Crompton’s (1979) study was that holidays could be used as a way of strengthening family relations as members were brought closer together, this was particularly true when families had to take long car journey together and were ‘forced’ in to close proximity with each other. Later research on tourism and identities has suggested that travel is used as a way of finding oneself (e.g. Noy, 2004). The approach used in this paper leans towards Crompton’s line of thought, i.e. that the self is influencing travel. Haldrup and Larsen (2003, p. 24) attempt to link tourism and identity by stating that they “view tourism as a ‘cultural laboratory’ in which people derive pleasure from performing and narrating alternative identities and ways of being together in other places.” This moves on from using tourism as a way of ‘finding yourself’ or of indeed playing out your own identity but it allows the individual to go on to create new identities for themselves, even if only for the duration of the holiday.
The self and significant others: Psychology provides much insight into the study of identity. Finkel and Vochs (2006) state that research into ‘self’ and ‘relationships’ has increased in recent times with a growing number of researchers stating that their area of interest is ‘self-in-relationships’ and ‘relational self’. They believe that research in this area is “in the early stages of a steep upswing” (Finkel & Vochs, 2006 p. 2). Given the suggestion that identity issues lie at the heart of our desire for greater tourism mobility (e.g. Becken, 2007), it is pertinent to look at all aspects that may shape our identity and tourism mobility. Historically, social psychology has been concerned with the effect of others on the self (Shah, 2006). The influence significant others (which could be family, family friends, work colleagues or wider reference groups) have is not just through their physical presence. It is thought that significant others also have power through ‘psychological presence’ i.e. the ways in which we “mentally represent” them (Shah, 2006). Anderson and Chen (2002, p. 619) state that “the self is relational – often entangled – with significant others and this has implications for self-definition, self-evaluation, self-regulation and most broadly for personality functioning, expressed in relation to others” they also suggest that that the self is essentially interpersonal, this is because it is possible to have many different selves, even during the course of one day, depending on the interpersonal enactments and experiences that we encounter. They propose that significant others are those who have been deeply influential in a person’s life or people to whom someone has given a significant emotional investment. This definition is adopted for the purpose of this paper. According to Anderson and Chen (2002, p. 619) a significant other may be able to influence the sense of self of an individual which includes “thoughts, feelings, motives, and self-regulatory strategies”. The significant word to note here is ‘motives’, the reason that causes us to act in a certain way. These authors also suggest that it is people’s beliefs on the standards that their significant other has for them that drives emotional lives and motivational focus.

Methodology

Data presented in this paper are derived from a research project which focuses on the influence of personal identity on tourism mobility. Narrative interviews were undertaken with 22 participants. A narrative approach was chosen for its ability to elicit the interviewee’s “understanding of the world, of who they are, and their position in it” (Rickly-Boyd, 2010, p. 264). Holloway and Wheeler (2010) and Kraus (2006) suggest that narratives are fundamental to understanding identities. Kraus (2006, p. 107) even goes as far as saying that “the telling is
the ‘doing’ of identity.” Wengraf (2001, p.111) provides a definition of a narrative interview used as the foundation for this research “[a]n interview design that focuses on the elicitation and provocation of storytelling, of narration …” Given these viewpoints, it is fair to suggest that using an interview method which elicits narratives is a sound way of gathering data regarding the identity of the interviewee. The interviews took the form of a ‘travel life history’ where participants were encouraged to talk about all the holidays they had been on throughout their life course. This allowed for insight in to the evolving travel patterns of the interviewees. In addition, they were given a free reign as to what they talked about and encouraged to give as much detail as possible. It was possible to gain information about their identities through what they talked about and also the way in which they told their stories. A second, more structured interview was undertaken in order to probe the idea of tourism mobility and some related questions on environmental issues not covered in this paper. While this interview was more structured, questions were designed in order to gather narrative responses. Data presented in this paper come from both stages of the interview process. Participants were recruited through purposeful sampling and their profile can be seen in table 1.

Interviewees were advised that it might aid their recall during the interview if they made notes on their travel life history prior to the interview. Only a handful of participants chose to do this and most of those who chose not to, did not find it a problem talking freely about their holidays while others needed a little encouragement. An interview protocol was at hand if interviewees struggled during the interview. This was designed to ease them through the interview in a chronological manner using the structure of childhood, teens/growing up and adulthood. The interviews ended with some general questions such as “tell me about your best holiday” or “if you could go anywhere and do anything where would go and why?” The use of a protocol deviates away from a traditional narrative interview, however, Reissmann (1993) and Bryman and Bell (2011) recommend that novice researchers take this approach. Rickly-Bell (2010) is another author who, while using a narrative approach ended up producing more of a narrative exchange in the interview technique. The protocol had an extensive list of questions but these were only used on an ad hoc basis and in many cases the interviewee covered the question before it was asked (Rubin and Rubin, 1995). Interviews were recorded, transcribed and data familiarisation took place. Analysis was undertaken to identify themes and the way the narrative was presented. I was particularly
concerned with not just what was said but how it was said. Each interview was analysed in its own right prior to cross-case analysis.

**Table 1.** Participant profile.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Occupation</th>
<th>Residence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Martin</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>Retired RAF pilot</td>
<td>Colehill</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trisha</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>Hair salon owner</td>
<td>West Moors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Penny</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>Retired teacher</td>
<td>Ferndown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>June</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>Retired lecturer</td>
<td>Ferndown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>James</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>Retired IT consultant</td>
<td>Lilliput</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stephanie</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>University admin assistant</td>
<td>Bournemouth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jill</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>Semi-retired teacher</td>
<td>Poole</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Claire</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>Building surveyor</td>
<td>Bournemouth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heather</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>Retired teacher</td>
<td>Abbotsbury</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paul</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>Retired from IT</td>
<td>Abbotsbury</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Susie</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>Unemployed teacher</td>
<td>Boscombe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mark</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>Medical goods driver</td>
<td>Ferndown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Katherine</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>Retired teacher</td>
<td>Bournemouth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simon</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>Journalist</td>
<td>Bournemouth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dennis</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>Civil servant</td>
<td>Bournemouth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stuart</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>Retired transport planner</td>
<td>Bournemouth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tom</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>Tourism bus owner</td>
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<tr>
<td>Michael</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>Retired schools inspector</td>
<td>Dorchester</td>
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<tr>
<td>Beth</td>
<td>F</td>
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<td>Researcher</td>
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<td>Richard</td>
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<td>Samantha</td>
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<td>Journalist/writer</td>
<td>Boscombe</td>
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<tr>
<td>Reece</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>Town transport planner</td>
<td>Bournemouth</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Results**

VFR and possible influences on Self: It was evident from the data collected during the interviews that many people had family and friends living abroad. This resulted in mobility patterns being shaped by the desire to visit loved ones.
“... his dad lived in Milan so we went to Italy and we went to Holland to see my aunt and we went to Spain to see my uncle, funny how it was always family ...” (Susie talking about the holidays she and her (now ex) husband had taken within the space of a few years).

Susie demonstrates the significance that visiting friends and family have in shaping tourism mobility. We live in an increasingly globalised world and people move to other locations for (amongst other things) work, education, leisure and residence. This has resulted in increased global networks meaning that it is possible have friends and family spread across thousands of miles (Axhausen, 2002). Hanam et al (2006, p.2) acknowledge that even when staying still it is possible to be part of a global network as “such multiple and intersecting mobilities seem to produce a more networked patterning of economic and social life, even for those who have not moved.” Even with networks involving great distances, face to face contact has remained important for maintaining relationships and trust (Axhausen, 2002 & Urry, 2003). Urry (2002) even goes as far as saying that “the need for physical co-presence and corporeal travel would appear to be with us for a long time yet.” The significance of visiting friends and relatives (VFR) in shaping tourism mobility was very evident from the interviews. Urry (2002, p. 256) acknowledges that social networks are increasing “all forms of social life involve striking combinations of proximity and distance ... increasingly over geographical distances of great length.”

The notion of VFR related travel has existed in tourism and mobility literature for a number of years now. Whilst the frequency of VFR travel is not a surprising finding in itself, it would be pertinent to ask why this is such an important form of mobility. One way of explaining this would be to look at identity related factors. Penny demonstrates the importance of family to her identity by referring to them constantly throughout both of her interviews and often her answers are from a “we” perspective. In addition, she also frequently refers to her family by name.

“Well it has opened up certainly more destinations and I think now after the weddings obviously we would look now at further destinations, we would look now at Canada and maybe Australia, who knows we might be going back there errrm just the fact that we can go where we like and whatever time of year we want to go and not have to pay top prices and obviously economy is the economic situation at the moment and I think we’ve got to think about how much it costs as well and I think we’re just so lucky to be able to do deals that we’re not paying top price, yeah enjoying the freedom of being able to choose
AND to go for as long as we like whereas we were always restricted before when we were teaching” (emphasis added by author)

There are also instances where she gives an answer to the question from her husband’s perspective before she answers with her own opinion, this particular example comes from an environment related question in the second interview:

“Errmmm well living with a scientist for 32 years (laughs) I often get varying sort of ideas from my husband about whether he really thinks what they’re saying is true ... Hubby surprisingly is not as worried but I really feel if we don’t look after the resources we have now you know I think it is important that we think about recycling if only for the future of younger people.”

One particular example of the strength of Penny’s family identity is demonstrated through her answer given to the question of which holiday she would consider to be her ‘best’:

“(Long pause) I really loved Disney with the family but my South African experience has to be the best ... it was a very special time anyway, 25 years married and it really was just breath-taking. The whole experience ... Everything we did was just magical. But had it not been for my sister and brother-in-law there was no way we could have afforded that and I suppose the second best was the time in Disney with the children ... Umm, Disney because it was a family experience and that was magical with the girls and I wouldn’t have missed that ... That had to be my best one [the South Africa holiday]. Although I love the girls dearly it was that one.”

Penny considers her South Africa holiday as her best one, but throughout that particular narrative (which lasted about 5 pages of transcription) she kept referring back to the other holiday with her daughters. The interviews show that Penny’s identity as a wife and mother play an important role in the make-up of who she is and in order for Penny to maintain and reinforce this identity VFR travel will play an important part in allowing her to do so. It is not just her husband or her daughters that are important to Penny, she often talks about friends or other relations indicating that relationships with others is of significance to her. Penny’s eldest daughter Sally has travelled extensively and Penny shows a pride when talking about this. Sally’s travels and subsequent stories and photos of her travel have opened Penny’s eyes and created a desire for travel. It is quite possible that Sally may emigrate at some point in the future and this will play a part in Penny’s future tourism mobility;
“so yeah, Australia, if Sally and Kirk ever decide to go back and at the moment with the job situation with both of them it’s quite tricky, Sally was more or less offered a job back there any time she wanted to go … I would only go if they went back there, it’s not a destination I particularly want to see but obviously if they were there I would make the effort to go, because it is such a long way.”

From this we can summarise that whilst there is nothing new in the notion of an individual’s tourism mobility being influence by the desire to visit friends and relatives. The possibility that this travel is fuelled by the need to reinforce an identity is a different angle to the concept.

_Holidays cementing relationships:_ Following on from VFR travel comes another significant finding, that of holidays cementing interpersonal relationships. Throughout both her interviews June referred to the idea of togetherness as being central to her holidays, with her family as a whole or just with her husband. The following quote from June is part of her answer to the question “how influential were your childhood holidays on later travel?”

“when you have children of your own, you then start to recall what was special about them [the childhood holidays], I mean whether you do it deliberately, but I do remember the idea of being away as a family as being something nice and certainly that did probably influence the holidays we took when I had a young family, things like caravan holidays, holidays where we were all _together_ in the same place. It didn’t have to be grand. We did have some holidays abroad but even when we were abroad, it was all about being _together_ and swimming _together_ and walking out _together_ so I think they are influential but you don’t know it at the time.” (emphasis added by author)

June is suggesting that it didn’t matter where they were or what they were doing, just as long as they were together which is something that has been considered by Haldrup (2004, p. 433): “family based vacationing is more concerned with the extra ordinary ordinariness of personal social relations than with the documenting and gazing at spectacular sights.” June also acknowledges the importance of the journey in assisting the feeling of ‘togetherness’: “first of all there is the travel down, travelling down in the car, wherever we’re going”. This is similar to the example in Dickinson et al. (2011). June recognises that the idea of togetherness is not just about being physically together;

“It is both physical and psychological I think, in the sense that the house is big, I was chatting to you before, the house is quite big, errrmomm one can get
lost in it the children have all left home. I sometimes go and watch TV in my lounge and Maurice goes in his lounge. Having a wonderful time but still, getting on with our lives and whatever. But when you go on holiday together you are often in one hotel room”

The psychological connection that she is referring to is demonstrated in the following passage;

“You know, you’ll chat about things that you wouldn’t chat about at home. You’ll chat about the place you’re in, for example that Rome trip. We both, liked, loved Rome for different sort of reasons but just going in to a beautiful building and seeing it together and looking it up and seeing the history of the building and saying we must go over to a different place nearby or, the whole thing was just a bonding experience”

Shaw (2001, p. 128) suggests the importance of holidays for the family because the places visited together can “help create or re-create a common feeling of unity.” It is not just the physical co-presence that creates the unity for June, but it is also the conversations that follow which underpin the physical presence. Heimtum and Jordan (2011, p.272) support the idea that holidays have the ability to physically and emotionally transport the tourists away from their reality “the construction of the holiday as a special site of leisure that transports people (literally and emotionally) away from their everyday environments underpins its experience economy.”

June’s description of the unity and connectedness with her family whilst on holiday present a powerful reason for continuing to travel. The association of this theme with the self and mobility is through the creation of a ‘family identity’ and the security that comes with that.

The reluctant traveller: I have demonstrated above how travel can be shaped by the need to find a ‘family based identity’ and also by the sense of self that can develop from the unity experienced by going on holiday with the family. Here I will reveal another element to these ideas – people undertake travel that they do not particularly want to do in order to please their significant other.

Martin’s job as an RAF pilot provided him with numerous opportunities to travel and satisfied his ‘travelling needs’. He states that in his personal life he would have been happy not to travel but he did not (or could not) do that because he had a young family.
“I didn’t really have a great deal of interest in holidays because I was getting around the world selfishly quite well enough thank you. I think to a degree, although I enjoyed skiing we took holidays because the rest of the family wanted it. I would have been quite happy to sit around at home but that’s just a selfish point of view and we didn’t do that. We went on and did things.”

Shah (2006) suggests that significant others can guide our behaviour and experiences through our own views of the goals and expectations that the significant other holds for us. This suggests that these relationships can hold significant power in influencing our behaviour and this forms the basis of the investigation within this paper. Shah (2006) proposes a model which demonstrates the interdependence between, self, significant others and goal (behaviour) (figure 1). This demonstrates the two ways in which our cognitive associations with significant others can be related to goal pursuits (or behaviours). Both routes depend on the nature and strength of the relationship with either the significant other or the goal.

![Figure 1: A Triangular model of self-regulatory relationships (Shah, 2006)](image)

Martin wasn’t the only the interviewee to indicate that they would undertake travel for the sake of their significant other. Beth holds strong opinions regarding environmental behaviour and would like to give up flying, however she has recently got married and her husband doesn’t have the same strength of feeling that she does:

“I mean I feel really bad because this year I have taken flights to Ibiza and Marrakech … especially because there’s my husband, although he kind of sup-
ports and understands that, I suppose has less of a personal commitment and he sees it as being a bigger society issue, so it’s always tricky.”

Both Martin and Beth are taking the SO – Goal path, i.e. their relationship with the significant other(s) is stronger than that with the goal, therefore the SO is driving their behaviour. As stated earlier significant others and interpersonal relationships can have an impact on the self and identity (Anderson & Chen, 2002). This discussion has clearly demonstrated that interpersonal relationships are driving tourism mobility through the identity of the tourist.

**Conclusion and Implications**

Interpersonal relationships can have an impact on tourism mobility and it is evident that identity can underlie mobility decisions. Identity is relative to the people around us and this is a strong driving force to undertake travel in order to reinforce how we present ourselves relative to significant others. This can be regardless of an individual’s personal desire for travel, particularly when coupled with the notion that social networks need intermittent face to face contact in order to be maintained. Identity also comes in to play with feelings of connectedness which are generated through tourism mobility with significant others. In addition to this is the idea of negotiated travel, where one member of the relationship is forfeiting their travel desires for those of their significant other. What is also clear is that the self and identity also play a role in this. This shows that identity can be a facilitator for tourism mobility decisions. The strength of the influence that identity has on tourism based decisions has not been fully considered in previous literature. Given that these decisions are deeply rooted in identity issues, instigating a behavioural change in tourism mobility will be very difficult to achieve.

**Acknowledgement**

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**References**


Leisure Constraints in Six Taiwan Cities

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Abstract

The purpose of this study is to provide an initial description of leisure constraints as perceived by residents of six Taiwan cities. Rather than relying on lists of leisure constraints developed in other contexts, we assembled a list using a common ethnographic technique that allows informants to indicate what they perceive as constraints on their leisure. We then asked a second sample of informants to rate the importance of 30 constraints determined through the free listing procedure. We found that constraints in these cities can be categorized, based on their perceived importance, into four distinct types. We believe that more research is needed on leisure constraints in non-Western societies from an ethnographic approach that is based on informant-provided items rather than standardized lists imposed by researchers.

Key words: leisure constraints, ethnography, free listing, taiwan
Introduction

In this paper, we develop a pool of leisure constraints in six Taiwan cities using free listing, a technique commonly used by cognitively oriented anthropologists, linguists, and psychologists that permits informants to define the content of cultural or cognitive domains (Weller & Romney, 1988). Because informants themselves provide the items that compose the domain in question, it is less likely that some may be irrelevant and/or meaningless to them. The primary purpose of this paper is to provide a description of the leisure constraints that individuals in six cities in Taiwan recognize and perceive to be important in their lives.

Godbey, Crawford, & Shen (2010) “acknowledge the merit of a localized approach in helping such research remain sensitive to the perceptions and experiences of research subjects and stay grounded to the phenomenon under investigation” (p. 115). We agree. To accomplish this, we advocate the use of data gathering techniques, such as free listing, interviews, or a sentence-completion task like that used by Boothby et al. (1981), directed at the constraints experienced in particular activities by particular groups of individuals. Constraints derived from these methods can then augment standardized constraint items, as recommended by Hubbard and Mannell (2001) and Godbey et al. (2010). Unfortunately, the use of intensive ethnographic methods such as these is itself constrained by both time and expense. Nevertheless, we believe that leisure constraint theory cannot advance far while disembodied and decontextualized.

We are also interested in how informants categorized these constraints and how demographic variables, including city of residence, gender, age, marital status, income, and level of education relate to constraint categories. Finally, we examine whether leisure constraints were related to leisure satisfaction, life satisfaction, and perceived health.

Methodology

In this study, we used free listing to collect data on leisure activities and leisure constraints in six Taiwan cities. We then used these data in the construction of a survey for the second round of data collection conducted in the same six cities, namely Taipei, Hsinchu, Taichung, Kaohsiung, Hualien, and Taitung, with the population of 2,640,000, 516,000, 2,660,000, 2,773,000, 337,000, and 229,000, respectively. Researchers conducted face-to-face free listing tasks in each of the six cities. Informants were not randomly selected but, instead, were intercepted at locations such as parks, bus stops, train stops, and shopping areas.
Interviewers attempted to gather free listing data from approximately 30 individuals from each site. First, to familiarize informants with the free listing procedure, they were asked to list all of the kinds of animals, such as cats, dogs, horses, pigs, and so on, that they could in a short amount of time. Next, they were asked to list any activities such as reading, watching TV going to park and so on, in which they participate during their leisure or free time. Finally, they were asked to list any factors that constrain their leisure participation. Lists were collected from 30 individuals in Taipei, 31 in Hsinchu, 30 in Taichung, 30 in Kaohsiung, and 31 in Hualien, and 30 in Taitung. The 182 informants, half male and half female, listed totals of 123 leisure activities and 57 leisure constraints.

We used the information from the free listing phase of the study in order to compose a longer survey to be distributed to larger samples in each of the six cities. In it, we asked informants to indicate of whether or not they participated in leisure activities in the list (measured as Yes or No), the frequency of their participation (measured as “occasionally” or “frequently”), how important each of the leisure activities and leisure constraints were to them (both measured on 1–5 Likert-type scales, ranging from extremely unimportant to extremely important).

We also included a 8-item leisure satisfaction scale asking informants to indicate the degree of their satisfaction (ranging from 1 “extremely dissatisfied” to 7 “extremely satisfied”), a 6-item life satisfaction scale asking informants to indicate if they agree or disagree with the 6 statements (ranging from 1 “strongly disagree” to 7 “strongly agree”), and a single question asking them to rate their own health on a four point scale ranging from “excellent” to “poor.” Finally, informants were asked to report socio-demographic information including their occupation, gender, level of school completed, income, age, and marital status. A total of 1,775 informants completed surveys. Socio-demographic information for the informants from each of the cities is shown in Table 1.
Table 1. Frequencies of socio-demographic characteristics of the survey sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Taipei</th>
<th>Hsinchu</th>
<th>Taichung</th>
<th>Kaohsiung</th>
<th>Hualien</th>
<th>Taitung</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>147</td>
<td>846</td>
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<td>Female</td>
<td>163</td>
<td>165</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>166</td>
<td>929</td>
<td>52.3</td>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Taipei</th>
<th>Hsinchu</th>
<th>Taichung</th>
<th>Kaohsiung</th>
<th>Hualien</th>
<th>Taitung</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>%</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18-29</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>449</td>
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<tr>
<td>30-39</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>360</td>
<td>20.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-49</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>324</td>
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<tr>
<td>50-59</td>
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<td>64</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>52</td>
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<td>66</td>
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<td>60 ~</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>67</td>
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<th>Taichung</th>
<th>Kaohsiung</th>
<th>Hualien</th>
<th>Taitung</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>%</th>
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<td>&lt;15,000</td>
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<td>28</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>48</td>
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<td>41</td>
<td>208</td>
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<tr>
<td>15,000-30,000</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>316</td>
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<tr>
<td>30,001-45,000</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>393</td>
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<td>62</td>
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<td>38</td>
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<td>33</td>
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<td>75,001-150,000</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>31</td>
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<tr>
<td>250,000 and above</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>3</td>
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<th>Taichung</th>
<th>Kaohsiung</th>
<th>Hualien</th>
<th>Taitung</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>%</th>
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<td>194</td>
<td>65</td>
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<td>131</td>
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<td>788</td>
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<td>College Degree</td>
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<tr>
<td>Graduate Degree</td>
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<td>10</td>
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<td>20</td>
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<td>148</td>
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<th>Marital Status²</th>
<th>Taipei</th>
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<th>Taichung</th>
<th>Kaohsiung</th>
<th>Hualien</th>
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<th>Total</th>
<th>%</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>103</td>
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<td>92</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>678</td>
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<td>Married</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>167</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>183</td>
<td>192</td>
<td>959</td>
<td>54.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

¹ Income is in New Taiwan Dollar, the official currency of Taiwan.
² Small numbers of divorced and widowed individuals responded to the survey. They were typically older informants, as might be anticipated. We did not include them in the analyses below.

Data Analyses

Free Listing Data

We examined the free listing data with Anthropac (Borgatti, 1992), a computer program that calculates item frequency (how often each item was mentioned by informants), percentage of informants listing each item, the average rank for each item listed, and Smith’s S, item salience. Prior to analysis, we cleaned the free listing data because informants sometimes used different words or short
phrases to describe the same activities or constraints. After cleaning, we retained a total of 123 leisure activities and 57 leisure constraints.

**Survey Data**

In order to reduce the number of constraints and, second, create variables for further analyses based on the reduced number of constraints, we factor analyzed the importance ratings of the 30 constraint items. We ran six analyses, two each using maximum likelihood factor analysis, principal axis factor analysis, and principal components analysis. For each of the three extraction methods, we used varimax (orthogonal) and direct oblimin (oblique) rotations and compared the results in terms of interpretability. Next, we calculated factor scores for each of the factors retained from the factor analysis. Factor scores are weighted, standardized, sums of the individual items that constitute each factor in the factor analysis. Since each factor score represents multiple aspects of each factor in a single score, measurement error is reduced. Each informant received a score on each of the four factors that could then be compared with his or her scores on other variables. In keeping with our interest in data description, we first present summaries of demographic differences among informants. Second, we determine if city of residence, income, age, level of education, gender, and marital status level are related to the values of the factors as well as the strength of that relationship. To do so, we use one-way and two-way analyses of variance, t-tests, and measures of effect size.

**Results**

**Free Listing Results**

As indicated above, 182 informants free listed leisure activities and leisure constraints. With respect to constraints, by using Anthropac, we develop a pool of 30 leisure constraints which shows that lack of time was listed 73 times and lack of money 53 times followed by work, poor physical condition, family responsibilities, poor health, lack of companion, too lazy, and lack of facilities, but the frequency with which items were mentioned declined dramatically.

**Survey Results**

One thousand seven hundred seventy-five informants completed surveys in six cities in Taiwan. Because of missing data, each of our analyses is based on slightly different numbers of individuals but, given the relatively large sample size and the lack of any evidence that missing data is systematically patterned, effects are probably inconsequential.
First, we conducted a series of cross tabulations in order to better understand relationships among the demographic variables shown in Table 1 above. The overall relationship between gender and age is not significant (Cramer’s V = .078, Somers’ d = -.045, n = 1,775). While more females than males had college degrees, more males than females reported having graduate degrees. Regardless, there was a very weak relationship between gender and education (Cramer’s V = .097, Somers’ d = -.074, n = 1,763) if Cramer’s V was less than 0.1, as suggested by Rea and Parker (1992). Males had somewhat higher incomes than females (Cramer’s V = .134, Somers’ d = -.084, with income dependent, n = 1,730) but this relationship is also weak if Cramer’s V ranged from 0.1 to 0.2. Gender and marital status were unrelated (Cramer’s V = .045, n = 1,765) if Cramer’s V was less than 0.1 (Rea & Parker, 1992).

There was a moderately negative relationship between age and education level (Somers’ d = -.318, gamma = -.438, n = 1,761) but older informants had higher incomes than younger ones (Somers’ d = .128 with income dependent, gamma = .142, n = 1,728), as might be expected. Older individuals were much more likely to be married than younger ones (Somers’ d = .536, gamma = .750, n = 1,762). Education level and income were positively related (Somers’ d = .163 with income dependent, gamma = .238, n = 1,723). Education level and marital status were negatively related (Somers’ d = -.327, gamma = -.554, n = 1,758) with those married having less education than those who were single.

Next, we were interested in whether there was a relationship between the demographics and the city in which the data were collected. A cross tabulation of gender by city indicated no relationship (Cramer’s V = .037, p = .778).

More sample members were married than single, as noted above, but the relationship between marital status and city of residence was weak (Cramer’s V = .131, p = .000).

We found a relationship between income and city of residence (Cramer’s V = .130, p = .000, Eta =.106 with income dependent). Another way of examining is to use a Kruskal-Wallis Test, a nonparametric analog of independent group analysis of variance that tests the equality of population medians. Its value, normally designated by $H$, has approximately a chi-square sampling distribution where the degrees of freedom equal the number of groups minus 1. With income level as the outcome variable and city of residence as the group variable, chi-square = 22.20 (5) and $p = .000$. Hualien had the highest median income (level 4).
The sample from Taitung was skewed toward the older end while age distributed fairly equally across the six age categories in the other cities. A Kruskal-Wallis test with age as the outcome variable is significant (chi square of 88.44 (5), \( p = .000 \)).

Educational attainment was fairly distributed among the cities (Cramer’s V = .188, \( p = .000 \), Kruskal-Wallis chi-square = 119.49 (5), \( p = .000 \)) with the sample from Taipei and Taichung having nearly twice as many individuals with some graduate school compared to the other cities while the sample from Hsinchu had the largest individuals in the lowest educational category as any of the other cities.

**Factor Analyses of the Leisure Constraints Data**

As indicated above, we conducted exploratory factor analyses on informant ratings of 30 leisure constraints in terms of their importance. Replacing missing values with the mean for the entire series, analyses were based on 1,775 cases, a ratio of cases to variables of 59.17 to 1. We ran four initial analyses using PASW Statistics 18. These included principal axis factoring with varimax and direct oblimin rotations and maximum likelihood factoring with varimax and direct oblimin rotations. Based on the Kaiser criterion and examination of the scree plot, we retained five factors based on the factor analysis of the importance ratings of the 30 leisure constraints items. The factors remained the same regardless of the extraction method or the type of rotation. Because we expected the factors to be correlated, we chose direct oblimin rotation.

The value for the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO) was .905 and the Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity was highly significant (approximate chi-square = 16722.14, df = 210, \( p = .000 \)). Commonalities were all above .3, indicating shared common variance between the items. These results indicate that factor analysis is appropriate with these data (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007) as presented. Nine items, “lack of money,” “lack of companions,” “too lazy,” “lack of facilities,” “too tired,” “other stuff to do,” “distance,” “my gender,” and “cannot let go” failed to have a factor loading of .4 or greater. These were eliminated and the remaining 21 items were analyzed again.

Factor analysis of the remaining 21 items and 1,775 cases (cases to variables ratio = 85 to 1), again using principal axis extraction with direct oblimin rotation, resulted in five factors as presented. The fifth factor with two items, “lack of transportation” and “(bad) weather,” was eliminated due to low value (0.589) of Cronbach’s Alpha, less than recommended value 0.7 (Nunnally,
Finally, nineteen items were left and the factor analysis was done again. All items had factor loadings above .4 with no substantial (.3 or greater) cross loadings. The KMO Measure of Sampling Adequacy equaled .900 and Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity (approximate chi-square = 15571.41, df = 171, p = .000) was again significant. The first factor explained 35.37% of the variance, the second 11.41%, the third 10.33%, and the fourth 6.23% for a total of 63.34%. The factor pattern matrix and Cronbach’s alphas for each factor is shown in Table 2 below. The remaining four factors with the corresponding nineteen items were termed (1) psychological and knowledge dimension (nine items), (2) lack of time (four items), (3) health and physical condition (three items), and (4) family responsibilities (three items).

Table 2. Factor pattern matrix for leisure constraints in six Taiwan Cities.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constraints</th>
<th>Psychological and knowledge dimension</th>
<th>Lack of time</th>
<th>Health and physical condition</th>
<th>Family responsibilities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lack of willpower</td>
<td>.862</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bad attitude</td>
<td>.825</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not in the mood</td>
<td>.743</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of information</td>
<td>.720</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of necessary skills</td>
<td>.648</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor time management</td>
<td>.615</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No (lack of) interest</td>
<td>.593</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fear (of violence, danger, uncertainty, or trying new things)</td>
<td>.591</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not enough sleep</td>
<td>.414</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of time</td>
<td>.770</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work</td>
<td>.704</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Too busy</td>
<td>.686</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chores</td>
<td>.464</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor health</td>
<td>.822</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor physical condition</td>
<td>.820</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age (too old)</td>
<td>.597</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Rather than present tables of factor scores, which are standardized and therefore not interpretable in the original units of measurement, we computed sums across the variables in each factor and divided by the number of items in each. These are shown in Table 3 below and provide summary statistics for the four factors.

**Table 3.** Summary statistics for four leisure constraint factors.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Number of cases</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Psychological and knowledge dimension</td>
<td>1775</td>
<td>2.33</td>
<td>0.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of time</td>
<td>1775</td>
<td>2.91</td>
<td>1.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health &amp; physical condition</td>
<td>1775</td>
<td>2.28</td>
<td>0.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family responsibilities</td>
<td>1775</td>
<td>2.42</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We were interested in determining whether there were differences among the four factors with respect to the six cities. To this end, we conducted one-way ANOVA with the six cities as independent variables and each of the four factor scores as an outcome variable. Again, our primary interest is not in the statistical significance of possible differences, which are inferential with respect to population parameters, but with the effect size of the independent variables. We report eta squared ($\eta^2$), a measure of the variance accounted for by the main effects, interactions, and error in each analysis of variance (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). It is equal to the sum of squares of the effect ($SS_{effect}$) divided by the total sum of squares ($SS_{total}$) and can be thought of as the correlation between the effect and the dependent variable. Eta squared should be thought of
as a descriptive sample statistic rather than an inferential population statistic as it estimates only sample effect size, not that of the population (Becker, 2000). We were also interested in the effects of age, income, and education on the four factors and conducted one-way analyses of variance using each of these as grouping variables. Finally, we examined the effects of gender and marital status on the four factors using t-tests for independent samples (with unequal variances). We used Cohen’s d (Cohen, 1988) to measure effect size for the t-tests. Cohen’s d is calculated by dividing the difference between the two sample means by the standard deviation. Cohen originally assumed that the standard deviations for independent samples would be equal so either could be used. Using the pooled standard deviation is most common with two independent samples. Unlike \( h^2 \), Cohen’s d ranges from zero to infinity with values between 0 and .2 indicating a small effect, those of .5 a moderate effect, and those of .8 and above, a large effect. However, Cohen (1988) noted that these values are relative “not only to each other, but to the area of behavioral science or even more particularly the specific content and research method being employed in any given investigation …” (p. 25). Therefore, the values of d should be viewed with some caution.

One-way analyses of variance indicated that city had significant, but weak, main effects on Psychological Constraints (Factor 1), \( F(5, 1769) = 9.085, p = .000, h^2 = .025 \), Time Constraints (Factor 2), \( F(5, 1769) = 7.485, p = .000, h^2 = .021 \), Health Constraints (Factor 3), \( F(5, 1769) = 3.633, p = .003, h^2 = .010 \), and Family Constraints (Factor 4), \( F(5, 1769) = 2.631, p = .022, h^2 = .007 \). Eta-squared can be thought of as an analog to \( r^2 \) so, at best, city accounts for only 2.5% of the variance in Psychological Constraints. With a Bonferroni correction (where \( p \) must be equal to or less than .006, Psychological Constraints, Time Constraints and Health Constraints are significant. Given the weak effect sizes, we conclude that city of residence has little effect on any of the leisure constraints.

We conducted one-way analyses of variance with age as the group variable and each of the four constraints factors as outcome variables. In this case, Psychological Constraints (Factor 1), \( F(5, 1769) = 13.445, p = .000, h^2 = .037 \), Time Constraints (Factor 2), \( F(5, 1769) = 48.480, p = .000, h^2 = .121 \), Health Constraints (Factor 3), \( F(5, 1769) = 26.481, p = .000, h^2 = .070 \), and Family Constraints (Factor 4), \( F(5, 1769) = 28.440, p = .000, h^2 = .074 \) were all significant. A Bonferroni correction eliminated Poor Service Quality. Age accounts for about 12.1% in Lack of Time, 7.4% in Family responsibilities, 7% in Health & physical condition, and 3.7% of the variance in Psychological and knowledge dimension.
With income as the group variable, Psychological Constraints (Factor 1), \(F(7, 1769) = 3.084, p = .003, h^2 = .012\), Time Constraints (Factor 2), \(F(7, 1769) = 3.970, p = .000, h^2 = .016\), and Family Constraints (Factor 4), \(F(7, 1769) = 7.112, p = .000, h^2 = .028\) were significant. Income accounts for, at best, about 2.8% of the variance in the Family responsibilities factor.

We conducted a one-way analysis of variance with education level as the grouping variable. Psychological Constraints (Factor 1), \(F(2, 1760) = 8.226, p = .000, h^2 = .009\), Time Constraints (Factor 2), \(F(2, 1760) = 26.839, p = .000, h^2 = .030\), and Health Constraints (Factor 3), \(F(2, 1760) = 20.316, p = .000, h^2 = .023\) were significant. Educational level accounts for, at best, about 3% of the variance in Health & physical condition factor.

Next, we examined possible differences in the four constraints factors depending on gender and marital status using t-tests. With gender as the group variable, there were no significant differences in any of the constraint factors. Using marital status as the grouping variable, we found significant differences between married and single individuals in terms of Psychological Constraints (Factor 1) where \(t (1635) = 4.393, p = .000\), Cohen’s \(d = .22\), Time Constraints (Factor 2) where \(t (1635) = 2.487, p = .013\), Cohen’s \(d = .13\), Health Constraints (Factor 3) where \(t (1635) = 6.363, p = .000\), Cohen’s \(d = .32\), and Family Constraints (Factor 4) where \(t (1635) = 11.238, p = .000\), Cohen’s \(d = .55\). Cohen’s \(d\) equals .36, a weak to moderate effect size based on Cohen’s (1988) criteria. Using a Bonferroni correction with marital status as the group variable, Psychological Constraints (Factor 1), \(F(3, 1761) = 13.445, p = .000\), Time Constraints (Factor 2), \(F(3, 1761) = 14.402, p = .000\), Health Constraints (Factor 3), \(F(3, 1761) = 28.535, p = .000\), and Family Constraints (Factor 4), \(F(3, 1761) = 41.109, p = .000\) were all significant.

Finally, responses to the leisure satisfaction and life satisfaction item strongly correlate positively, as might be expected \((r = .981, n = 1,775, p = .000)\). Life satisfaction also had a moderate and positive correlation with the perceived health \((r = .394, n = 1,775, p = .000)\). Two correlations were statistically significant between leisure satisfaction and Psychological Constraints (Factor 1) \((r = -.161, n = 1,775, p = .000)\) and between leisure satisfaction and Time Constraints (Factor 2) \((r = -.112, n = 1,775, p = .000)\). Other correlations, between life satisfaction, perceived health, and constraint factors, were in the .026 to .269 range and in the anticipated direction (i.e., negative). These results suggest that the examination of leisure constraints, life satisfaction, and either perceived or objectively measured health may merit further investigation.
Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to describe the domain of leisure constraints as perceived by the residents of six cities in Taiwan. Informants provided a total of 30 leisure constraints via free listing. Of these, only the first eight (time, money, work, physical condition, family, health, lack of companion, and lazy) were mentioned at least 10 times across the six cities. Only time and money were mentioned by more than 50% of respondents while about a third mentioned work. The constraints identified via free listing are very likely to be salient and meaningful to respondents. The six cities wherein the free listing was conducted are large and modern, however. Additionally, sample members from each of the cities, while apparently representative in most regards, had much more education than the average residents of the cities. So, in this respect, sample members may have been more similar to those found in WEIRD societies, in general. Results from free listing and an affiliated survey may have been different if carried out in small towns or, especially, rural areas in Taiwan.

With respect to sample demographics, we found only weak relationships between gender and education; gender and income; age and education; age and income; age and marital status; education and income; education and marital status; and no relationship between gender and age; gender and marital status. Age and education level were fairly and negatively related although, not surprisingly, older informants had higher incomes than younger ones and were more likely to be married. Married individuals appeared to have less education than those who were single while education was positively related to educational attainment. We found no relationship between gender and city of residence and a weak one between marital status and city of residence. City of residence was weakly related to income, however, with Hualien having the highest and Taitung the lowest income levels. The age distribution of informants across the cities was fairly uniform with the exception of Taitung where it was skewed toward the older end of the scale. Educational attainment fairly differed among the cities with informants from Taipei having the highest educational attainment and Hsinchu the lowest.

Exploratory factor analysis of the constraints data from the survey resulted in four relatively distinct and conceptually clear constraint types. The first of these, which we have termed “psychological and knowledge dimension,” and “health and physical condition” accounts for the largest and third percentage of the variance and appears to closely resemble what Crawford and Godbey
(1987) called “intrapersonal” constraints. The first constraint factor includes lack of willpower, bad attitude, not in the mood, lack of information, lack of necessary skills, no interest, fear, and not enough sleep. The third constraint factor includes poor health, poor physical condition, and age. The second (Time) constraint factor appears to be the sorts of constraints that Crawford and Godbey (1987) characterized as “structural.” Finally, Factors 4 (Family responsibilities) could be subsumed under Crawford and Godbey’s “interpersonal constraints” category. However, neither the factor analysis we have chosen to report in this paper (principal axis with oblimin rotation) nor any of the other methods we tested, indicated above, returned a three factor solution composed of what would be clearly structural, intrapersonal, and interpersonal constraints. All factoring methods returned results that were essentially the same as that described above.

Our analyses of possible differences among the four factors in terms of socio-demographic variables indicated that city of residence had impact on scores. Analyses of variance with age as the group variable results in several statistically significant, but relatively weak relationships. Health and physical condition factor is most strongly related to age. Informant education is weakly related to Psychological and knowledge dimension, Lack of Time, and Health and physical condition. Informant income is weakly related to the Family Responsibilities factor and the Lack of Time factor. Gender was unrelated to any of the factors.

Females reported Family Responsibilities to be a more important constraint than did males, again an unsurprising result. However, the fact that gender had no effect on any of the other factors is mildly surprising. We found weak effects for marital status on all four factors, Single informants rated Lack of Time as more important than did those who were married while married individuals rated Psychological and knowledge dimension, Health and physical condition, and Family Responsibilities as more important.

Finally, leisure satisfaction, life satisfaction and perceived health correlated positively, as anticipated in a moderate and strong relationship. Similarly, we found two negative correlations between leisure satisfaction and two of the constraint factors (i.e., psychological constraints and time constraints); two negative correlations between life satisfaction and two of the constraint factors (i.e., psychological constraints and time constraints); and three correlations between perceived health and three of the constraint factors (i.e., psychological constraints and time constraints).
constraints, health constraints and family constraints). Therefore, we believe that this remains a potentially fruitful area for research.

**Acknowledgments**

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**References**


Influence of Seasonal Fluctuation on Visitors’ Recreation Motivation: A Case Study of Lalashan Forest Reserve, Taiwan

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Abstract
Managers of national parks, forest recreational areas as well as natural and historic heritages are often troubled by excessive tourism demand during peak seasons. They are constantly looking for better solutions to eliminate overcrowding in order to protect natural resources and cultural treasures. This study focuses on the case of the Lalashan Forest Reserve in Taiwan and compares the characteristics and travelling motivations of target populations during peak and off-peak seasons. Furthermore, this paper offers practical advice for issues regarding peak season overload and customer reaction towards visiting capacity control.

Key words: seasonal fluctuations, visitor motivations, recreation.

Introduction
Tourism is a product born with seasonality. It is affected by fluctuations in both natural and institutional factors. Examples of the former include temperature, snowfall and hours of sunshine, while the summer and winter vacation periods, social leisure norms, religion and culture patterns pertain to the latter. This nature has led to the “peak and off-peak seasons” phenomenon (Bar-On, 1999), marked by unevenly distributed tourism flows across time and space, with high concentrations in specific periods of the year (Butler, 1994).
This alternating pattern poses serious threats to the tourism industry. First of all, tourism destinations need to invest in infrastructure and services to meet high demand in peak seasons. However, returns to investment are often severely reduced due to underutilization of facilities during off-peak seasons. Secondly, overwhelming tourist concentration in high seasons creates a sense of congestion in use of either transportation or facilities. The fact that people subject to higher pricing for tourism products and services in prime seasons only receive compromised service quality is a common source of visitor complaint. Thirdly, a sudden massive inflow of tourists burdens the supply end of water provision, waste management and transportation supervision. Potential overshoot of environmental carrying capacity may cause irreversible damage to nature and cultural resources and upset residents. Fourthly, seasonal peaking brings about employment and management problems for destination managers. For instance, some employees hired in prime seasons may run out of work during off seasons (Cuccia & Rizzo, 2011; Manning & Powers, 1984).

In order to minimize the negative impact of seasonal patterns on the tourism industry, numerous studies have proposed methods to draw more tourist traffic during off seasons. With the hope that induced demand will increase profits, some suggest adopting off-peak pricing schemes and establishing promotional events and festivals; others propose deferring or moving the seasons ahead, inducing tourists to shift travelling periods to less crowded times (Chung, 2009; Spencer & Holecek, 2007).

However, what concerns managers of national parks, forest recreational areas as well as natural and historic heritage the most is not how to increase demand in low seasons but how to cope with excess demand in high seasons. In particular, with regards to potential threats to environmental carrying capacity, managing units are keen to minimize seasonal destruction and protect the ecosystem for the benefit of the current and future generations. Past research on seasonality, however, mainly focus on the hospitality industry and entail case studies of reputed tourism attractions. Efforts devoted to cases regarding natural and historic heritages are limited and research on how to effectively reduce peak tourist burden remains to be not well explored.

Common approaches to deal with problems caused by peak season demand include environmental education, differential pricing, and facilities hardening. Some outdoor recreational spots, museums and shopping centers choose to administer total visitor number restrictions throughout prime seasons. The downside of visiting control is that suppressed visiting capacity is very likely
to fail to meet demand. This can be detrimental to tourism development and might even invoke protests. Hence it is imperative to carefully evaluate and study tourists’ reaction towards visiting capacity controls.

The negative effects of tourism seasonality on tourists, travelling sites and destination managers cannot be overlooked. It would be beneficial to understand the characteristics of the tourism market segments, especially population attributes, travelling motives and visitors’ opinions regarding visiting capacity control. Knowledge as such can help us better understand the essence of seasonality and draft practical solutions. Thus this study aims at examining and comparing the following:

1. The population and travelling attributes of tourists in peak and off-peak seasons.
2. The travelling motives of tourists in peak and off-peak seasons.
3. Responses to visiting capacity controls in peak and off-peak seasons.

The Lalashan Forest Reserve case study

The scope of this study covers the Lalashan Forest Reserve, a nature protection zone managed by the Taiwan Forestry Bureau. The area has an altitude that ranges from 1500 to 1600 meters above sea level, and is well-known for its giant forest comprised of 22 ancient Taiwan Red Cypress (Chamaecyparis formosensis) trees, each about 500 to 2,800 years of age. Lalashan is one of the most important sites for nature observation, environmental education, and forest ecotourism in northern Taiwan.

Cuccia and Rizzo (2011) point out that under the influence of seasonality, the demand for tourism and the choice of destinations are closely connected with the capacity of destination service provision. In the case of the Lalashan Forest Reserve, the peak season in the summer months of July and August coincides with the summer vacation periods when students are out of school. This is also the time of the year when the climatic conditions for mountain regions are ideal. Furthermore, in close proximity to the area are private peach farms that reap rich harvest in mid-June to end of July. With the help of local governmental promotions and the hosting of peach festivals, the summer months have become the peak season of the Lalashan Forest Reserve.
Still, in order to protect the ecosystem, protected areas are granted only limited access and use. The near 200,000 tourist arrivals over the course of a year (Taiwan Tourism Bureau, 2011) in the Lalashan Forest Reserve obviously reflect a conflict with legislative goals. In fact, impacts on the environment due to high concentration of tourism activities in peak seasons have already emerged (Liu, 2008). In light of this, the Taiwan Forestry Bureau is planning on implementing visiting restrictions in the area, which involves limiting the number of incoming vehicles to a total of 125 in the morning and in the afternoon throughout every June to August. In addition, visitors will be required to register online prior to any travel visits to obtain access quota.

For this study, the author conducted a questionnaire survey in the Lalashan Forest Reserve in 2011 twice, once in January (off-peak season) and once in July (peak season). Questionnaire items are identical and systematic sampling (questionnaires issued to one in every five visitor) was employed for both surveys. The questionnaire construct consists of four sections that evaluate visiting characteristics, push and pull motivations, population attributes, and opinions about visiting capacity control. A seven-point Likert-type scale was used as the response format for each variable with assigned values ranging from 1 to 7 for “strongly disagree,” “disagree,” “somewhat disagree,” “neutral,” “somewhat agree,” “agree,” and “strongly agree.” Of the collected data, 312 valid samples were obtained in the off season and 282 in the peak season.
Characteristics of peak season versus off-peak season visitors

The author finds that more than half of the peak and off-peak samples were first-time visitors of the Lalashan Forest Reserve area. These samples range mostly from age 30 to 49, most of which have earned a college degree. A majority of travel companions consists of family members, and trips to Lalashan were mostly prompt decisions made less than two days before departure.

Population and travel attributes of the peak and off-peak season samples differ by some degree. In comparison with samples from the off season, the audience mix is relatively younger in the peak season, whereas travel party members are more likely colleagues, and travel invites from friends occur less often. Also, the number of preparation-days prior to destination selection and departure tends to be greater but the length of stays shorter for the peak season. Regarding the number of accompanying members, group visitors outnumber individual travelers in the peak season (Table 1). When conducting the surveys on site, the author also observed a larger inflow of company and business-travelers arriving in sightseeing buses; the number of independent travelers was much less.

Table 1. Demographic and travel characteristics of peak season vs. off-peak season visitors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>off season</th>
<th>peak season</th>
<th>t/ $\chi^2$</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>off season</th>
<th>peak season</th>
<th>t/ $\chi^2$</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>$\chi^2$</td>
<td>p</td>
<td>Travel Companions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>$\chi^2$</td>
<td>p</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>54.3%</td>
<td>54.5%</td>
<td>0.002</td>
<td>0.968</td>
<td>Family</td>
<td>55.3%</td>
<td>49.3%</td>
<td>43.157</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>45.7%</td>
<td>45.5%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Classmates</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
<td>2.2%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>t/ p</td>
<td></td>
<td>Boyfriend/Girlfriend</td>
<td>3.2%</td>
<td>4.0%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0~19</td>
<td>9.4%</td>
<td>14.7%</td>
<td>2.835</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>Colleagues</td>
<td>6.4%</td>
<td>24.3%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20~29</td>
<td>14.3%</td>
<td>12.6%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Friends</td>
<td>21.5%</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30~39</td>
<td>21.8%</td>
<td>28.8%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>n/a (Single)</td>
<td>1.0%</td>
<td>0.4%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40~49</td>
<td>29.6%</td>
<td>24.5%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Social Group</td>
<td>7.1%</td>
<td>7.0%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50~59</td>
<td>12.4%</td>
<td>15.5%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Other</td>
<td>1.0%</td>
<td>0.4%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;60</td>
<td>12.4%</td>
<td>4.0%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Preparation-days prior to departure</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marital Status</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>$\chi^2$</td>
<td>p</td>
<td>Less than 1 day</td>
<td>28.3%</td>
<td>15.8%</td>
<td>-3.292</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>40.3%</td>
<td>43.9%</td>
<td>1.344</td>
<td>0.511</td>
<td>1-2 days</td>
<td>42.4%</td>
<td>44.5%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>57.8%</td>
<td>55.0%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3-4 days</td>
<td>7.1%</td>
<td>5.9%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>1.9%</td>
<td>1.1%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5-6 days</td>
<td>5.8%</td>
<td>6.6%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Motivation of peak season versus off-peak season visitors

The following sections discuss the push and pull factors regarding the Lalashan Forest Reserve tourists:

**Push motivation**

Table 2 shows that the major motivations for tourists in either peak or off-peak seasons are the fact that Lalashan is “a suitable destination to explore nature with kids,” that people “have never been to the Lalashan nature protection zone,” that they will have “the chance to examine the Lalashan ecosystem,” “the chance to appreciate the history and culture of Lalashan,” and “the opportunity to share a unique travel experience.” The five items above received an average agreement score of 5.5 or more. This shows that regardless of seasons, the Lalashan audience comprised of mostly first-time visitors, and that they perceive the nature protection area as a distinct destination and plan to explore the natural and cultural resources with their family.

Slight differences between high and low seasons are found in items “to improve physical health,” “the chance to appreciate natural scenery,” “to escape the routines of urban life,” and “the opportunity to bring families and friends closer.” The rate of approval of these four items is relatively higher in peak season samples (Table 2) but...
their ratings are lower for the following three items: “the chance to appreciate the history and the culture of Lalashan,” “the chance to relax,” and “the chance to meet new friends.” We can infer that peak season visitors are more inclined to get away from city pressures and familiarize themselves with nature while off season visitors are relatively more “pushed” towards gaining knowledge and meeting new people.

**Pull motivation**

From Table 3, it can be found that peak and off-peak visitors are both “pulled” by “the beautiful natural resources,” “the ease of access,” “the convenient transportation system,” and the fact that the area is “a decent place for kids to explore nature,” has “quality service,” and has “a reputation for the absence of natural and man-made disasters.” All six items above reached an average approval rate of over 5.2. This shows that visitors of Lalashan in either season in general agree that the area is a safe attraction site that not only is rich in resources, easy to access but also provides good service.

Again, there are differences in the pull factors between peak and off-peak samples (Table 3). Peak season visitors valued “ease of access,” “a quiet and comfortable destination to relax,” higher than their off-peak counterparts. In contrast, peak season visitors rated “a decent destination for kids to explore nature,” “quality service,” “rich historic and culture heritage,” “a safe place to travel,” and the acknowledgement of “news of the imminent visiting capacity control” lower than off-peak samples. This indicates that for the peak season visitors, easy access and convenient transportation as well as the fact that Lalashan is an attraction spot to escape routine pressures and rest are the main pulling motivations. On the other hand, off-peak visitors seem to lean towards agreeing that Lalashan is a historic and cultural attraction with quality service.

**Table 2. A comparison of peak and off-peak season visitors’ push motivation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Push motivation</th>
<th>off season mean</th>
<th>order</th>
<th>peak season mean</th>
<th>order</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The chance to examine the Lalashan ecosystem</td>
<td>5.65</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5.72</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>−0.899</td>
<td>0.369</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To enjoy family time</td>
<td>4.26</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>4.60</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>−1.887</td>
<td>0.060</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A suitable destination to explore nature with kids</td>
<td>5.82</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.95</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>−1.867</td>
<td>0.062</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The chance to appreciate the history and the culture of Lalashan</td>
<td>5.82</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.52</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.594</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have never been to the Lalashan nature protection zone</td>
<td>6.02</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.94</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.155</td>
<td>0.249</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To improve physical health</td>
<td>5.20</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>5.64</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>−4.311</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The chance to appreciate natural scenery</td>
<td>4.36</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>4.63</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>−2.054</td>
<td>0.040</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To enjoy adventures in nature</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>−1.105</td>
<td>0.270</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The chance to relax 5.85 2 4.30 16 12.398 0.000
To get away from stressful work 4.73 13 4.62 14 0.935 0.350
To escape the routines of urban life 2.52 18 3.23 18 -5.367 0.000
The chance to meet new friends 5.43 7 4.79 11 5.131 0.000
The opportunity to bring families and friends closer 4.37 14 4.75 12 -3.304 0.001
The opportunity to share a unique travel experience 5.66 5 5.52 5 1.479 0.140
To distinguish my choice of travel destination from others 5.39 8 5.27 8 1.136 0.256
To satisfy my curiosity 5.33 10 5.22 9 1.018 0.309
To expand my horizons 5.37 9 5.29 7 0.796 0.426
To experience a different kind of leisure 5.11 12 5.07 10 0.427 0.669

Table 3. A comparison of peak and off-peak season visitors’ pull motivation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pull motivation</th>
<th>Off season</th>
<th>Peak season</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The beautiful natural resources</td>
<td>5.64 2</td>
<td>5.49 3</td>
<td>1.761</td>
<td>0.079</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ease of access</td>
<td>5.33 6</td>
<td>5.54 1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.019</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The convenient transportation system</td>
<td>5.46 5</td>
<td>5.54 1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.303</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unique ecosystem</td>
<td>4.98 12</td>
<td>5.07 8</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.366</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A decent place for kids to explore nature</td>
<td>5.48 4</td>
<td>5.31 4</td>
<td>1.916</td>
<td>0.056</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provision of useful travel information</td>
<td>4.92 13</td>
<td>5.04 10</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.307</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality service</td>
<td>6.00 1</td>
<td>5.20 6</td>
<td>8.262</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A quiet and comfortable destination to relax</td>
<td>3.72 17</td>
<td>4.10 17</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rich historic and culture heritage</td>
<td>5.06 10</td>
<td>4.48 16</td>
<td>4.919</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good environmental conditions</td>
<td>4.99 11</td>
<td>4.98 11</td>
<td>0.089</td>
<td>0.929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Convenient parking</td>
<td>5.21 8</td>
<td>5.06 9</td>
<td>1.678</td>
<td>0.094</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Convenience facilities</td>
<td>4.76 14</td>
<td>4.83 13</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.452</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clean and decent nearby accommodation</td>
<td>4.68 16</td>
<td>4.53 15</td>
<td>1.539</td>
<td>0.124</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A safe place to travel</td>
<td>5.20 9</td>
<td>4.98 11</td>
<td>2.303</td>
<td>0.022</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A reputation for the absence of natural and man-made disasters</td>
<td>5.28 7</td>
<td>5.28 5</td>
<td>0.084</td>
<td>0.933</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A unique travel destination</td>
<td>4.72 15</td>
<td>4.75 14</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.749</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>News of the imminent visiting capacity control</td>
<td>5.51 3</td>
<td>5.17 7</td>
<td>3.494</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Visitors’ opinions about visiting capacity control
As a result of the surveys, we acknowledge favorable attitudes towards visiting capacity controls in samples of both peak and off-peak seasons. The author records major support for the new visiting regulations and affirmative attitudes
from samples when distributing questionnaires and conducting personal interviews. The off-peak supports appear to be higher but the value is not significantly different from peak season samples.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>off season</th>
<th>peak season</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I am in favor of the implementation of visiting capacity control in the Lalashan Forest Reserve.</td>
<td>5.47</td>
<td>5.36</td>
<td>.952</td>
<td>.344</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I also support the implementation in other recreational areas in Taiwan.</td>
<td>5.45</td>
<td>5.26</td>
<td>1.542</td>
<td>.126</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The inclusion of gender, age, marital status, education level, travel party members, visiting frequency, number preparation-days and length of stay variables in our analysis does not yield statistically significantly different results for visitor opinions regarding the new policy.

**Conclusion**

In the case of the Lalashan Forest Reserve, the author discovers that inbound tourists mostly consist of people on family recreational trips or on company travels that arrive in touring buses during peak seasons. These visitors are chiefly motivated by a desire to meet nature and escape the everyday pressures of urban life. They consider Lalashan a destination with ease of transportation access and regard it as a great place to refresh and relax. Moreover, most of the visitors support the implementation of a visiting capacity control. Therefore the following suggestions are recommended for the Lalashan Forest Reserve area to reduce excessive tourism demand in hot seasons:

1. Limit access of sightseeing buses: This study finds that up to 54.1% of tourism arrivals are group tours and that Lalashan is but one of the many attractions they plan to visit. Restricting the number of tour bus accesses will affect group tours to a limited degree but the benefits of effectively reducing inbound traffic can be great.

2. Invest in forest recreational expansion projects to shoulder tourism demand: People mostly come to Lalashan to explore nature and get away from urban stress. The creation of environmentally friendly artificial forest recreational sites at urban peripheral areas is expected to redistribute uneven tourism demand and lighten the burden of excess arrivals.
3. Control visiting capacity: The majority support for the visiting control policy shows that people are willing to support the policy at the expense of travel convenience.

The author acknowledges that this study is not perfect and provides advice for future research as follows. First of all, the questionnaire survey used in this study was carried out in the weekends, which could result in self-selection bias since weekends are themselves “peak periods.” Future researchers might want to consider issuing questionnaires during weekdays to gain more insight in view of the seasonality problem. Secondly, one would like to explore if systematic differences in the behavior and the perceived experiences of tourists exist and further analyze the impact. Last but not least, although a majority of our tourist samples expressed support for visiting capacity controls, the actual policy effect on tourist behavior remains to be investigated.

References


Innovation & Cooperation: Learning Tourism & Hospitality on Working Place

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Abstract
Due to the high dynamics of the development of income tourism in Yekaterinburg the initiative of the company “USTA-group” and the Ural State University named after M.Gorkiy was brought into reality through the international project TEMPUS “Conception of creating the High Hotel Service School in 4 regions of the Community of Independent States”. During the first stage of the project two steps of research were conducted. The first is an indoor research of the development of tourism and hospitality in Yekaterinburg and Sverdlovsk region and the second is an outdoor research of social and economical needs of this sector enterprises. The process of renovation of existing educational programs and creating the new ones based on the results of the research and the classifiers of the operation activities for the target functions. The Studio of studying the Hospitality Art (SIGMa) offers now these improved educational programs. SIGMA is a dynamic, technology conscious, innovative educational center having an unique for Russian Federation form of the educational process organization.

Key words: Training, educational programs, skills and competencies.

Research Context and Methodology
Development of hospitality and service industry in Yekaterinburg and the Sverdlovsk region is very dynamic. Solving the task of providing high – quality service for the guests of the city is closely related to the problem of training personnel for hospitality industry. At the same time market specialists believe that professional education in that sphere in Yekaterinburg is far from real needs of the market. That is why educational institutions aiming at development and interested in promoting Yekaterinburg on international market should be concerned with the issues of training specialists able to provide high quality service for the guests.

Expert evaluation shows that annually Yekaterinburg is visited by about 700 thousand tourists (data presented by Yekaterinburg City Administration).
About 76% of city visitors arrive in the Ural’s capital on business. Yekaterinburg constantly increases the volume of the hospitality industry – in 2011 the number of places in the hotels of the city comes to 8000.

In 2009 Ural State University, in the context of international project Tempus-ESHA “Creation of four higher schools of hotel service”, conducted a research aimed at defining the need of hotel and restaurant business in personnel training.

This research based on materials of regional theoretical and practical conferences and inter-regional forums. Also author uses conclusions of marketing researches devoted to Yekaterinburg and the Sverdlovsk region and the “Concept of development of incoming and outcoming tourism in the Sverdlovsk region”. A significant attention is paid to the reviewing the regional programs of tourism sector development and strategic projects of the local executives.

The research methods that were applied

1. Interviews with qualified specialists from administrative structures (5 interviews).
2. Interviews with professionals in hotel and restaurant business (20 interviews).
3. Questionnaires for heads of certain structures and mid – level managers of 35 companies (100 questionnaires received).

Outline of results

Hotel business representatives named 10 key functions which should be considered as priority for renovating teaching programs. For each function were also mentioned necessary skills and competencies (see Table 1 and 2).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups of competencies</th>
<th>Head of sales</th>
<th>Personnel director</th>
<th>Front office manager</th>
<th>Hotel manager</th>
<th>Head of housekeeping</th>
<th>Manager on personnel training and receptionist</th>
<th>Room sales specialist</th>
<th>Maid</th>
<th>Marketing specialist</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Business communication</td>
<td>42%</td>
<td>69%</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>67%</td>
<td>68%</td>
<td>52%</td>
<td>79%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Active sales</td>
<td>39%</td>
<td>63%</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>67%</td>
<td>68%</td>
<td>52%</td>
<td>79%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychological competencies</td>
<td>39%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>75%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>54%</td>
<td>68%</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guest-oriented service</td>
<td>32%</td>
<td>38%</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>43%</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>43%</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing competencies</td>
<td>26%</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conducting negotiations</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>18%</td>
<td></td>
<td>18%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table 2. Groups of competencies essential for functionary of the restaurant.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups of competencies</th>
<th>Restaurant manager</th>
<th>Chef</th>
<th>Restaurant director</th>
<th>Art-director</th>
<th>Brand chef</th>
<th>Waiter</th>
<th>Barman</th>
<th>Senior chef</th>
<th>Cook</th>
<th>Pastry cook</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Managing personnel</td>
<td>48%</td>
<td>37%</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td></td>
<td>13%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analyzing market, search for channels of service promotion</td>
<td>36%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychological competencies</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td></td>
<td>41%</td>
<td>26%</td>
<td>88%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organization, motivation, control, planning</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technology and standards of cooking</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>71%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Application of the research results

In the context of creation of higher school of hotel service eight of the key functions were chosen as target ones:

1. Hotel manager
2. Front office manager
3. Head of sales
4. Restaurant manager
5. Waiter
6. Cook
7. Receptionist
8. Sales manager
For those functions the classifier of professional activities, composed of
tasks, actions and competencies necessary for accomplishing them, were elabo-
rated. Based on research results and the classifiers, the process of renovation
and creation of the new educational programs took place. Those improved ed-
ucational programs now operate on the platform of the “Studio of the Hospital-
ity Excellence” (SIGMa). The SIGMa is a dynamic, advanced and modern tech-
nology conscious educational centre, which offers unique for Russian Feder-
tion model of training. Learning techniques applying in SIGMa suggest three
types of studies:

- Lections
- Laboratorial studies in the applied hotel
- Practical studies in the applied hotel

Practical studies for students took part in working places, they are com-
municating directly with the guests of the hotel and are watched after by the
tutors. During three years students learn competencies corresponding to func-
tions of the three levels:

1 level - waiter, receptionist, sales manager and maid;
2 level - front office manager, head of sales, restaurant hall manager;
3 level – hotel and restaurant manager.

On the second and third levels as one of the learning techniques so called
“shadow” principle is used, which means that the student works together with
the manager and manager in his turn delegate some of his functions to the stu-
dent. Thus the managers of hotels and restaurants act like tutors during practi-
cal studies, control the process itself and also took large part in evaluation of
learning outcomes of the students. All levels should be passed firstly across
and then vertically, so the student could master all key hotel and restaurant
functions. All practical studies took place on the platform of the applied hotel
“Yekaterinburg-Tsentralny”. “Yekaterinburg-Tsentralny” is a three-star busi-
ness hotel that is situated in the centre of the city. The hotel has 96 rooms, 2
conference-halls, business centre, lobby bar and restaurant “Savoy” which pro-
vide its guests. The SIGMA mission is to form successful, goal-seeking and
competent professionals, easily adapting to the conditions of the modern, dy-
namically developing tourism and hospitality market.
References


Site du projet ESHA “Création de 4 écoles supérieures hôtelières d’application” - http://www.tempus-esh.eu/

Материалы региональной научно-практической конференции «Гостиничный бизнес:
Abstract

Since the contributions of meetings and conventions industry are well-known, destinations are in an endeavour of improving this segment of tourism through the implementation of various marketing practices including one of the most effective: branding. Despite the fact that branding had become the ‘rescuer’ of many destinations, just in less than a decade, the uncontrollable demand of the destinations, put this effective marketing strategy into an insufficient situation as many destinations around the world sell themselves in very similar ways, consequently lose their uniqueness. Mone and McKinley (1993) describe the ‘innovativeness’ as the very first outcome of uniqueness value. Besides, current changes in the tourism demand, including sophistication of tourists’ tastes and preferences, the pervasive global competition and the attendant change in tourism enterprises and destinations’ strategies and last but not least, the growing emphasis on tourists’ experience all argue compellingly for a greater emphasis on innovation within the tourism industry. Due to this uniqueness paradox as well as such changes, this paper aims to investigate the essence of innovation in branding meetings tourism destinations for the purposes of sustaining the uniqueness.

Key words: branding, meetings and conventions, destination marketing.

Introduction

When branding has first emerged as a phenomenal strategy for marketing destinations, brand and its components (such as image or identity) had been investigated extensively (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Hosany et al., 2006; Quet et al., 2011). As time passed, the focus moved from the formation of the brand and a trend to ‘flexibilisation’ of the tourist product by a form of customisation has emerged, despite the pressure from tourist operators who still advocate packages of mass tourism (Stamboulis & Skayannis, 2003). Promoting the local food as a means of tourism or improving meetings tourism are the examples of diversifying the tourism product for the purposes of differentiation (Hashimoto & Telfer, 2006).

Nevertheless, due to increasing competition, these diversified forms of tourism also need innovation in their applications. Hjalager (2002, 2010) has an ex-
tensive research on innovation in service industries. She introduces *product/service innovations* as they consist of changed or entirely new products, to give several examples of new tourism products; loyalty programmes, environmentally sustainable accommodation facilities or events based on local traditions. She also claims that *institutional innovations* represents the collaborative and regulatory structures in small or large communities this can be transactions between public and private sector, and sets out new rules of the game.

In the present situation, innovation in destination branding has shifted from product innovation to institutional innovation (Hjalager, 2002, 2010) as creating an image or new products for destinations has lost its popularity and communities, cities, states, nations and regions became more willing to adopt strategic business management concepts and tools (Gertner, 2011); such as corporate branding where the emphasis is on internal communication and stakeholders as well as the strategic plans for tourism development in a given area (including the interests of the locals) played a role in the creation of the communication efforts of branding strategies (Balakrishnan, 2009; d’Angella & Go, 2009; Therkelsen, 2003). Consequently, throughout this study, it is aimed to evaluate the implementation of the branding strategies to meetings tourism destinations, to identify the phases of those branding strategies in which and how the innovation can be implemented for the purposes of sustaining the uniqueness of the meetings tourism destinations. And finally, in what ways meetings tourism destinations may innovate their branding strategies are expected to be demonstrated among the results of this research.

**Literature Review**

Destinations can be subject to various ways of branding implementations for various purposes. Kavaratzis and Ashworth (2005) treat destination branding as a form of place management through creating an identity with the destination’s experiential value and through minding the interests of different user groups of the destination. First if all, Hatch and Schultz (2003) introduces corporate branding as a blending of corporate and cultural values with marketing practices. This strategy conceptualises the brand’s identity in terms of its vision and culture, which drive its desired positioning, personality and the subsequent relationships, all of which are presented to reflect stakeholders’ actual and aspirational self-images (De Chernatony, 1999).

Corporate branding theory finds its origin in the product branding, yet since the destinations can also be considered as organisations to be managed, the theory provides a basis for destination marketers (Appel-Meulenbroeket al.,
2010; Trueman et al., 2004). Anholt (2007) argues that an external promise to the marketplace has little meaning if it isn’t shared and lived out within the internal structures, processes and culture of the organisations”. Accordingly, regarding the plurality of interests within destinations (Warnaby et al., 2002), corporate branding discusses that there is a strong relationship between the communication of a brand to the external stakeholders and its communication to the internal stakeholders in the search for success.

Pike (2009) argues that where goods and services are perceived to come or be delivered from is integral to their brand identities and the facets with which branding processes might work. This leads to another form of branding applied to destination – co-branding that attempts to market iconic local assets by associating them with a place that is assumed to have attributes beneficial to the image of the product (Kavaratzis and Ashworth; 2005). Additionally, umbrella branding which refers to a brand that provides value to another brand by endorsements of substance and credibility is also a common practice that applies to destinations (Aaker & Joachimstaler, 2000, cited in Flagestad & Hope, 2001; Therkelsen & Halkier, 2008; Flagestad & Hope, 2001).

Umbrella branding can be applied to a destination on two different levels; first, a destination brand may consist of various relatively smaller destinations’ brands within that destination and secondly a brand can be applied to different industries of the same destination. In the latter one, place branding takes a cross-sectoral form because Therkelsen & Halkier (2008) suggests tourism as one of the sectors that a destination develops under the same umbrella among other industries for various purposes target groups such as business investors, new residents as well as tourists. In this case branding functions as an umbrella for a wide range of functional activities ‘taking place’ in a particular locale, therefore inter-organisational relations between promotional bodies in different sectors of activity gain importance (Therkelsen & Halkier, 2008).

Due to the unique characteristics of a tourism destination, destination branding can be interpreted as a complex marketing and management task; hence it should represent a great range of tangible and intangible attributes of a geographic location and the value of diverse destination stakeholders (Tasci & Kozak, 2006; Wagner & Peters, 2009). Accordingly, it is important to point out that, the decision of applying what strategy to a destination depends on many determinants stemming from destination’s characteristics and the stakeholders’ perceptions and expectations.
Methodology

Data has been collected in four emerging meetings tourism destinations in Denmark and Øresund Region are studied; those are (as shown in the map on the left) North Zealand, Southern Denmark (the island of Fyn and southern part of Jutland) and the island of Bornholm of Denmark and the city of Malmö (in the south-west coast of Sweden, in the Øresund Region).

Data collection methods were semi-structure interviews and document analysis. The interviews were conducted with five participants who were the representatives of destination management organisations (DMOs) and convention bureaus (CVBs) of mentioned areas. Document analysis included strategies for leisure tourism and/or business tourism (if applicable), statistics provided by these organisations and various other relevant documentation. Additionally, Malmö case study is only based on the interviews. DMO and the CVB preferred not to share any documents since the brand had not been launched at the time of this research was conducted. The research question of this project consists of three dimensions.

- To demonstrate various implementations of branding strategies to meetings tourism destinations.
• To identify the phases of destination branding strategies in which innovation can be implemented.
• To examine in what ways the innovation is implemented in those identified phases.

Findings

Where and How to Implement the Innovation?

Through this study five main phases of destination branding strategy that innovation can be implemented are identified as product development, brand creation, target market segmentation, organisational structuring and brand communication.

Product/Service Development

While developing new tourism products, SyddanskTurisme demonstrated an example for co-branding through the use of H.C. Andersen and Lego brands in association with the tourism products offered within Inspiring Denmark brand presents an example for this:

‘We will work with the little packages with H.C Andersen and Lego; for instance, everybody knows Lego, it is a brand, so what we use it for that their robotic products and we recently used them for teambuilding, event building, making things more interesting. This is what we are working on… building product packages which can be offered by any hotels which our member partners here…’ (Interview with representative of SyddanskTurisme)

This shows that SyddanskTurisme was aware of the fact that the iconic brands that were associated with the region would strengthen and would help to create an awareness of the destination brand (Kavaratzis & Ashworth, 2005). Besides, North Zealand also used co-branding in order to differentiate tourism products offered by the destination as it was seen in the logos that are used for specific target markets (such as culinary tourism market, meetings and conventions tourism market). Therefore, Southern Denmark and North Zealand cases present examples for product/service innovation that is suggested by Hjalager (2002).

Brand Creation

Malmö case study can be cited as an example for innovative brand creation because a challenge occurred as the city lacks of unique selling propositions (USPs) such as natural beauty or rich historical background:
'...Malmö lacks the USPs, like in the northern part of Sweden you have snow, you have winter and in Stockholm you have the capital, and the castle and ... the Archipelago and Gothenburg also has USPs but Malmö lacks those USPs that we want to be able to promote, it would be just so easy if we had like three things which are really USP. because when you describe Malmö, you can just put another city name instead of Malmö because many cities are quite similar so that’s why we are doing this big marketing strategy to be able to sell Malmö in unique way...' (Interview with the representative of Malmö CVB)

Therefore, Malmö Tourism and Malmö CVB decided to identify the competitive advantages in order to build the brand upon. Regarding these competitive advantages (so as they identified: location in the Øresund Region, close proximity to Copenhagen city and the airport, easy access within the city, cosy and friendly atmosphere), the most important competitive advantage of the city was found as the ability to provide a combination of friendly, cosy and vibrant urban life and calm, relaxed and fresh experiences within the nature. So, since it has not been implemented yet, the attempted brand image of Malmö was innovative in the way it turns the disadvantages into advantage and due to the lack of USPs, brand is aimed to be built on the competitive advantages rather than using the physical assets of the city.

Within the literature brand identity is claimed to convey values that are linked to the destination’s sense of place (Williams et al., 2004). However, Inspiring Denmark was the only destination brand, which was built not only on the assets of the destination but also on the characteristics of the targeted market as the brand embodied the meanings attributed specifically to meetings tourism. This stemmed from the ability of the destination to identify the target market and brand touch points that had a better chance to attract the target market. And the logo(see Figure 2) constituted the large cluster of ideas bubbling around the region and the green colour signalled the nature, meaning that meetings were possible everywhere in the region close to the nature (Strategi for erhvervsturismen i den syddanske region, 2010-2013; 2010, p. 32-33). Therefore, Inspiring Denmark presents an example for innovative brand creation because it contradicts to the existing literature as the brand is a harmony of destination’s USPs and the target market’s characteristics.
Target market segmentation

Southern Denmark, Malmö and Bornholm cases identified their target market as the meeting and conferences in which the focus was more on the natural sciences and sustainability and environmental issues. This stemmed from the strength which these destinations had of in the universities and the institutions in these destinations:

‘…and we also have Malmö Högskola…we have big hospital, we have research centres therefore we think we can really improve in the congress market.’ (Interview with the representative of Malmö CVB)

The above statement shows that Malmö believed that the research on the sustainability and natural sciences in the educational institutions of the city was one of the areas that the city was strong at therefore association meetings or corporation specialised in this field were predominantly targeted.

‘Actually, before we have worked quite a lot with the corporate...we are getting these new venues so we’re improving our work towards congresses and also because …we think we are stronger in that way because in the corporate meetings we don’t have any incentive products in Malmö compared to the rest of Skåne, Malmö is a bigger city which suit better for bigger meetings, like congresses…’ (Interview with the representative of Malmö CVB)

As it is seen in the above statement, the change in the target market also stemmed from the infrastructural improvements. Therefore, innovation in this
phase underlies in the ability to target the fields that the destination is stronger as well as accommodate to the improvements such as physical changes.

**Organisational Structuring**

The findings of this project demonstrated that organising the managing bodies for destination branding can also be innovated. Southern Denmark presented an example for this as the managing organisation that was the Business Department of SyddanskTurisme offered different membership packages for the various stakeholders (such as Package A, B, C). The key factor was that this organisational structure gave the members the chance for setting the goals and the objectives of the development strategy rather than SyddanskTurisme set the goals itself and expected members to accept those goals. In other words, SyddanskTurisme acted as an assisting and/or catalysing organisation rather than an executing or operating organisation and the strategy was clear and transparent towards the stakeholders therefore members were aware of the responsibilities and every phase of the development. As it is seen in below statements, Malmö CVB aimed to create similar kind of networking together with the association ‘Destinationssamverkan’:

‘Actually, within the meetings, we have the collaboration that is called Destinationssamverkan. It is an association that the stakeholders have put together, they pay a kind of fee depending on their annual profits…and they have one person who is hired there and who is working with us’ (Interview with the representative of Malmö CVB)

‘we have a group in Malmö tourism that works with the product development that tries to get the hotels and the venues and everyone to gather and try to find new products and they are just in the very first stage of this project but we want to improve and to have the unique products...’ (Interview with the representative of Malmö CVB)

By doing so, members had a word in the development and were encouraged to be proactive within the network. Such involvement resulted in an increase in the stakeholders’ participation in the implementation of the strategy (Govers & Go, 2009). This phase presents an example for institutional innovation suggested by Hjalager (2002) as cases presented here involves the change in organisational structuring of tourism industry, in particular meetings tourism segment.
Brand communication

The communication of the brand appeared in the findings in two levels. First level refers to the internal communication whereas second level composes the external communications of the brand. On the first level, Southern Denmark provided an example as the created brand was communicated internally towards the stakeholders through internal marketing materials in order to convince more stakeholders to become members and contribute to the development strategy and secondly, deriving from the internal communication, stakeholders were encouraged to sustain the external communication of the brand:

‘…we say to them (to the stakeholders) okay destination is king and you’re industries’ soldiers so you have to give up your own brand in order to make the destination the king. This is typical advantage you have in any destination…’ (Interview with the representative of SyddanskTurisme)

Besides, SyddanskTurisme encouraged a total involvement of various stakeholders by letting them setting the goals and the objectives of the strategy. The second level of communication that was the external communication appeared as the use word-of-mouth (WOM) and local ambassadors. Bornholm case demonstrated an example for the use of WOM through creating narratives which were told by every single individual of the island in every possible occasion as demonstrated below:

‘We assist the brand, when we relate positive tales to the co-passengers on the flight. When we visit family in Copenhagen and boast a bit about affordable house prices…When we write letters to the editor…When we offer our new neighbours a cup of coffee…’ (Bright Green Island Bornholm-2014; 2009, p. 8)

This is an example for the use of word-of-mouth that consists of the activities that are likely to encourage consumers to talk about a product or a company, to their friends and neighbours, setting in motion a chain of communication that could branch out through the whole community (Mason, 2008). Bornholm aimed this towards all segments of potential customers including new residents, new investors as well as tourists.

Additionally, particularly in meetings tourism destinations, destination marketers also tend to use the professionals of a specific field to lobby for the destination for future meetings and conferences. For instance, SyddanskTurisme worked extensively in collaboration with academics, professionals in specific fields who were also members of international associations. These were
ambassadors who could speak out the message and could do the lobbying in the search for attracting more meetings to the region.

‘...We go to the knowledge persons at universities, academies and colleges and we go to the hospitals and try to influence them (the ambassadors)... tell them that how and what can we do for them and try to make them understand they should place the next conference or congress in our region. So we are trying to build a kind of a loyalty in our own region and let them be our ambassadors in the international market...’ (Interview with the representative of SyddanskTurisme)

Malmö adopted the same approach towards the brand communication:

‘we’re trying to identify local ambassadors, the people who work in these big organisations that are involved in big associations and maybe it is a member of the board therefore can promote Malmö as a destination for their upcoming congress so we want to find these people in Malmö and in Skåne to have them say ‘next time we have this congress do you want to come to Malmö?’ And we want to help these ambassadors, to provide them with information to bid for the congress so we are doing pretty much work at home right now, trying to get them to know us...’ (Interview with the representative of Malmö CVB)

In addition to this, since the CVB was newly organised in Malmö in 2009, the bureau’s first aim was to secure its plays as a balancing organisation and to be given importance to its ‘uniting’ characteristics by establishing a completely open communication. The role that CVB was initially adopted is clearly demonstrated in the following quotes:

‘...we also want people to know about the convention bureau...we will start to communicate what we are doing more and showing our existence like other cities at least on the Swedish market because they are communicating a lot more than we do in the industry by for instance a newsletter, just to let people know in the Swedish market what they are doing...We haven’t been doing that up till now but we start doing that and get
our message more and I am sure when Sweden notice us more, it will make a big change. Just by doing things that we are not doing things, it will change…” (Interview with the representative of Malmö Tourism)

As these examples shows, innovation underlies in the ability to link the internal and external communication of a brand by communicating the brand to the locals who can communicate it to the potential markets. In essence, internal communication is a form of internal marketing of the brand, therefore when the destination marketers put enormous effort on communicating the brand internally there is a paradox occurs on the local ambassadors and how to approach them so as it urges the question of whether they are the target market or the middlemen to convey the destination’s brand to the target market.

Discussion

Classifying the Implementation of Destination Branding Strategies

According to the findings of this study, destination branding strategies can be classified into two main groups: market-oriented implementation and stakeholders-oriented implementation. The following table summarises the types of implementation and the phases suitable for innovation. Firstly, market-oriented implementation of the branding strategy takes the market into its core and implements the strategy from an outside-in approach whereas stakeholders-oriented implementation focuses more on a deeper development from an inside-out approach in which internal network and the role of stakeholders gain importance.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type Of Implementation</th>
<th>Where</th>
<th>How</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Product Development</td>
<td>Co-branding (Through local iconic assets, such as H.C. Andersen, Lego)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turning disadvantages into advantages</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Target Market Segmentation</td>
<td>Brand Creation</td>
<td>Based upon the target market characteristics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Focusing on the field of strengths</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisational Structuring</td>
<td></td>
<td>Following the trends</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Giving the opportunity to everyone to participate/manage</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stakeholders-Oriented Imple-</td>
<td>Internal</td>
<td>WOM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mentation</td>
<td>Brand Communication</td>
<td>External</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Local Ambassadors</td>
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</table>
The cases studied in this project present the examples of this classification. For instance, North Zealand showed the hints of market oriented implementation as the external communication gets more attention from the managing organisation whilst, Malmö and Bornholm preferred to adopt corporate branding in which the focus was on organising and the role of stakeholders rather than the external communication of the brand. SyddanskTurisme case presented evidence from both implementation categories. The stakeholders were encouraged to be active members of the branding process as well as they were mobilised to conduct the external communication of the brand.

Consequently, North Zealand case used the branding strategy as a communication tool whereas Malmö and Bornholm had more detailed approach in which branding strategy constituted the core of the development (Kavaratzis & Ashworth, 2005). Besides, Southern Denmark was the only case that implemented a specific branding strategy to business tourism in which a total development was aimed through branding in meetings tourism.

In essence, as mentioned earlier, if more importance is given to internal communication of the brand and massive efforts are put on marketing the brand towards the stakeholders, destination may lose the track of the market while their competitors increase their market share. In contrast, if more of the effort is put into the external communication and the role of the stakeholders is neglected, the brand may lose the consistency to the stakeholders’ vision which can result in weakening the brand. Therefore, regarding the emphasis on the consistency between the image and the cultural perception of a destination (Hatch & Schultz, 2003) it is important to point out that the success of a destination’s brand underlies the ability to synchronise the internal and the external brand management processes.

Choosing the Best-Fit Strategy for Destinations

Destinations may prefer to implement one single branding strategy as well as they can create different combinations of more than one branding strategy in the search of the best-fit choice. For instance, on one hand, as it is demonstrated earlier, North Zealand preferred to apply co-branding. On the other hand, Bornholm case appears as an example for both corporate branding and umbrella branding. While the brand was being created the inhabitants’ beliefs and perceptions on Bornholm was given importance:

‘In a series of public meetings in the autumn of 2007, we asked Bornholmers what, in their opinion, was the strongest aspect of Bornholm’s identity…There is a deep felt love
of the Bornholm nature… a pride in the island’s unrivalled character and the rock solid belief that the island’s nature has an indelible influence on those that live on and visit the island.’ (Bright Green Island Bornholm-2014; 2009, p. 4)

As it is seen above the brand image and the identity that the inhabitants believed Bornholm had was parallel therefore, this is congruent to corporate branding introduced in the earlier chapter (Hatch & Schultz, 2003; de Chernatony, 1999) In addition to this, the hints of umbrella branding were also seen in this example as branding strategy not only applied to tourism but also used for attracting new residents and investors which was consistent to what Therkelsen & Halkier’s (2008) claim that tourism can work integrated with other industries. Southern Denmark presented another example for combining the branding strategies. As shown earlier, the use of H.C. Andersen and Lego brands presented co-branding whereas corporate branding appeared in Inspiring Denmark brand as:

‘…last year we built a strategy for professional tourism (referring to business tourism) and this strategy is the first strategy in Denmark where we, in fact, were facilitating the strategy but we would not set up the goals we wanted the tourism players to define the goals, we wanted them to define the activities and we wanted them to define the strategy. So, in this sense we are facilitating the marketing aspect of this plan and we are facilitating the innovation part of this plan so we are kind of facilitating organisation and try to let the tourism industry take a lead in the world…’ (Interview with the representative of SyddanskTurisme)

Besides, saying that SyddanskTurisme recognised the importance of their members, the brand was derived from the assets that the stakeholders believed and found a part of themselves in. This presents another example for the fundamentals of the corporate branding strategy.

The literature provides the destinations with various types of branding strategies. Destinations may decide to implement one of these strategies or they can choose the best-fit combination depending on the characteristics of the destinations and the aims of the strategy. In essence, when a closer look is taken at the components of the brands used by the destinations presented in this project, none of them were unique for these destinations. It is very possible to find the same attributes in other destinations in the world, thus, they seldom differentiate themselves. However, what makes them unique is the way that their brands are configured. By using the similar determinants but twisting them in different ways, destinations may achieve successful brand creation. Therefore, the decision of what strategy to apply to the destinations is crucial. In fact, this de-
cision itself is innovation because one combination of strategies, that works for a destination the best, may not work for another destination at all. Therefore, what makes the destinations unique is the ability to decide on the optimum configuration of the available branding strategies.

**Conclusion**

The focus of this project was the implementation of branding strategies to meetings tourism destinations. Surprisingly, it was found out that only one out of four investigated cases implemented a tailor made branding strategy for meetings tourism industry. In the rest of the cases, meetings tourism brand was covered by an umbrella brand for the destination together with leisure tourism and other industries than tourism. Due to the focus of this study, the data was collected in the emerging meetings tourism destinations. However, the findings did not show any major characteristics of meetings tourism. Therefore, perhaps the results of this project may apply to any kind of destination in search of applying branding strategy which is open to further research.

Results of this project, particularly findings on the organisational structuring and the approaches of managing organisations, give the hints of the fact that leadership types (Mills et al., 2009) can applied to the managing bodies in destinations. However, these findings require a deeper analysis which was not possible in this project and left for further investigation. Besides, the extent of innovation should also be investigated in another research study because an innovative activity for a destination does not necessarily provide innovation to another destination. Perhaps the reason for this is innovation itself is a dynamic process due to the new advances in consumer behaviour and technology and trends of today’s global world, hence, not every destinations have the same competences and resources to implement the same level of innovation in their branding strategies.

Despite the fact that data collection has provided this project with invaluable knowledge it should be pointed out that the innovation which was identified in this project cannot be measurable by the time this project was carried out. This stems from the fact that all strategies investigated here were implemented less than a year ago therefore, there was no time to measure or monitor the success of the innovation in these strategies. Finally, the analysis of this project was made on four business tourism destinations, therefore analysing more cases may provide different examples of implementation of innovation and branding strategy.
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VisitNordsjælland, “Mere for Flere Strategi 2011-2013”


Identification of Tourism Infrastructure Obstacles of Iran Using a Delphi Technique

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Abstract
The main purpose of this study was to identify the infrastructure barriers of developing tourism in Chahar Mahal va Bakhtiari province. A Delphi method was used for this study and experts in tourism field were selected as the target group. Purposeful sampling and snowball selection method were applied for the research (identify the experts). The findings demonstrated that the members of Delphi panel eventually characterized 25 factors as most decisive infrastructure barriers of tourism development in Chahar Mahal va Bakhtiari province, which some of the most important of them include: lack of tourism-related facilities, failure to complete and expedite the process of tourism infrastructure, lack of proper priorities in providing infrastructure and actions based on state, funds in non-expertise ideas, lack of grading scheme and tourism center with ISO global standards, lack of basic facilities like good accommodation in tourist centers, lack of planning, lack of attention to the principles of sustainability, lack of investment required to develop tourism infrastructure, relying on state resources and lack of private sector interest, lack of basic study and thus improper locating some facilities in the tourism center.

Key words: tourism development, tourism infrastructure, delphi technique.

Introduction
The main objective of this article is to examine challenges to tourism development in the context of the Iran with special references to Chaharmahal va bakhtiari province. However, it should be noted here that it may not be possible to understand all factors that related to challenges of tourism development
because of formidable difficulties to obtain information about infrastructures and non-availability of documents about tourism issues in this province this paper is based upon the author’s observation and interview with experts in some stages. We then consider challenges to tourism development in the province by Delphi method. According to the reports published by the World Tourism Organization, the most countries’ revenue has been rapidly increasing in the recent years. Tourism industry is the third dynamic growing phenomenon after oil and automobile industries and OECD\(^1\) has introduced it as the second service sector in international trade after banking industry (OECD, 2005).

Based on a 20-years outlook document of Socioeconomic Development of Iran, until 2025, Iran is estimated to have about 20 million foreign tourists. Also, enhancement of Iran’s share of global tourism revenue from 0.7 percent in 2004 to two percent in 2025 is expected. Therefore, Iran should gain nearly 25 billion dollars in 2025 as annual revenue from tourism (Darvazeh News, 2011). Statistics show that the tourism revenue in 2010 has been approximately 2.4 billion dollars in Iran which is equal with 2.5 percent of total Iranian exports. According to the prediction of global travel organization in 2020 it will reach 5.1 billion dollars that is equals with 2.5 percent of total Iranian exports. (WTO, 2011) Tourism has almost twice benefits comparing oil industry, and the proper use of Iran’s tourism capacities is obviously very beneficial (Aftab News, 2010). Based on the World Tourism Organization, on average more than 600 million persons visit the landmarks of various countries annually; where Iran’s share is only two million visitors. This report clearly reveals the extent to which Iran’s status with all its unique climate and historical characteristics is left behind and needs to enhanced to its deserved level (WTO, 2008). World Travel and Tourism Council also has examined tourism impact on economy in 181 countries including Iran until 2020, and has estimated undesirable situation for the future of Iran’s tourism (World travel and tourism council, 2009). Tourism can be assumed a developmental tool for rural areas; because, it can serve as a new outsourcing, improving local economic situation and also as a strategy for poverty alleviation (Breidenhann & Wickens, 2004; Fossati & Panella, 2000; Giaoutzi & Nijkamp, 2006; Lee & Chang, 2008). Tourism development can play a role in employment increase and enhancing villagers’ income (Sebele, 2010).

Tourism and rural development are two closely related phenomena and have interactions together (Arntzen & Setlhgile et al., 2007). It is greatly confirmed that tourism has many potential advantages for rural areas (Frederick,
Tourism can provide employment opportunities for non-metrocommunities, particularly for those that are economically underdeveloped. Because having jobs in the tourism industry often do not require sophisticated training, local residents with only basic and little skills can willingly work as food servers, retail sellers, and hospitality workers. Tourism not only presents business opportunities to local residents, but also serves as a facilitator for marketing a place to potential residents and firms, as today’s tourist may return later to the village for retirement or possibly wants to start a business locally (Brown, 2003).

Calculating the economic influences of tourism is a common topic in the literature. Stynes (2000, p.10) notes that most impact analyses are related to measuring changes in local sales, income, and regional employment resulting from tourism, though, It is hard to generalize specific economic effects since they very much depend on a variety of local parameters. Goldman and Nakazawa (1994) have provided a nine step procedure to determine income multipliers and estimate local economic impacts derived from tourism, while Johnson and Thomas (1990, p. 45) offer a framework for estimating local employment effects of a museum in England and conclude that the capitalization is really vital for developing district tourism. The main purpose of this study is then to identify outstanding obstacles of tourism development in Chehar-Mahal & Bakhtiari province of Iran using a Delphi Technique.

Weaver (1986, p. 442) notes: "tourism can not only result in enhanced employment opportunities, increased income potential for local residents, diversification of the local economic base, and additional tax revenues for rural areas, but it can also raise community visibility, and add cultural opportunities for residents". These non-economic benefits are also discussed by Jurowski (1996, p.112), who argues that tourism, if well planned, can enhance local environmental resources. Some others have cautioned that while tourism has been a high-growth industry in recent years, it has its own disadvantages and often produces low-paying, part-time, and seasonal jobs (Bontron & Lasnier, 1997, p. 429). Strategic development enterprisers, in the light of the findings, suggest for the future development of the tourism industry in the area to include tourism product development with a focus on attractions; the identification of key market sectors such as budget tourists and the family market; destination and product marketing; investment in tourism infrastructure and ensuring the responsible management of tourism development in the area (Booyens & Visser, 2010). Tourism infrastructure is the transport supply chain, social and envi-
ronmental infrastructure cooperating at a regional level to generate a target including:

- Transport facilities which provide visitor's access from national and international market sources to target areas; and they consist of airports, main roads and rails.

- Social facilities which include available/reserved rooms to accommodate visitors and physical structures for exhibitions, events and services that catch the attention of tourists. This infrastructure includes hotels, convention centers, stadiums, galleries and tourist precincts in a destination.

- Environmental facilities which encompasses national parks, marine and reserved parks, including visitors' facilities.

- Collaborative facilities which is the regional networks, state and national tourism organizations that support marketing activities in the area and dispense tourism products. (TTF, -)

Fallon and Kriwoken (2002) discuss resolutions for ecotourism problems through preparation of visitors' centers that reflect public attitudes, expectations and consciousness (Fallon & Kriwoken, 2002). While many researchers have acknowledged the need for well-organized transportation means in a successful development program, little empirical studies support this hypothesis. The effect of transport assets on total entered visitors and on arrivals from Europe/America, Asia, and Africa into the island of Mauritius was probed in a panel data scaffold. This paper discovers that the transport infrastructure of the island has been influencing positively on number of tourists, particularly from Europe/America and Asia. Moreover relative prices, distance, and income level in the origin countries are important factors in the demand equation (Khadaroo & Seetanah, 2007).

Some scholars (Chew, 1987; Gunn, 1988; Inskeep, 1991; Martin & Witt, 1988 among others) have often debated that a country's infrastructure base is a determinant factor for tourism attractiveness of the specific area. Furthermore, transportation means are presumed to be important determinant for tourism industry (Khadaroo & Seetanah, 2008). The main objective of this article is to examine tourism development challenges in Iran with a focus on Chaharmahal va bakhtiari province. However, is it is not claimed in the paper that all tourism development determinant factors in have been addressed. Because of unavoidable difficulties to obtain information about tourism infrastructures and unavailability of required tourism documents in the province, this research
was accomplished principally based upon author’s observations and interviews with experts and a Delphi technique was applied as the research method.

**Methodology**

This study’s design is a qualitative method (with Delphi technique), which focuses on a population of 25 experts in tourism and eco-tourism who were working in Cheharmahal & Bakhtiari province located in south west of Iran. Data collection was done in four rounds using Delphi technique. Delp, Thesen, Motiwalla and Seshadri (1977) have described Delphi technique as a group process used to solicit, collate, and direct expert responses toward reaching consensus. Helmer (1966, p.46) has also described this technique as a method of securing and refining group opinions and substituting computed consensus for an agreed-upon majority opinion. Stufflebeam, McCormick, Binkerhoff, and Nelson (1985, 125) have noted that Delphi technique is especially effective in obtaining consensus from a purposively selected group of experts. In this study, a series of four self-completion postal questionnaires were employed. The first round was consisted of a questionnaire with this open-ended question: “What are major tourism Infrastructure problems in Ch & Ba (Cheharmahal & Bakhtiari) province?” This question created a wide array of response categories. Responses were then categorized in 28 categories in order to provide more specific items for the second round questionnaire, in which respondents were asked to rate the items identified in round one using a five-point Likert-type scale (1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Uncertain, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree). The responses of the second round presented a list of new and more focused categories, which were reduced to 25 items. In the 3rd step of Delphi technique, the participants were asked to provide a dichotomous indication of whether they agree or disagree with the fact that each of listed problems could be assumed as indicator for Infrastructure tourism problems. The results showed a consensus on all 25 statements.

**Results**

Data were analyzed using descriptive statistics. Since the data were collected by Likert-type scales, they were treated as interval measures and then means, standard deviations and CV were calculated with the help of SPSS statistical software. Additionally, nominal data were reported using frequencies and percentages. As it was already noted, this study sought to identify Infrastructure obstacles of tourism development in Ch & Ba Province of Iran using a Delphi technique. The first phase of this research sought to identify major Infrastructure obstacles of tourism development in Ch & Ba Province. Table 1 contains a
brief list of problems identified in round one. Total response rate for the first round of the study was 88%.

Table 1. Delphi technique - round one

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>n</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Failure to complete and expedite the process of tourism infrastructure</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of tourism-related facilities in many desired and potential areas for Tourism</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of attention to the principles of sustainability and degradation of nature</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of proper priorities in providing infrastructure and actions based on state funds in non-expertise ideas</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of grading scheme and tourism center with ISO global standards</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of investment required to develop tourism infrastructure with high capabilities and the direction of giving credit to some irrational focus of special centers of tourism</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of planning in three brief period in short, middle and long term and to develop tourism</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack basic facilities like good accommodation in tourist centers</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not using some of the existing infrastructure available in the province, such as not using Rokh col</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of basic study and thus improper locating some facilities in the tourism center that has no justification</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of infrastructure such as railways</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>People familiar sight inappropriately towards infrastructure and the lack of investment in this case</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relying on state resources and lack of private sector interest exploitation of existing infrastructure</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-use of water resources and water roaring in the province</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of proper infrastructure in the province of residential and non-continuous supervision over the existing infrastructure</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Most restrictions Province is related to poor infrastructure in the province, such as lack of suitable flights, lack of appropriate ways, the lack of integrated services - welfare matters on roads etc.</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traditional attitudes towards the city and the lack of adequate urban infrastructure</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of urban decoration</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of adequate lighting in streets, parks and tourism centers</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inconsistencies and inharmonious in infrastructure projects</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No using the mountain camp to attract tourists</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Province weak infrastructure in the case of artificial attractions</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disproportion operation volume with the amount of infrastructure investment and the number of beneficiary (tourists)</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The most important infrastructure is management in various sectors</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of telecommunications infrastructure and introduction of numerous streets and areas in the Shahre Kord and tips to tourists (on mobile)</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of entrance roads to the province, and good quality infrastructure</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of full coverage of mobile phone lines in several regions of the province and Tourism centers</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of roads and communication routes to reach the tourist attractions</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In round two, respondents were asked to rate the Infrastructure Obstacles for Tourism Development identified in round one on a five-point Likert type scale (1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Uncertain, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree). Respondents were also asked to make any changes, if necessary, within the items in order to better clarify the indicators, Results of responses collected from round two are displayed in table 2.
As noted in Table 2, respondents either agreed or were uncertain about 28 items in round two. Respondents agreed that 25 of the items were important obstacles (Mean of 25 items > 2/50), but expressed their views as “uncertain” on the three statements (Mean of 3 items < 2/50). A number of 22 persons out of 25 members returned questionnaires in round three with a response rate of 88%. Table 3 exhibits the results of this round.
Table 3. Delphi Round Three. Level of Agreement with obstacles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Agree (%)</th>
<th>Disagree (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lack of tourism-related facilities in many desired and potential areas for Tourism</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Failure to complete and expedite the process of tourism infrastructure</td>
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<td>Lack of proper priorities in providing infrastructure and actions based on state funds in non-expertise ideas</td>
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<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not using some of the existing infrastructure available in the province, such as not using Rokh col</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-use of water resources and water roaring in the province</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
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<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of urban decoration</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disproportion operation volume with the amount of infrastructure investment and the number of beneficiary (tourists)</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of roads and communication routes to reach the tourist attractions</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The main goal of Delphi technique is to reach the saturation point among the experts; therefore, when after running 4th round finally we found exactly the same results (consensus), it was assured that there is no need to continue the study any more.
Conclusion

As described before, after three rounds of Delphi technique, finally 25 real Infrastructure Obstacles in Tourism development in Ch & Ba province were extracted that were perceived by the panel of experts as most crucial obstacles. Taking these barriers into consideration could help tourism policy makers and practitioners to pave the way towards tourism development more effectively.

References


TTF (Tourism and Transport Forum of Australia), Tourism Infrastructure: Policy and Priorities.


Weaver, G. (1986). *Tourism development: A Potential for Economic Growth, Lo*
Identification of Tourism Financial and Capital Obstacles of Chehar-Mahal and Bakhtiari Province, Iran

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Abstract
Chehar-Mahal & Bakhtiari Province with its unique characteristics could be assumed as highly attractive area for tourism and particularly eco-tourism in Iran. Its outstanding geographical and ecological climate and diversity of plant integument has a great attraction for tourism in the region. Nevertheless, there are quite a number of obstacles in the way towards flourishing tourism in the province. The purpose of this study was hence to identify the financial and capital barriers of the tourism in CheharMahal & Bakhtiari province. Findings revealed 16 factors as most decisive financial and capital barriers of the tourism development in CheharMahal & Bakhtiari province.

Keyw ords: financial and capital obstacles, enterprise, Delphi technique.

Introduction
It is largely verified that tourism has many potential benefits for rural areas (Frederick, 1992). Tourism can be an important source of jobs for non-metro communities, especially for those that are economically underdeveloped. Because having jobs in the tourism industry often do not require advanced training, local residents with few skills can readily work as food servers, retail clerks, and hospitality workers. Tourism not only offers business opportunities to local residents, but also it can serve as a vehicle for marketing a place to potential residents and firms, as today’s tourist may return later to retire or start a business locally (Brown, 2003).
Measuring the economic effects of tourism is a popular topic in the literature. Stynes (2000, p.10) notes that most impact analyses are concerned with measuring changes in local sales, income, and regional employment resulting from tourism activity, although specific economic effects are difficult to generalize since they depend on a variety of local factors. Goldman and Nakazawa (1994) provide a nine step process for determining income multipliers to estimate local economic impacts resulting from tourism, while Johnson and Thomas (1990, p.45) offer a framework for estimating local employment effects of a museum in England so the capitalization is really important for developing district tourism. The main purpose of this study is to identify financial and capital obstacles of tourism development in Chehar-Mahal & Bakhtiari province of Iran using a Delphi Technique.

Weaver (1986, p.442) notes that tourism can not only result in enhanced employment opportunities, increased income potential for local residents, diversification of the local economic base, and additional tax revenues for rural areas, but it can also raise community visibility, and add cultural opportunities for residents. These non-economic benefits are also discussed by Jurowski (1996, p. 112), who argues that tourism, if well planned, can enhance local environmental resources.

Some have cautioned that while tourism has been a high-growth industry in recent years, it often produces low-paying, part-time, and seasonal jobs (Bontron & Lasnier, 1997, p.429). However, others point out that such part-time positions offer important opportunities for those rural residents lacking higher education and advanced training since these individuals would generally not qualify for higher-paying, professional positions (Frederick, 1992). Moreover, in many places people may already have part-time or seasonal jobs and tourism can help supplement these workers’ salaries. For example, many farm laborers and some farmers only work during part of the year and can use another job at a different time of the year to make more money. Part-time tourism jobs may also provide needed income to a parent who needs time off to care for family members. High school-age children may also prefer such jobs since their schedules would not accommodate full-time positions. Hence, part-time and seasonal jobs may make the most sense for important segments of the rural population.

**Methodology**

This study’s design is a qualitative method (using Delphi technique), which focuses on a population of 25 experts in tourism and eco-tourism who at the
date of study worked in Cheharmahal & Bakhtiari province located in south west of Iran. Data collection was done in four rounds using Delphi technique. Delp, Thesen, Motiwalla and Seshadri (1977) have described Delphi technique as a group process used to solicit, collate, and direct expert responses toward reaching consensus. Helmer (1966, p.46) has also described this technique as a method of securing and refining group opinions and substituting computed consensus for an agreed-upon majority opinion. Stufflebeam, McCormick, Binkerhoff, and Nelson (1985, p.125) have noted that Delphi technique is especially effective in obtaining consensus from a purposefully selected group of experts. In this study a series of four self-completion postal questionnaires were employed. The first round was consisted of a questionnaire with this open-ended question: “What are major tourism financial problems in Ch & Ba (Cheharmahal & Bakhtiari) province?” This question created a wide array of response categories. Responses were then categorized in 16 groups in order to provide more specific items for the second round questionnaire, in which respondents were asked to rate the items identified in round one using a five-point Likert-type scale (1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Uncertain, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree). The responses of the second round presented a list of new and more focused categories, which were reduced to 14 items. In the 3rd step of Delphi technique, the participants were asked to provide a dichotomous indication of whether they agree or disagree with the fact that each of listed problems could be assumed as indicator for financial tourism problems. The results showed a consensus on all 14 statements.

**Results**

Data were analyzed using descriptive statistics. Since the data were collected by Likert-type scales, they were treated as interval measures and then means, standard deviations and CV were calculated with the help of SPSS statistical software. Additionally, nominal data were reported using frequencies and percentages. As it was already noted, this study sought to identify financial and capital obstacles of tourism development in Ch & Ba Province of Iran using a Delphi technique. The first phase of this research sought to identify major financial and capital obstacles of tourism development in Ch & Ba Province. Table 1 contains a brief list of problems identified in round one. Total response rate for the first round of the study was 88%.
Table 1. Delphi technique - Round One

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Shortage of funds and financial supports</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Lack of a clear diplomacy and plan to attract national or international capitals</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Enterprisers hesitate to spend money in Ch &amp; Ba tourism due to long term return of their capital</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Lack of private capitals (internal or external) allocated to tourism in Ch &amp; Ba province</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Lack of enough knowledge in fund allocation to run the tourism projects</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Lack of appropriate financial security in the region</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Lack of diplomacy to attract the micro local fund</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• No financial supports to underpin international standards (for example: ISO standards)</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Lack of enough fund in region to be spent in tourism projects</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Scattered and insufficient private capitals in the region</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Lack of supports of private enterprises, particularly bank loans' allocations and other banking facilities for private sector</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Lack of deposited fund for development purposes in the province</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Emphasis on governmental financial resources with low benefit</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Lack of a proper and sound national fund allocation policy to distribute funds among the provinces based on their needs and potentials</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Insufficient income generation level in the province as a demoralizing factor for external investors</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Lack of a strong and efficient management to spend tourism budget appropriatively in the province</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In round two, respondents were asked to rate the Financial and Capital Obstacles for Tourism Development identified in round one on a five-point Likert type scale (1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Uncertain, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree). Respondents were also asked to make any changes, if necessary, within the items in order to better clarify the indicators. Results of responses collected from round two are displayed in Table 2.
Table 2. Delphi technique - Round Two

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Obstacles</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>CV</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lack of a clear diplomacy and plan to attract national or international capitals</td>
<td>4/16</td>
<td>0/47</td>
<td>0/11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of private capitals (internal or external) allocated to tourism in Ch &amp; Ba province</td>
<td>4/48</td>
<td>0/59</td>
<td>0/12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enterprisers hesitate to spend money in Ch &amp; Ba tourism due to long term return of their capital</td>
<td>4/16</td>
<td>0/55</td>
<td>0/13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shortage of funds and financial supports</td>
<td>4/28</td>
<td>0/74</td>
<td>0/17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of enough knowledge in fund allocation to run the tourism projects</td>
<td>4/24</td>
<td>0/78</td>
<td>0/18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scattered and insufficient private capitals in the region</td>
<td>4/28</td>
<td>0/84</td>
<td>0/19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of appropriate financial security in the region</td>
<td>4/12</td>
<td>0/78</td>
<td>0/19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of enough fund in region to be spent in tourism projects</td>
<td>4/08</td>
<td>0/86</td>
<td>0/21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of a proper and sound national fund allocation policy to distribute funds among the provinces based on their needs and potentials</td>
<td>4/20</td>
<td>0/96</td>
<td>0/22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No financial supports to underpin international standards (for example: ISO standards)</td>
<td>4/12</td>
<td>1/13</td>
<td>0/27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emphasis on governmental financial resources with low benefit</td>
<td>3/72</td>
<td>1/10</td>
<td>0/29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of diplomacy to attract the micro local fund</td>
<td>3/88</td>
<td>1/16</td>
<td>0/30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of supports of private enterprises, particularly bank loans' allocations and other banking facilities for private sector</td>
<td>3/56</td>
<td>1/16</td>
<td>0/32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of deposited fund for development purposes in the province</td>
<td>3/98</td>
<td>1/36</td>
<td>0/33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insufficient income generation level in the province as a demoralizing factor for external investors</td>
<td>2/36</td>
<td>1/15</td>
<td>0/48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of a strong and efficient management to spend tourism budget appropriatively in the province</td>
<td>2/28</td>
<td>1/13</td>
<td>0/51</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*: (1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Uncertain, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree)
As noted in Table 2, respondents either agreed or were uncertain about 16 items in round two. Respondents agreed that 14 of the items were important obstacles (Mean of 14 items > 2/50), but expressed their views as “uncertain” on the two statements (Mean of 14 items < 2/50). A number of 22 persons out of 25 members returned questionnaires in round three with a response rate of 88%. Table 3 exhibits the results of this round.

Table 3. Delphi round three. level of agreement with obstacles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Agree (%)</th>
<th>Disagree (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lack of a clear diplomacy and plan to attract national or international capitals</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of private capitals (internal or external) allocated to tourism in Ch &amp; Ba province</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enterprisers hesitate to spend money in Ch &amp; Ba tourism due to long term return of their capital</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>88</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of enough knowledge in fund allocation to run the tourism projects</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scattered and insufficient private capitals in the region</td>
<td>84</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>84</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of enough fund in region to be spent in tourism projects</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of a proper and sound national fund allocation policy to distribute funds among the provinces based on their needs and potentials</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No financial supports to underpin international standards (for example: ISO standards)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>24</td>
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<td>Lack of supports of private enterprises, particularly bank loans’ allocations and other banking facilities for private sector</td>
<td>76</td>
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<tr>
<td>Lack of deposited fund for development purposes in the province</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insufficient income generation level in the province as a demoralizing factor for external investors</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of a strong and efficient management to spend tourism budget appropriately in the province</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The main goal of Delphi technique is to reach the saturation point among the experts; therefore, when after running 4th round finally we found exactly the same results (consensus), it was assured that there is no need to continue the study any more.

**Conclusion**

As described before, after three rounds of Delphi technique, finally 14 real obstacles in tourism development in Ch & Ba province were extracted that were perceived by the panel of experts as most crucial obstacles. Taking these barriers into consideration could help tourism policy makers and practitioners to pave the way towards tourism development more effectively.

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Antecedents of Employee Turnover: 
The Case of Turkish Boutique Hotels

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Abstract

The study addressed the combined effects of Turkish employees’ overall job satisfaction and organizational justice perceptions, on their intention to stay in boutique and special category hotels. Data is composed of 170 surveys collected from hotel personnel, who were employed in Istanbul and Antalya hotels. From the four justice dimensions which were investigated here, the employees’ interpersonal and distributive justice perceptions emerged as the potent dimensions for predicting intention to stay. When overall job satisfaction was added to the hierarchical regression analysis, distributive justice was fully mediated by it. However, interpersonal justice remained as the second variable to predict intention to stay, pointing at prevalence of manager-employee relationship in deciding to leave or to stay by the employees (R-square=.47, p<.0001).

Key words: intention to stay, organizational justice, job satisfaction, boutique hotels.
Introduction

High turnover rates have been always a problem by increasing costs, lowering service quality for hospitality industry. According to Iverson and Deery (1997), there is an acceptance of “turnover culture” in hospitality industry, which in fact, has the influence of increasing the turnover. This creates a vicious circle in the industry. The aim of this research was to analyze what keeps employees in boutique hotels as a way to decrease turnover rates in the industry. Furthermore, we looked deeply at intentions to stay rather than actual turnover because there is no much implication that management can use after the employee quits (İnelmen et al., 2009). We concentrated on boutique and special category hotels’ employees, as these enterprises are becoming increasingly important segment of the industry. These hotels are located in Sultanahmet and Sirkeci area in Istanbul, and Kaleiçi in Antalya, two of the most important touristic regions of Turkey and where the boutique and special category hotels tend to cluster. They are often relatively small hotels with different specialties and yet not frequently investigated. It is not too much possible to see company chains on these hotels and they are generally run by local entrepreneurs so reflection of Turkish business culture is easier to observe in those. In the present study, the antecedents of intention to stay of boutique hotel employees have been investigated. To that aim the research question was formulated as follows: To what extend does the intention to stay of boutique and special category hotels’ employees get influenced by their job satisfaction, justice perceptions and Manager-Employee Relationship?

Literature Review

According to a widely cited definition, “Intention to stay refers to employees’ conscious and deliberate willfulness to stay with an organization.” (Tett & Meyer, 1993 cited in Cho et al., 2009). Intention to stay and leaving intentions are used interchangeably in some researches and generally phrase of “two sides of the same coin” is widely used in literature. But there are also papers that indicated antecedents and results of these two may differ (e.g., Cho et al., 2009). Both intentions are expected to be good predictors of actual turnover (Steel & Lounsbury, 2009). Employee perceptions of justice can influence important organizational work outcome, and employee behavioral and attitudinal reactions to the situation. If employees accept the way the decisions are made, they are most likely to have a tendency to cooperate with the companies’ goals (Lee et al., 2010). Studies showed that fair distribution of outcomes, such as salary and promotions, have the crucial role for employees to stay or leave the organizati-
It was found over and over again that when people in the organization feel they are treated fairly, they have more positive attitudes and behaviors and eventually this situation bring about lower employee turnover (Mitchell et al., 2001).

**Organizational Justice**

Organizational justice has become a preferable subject for many academics to research on it since in this challenging work environment; employees are very concerned about being treated fairly in the organization. In the same manner, organizations attach importance to fair environment because fairness in an organization will bring about positive behaviors and employees will feel that they are part of the company and respected. They will be able to develop good relationships with their subordinates. However, an unfair atmosphere will cause improper actions and will affect negatively the goals of the organization (Folger & Konovski, 1989). So far, many researches have been made mostly to clarify the justice perceptions of the employees within an organization. As a result, there had been some findings about the influence of organizational justice and its dimensions over turnover intentions. There are three dimensions of organizational justice that enable us to understand how employees perceive whether they are treated fairly or not. According to relevant literature the dimensions are distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice (Cropanzano, Byrne, Bobocel & Rupp, 2001). If these attributes adjust into an organization, it will create high quality relationships among employees (Tekleab, Takeuchi & Taylor, 2005).

**Procedural Justice**

Procedural justice is the fairness of the decisions and the procedures used to determine outcomes. Procedural justice issues have been found that it has significant effect on turnover intentions since it determines individual behavior in an organization (Dailey & Kirk, 1992 cited in Lee et al., 2010). When specific decisions are made by an organization and when these decisions are made by using the similar criteria, employees are likely to have positive perception of procedural justice.

**Distributive justice**

Another way to evaluate an organization whether it is fair or not is related what outcome is received by the organization as a result of employees’ performances. Distributive justice is composed of allocation of tangible or/and intan-
gible rewards showing great importance for fairness perception of employees. According to Cohen-Charash and Spector (2001), distributive justice is sourced by ‘equity theory’ which puts forward that employees compare their inputs like education levels, experience, level of stress to outcomes like salaries, promotions from the organization.

**Interactional justice**

The process of how an employee is treated is important as much as how much equally he/she is treated. Interactional justice is rising by the perception of the employees from the way management is behaving towards them (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). Earlier work showed that interactional justice can be divided into two subcomponents namely interpersonal and informational justice (Colquitt et al., 2001). The former indicates how employees are treated within the frame of respect and dignity shown by the authorities who are in charge of distributive outcomes/the organization. Informational justice is to provide employees with fair information with no neglect of their concerns.

**Job Satisfaction**

People spend a large share of their time in their works not only to earn money, but also for more like reaching their targets or satisfying their own emotional needs. Research in the hospitality industry showed that those employees with higher job satisfaction were more likely to deliver exceptional guest service (Arnett et al., 2002). When employees are satisfied with their jobs, it affects their mood and behavior positively whereas if there is something that is not right for the person in the job, situation is vice a versa. There are many explanations for defining job satisfaction. In an influential formulation Spector (1997) defined it as "the extent to which people like (satisfaction) or dislike (dissatisfaction) their jobs”.

Generally, if there is no a must to keep a person in an organization, it creates an intention to leave the organization. Dailey and Kirk (1992) pointed out that different level of job satisfaction indicating salary increases, promotions, bonuses, relationship of management and colleagues influence intention to leave. In the same study, the findings indicated that organizational justice and job satisfaction are different indicators and two of the determinant factors of intention to leave.
Leader Member Exchange

Leader-member exchange theory is based on the relationship between the leader/manager and the employee in organizations. The leaders do not behave in the same way to all of his/her subordinates. For example, a supervisor with ten subordinates will have ten different interactions with these subordinates (Bauer & Green, 1996 cited in Bolat, 2010). Thus, the theory tries to determine how supervisors use their power and organizational resources to develop different social exchange relationships with their subordinates (Brower et al. 2000). Group members with high interaction with the leader are described as in-group members; the ones with low interaction with the leader are described as out-group members.

Methodology

This research is a descriptive study which aims to understand whether there is a relationship between intention to stay of hotel employees with the study variables. The subject of this research is hotel employees, the unit of analysis is individuals and convenience sampling method has utilized.

Data was collected from hotel employees working in boutique and special category hotels in Sultanahmet and Sirkeci areas in Istanbul and Kaleiçi area in Antalya. These two destinations were chosen judgmentally being such enterprises cluster. Employees from different departments (Front Office, Housekeeping, Food and Beverage and Accounting) took part in the present study; and with different job titles, for example cook, waiter, guest relations, receptionist, bellboy, housekeeper, and so on. There are 300 questionnaires distributed and 170 of them were returned with 57% response rate. In both destinations (n_Istanbul=129 and n_Antalya=41), 10% of the sampling universe were achieved. Questionnaires were distributed and collected in self-seal envelopes for each employee to assure confidentiality. They were collected back in 3-4 days. Data came from 27 hotels; the sample group consists of 27% of females and 73% of males. The education levels are composed of primary school (23.7%), high school (39.4%) and university degree (36.5%). The respondent’s tenure in the hospitality sector was found to be 9.5 years on average (S.D. =8.3).

A pilot study was conducted before distributing the questionnaires to the hotels. The purpose of this pilot study is to understand how functional our questions and how efficient the translation of the questions because we, ourselves, translated some of the scales from English to Turkish. The pilot study was applied to a group of tourism administration students, who have completed
their internships in hotels. There were 30 questionnaires distributed and 27 of them were collected back. According to the results of the pilot study, all vari-ables were within the expected range reliability. Moreover, the factor structures of the scales were relatively solid, with the exception of the interactional justice scale that showed a two component structure.

There were four measures that were employed in this study and each scale is evaluated over a 5-point Likert type scale, which indicates 1=completely di-sagree and 5=completely agree. The negatively worded questions in each scale were recoded as necessary.

**Intention to stay**

Scale of intention to stay was designed to measure whether the employee has intent to stay with his or her current workplace or not. This scale was originally developed by Lyons in 1981 and it was adapted to Turkish in İnelmen et al.’ (2009) study. The scale is composed of three questions such as “Bu işletmede uzun bir süre daha çalışmak istiyorum.” (I intend to work at this hotel for a long time.)

**Organizational Justice**

Organizational justice scale is designed to measure justice perceptions of the employees in terms of different processes like procedures used by supervisors, or rewards obtained by employees. This scale was developed by Colquitt (2001) and translated into Turkish by Eker (2006). It is composed of 20 questions to measure all of the justice components, namely distributive, procedural, informational and interpersonal. An example justice question is “Elde ettiğiniz kazanımlar, göstermiş olduğunuz performansa uygun mudur?” (Is your outcomes appropriate for the work you have completed?).

**Leader-Member Exchange**

Leader-member exchange variable is measured with the LMX7 scale which measures the efficiency of the relationship between supervisors and subordi-nates. LMX7 was developed by Tekleab and Taylor (2003). LMX7 scale consists of seven items including the question “Yöneticiim sorunlarını ve ihtiyaçlarını yeterince iyi anlar.” (My supervisor understands my problems and needs well enough).

**Overall Job Satisfaction**

Although there are different scales developed in the literature which is measuring different facets of satisfaction, Scarpello and Campbell (1983) suggested that a single-item measure of overall job satisfaction is also acceptable. Later
Wanous, Reichers, and Hudy (1997) made a further case on the validity and reliability of single item satisfaction question and bolster the argument of Scarpello and Campbell (1983) with .67 convergent validity. For these reasons, we used single-item question of “İşinizden genel olarak ne kadar memnunsunuz?” (Taken as a whole, how satisfied are you with your job?) to measure overall job satisfaction.

First, we controlled the confidentiality of questionnaires before the data entering process, and excluded seven questionnaires which are suspicious or largely incomplete. After entering answers to the SPSS 19.0 program, guided by the results of the pilot study, we needed to do a factor analysis to see whether interactional justice has two subcomponents (interpersonal and informational justice) as also argued by Greenberg (1990) (See Table 1).

| Table 1. Rotated component matrix |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Polite manner</td>
<td>.845</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dignity</td>
<td>.821</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Respect</td>
<td>.839</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Refrain from improper remarks</td>
<td>.735</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Candid in communication</td>
<td></td>
<td>.470</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explain procedures</td>
<td></td>
<td>.779</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reasonable procedures</td>
<td></td>
<td>.798</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Timely details</td>
<td></td>
<td>.886</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tailor communication</td>
<td></td>
<td>.797</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.*

*Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.*

The component matrix showed that first four questions are grouped as one component, which actually measures interpersonal justice with a high reliability score (α=.89). Last five questions are grouped as the second component, i.e. informational justice and the reliability of the measure was again high (α=.90). Therefore it was decided that organizational justice will be treated as four dimensions.

**Results**

The study variables that were included in this investigation were first analyzed to obtain the descriptive measures (Table 2). The results indicated that the respondents’ average on the measured variables were relatively high.
Table 2. Descriptive statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean (S.D.)</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intention to Stay</td>
<td>11.15 (3.6)</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Procedural Justice</td>
<td>24.46 (5.6)</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distributive Justice</td>
<td>14.36 (4.3)</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpersonal Justice</td>
<td>15.97 (3.4)</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informational Justice</td>
<td>19.18 (4.7)</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leader-Member Exchange</td>
<td>24.63 (5.6)</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job Satisfaction</td>
<td>3.87 (1.1)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The correlations analyses revealed that relationships between variables are all positive and all of them are strong or moderately strong. All variables have significant correlations with each other, and the strength of the correlations is given in the Table 3 below. The dependent variable, intention to stay has the strongest correlation with job satisfaction (0.60). The other independent variables have almost same correlations with intention to stay at moderate level. Another point that needs attention is the really strong correlation between LMX and interpersonal justice (0.74). The value here confirms the findings about the high correlations between these two variables, and to avoid a potential multicollinearity problem, the LMX score was not entered to the regression analysis.

Table 3. Correlations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Intention to Stay</td>
<td>(0.88)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Informational Justice</td>
<td>0.44**</td>
<td>(0.90)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Distributive Justice</td>
<td>0.45**</td>
<td>0.66**</td>
<td>(0.86)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Interpersonal Justice</td>
<td>0.45**</td>
<td>0.56**</td>
<td>0.56**</td>
<td>(0.89)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Procedural Justice</td>
<td>0.45**</td>
<td>0.58**</td>
<td>0.52**</td>
<td>0.62**</td>
<td>(0.83)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. LMX</td>
<td>0.43**</td>
<td>0.65**</td>
<td>0.60**</td>
<td>0.74**</td>
<td>0.54**</td>
<td>(0.82)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Job Satisfaction</td>
<td>0.60**</td>
<td>0.54**</td>
<td>0.61**</td>
<td>0.47**</td>
<td>0.45**</td>
<td>0.50**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The figures inside parentheses are the Cronbach’s Alpha values.

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

After the correlation analysis, the variables with high inter-correlations that have potential to affect the employees’ intention to stay are tested with hierarc-
hical regression analysis. The analysis including the study variables and the demographic figures which were enters as control variables can be seen in the Table 4. From the four justice dimensions which were investigated, distributive justice and interpersonal justice perceptions emerged as the potent dimensions in terms of predicting the employees' intention to stay. When overall job satisfaction was added to the hierarchical regression analysis, distributive justice was mediated but interactional justice remained as the second potent variable to predict turnover intentions (R-square = .47, p<.0001). For this group’s intention to stay, although job satisfaction was a primary factor, the perceived interpersonal fairness also appeared to be important, pointing at prevalence of manager-employee relationship in this context.

Table 4. Hierarchical regression for intention to stay

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Model 1</th>
<th>Model 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>-.11</td>
<td>-.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education Level</td>
<td>-.09</td>
<td>-.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job Tenure in Tourism</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distributive Justice</td>
<td>.21*</td>
<td>.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Procedural Justice</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpersonal Justice</td>
<td>.25*</td>
<td>.23*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informational Justice</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job Satisfaction</td>
<td></td>
<td>.49**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F value</td>
<td>10**</td>
<td>15**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R Square</td>
<td>.33</td>
<td>.47</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Dependent Variable: Intention to Stay

* p < .05  
** p < .01

A further analysis to explain the determinants of overall job satisfaction showed that among the control and study variables, distributive justice is the
single main antecedent (R-square = .41, p<.0001). In other words, the respondents’ job satisfaction perceptions was mainly influenced by how much their effort influence their outcomes as well as how much their performance is taken into account while the compensations are accounted.

**Conclusion**

In this study, the analyses revealed that overall job satisfaction of the employees was the primary antecedent of boutique hotel employees’ intention to stay. Moreover, distributive justice appeared to be the most potent dimensions to predict employees’ overall job satisfaction. Influence of distributive justice could be explained by Equity Theory. According to this theory, employees have a tendency to compare their income with other same level employees in the organization. If they see there is no difference in the distribution of outcomes among them, employees feel satisfied. They pay much attention on the fairness of the distribution rather than considering their personal inputs and outcomes separately (Colquitt et al., 2001). On the other hand, interpersonal justice appeared as a second, but yet again not negligible variable to explain the employees’ intention to stay. Interactional justice is generally associated with personal-level outcomes such as supervisory relationships (Cropanzano, Prehar, & Chen, 2002), and job satisfaction (Masterson, Lewis, Goldman, & Taylor, 2000). The role of the perceived interpersonal fairness was important for this group. On the other hand, interpersonal justice is better at explaining the intentions to stay of the employees in the present study, since this component of justice is more related to intangible elements like courtesy. Considering the high correlation between interpersonal justice and leader-member exchange, it appears that constructing a personal manager-employee relationship have crucial importance to achieve higher staying intentions. Awareness of the role of interpersonal fairness by managers is needed as much as the fair offer of work and performance related outcomes. The direct information flow between the supervisor and his or her subordinates has shown no direct influence on the intention to stay. What can be inferred from the results is that the organizations should continuously keep the employees’ pulse about their job satisfaction and the perceived interpersonal justice. Moreover, distributive justice has a strong impact on employees’ job satisfaction, which is the primary factor to create intentions to stay.

Like in all studies, this study is also not exempt from limitations. First of all, the sample was derived on convenience basis and it is relatively small. Therefore the generalizability of the results may be haphazard. Moreover, the analyses
are mainly correlational, and thus it was not possible to derive causal conclusions. Nevertheless, given the fact that intention to stay of the boutique hotel employees has not been investigated in detail so far, it could be suggested the present results are paving the way for future investigations despite these limitations.

Acknowledgements

We like to acknowledge Samet Karagöz’s contribution to this study in an earlier phase. We also like to thank the Association of Historical & Boutique Hotels of Turkey (ÖZBİ) for their support in securing contact with their member boutique and special category hotels. The study was partially funded by a research grant of Boğaziçi University BAP#6365 to the last author.

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How Perceived Global Brands Influence Consumers’ Purchasing Behavior of Starbucks

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Abstract

Globalization offers brands the new opportunities to expand their markets beyond the national borders. It also causes fiery competition among brands in the market. Coffee store markets are one of the examples which have grown in recent years and have potential demands. The Interbrand’s Best Global Brands 2006 report announces that Starbucks is ranked as the 91st among the top 100 global brands. The purpose of this study is to explore consumers’ brand perceptions of Starbucks. Specifically, the study investigates the correlation of perceived global brands with consumers’ purchasing intentions and the relationship between brand quality and perceived brand prestige. The model is developed based on the recent literature review. The study concludes that the perceived global branding of Starbucks associates both with the perceived brand quality and the perceived brand prestige. The perceived global branding is also associated with consumers’ purchasing behavior via the perceived brand prestige and the perceived brand quality.

Key words: global brands, brand quality, brand prestige, consumer behavior.

Introduction

Parr & Lashua (2005, p. 16) define the term of ‘leisure’ as a “free time, an activity, and/or a state of mind”. With its high density population, Taiwan offers various leisure activities for the local people to spend their free time because social activities and entertainment have become an important part of the daily life (e.g. Lin & Pao, 2011; Su, 2007). Recently, coffee has become a significant part of the people’s routine life and also a popular leisure activity that refers to its his-
tory (Su, 2007). Furthermore, over the past few decades there has been a recordable number of coffee stores in the country (Su, 2007). As known, coffee stores are specific places where people may enjoy having different kinds of foods and beverages and they may have the opportunity to become more socialized through the participation in various activities such as chatting, reading and writing (Su, 2007). As such, due to an increasing popularity of coffee consumption, many coffee store brands have targeted the market in Taiwan (Su, Chiou & Chang, 2006).

Because increasing globalization activities offers brands new opportunities to expand their local or foreign markets. These create a fierce competition among brands. Coffee store markets are one of the examples which have grown in recent years and are still likely to attract a potential demand. There are lots of coffee stores that are easy to find elsewhere in the street or department store and school areas. Further to its entrance into the Taiwanese market in 1998 with the opening of its first store in Taipei (Starbucks Newsroom), Starbucks has now become a famous coffee store (Su et al., 2006). Zhang (2006) states that, due to a rapid development of the tourism industry in the mid-1990s, Starbucks first began to adjust its business strategy to explore foreign opportunities. Starbucks decided to expand its company borders on the Asia-Pacific region with an investment of US$1.5 million in 1996 (Zhang, 2006). Starbucks’s first foreign market entry was in the high-fashion Ginza district of Tokyo in 1996 (Starbucks Newsroom) and first focused on students and office workers as consumers (Zhang, 2006). Not only coffee, consumers can also find cold and hot beverages, and snacks. Founded in 1971, Starbucks has now become a phenomenon by successfully Americanising the European coffee tradition (Patterson, Scott, & Uncles, 2010). The Interbrand’s Best Global Brands 2006 report announces that Starbucks was ranked as the 91st among 100 global brands.

An overview of the previous research has investigated the different forms of coffee consumption, e.g. canned and package coffee. In addition, the literature also includes some more research on the impact of western style on a similar pattern of consumption, like going to Starbucks, a new form of coffee shop planning in Taiwan (e.g. Hsu & Hung, 2005; Ko & Chiu, 2006; Shih et al., 2008; Su, 2007; Su et al., 2006). This investigation seems worthy of further investigation with further variables. The literature has limited with the studies of consumer brand perception. Therefore, the objectives of this study are to investigate consumer brand perception of Starbucks; to examine the relationship between the perceived global brand of Starbucks and purchasing behavior. Furthermore, the relationship between the perceived brand quality and the per-
ceived brand prestige is used to determine brand positioning of Starbucks. Several authors assert that some of today’s consumers may prefer global brands over local brands (e.g. Steenkamp, Batra, & Alden, 2003). This leads to gaining an insight into the brand perception of Starbucks by consumer aspects in Taiwan.

**Literature review**

Brands play an important role of marketing to promote the products (Baltescu, 2009). The American Marketing Association defines brand as “a name, term, design, symbol, or any other feature that identifies one seller's good or service as distinct from those of other sellers”. Therefore, brands have numerous features and serve them to the consumers in the market (Keller & Lehmann, 2006). Branding is a very important business for the management of the company (Keller & Lehmann, 2006) and creating a global brand is difficult part for marketer (Craig & Douglas, 2000).

On the other hand consumers have different perceptions towards local and global brands; furthermore, some consumers are likely to prefer global brands versus local brands (Steenkamp *et al.*, 2003). What is a global brand? Global brands have located around the world for a long time (Pitta & Franzak, 2008). As for the definition of international and global brand that were used, Whitelock & Fastoso (2007) has examined a group of 40 articles that has referred to a period of time from 1975 to 2005. Nine of these definitions only present the meaning of global branding. Although prior studies indicate that there is no single definition of global branding (Whitelock & Fastoso, 2007), consumers can find brands under the same name in multiple countries with generally similar and centrally coordinated marketing strategies (Steenkamp *et al.*, 2003, p. 53). Global brands first operate in the domestic market that companies are to expand their borders and reach worldwide market (Pitta & Franzak, 2008). Global brands provide success to their managers; however, building global brands in the 21st century is a difficult task (Craig & Douglas, 2000).

Those with research interests in the field of marketing focus on focal point of consumer buying decisions (Armstrong & Kotler, 2011). Global brand managers think the world as a single market to formulate strategy because of located in multiple countries (Armstrong & Kotler, 2011). The perceived brand quality is found as the most important factor that drives consumers to the purchasing behavior for a global brand (Steenkamp *et al.*, 2003). The perceived brand quality can be defined as “the customer’s perception of the overall quality or superiority of a product or service with respect to its intended purpose, relative
to alternatives” (Aaker, 1991, p.85). Therefore, based upon the review of research and the stated objectives, the following hypotheses have been formulated:

- **H1**: The perceived global brand of Starbucks is positively associated with the perceived brand quality.
- **H2**: The perceived brand quality of Starbucks is positively associated with consumers’ likelihood of purchasing.

Correia and Moital (2009, p.18) assert that “… prestige and status have usually been employed interchangeably when it comes to illustrate the social comparison aspects of events consumption”. The consumption of prestige brands refer to status and wealth which means that if everyone has a particular brand it is not appropriate definition of prestige brand (Vigneron & Johnson, 1999). Global brands are brands which take the places on the status and prestige (Johansson & Ronkainen, 2005). The perceived brand prestige is found as the second driver in comparison with the perceived brand quality for purchasing a global brand (Steenkamp et al., 2003). Therefore, based upon the review of research and the stated objective, following hypotheses have been formulated:

- **H3**: The perceived global brand of Starbucks is positively associated with its perceived brand prestige.
- **H4**: The perceived brand prestige of Starbucks is positively associated with consumers’ likelihood of purchasing.

Steenkamp et al. (2003) state the global identity as another reason for a global brand preference. In other words, if consumers perceive a brand as global, they may attribute to purchase it because the perceived global brand is likely to lead to creating a value on consumers. Furthermore, the findings of an earlier study carried out by Johansson and Ronkainen (2005) show that global brands are associated with higher esteem. Today’s businesses feel themselves under pressure to become global and try to find a way to create value on their potential consumers. Therefore, based upon the review of research and the stated objective following hypotheses have been formulated:

- **H5**: The perceived global brand of Starbucks is positively associated with consumers’ likelihood of purchasing.
Methodology

A questionnaire was originally developed in English. The English version of the questionnaire was double back-translated into Chinese. A 7-point scale was developed based on an extensive review of the related literature varying between "strongly disagree - 1" and "strongly agree - 7". (Aaker, 1996; Batra et al, 2000; Dodds, Monroe, & Grewal, 1991; Dyson, Farr, & Hollis, 1996; Farquhar, 1989; Han & Terpstra, 1988; Keller, 1993; Keller & Aaker, 1992; Steenkamp et al., 2003). The perceived global brand was measured using three items and the perceived brand quality was measured with eight items while the perceived brand prestige was measured using two items and consumers’ intentions of repurchasing was measured using three items. A total of 16 items were indicated on the questionnaire after a pre-test. The band name of Starbucks was presented in the questionnaire.

The translated form of the questionnaire was pre-tested based on the analysis of data collected from 28 respondents. The purpose of this pre-test questionnaire was to observe the extent to which the instructions and questions were understandable. Although the participants indicated that the questionnaire was suitable and logical, the pre-testing procedure suggested a list of minor modifications. Some items were modified and also removed from the questionnaire.

Data were collected among a group of university students in Taiwan. The data collection period was from 23rd October to 17th November 2011. For each region one university was selected. The study included the rule of convenience sampling approach. In the end, a total of 286 questionnaires were returned (95.3%), out of 300 copies distributed. Of these, 35 questionnaires were discard-
ed due to their missing data. Finally, the remaining 251 usable questionnaires (83.7%) were qualified to continue undertaking a structural equation modeling (Hair, Black, Babin, and Anderson, 2010). In this study, AMOS 17 software program was used for the analysis of confirmatory factor analysis and the path analysis with maximum likelihood estimation was used (Hair et al., 2010). For the reliability test, croanbach alpha and mean and standard deviations of key constructs were used through SPSS 17. The scale yielded a high reliability score (.91).

Results

First, confirmatory factor analysis was used with maximum likelihood estimate. The reason of using CFA analysis was to determine whether the measured variables logically and systematically represented constructs in the theoretical model or not (Hair et al., 2010). All items loaded on the appropriate constructs and all loadings factors were significant respectively (p<.001). The four factor model was supported as the CFA model fit is; $\chi^2= 130.184$, df= 79, chi-square/df=1.648, GFI= 0.941, CFI= 0.976, TLI= 0.963, RMSEA= 0.051, probability level=0.000. Furthermore, Table 1 indicates mean values of key constructs.

Table 1. Means and standard deviations of the key constructs and items

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N=251</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Perceived Brand Globalness</td>
<td>5.6321</td>
<td>0.82336</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Starbucks is a global brand</td>
<td>6.24</td>
<td>.899</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think worldwide people go to Starbucks Store</td>
<td>4.67</td>
<td>1.464</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Starbucks has branches all over the world</td>
<td>5.98</td>
<td>.848</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived Brand Quality</td>
<td>5.4945</td>
<td>0.78758</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The taste of coffee served at the Starbucks store is satisfactory</td>
<td>5.69</td>
<td>.899</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The quality of food and beverages served at the store is satisfactory</td>
<td>5.42</td>
<td>1.079</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The behavior of staff is friendly, welcoming and helpful</td>
<td>5.41</td>
<td>1.093</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The internal and external appearance of the store is well designed</td>
<td>5.67</td>
<td>1.087</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The food and beverages prices are good compared with the taste and quality</td>
<td>4.99</td>
<td>1.259</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The environment is pleasant and makes me feel comfortable</td>
<td>5.69</td>
<td>.979</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other facilities (music, wireless, restroom and etc.) are satisfactory</td>
<td>5.59</td>
<td>1.033</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The overall quality of service and store is satisfactory</td>
<td>5.49</td>
<td>1.048</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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Perceived Brand Prestige

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Estimate</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>P-Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Starbucks is a prestigious store.</td>
<td>5.83</td>
<td>1.003</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Going to Starbucks Store talks of my status</td>
<td>4.61</td>
<td>1.485</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Consumers’ Likelihood of Purchasing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Estimate</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>P-Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Starbucks would be my top choice among coffee chain stores</td>
<td>5.08</td>
<td>1.332</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I would consider going to Starbucks Store</td>
<td>5.51</td>
<td>1.214</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I would gladly recommend others to go to Starbucks Store</td>
<td>5.59</td>
<td>1.164</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As to the test of hypotheses, path analysis model was developed with 16 observed variables and four latent variables which were the perceived global brand, the perceived brand quality, the perceived brand prestige, and likelihood of purchasing. The model was supported because the path analysis model fit was; \( \chi^2 = 146.135, df = 84, \) \( \chi^2/df = 1.740, \) GFI = 0.932, CFI = 0.970, TLI = 0.958, RMSEA = 0.054, probability level = 0.000. In order to determine the significance of the relationship between constructs, the path analysis model was used with the unstandardized regression coefficient (see Table 2).

Table 2. Unstandardized regression coefficient with standard errors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Starbucks N=251</th>
<th>Estimate</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>P-Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PBQ&lt;--PBG</td>
<td>0.680</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CPL&lt;--PBQ</td>
<td>1.161</td>
<td>0.130</td>
<td>***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PBP&lt;--PBG</td>
<td>0.438</td>
<td>0.141</td>
<td>***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CPL&lt;--PBP</td>
<td>0.666</td>
<td>0.327</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CPL&lt;--PBG (Direct)</td>
<td>-0.352</td>
<td>0.207</td>
<td>0.090</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CPL&lt;--PBG (Indirect)</td>
<td>1.082</td>
<td>0.299</td>
<td>**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CPL&lt;--PBG (Total)</td>
<td>0.730</td>
<td>0.120</td>
<td>**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*** p<.001, **p<.01, *p<.05

The perceived global brand of Starbucks was respectively found to be positively associated with the perceived brand quality (0.680, p<.001). Thus, H1 is supported. The perceived brand quality of Starbucks was positively associated with the likelihood of purchasing respectively (1.161, p<.001). As a result, H2 was supported. The perceived global brand of Starbucks had a positive association with the perceived brand prestige (0.438, p<.001). Thus, H3 was supported. The perceived brand prestige of Starbucks was positively associated with consumers’ likelihood of purchasing (0.666, p<.05). This provides the evidence to
support H4. In contrast, the perceived global brand of Starbucks was positively associated with consumers’ likelihood of purchasing. There was no evidence to justify H5 (-0.352). However, the perceived global brand was positively associated with the likelihood of purchasing via brand quality and brand prestige (1.082, p<.05). Figure 2 shows the results of the path analysis for the hypothesized model with unstandardized regression estimates.

![Path Analysis Diagram]

**Figure 2.** The results of hypothesized model

**Conclusion**

This study has attempted to test a series of hypotheses developed on the basis of the effects of the perceived global branding of Starbucks over consumers’ likelihood of purchasing. The analysis of the theoretical model demonstrate that the perceived global branding of Starbucks is positively and significantly associated both with the perceived brand quality and the perceived brand prestige, which means that the Taiwanese students’ perceptions of Starbucks refer to quality and prestige. Additional findings indicate that the perceived brand
quality and the brand prestige of Starbucks are positively and significantly associated with the purchasing behavior of Taiwanese students. However, the perceived brand quality of Starbucks is likely to have a more significant effect (p<.001) on purchasing behavior than on the perceived brand prestige (p<.05).

Surprisingly, our findings indicate that the perceived global brand of Starbucks has no positive association with consumers’ purchasing behavior. Therefore, the perceived global brand of Starbucks does have no significant role to drive the Taiwanese university students’ buying behavior. In other words, if the perceived global brand is likely to increase, consumers’ purchasing behavior is likely to decrease. It is expected that there is a positive direct pathway between the perceived global brand and consumers’ purchasing behavior of Starbucks; however, our findings lacks providing sufficient evidence to support such a relationship as in the study of Steenkamp et al. (2003). On the other hand, although there is no direct relationship between the perceived global brand and consumers’ purchasing behavior of Starbucks, the perceived global brand of Starbucks is positively and significantly associated with the purchasing behavior via brand quality and brand prestige.

This study presents some limitations for future research in the field of branding and purchasing behavior. The sample of students limits the generalizability of the study findings because of the students represent a subset of consumers. As a consequence, future research should be conducted with a sample more representative of the entire consumer population including different consumer groups. As the current study considers the inclusion of only one brand, future studies may test the hypotheses with other brands to generalize the study findings. Finally, there should also be the investigation of the influence of some additional variables such as consumer ethnocentrism and brand origin.

The objective of this study is to explore consumers’ brand perceptions of Starbucks, as a popular coffee store in the world. Findings of this study points out that the Taiwanese consumers convey the perception that visiting a Starbucks coffee provides both quality and prestige. On the other hand, both brand prestige and quality is positively associated with consumers’ visiting behavior of Starbucks. This may lead companies to have a strong brand image in order to become more competitive in their own industry (Armstrong & Kotler, 2011, p. 517). A second most important finding is that the perceived global brand of Starbucks has little power to become a driver influencing consumers’ buying behavior. This finding suggests that if a brand is located across the world and consumers perceive it as a global brand, it may be perceived as an ordinary
brand from the perspective of consumers due to a possible influence of their familiarity with this product via advertisement or media.

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Agri-Tourism as a Factor of Economic Development of Rural Areas of the Republic of Kazakhstan

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Abstract
This study aims to analyze the impact of agri-tourism on rural areas and to conduct the feasibility study on implementation of agri-tourism concept in Kazakhstan. The paper considers the importance and the role of tourism in rural economy development. The practice of foreign countries in terms of organization and realization of recreational activities in rural areas by the local infrastructure improvement had been analyzed. The main segment of new tourism product consumers had been revealed.

Key words: agri-tourism, economic development, rural areas.

Introduction
Nowadays it is vitally important for Kazakhstan to form a radically new concept of rural areas development. Searching for the new ways of rural population employment as well as generating additional source of income for countryside communities as a result of multiplicative effect which means finding out relevant organizational and economic solutions are the actual issues of a great importance. The questions concerning a creation of new work places, increasing the well-being of population, enhancing of national economy, ensuring a return of investment, nature and historical heritages conservation can be solved by tourism development, because it is an efficient sector of economy which has a positive effect on other sectors (OCDE, 1994).

Barlybayev, Ahmetov and Nasyrov suggest that the new concept of rural areas development should focus on extensive diversification and on clustering of agricultural structures. On the grounds that agri-tourism can be considered as a new potential sector in Kazakh Tourism industry aimed to contribute to rural areas development. The most effective way of increasing the efficiency of natural resources of rural areas and improving the local tourism infrastructure is to develop agri-tourism in rural regions. Brookover and Jodice (2010) emphasizing the experience of South Carolina and Virginia states, state that agri-
tourism plays the big role in these regions in terms of rural economy diversification and generating additional income.

**Literature Review**

The literature review shows that there are many definitions of agri-tourism and this kind of tourism is usually interpreted in different ways. The lack of a generally adopted, exact definition in world literature makes difficult to understand the essence of the phenomena. In general “agri-tourism” and “rural tourism” can be comprehended as similar conceptions because both of them have a rural nature. However, reviewed literature indicates that rural tourism is not an equivalent to agri-tourism; nevertheless they are closely contiguous to each other (Erdavletov & Koshkimbayeva, 2011). Nancy, McGehee and Kim (2004) subscribing to above mentioned opinion state that “agri-tourism and rural tourism are not the same – agri-tourism may be seen as a segment within rural tourism. Rural tourism includes additional forms of tourism that exist in a rural setting, including eco-tourism and other nature-based forms of tourism, cultural tourism that does not relate directly to agriculture, or rural adventure tourism”. In contrast, Hegarty and Przezborska (2005, p.65) argue that “rural and agri-tourism are used interchangeably”. In their findings these tourism forms are determined as a “symbiotic terms” and agri-tourism is usually identified as an element of rural tourism concept.

Referring to the American definition agri-tourism is a specific form tourism business which takes place in a farm aimed to create additional income organized by local enterprises offering on-farm as well as off-farm activities as an integral part of agri-tourism (Brookover & Jodice, 2010). In American sources, agri-tourism consists of 3 main elements such as recreation, entertainment, and experience (Velenik, Jurakovic, & Tomcic, 2008). In European scope agri-tourism is understood as a “specific product of rural tourism” providing by farmers. The distinctive feature of European agri-tourism is a local requirement for farmers such as “possession the minimum of 50% of income issuing from the agricultural activities” (Pavlickova & Kysilkova). Regarding the Russian definition agri-tourism is a recreation activity of urban people assumed short-term or long-term renting of countryside accommodation. In wide extent agri-tourism includes the broad spectrum of recreation activities in rural areas in combination with entertainment in a form of excursions, experiences in a form working activities in farms (Zdorov).

There is another approach in understanding agri-tourism nature where it is related to ecological tourism. European Centre for Eco Agro Tourism - ECEAT refers agri-tourism and rural tourism to sustainable tourism forms because of their environment protection functions. In ECEAT terminology there is exists a
concept such as “Eco-agro tourism” which means that agri-tourism is also related to ecological tourism. If one takes into account that agri-tourism stipulates the consumption of organic products, it can be closely interwoven with “Eco-agro tourism” which is identified as a farm based tourism, particularly on organic farms (ECEAT http://www.eceat-projects.org/html/definitions.html). Zdorov also emphasises the relationship between ecological and agri-tourism and states that agri-tourism harmonises with today’s popular ecological tendency providing an access to safety natural products within the recreation in natural environment (http://institutiones.com/general/1420-razvitie-turizma.html).

According to Erdavletov and Koshkimbayeva (2011) the agri-tourism conception differs depending on geographic region of the world. For instance, agri-tourism concept in USA is known as “farm tourism” or “farm stays” (Nowak, 2010). Erdavletov and Koshkimbayeva (2011) tend to opinion that in many states of the USA concept of agri-tourism and rural tourism is almost equal. George and Rilla (2011, p.2) understand agri-tourism as a type of rural tourism organizing in rural farms and ranches. But in Europe particularly in areas where scattered farming is predominated and there is a strong rural society “rural tourism” is used as a common terminology (Erdavletov & Koshkimbayeva, 2011). In Kazakhstan where the tourism sector is on its developing stage such kind of tourism is not exist, but the country has a substantial potential for agri-tourism development (Erdavletov & Koshkimbayeva, 2011).

Agri-tourism association of Russia points out that there are many types of agri-tourism concept all over the world. Depending on its national originality “4 models of agri-tourism development can be mentioned: British, France, Italy and Germanic”. The main features and basic differences of each foreign model can be seen from following table that is created by the author on a basis of classification suggested by the Agri-tourism association of Russia:

Table 1. Models of agri-tourism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Agri-tourism models</th>
<th>Accommodation</th>
<th>Agri-tourism includes</th>
<th>Key features</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>British</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1)</td>
<td>Bed &amp; breakfast</td>
<td>Active and eco</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2)</td>
<td>Self catering unit.</td>
<td>tourism forms</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3)</td>
<td>Bunkhouse.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French</td>
<td>village-apartments</td>
<td>Self catering and consumption of ecologically safety farm products</td>
<td>3 subject directions: “Nature and health”, “Traditional gastronomy”, “Sport”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italian</td>
<td>1) Rural accommodations in resorts and other places</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) Camping</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germanic</td>
<td>Local private rural houses</td>
<td>Participation in agricultural activities</td>
<td>Closely related to event tourism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1) Picnic</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2) Fishing</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Zdorov emphasizes two conceptual models of agri-tourism development. First concept characterizes the organization of tourism in rural areas on local entrepreneur’s own initiative. In this case agri-tourism develops by the entrepreneur’s funds without external investment. The main disadvantage of this approach is the difficulties associated with the attraction of significant tourist flow. In contrast, the second model considers the complex development of agri-tourism. It means that agri-tourism is used not as additional income generating source but as a main entrepreneurship form in rural places, therefore in should be supported by local government.

**Methodology**

Quantitative data collection method is going to be used as an element of deductive approach (Greener, 2008, p 66-67). Closed questions questionnaire will be designed in order to determine the perception of interviewees in terms of agri-tourism product consumption as well as providing tourism services in rural areas. Part of local people from a specific rural area is selected to be the target population for sampling. The interviewees are going to be organized in two groups: potential entrepreneurs, and potential consumers.

**Results**

A preliminary research revealed that Kazakhstan has a considerably strong potential to develop agri-tourism concept and to offer in local market the new tourism product (Erdavletov & Koshkimbayeva, 2011). Taking into consideration the fact that agri-tourism is not only a recreation taking place in the countryside, but also a spending interesting time by direct participation in agricultural activities it is suggested to organize urt-houses camping in combination with animation programs consisting of traditional Kazakh culture (preparation of horse milk, hunting, traditional music, etc.). On a basis of these it is feasible to generate tour-package which is able to satisfy the needs of local community as well as the interests of foreign visitors in terms of new destination and exotic experience. In order to analyse the real possibilities of the country in terms of agri-tourism development the SWOT alanalysis was conducted which can be clearly seen in following table.

**Table 2. SWOT analysis on the potential of Kazakhstan to develop agri-tourism**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strengths</th>
<th>Weaknesses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1) The reach variety of natural recreational resources of the country.</td>
<td>1) The weaknesses in accommodation and catering infrastructure.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) The reach historical and cultural heritages (including resources protected by UNESCO).</td>
<td>2) Underdevelopment of transport infrastructure.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3) Unique traditions and culture.</td>
<td>3) Low quality of the service.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4) Comparatively high level of prices for service.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4) The support of the government to tourism development.

5) The governmental support for small and medium enterprises.

6) Quite a big number of employees in Hospitality industry and Tourism.

7) The lack of legal basis regulating the agri-tourism activities.

8) Unawareness of household owners about agri-tourism business.

9) The psychological perception of potential entrepreneurs – they are interested in additional income, however they are not consider the agri-tourism concept as a business.

10) The lack of informative, consulting service systems.

**Opportunities**

1) Developing a Kazakh brand named «Urt-house camping».

2) The satisfaction of tourism service consumers.

3) The diversification of rural economy.

4) The improvement of well-being of rural population.

5) The development of regional tourism.

6) Conservation and reconstruction of cultural-historical heritage.

7) Promoting healthy lifestyle of the nation.

**Threats**

1) Unexplored agri-tourism market in case of Kazakhstan.

2) Unstable development of domestic tourism industry.

3) Weak level of competitiveness of domestic tourism product.

4) Increasing the impact of anthropogenic factor on surrounding environment.

In addition to this the preliminary research identified the main segment of potential customers of a new agri-tourism product. According to Barlybayev, Ahmetov and Nasyrov agri-tourism meets the needs of clients with medium income. Taking into account the nature of agri-tourism combining recreation, entertainment and experience simultaneously it can be concluded that it will be interesting for a certain group of consumers such as: families with children which is expected to be the main target group; young people; and people who are interested in sports. The experience of South Carolina shows that the most important target group of agri-tourism is children which correspond to 70% of farm visitors (Brookover & Jodice, 2010).

**Conclusion**

Nowadays Tourism industry of Kazakhstan is on its developing stage; therefore it is significantly important to find relevant approaches for tourism sector development. As it was shown by foreign countries experiences in tourism field agri-tourism is the most efficient impetus for growth and development of domestic Tourism Industry. Conducted research revealed that Kazakhstan has a strong potential in terms of tourism resources and it will be a basis for further development, especially for agri-tourism development. It can be concluded that at the developing of stage Tourism industry in Kazakhstan agri-tourism probably will play important role. As an agri-tourism can be implemented on a basis of current infrastructure, it is relatively cost-effective tool for the country. Ac-
According to the SWOT analysis it can be clearly seen that Kazakhstan has some problematic areas in national tourism industry development. Developing agri-tourism can be the relevant solution for those problematic issues.

Acknowledgement

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Application of SEM on Acceptance Factors of u-Ticket Service In Tourist Destinations

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Abstract
This study seeks to provide implications that will be helpful to ubiquitous Ticket (u-Ticket) service providers and users in tourist destinations by identifying acceptance factors of u-Ticket service in tourist destinations, one of the IT convergence services. To accomplish the objective of this study, Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) which induces factors that can influence the acceptance of u-Ticket service in tourist destinations was applied. The study findings are as follows: First, like prior research of the TAM, Attitude has a strong influence on behavioral intention to use in acceptance of new information technology such as u-Ticket service in tourist destinations. The more people believe u-Ticket service in tourist destinations is convenient, the more they are aware of usefulness of the service. Second, mobility, connectivity and self-efficacy are revealed as more influential variables in perceived ease of use (PEU) than perceived usefulness (PU). It can be said that if the u-Ticket service in tourist destinations is actualized in tour sites, the person who has the ability to deal with the new information technology device like “smart phone” shows interests first. Lastly, Self-efficacy is proved as more important factors in PEU than social influence.

Key words: ubiquitous technology, u-ticket, tourist destination, TAM, SEM.

Introduction
According to the construction of a ubiquitous environment that is an information technology environment or a paradigm capable of accepting information by freely connecting a network regardless of time and place, things be-
ing carried out at home or office until now are being expanded to the mobile environment by deviating from the fixed space. Especially, it is predicted that utilization of the ubiquitous environment in the tourism industry would be high, and it seems that it can be suggested as a paradigm of the new tourism industry. Actually, the ubiquitous service’s development is being visualized in the tourism field that is the information-intensive industry.

Under the situations like this, the purpose of this research is to study about if any factors are mainly considered in using a new service like ubiquitous-based Ticket service (hereinafter u-Ticket) of tourism attractions. Namely, this research aimed to grasp influential factors affecting acceptance of the u-Ticket service of users in tourism attractions by analyzing acceptance factors of u-Ticket service of the future tourism information service. This research has selected TAM that is a typical model of the existing technology acceptance theory and applied it to the u-Ticket service field of tourism attractions.

**Literature Review**

The information search in tourism plays an important role in resolving anxiety about unfamiliar destinations and raising the quality of tourism (Fodness & Murray, 1997). Especially, under the situations that the number of developed passengers traveling without a professional guide, the accurate and rapid information provision on tourist destinations could be said to be very important in the standpoint of tourists. Though the past tourists has collected information on tourist destinations depending on books or oral tradition of experienced hands, etc., many tourists are depending on computer and internet-based online tourism information due to development of information technology. Actually, the internet-based information technology is expanding its area, while the information search through mobile devices such as PDA and mobile phone, etc. gets possible. These devices can be carried and can search new information in real time, so it can be said that it is an innovative information provision media that is free from spatio-temporal restriction.

**u-Ticket Service** (http://www.u-tour.or.kr/Sub/?pid=0101)

The introduction of u-Ticket is to promote consumption of tourists through one-Ticket service on tourist destinations, and it can be said that it is RFID-based future type ticket system including financial and small sum payment functions. Especially, it can be said that the u-Ticket service of tourist destinations that tourists can easily reserve, settle and calculate anytime and anywhere in tourist destinations with discounted amount can easily grasp major move-
ment routes and staying periods, etc., and the effect to contribute to development of new tourism products and tourism policy are large. The u-Ticket service of tourist destinations is a service realizing ubiquitous tourism infrastructure to improve convenience of tourists as a ticket-issuing service of integrated ticket that replaces the tourist destination’s ticket made of the existing paper with cutting-edge card type U ticket with built-in RFID Tag. It can be understood that it was transferred to a mobile service by being replaced with a printed discount ticket for tourist destinations.

The u-Ticket service is a system that receives a ticket in the field such as tourist destinations or airports, etc. after reserving through on-line, and can use designated tourist destinations with one ticket by applying a concept of ‘One Ticket, Multi Pass’ It can be spread as a purchasing system through linkage with restaurants, traffic and souvenir shops in the future, and it can be said that it is a system that can be utilized in the events that should watch in several places where are held in the short period such as international film festivals and Olympic, etc.

**Technology Acceptance Model (TAM)**

The thesis that first carried out the research on acceptance of information technology systematically is the theory of reasoned action (TRA) of Fishbein & Ajzen (1975). Since then, the technology acceptance model that explains and predicts personal acceptance of computer technology was suggested by Davis (1989). TAM explains about intention of technology use of each individual through individual perception in terms of usefulness of technology and use of technology. According to Davis (1989), he thought that the intention of system use of users decides using of an actual system, and that the intention of system use of users is decided by receiving an effect from attitude of users about use of system again. He said that the attitude towards use of users’ information system was decided by perceived ease of use (PEU) on the system and perceived usefulness (PU).

Like this, the technology acceptance model is useful in predicting and assessing acceptance of information technology of users, and is used in explaining and predicting decision factors of individual behavior on use of a system. Lu, Hsu, & Hsu (2005) has carried out an experiencing research on a cognized risk effect appearing before using intention of on-line application, and McCoy Everard, & Jones (2005) have applied the Tam model for research of Uruguay and United States’ culture-oriented technology acceptance model. In addition,
Ndubisi, Gupta, & Ndubisi (2005) have researched a model for businessman on computing as a method that integrates persona of users with mediation effect. Wixom & Todd (2005) have used to research theoretical integration on user’s satisfaction and technology acceptance through application of TAM. Venkatesh & Davis (2000) have established 2 pieces of structure such as social influence and cognized effect, verifying expansion of the modified TAM model.

**Methodology**

The purpose of this research is to grasp major influential variables in new information technology’s acceptance process and this process with the target of tourists trying to use the u-Ticket service in tourist destinations. As examined in theoretical consideration, this research aimed to examine acceptance of new information technology called u-Ticket service in tourist destinations based on the expanded TAM model that added external variables of a systematic factor, personal factor and social and organizational factor. The research model induced to achieve this research purpose is the same as in the following figure.

Many preceding researches based on the TAM model have verified a causal relationship that perceived usefulness and perceived ease of use have an influence on attitude and purchasing intention (Adams, Nelson & Todd, 1992; Davis, 1989). The ease of use perceived in many researches is defined in the aspect of means, so as users get to use the technology capable of being more easily used than the technology that is not like that, and accordingly, it can raise perceived usefulness like improvement of business performance at last. In these aspects, it is supposed that the perceived ease of use has an influence on perceived easiness, and it is suggested that its contrary is not valid in preceding researches (Davis, Bagozzi & Warshaw, 1989). And it has been verified that the perceived usefulness in Mathieson (1991), Venkatesh & Davis (2000), etc. in addition to Davis (1989) is having an important influence on intention of use. Namely, it can be thought that the perceived ease of use and perceived usefulness could have a positive influence on attitude on the future purchase intention because tourists can well use the u-Ticket service in tourist destinations, think that use of this service in a travel is convenient and useful. Based on these claims and research results, this research has set the following hypothesis in relation with relations among perceived ease of use and usefulness, attitude and intention which are TAM-related major variables.

*Hypothesis 1: The perceived ease of use will have a positive (+) influence on the perceived usefulness.*
• **Hypothesis 2:** The perceived usefulness will have a positive (+) influence on attitude.

• **Hypothesis 3:** The perceived ease of use will have a positive (+) influence on attitude.

• **Hypothesis 4:** The attitude will have a positive (+) influence on behavioral intention.

The personal innovativeness is defined as a personal will that an individual tries new information technology in IT (Agrwal & Prasad, 1998). Citrin et al. (2000) has clarified that the relationship between internet use and internet shopping is mediated by innovativeness in the consumer’s internet shopping field. On the other hand, Venkatesh, Morris, Davis, & Davis (2003) and Venkatesh & Davis (2000) has published a research that the social influence has an influence on perceived usefulness and use intention, proposing the modified TAM model.

• **Hypothesis 5:** The personal innovativeness and social influence will have a positive (+) influence on the perceived use easiness.

• **Hypothesis 6:** The personal innovativeness and social influence will have a positive (+) influence on the perceived usefulness.

Kalakota & Robinson (2002) think that users can get a mobile service through all devices anytime and anywhere in relation with ubiquitous properties, and thought that the properties are mobility and connectivity. The mobility can be used regardless of place anywhere in relation with the concept of a place, and as the connectivity as a temporal concept means that it can be used anytime regardless of time as, whenever it was wanted. In this meaning, the concept on mobility and connectivity can be thought as a concept of a systematic property. Accordingly, the following hypothesis was set by setting the mobility and connectivity as system property’s variables in that the u-Ticket service in tourist destinations is based on the ubiquitous environment.

• **Hypothesis 7:** The mobility and connectivity will have a positive (+) influence on perceived use easiness.

• **Hypothesis 8:** The mobility and connectivity will have a positive (+) influence on perceived usefulness.

According to the self-efficacy theory of Bandura (1986), the self-efficacy is being defined as belief on one’s ability that can organize series of measures being required and execute it in producing a specific result under situations that
an individual performs a specific task. In case of the first hindrance factor in acceptance of information technology, the inconvenience getting face by complexity or knowledge and new users can be interpreted as insufficiency of self-efficacy. In the meanwhile, while TAM changes, it appeared that the personal property variable called self-efficacy has a positive influence on perceived usefulness and ease of use as a factor introduced with introduction of TAM at the same time (Hong, Thong, Wang & Tam, 2002; Venkatesh & Davis, 2000;).

Venkatesh & Davis (2000) has verified confidence, objective use possibility and direct experience, etc. as preceding factors having an influence on perceived ease of use of TAM. Hong, Thong, Wang and Tam(2002) is verifying that the self-efficacy on the computer is a variable that has an important influence on acceptance of a digital library in the study on acceptance of users at the digital library.

Based on these claims and research results, this research has set the following hypotheses, thinking that the self-efficacy has an influence on acceptance of technology.

- **Hypothesis 9:** The self-efficacy will have a positive (+) influence on the perceived use easiness.
- **Hypothesis 10:** The self-efficacy will have a positive (+) influence on the perceived usefulness.

The perceived ease of use is defined as a level that an individual believes, and it would be less troublesome (Davis, 1989; Venkatesh & Davis, 2000). In order to use the u-Ticket service in tourist destinations, it was measured on the basis of the research of Venkatesh, Morris, Davis, & Davis (2003) to measure how much the u-Ticket system is easy.

The perceived usefulness means a level that an individual believes that the use of specific information technology will improve job performance of an individual. In order to measure perceived usefulness that is a perceiving level that can get an efficient and effective help, if using new technology like this, this research measured it based on the research of Venkatesh & Davis (2000) and Venkatesh, Morris, Davis, & Davis(2003).

The attitude is defined as emotion that an individual feels positively or negatively in relation with execution of specific action. Accordingly, in TAM that is a model for acceptance of information technology, the attitude can be defined as personal assessment of users on desirability in using specific information
system applications, and the intention of action is measures on the possibility that an individual will use any application Ajzen and Fishbein (1980).

Based on this, the attitude of users on the u-Ticket in tourist destinations is composed of 3 items of perception such as novelty of a service, likability of service use and use of a service, and the intention of use is composed of 2 items such as intention of service use and using frequency.

![Figure 1: Research model]

**Results**

In this section, all questions were measured on a 7-point Likert scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). The research samples were collected from J regional government, South Korea during March, 2010. A total of 350 questionnaires were distributed, and 317 (91%) questionnaires were received. Seventieth of these received questionnaires were discarded due to large portions of missing values. Finally, 300 questionnaires were analyzed in this study. Among the 300 respondents, 63.2% were males, and 36.8% were females. Approximately 35.3% of the respondents was in the age group 20-29, followed by the age groups: 30–39 (26.7%), 40-49 (19.3%), and 50 or above (8.7%).
In this section, First of all, to analyze the internal consistency of the constructs, the Cronbach’s alpha was calculated and its reliability was investigated. Reliability coefficients of all constructs exceeded the 0.7 cut-off value as recommended by Nunnally (1978).

Therefore, all constructs in this study demonstrated acceptable reliability. To evaluate the structural equation modeling (SEM), AMOS 4.0 (Arbuckle, 1999) was used. The measures were subject to confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to provide support for issues of dimensionality, convergent, and discriminant validity (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The results of CFA demonstrated a good fit with $\chi^2 = 1680.76$, p-value =0.000, GFI=.907, AGFI=.853, RMR=.048, NFI=.894, CFI=.901. To assess whether the measurement variable is representative of the related construct composite reliability (CCR) and average variance extracted (AVE) presented by Fornell and Larcker (1981) was calculated. The CCR of all constructs exceeded the 0.7 cut-off value (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Also, the AVE of all constructs exceeded the 0.5 cut-off value (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hair et al., 1998). Therefore, these results support convergent validity for each construct.

The overall fit of the model was sound with $\chi^2 = 825.12$, p=.000, GFI=.896, AGFI=.926, RMR=.049, NFI=.903, CFI=.887. The signs of all structural paths were also consistent with the hypothesized relationships. As the perceived ease of use gets larger, the perceived easiness that is a performance variable of the u-Ticket service in tourist destinations gets higher, and the attitude on this also gets favorable or the interest gets higher. As a result, it can be interpreted that this favorable attitude raises intention of use of the u-Ticket service in tourist destinations. In the existing TAM, it can be named that external variables such

<table>
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<th>Factors</th>
<th>Cronbach's Alpha</th>
<th>AVE</th>
<th>CCR</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mobility &amp; Connectivity</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>0.97</td>
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<tr>
<td>Self-efficacy</td>
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<tr>
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<td>0.91</td>
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<td>0.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived usefulness</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>0.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>0.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behavioral intention</td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td>0.81</td>
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</tbody>
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as self-efficacy, personal innovativeness, social influence, mobility and connectivity as variables added in this research. First, if examining the effect of the personal innovativeness and social influence on perceived ease of use and perceived usefulness, a significant path coefficient in ease of use that the personal innovativeness and social influence are perceived appears, but it appeared that it doesn’t have a significant effect on perceived usefulness. The thing that this means is that as the level receiving an effect from personal relation or group on information technology or tries a new thing in utilization of personal information technology gets higher, understanding on use of new information technology service or perception on its using method is higher, but it can be interpreted that they don't convince about if this is connected to a result raising performance.

The Hypothesis 7 that the mobility and connectivity representing system properties realizing ubiquitous are perceived was rejected, but the Hypothesis 8 was adopted. It was interpreted that this result reflects a situation that alternative service exists and systematic situation is not realized, though conceding usefulness on the u-Ticket in tourist destinations like a coupon. Lastly, as the self-efficacy appeared to have a positive influence on all of perceived ease of use and usefulness, the Hypotheses 9 and 10 were adopted. This means that as an individual have higher confidence on ability and knowledge capable of solving anything by utilizing information technology, it means that the level of confidence in reflection of performance about understanding on use of new information technology service or perception on its using method is high.

**Conclusion**

The purpose of this research is to examine if users are mainly affected by any factors by applying the technology acceptance model and its expansion model in relation with using intention of the u-Ticket service in tourist destinations and to examine if the model introducing the technology acceptance model is applied to even the model on using intention and attitude of the u-Ticket in tourist destinations. As a result of this research, in case of the factors having a significant influence on using intention in the technology acceptance model, the perceived usefulness and ease of use appeared to have an influence on intention of use by attitude in the same way of the existing research. The effect of the perceived usefulness and ease of use have an influence on intention of use by attitude like this is not actually realized through this, but it can be known that the TAM (technology acceptance model) can be applied to even acceptance of a
cutting-edge information technology service that is being realized in detail like the u-Ticket service in tourist destinations.

The perceived use easiness, self-efficacy and mobility and connectivity appeared to be significant as factors having an influence on the perceived usefulness, but the personal innovativeness and social influence appeared to have no influence. In case of factors having an influence on the perceived use easiness, it appeared that the personal innovativeness, social influence and self-efficacy excluding the mobility and connectivity among external variables being suggested in the research model have a significant influence.

On the other hand, according to the result that examined the respective path coefficient, the following fact can be known.

First, though its realization didn’t take concrete shape, the influence on attitude is high in acceptance of information technology like the u-Ticket service in tourist destinations that the possibility of its realization is high. Namely, it implies that the formation of positive and desirable attitude to raise receptive capacity on new information technology like the u-Ticket service in tourist destinations is important.

Second, where the usefulness of this new information technology service is positioned, namely, it implies that the emphasis of a resultant aspect like if it can give any help in the concrete reality called tourism or can raise satisfaction of tour experience is necessary in that the path coefficient of perceived usefulness is high rather than perceived ease of use for formation of a positive attitude on the u-Ticket service in tourist destinations. Third, it was clarified that the mobility, connectivity and self-efficacy are variables that have a relatively big influence rather than perceived ease of use in relation with the perceived usefulness. In order to raise the perceived usefulness on the u-Ticket service in tourist destinations, it implies that this service can be used without possibility as an alternative service, location and temporal restriction to an individual, rather than the point that use of this service is easy, and that the confidence on how much an individual has technology and ability capable of well utilizing information technology on oneself is more important. This can be interpreted that if the u-Ticket service in tourist destinations is concretely realized, an individual with technology and ability capable of handling the latest information technology like the smart phone would first show interest in it.

References


http://www.u-tour.or.kr/Sub/?pid=0101.
Tourism and Urban Regeneration: Separate or Integrated Policy Fields, Actors and Networks?

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Abstract
The paper examines whether the policy fields, actors and networks for tourism are integrated with those of wider urban regeneration. It considers the extent to which tourism is given prominence in urban regeneration, and whether there is coordination between associated tourism marketing and development. A policy network approach is used to assess the relations between tourism and urban regeneration for two UK waterfronts with significant tourism dimensions: The Quays in Greater Manchester and Newcastle/Gateshead Quayside. Tourism was generally regarded as a secondary support for regeneration, and it was often largely used in opportunistic ways. There was found to be only modest integration between the actors and policy networks associated with tourism and those associated with wider urban regeneration.

Key words: urban regeneration, tourism marketing, tourism development.

Introduction
The global economic restructuring in the 1970s brought significant changes to the UK’s political economy. Facing the decline of traditional heavy manufacturing industries, which had been the foundation of the national economy, the national and local governments realised that they could not take the immense challenge on their own. This led to a major change in the UK government’s regulation approach, and policy making and implementation now involves a wide range of actors from the public, private, voluntary and community sectors through partnerships and policy networks. The old industrial cities in the UK had to find a way to rejuvenate their urban areas and attract new economic activities and many of them incorporated tourism into their regeneration strategies. Tourism literature regards such incorporation of tourism as a policy response to secure urban regeneration by improving the urban environment and image, and bringing tourists and employment opportunities. However, tourism researchers gave relatively little attention to the integration between the two
policy fields of tourism and urban regeneration. Tourism planning and policy-making involves a wide range of actors with different interests, which cross over many different policy fields. The urban regeneration decision-making process is also highly complex, fragmented and irregular (Spaans, 2002) because the problems of economic decline, social exclusion and area dereliction have been proved too severe and complex to be resolved by any one agency, local government, business or community group acting alone (Carley et al., 2000). To understand the extent to which tourism is incorporated into urban regeneration, it is necessary to investigate how these two complex policy fields are integrated.

An improved understanding of the linkages between tourism and regeneration policy networks could encourage coordination in policy making and implementation and could lead to improved and integrated urban regeneration. This paper investigates two issues:

(i) Whether there was integration of tourism and urban regeneration through shared policy priorities and policy objectives, and whether this led to tourism being given high prominence.

(ii) Whether there was integration of tourism and urban regeneration through shared actors and shared interactions and mutually beneficial exchanges within policy networks, and whether tourism actors were prominent in the policy networks.

These issues will be explored in the specific context of two urban areas which have undertaken ambitious urban regeneration schemes that include tourism dimensions. These are the Quays in Greater Manchester and Newcastle/Gateshead Quayside, both inner urban areas in northern England. Policy network approach will be adopted to investigate the integration between actors involved in tourism and urban regeneration policy fields.

**Literature Review**

The decline of traditional industries in the 1970s and 1980s led to a downward spiral of economic and social decline in many UK cities. These cities in need of regeneration suffered from ‘poor housing and environment, worklessness, crime, under-capacity and spirals of deprivation’ (Aiesha & Evans, 2007, p. 37). In their search for a way to regenerate the local economy and improve the physical urban environment, the local governments found tourism an attractive tool. During the 1980s and 1990s, there was an explosion of interest in the promotion of tourism in British local governments (Thomas and Thomas, 1998).
'Tourism has been seen as a tool for local economic development for the first time outside seaside resorts and spa towns, and has generated a somewhat uncritical band-wagon of interest while adding to the range and functions of local authority departments' (Hudson and Townsend, 1992, p. 50). Tourism researchers identify several advantages of tourism in urban regeneration and local economy development. Firstly, tourism-related functions of a city have become important global competition to attract inward investment and population. With the increased attention to cultural capital, 'cities and regions compete to project an image of offering innovative, exciting, and creative life-styles and living environments' and 'the construction of physical infrastructure and built environments to attract and capture circulation discretionary expenditure and investment' (Brittion, 1991, p. 470). Secondly, tourism is also considered as an environmentally sustainable industry which can re-use ruined sites and improve the physical environment of the destination (Swarbrooke, 2000). By doing so, a city can help enhance the local pride and improve its image to attract visitors (Long, 1999). Lastly, tourism, as a labour intensive industry, can create significant numbers of jobs, especially for young people and women (Swarbrooke, 2000). Some researchers (Page & Hall, 2003) criticise that existing studies of tourism-related urban regeneration are rather descriptive and provide little theoretical or conceptual development. This is because tourism literature has relatively small consideration into the wider urban political and economic context. Ashworth (1989, p. 33) calls this 'a double neglect' where 'those interested in the study of tourism have tended to neglect the urban context in which much of it is set, while those interested in urban studies... have been equally neglectful of the importance of the tourist function in cities.' Britton (1991) also argues that geographers have missed many useful links between tourism and other political and economic issues, which indicate the wider role and position of tourism in capitalist accumulation, by treating tourism as an isolated issue from other social and economic spheres. Studying tourism on its own, separately from the rest of urban economy may be somewhat artificial when there are so much overlapping of activities and people involved in tourism and the rest of urban activities. Local residents and visitors share the same urban spaces, for examples, the same public transport, car parks, shopping centres, bars and restaurants, theatres and museums, and public squares and parks. Although tourism is one of the most visible activities in a city’s upmarket office, residential, entertainment and retail areas, these areas also have its own residential population and various facilities, built environment and employment activity not dominated by tourism (Aiesha and Evans, 2007). There-
fore urban tourism development should be investigated through a more holistic approach within a wider urban economic and political context.

The research of Thomas and Thomas (1998) is an exception as they investigate the impacts of the changes in British local politics on tourism development. They argue that during the 1980s and 1990s, British local governments experienced a role change from a delivery body of centrally defined services to an enabling body with increased responsibilities to tackle local problems. This involved working with other public, private and voluntary sector organisations through partnerships in policy making and implementation at the local level. The term ‘governance’ is often used to describe these changes, which can be defined as ‘a concern with governing, achieving collective action in the realm of public affairs, in conditions where it is not possible to rest on recourse to the authority of state’ (Stocker, 2000, p. 93). As tourism development requires institutional flexibility and cross-institutional cooperation, these changes should provide a favourable environment for tourism development (Thomas & Thomas, 1998). However, tourism, which is a non-statutory duty, remained marginal from politicians and professional concerns. Therefore a stronger and better resourced involvement is needed at the regional level through Regional Development Agencies, which has a statutory duty to promote tourism (ibid., 1998).

Policy network approach can be a useful tool to analyse the interaction between the different actors involved in governance. A policy network is ‘a cluster or complex of organisations connected to each other by resource dependencies and distinguished from other clusters or complexes by breaks in the structure of resource dependencies’ (Benson, 1982, p. 148). Policy networks exist and operate as links between actors within a particular policy domain (Marsh, 1998) and suggest the ‘structural relationships, interdependencies and dynamics between actors in politics and policy-making’ (Schneider, 1998, cited in Borzel, 1998, p. 258). In this paper, policy network will be adopted as a framework to explore the gap of policy priority, actor and networks between tourism and urban regeneration in two case study areas which will be briefly introduced in the following.

**Methodology**

Two urban regeneration areas in northern England were chosen for the case study in this research: ‘Newcastle/Gateshead Quayside’ (Figure 1) in Tyne and Wear (Figure 3) and ‘The Quays’ (Figure 2) in Greater Manchester (Figure 3).
Newcastle/Gateshead Quayside

The Newcastle/Gateshead Quayside is located along the river Tyne and includes the both sides of the river bank of Newcastle City and Gateshead Metropolitan Borough. The river Tyne was in the centre of the industrial revolution in the North East of England in the 19th century based on coal mining, shipbuilding, chemical and engineering industries (Simpson, 2009). However, along with other areas of Tyneside, Newcastle and Gateshead suffered from the decline of these staple industries through inter-war depression and in 1960s, and most of these heavy industries disappeared from the river.

The regeneration of Newcastle started in the early 60s but it was the 80s under the Tyne and Wear Development Corporation (TWDC, 1987-1998) when the face of Newcastle waterfront area has undergone dramatic transformation through infrastructure improvement, major office development, and hotel development (Morgan, 2009).

Gateshead took a separate culture-led regeneration approach. The iconic sculpture, The Angel of the North was completed in 1998, followed by flagship cultural regeneration projects on the river front such as Baltic Centre of Contemporary Arts (hereafter Baltic), The Sage Gateshead (hereafter Sage), a concert hall, and the Millennium Bridge. These waterfront developments attracted private developments on the waterfront such as Hilton hotel and residential and office buildings (Morgan, 2009). The proximity of the Quayside to Newcastle city centre gives a wide range of visitor attractions such as retail stores, museums and galleries, theatres and cinemas, and restaurants and bars.

Figure 1. Map of Newcastle/Gateshead Quayside
Source: adopted from NGI, 2009
The Quays

The Quays is situated along the Manchester Ship Canal and covers both sides of the canal in Salford City and Trafford Metropolitan Borough. The Quays was home to the Manchester docks, one of the most industrial areas in England until early 1960s. The Ship Canal secured Manchester’s economy by linking the landlocked area to the sea until ‘in the 1970s the docks rapidly declined due to containerisation and the increasing size of ships’ (Salford City Council, 2008:3). This was worsened by transformation of global trading pattern and the docks were completed closed by 1982 (ibid., 2008).

The Council, with considerable support of the national government, transformed the physical environment of the docks in the 1980s (SCC, 2008). From the late 1980s there have been major private office, residential, and leisure developments on the Salford Quays (Struthers, 2003). The regeneration of the Trafford side of The Quays was led by the Trafford Park Development Corporation (TPDC, 1987-1998) which again focused on improvement on physical infrastructure and environment and attracting inward investment and jobs.
The emergence of The Quays as a visitor destination of the current shape started with The Lowry, a performing art centre, and the Millennium Bridge which opened in 2000 as a Millennium Project. The Lowry Outlet Mall followed in 2001 and the Imperial War Museum North opened in 2002 on the Trafford side of the canal. The most recent development, MediacityUK was to be new home to BBC, The University of Salford and many other creative media industry companies. The first phase of MediacityUK development included office spaces and studios, retail and leisure spaces, a hotel, residential apartments, public open spaces and a new footbridge connecting Salford and Trafford sides of The Quays.

The research data was obtained from interviews, observation of a partnership meeting, policy papers and archive documents, and websites. The primary data was collected through the total of 44 interviews, 22 interviews respectively in each case study area between April 2009 and July 2010. The interview covers a wide range of actors involved in tourism marketing, tourism development and urban regeneration from a variety of the public, private and third sector organisations. The public sector organisations included the Regional Development Agencies and local authorities. Public-private partnership organisations such as Destination Management Organisations and Urban Regeneration Company/City Development Company were also included for interviews. The Private sector interviewees included property developers, land owners, and property consultants, tourism-related businesses. The third-sector public funded cultural organisations were also included in the interviews as many of them were originally developed as regeneration projects and they were key visitor attractions.

The semi-structured interviews covered questions about the interviewees’ roles in and views about tourism-related urban regeneration and their interaction with other organisations and actors in policy field of tourism-related urban regeneration. Interviews lasted an hour on average and recorded in a digital format. The interview data was transcribed and analysed on NVivo software based on thematic framework approach (Richie et al., 2003) for qualitative data analysis.

**Results**

‘Is tourism a catalyst which is central to urban regeneration or is it a supplementary activity that is useful but not central?’
'Good practice guide on planning for tourism' published by Department for Communities and Local Government (DCLG, 2006:19) highlights that tourism can 'be the focus of regeneration, or help to underpin it', 'help to increase urban vitality and support linked trips', and 'be a key ingredient of mixed-use schemes'. In both case study areas, such a tourism dimension was also widely perceived as a significant component of urban regeneration. However, tourism was not considered as the core component of urban regeneration for either of the two case study areas. It was not the focus, or top of the agenda, but a less prominent element of regeneration which helps transform a derelict urban environment and achieve economic recovery. A property developer stated that “the role of tourism is not core to what is going on at The Quays but it has been an important peripheral cue. …., but still not central to what is going on. The central to what is going on here is still creating employment and creating somewhere people to live”.

Tourism was regarded to have more of a complementary and supplementary role in place making and economic restructuring in the two case study areas and there were at least three elements of tourism’s supplementary role. Firstly, the flagship cultural visitor attractions such as The Lowry, The Angel of The North, Baltic and Sage were thought to improve the quality of place and quality of life in the case study areas. Such cultural facilities along with other leisure provision of the areas can help “attract and retain talented people, then automatically attract inward investment” (A URC officer).

Secondly, tourism development brings in employment opportunities. Although these are often relatively low paid and low skilled jobs, these jobs actually were thought to be vital for less skilled workers and thus for the socio-economic well-being of the cities. A museum officer described that “the jobs that are created whether they are museums, arts centre, theatres, restaurants… they are real jobs. They are paying people and those people paying their rent, mortgages and spending the money in shops in town.”

Lastly, the tourism attraction may be associated with the leisure and hospitality elements in mixed use schemes. This was important as these leisure elements brings “vibrancy and vitality and create an area where people can live, work and play” (A property consultant). However, these leisure elements may have had a lower rate of return on investment compared with other parts of these schemes such as office and/or residential development.

It was made clear that the aim of regeneration in the case study areas was not to develop their urban areas as a visitor destination. Rather, tourism was a
stepping stone to make the areas more attractive to inward population and investment so that the areas can achieve the ultimate aim of regeneration, revalorisation of urban lands and economic recovery.

‘Is there integration of the policymakers and policy networks involved in tourism and in urban regeneration, or are they relatively separate?’

Figure 4 presents the key organisations involved in tourism-related urban regeneration in the case study areas, the Regional Development Agencies (RDAs), local authorities, Destination Management Organisations (DMOs), Urban Regeneration Company (URC), City Development Company (CDC), private developers, tourism-related businesses and the third sector cultural attractions.

Tourism is not a statutory function of local governments in England but the local authorities in the case study areas played an important part as they provided and maintained the infrastructure for tourism such as “the tourist information centre, the signage, brochures, transport running between our different attractions and so on” (A local councillor). All four local authorities in the case study areas had tourism officers within the council who dealt with a variety of tourism-related issues.

Visit Manchester (VM) was the DMO for Greater Manchester and Newcastle Gateshead Initiative (NGI), together with Tourism Tyne and Wear (TTW) were the DMO for Tyne and Wear. These DMOs were funded by the RDAs, local authorities and private tourism businesses members and responsible for producing sub-regional tourism strategy and leading tourism development and marketing in the sub-regions.

However, it was found that DMOs in the case study areas did not have much influence in decision-making around urban regeneration. Firstly, the DMOs focused mainly on marketing activities, while many key regeneration decisions related to major developments and development issues, and thus they were not involved in many key policy networks and arenas. For example, VM and NGI were regarded as destination 'marketing' organisations rather than 'management' organisations who sold “what is already there” and “once a produce is created” rather than “creating the product” (A council officer).
Secondly, the DMOs did not have either authority or money to influence on regeneration agenda and even if they wanted to expand their influence to development issues, they were often expected to concentrate on marketing activities by their funders such as local authorities and private members. A DMO officer argued that “The emphases placed on marketing ... massively out-portioned compared to the kind of development. ... Whatever you do, it is a constant battle we have with our local authorities who paid money into this. .... [research and business support] is never seen as a credible alternative [to marketing].”

This demonstrated that the DMOs in the case study areas were experiencing ‘an organisational separation of tourism marketing from much of the tourism planning and development activities and policy work’ (Bramwell and Rawd-
Such organisational separation is likely to make it more difficult to coordinate tourism marketing with not only with tourism development and but also with wider social and economic policies (ibid, 1994), including regeneration policies.

RDAs, local authorities and the DMOs were the main tourism policy makers in the case study areas. The private tourism businesses promote themselves individually and also collectively through partnerships such as The Quays marketing partnership. They were also involved in tourism product development such as events and festivals, often led by the DMOs and local authorities, but their involvement in physical tourism development and urban regeneration was very limited. Many of the cultural attractions were born as flagship urban regeneration projects but once established they were unlikely to invest in major further construction. They had little influence on the regeneration of the surrounding area as the decision-making was largely down to the market and private sector investors.

The organisations that had major influence on policy decisions on urban regeneration in the case study areas were the local authorities and private developers with support of the national government and RDAs. The local authorities have planning authority and some financial power, but they could not achieve the successful regeneration without private sector investment. At the same time, the private developers could not proceed with their development projects unless they obtain the planning permission and support from the local authorities. The resource dependence between these two is 'a political economy concerned with the distribution of two scarce resources, money and authority' (Benson, 1975:229). In the case study areas, Central Salford URC for Salford and 1NG, the CDC for Newcastle and Gateshead, were established to aid the local authority and developer relations and achieve successful regeneration.

However, the private developers and URC/CDC were generally involved in tourism to a much lesser extent. Urban regeneration projects did not always include tourism or leisure elements and the developer’s involvement largely depended on their development portfolio and specialities. Some projects in the case study areas were purely industrial and residential, and developers who were specialised in such property development did not care about tourism at all.

The incorporation of tourism agenda and the involvement of tourism actors and organisations in urban regeneration policy making were relatively limited due to the market-oriented and opportunistic nature of urban regeneration.
Urban regeneration often took place in an opportunistic way and the actors involved “have to grasp very big opportunities on a very big scale very quickly” (A museum director). This required rapid and practical decision-making, which was largely down to a small number of senior level politicians and officers from local authorities and directors of private development companies.

The RDAs and DMOs in the case study areas tried to extend their influence into urban regeneration but this was still via their marketing roles. A RDA tourism officer emphasised that "Marketing isn't just about the selling. It is also encouraging those who are going to develop the visible development to make sure there is a market then. If you build something that people don’t want to see, however you sell it, they will never come. So marketing have to inform the developers that there is potential for those product." The DMOs also promoted urban regeneration projects in their region to potential investors. For example, Visit Manchester with Marketing Manchester took marketing and branding role within and across numbers of regeneration projects in Manchester such as The Quays and MediacityUK, and Manchester Corridor.

However, there was no systematic or coordinated way to involve tourism organisations in urban regeneration planning and decision-making processes. Tourism was frequently perceived as an activity which is only required once planning and major developments were in place and it was established as a place worth visiting by tourists. A regeneration project requires different skill sets as it progresses and tourism actors may only be asked to join at a later stage for operation and marketing activities.

Conclusion

In the case study areas, tourism had a less prominent secondary role in urban regeneration. Tourism was associated with improving quality of life which helps attract much needed inward investment and population and revalorise the urban lands ultimately. There was a lack of integration between tourism and urban regeneration policy actors and networks. Tourism organizations generally had relatively limited involvement in urban regeneration and little resources and power to affect key regeneration decisions.

Harvey (1989) argues that the political management of cities is based on entrepreneurial ideology and aimed at providing a favourable environment that will attract capital. The extent to which tourism is incorporated into urban regeneration therefore depends on the understanding of urban regeneration decision-makers of tourism in capital accumulation. This is particularly important
because tourism, as a discretionary service, is not always a priority of local governments unless the key decision-makers see the value of it.

To enhance the coherence and integration between tourism and urban regeneration, there should be strong and integrated cross-departmental working relationships between tourism and other departments in the local authorities. In the case study areas tourism officers usually sat lower down in the management line and did not have much influence on development and planning issues. Tourism organisations such as RDAs and DMOs should help the politicians and officers of local authorities understand the role of tourism in urban economy and the complex and fragmented relationships between tourism and other urban policies. They should also build relationships with the private developers and encourage them to consider the visitor experience through their development projects. Although this paper provides an overview of the integration between tourism policy actors and networks and those of urban regeneration, the application of policy network approach can be extended further to investigate more complex interactions between these actors. There is no single actor who has the resource capacity or knowledge to act unilaterally and organisations involved in collective action are dependent on one another’s resources (Kooiman, 1993). However, interactions within and between policy networks are not simply based on collaboration. Rather, policy networks are a site of struggle between competing interests and conceptions of purpose and its dynamic power relations and adaptability to the political changes should be investigated (Evans, 2001).

Future studies should investigate such struggles amongst the various organisations and actors involved in tourism and urban regeneration because the integration between the two policy fields cannot be improved without understanding the conflicts between their actors and policy networks. These will include the conflictual relationships between local authorities and private developers, between the different local authorities, and also between the tourism organisations at different geographical levels.

This paper largely concentrated on physical and economic regeneration of the case study areas, but future research should also consider the role of tourism in socio-cultural regeneration and community involvement in urban tourism development. Such research will help clarify non-economic benefits of tourism in urban areas and justify and encourage more local authorities’ support and investment for tourism in the future.
References


Do Wellbeing Tourists Expect Memorable Experiences?

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Abstract
Wellbeing tourism may contain rejuvenating and pampering services from a wider scale than wellness tourism, not necessarily referring to luxury. This study is an attempt to capture the essence of wellbeing tourism as a lived experience. Nine narrative interviews were conducted in a Finnish context representing this type of offering. The purpose was to increase our understanding about the motivations and expectations of a wellbeing tourist as well as the components of a wellbeing tourism experience. The results indicate that wellbeing tourists do not necessarily expect to experience anything extraordinary, indulging or memorable during their wellbeing holiday, but more often they just expect to relax, enjoy the possibility to escape from the daily routines and have a physically activating break.

Key words: wellness tourism, wellbeing tourism, motivations, experience.

Introduction
Wellness and wellbeing tourism have been current topics in tourism marketing practice and research during recent years. Wellbeing tourism may be regarded as a form of wellness tourism (Sheldon & Bushell, 2009). According to Erfurt-Cooper and Cooper (2009) the concept wellness has its origins in a natural and holistic approach to health. Although spas seem to play an essential role in practice, research and literature (Smith & Kelly, 2006; Smith & Puczkó, 2009), wellness tourism as a phenomenon is by no means confined to spas. According to Smith and Kelly (2006), tourists motivated by escapism and relaxation may prefer beach, spa and mountains, and those with existential and psychological motivations may be interested in holistic centers focused on self-development.
and philosophical contemplation. They state that wellness tourism often refers to engaging in self-analysis without the stresses and distractions of home.

The concept of wellness includes elements of lifestyle, physical, mental, and spiritual wellbeing, and one’s relationship to oneself, others, and the environment (Smith & Puczkó, 2009). The wellness tourism offering is often taken to include luxury (Konu, Tuohino, & Komppula, 2010) and expensive services (e.g. Smith & Puczkó, 2009). Wellness tourists are regarded to be high income visitors, older people, motivated by a desire for rest, relaxation, health, rejuvenation or escapism (Smith & Puczkó, 2009). In several countries wellness has become a label that allows the customer to expect added value (Erfurt-Cooper & Cooper, 2009) and luxury (Gelbman, 2009).

As wellness tourism generally refers to luxury hotels offering rejuvenating and pampering services, wellbeing tourism may contain services from a wider scale, not necessarily being luxury. According to Smith and Puczkó (2009) for example small scale recreational spas for skiers, hikers and families in Alpine regions could be considered as wellbeing locations. In Alpine countries, wellness or wellbeing tourism establishments are often located in a rural environment and nature experiences are an essential part of the Alpine Wellness experience brand (Pesonen, Komppula, Kronenberg, & Peters, 2011; Weiermair & Steinhauser, 2003). Also e.g. in Finland, wellbeing tourism is based mainly on nature, including lakes (Kangas & Tuohino, 2008). Wellbeing offering may include pampering, activities and experiences of luxury, but may more often refer to culture, nature, peace and quiet in the countryside (Konu et al., 2010). Water is a key element of a wellbeing tourism (Erfurt-Cooper & Cooper, 2009), but not only in a form of pools and fountains, but as part of landscape and a space for water activities. Experiencing natural waters was also identified as one of the core elements of tourist destination experience of Nordic Wellbeing destination product in addition to such things as getting a sense of own wellbeing through nature and culture, self-development in a peaceful environment and slow-life (Konu, 2010; Hjalager, Konu, Huijbens, Björk, Flagestad, Nordin, & Tuohino, 2011). Wellbeing tourism refers to emotional motivations, such as connection with community or nature, inner and outer beauty therapy, relaxation and energy balancing (Sheldon & Bushell, 2009). So, in several countries, wellbeing tourism and rural tourism may be in certain cases partly overlapping concepts in terms of tourist motivations.

Although several books and research articles have been published around the topic, only few empirical studies have tried to capture the essence of well-
being tourism as a lived experience. This study is an attempt to fill this gap in the literature. The purpose is to increase our understanding about the motivations and expectations of a wellbeing tourist as well as the components of a wellbeing tourism experience.

**Literature Review**

According to Palmer (2010), English language dictionary interpretations have caused confusion with the word experience being used as a verb and also as a noun. Some dictionary definitions define experience as an outcome, and others as feelings of emotions and sensations as opposed to thinking (Palmer, 2010). In, for example, German and Finnish languages there is a distinction between an experience referring to knowledge and expertise gained after an event (Erfahrung, kokemus) and an experience referring to a process of undergoing and living through an event (Erlebnis, elämys). Although the concept and topic of experience has been a popular topic especially in the field of travel and tourism research during the last few decades, and several researchers have tried to capture the essence of the tourist experience (e.g. Tung & Ritchie, 2011; Walls et al., 2011; Ryan, 2010; Jennings, Lee, Ayling, Brooke, Cater & Ollenburg, 2009; Scott, Laws & Boksberger, 2009; Volo, 2009; Andersson, 2007; Mossberg, 2007, Uriely, 2005), no clear consensus of the conceptualization of what constitutes an experience has been reached.

Social science literature often regards the tourist experience as a peak experience, usually derived from attractions and being the motivator for tourism, and being in sharp contrast to the daily experience (Quan & Wang, 2004), referring to a memorable experience (Erlebnis) mentioned e.g. by Pine and Gilmore (1998, p. 12), who describe successful experiences as being those that “a customer finds unique, memorable and sustainable over time”. Schmitt (1999, p. 26) states that experiences “provide sensory, emotional, cognitive, behavioral and relational values that replace functional values”. A marketing and management approach, based on the centrality of the tourist, treats tourist experience as a consumer experience (Quan & Wang, 2004). According to Volo (2009) the word “experience” often seems to be taken as a synonym for e.g. visit, activity, consumption, product, service attraction or behavior. All these may be components contributing to the total tourist experience or may become the experience itself.

In a framework for composition of hospitality and tourism experiences presented by Walls et al. (2011) a core consumer experience is comprised of two axis, representing four components including ordinary, extraordinary, cognitive and emotive. In an axis of ordinary to extraordinary, at the highest level
the experience may be a peak (see e.g. Maslow 1964 cited in Walls et al., 2011; Cohen, 1979) or a transformative (Smith 1978 cited in Walls et al., 2011) experience, being more or less analogous with terms like “immersed” (e.g. Pine & Gilmore, 1999), “optimal” (see e.g. Walker, 1998), “extraordinary” (e.g. Arnould & Price, 1993; Jackson, Morgan & Hemmington, 2009) or “flow” (see Csikszentmihalyi 1990 cited in Walls et al., 2011). Tourist experience may include both extraordinary (peak) components and daily routine components, and can occur on a continuum ranging from ordinary or daily to transformative or epiphanic. Tourist experiences may thus range from exciting positive experiences to unpleasant negative experiences. According to Walls et al. (2011) an individual can initiate the process in which an experience can occur, or control or choose whether s/he will have an experience or not, including negative experiences. They propose that experiences employ a unique combination of cognitive and emotive processes.

Each consumer’s individual characteristics and situational factors determine the type and degree of the consumer experience encountered (Walls et al., 2011). Also Ooi (2005) posits the subjective nature of a tourist experience, as different interests and backgrounds lead to diverse interpretations and different experiences of a single tourist offering in the same place among different tourists. Enjoying oneself during an experience does not necessarily mean that it is a memorable experience (Ooi, 2005).

Kim, Ritchie and McCormick (2012) defined a positive memorable tourism experience (MTE) as a tourism experience positively remembered and recalled after the event has occurred. They posit that all tourist experiences do not necessarily translate into MTEs. As they had noted that only few studies have explored the components of the MTE, they conducted a study, the goal of which was to develop a valid and reliable measurement scale that would assist in understanding the concept of MTE and help in explanation of the factors that characterize memorable tourism experiences. According to their results, seven constructs (i.e., hedonism, refreshment, local culture, meaningfulness, knowledge, involvement, and novelty) are important components of the memorable tourism experience. Tung and Richie (2011) posit that a memorable tourism experience is composed of affect, expectations, consequentiality and recollection, meaning that the tourism experience encompasses the entire trip from pre-, during and post travel.

Travel and tourism experiences can be regarded as outcomes of consumption experiences away from home, which are according to Walls et al. (2011) ...”
based on the consumer’s willingness and capacity to be affected and influenced by physical and/or human interaction dimensions and formed by people’s encounters with products, services, and businesses influencing consumption values (emotive and cognitive), satisfaction and repeat patronage” (p. 18). This outcome refers to the concept of customer value (or consumer value, service value, perceived value etc.), which runs parallel to and is a major contributor to the construct of customer experience (Palmer, 2010). The outcome, or as Gnoth (1997) calls it “effect”, describes the impact on drives (emotions), on existing and new attitudes and values including satisfaction judgment. The basis for these expectancies can be derived from the person’s underlying holiday-taking motivations (e.g. Ryan, 1997).) Dann (1981, p. 205) defined tourism motivation as “a meaningful state of mind which adequately disposes an actor or group of actors to travel, and which is subsequently interpretable by others as a valid explanation for such a decision”. According to Gnoth (1997) felt needs turn into motivations when coupled with specific situations and a tourist’s value system.

Studies showing empirical evidence of wellness tourist motivations mostly refer to spa-goers or spiritual tourists (Smith & Puczkó, 2009). The results of Mak et al. (2009) show that Relaxation and Relief were considered as the most important of the motivating factors of spa-goers, and luxury does not seem to be an indispensable attribute of a spa experience. The results of Chen and Prebensen’s (2009) study in three upscale Taiwanese wellness resorts showed that beyond body pampering, wellness seekers are interested in relaxation, recreation and experiencing nature. Multiple activities are also an essential part of a wellness holiday (Chen, Prebensen & Huan, 2008). Koh et al. (2010) found four major benefits sought by spa goers, which were socializing, relaxation, health and rejuvenation. Lehto et al. (2006) studied motivations of yoga tourists using 18 motivation statements and found four motivation factors in their study: seeking spirituality, enhancing mental well-being, enhancing physical condition, and controlling negative emotions. Kelly and Smith (2009) also recognized in their case study that the focus of retreat holidays is “the self”.

Konu and Laukkanen have examined wellbeing tourists in a wider scale, not just focusing on some sub-sector. In their study (2010) they found that interest in taking a well-being holiday can be predicted with five push factors and five pull factors. The most important push factors for well-being trips were refresh oneself, visiting fashionable/trendy places and aesthetic experiences. In their previous study Konu and Laukkanen (2009) showed that motivation factors connected to health and physical activity and self-development were most decisive regarding the intention to take a well-being trip.
Several studies conducted in Finland indicate that rural tourism can be regarded as one form of wellbeing tourism. The findings of Komppula (2005) on expected customer value among rural tourists show that regardless of the target group (adults, or families with children), all the respondents expected to have a peaceful, quiet and rush-free country holiday. Their expectations towards services and activities during their rural holiday included always sauna, and some kind of nature activities, such as swimming, rowing and walking in the forest. In a recent study of Pesonen and Komppula (2010) on rural tourism motivations a segment of Wellbeing tourists was found. The members of that segment were motivated by hassle-free vacation, escape from a hectic life, recreation, physical rest and relaxation. This wellbeing segment valued benefits such as privacy, tranquil atmosphere and spending time outside in natural surroundings. According to a study of Pesonen, Laukkanen and Komppula (2011) on benefits based on destination specific pull factors, those tourists who were most interested in wellbeing services, were also the most interested in history and attractions. Rural tourism and nature based tourism have been seen as forms of wellness tourism also in a few studies e.g. in Portugal (Rodrigues, Kastenholz & Rodrigues, 2010) and in Iceland (Huijbens, 2011).

**Methodology**

Nine narrative interviews were conducted in a typical Finnish context representing wellbeing type of offering. This study can be seen as an instrumental case study, where a typical Finnish wellbeing tourism site was chosen as a source of data. In the site there is a spa hotel, which provides services (accommodation, food, several kinds of pools, massage and other health and relaxation related treatments, beauty treatments) for self paying wellbeing tourists as well as several kinds of rehabilitation customers. In the location, also different kinds of organized out-door activities, so called experiential activities (such as rafting, Arctic-floating, snow-shoeing, husky safaris, church boat rowing and laughter yoga) are offered by an activity operator. The interviewed customers were chosen among customers of these two enterprises. The site is located in the middle of Finland in Jyväskylä region, which has long traditions for providing wellbeing related tourism services. It is surrounded by lakes, which offers an ideal environment for water-based wellbeing tourism activities. Seven of the interviewees were women and three men. Except one 77 years old woman, all the others were still working and belonged to the age group from 41 to 61. Three of the interviewees were rehabilitation customers and the others were self paying holiday makers.
Interviewees were asked to tell, what makes a memorable travel experience in general, and if they felt that the holiday, during which they were interviewed, did offer any memorable experiences. Special attention was kept on the components of a memorable experience. In order to understand the essence of the wellbeing experience, motivations for the holiday were also discussed, as they are considered to reflect the expectations towards experiences. The interviews can be describes as narrative, as the interviewees were ask to tell about the themes given, instead of giving exact questions to be answered. Data analysis was based on three themes (motivation, wellbeing experience, memorable experience,) under which several sub-themes emerged in the inductive analysis of the data. The findings were then examined in relation to the earlier literature on wellbeing tourism.

**Results**

Need for physical exercise was a common motivational factor for all the ten interviewees of this study. Exercise was a push motivation but it also referred to the destination choice. All interviewees were characterized by an active lifestyle and willingness to take good care of their physical health and condition. Physical exercise was most often connected to cross country skiing and nature based activities. The interviewees did not necessarily require any supervised activities, but were very self-acting in character.

Social relationships were the second important push motivation that emerged in the interviews. One of the interviewed women was travelling with her grand-child, which she described to be her source of memorable experience and push motivation. Most of the others were travelling this time with their spouses. Sharing experiences with the loved ones and having time to be together in peace was important. Also the rehabilitation customers emphasized the importance of good relationships with the others in the group, as a nice group gives support and encourages the members to exercise. Especially the elderly interviewees saw the presence of other guests in the same age group and interaction with them as an important factor in terms of enjoying the holiday.

As majority of the interviewees were in working age, relaxation, escape from the daily routines and a hassle free break were important motivators as well. The aim seemed to be a balance between physical exercise and relaxation. Additionally, most of the interviewees were in the age when their children are no more travelling with them, which gives them a freedom of choice to do what they themselves are interested in, instead of satisfying the needs of children. They seemed to enjoy the moments of freedom and independence, an
opportunity to be selfish with a good conscience. Nevertheless, the interviewees were not disturbed by families with children in the location. Novelty seeking was also mentioned as a push motivation. All the interviewed people were rather experienced travelers, especially the self paying customers, and they talked about novelty seeking also as a general travel motivator. According to them, even if they travel to a familiar destination or site, they expect to experience something new, e.g. try new activities or visit new places. Nevertheless, it was also noted that if the main motivation was physical activities, one may visit the same location and hotel time after time without any expectancies of novelty, if the content and quality of the service is as expected.

Nevertheless, novelty was seen as one of the core components of a memorable experience. For the interviewees it was rather difficult to start considering the term “memorable experience”, as most of them did not expect to experience anything “special” or “memorable” during this holiday. Still, all the interviewees did have quite a clear picture of what they considered to be a memorable experience in general. It should be somehow striking (“like seeing a wonderful scenery or sunset”), emotional, new (“something new, something that has been defined somehow worth seeing”), exiting, and unexpected (“something which is not necessarily planned or expected”).

Roughly half of the interviewees did not consider experiencing any memorable experiences during this holiday. Nevertheless, a few of the spa hotel customers mentioned memorable social interaction experiences, but these were more related to the travel companions than to the site itself. Still, all the interviewed spa hotel customers were satisfied with their holiday, as they did not even expect any memorable experiences. Those interviewees, who had used the services of the activity operator, did feel like experiencing memorable experiences. Specific activities were some kind of peak experiences during their holiday, giving short but memorable moments of excitement, or feelings of exceeding one’s limits.

As most of the interviewed did not experience memorable experiences during this trip, components of a memorable wellbeing tourism experience were then discussed in general. Again, physical exercise and the essence of nature as environment and also as a scenery were strongly present in stories of memorable travel experiences. Memorable activities, physical environment of the site, good service, social interaction and mental wellbeing were mentioned as essential components of a memorable wellbeing tourism experience. The importance of service encounters was emphasized: the personnel and the sense of customer
care have a major role in the creation of a memorable wellbeing tourism experience. Interviewees were ready to pay for personal service and hospitality, although luxury or excellence was not even mentioned in the interviews. One of the interviewees told about a certain guide for nature based activities, whose personality was a key to a successful and memorable hiking experience.

As maintaining and enhancing health would be a major motivator for wellbeing tourism, nutrition and food could be considered to play a crucial role as a component of a wellbeing experience. Nevertheless, not all of the respondents regarded its role to be crucial. Some of the respondents would even choose their destination or hotel according to the quality of food, but others were happy as soon as they did not need to make their food by themselves.

**Conclusion**

First of all, the findings indicate that (contrary to several earlier findings) wellbeing tourists do not necessarily expect to experience anything extraordinary, indulging or memorable during their wellbeing holiday. Wellbeing tourists of this study expect to relax, enjoy the possibility to escape from the daily routines and have a physically activating break. This finding is in line with Kim et al. (2012), who posit that all tourist experiences are not, and are not even expected to be memorable experiences.

In our study, only those who had used the services of the activity operator, so called “experiential services”, did feel like experiencing something memorable.

In general, novelty was seen as the core component of a memorable experience, others referring to striking, emotional, exiting, and unexpected events, or moments during the trip. So, the interviewees of this study saw a memorable experience more as a component of a holiday, as a peak experience, rather than a holistic experience, which supports the ideas of Quan and Wang (2004).

Physical exercise as a component of a wellbeing holiday was regarded the most important one among the interviewees of this study. The importance of physical exercise and activities for wellbeing tourists has been reported also by e.g. Bushell and Sheldon (2009), Chen and Prebensen (2009), Konu and Laukkanen (2009), Lehto et al. (2006) and Smith and Kelly (2006). Most of the interviewees in this study regarded one of the motivational factors (physical exercise) as more important than the others, which is in line with Pearce (2005). Still, the wellbeing holiday seems to be a combination and compromise of several motivations, as also Swarbrooke and Horner (1999) and Ryan (2002) have noted, relating to relaxation, social interaction and physical exercise. As wellbe-
ing tourists often travel with their spouses or friends, the destination is chosen to fulfill the needs and expectations of all the travel companions. Memorable activities, physical environment of the site, good service, social interaction and mental wellbeing were mentioned as essential components of a memorable wellbeing tourism experience.

The notion of this study that an adult wellbeing tourist would not necessarily be disturbed by families with children in the location, may be partly in contradiction with the findings of Konu and Laukkanen (2010), which indicated tourists who are interested in well-being holidays do not necessarily want to travel to places that are “child friendly”. One of the interviewees of this study was on a holiday with her grand-child, which seems to be a new and growing trend in spa hotels during the off-season time.

The wellbeing tourists interviewed in this study were rather experienced travelers, which is in line with the findings of Konu and Laukkanen (2010). Wellbeing holiday was seen more as a holistic experience (but not necessarily a memorable experience) characterized with nature experiences, which supports findings of Konu et al. (2010), suggesting that nature experiences are an essential part of a Finnish wellbeing tourism product. The key role of customer care and service encounters was emphasized, which is supported by e.g. Mossberg (2007) and Curtin (2010). Contrary to Mossberg (2007), wellbeing tourists did not see the role of stories connected to the venue or location as an important component of an experience.

Weiermair and Steinhäuser (2003) state that wellness tourists wish to taste authentic and genuine regional food beyond the health food offered in the wellness hotels. They continue by arguing that for enjoying a complete wellness vacation, nutrition should fit with the health program. Also Nahrstedt (2004) places balanced nutrition in an essential role as an element of high level wellness. Nevertheless, nutrition and food did not play a remarkable role in terms of a memorable experience, but still as a component of a wellbeing experience.

In conclusion, it must be noted that wellbeing tourism seems not to be a one and particular product, but it seems to have several different forms depending on the basic motivation and expectations of the tourist, which has also been noted by Smith and Puczkó (2009). The interviewees of this study seemed to belong to a group, which did not emphasize any kind of pampering, which, nevertheless, is often argued to be an essential part of (at least) wellness type of holidays. The limitation of this study is that the data is collected only in one
wellbeing location, which may indicate that a data collected at a different kind of location would have given different findings. So, more in-depth research is needed in order to capture the characteristics of different types of wellbeing tourism experiences.

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Gathering and Processing Information: The Case of Foreign Tourists in Portugal

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Abstract

Customer needs change and increase every day. Companies are supposed to know and respond the needs before their competitors. Knowing earlier what customer needs is a big advantage in the tourism market. Therefore acquisition of information from tourists is getting more important. This paper aims to determine what kind of information sources are used in tourism after and during the travels and how information is acquired. This paper establishes a clear distinction between information channels and information sources and introduces a tourist information matrix as a way of visualizing and measuring how travellers use various combinations of sources and channels when planning their travels. The matrix is tested in a survey of 10,165 international travellers, and a number of effects are identified for measuring the importance of sources and channels in combination as opposed to separately.

Key words: tourist information, information research, tourist information matrix, information sources.

Introduction

Information gains more and more importance, leading legitimately to the development of a fourth economic sector – the information sector currently. Information also plays a vital role in tourism for entrepreneurs and managers who spend the whole day involved in information processing. In the tourism industry there is no lack of market research data, on the contrary, there is a rather uncontrolled growth of various data sources, each having different survey purposes and survey designs. Tourism surveys of national and international market research institutes are published in ever shorter intervals and the level of itemization of market data increases rapidly (Seitz & Meyer, 1995).

The importance efficient information management is continuously increasing due to the evolution of new technologies and high-capacity storage media
but also because growing market dynamics raise information needs. Although a considerable amount of research on tourist information search has been produced during the last decade, several tourism scholars have acknowledged the need for more research into how and where travellers search for information.

The problem with tourist information search studies to date is that the traveller’s information search preferences have typically been measured by using a list of alternatives that include both information sources and information channels. This often forces the respondent to choose either a source or a channel when he or she in reality has used a combination of the two. For instance, the respondent may be asked to indicate whether the Internet or travel agents were most important in their trip planning when, in fact, a combination of the two may have been used through accessing a travel agent’s web site. In other words, the measurement of the traveller’s behaviour may not be valid because the categories that are used are not mutually exclusive (Field, 2005).

It has been argued that information can be treated as one of the most or even the most important factor influencing and determining consumer behaviour (Assael 1995). According to Fesenmaier and Vogt (1992), the very concept of tourism marketing implies an exchange of information that accompanies the sale of every tourism product. Although a considerable amount of research on tourist information search has been produced during the last decade, several tourism scholars have acknowledged the need for more research into how and where travellers search for information (e.g. Cai, Feng, & Breiter, 2004; Chen, 2000; Fodness & Murray, 1999; Hyde, 2006; Jeng & Fesenmaier, 1999; Lo, Cheung, & Law, 2002; Moorthy, Ratchford, & Talukdar, 1997).

The main objective of this study is to measure how international travellers recognize the importance of searching information in sources and how they use this to learn about destination, in case Portugal. In order to test the effect of different trip phases on travellers’ information search behaviour, a secondary objective of this study is to use the information search matrix to examine differences in the use of information strategies before and during an international trip. Our study gives beyond of the simple identification of sources it measures the effectiveness of these sources and how these sources contribute to learn about the destination, being the learning process measured by the expectations the tourist are able to have in light of levels of information used.

The following questions will be answered to express the importance of information for tourism destinations: What are the most important information sources? How effective is their use? How these information sources may con-
tribute to learn about destination? In which phase of trips the information sources are used? What are the differences in the use of information strategies before and during the trip?

**Literature Review**

Since the development of Claude E. Shannon’s Information Theory in the late 1940s, the distinction between sources and channels of information has been imprinted in the minds of generations of communications students, and the concepts have also been absorbed into everyday speech by the general public (Rogers, 1994).

Information sources have been included in many research works as important factors for the analysis of tourist behaviour. For instance, first, most of the tourist behaviour models incorporated the search of external information as an important component (Bettman, 1979; Engel & Kollat et al., 1978; Gursoy & McCleary, 2004; Howard & Sheth, 1969; Mathieson & Wall, 1982; Schmoll, 1977; Um & Crompton, 1990; Woodside & Lysonski, 1989). Second, some studies have examined the influence of information sources on tourists’ preferences and intentions (Mayo, 1973; Milman & Pizam, 1995). Third, other studies have centered on the relationship between information sources, destination selection and travel decisions (Baloglu, 2000; Bieger & Laesser, 2004; Mathieson & Wall, 1982; Santos, 1998; Schmoll, 1977; Um & Crompton, 1990; Wicks & Schuett, 1991).

Research on tourist behaviour has to begin with information search (Moutinho, 1987). One of the most influential factors in the purchase of a tourist product (destination) is information about tourist goods and services. Moreover, tourists differ in the information sources they use before making a decision (Moutinho, 1987). Institutions, travel agents and tourist businesses make great efforts and spend a lot of money to make tourist information circulate. Despite the high investment made on communication and promotion, there is a general lack of knowledge as to which information source tourists use to make their choice (Kim et al., 2005; Nolan, 1976; Gitelson & Crompton, 1983; Snepenger et al., 1990; Weilbacher, 2003). Nolan’s (1976) tried to determine how information sources are used, and the relationship between this use and tourist consumer behaviour.

The information about a concrete destination which is occasionally demanded by tourists is a particularly important means of promotion for the tourism industry. Sources of information about a destination have a great in-
fluence on the process of tourist decision-making, and the behaviour of tourists determines how the search for information is done and how information will be used (Andereck & Caldwell, 1993; Capella & Greco, 1987; Snepenger, Meged, Snelling & Worrall, 1990; Snepenger & Snepenger, 1993). Coltman (1989) comments that potential customers “will compare the brochure of one destination or supplier with the brochure of its competitors, and it is likely that the one with the best brochure will receive the business”. For many potential visitors the brochure they possess actually represents the product or destination they are purchasing. Another important factor is image, because it influences destination selection. Formal sources of information, like brochures, and informal sources, for example relatives and friends, have an influence on image formation in a tourist destination (Beerli & Martin, 2004; Crompton, 1979; Etzel & Wahlers, 1985).

A survey that was conducted by EML and the University of Heidelberg, recently showed that many tourists are very much reserved against IT assistance for their trip. Interestingly, however, the same amount of people would like to have some IT in form of a mobile computer. Even though, information as such can easily be carried around, it is still not really accessible for tourists for mobile use (Malaka & Zipf, 2009).

Tourism Information Search

Information search or information seeking is generally considered to mean the process of consulting various sources before making a purchasing decision (Andereck & Caldwell, 1993; Maser & Weiermair, 1998; Moutinho, 1987). Engel, Blackwell, and Miniard (1995) point out that these sources are not necessarily external to the consumer and defines information search as “the motivated activation of knowledge stored in memory or acquisition of information from the environment” (Engel, Blackwell, & Miniard, 1995, p. 182). In this study it will be concerned external information search primarily.

The information sources used by travellers from the very basis for planning a trip (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2003) and have therefore been studied extensively in the tourism literature. A main focus of most tourist information search studies has been to identify and rank the different information sources that have been used by travellers. In Table 1 the most important of these studies are listed, and the most important information source for each study is indicated. The basis for the ranking of sources has sometimes been actual frequency of usage of the information source, whereas other times the researchers have recorded source preference, usefulness, or importance placed on the different sources.
A great variety of information strategies have been investigated in these studies. Because of the different perspectives and methods used, caution should be applied in making direct comparisons between them. Nevertheless, the results provide some clear indications as to the relative importance of such sources as family, friends and relatives, which consistently rank in the top four in these studies. The importance of travel agents varies considerably, at times ranking as the most important source, whereas in other contexts and for other population segments, they are seen as relatively unimportant. Guidebooks and the Internet have also been found to be of major importance.

Information is needed by travellers at different times and different places (Fesenmaier & Jeng, 2000). Pre-trip information in the planning phase of a trip is required in the traveller’s home region or the prior destination. In-trip information is sought after the traveller has left for the destination. Flognfeldt and Nordgreen (1999) distinguish further between two types of in-trip information arguing that there are at least three phases in the information collection process: (i) information received or collected at home, before the start of the trip; (ii) information obtained or viewed during the trip (but before entering the destination); and (iii) information obtained or used at the destination visited during the stay.

The main point that should be made about the studies above is that none of them distinguish between the source that is providing the information and the channel through which it is communicated. A review of the lists of items used in these studies reveals that all of them contain a mix of information providers (such as friends or travel agents) and communication methods (such as brochures or Internet). This tends to shroud the fact that various communication methods may have been used to reach various information providers in a wide range of source/channel combinations.

**Tourist Information Sources**

In studies where the information items have been treated as categorical data, such a lack of mutual exclusivity is a violation of an important assumption underlying the analysis of categorical variables (Field, 2005), and may thus pose a threat to the validity of the results. If the information items are measured as continuous variables, e.g. by way of a Likert-type scale, a list ranked according to the highest mean values is also problematic because the respondent has been forced to evaluate the relative importance of two items that may, in fact, represent the same behaviour. In other words, it is not meaningful to claim that the
Internet is more important than travel agents if the Internet has primarily been used to get information from travel agents.

**Methodology**

The empirical study was carried out by means of a questionnaire applied along all the year of 2010 in the four main airports of Portugal. This questionnaire was randomly applied to foreign passengers who have spent at least two nights in Portugal. The central aim of this questionnaire is to determine what are the main information sources they have used after and during the trip as well as what is the optimal level of information they need to decide their travel.

Because of budgetary restrictions and the limited time available, it was decided to collect data from 10,200 questionnaires. As each questionnaire distributed cost a set amount and the funds available were limited, it was necessary to restrict the questionnaires to the maximum allowed by the funds available, corresponding to 7.0% of foreign passengers at Portugal airports. The questionnaires returned total 10,165, from which 10,165 completed questionnaires were retained for the present analysis, which represents a response rate of 99.7% of the sample chosen. This corresponds to a sampling error of 1.0% with a confidence interval of 95%. The remaining questionnaires received, but not considered for the present research, were discarded because of uncompleted fields and incorrectly completed questionnaires.

The objective was to evaluate how they gathered and processed information to learn or to experience Portugal. To pursue this objective, the questionnaire was structured in four questions: How important are information sources before the trip? how important are information sources during the trip? Despite the importance you recognize on these sources have you used these information sources and if yes when do you used it? Before, during or both situations. The information sources considered are publicity, internet, brochures, promotions, internet, friends and relatives, tour operators, being those the main determinants outlined in literature review.

**Results**

The findings point to higher and significant data gathering before the trip than during the trip. Kolmogorov-Smirnov test show that in fact there are statistical differences in importance tourists attained to the different sources of information before and during the trip. This is in accordance with Mansfeld (1992). The research signifies that tourists rely more on informational material while
preparing their trip at home than after arriving at their destination. There is, however, a trend among travellers towards leaving more of their decisions until they are at the destination (Sheldon, 1997), and this need for more in-trip information is spawning new IT applications such as mobile Internet technology. As Jenkins (1978) reports, vacationers first select a destination and then look for accommodation, activities, attractions etc. Very often these sub-decisions are left until after arrival at the destination (Fesenmaier & Jeng, 2000) and a different set of information sources and channels may be required (Hyde, 2000).

**Table 1.** Characterization of information gathering at different stages

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean before</th>
<th>Mean during</th>
<th>Standard deviation</th>
<th>% of users in total of the sample</th>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Kolmogorov-Smirnov test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Publicity</td>
<td>3.06</td>
<td>2.89</td>
<td>1.079</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Z=2.249 p=0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brochures</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>3.28</td>
<td>1.006</td>
<td>28%</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Z=1.685 p=0.007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotions</td>
<td>3.55</td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td>1.047</td>
<td>28%</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Z=2.018 p=0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet</td>
<td>4.13</td>
<td>4.22</td>
<td>0.974</td>
<td>76%</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Z=2.041 p=0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family and friends</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>4.24</td>
<td>0.962</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Z=5.356 p=0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tour operators</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td>1.148</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Z=1.867 p=0.002</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The importance they attained to gathering information is also evident of the level of usage, if before the trip the levels of usage achieved 76% or even 50% of the tourists during the trip this usage level remains less than 20% that means that they are not using information at the destination. Most of the studies on travellers’ choice of information search strategies have focused on the sources and channels used while at home planning the trip. As DiPietro et al. (2007) point out only limited systematic efforts have been made to understand how visitors search for information at the destination. Rompf, DiPietro, and Ricci (2005) also point out that at-destination information search activity remains a significantly under-researched phenomenon and that savvy tourism marketers need to realize the potential of understanding this phenomenon. These results also suggest that the most important and used sources of information are the internet and family and friends, which is not surprising as this is proved by a number of authors as such as Fesenmaier & Vogt (1992), Flögndfeldt & Nordgren (1999), Lo, Cheung, & Law (2002), DiPietro et al. (2007).

Table 2 illustrates the effectiveness of information sources, testing significant differences of importance and use of these information sources for the formation of expectations about the destination in the case Portugal. The results
suggest that more the importance/usage tourists attained to gathering information the higher expectations they are able to form about the destination. Kruskall Wallis test shows that in fact different levels of importance/usage contribute differently to the formation of expectations.

Table 2. Effectiveness of information sources in expectations formations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expectations</th>
<th>Importance</th>
<th>Use</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>Importance</th>
<th>Use</th>
<th>Kruskall Wallis test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very low</td>
<td>2.77</td>
<td>1.51</td>
<td>1.18</td>
<td>.48</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td>1.73</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>.51</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No expectations</td>
<td>2.94</td>
<td>1.76</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>.57</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderated</td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td>1.82</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>.49</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td>1.80</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The findings from this study show that whether the traveller was seeking information before or after departure did have a significant impact on source, channel, as well as strategy choice. Except journalists and print, all the other sources and channels showed significant differences between the before and after departure conditions. In accordance with Nishimura, Waryszak, and King (2006), this study identified friends or family as the most important information source before departure and significantly more important than after departure. Friends or family are, nevertheless, relatively important in the after departure phase as well rated second only to information centres. This finding is more in line with the results of DiPietro et al. (2007) who found friends and relatives to be particularly important after departure. The finding also highlights the importance of travel companions as information sources during a trip.

Furthermore the mean scores of importance and usage contributing to moderate or higher expectations are very similar this suggests that there is a certain level of gathering and processing information from which is not possible to go further on contributing to alter their expectations. Figure 1 represents the optimal level from which is not possible to have more information is unfeasible.
The results are interesting since the hypothesis is to form expectations about a tourism destination they need to search and use information it seems here that low involved tourists do not use and give importance to information, high involved tourists vary in between moderated and high level of use and importance of information sources it means that more information is not need there are a marginal rate of usage of information from it the marginal value they do not let they achieve higher expectations, in fact the information sources in Portugal are not so effective as we desire tourists high involved tend to have moderate expectations

Lastly the research adapted the Martilla and James, 1977 matrix of importance/performance analysis is outlined what are the most effective sources of information and the ones that need further developments. The proxy of performance is the level of use of the information source.

Because of the different perspectives and sampling frames, one should be careful making direct comparisons between this research and the studies in Table 1. The results presented here do, however, indicate that the variation in results found in previous studies may be explained in part by their failure to distinguish between information sources and the channels they communicate through. Several examples were found here where the importance of an information source depended on which channel it was used with and vice versa. For
instance, although the Internet was found to be the most important information channel for travellers before departure when measuring channels separately, this channel was not part of the most important source/channel combination. The most important overall search strategy in this study regardless of trip phase was, in fact, the combination of face-to-face and friends or family.

Of the 30 studies, about one third found travel agents to be the most important information source and another third indicated that friends or relatives were most important. Looking only at the information providers, this study confirms that travel agents and friends or family (relatives) seems to be the two most important information sources overall. The last third of the studies in the table, however, has identified various communication methods as being the most important “information source”, and there seems to be much disagreement about whether word-of-mouth, guidebooks, brochures or the Internet is more important. There may be many reasons for this disagreement, but nevertheless, considering information search as a combination of sources and channels gives a more nuanced picture of the situation by showing that certain channels may be the most important in terms of getting information from certain sources.

**Conclusion**

Different destinations should be considered, in order to gain a better understanding about the information sources. The development of new strategies of promotion, product, trademark, image, etc. by destinations and businesses intending to apply the concept of tourism experience marketing clearly should consider the feedback coming from the evaluation of their travel experiences by the tourists themselves (Molina, Gomez & Consuegra, 2010). The information sources can be enlarged by using social media websites. Tourists now are intended to see the Social Media pages of Travel Agents or destinations on internet. Websites of travel agents haven’t been using used by tourist in recent years. While other travellers used to be a source of information accessed mostly in-person while out travelling, these results show that thanks to the Internet, other travellers can now be reached at anytime from anywhere in the world. Because of the proliferation of new communication technologies where the senders of messages are less obvious and often more difficult to identify, it has become more important than ever to make a clear distinction between who is providing the information and how the information is communicated when trying to understand the nature of tourism marketing communication.
References


An Evaluation of Tabriz Market Segmentation: 
Case Study of Bazaar

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Abstract
Through conducting a detailed study and extracting reliable statistics, researchers are 
intended to explore foreign tourism market of Tabriz since a minute recognition of 
tourism market is the key to the mystery of development in this field. Tabriz, a vast 
metropolis of 200 tourism attractions, has a leading role in attracting tourists; old 
houses, monuments and more significantly the old Bazaar of Tabriz, which was listed 
among the national historic buildings in 1975 and has also been registered as the first 
Bazaar in the world in 2010, are among these attractions. In this research 6590 for-

tie tourists who have visited Tabriz in early 2011 have been considered as the statis-
tical population, among whom 100 have been chosen as the statistical sample. These 
tourists' purpose of visiting Tabriz Bazaar and their opinions about it regarding their in-
terest to visit it as a historical-touristic building or regarding their interest to invest in 
market segmentations have been analyzed via descriptive and SPSS inferential statistics.

Key words: market segmentation, bazaar, inbound tourism, shopping tourism.

Introduction
Iran is one of the most attractive countries to visit. It has been included among 
10 top countries regarding historical tourism attraction, and considering the 
variety of geographical diversity it has been among 5 top countries and due to 
owning a variety of handicrafts it has been placed among 3 top countries in the
world. After India, Iran has the highest rate of tourism in south Asia. Tabriz, a vast metropolis of 200 tourist attractions, has a leading role in attracting tourists; old houses, ancient bathrooms, historical schools, ancient gardens, and Tabriz Bazaar are among these attractions. (Shamsollah Zadeh, 2003). Being in a pleasing geographical and political situation and thus providing a good opportunity for trade and communication with other countries and being economically significant both locally and nationally, are significant characteristics of Tabriz. (Ebrahimpour, 2003). With suitable substructures, facilities, history, culture, and various tourist attractions, Tabriz has the potential to attract a great number of tourists.

With the length of one kilometer, Tabriz Bazaar is a masterpiece of Iranian architecture and the biggest covered market in the world. It was listed among the national historic buildings in 1975 and also in 2010 it has been inscribed as World Heritage site in UNESCO as the first market in the world. Due to a disastrous earthquake in Tabriz, Bazaar was seriously damaged, but with the help of citizens, it was reconstructed.

**Literature Review**

The most significant issue in Tourism is the minute recognition of tourism since tourists are categorized based on their demand. The theory of market segmentation, planning and scheduling have been the subject to most marketing studies. Frank messy, Wind, Riz Truth, Culter and his colleagues consider them as conjoined processes. In fact market segmentation is the first and foremost process, that is, all the markets are divided into characteristically recognizable and separate segments. Through statistics and detailed studies, this research project intends to observe the role of market segmentation in attracting Inbounds and their inclination towards investment, if any.

Studies on market segmentation go back to about a century ago. Manufacturers, primarily, divided their market into different distinguishable segments based on primitive methods. The scientific method, though, was introduced by professor Smith form Massachusetts in 1950 (Gholizadeh, 2003). This method entered the field of tourism marketing with a delay of approximately two centuries. But it has turned out to be the commonest strategy in this field which has been widespread among most national and local tourist organizations, firms and private real estates and also in academic researches. According to the publications of international tourist organization, among 26 countries which have joined the market segmentation planning, 22 countries have aimed market
segmentation at particular parts and in 20 countries the data have been provided for private segments as well.

During 3 years, more than 52010 essays related to market segmentation have been published in "Tourism Management" each of which have analyzed it from different angles:

1. Bob Mckercher has probed travel decline theory based on distance through 6 units of studying foreign tourism in Hong Kong.

2. Aaron Tkaczynski, Sharyn R.Rundle, and Thiele Narelle Beaumount have analyzed market segmentation from beneficiary groups' viewpoint.

3. Sara Dolnicar, Friedrich Leisch have discussed case marketing in stable environmentalist tourism.

4. Duck Byeong Park, Yoo Shik Yoon have studied rural tourism market segmentation in South Korea.

5. Sara Dolnicar, Geoffrey I. Crouch, Timothy Devinney, Twan Huybers, Jordan J. Louviere have studied the selection of optimum markets concerning segmentation.

### Significance of the Study

As a beneficial phenomenon which leads to development in communications technology in the modern world, tourism has been introduced as a leading industry, that is, tourism is not merely considered an entertainment; it is regarded as an industry which demands examinations and facilities for being developed (Hossein Zadeh & Heydari, 2003). Tourism industry is especially significant in the countries which depend on unipolar economy and consider a change (Valizadeh, 2006).

In this regard, Tabriz, as a tourist attraction in Iran, could have a great role in the development of tourism industry; its geographical and economical position, its history and culture, and its being easily accessible are some of the positive points about Tabriz in attracting either foreign or Iranian tourists (Shamsollah Zadeh, 2006).

The main philosophy beyond market segmentation is derived from the variety in international tourism. Different types of trips, passengers' different purposes and tastes create different needs. Due to the vastness of tourism market,
planning for expansions in this field becomes laborious and almost impossible. The importance of market segmentation is explainable since it makes planning easier and more purposeful (Hamidy, Zadeh & Fazeli, 2003). This project gains more significance since no research have been done regarding tourism industry marketing in Iran and Tabriz, and no studies have been conducted about tourism market segmentation.

**An Approach**

Geographical position, location of Tabriz among valleys, along with suitable economical position and its roads to neighboring countries like Azerbaijan, Turkey, Armenia, and Iraq are of major importance in giving Tabriz a strategic position (Karami, 2003).

Being located where silk road crosses, Tabriz was a commercial center and a link between Far East and Europe. Thus its markets have been described in many merchants' and tourist' diaries. Tabriz downtown is assumed to be located inside a square and Bazaar of Tabriz is placed in its center. Bazaar complex includes a main Bazaar and several sub-Bazaars which connect the old gates of Tabriz to the main Bazaar. Even though due to the construction of streets the old texture of city has been destroyed, some of the sub-Bazaars have survived. But they have become isolated.

With about a million square meters, the main part is 30 hectare and the main and the surrounding reaches to 70 hectares, Bazaar of Tabriz deserves being introduced as the biggest covered structure of the world. In this complex there are more than 160 different places; 23 caravanserais, 22 corridors, 20 arcades, 28 mosques, 8 schools, 7 sub-Bazaars, 5 historical bathrooms, old icehouses, and Zoorkhane (traditional Iranian gymnasium) indicate the importance of historical Bazaar of Tabriz.

Different parts of Bazaar include Amir Bazaar (gold center), shoe Bazaar, Haramkhaneh Bazaar, Kolahdoozan Bazaar, Mesgaran Bazaar, Mozaffariyeh Bazaar (an important carpet export center), Shishegar Khaneh Bazaar, Rangi Bazaar, Iki Gapili Bazaar, and etcetera. The biggest dome of Bazaar belongs to Amir arcade. These corridors and sub-Bazaars with their stores are all a great center for selling both Iranian and foreign products.
International tourism is capable of creating the most worthwhile economical trades. From 1979 to 1993 the number of Inbounds have increased 3 times as much (from 165 million to 500 million), and the revenue has increased 18 times as much, that is, from 17.9 billion dollars to 324 billion dollars a year.

International tourist arrivals grew by 4.4% in 2011 to a total 980 million, up from 939 million in 2010, in a year characterised by a stalled global economic recovery, major political changes in the Middle East and North Africa and natural disasters in Japan. By region, Europe (+6%) was the best performer, while by subregion South-America (+10%) topped the ranking. Contrary to previous years, growth was higher in advanced economies (+5.0%) than in emerging ones (+3.8%), due largely to the strong results in Europe, and the setbacks in the Middle East and North Africa.

“International tourism hit new records in 2011 despite the challenging conditions,” said UNWTO Secretary-General, Taleb Rifai. “For a sector directly responsible for 5% of the world’s GDP, 6% of total exports and employing one out of every 12 people in advanced and emerging economies alike these results are encouraging, coming as they do at a time in which we urgently need levers to stimulate growth and job creation,” he added. (UNWTO)

In statistics the term "Inbound" refers to a person who visits a foreign country and stays there for less than 12 months, not with the purpose of having an
income. In other words, a foreign visitor is someone who does not live in the country he is visiting and stays there for at least a night. (Vellas & Becheral, 2009).

**Market Segmentation**

Derived from theories of microeconomics and the costumers’ needs, market segmentation is a basic discussion of modern marketing which first was introduced by Wended Smith in 1956 and was presented in journal of marketing. As a matter of fact, being aware of the discordance of supply and demand, Smith favored considering the costumers’ preferences and recommended the division of the heterogeneous market into several smaller homogeneous markets (Mortazavi, 2009: 128).

Market segmentation is a process by which people of the same demands are placed in the same categories, thus when customers in each segment have identical demands, they will respond positively to an especial product and a particular technique of marketing. So as Golchin Far states, with the help of market segmentation, a large market is divided into smaller ones which leads to optimized consumption by major customers (78). this is how the expected type of market comes to existence (Gee, 1997).

**Significance of Market Segmentation**

According to Karter (1999), United Nations World Tourism Organization describes market segmentation as "separating market into the components with particular and common characteristics" (UNWTO, 2007). Different reasons have resulted in growing significance of market segmentation; experiencing negative population growth while markets are growing has resulted in an evolution in competing; companies seek to increase the variety of their productions with a single brand with the intention of expanding their market share. Other social and economical elements like growth of net income, growing number of knowledgeable people consequence by higher education have caused in expansion of needs and demands; considering the change in customers’ lifestyles, they have more complicated and diverse expectations, that is why corporations strive for winning more customers. Besides, making the corporations conscious about a number of marketing facts, market segmentation offers the following benefits:
- recognition of opportunities for new products.
- assisting with planning suitable designs for marketing to attain homogeneous consumers.
- promoting the process of allocating strategic marketing sources.

1. Process of Market Segmentation

Market segmentation includes 4 stages:

a. Determining criteria and factors of segmentation: in this stage some influential factors like behavioral, geographical and other criteria are chosen for segmentation.

b. Market research: in this stage, based on the determined criteria, customers’ characteristics are analyzed through factor analysis, cluster, spss, and etcetera.

c. evaluating different segments: in this step various segments are evaluated regarding their advantages and then some segments are ultimately chosen.

d. Designing proper marketing for selected segments: finally, concerning the selected segments, appropriate marketing is designed and suggested (Golchin Far & Bakhtyari, 2006: 78).

2. Life Cycle

a. meaning of cycle concerning: studies have shown that most products actually possess life cycle, that is, they pass through various stages similar to lifecycle; a product is sold, it grows and becomes mature, then it declines and dies. While declining, a product should be restored to life through some techniques in order for the longevity of it. The concept of product life cycle was first mentioned by Levitt (Wheel, 2005: 76).

Life cycle of tourism destination takes advantage from a concept called carrying capacity, which entails social and environmental limits. According to Cooke and Gets carrying capacity of a destination discusses the fact that after experiencing exploration, sooner or later, a tourist destination will face stagnation due to increasing number of tourist arrivals which ultimately causes deterioration of the sites.
The concept of carrying capacity has two particular functions in planning for tourism; it indicates that each destination possesses limited and declining number of sites to present. It also helps to determine the acceptable portions for being presented. It reveals the social impacts of tourism expansion as well. Carrying capacity could be increased through efficient management and minute planning; by increasing facilities, equipping accommodation, and well organizing more tourists could be expected in a more appropriate way (Wheel, 1997).

b. Stages of Tourism Life cycle: The concept of tourism life cycle was first presented by Christaller in 1964 (quoted in Butler). He stated that tourist destinations follow a gradual and even process which includes exploration, involvement, development, consolidation, and stagnation. Of course, based on the executives' reactions about the initial stages of stagnation, different scenarios could be imagined; decline or rejuvenation. Butler's model is a simple model based on the concept of product life cycle- a concept which have long been used by marketers and economists in order to describe market behavior concerning purchasing.

Methodology
The statistical population of this project is the Inbounds who have visited Tabriz in early 2011. The number, according to Tourism organization, was 6590 visitors among whom 100 tourists who have been chosen to be the statistical sample of the study. In pilot studies some questions related to the number of
visitors, number of their visits to Tabriz, means of travelling, and their interest, if any, to invest in Bazaar, visitors' opinions about Tabriz and the people's culture and hospitality, entertainment, accommodation, and etc. were included in a questionnaire of 68 questions. Then data were analyzed by SPSS.

Recognizing the Existing Situation and Data Analysis:

To recognize and thus have an effective planning for tourism, there should be a credible statistics on the number of tourists visiting this city. Due to lack of such statistics, the researchers have decided to choose their statistical society from the tourists who have visited Tabriz in early 2011.

Because of the fact that some information about the purpose of the tourists trip, visitors' age, income and other characteristics which seem vital for tourism marketing have been taken for granted in most questionnaires, detailed studies, and statistical sources, the researchers have tried to include them in their questionnaire.

- The tourists' age and social characteristics

In this section of the study, the tourists' characteristics which have been discovered through the questionnaire are analyzed statistically.

71 percent of the statistical sample of the study had visited Bazaar of Tabriz and 23 percent of them were intended to visit it, and only 6 percent showed no interest in seeing Bazaar of Tabriz. According to the data, 34 percent of the tourists were women and 66 percent were men. 16 percent were between the ages of 22-29, 14 percent were between 29-36, 25 percent were between 36-43, 27 percent were 43 to 50, 15 percent were 50 to 57, and 3 percent were over 57. Also, 35 percent of the tourists worked in private sectors, 31 percent worked in public sectors and approximately 11 percent were retired. 38 percent were traveling alone, 23 percent were with their family, 26 percent were accompanied by friends, and 13 percent were traveling with their colleagues.

71 percent were traveling by plane and 29 percent were traveling by bus or by their own car. Among these Inbounds 54 percent were staying in hotels, 37 percent in motels and around 9 percent were accommodated by their friends or relatives. Around 27 percent were traveling via tours while 73 percent weren't. 79 percent of them knew Tabriz; 16.7 percent were acquainted with Tabriz through their friends, 1.9 percent through tour agents, 29.6 percent via TV, 45.4 percent by internet and finally 6.5 percent by some magazines.
- **Purpose of Visit**

The purposes mentioned in questionnaire, in table number one and related diagrams, include meeting friends and relatives, going to health care centers, personal interests in visiting Iran or Tabriz, seeing environmental, historical, and cultural attractions, becoming acquainted with diversity of cultures among different nations, etc.

Inbounds identified their purposes by selecting one or more choices in the questionnaire. In this regard, commercial and economic purposes stand first with 24 percent, seeing tourist attractions is graded second with 22.9 percent, and visiting historical buildings is placed third with 13.4 percent. Interest in visiting Tabriz with 9 percent and getting familiar with different cultures and nations with 7.2 percent replaced next.

Around 15 percent rated Tabriz an excellent place for investment and 57 percent rated it suitable, that is, on the whole, 72 percent have recognized Bazaar of Tabriz as beneficial to invest in. But 28 percent of the tourists didn't show any interest to invest in Bazaar.

- **Effective Publicity to attract tourists**

Advertisements in foreign media and their impact on increasing the number of tourists indicates their interdependence. Among the tourists who have been interviewed, 19 percent have visited Iran for the first time, 28 percent for the second time, 35 percent for the third and 11 percent for the fourth time, and 16 percent have been to Iran more than four times. Among these tourists 38 percent have visited Tabriz only once, 29 percent twice, 11 percent thrice and 9 percent for the fourth time, and around 13 percent have been to Tabriz for more than four times.

9 percent of the tourists emphasized on the influence of advertisement by rating it as excellent, 25 percent graded it good, 31 percent weak, 21 percent unsatisfactory and 14 percent score it terrible. On the whole 34 percent were satisfied with publicity, but it was rated weak and unsatisfactory by 66 percent; 15 percent described publicity as good, 8 percent realized its weak influence and 77 percent have rated it average.

- **Tourists' opinion about Culture and Hospitality**

Tourists rated their opinion on Iran before their visit as 83 percent good and very good which grew to 89 percent after their arrival. Their idea about hospi-
tality before their arrival is rated 88 percent good and very good; this percentage increased to 91 percent after their arrival. Generally speaking, evaluations made about the tourists' opinion before and after their arrival in Iran indicate that after their arrival, tourists' opinion has grown 32 percent much better, 62 percent better, and only 5 percent had worsened.

- Rate of Satisfaction

Evaluations on the rate of satisfaction have shown that 82 percent were satisfied with Iranians' behavior, 65 percent rated accommodations average and high in quality, but 35 percent had low opinion in this regard. Considering the rate of tourism publicity, 62 percent of the tourists had positive views, and 67 percent evaluated parks and sanitation satisfactory. Nevertheless, public transportation have been evaluated 37 percent unsatisfactory, 57 percent average and good, and only 6 percent very good. Around 27 percent of the tourists had very satisfactory opinion about security, around 52 percent had good and average opinion on it and 21 percent were not satisfied with security.

Convenience and accessibility of historical buildings and tourist attractions were rated good and very good by 69 percent of the tourists and 31 percent were dissatisfied. On the whole, 4 percent of the visitors will certainly revisit Tabriz, 19 percent would likely revisit Tabriz with very high likelihood, 32 percent would likely revisit Tabriz, 24 percent might travel to Tabriz again, but 15 percent expressed low certainty. 4 percent doubted their traveling to Tabriz, and 2 percent had no intention of revisiting Tabriz. 83 percent will recommend their friends to travel to this city and 17 percent were doubtful.

The result of the survey is that the most satisfactory characteristic about Tabriz refers to the citizens' behavior and historical places with 37 and 31 percent satisfaction. The most unsatisfactory part of their trip was related to public transportation with the percentage of 43 and accommodation with 27 percent.

Conclusion

Tourism industry is growing more significant each day, and development in this field demands skilled planning and exact recognition of the market. Attracting more tourists is vital since tourists bring foreign currency which can ultimately result in creating more occupations. There is a meaningful interrelation between satisfaction rate of the tourists and their interest in visiting Tabriz, and also the interest in revisiting and recommending it to their acquaintances are interrelated. The direct role of publicity in increasing the number of tourists
also comes to the light; the more and effective the advertisements are, the more Inbounds show interest in visiting a place. The most significant problem was public transportation and accommodation which could be improved via some efficient resolutions. Tourists also were complaining about the high prices of handicrafts. So controlling the prices of this segment could lead to its prosperity. Better quality of the products will also cause more purchases.

Tourism as an important industry should certainly be improved. Via suitable publicity, and provision of more facilities and services in different segments, more tourists would be persuaded to travel to Iran and visit Tabriz. Publicity also has a great role in attracting tourists. Publicizing the historical Bazaar of Tabriz as the biggest covered market of the world should not be taken for granted. Feeling of fulfillment also acts like an advertisement since satisfied tourists, like media, will encourage others not to miss the great experience they had. Improving the quality of accommodation and public transportation will encourage the tourists to visit more sites. By creating tourist shuttles and particular stations near all the historical sites and other tourist attractions, this segment will develop. Market segmentation is essential part of investment in tourism segment. Thus regarding the diagram and the concept of tourism life cycle, some effective strategies must be taken to avoid stagnation and preserve prosperity.

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Thoughts of Postgraduate Tourism Education in Turkey

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ABSTRACT

This study aims to present an in-depth analysis of the conclusions reached in the search conference for tourism education, held in Fethiye, Turkey, 22-25 April 2010. The conference was organised to develop a roadmap for the future of postgraduate tourism education not only in Turkey but also at the international level. Representatives from the tourism industry and universities participated in the conference that lasted for two days. Through the inquiries carried out under the lead of a facilitator and the implementation of SWOT analysis to find answers as to the question of how the system of postgraduate tourism education should be designed, the study provides various practical implications.

Key words: tourism education, postgraduate education, curriculum development, search conference, content analysis.

Introduction

In recent years, tourism has become a part of the global industry due to an upward trend in the level of income and the amount of leisure, improvements in transportation and technology. This has increased the effects of tourism on both the economic and social structure of countries and has resulted in a development to be considered much faster than in other sectors. As widely known, the service industry is still labor-intensive regardless of the fast development of tourism over the past few decades. Therefore, the development in this field might have become one of the major factors to advance the need for workforce.
Initially, the professional training was given through short-term in-service training courses. Later, the industry has required a higher level of quality for tourism education at least at high schools or universities. As a consequence, various reasons have had a significant impact on its future directions, e.g. developments in tourism operations, raising awareness of tourism and changes in the habits and expectations of visitors. As tourism can be hardly described as a discipline in its own right (Tribe, 1997; Xiao & Smith, 2005) and also lacks a substantial theoretical underpinning (Cooper et al., 1993), it has become a part of social-oriented disciplines that requires an emphasis both on industrial training and academic education. As tourism has a close link with many other sectors and disciplines, it has progressed as a multi-disciplinary field (Xiao & Smith, 2006; Tribe & Xiao, 2011). As such, various educational institutions have been established in order to upgrade the quality of workforce for both the industry and the academia.

While vocational colleges of tourism aim to meet the need of the qualified workforce, higher education institutions try to educate the future of department or business managers. Later group of schools is operated in the form of undergraduate programs / degrees (requiring the completion of eight semesters) and under different names. In this context, such programs have developed their own curriculums to include theoretical and practical courses as well as foreign language learning. Because the qualitative development still appears to be considered as inadequate in closing the gap of the service quality and customer expectations have rapid changes, parts of both the industry and the academia are expected to open a debate about the quality of postgraduate tourism education.

Over the past years, the tourism industry seems to have lost its appeal due to the instable employment policies observed as a result of economic and political crises, bad-working conditions, lack of professional standards, low-wages, and all-inclusive policies. Moreover, tourism schools have been unsuccessful in training students in order to comply with the standard of qualifications such as the ability to speak a foreign language and have computer skills. At that point, if Education Miracle in tourism is still supposed to be one of its objectives over the coming years of 2010s, this could only be achieved through making investments in education and knowledge. Accordingly, we may restructure the form of tourism education, pay attention to the dynamics requiring such restructuring, and make a stable decision for the process to be followed.
That is, how would it become more important to train prospective managers who pay attention to the dynamics of the tourism industry, are knowledgeable about its practices, and are able to successfully manage such a business? Or how would it become more important to educate competent academicians who are able to analyze emerging formations and processes and to create a new academic structure that will be able to produce knowledge? Or, how would it become more important to give an emphasis on developing an integrated model that pays an equal attention to both scientific and professional aspects? Finding a proper set of answers in response to such questions is of great importance to unify the different objectives of the above-mentioned schools and faculties.

This study aims to present an in-depth analysis of the conclusions reached in the search conference for tourism education, held in Fethiye, Turkey, 22-25 April 2009. The conference was organised to develop a roadmap for the future of postgraduate tourism education not only in Turkey but also at the international level. Representatives from the tourism industry and universities participated in the conference that lasted for two days. Through the inquiries carried out under the lead of a facilitator and the implementation of SWOT analysis to find answers as to the question of how the system of postgraduate tourism education should be designed, the study provides various practical implications.

Methodology

Search conferences also known as shaping the future meetings and common sense formation meetings are based on group-work and employ a participatory planning methodology which aims to create common mind to develop strategies related to different issues. Within the context of a reasoning required by the methodology, a group of people cooperatively design the strategies which will generate the most ideal futures. These conferences embody a working design aiming to create common opinions, find solutions to common problems, determine what should be aimed to achieve the better, and develop and select the common objectives. Brain-storming sessions, discussions and interpretations proceed from generic to specific and they conclude when the predetermined conference objectives have been reached (Rawlinson, 1995). These conferences created by the scholar Fred Emery are based on system thinking and group dynamics theories and they have been used by many institutions to deal with many problems in many countries such as America, Canada, Australia, England and Norway for the last 20 years (Emery, 1969).

In this regard, the invited participants try to make evaluation of the past and current state of the issue, determine future goals, find weaknesses and
strengths of the topic under investigation, opportunities and threats confronted with, and arrange roles to achieve the determined goals. Within this basic framework, the main objective of the search conference is to shed light on future and construct the action plan. That is, bringing people who normally do not have direct contact with each other and engaging them in a participatory design and problem solving process. Moreover, in the search conference, participants focus on solution-oriented suggestions and actions within the context of common sense and try to come up with opinions representing various perspectives rather than restricting themselves to the problems (Paulus & Dziendolewicz, 1993).

Primary method used in this meeting type is brain-storming technique based on group work. Brain storming is a creative thinking activity carried out to form an opinion list about the issues such as common problems, data to be collected, solution suggestions, application suggestions and possible obstacles to be overcome (Davies, 1971). Non-classical conference arrangement brings about 40 claim owners together for two days to reach a common sense or consensus. Claim owners can be defined as decision makers who are experienced and knowledgeable on the related issue. What is sought here is the common mind. The common mind is sought and found at every stage of the search conference through participants’ persuading each other. While in a classical conference setting, few people talk about particular subjects and the others listen to them, in a search conference, all the participants talk in a certain sequence to reach a common conclusion. Group members are defined as subject area experts who are knowledgeable and experienced on a certain field. Through SİSMA or SWOT inquiry techniques, participants try to reach a common mind by persuading each other.

SİSMA (System, Work, Process, Profession) is an analysis method. The underlying premise of the method can be summarized through this statement “a system, process or work is best defined by those who are personally engaged in the field”. As the method was first employed to conduct and develop educational analyses in Canada in the 1960s, it is also defined as DACUM in English which stands for Developing a Curriculum Method. As widely used nowadays, DACUM has been in a practical application within the body of Center on Education and Training, Ohio State University, for the purpose of the analysis of system, process, work, problem and profession since 1976 (Norton, 1977).

In Turkish, the method is abbreviated as SISMA and the basic premise of the method is the investigation of an issue by the people who are personally
engaged in the related field. Through this method, the analysis relating to study field can be rapidly and effectively determined. The meeting proceeds by dividing large groups into smaller groups in an organic manner until the goals of the conference have been achieved. A group of facilitators assume important role in achieving the aims of the conference. The facilitators are not engaged in the determination of the content hence they do not need to be subject area experts. The role of a facilitator is becoming the guarantor of the phase and time. The second technique known as SWOT is carried out for status analysis. SWOT stands for *Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, Threats* and is used to determine strengths and weaknesses; opportunities and threats in the environment. Strengths and weaknesses constitute internal environmental factors; opportunities and threats constitute external environmental factors. The purpose of SWOT is to determine and develop the main strategies to be adopted to make optimal use of opportunities and strengths and minimize weaknesses and threats.

In lights of the above discussion, as the coordinators of this search conference series solely focused on the study of academic tourism education, we decided to arrange the second series between 22 and 25 April 2010. We invited 36 participants representing 18 universities, a publishing house and the Association of Tourism Investors, all operating in Turkey. In the morning session of the first day, the moderator aimed to produce the context of SWOT analysis of the postgraduate tourism education in Turkey. Commencing from the afternoon session, the participants were scattered into seven main groups, namely: 1) curriculum development, teaching plans, quality of education and cultural differences; 2) the format structure; 3) qualitative and quantitative problems of academic staff; 4) coordination between the academia and the industry; 5) research, thesis/dissertation subjects, and physical / financial sources; 6) the interdisciplinary structure of tourism research. In the last session, a concluding report was written, through the confirmation all participants.

**Results**

The concluding report prepared to state general problems determined and their suggested solutions as a result of the discussions made in the search conference is presented below:

There have been an increasing number of schools both at undergraduate and graduate levels not only in Turkey but also around the world. As a result, confusion seems to appear in terms of titles, contents and functions of Masters and PhD programs. Visions and missions of Masters and PhD programs should
be separately evaluated and target groups should be clearly defined prior to the development of curriculums. For the candidates of PhD programs, it is of great importance to develop programs enabling the graduates of Masters programs to interpret and evaluate theoretical, strategic and politic analyses in their discipline of interest.

Within the context of the determined vision, the purpose of the interdisciplinary academic tourism education should be to develop educational programs to educate academicians who will be able to carry out empirical studies relating to the philosophy and theory of tourism, instruct and determine the potential future tendencies in tourism, and adopt the mission of developing programs in line with the requirements of national competencies (8th level) and moreover to train qualified workforce with some certain competencies for the sector.

Candidates of Masters degrees need to describe, according to the resources of the region where the university is located and according to their management mentality, the content of their educational programs within the framework of the determined vision, mission and target group, inter-university interaction web should be improved and basic courses given at Masters and PhD levels should be restricted to two terms and coordination among the units should be established. Moreover, common course subjects should be determined in line with the lean of tourism development and requirements of national competencies in education (7th level) and supervisors should lead students towards specializing by encouraging them to select courses from disciplines related to their abilities and expertise. The search conference detected a series of problems in relation to the admission procedures of students due to different applications of faculties, lack of supervision on graduate programs, problems encountered in the formation of thesis advisory committees and jury members, problems in the implementation of criteria in launching a program, difficulties experienced by the employees of the tourism industry in applying to graduate programs, problems encountered in the formation of thesis monitoring committees, and differences in the admission of students in scientific preparation programs.

To find solutions to these problems, following suggestions were made; in relation to the admission of students, besides the minimum requirements set by The Council of Higher Education, there should be common criteria to be followed by universities within the discretion guaranteed to them by the council, the standards to be followed for the inspections carried out during the imple-
mentation of graduate programs should be determined, scientific and ethical
criteria to be used in the formation of thesis supervisors and jury members
should be specified and, if necessary, a second advisor should be able to be ap-
pointed, opening graduate programs should be allowed at universities having
mostly undergraduate programs, some reforms should be performed for the
admission of graduates having at least five-year experience in the industry and
the Masters thesis monitoring committees should be established.

Suggestions in relation to quality and quantity oriented problems of in-
structors are listed as follows: A series of required courses should be offered in
order to eliminate the shortcomings in the fields of research methods, philos-
ophy of science, and ethical issues. At least one of these courses should be taken
at each term. Employment opportunities should be created by making career
planning for the areas of expertise and courses should be given depending on
the expertise of the people, PhD programs should not be allowed if the teach-
ing load of the instructors in any university is more than 15 class-hour and
Masters programs should be carried out with instructors having at most 20
class-hour teaching load.

While launching evening programs, the number of instructors and their
teaching loads should be taken into consideration, criteria should be specified
to guarantee that people with required qualifications can be assigned to exist-
ing teaching posts and minimize universities’ tendencies to employ their own
graduates, being an academician should not be viewed only as a means of earn-
ing money; hence, candidates should be informed about the requirements of
academic life. It would be appropriate to urge academicians to work in the in-
dustry at least for two years to be equipped with practical knowledge about
tourism. Due to the lack of formation and shortcoming in the field of evalu-
ation and assessment, academicians should be given at least one seminar; de-
partments and programs should assume more active role in training academ-
cians in such a way as to help them to adapt to new technological develop-
ments and changes, moreover, for this purpose, control and support mecha-
nisms can be put into actions.

As promotions criteria are subjective, obligation for academicians giving
specific courses to publish at least one article and participate in projects and
conferences should be put into effect; two-advisor system should be rendered
as compulsory and it should be given like epistemology within the context of
scientific preparation courses; to solve the problem of which courses should be
given by which academicians depending on the title they hold, basic courses
should be given by experienced academicians and new subject area courses and practice-oriented courses and professional courses should be taught by younger academicians; and problems stemming from excessively student-focused teaching should be prevented by equally focusing on both students and universal academic values.

As to developing the industry-university relationship, graduate studies should be designed to meet the requirements of the industry and in line with developments in global tourism, cooperation should be sought while determining the subjects to be studied and students should be required to be able to apply to graduate programs after they have gained some practical experience. While students are carrying out their field studies, the cooperation of the professional associations should be sought, universities should inform professional associations in the industry about their research and their findings, and experienced people from the industry should be invited to give seminars about their own problems so that students can better become familiar with the industry and raise their awareness of the real problems.

In the graduate programs in the field of tourism, some other problems are science and scientific reasoning lying the basis of scientific research and methods in the industry, inconsistency observed between the subjects of theses and specialty area of the thesis advisors, and inconsistency between the subjects of the theses and the expectations of the industry. Moreover, the lack of research culture on the part of academicians and students, ethical violations observed in research and publication, increase in the number of commercially-oriented so-called scientific journals, increase in the number of mistakes in writing and grammar, theoretical inefficiency of textbooks, inadequacy in updating academic textbooks, thesis advisor appointments' being performed under the dominance of department heads, erroneous applications in regulations to be followed while writing co-authored articles.

Depending on a rapid increasing number of academic journals over the last 15-20 years, some problems have emerged as the number of qualified editors has not shown parallel increase, more attention is paid to shape in referred journals, inconsistency is observed between the specialty area of advisors and subjects of theses, institute directors are selected among the academicians who are not sufficiently internalized the importance of graduate programs. As such, carrying out works to find solutions to these problems seems to be very urgent.

Though tourism academicians widely view tourism as an independent discipline, there is much debate concerning the interdisciplinary position of tour-
ism research and teaching. On the basis of this debate, there lies the fact that many disciplines play a significant role in the production of knowledge in tourism. In this respect, it seems to have an interdisciplinary identity. The disciplinary position of tourism shortly summarized above has certain repercussions in graduate programs and this can relate to all the topics discussed in the search conference and even it can be a sole discussion topic of a whole search conference. However, the scope of this issue is highly comprehensive; hence, it should be narrowed by subsuming the related problems under some certain headings and here this is done and then short-term solutions are suggested to these problems. A multi-advisory system in front of which there is no legal obstruction yet should be made prevalent. An academician from the related discipline should be appointed as a second advisor (for example, in case of a thesis dealing with archeology, one of the advisors can be an academician in the field of tourism and the other one can be from the field of archeology) and in the same manner, in discipline-based graduate works yet with a tourism topic, tourism academicians should be appointed as second advisors. The name of PhD programs should be only “Tourism” so that it can represent the phenomenon of tourism holistically not from a certain disciplinary perspective. However, using different names for Masters programs can be acceptable; hence, “Tourism Management” is suggested for the programs focusing on business-related aspects of tourism and other programs focusing on non-business aspects of tourism assumed to be good to exist.

Finally, instructors from different disciplines should be involved especially in Masters and PhD programs in order to represent the interdisciplinary nature of tourism research. There should be a required course under the name of “Tourism Theory” or something similar to equip graduate students with the competencies to be able to discuss the interdisciplinary position of tourism. Moreover, a specific course on “Research Methods” should be taught by putting the emphasis on statistical aspects and standardization should be sought for the content of this course. The career title of “PhD in Tourism” should be restructured in such a way as to provide students attending graduate programs with the freedom to produce knowledge and make contribution to its dissemination.

Conclusion

As a result of the academic tourism education search conference, in addition to the findings concerning the strengths of the postgraduate education and weaknesses to be developed, the problems currently experienced and possible solution suggestions to these problems have been revealed. The strongest parts of
academic tourism education which have been developed to a certain extent mostly related to the quantitative improvement of tourism education (e.g. increasing number of schools, academicians, candidates, textbooks, articles etc). The results concerning the weaknesses are primarily related to the qualitative perspective of tourism education (e.g. lower quality of tourism education, focus on certain topics, lack of knowledge on research methods etc). As to the list of opportunities, the development of the tourism industry and the spread of knowledge can be recognized (e.g. advances in technology, interdisciplinary cooperation, increasing number of research outputs internationally etc.). Finally, in respect of threats, we can consider such matters as the limited capacity of financial sources, lack of specialization on certain topics, the evidence of conflicts within tourism itself and also with other disciplines etc.).

In this conference, there are totally 69 statements concerning the problems experienced. And these statements are mostly related to curriculum development, teaching plans, quality of education and cultural differences, the formal structure, qualitative and quantitative problems of academic staff, coordination between the academia and the industry, research, thesis/dissertation subjects, and physical / financial sources, the interdisciplinary structure of tourism research. As such, some problems encountered in postgraduate tourism education are directly connected with the interdisciplinary nature of tourism research such as curriculum development, quality of teaching and research etc and they can be solved through some improvements and cooperation in this direction.

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Consequences of Workplace Romance for Women’s Turnover Intention at Hotels: The Role of Sexual Harassment

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Abstract

Tourism is a sector with a high interaction between individuals. Therefore, workplace romance is seen frequently. Unmanaged workplace romance affects organizations, employees and the partners of the relationships negatively. One of the most negative consequences of the workplace romance is sexual harassment. The main aim of this research is to evaluate the effects of sexual harassment not only one of the consequences of workplace romance, but also an antecedent of woman’s turnover intention. Qualitative research method and face-to-face interview technique is used. The sample of the research is determined as the managers & the women employees in the boutique and five star hotels in Izmir and the population interviewed is 52. One of the sub-aim of the research is to identify if there is a significance between the perceptions of the managers and employees working those different types of hotels.

Key words: Workplace romance, sexual harassment, turnover, romantic relationship.

Introduction

Differences in the structures of labor result in social and economic changes. One of these changes is the increase of interaction between the women and men employees (Bercovici, 2007). There are unmarried employees in an organization more than the others because the average age of marriages, the rates of separation and the number of never-married people have increased (Hochschild, 1996 in Cole, 2009). So this raises the interactions between people who work together during the long work hours. The workplace romance is separated to two as hierarchical romanticism and horizontal romanticism. Hierarchical romanticism is the relationships between juniors and seniors while
horizontal romanticism is the relationship among the people in the same position. Employees and organizations view these relationships in a different way. The viewpoints of the employees to the hierarchical romanticism are negative while for the horizontal romanticism they are generally more positive.

In the workplace there occur a number of outcomes after romanticism. The increase of output, cooperation, team works, performance and motivation of job are in the positive outcomes. In the workplace negative outcomes are often seen and moreover in the literature they are emphasized in detail. Gossip, partial behaviors, the decrease of output and motivation, the loss of labor and sexual harrassment are among these negative outcomes. Management precautions are necessary towards to the workplace romance because of all these reasons and some politics are applied to this notion in the management itself. As the women are exposed to the sexual harrassment much more than men, the women exit to work or are fired out. Also output and motivation decrease in the organizations. In this context, they focus on some politics about the interference of sexual harrassment, no loss of labor, no economic depression and the protection of the output.

**Literature Review**

‘The workplace romance’ was called first as a concept by Quinn (1977, p.30) in 1977 as “the relationship that is lived between two people and a third person perceives as a sexual sympathy”. Mainiero (1986) has brought an explanation from behavioral point of view to the romanticism. According to Mainiero, these relations between men and women are the one defined with sexual attraction and another one which other employees are aware later due to the manners of the new couples. So the workplace romance is emphasized in terms of the people who start the relation and effect of this to team groups.

According to Pierce et all (1996), the workplace romance is the heterosexual relationships which are between two members of the same organization and entail a mutual sexual attraction. In another sense, the workplace romance is a relationship which includes the sexual attraction of two employees and is desired mutually (Mainiero, 1986; Pierce et al., 1996; Quinn, 1977). In a workplace it is important to enable to determine the factors resulting in that two people like one another or fall in love (Günlü, 2010). Quinn made the first research to determine the basics of the workplace romance in 1977 (Dillard, 1987, p.180). He presented a typology of the workplace romance (Table 1) and observed the kinds and effects of the workplace romance and management of organizational behaviors (Quinn, 1977).
### Table 1. Workplace romance typology

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The basics of the workplace romance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. Proximity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>On going geographical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>On-going work requirements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occasional contact</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Perceived motivates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job (assignment, security power)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ego (excitement, satisfaction of ego/self, sexuality)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Love (warmheartedness, friendliness, finding partner)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. Types of relationships</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The fling (female ego/male ego)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sincere love (male sincere/ female sincere)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The utilitarian relationship (male ego, female job)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. Work group characteristics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rules and expectations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Closeness of supervision</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Closeness of interpersonal relationship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intencity or criticalness of the work or mission</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The impacts of the workplace romance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A. The visibility of the relationship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Signs and tip-offs (chatting or eating out away from the home)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impact (sensitizing, discussion- avoidance and legitimizing)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Behavioral changes of the partici-pants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive changes (getting by easily, becoming more productive)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competence changes (losing the respect, preoccupied)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Power changes (discrimination, taking care, exaggeration)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. The reactions of members</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approve</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tolerate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cope (advice, complication, undermine, ostracize)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. Overall impact on the system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive (team work, productivity)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative (gossip, hostility, productivity)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Mainiero (1986) has advocated that there is a fourth instinct. The aim to begin a relationship with this instinct called “power” is the desire of one of the related couple to exhibit power (Mainiero, 1986). Power is a key variable to figure out the the workplace romance and dynamics of power are situations needed to be cared as a result of differences in the relationships (Mainiero, 1986). Dillard (1987) has added two different kinds of relationships to the approach of Quinn (1977). The first one of these is a kind which men and women
have the instinct to work. This relationship is called the “mutually-used” relationship. The other one is a kind of a “pragmatic” relationship that women take place with their ego instinct and men participate with the instinct to make money (Dillard, 1987; Günlü, 2010).

The workplace romance is consisted of two kinds. These kinds are called “horizontal” romanticism and “hierarchical” romanticism (Appelbaum et al., 2007; Bercovici, 2007; Devine & Markiewicz, 1990; Jones, 1999; Karl & Sutton, 2000; Powell, 2001). Horizontal romanticism is seen among the people in the equal position while in the hierarchical romanticism individuals have different organizational levels (Bercovici, 2007). Hierarchical romanticism is more widespread and problematic (Bercovici, 2007). Hierarchical relationships result in that other employees start to feel no justification related to reasons as jealousy, partiality and rewards (Karl & Sutton, 2000). On the other hand, if women employees are in a position over the men, the negative reaction they receive from the other employees are often much more than that of men employees (Devine & Markiewicz, 1990).

The search of Quinn (1977) is vital to determine the impacts and outcomes of the workplace romance. The most important threat for hierarchical relationships is the risk of exposition to the sexual harrassment (Karl & Sutton, 2000). Unsolved hierarchical romanticism can result in the sexual harrassment because the dependences of mission and carrier are sustained. Senior person continues to affect his/her junior. So this situation can cause unwanted sexual forces (Pierce & Aguinis, 1997; Pierce et al., 2000). The workplace romance has both positive and negative effects (Pierce & Aguinis, 2001, p. 207). It may increase the motivation of working group because it presents a happier area to work, stimulates the organization, and creates excited sexual attraction (Horn & Horn, 1982; Smith, 1988 in Sias, 2009). Namely, the workplace romance is an element which propagates performances and job satisfaction of the sides of relationships (Pierce et al., 1996). Moreover it can increase the occupational motivation of the sides (Mainiero, 1986; Pierce & Aguinis, 2001).

Serious negative outcomes turn out in the organizations which vary according to the concentration of the work. Most of them are gossips, complaints, hostility, and broken relationships. These are followed by slowness to make a decide, resharing of the job, demoralization, decrease of output and unemployment of some workers (Quinn, 1977). Employees sometimes break the relationships themselves (Mainiero, 1986). Also, this can cause an inadequate communication in the organizations (Quinn & Lees, 1984). Especially the hierarchical
romanticism brings more negative effects with the reason of jealousness and partiality. The most negative outcome of the workplace romance is “sexual harrassment”. In the research, the events about the sexual harrassment which are seen after a relationship comes to an end affect the sides of relationship in a negative way (Günlü, 2010). Behaviors of sexual harrassment decrease the output of work while it increases the psychological stress arriving to work late, absence, and the speed of personnel shift (Gutek, 1985 in Pierce & Aguinis, 2001).

Sexual Harrassment

There is no common explanation to define the sexual harrassment. The reason of this is that the notion of sexual harrassment has a wide content and the behaviors seen as a sexual harrassment are perceived differently by individuals (Yeşiltaş, 2005). The notion of sexual harrassment was first defined by Catherine Mac Kinnon (1979 in Mimaroğlu & Özgen, 2008; Gerni, 2001; Yücel & Koparan, 2010) as sexual “sexual demands unwanted but accepted by force as a result of mutual relationship of unequal powers”. From the points of view of Tangri et al. (1982), sexual harrassment in the workplace lies on three reasons; a) a natural/biological view (ignores the sexual harrassment that is evaluated as a result of the natural attraction among the people with just a sexual interest); b) sociocultural view (traced back to the unequal place between the sexes created by the patriarchal societies), c) organizational view (turns out as a result of factors such as the atmosphere, hierarchy, and climate of the organization (Butler & Schmidtke, 2010; Knapp & Kustis, 2000; Mimaroğlu & Özgen, 2008; Tengilimoğlu & Tahtasakal, 2004). Some elements are available to evaluate the behaviors among the employees as a sexual harrassment. These elements are given below associated with the categorization by Yesiltas (2005, p.149):

- The behavior must occur in a workplace or a place related to work.
- The behavior must account for the sex of the individual sexuality or subjects about sexuality
- The behavior must be made unwanted and by force
- The individual must affect the conditions of work and workplace
- The behavior must be perpetual

Sexual harrassment in the workplace is classified into two categories (Gutek et al., 2004; Kiser et al., 2006; Mimaroğlu & Özgen, 2008; O’Connor et al., 2004; Thacker et al., 1993; Yeşiltaş, 2005; Yücel & Koparan, 2010). The first one is “quid pro quo” (‘to want as a response to something’). The employer who has
authority presents something only if his or her demands are met; otherwise, he or she threatens (Yeşiltaş, 2005). The second kind of sexual harrassment is a “formation of the hostile work environment” (Gutek et al., 2004). It may be generally seen as touching, sexual comments, shaming jokes, sexual photos, jokes, exhibition of pornographic materials, explanation of aggressive thoughts, aggressive body language, implications, swearing, creating dominant cold environment to make the employees exit the work (Bodur, 2007; Mimaroğlu & Özgen, 2008; Thacker et al., 1993; Yücel & Koparan, 2010).

Conceptually evaluated the workplace romance is defined as mutually desired relationship including sexual interest between two employees in the same organization in the literature (Mainiero, 1986; Pierce et al., 1996, p.6; Quinn, 1977). As a response to this, behaviors of sexual harrassment include unwanted sexual manners, sexual demands, and other sexual physical or vocal applications (Appelbaum et al., 2007). Directly reported hierarchical relationships coming to an end is the key point of the relationship between sexual harrassment and the workplace romance. In the situations in which hierarchical romanticism ends, one of the sides wants to present sexual harrassment on the other one because they see each other during the work hours (Pierce & Aguinis, 1997). Unwanted sexual dominations bear a lot of negative outcomes (Quinn & Lees, 1984). One of the sides can lose his or her job, his or her assignment can be prevented, statue can be drawn back, general communication channels can be impeded or he or she can be attacked physically or can be deceived by giving him or her promise but not doing really resulting in devrease in the output & effectiveness of the organization (Çakır, 2007). According to Gutek (1985), Fitzgerald and Ormerod (1993), sexual harrassment decreases the job satisfaction; and increases the rate of leaving the job.

The relation between the sexual harrassment and women’s tendency to leave the job

Throughout all these researches, there is an obvious relation between the sexual harrassment and women’ tendency to leave the job. Konrak and Gutek (1986, p.430) have made a research about in what rate women leave the job more than men. According to the findings of the research;

- The organizations get the women out of the work three times more than men,
- Women leave the job with their own wishes five times more than men,
• Women lose their job because of the organization and with their own wishes after the sexual harassment nine times more than men.

According to the results of the research which Wasti et al. (2000) have made to ascertain the negative outcomes of the sexual harassment on the women comparing between United States and Turkey, the relation between sexual harassment job dissatisfaction and women' tendency to leave the job is lower in Turkey than United States. Turkish women working in the organizations leave their job in a lower rate compared to American women, when they are exposed to the sexual harassment. Turkish women generally prefer to stay quiet and hide because of their economic conditions, sexual roles and cultural features in any event of sexual harassment (Wasti et al., 2000; Yücel & Koparan, 2010). Sexual harassment affects the output of organization. A woman exposed to the harassment leaves her job or the trauma has negative effects on her work. When the output of a woman is decreased, she is fired out. Also, because the woman is exposed to the sexual harassment often by her seniors she is afraid of being fired and losing her job (Mimaroğlu & Özgen, 2008). Based on the literature review, the research question is determined as; “Is as one of the successors of the the workplace romance, the sexual harassment effective on the tendency of women to leave job?”

Methodology

In the research conducted, it is pointed out the concepts of the workplace romance and sexual harassment; and employees working in five stars hotels and boutique hotels in Izmir have been regarded as the sample. 52 people who work at the five stars hotels and the boutique hotels were interviewed face to face. These interviews have been made as 26 people for boutique hotels and 26 people for the five stars hotels. This equality enables to evaluate the data in a better way. In this research it is focused on the methods of “qualitative research” The reason is the difficulty of the questions about the workplace romance and especially the sexual harassment to be replied. As one of the methods of qualitative research, face to face interview has been used and two questions have been asked to the managers and the personnel in the interviews. Quinn (1977)’s the typology of the workplace romance and the scale of sexual experiences questionnaire (SEQ) of Fitzgerald et al. (1995) have been viewed as a source to the questions. Besides these demographic questions have been asked. All data have been called the “content analysis” as a result of these all researches. Two independent academicians have been chosen for the validity and reliability of the research. The researchers and academicians have seen the
content validity as basic for the validity (Bilgin, 2006). In the result of the evaluations, the viewpoints of the tourism sector to the workplace romance and the sexual harrassment are emphasized and it is aimed to fill in the gap in this area. Besides this, in the research it is mentioned about the views of the five stars hotels and the boutique hotels to the romanticism and the sexual harrassment in the workplace.

**Results**

In the eventual outcomes of the research made in the hotels it has turned out that romanticism has three positive results. The first one of these is that 53.8% of the people who have a romantic relationship in the workplace go to marriage at the end. The second one is 26.9% of increase of the motivation and the last one is 19.2% of increase of output in the workplace. The negative outcomes of romanticism on the workplace are defined as 50% of decrease of the motivation, 46.1% of decrease of output, 23% of complaints about behaving partially, 23% of leaving job of one of the sides, 19.2% of separation of the couples, 11.5% of complaints about the harrassments after finishing a relationship, 7.6% of gossips about the other people 7.6% of grouping in the workplace, 3.8% of accusations of the sexual harrassments, 3.8% of increase of the violence in the workplace, and 3.8% of that married people cheat their partners with other ones.

During the interviews, in the boutique hotels both positive and negative outcomes of the workplace romance are focused on. One of the positive outcomes is that 46.1% of the people in the romantic relationship go to marriage and the other one is 23% of increase of output. The last one is 7.6% of increase of motivation. Besides the positive results, the most rate negative outcome belongs to the complaints about behaving partially with the 26.9%, followed by 23% of decrease of motivation, 15.3% of decrease of output, 11.5% of accusations of the sexual harrassments, 7.6% of the separation of the couples, 7.6% of complaint about the harrassments after finishing the relationship, 7.6% of firing out of the one of the sides, 3.8% of violent events.

When five stars hotels are compared to the boutique hotels the highest rate for both is accumulated on that the people marry to each other at the end of the romantic relationship. However about romanticism in the workplace are seen something negative in the five stars hotels more than boutique hotels. Especially the decrease of motivation of the people in a romantic relationship is 50% in the five stars hotels (23% in the boutique hotels). Moreover in among the responses of the employees in the five stars hotels and boutique hotels the most
remarkable rate is 23% of **leaving job** in the five stars hotels while this does not take place among the responses of employees of the boutique hotels. It is obvious the reason why this rate is so high is that one of the sides who marry has to leave job in the five stars hotels. **As a result it can be said that the five stars hotels are affected negatively more than the boutique hotels.**

**Table 2. The outcomes of the workplace romance**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>THEMES</th>
<th>Codes</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Rate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>The outcome of the workplace romance</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Five stars</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marriage</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>53,8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demoralization</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>50</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moralization</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>26,9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decrease of output</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>46,1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Complaint about partiality</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>23</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorces</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>19,2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do not know</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3,8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accusations of sexual disturb</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3,8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increase of output</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>19,2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Violence</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3,8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Complaints about revenge</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>11,5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gossip</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7,6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tension</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>11,5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cheating</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3,8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Groupings</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7,6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leaving the job</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>23</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Boutique</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marriage</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>46,1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demoralization</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>23</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moralization</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7,6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decrease of output</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>15,3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Complaints about partiality</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>26,9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorces</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7,6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do not know</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7,6</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accusations of sexual disturb</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>11,5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increase of output</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>23</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Violence</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3,8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Complaints about the revenge</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7,6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Firing out</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7,6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

On the other hand, 61.5% of the employees in the five stars hotels claim that romanticism does not result in the sexual harrassment. One of the respondents who thinks that romanticism on the workplace can cause in a sexual harrassment has pointed out that there is a link between education levels of the people and behavior of sexual harrassment.
'The personnel who have a low level of education exhibit aggressive behaviors like the sexual harrassment after a separation or refusal.'

In the boutique hotels 57.6% of the employees consider that the workplace romance does not result in a sexual harrassment. Some respondents have talked about that the workplace romance and the sexual harrassment are connected that the relationship is hierarchical or horizontal.

'It can be possible if the relationship is between the seniors and the juniors.'

In the evaluations made in the boutique hotels and the five stars hotels the views about whether the workplace romance results in a sexual harrassment or not are similar.

The person exposed to the harrassment presents psychological reactions like to be nervous coward the scare of the possibility to happen again trustless, dissatisfied, unhappy. These reactions have been determined in the rate of 80.7% by the respondents. Another high rate is 57.6% of the decrease of the motivation. Because this decrease affects negatively the organization as a whole the other workers lose their motivation. Another negative result is that the person exposed chooses to leave job, and 46.1% of the exposed leave job actually. The other negative outcome is the decrease of performance. The sexual harrassment experience affects the person’s performance. This is followed by the decrease of output. The person exposed loses his or her trust in the organization in 26.9%. Differently in the five stars hotels the organization itself fires the person who disturbs sexually out in 23 %. After all these negativities the respondents have also said that the job satisfaction may fall down too.

The negative outcomes of the sexual harrassment are also 7.6% of firing the disturber out, get the disturbed out, physical reactions, deterioration of prestige of the organization, decrease of the success of organization while 3.8% of transfer of the disturber, transfer of disturbed, obstruction of assignment of the disturbed, hostile attitudes in the workplace, biases about the disturbed, cutting the connection with the customer if the harrassment comes from him or her, deterioration of the marriage life of the disturbed in the five stars hotels. The most negative outcome of the sexual harrassment is associated with the psychology of an individual exposed evaluating in terms of boutique hotels. 73% of the respondents have focused on the negative effects on the psychology of the disturbed. The other one is 46% of leaving job. The disturber is fired out in the rate of 38.4% after the sexual harrassment. The respondents have emphasized on the decrease of output in 30.7%. It is followed by 26.9% of getting the disturbed out of job, decrease of performance, and decrease of the job satisfac-
tion. Also the disturbed lose their trust in the organization. These are pursued by 15.3% of absence of the disturbed, deterioration of organizational structure, 11.5% of material losses, 7.6% of transfer of the person disturbed, physical reactions, formation of a hostile environment, deterioration of the respectfulness of the disturbed, 3.8% of gossips within the organization, encouragement of the other workers if there is no precaution and biases about the disturbed.

Table 3. The outcomes of the sexual harassment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Themes and codes</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Rate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Decrease of performance</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>34.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decrease of motivation</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>57.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decrease of output</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>34.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leaving job of the disturbed</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>46.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Getting the disturber out</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Getting the disturbed out</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transfer of disturber</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transfer of disturbed</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Absence of the disturbed</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job dissatisfaction of the disturbed</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>19.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interference of the assignment of the disturbed</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychological reactions</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>80.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>physical reactions</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decrease of dependence on the job</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>26.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biases towards to the disturbed</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deterioration of organizational structure</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hostile environment</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cutting the relationship with the disturbed</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decrease of success</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marriage life of the disturbed</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decrease of performance</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>26.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decrease of motivation</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>34.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decrease of output</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>30.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leaving job of the disturbed</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>46.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Material losses of the organization</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>11.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Firing the disturber out</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>38.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Firing the disturbed out</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>26.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transfer of the disturbed</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Absence of the disturbed</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>15.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decrease of job satisfaction of the disturbed</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>26.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychological reactions</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical reactions</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decrease of the dependence on the organization</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>19.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gossip</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deterioration of the organizational structure</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>15.3</td>
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<td>Hostile environment</td>
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<td>Loss of prestige</td>
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<td>Encouraging the other employees</td>
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<td>Biases towards to the disturbed</td>
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We can see the similar comments from the employees of boutique hotels and five stars hotels evaluating the outcomes of the sexual harassment. In both types of hotel it is obvious that psychological reactions of the disturbed decrease of motivation performance and output tendency of the disturbed to leave job and firing the disturber out are all in high rates. Moreover that the disturbed leave job is one of the most negative outcomes of the sexual harassment.

**Conclusion**

The most common notion which has seen in two both types of hotels in Izmir is marriage. Increase in gossip is one of two behaviors of the research of Quinn (1977). But 7.6% of the respondents in five stars hotels have mentioned about the gossip. Because the working environment of the five stars hotels is greater and the relationships usually go to marriage there no much gossip. Besides this in boutique hotels gossip does not take place in the outcome of the workplace romance because they are mostly family institutions. Quinn’s (1977) findings of research and the findings of this research are akin to each other. The hotel personnel have pointed out the increase of motivation and output. Quinn (1977) argues that there are more positive outcomes of the workplace romance.

Another variable of the research is the concept of the sexual harassment. The research of Society for Human Resource Management claim that the workplace romance results in the sexual harassment. According to the respondents, the sexual harassment is resulted from the workplace romance. Moreover claims about the sexual harassment increase after a romantic relationship is over (Society for Human Resource Management, 1998 in Pierce& Aguinis, 2001; Society for Human Resource Management, 2001 in Appelbaum et al., 2007). In the hotels in the city center of Izmir the findings are related to that the workplace romance does not turn into the sexual harassment however the rate of the other findings about that it does is also so high to notice. In Turkey because the respondents have behaved replying in a coward way this stimulates the doubt that they do it with no confidence. Also Atman (2003) has brought an explanation to support the subject. In the countries where there is no security or trust people often prefer to keep quiet so that they do not want to lose their job (Atman, 2003).

The respondents have pointed out the psychological harrasments and tendency to leave job. According to the research by Wasti and his colleagues (2000) the job stress deteriorates the health job satisfaction and psychological well being of the individual. In this case the tendency to leave job is more. Mimaroglu
and Ozgen (2008) argue that the people who are exposed to a sexual harassment are affected psychologically and physically. After a bad experience the woman leaves job or the sexual harassment affects her working badly. Moreover because the sexual harassment is formed from the senior to the junior and the woman needs to stay quiet otherwise the woman is afraid of losing her job (Konrad & Gutek, 1986). At the end of the research the findings are about psychological destruction and leaving job of the disturbed and decrease of the motivation on both the five stars hotels and boutique hotels. This supports the findings given in the literature. In the result of interviews and analyses this is clearly obvious that it is effective in the five stars hotels and boutique hotels. The tendency to leave job has occurred thanks to the research about the negative outcomes of the workplace romance. However, the sexual harassment decreases the output, job satisfaction and performance of the women and they are afraid of the possibility to experience the bad things again. All these negativities result in the increase of the tendency of the women to leave job. Recommendations for future researches are associated that there is no typology in the national literature. Most researchers in the national literature have some typologies which determine the formation impacts and management interferences. There is no research about that the workplace romance results in the sexual harassment in the national literature. Besides this, only heterosexual relationships are focused in the national literature, not homosexual relationships.

**References**


Paradise on Earth: Backpackers between ‘the Global Beach’ and the Villages of Southern Sri Lanka

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Abstract
‘Paradise on earth’ is a dominant mass-mediated icon of the tourist industry, which is most often represented as an image of a “(global) beach”. Backpackers I met in Sri Lanka often used this conventional symbol to feed their ideals of good life. However, on the very ‘paradise site’, their picture of good life became either blurred and forgotten or transplanted elsewhere. The ‘paradise’ was still vivid in their memories from the past and in their aspirations for the future, but in practice, the ‘paradise’ was not what they actually did and with whom they interacted at the moment. I will present these entwinements of ‘the paradise’ through ethnographic materials I collected in southern Sri Lanka.

Key words: global beach, Sri Lanka, ethnographic materials.

Introduction
The ‘paradise on earth’ metaphor has been conventionally used for promotion of leisure holiday destinations. In anthropological writings, it was mostly examined through analyses of tourist brochures, photographs, postcards and images (see e.g. Chalfen, 1979; Selwyn, 1996). Graham Dann (1996, p. 68), for example, established a typology consisting of four types of paradise images: paradise contrived (or ‘pure’ paradise without people), paradise confined (images of a tourist ghetto), paradise controlled (locals depicted as servants, vendors etc.), and paradise confused (closer contact with locals and blurred boundaries between them and tourists). Peter Burns (1999) saw this ”brochure-paradise” (109) as “just one part of a range of pressures on culture through tourism”, but at the same time noted that “the myths of tourism extend far beyond the creation of paradise through brochures” (111).

Tensions and exchanges between ideal types and actual practices can be seen either in relations between the media and their audiences or between the tourist industry and its clients. Crouch, Jackson and Thompson (2005, p. 13)
noted that the actual imaginations of people are not necessarily confined to what is produced and disseminated through media and tourist marketing:

These imaginations beyond public discourse are not limited to the detached observance of a tourist gaze, but an active and also physical encounter with the local and intimate worlds that are the content of tourism. The tourist, in building dreams and arranging practicalities, in making journeys and in being there, and then in space/time reflections, is not identifiable in a tourism ‘bubble’, but in negotiating, perhaps progressing, life.

However “nothing can be decided in advance about what tourists actually do” (ibid.), or will do. Similarly, Dean MacCannell (2001) in his critique of John Urry’s “tourist gaze” (2002) suggested taking into account “a desire to get beyond touristic representation” (MacCannell, 2001, p. 31). This rejection of “deterministic models of tourist behaviour” (35) and advocating “the unexpected, not the extraordinary, objects and events that may open a window in structure, a chance to glimpse the real” (36) brings out the following question: to what degree can mediated paradise nevertheless influence tourists’ perception about sacredness of a chosen destination, as Graburn (1977) stated for tourism decades ago?

It would be too ambitious to say that I will answer this question on a broad scale. In order to link the two sources of paradise production, the tourist marketing and the respective tourist space, I will outline the importance of the beach in tourism, because a Small Island’s ‘paradise’ primarily consists of beaches, and only then can some unique ‘exotic culture’ be added to its image. In the final section of this paper, I will try to think about the ‘paradise’ through tourist spaces of Sri Lankan beaches, where I did my ethnographic fieldwork in years of 2003, 2004 and 2006. I hope that these entwinements of imaginations, interactions and practices of the beach life and local village life I experienced on the beaches and in backpackers’ enclaves of Sri Lanka, will also open further questions about ‘paradise tourism’ in postcolonial world today.

The ‘paradise island’ gazed at and examined

I will first look at the Biblical paradise image. It is a timeless virgin place with trees, waters and animals, yet the snake and the erotic nudity of the couple within represent – on the contrary – transformation and tempting subjects (Marit Waade, 2010, p. 19). However, the paradise is also an idea of many other mythical and religious conceptions around the world: it is located at the top of axis mundi, which connects the sky, our world and the underworld. It is often
represented as a sacred mountain or a beautiful place with a sacred tree and springs of water (see Šmitek, 1999).

This image also inspired explorations of new worlds overseas in the late Middle Ages. In medieval Christian perception, small tropical islands were especially associated with it. Although the ‘happy island’ was not confined only to Christian and Western views, we can notice its permutations especially in Western film industry (e.g. Adam and Eve, The Blue Lagoon, Tarzan and Jane, etc.), as well as in advertising of island tourism. Last but not least, the islandness of the islands was also recognized in postcolonial writing:

Discourses about a specific magical quality of the island appear hegemonic in nature transcending public and private narratives; at a deeper level they have become a phenomenological property of social life allowing people to think islands as ontologically separate entities, as island localities symbolically and socially separated from a world outside (Picard, 2008, p. 1).

This brings us to another implication of ‘the paradise’: in opposition to the wealth of the ‘paradise island’, Western imagination also relates an island to danger (Robinson Crusoe, Chuck Noland, Lord of the Flies, Lost series, etc.), dark forces and magic (e.g. Haitian voodoo, south Sri Lankan exorcism, i.e. the ‘devil’s dance’, etc.). In Western imagery, these impure forces gain their incarnation in form of island inhabitants, who are diametrically opposed to the paradise island itself. They are seen as savage, unpredictable, impure and “magic” (Picard, 2008). In this ambivalent imagery, small tropical islands were feeding the romantic orientalist imaginations and inspiring the first colonialist undertakings in exciting new worlds of beauty, wealth, but also wilderness.

The bright side of ‘the paradise’ was revived after the colonial regimes dissolved. During the 1960s, the prevailing idea was that launching tourism did not require much financial investment in ‘tropical paradise’, since all that was needed should already be there – sun, sand and happy faces. This proved to be inaccurate, as investments in the infrastructure with foreign aid were costly and left destination countries indebted (Crick, 1989: 314–317). Consequently, most early tourism anthropologists and sociologists embraced the opposite extreme (and myth): tourism as pure evil and scapegoat for all social changes. In this context, the tourists represented “golden hordes” (Turner and Ash, 1975) and tourism as “passport to development” (de Kadt, 1979) was questioned. Stephen Britton (1982), drawing on tourism in the ‘third world’, developed a “dependency model”, with which he examined how the West (North) over-
exploited the East (South). Furthermore, Dennison Nash (1977) saw in tourism just another “form of imperialism”.

The globalisation processes in subsequent years started to fragment the old economic organizational principles of the world, such as centre-periphery, push-pull, surplus-deficit, users-manufacturers (Geertz, 2000, p. 218–263), and the uncertainty of “disorganized capitalism” (Appadurai, 2005, p. 32–33) was increasingly present on local scales as well. Small islands represented important part of globally circulated tourist images, but on a local scale, the same images were in turn reproduced ‘back’ through holiday photos and videos (Urry, 2002). Anne Marit Waade (2010) analysed ‘the paradise’ and its conception in advertisements and stated it is indeed imagined as a specific place, but also as a condition. The latter is associated with “specific moods and bodily conditions the viewer will achieve when buying goods or just watching the advertisement” (ibid, p. 16). The ‘new paradise’ is shared globally in different directions and through different channels. It only rarely uses specific place as a symbol.

Nevertheless, we can not predict reflections on shared images, because of life’s pragmatism and agency of media audiences. ‘The paradise’ can mean different things according to different contexts, although within the context of tourism or backpacking, the scope of its interpretations can already be quite narrow. Here are some examples from the open travel blog: iii

*There is only one paradise on earth, and that is the island Marco Polo called the “finest island of its size in the world” - The World’s Resplendent Isle - Sri Lanka.*

*Boracay in the Philippines looks nice from that piccie but i so wanna go somewhere relatively untouched by civilisation. Dont know how busy boracay gets with tourists... but looks heavenly!*

*There are so many paradises to choose from! I’m just saving up for my next adventure and the Caribbean is on my mind........*

Although ‘the paradise’ does not only refer to unspoiled nature and islands, this imagery is still a very spatial image of exotic destinations and touristic experiences, which can be transmitted to different simulacrums. One of the most powerful ones is the ‘paradise beach’.

**The ‘paradise beach’ and its implications**

In his book on the history of vacationing, Orvar Löfgren (1999) examined the evolution of the “global beach” concept (213-239) as mass-mediated icon of the tourist industry. In describing “the tropical dream” (216-220), Löfgren states
that “the whole concept of paradise relies above all on the romance of the South Pacific and the tropical beach. The global notion of the beach began in the cult of Hawaii and the Waikiki beach next to Honolulu” (216). These first beach resorts from the beginning of the 20. century gradually developed into a first mass-mediated paradise: postcards, palm trees, music tunes, hula girls with flowers in their hair, tropical nights on the beach – the whole atmosphere was presented through different magazines (e.g. National Geographic), music records, Hollywood production (e.g. Elvis’s *Blue Hawaii*), etc.

The images and ideas of ‘the tropical paradise’ were also reproduced in Europe. Any serious beach had to have palm trees, sand, collapsible deck chairs, and bathing huts (Löfgren, 1999: 216). The built environment of ‘authentic paradise’ developed into a holiday beach, where sea, sand and sun were just a stage for other activities. Playing with sand, bathing in water, and especially sunbathing, became something enjoyable – and also healthy. The tan started to be considered as beautiful (ibid. 220-223), and the beach became – despite being persistently imagined as a place of freedom – a place of *tight sociality* (ibid. p. 227-228). This ‘hybridised paradise’ was therefore perfectly accorded with the production of ‘paradise moods’, although the “authentic” paradise (MacCannell, 1976, p. 91-107) started again to be imagined somewhere in the South or East.

Many ‘natural’ beaches of the world were subjected to this search of authenticity. But the problem of any beach always lies in the presence of people. If the beach is not crowded with tourists that are secretly observing one another (Löfgren, 1999, p. 228), then the locals or fishermen might be around. The beaches are not only interesting for investments into tourist infrastructure, iv they are also interesting for nature conservation, fishing, being there alone, surfing, partying, selling fruit or accessories, offering massages... Consequently, the goal of finding oneself on a ‘pure solitary beach’ is difficult to achieve.

South Asian beaches developed in slightly different patterns than the ones described above. If the Waikiki beach represents an early model for global beach (Löfgren, 1999, p. 216-220), the *Goa* beach represents a model for a ‘hippie beach’. The 1960s West’s invasion of India with its twisted spiritual tourism (see Mehta, 1979) reached its peak in *Goa*. Through decades of its specific development, the beach has become impregnated with “politics of location” that divides not only the local population from the whites, but also newcomer tourists from “cliques” and “Goa freaks” (Saldanha, 2007). These exclusions have adopted a racist idiom that domestic tourists feel even from the local Goans,
who reject to serve them or rent them rooms in ‘white’ parts of Goa. On the other hand, for many backpackers, Goa represents “pervert’s paradise” (after Welk, 2004, p. 90), where domestic male package tours are organised from Indian cities, and offering voyeur adventures on topless foreign women (ibid.).

But the Goa is an extreme local story in itself. What seems like a crucial difference between South Asian beaches and the ‘global beach’ is performativity of behaviour. The 1960s Westerners have brought different psychedelic acts there, such as playing with different ropes, strips, hoops and crystal balls, etc., drumming and playing music, taking drugs, but also performing ‘free’ variations of yoga and meditation. The accompanying ideas and practices of ‘free sexuality’ resulted in open sexual interest in local people as well.

In the next section, I will examine the ‘paradise’ through my ethnographic insights from southern Sri Lanka. The beaches and villages where I worked were not crowded then, which was an important factor that brought the image of the ‘pure paradise’ into the fore. However, there were many other factors that – on the contrary – persistently excluded Sri Lankan ‘virgin’ places from this imagery. The people living and working there above all created tourist spaces with unwritten rules, where different attitudes and practices separated, but sometimes also connected the paradise’s inhabitants.

**Beaches, tourists and villages in southern Sri Lanka**

In Sri Lanka, the most busy coast road leads from the capital of Colombo in the West, through Galle in the South West, and finally Matara, Tangalla and Hambantota in the South, where it heads towards inland. Along this road, there are main centers of Sri Lankan leisure beach tourism, where ‘the South’, starting with the town of Galle, is regarded as ‘less touristy’. The centres of the South are – as described by the *Lonely Planet* guidebook – “the lovely Unawatuna”, “the sleepy Mirissa” and “the bustling Matara”. The tourist space is divided according to the coast road. The so-called beach side has more expensive accommodation than the so called jungle side.

The difference between the two sides often becomes very obvious to backpackers on arriving, as soon as they step off the bus and start searching for accommodation. Although they usually decide for accommodation in advance from their guides, it is not uncommon for some owners, especially from the jungle side rooms, to wait in the vicinity of the bus stop and try to bring newcomers to their home. Many of them do not have their tourist business officially registered and their ‘guest house’ is not presented in ‘the book’ (i.e. *Lonely Plan-
et). The locals often want to know which guesthouse a newcomer had chosen, and in general, the question ‘where do you stay’ is a usual introduction to small-talk conversation with the tourists. On getting the answer though, these informal room providers would start saying bad things about the owner of the chosen guesthouse, and try to persuade the visitor to move rather into their guesthouse or room. When the ‘nightmare’ of finding the accommodation and negotiating its price is over, another story can finally begin, possibly that of ‘the paradise’, or – even more likely – that of beyond paradise, since when on the road, the paradise starts fading out on account of travelling itself.

As travelling in warm and humid climate of the south is heavy, the beach might be the first choice. The beach is usually not crowded at all, the palm trees are everywhere, the sea is warm, the light breeze refreshing, and the young local boys are lazily hanging around in nearly empty restaurants, sometimes comfortably chatting with a backpacker or two. All of them look like fellows on the timeless tropical ‘corner of the earth’. However, when another gorgeous equatorial sunset is over and nicely dressed tourist couples finish their fancy dinners, preparations for evening parties start in some beach bars.

At parties, the locals outnumber the tourists. Backpackers, whether in couples, alone or in small groups, keep to themselves, while the groups of locals take over the dance floor. They do not necessarily dance, they rather observe the scene, and occasionally try to join the white dancers. Boy-to-boy dancing of a local with a foreigner is common and sometimes, if the dance floor is crowded enough, a group of locals may isolate and encircle a foreign female dancer and clench her to the wall. The whole scene is, in short, sharply divided into groups of up to ten or fifteen local boys, who control the situation. Free mingling is out of the question, and if a foreigner tries to establish contact with a local, at least three more of them will immediately join them, eagerly willing to talk. For the locals, parties are hunting time and time for enforcing or establishing power relations, which is very different from anonymous ‘communitas’ at the parties that the holiday makers are familiar with from the West.

As far as domestic tourists are concerned, the beach side rooms are – as in the case of Goa noted above – out of the question. In some villages, at least, the rooms are available ‘for foreigners only’. It is not only the money that influences owners’ decisions; it is also the risk of bad gossip that could be spread in the island’s networks of acquaintances and cliques. Last but not least, many guesthouse owners are actually Westerners: they have to be loyal to their local partners and keep their circles closed. Any mingling with other, especially
unknown locals, can cause jealousy,\textsuperscript{x} which can bring unpredictable problems in their relationships.

The coastal tourist space is therefore very dense and competitive for both the locals and the foreigners. It excludes other locals as guests, and it tries to attract small foreign investors. Foreigners co-create tourist landscape in other ways as well: they often jump into business by becoming ‘managers’, help rearrange guesthouse interiors, gardens, lounges, etc. Besides creating atmospheres that correspond to the taste of Western visitors, they organize preparation of ‘proper’ food or snacks,\textsuperscript{xi} as well as expensive sports and activities such as diving and surfing and establishing good quality internet cafés.

Some backpackers find interesting ways to involve themselves in organization of daily beach life. They readily jump into a closer relationship with a local group, joke, play, buy a couple of giant fishes in a nearby market and feed the whole group, persuade the group to organize a birthday party for a tourist girl on the beach, and – most importantly – help anybody, anytime... Some woman backpackers, jump into more or less ‘summer’ relationships with the (male) locals and often go travelling across the island with them for a week or two on, while older women and gay ‘adventurers’ are expected to invest somewhat larger sums of money into their lovers and sometimes their families; in terms of properties, boats, three wheelers, providing overseas work and the like.

What about ‘the paradise’, then? The upper paragraphs show that the “tight sociality”, the term Löfgren (1999, p. 227-228) used to describe beach behaviour in the West, is even “tighter” on South Sri Lankan beaches. If the “global beach” behaviour is anonymous, the South Asian beach behaviour is definitely not. As the locals are sharply divided into groups of friends and acquaintances and lead very close and demanding forms of friendship among themselves, the foreigners have two options: either they submit to the hidden protection of their current host and his group, or they carefully try to engage in those demanding relationships and contribute to the shaping of respective tourist space. Among different kinds of backpackers and travelers I met in Southern Sri Lanka, the idea of ‘paradise on earth’ was frequently evoked. If it did not refer to certain parts of Sri Lanka, it referred to other places where my interlocutors had been, or wanted to go. Nevertheless, the context of these evocations never referred to the situation we were in at the moment. It was either a momentary insight or a part of narration about other places.
Conclusion

‘Paradise on earth’ was first ‘discovered’ in Polynesian settings like Hawaii, Tahiti, Fiji, Bora Bora, etc. Classical anthropology was also established there, from Malinowski to Margaret Mead and Dobuans of Ruth Benedict. Dissemination of the ‘actual paradise on earth’ to the West did not work for a long time, as the tourist industry rapidly turned it into the beach life for the masses, from which different behaviour patterns evolved. On those very spots (in different postcolonial countries, especially in small island states), ‘the paradise’ turned into meeting the Other – this time not from the side of anthropologists and adventurers, but from the side of tourists, backpackers and travelers. Yet again, the colonial way of understanding these places came massively to the fore. The “crisis of representation” (Marcus & Fischer, 1986, p. 7-16) is now a massive phenomenon, where international tourism with its persistent reproduction of imagery of ‘the paradise’ plays an important part. I think that we also have to consider this persistence in the future ethnography, as it is hardly possible to meet any social milieu in non-western countries without more or less active connections with orientalist foreigners.

In the ethnographic descriptions of this article I tried to show that local communities in Southern Sri Lanka are not ‘victims of circumstances’, but are actively adapting to tourism, and that tourist experience is not limited to sight, but embodied. The tourism space is therefore not only a consequence of the socio-cultural impact of tourism on a local community, but a space in its own rights.

The ‘paradise on earth’ can be imagined – especially in the present conditions – as a place of escape. It is cheap in the postcolonial countries, and the so-called lifetime travelers switch between their salaries at home and living in cheap paradise. There is also a possibility of distance working through internet, teaching English, yoga, bartending or running Western style guesthouses, etc. Apart from lifetime travelers, backpackers, resident Westerners, there are also numerous NGO volunteers, who are participating in this part-time escapism, imagining they are doing something good for the people. Imagining of possibilities for the future, or plain daydreaming, allow them to make up their identity as travelers, considering themselves relaxed, cosmopolitan, free, brave, independent, easy-going, adventurous and the like. On the other hand, all of the places in their travelling careers shape their perceptions of the tourist settings they are in at the moment. And the ‘paradise on earth’ they are dreaming
about, the same as the good life they are searching for, always turns out to be – already somewhere else.

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References


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ii The old ‘Lanka’ (Sri Lanka after 1972), for example, was already ‘noticed’ by ancient Greeks, Romans, Arabsians and Chinese and was also visited by Marco Polo (Crick 1994: 21).

iii http://opentravel.com/blogs/paradise-on-earth/, last check: 11. 7. 2011

iv As Naomi Klein (2009: 379-398) in her *Shock doctrine* convincingly demonstrated for Maldives and for Sri Lanka as well, the programs for investments had already been made by state economists, politicians and corporations before the 2004 tsunamis. Soon after the disaster, they used it as a convenient ‘reason’ to empty the best spots by moving the village people and fishermen from the foreshore into inland refugee camps.


vi A problem backpackers often face is that some guesthouses in particular destinations are more popular than others. The main factors for this ‘popularity’ are cheapness of rooms and presence of other backpackers. Ina guesthouses of such reputation, it is sometimes hard to find a spare room, as they also function as a base where the backpackers return from their adventures and explorations of ‘less visited’ places on the island.

vii Even if all backpackers are not devoted to travelling to the extent where travelling means a way of life (see Cohen 2011), they are “experience hungry” tourists, which means that the main
benefit of traveling for them is the exploration itself, rather than a specific culture they might encounter (Richards and Wilson 2004: 28-29). At least when travelling, they have to deal with establishing of social status within the “hidden backpacker hierarchy” (Welk 2004: 80). Apart from anti-tourism attitudes that all backpackers share, some of them consider themselves ‘better’ backpackers than others, stating that one can either be a ‘real’ traveler or only a mainstream backpacker (Welk 2004: 88).

viii This allusion to Jamiroquai’s song stands for how the backpacker’s taste is accorded with different icons of popular culture and their outfits, and vice versa: how the pop industry adopted backpacker culture and integrated it in its production. The pop-freedom is therefore expressed through listening to the ‘right’ music, wearing long hair or dread locks, ‘ethnic looking’ dresses, piercings, occasional tattoos, producing small accessories out of natural materials like sea shells, smoking joints, playing ‘ethnic’ instruments like drums or didgeridoo, etc.

ix Most owners have local partners, because – ever since the elections in 2004, when a new government was inaugurated, there is a 100% tax on the price of properties for foreign citizens. However, one can legally rent a property for 99 years from an official local owner, and in this case, the taxes on the price are 7%. The other reason for partnership is simply that Western owners are in many cases just occasionally present, while the local partners are running business and taking care of the property and its maintenance when out of season.

x Jealousy or – in Sinhalese – irisiyāva, is important concept in daily life of Sri Lankans, which goes together with shame, or fear of shame – in Sinhalese lajja or lajja-baya. These concepts are known also in tourist guides of South Asian countries as loosing a face.

xi In this case, the ‘managements’ are usually advertised along national lines, such as ‘Dutch’, ‘Italian’, ‘German’, ‘Greek’ etc. management.
A Study of Tourism Market Segmentation in Tabriz Case Study: Tabriz Bazaar as a Tourist Attraction

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Abstract
Tabriz, a vast metropolis of 200 tourist attractions, has a leading role in attracting tourists; old houses, monuments and more significantly the old bazaar of Tabriz, which was listed among the national historic buildings in 1975 and has also been registered as the first bazaar in the world in 2010, are among these attractions. In this research 6590 foreigner tourists who have visited Tabriz in early 2011 have been considered as the statistical population, among whom 100 have been chosen as the statistical sample. These tourists' purpose of visiting Tabriz bazaar and their opinions about it regarding their interest to visit it as a historical-touristic building or regarding their interest to invest in market segmentations have been analyzed via descriptive and SPSS inferential statistics. Based on the extracted statistics, about 71.6% have visited bazaar among who 70.2% have expressed their interest in investment. Also, the existing problems have been examined and some solutions for the problems regarding publicizing, advertizing, high prices, and the quality of accommodation have been provided in this research.

Key words: market segmentation, Tabriz bazaar, foreigner tourists, tourism statistics.

Introduction
Iran is one of the most attractive countries to visit. It has been included among 10 top countries regarding tourism, and considering the variety of tourist attractions it has been among 5 top countries and due to owning a variety of handicrafts it has been placed among 3 top countries in the world. After India, Iran has the highest rate of tourism in south Asia. Tabriz, a vast metropolis of 200 tourist attractions, has a leading role in attracting tourists; old houses, ancient bathrooms, historical schools, ancient gardens, and Tabriz bazaar are among these attractions. (Shamsollah Zadeh, 2003). Being in a pleasing geographical and political situation and thus providing a good opportunity for trade and communication with other countries and being economically significant both locally and nationally, are significant characteristics of Tabriz. (Ebrahimipour, 2003). With suitable substructures, facilities, history, culture, and various tourist attractions, Tabriz has the potential to attract a great num-
ber of tourists. With the length of one kilometer, Tabriz bazaar is a masterpiece of Iranian architecture and the biggest covered market in the world. It was listed among the national historic buildings in 1975 and also in 2010 it has been inscribed as World Heritage site in UNESCO as the first market in the world. Due to a disastrous earthquake in Tabriz, bazaar was seriously damaged, but with the help of citizens, it was reconstructed.

Statement of the Problem

The most significant issue in Tourism is the minute recognition of tourism since tourists are categorized based on their demands (Stynes & Hallora, 2007). The theory of market segmentation, planning and scheduling have been the subject to most marketing studies. Frank Messy, Wind, Riz Truth, Culter and his colleagues consider them as conjoined processes. In fact market segmentation is the first and foremost process, that is, all the markets are divided into characteristically recognizable and separate segments. Through statistics and detailed studies, this research project intends to observe the role of market segmentation in attracting foreign tourists and their inclination towards investment, if any.

Literature Review

Studies on market segmentation go back to about a century ago. Manufacturers, primarily, divided their market into different distinguishable segments based on primitive methods. The scientific method, though, was introduced by Smith from Massachusetts in 1950 (Gholizadeh, 2003, p. 15). This method entered the field of tourism marketing with a delay of approximately two centuries. But it has turned out to be the commonest strategy in this field which has been widespread among most national and local tourist organizations, firms and private real estates and also in academic researches. According to the publications of international tourist organization, among 26 countries which have joined the market segmentation planning, 22 countries have aimed market segmentation at particular parts and in 20 countries the data have been provided for private segments as well.

During three years, more than 52010 essays related to market segmentation have been published in "Tourism Management" each of which has analyzed it from different angles: Bob Mckercher has probed travel decline theory based on distance through 6 units of studying foreign tourism in Hong Kong. Aaron Tkaczynski, Sharyn R. Rundle, and Thiele Narelle Beaumont have analyzed market segmentation from beneficiary groups' view point. Sara Dolnicar, Friedrich Leisch have discussed case marketing in stable environmentalist tourism.
Duck Byeong Park and Yoo shik Yoon have studies rural tourism market segmentation in South Korea. Sara Dolnicar, Geoffrey I. Crouch, Timothy Deviney, Twan Huybers, Jordan J. Louviere have studied the selection of optimum markets concerning segmentation.

**Significance of the Study**

As a beneficial phenomenon which leads to development in communications technology in the modern world, tourism has been introduced as a leading industry, that is, tourism is not merely considered an entertainment; it is regarded as an industry which demands examinations and facilities for being developed (Hossein & Heydari, 2003). Tourism industry is especially significant in the countries which depend on unipolar economy and consider a change (ValiZadeh, 2006). In this regard, Tabriz, as a tourist attraction in Iran, could have a great role in the development of tourism industry; its geographical and economical position, its history and culture, and its being easily accessible are some of the positive points about Tabriz in attracting either foreign or Iranian tourists (Shamsollah, 2006).

The main philosophy beyond market segmentation is derived from the variety in international tourism. Different types of trips, passengers' different purposes and tastes create different needs. Due to the vastness of tourism market, planning for expansions in this field becomes laborious and almost impossible. The importance of market segmentation is explainable since it makes planning easier and more purposeful (Hamidy & Fazeli, 2003). This project gains more significance since no research have been done regarding tourism industry marketing in Iran and Tabriz, and no studies have been conducted about tourism market segmentation.

**Approach**

Geographical position, location of Tabriz among valleys, along with suitable economical position and its roads to neighboring countries like Azerbaijan, Turkey, Armenia, and Iraq are of major importance in giving Tabriz a strategic position (Karami, 2003). Being located where silk road crosses, Tabriz was a commercial center and a link between Far East and Europe. Thus its markets have been described in many merchants' and tourist' diaries. Tabriz downtown is assumed to be located inside a square and bazaar of Tabriz is placed in its center. Bazaar complex includes a main bazaar and several sub-bazaars which connect the old gates of Tabriz to the main bazaar. Even though due to the con-
struction of streets the old texture of city has been destroyed, some of the sub-bazaars have survived. But they have become isolated.

With about a million square meters, the main part is 30 hectare and the main and the surrounding reaches to 70 hectares, bazaar of Tabriz deserves being introduced as the biggest covered structure of the world. In this complex there are more than 160 different places; 23 caravanserais, 22 corridors, 20 arcades, 28 mosques, 8 schools, 7 sub-bazaars, 5 historical bathrooms, old icehouses, and Zoorkhane (traditional Iranian gymnasium) indicate the importance of historical bazaar of Tabriz.

Different parts of bazaar include Amir bazaar (gold center), shoe bazaar, Haramkhaneh bazaar, Kolahdoozan bazaar, Mesgaran bazaar, Mozaffariyeh bazaar (an important carpet export center), Shishegar Khaneh bazaar, Rangi bazaar, Iki Gapili bazaar, and etcetera. The biggest dome of bazaar belongs to Amir arcade. These corridors and sub-bazaars with their stores are all a great center for selling both Iranian and foreign products.

International tourism is capable of creating the most worthwhile economical trades. From 1979 to 1993 the number of foreign tourists have increased 3 times as much (from 165 million to 500 million), and the revenue has increased 18 times as much, that is, from 17.9 billion dollars to 324 billion dollars a year.

In statistics the term "foreign tourist" refers to a person who visits a foreign country and stays there for less than 12 months, not with the purpose of having an income. In other words, a foreign visitor is someone who does not live in the country he is visiting and stays there for at least a night. (Vellas & Becheral, 2009)
Market Segmentation

Derived from theories of microeconomics and the customers' needs, market segmentation is a basic discussion of modern marketing which first was introduced by Wendell Smith in 1956 and was presented in Journal of Marketing. As a matter of fact, being aware of the discordance of supply and demand, Smith favored considering the customers' preferences and recommended the division of the heterogeneous market into several smaller homogeneous markets (Mortazavi, 2009). Market segmentation is a process by which people of the same demands are placed in the same categories, thus when customers in each segment have identical demands, they will respond positively to an especial product and a particular technique of marketing. So as Golchin Far states, with the help of market segmentation, a large market is divided into smaller ones which leads to optimized consumption by major customers (78). This is how the expected type of market comes to existence (Check, 2006).

Significance of Market Segmentation

According to Karter (1999), World Tourism Organization describes market segmentation as "separating market into the components with particular and common characteristics" (UNWTO, 2007). Different reasons have resulted in growing significance of market segmentation; experiencing negative population growth while markets are growing has resulted in an evolution in competing; companies seek to increase the variety of their productions with a single brand with the intention of expanding their market share. Other social and economical elements like growth of net income, growing number of knowledgeable people consequence by higher education have caused in expansion of needs and demands; considering the change in customers' lifestyles, they have more complicated and diverse expectations, that is why corporations strive for winning more customers. Besides, making the corporations conscious about a number of marketing facts, market segmentation offers the following benefits:

- recognition of opportunities for new products.
- assisting with planning suitable designs for marketing to attain homogeneous consumers.
- promoting the process of allocating strategic marketing sources.

Process of Market Segmentation

Market segmentation includes 4 stages:
a. Determining criteria and factors of segmentation: in this stage some influential factors like behavioral, geographical and other criteria are chosen for segmentation.

b. Market research: in this stage, based on the determined criteria, customers’ characteristics are analyzed through factor analysis, cluster, spss, and etcetera.

c. Evaluating different segments: in this step various segments are evaluated regarding their advantages and then some segments are ultimately chosen.

d. Designing proper marketing for selected segments: finally, concerning the selected segments, appropriate marketing is designed and suggested (Golchin Far & Bakhtyari, 2006).

Life cycle

a. Meaning of cycle concerning: studies have shown that most products actually possess life cycle, that is, they pass through various stages similar to lifecycle; a product is sold, it grows and becomes mature, then it declines and dies. While declining, a product should be restored to life through some techniques in order for the longevity of it. The concept of product life cycle was first mentioned by Levitt (Wheel, 2005). Life cycle of tourism destination takes advantage from a concept called carrying capacity, which entails social and environmental limits. According to Cooke and Gets carrying capacity of a destination discusses the fact that after experiencing exploration, sooner or later, a tourist destination will face stagnation due to increasing number of tourist arrivals which ultimately causes deterioration of the sites. The concept of carrying capacity has two particular functions in planning for tourism; it indicates that each destination possesses limited and declining number of sites to present. It also helps to determine the acceptable portions for being presented. It reveals the social impacts of tourism expansion as well. Carrying capacity could be increased through efficient management and minute planning; by increasing facilities, equipping accommodation, and well organizing more tourists could be expected in a more appropriate way (Wheel, 1997).

b. Stages of Tourism Life cycle: The concept of tourism life cycle was first presented by Christaller in 1964 (quoted in Butler). He stated that tourist destinations follow a gradual and even process which includes exploration, involvement, development, consolidation, and stagnation. Of course, based on the executives’ reactions about the initial stages of stagnation, different scenarios could be imagined; decline or rejuvenation. Butler's model is a simple model
based on the concept of product life cycle – a concept which have long been used by marketers and economists in order to describe market behavior concerning purchasing.

Butler's Hypothetical Evolution of a Tourist Area (Adapted from Tom Baun, Current in Tourism, Vol.1, No2, 1998).

Methodology

The statistical population of this project is the foreign tourists who have visited Tabriz in early 2011. The number, according to Tourism organization, was 6590 visitors among whom 100 tourists who have been chosen to be the statistical sample of the study. In pilot studies some questions related to the number of visitors, number of their visits to Tabriz, means of travelling, and their interest, if any, to invest in bazaar, visitors' opinions about Tabriz and the people's culture and hospitality, entertainment, accommodation, and etc. were included in a questionnaire of 68 questions. Then data were analyzed via SPSS.

Recognizing the Existing Situation and Data Analysis:

To recognize and thus have an effective planning for tourism, there should be a credible statistics on the number of tourists visiting this city. Due to lack of
such statistics, the researchers have decided to choose their statistical society from the tourists who have visited Tabriz in early 2011. Because of the fact that some information about the purpose of the tourists trip, visitors’ age, income and other characteristics which seem vital for tourism marketing have been taken for granted in most questionnaires, detailed studies, and statistical sources, the researchers have tried to include them in their questionnaire.

- The tourists’ age and social characteristics: in this section of the study, the tourists’ characteristics which have been discovered through the questionnaire are analyzed statistically. 71 percent of the statistical sample of the study had visited bazaar of Tabriz and 23 percent of them were intended to visit it, and only 6 percent showed no interest in seeing bazaar of Tabriz. According to the data, 34 percent of the tourists were women and 66 percent were men. 16 percent were between the ages of 22-29, 14 percent were between 29-36, 25 percent were between 36-43, 27 percent were 43 to 50, 15 percent were 50 to 57, and 3 percent were over 57. Also, 35 percent of the tourists worked in private sectors, 31 percent worked in public sectors and approximately 11 percent were retired. 38 percent were traveling alone, 23 percent were with their family, 26 percent were accompanied by friends, and 13 percent were traveling with their colleagues.

71 percent were traveling by plane and 29 percent were traveling by bus or by their own car. Among these foreign tourists 54 percent were staying in hotels, 37 percent in motels and around 9 percent were accommodated by their friends or relatives. Around 27 percent were traveling via tours while 73 percent weren’t. 79 percent of them knew Tabriz; 16.7 percent were acquainted with Tabriz through their friends, 1.9 percent through tour agents, 29.6 percent via TV, 45.4 percent by internet and finally 6.5 percent by some magazines.

The purposes mentioned in questionnaire, in table number one and related diagrams, include meeting friends and relatives, going to health care centers, personal interests in visiting Iran or Tabriz, seeing environmental, historical, and cultural attractions, becoming acquainted with diversity of cultures among different nations, etc. Foreign tourists identified their purposes by selecting one or more choices in the questionnaire. In this regard, commercial and economic purposes stand first with 24 percent, seeing tourist attractions is graded second with 22.9 percent, and visiting historical buildings is placed third with 13.4 percent. Interest in visiting Tabriz with 9 percent and getting familiar with different cultures and nations with 7.2 percent re placed next. Other purposes have also been elaborated in the table.
Around 15 percent rated Tabriz an excellent place for investment and 57 percent rated it suitable, that is, on the whole, 72 percent have recognized bazaar of Tabriz as beneficial to invest in. But 28 percent of the tourists didn't show any interest to invest in bazaar.

Advertisements in foreign media and their impact on increasing the number of tourists indicate their interdependence. Among the tourists who have been interviewed, 19 percent have visited Iran for the first time, 28 percent for the second time, 35 percent for the third and 11 percent for the fourth time, and 16 percent have been to Iran more than four times. Among these tourists 38 percent have visited Tabriz only once, 29 percent twice, 11 percent thrice and 9 percent for the fourth time, and around 13 percent have been to Tabriz for more than four times. 9 percent of the tourists emphasized on the influence of advertisement by rating it as excellent, 25 percent graded it good, 31 percent weak, 21 percent unsatisfactory and 14 percent score it terrible. On the whole 34 percent were satisfied with publicity, but it was rated weak and unsatisfactory by 66 percent; 15 percent described publicity as good, 8 percent realized its weak influence and 77 percent have rated it average.

Tourists rated their opinion on Iran before their visit as 83 percent good and very good which grew to 89 percent after their arrival. Their idea about hospitality before their arrival is rated 88 percent good and very good; this percentage increased to 91 percent after their arrival. Generally speaking, evaluations made about the tourists' opinion before and after their arrival in Iran indicate that after their arrival, tourists' opinion has grown 32 percent much better, 62 percent better, and only 5 percent had worsened.

Evaluations on the rate of satisfaction have shown that 82 percent were satisfied with Iranians' behavior, 65 percent rated accommodations average and high in quality, but 35 percent had low opinion in this regard. Considering the rate of tourism publicity, 62 percent of the tourists had positive views, and 67 percent evaluated parks and sanitation satisfactory. Nevertheless, public transportation have been evaluated 37 percent unsatisfactory, 57 percent average and good, and only 6 percent very good. Around 27 percent of the tourists had very satisfactory opinion about security, around 52 percent had good and average opinion on it and 21 percent were not satisfied with security.

Convenience and accessibility of historical buildings and tourist attractions were rated good and very good by 69 percent of the tourists and 31 percent were dissatisfied. On the whole, 4 percent of the visitors will certainly revisit Tabriz, 19 percent would likely revisit Tabriz with very high likelihood, 32 per-
cent would likely revisit Tabriz, 24 percent might travel to Tabriz again, but 15 percent expressed low certainty. 4 percent doubted their traveling to Tabriz, and 2 percent had no intention of revisiting Tabriz. 83 percent will recommend their friends to travel to this city and 17 percent were doubtful.

The result of the survey is that the most satisfactory characteristic about Tabriz refers to the citizens' behavior and historical places with 37 and 31 percent satisfaction. and the most unsatisfactory part of their trip was related to public transportation with the percentage of 43 and accommodation with 27 percent.

**Conclusion**

Tourism industry is growing more significant each day, and development in this field demands skilled planning and exact recognition of the market. Attracting more tourists is vital since tourists bring foreign currency which can ultimately result in creating more occupations. There is a meaningful interrelation between satisfaction rate of the tourists and their interest in visiting Tabriz, and also the interest in revisiting and recommending it to their acquaintances are interrelated. The direct role of publicity in increasing the number of tourists also comes to the light; the more and effective the advertisements are, the more foreign tourists show interest in visiting a place. The most significant problem was public transportation and accommodation which could be improved via some efficient resolutions. Tourists also were complaining about the high prices of handicrafts. So controlling the prices of this segment could lead to its prosperity. Better quality of the products will also cause more purchases.

Tourism as an important industry should certainly be improved. Via suitable publicity, and provision of more facilities and services in different segments, more tourists would be persuaded to travel to Iran and visit Tabriz. Publicity also has a great role in attracting tourists. Publicizing the historical bazaar of Tabriz as the biggest covered market of the world should not be taken for granted. Feeling of fulfillment also acts like an advertisement since satisfied tourists, like media, will encourage others not to miss the great experience they had. Improving the quality of accommodation and public transportation will encourage the tourists to visit more sites. By creating tourist shuttles and particular stations near all the historical sites and other tourist attractions, this segment will develop. Market segmentation is essential part of investment in tourism segment. Thus regarding the diagram and the concept of tourism life cycle, some effective strategies must be taken to avoid stagnation and preserve prosperity.
Relationships among Tourism Image, Perceived Quality, Place Attachment, Tourist Satisfaction, and Revisit Intentions: A Case of International Tourists in Thailand Tourism Night Market

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Abstract

Previous tourism studies have examined the structural relationships among image, quality, satisfaction and post-purchase behavior. In recent years, research trends in outdoor recreation, compared to geography and environmental psychology in the field, place attachment issue is a relatively new subject, and in tourist areas. Therefore, the study aims to examine the linkage between these variables and place attachment. The results show that destination image influences revisit intentions in two ways: directly and indirectly. Destination image has the most important direct effect on place attachment when compared with perceived quality, tourist satisfaction, and revisit intentions. Also, destination image has an indirect effect on revisit intentions as mediated by perceived quality and tourist satisfaction respectively. In addition, the relationship among destination image, perceived quality, tourist satisfaction, and revisit intentions appears evident in this study. Finally, the mediating effect of place attachment on destination image and revisit intentions cannot obtain support.

Key words: tourism image, perceived quality, place attachment, tourist satisfaction, revisit intentions, night market.

Introduction

Night markets in Southeast Asia are unique shopping areas at night with functions of both consumption and leisure. You can find night markets everywhere in Thailand. In the Thai people's mind, they are considered as one of the most representatives of the local culture, the most popular places to make foreign friends experience the local characteristics, and also one of the most famous tourist attractions when international tourists visit Thailand. Dichter (1985) pointed out that international tourists especially like the night market shopping in order to experience different customs. Furthermore, leisure-oriented shopping and local cuisine tasting are closely related to the consumption patterns of in-
ternational tourists. Dichter (1985) also addressed that Hong Kong visitors enjoy dining in the night market, where they look for a local food culture.

Night Markets offer unique experiences of the night life, they bring together shopping, dining and sightseeing, walking, street performances and local culture. Night markets have become an important part of night leisure activities for the local people and foreign visitors. Thai night markets are not only the important tourism resources but also the inheritance of traditional culture. Nowadays, night markets have been developed a type of "global view". If the tourism authorities can continue to increase tourism attractions of night markets to catch more international tourists’ favors and stay, which will be helpful for both the local economic and cultural development.

The ultimate goal of marketing strategy is to influence consumer buying behavior, and "purchase intention" is the most accurate predictor of buying behavior items (Morwitz & Schmittlein, 1992). Kozak (2001) also suggested that repeat visitors are more likely than first time visitors to return to the same destination in the future and the level of overall satisfaction considerably influences intentions for repeat visits. Therefore, tourist satisfaction with the destination would influence revisit intentions, which in turn, lead to revisit behavior.

Kotler, Bowen and Makens's research (1996) on purchase behavior proposed the link relationships among image, quality, satisfaction and post-purchase behavior. Kotler et al. (1996) found that (1) image would positively affect how customers perceive quality; (2) perceived quality will in turn determine the satisfaction of consumers; (3) quality and satisfaction act as mediating variables between image and post-purchase behavior. Bloemer and de Ruyter (1998) also concluded that service quality and satisfaction mediate the relationship between image of product and brand loyalty. Similarly, Bigné et al. (2001) empirically investigated structural interrelationships among destination image, quality, satisfaction, and after-purchase behavior. Their findings confirmed that destination image not only directly affects quality, satisfaction, and future behavior but also indirectly affects future behavior through quality and satisfaction. Previous research (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Beerli & Martin, 2004) has proven destination image to be an important factor in the selection of a destination. Most early research focuses on the effect of destination image on satisfaction, perceived quality, and behavioral intentions (Woodside & Lysonski, 1989; Baloglu et al., 1999; Baker & Crompton, 2000; Bigné et al., 2001; Chen & Tsai, 2007; Chi & Qu, 2008).
In Sum, previous tourism research has examined the structural relationships among image, quality, satisfaction and post-purchase behavior, and established the role of quality and satisfaction as mediating variables between image and post-purchase behavior. However, the linkage between these variables and place attachment has not yet been thoroughly investigated.

Place attachment was first developed in environmental psychology and is conceived as an affective bond or link between people and specific places (Hidalgo & Hernandez, 2001). Place attachment often refers to one’s sense of place and includes symbolic and emotional expressions (Hwang et al., 2005). Tourists are likely to develop emotional attachment with destinations they visit, and this psychological attachment could be an important antecedent and a sensible measure of tourist loyalty to a destination (Lee et al., 1997; George & George, 2004). Conative loyalty, consumers’ behavioral intention to keep on using the brand in the future (Pedersen & Nysveen, 2001), is argued to be the strongest predictor of behavioral loyalty compared to cognitive and affective loyalty (Pedersen et al., 2001). Therefore, it is logical to think that conative loyalty is related or equivalent to revisit intention.

Therefore, it is hypothesized that revisit intentions is relatively dependent on place attachment. In effect, Backlund and Williams (2003) has examined the relationship between place attachment and revisit intentions and determined that place attachment has an impact on revisit intentions. Moreover, Lee (2001) pointed out that destination image will have inference on the tourists’ place attachment for a destination.

Based on the review of the relevant literature, this study suggests that place attachment acts as an important linkage between destination image and revisit intentions. However, there is little research examining the link between these variables in the tourism industry, especially in the tourism night markets, which then inspires this study.

In summary, the purpose of this article is to integrate place attachment and the model proposed by Kotler et al. (1996) into a new framework that describes the relations among tourism image, perceived quality, place attachment, tourist satisfaction, and revisit intentions. In this study, the new proposed causal relationships among these variables were developed from theory and examined empirically. Also, there are three formally enacted tourism night markets lure lots of international tourists in Chiang Mai Province: Hwa-shee, Zhao-ho and Linchiang Tourist Night Markets, whose international tourists were the scope of this study.
This paper is constructed as follows. First, conceptual background and hypotheses are proposed based on an evaluation of previous research. Next, the Methodology will be outlined. Subsequently, a model, including tourism image, perceived quality, place attachment, tourist satisfaction, and revisit intentions, is specified, followed by the results. The paper is completed by a conclusion and implications.

**Methodology**

The purpose of this study is to clarify the interrelationships among destination image, perceived quality, place attachment, tourist satisfaction and revisit intentions. In order to accomplish this main objective, a set of hypotheses will be tested jointly.

**Questionnaire design and operationalisation of constructs**

The questionnaire consisted of six sections: destination image, perceived quality, place attachment, tourist satisfaction, revisit intentions, and basic information of the respondents. For the constructs considered, measures were borrowed and modified from previous studies. The measurement of destination image with 20 attributes was extracted from previous studies (Fakeye et al., 1991; Echtner & Ritchie, 1993; Baloglu et al., 1999; Chen & Kerstetter, 1999; Chaudhary, 2000; Baloglu & Mangaloglu, 2001). A 3-item perceived quality scale was based on the work of Tam (2004). A 4-item tourist satisfaction scale was based on the work of Oliver (1980). An 11-item place attachment scale, including two dimensions of place dependence and place identity, was modified from the works of Williams and Roggenbuck (1989) and Kyle et al. (2004). Finally, the 2-item revisit intentions was borrowed and modified from the work of Hui et al. (2007). All of the items were measured on 5-point Likert-type scales, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) to increase ease of response. Pilot runs of the questionnaire were conducted to forty-five visitors in these three night markets. And thus a few corrections and adjustment in the wording and structure of the questionnaire were made in response to respondent suggestions. Each of the constructs is defined as follows:

- **Destination image**: the tourist’s subjective perception of the destination reality.
- **Perceived quality**: the tourist’s overall evaluation of the standard of the services and products in association with the night market experience.
- **Tourist satisfaction**: the extent of overall pleasure or contentment felt by the tourist, resulting from the night market’s experience.

- **Place attachment**: the tourist’s positive feelings about the destination reality.

- **Revisit intentions**: the tourist’s judgment about the likeliness to revisit the same destination or the willingness to recommend the destination to others.

**Sample design and data collection**

The visitors who were visiting any one of these three night markets in Chiangmai in Thailand at the time of the survey were considered to be the sampling framework. Questionnaires were distributed and collected by research interviewer between June 1 and June 30 of 2011 (about 1 month). Research interviewer asked visitors to complete the questionnaire when every the third foreigner visitor was ready to leave the night market. Of 330 questionnaires distributed to visitors, 330 complete questionnaires were collected. Of these, 308 were valid.

**Data Analysis**

The data was processed with the statistical package SPSS 12.0 and AMOS 5.0. The data analysis was conducted in two stages. First, descriptive statistics were conducted to describe the main features of a collection of data quantitatively. Second, in order to determine the direction and significance of the relationships of destination image, perceived quality, place attachment, tourist satisfaction, and revisit intentions, the hypotheses must be tested simultaneously. With this aim, structural equation modeling (SEM) technique was carried out which considers jointly all the hypotheses put forward.

**Results**

The great majority of the respondents were aged from 18-34 (67.6%) with an equal majority of male and female tourist (47.3% and 52.7%). Most tourists were from Europe (42.1%) and Asia (32.5%). In all, 64.5% had a college degree or higher qualification. Student (33%), educator/researcher (21.8%), manager/executive (14.3%), professional/technical service worker (11.2%), and owner/self-employed (9.2%) were the main divisions of occupation for respondents. The great majority of the respondents had a monthly income less than $4,500 (67.4%). Sightseeing/recreation (55.7%) was the main purpose to travel in Thai-
land and independence tour was the most frequently trip type (74.5%). 46.9% of tourists was the first time to visit the night market. The great majority of total personal spending in the night market was below 1,000 THB (71.7%). Food and beverage (35.4%), and clothing (22.6%) were tourists’ major spending in the night market.

Additionally, the size of the sample has a direct impact on the appropriateness and the statistical power of the Structural Equation Model (Hair et al., 1998). SEM is not appropriate for sample sizes below 100. As a rule of thumb sample sizes of greater than 200 are suggested (Boomsma 1982; Marsh et al., 1988). Following the rules, the sample size in this study was acceptable.

Factor analysis

In this study, a multi-attribute approach was employed to measure destination image. As mentioned above, destination image was measured using a 20-item scale. Employing the principal components factor analysis, four factors with an eigenvalue greater than one explained 59.2% of the variance of destination image scale. Six items with factor loading less than 0.5 were removed from the scale. The varimax-rotated factor pattern implies that the first factor concerns “diverse cuisines, food, and products” (4 items, α = 0.776). The second factor relates to “exotic sentiments and entertainment” (5 items, α = 0.711). The third factor consists of characteristics of the “street performances and stall characteristic” (2 items, α = 0.602). The fourth factor relates to “festive atmosphere” (3 items, α = 0.666).

Second-order confirmatory factor analysis

Since the model contains two second-order constructs (destination image and place attachment), we conducted two second-order CFA to test the fit of the two second-order models to the data, respectively. In the place attachment model, a review of the item loadings for each factor showed there was one item that did not load sufficiently (loading cut-off criterion was 0.50) on the place identity factor and there were two items whose t-values were found to be insignificant on the place dependence factor. A decision was made to drop those items before proceeding with the subsequent analysis. After dropping those items, the model was re-estimated. Table 1 showed the fit indices of the two second-order models. It suggests that the two second-order models produces adequate fit to the data. Due to four dimensions (i.e., diverse cuisines, food, and products, exotic sentiments and entertainment, street performances and stall characteristic, and festive atmosphere) in destination image, the arithmetic
means of the four multi-item dimensions were estimated (sum all the variables and divide by the number of items) to form four new variables for the destination image and were used for subsequent analysis. In the same way, the arithmetic means of the two multi-item dimensions were estimated to form two new variables for the place attachment and were used for subsequent analysis.

Table 1. Fit indices of second-order confirmatory factor analyses s of two constructs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>$\chi^2$</th>
<th>$\chi^2/df$</th>
<th>GFI</th>
<th>NFI</th>
<th>CFI</th>
<th>RMSEA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tourism image</td>
<td>155.924</td>
<td>2.136</td>
<td>0.932</td>
<td>0.874</td>
<td>0.928</td>
<td>0.061</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Place attachment</td>
<td>74.080</td>
<td>3.899</td>
<td>0.936</td>
<td>0.943</td>
<td>0.957</td>
<td>0.772</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

First stage: measurement model analysis

Following recommended two-stage analytical procedures (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Hair et al., 1998), confirmatory factor analysis was first conducted to assess the measurement model; then, the structural relationships were examined. A Cronbach’s alpha test was used to determine the internal consistency for each of the constructs. As shown in Table 2, the results of the Cronbach’s Alpha test for the different constructs were as follows: destination image 0.851, perceived quality 0.780, tourist satisfaction 0.800, place attachment 0.896, and revisit intentions 0.887. All five constructs were above the cut-off criterion of 0.7 recommended by Nunnally (1978). Therefore, it suggests that all constructs were well acceptably reliable. The overall model indicates that $\chi^2$ is 232.9 with 80 degrees of freedom (d.f.) ($p<0.0001$). Technically, the $p$-value should be greater than 0.05, i.e., statistically insignificant. However, in practice the $\chi^2$-valueew is very sensitive to sample size and frequently results in the rejection of a well-fitting model. Hence, the ratio of $\chi^2$ over d.f. has been recommended as a better goodness of fit than $\chi^2$ (Hair et al., 1998). A common level of the $\chi^2$/d.f. ratio is below 5 (though below 3 is better). The $\chi^2$/d.f. ratio of the model is 2.91 (i.e., 232.9/80), indicating an acceptable fit. Furthermore, other indicators of goodness of fit are GFI=0.904, AGFI=0.856, PNFI=0.68, PGFI=0.603, NFI=0.901, RFI=0.870, CFI=0.904, RMSEA=0.079, and RMR=0.030. Comparing these with the corresponding critical values shown in table 5, it suggests that the measurement model produces adequate fit to the data.

The validity of the constructs was tested using the procedure recommended by Fornell and Larcker (1981). Then, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was
conducted using AMOS 5.0 with covariance matrix to test the convergent and discriminant validity of the constructs used in subsequent analysis.

Convergent validity of CFA results should be supported by item reliability, construct reliability and average variance extracted (Hair et al., 1998). As shown in table 3, t-values for all the standardized factor loadings of the items were found to be significant (p<0.001). In addition, construct reliability estimates ranging from 0.771 to 0.887 exceeded the critical value of 0.7 recommended by Hair et al. (1998), indicating it was satisfactory. The average variances extracted for all the constructs fell between 0.462 and 0.798, and most of them were greater than the value of 0.5 suggested by Hair et al. (1998).

Table 2. Scale reliabilities and validity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>SMC</th>
<th>Standardized Factor Loading</th>
<th>Error</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Cronbach’s α</th>
<th>Composite Reliability</th>
<th>AVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tourism Image</td>
<td>DI1</td>
<td>0.553</td>
<td>0.744</td>
<td>0.102</td>
<td>11.076</td>
<td>0.851</td>
<td>0.771</td>
<td>0.462</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>DI2</td>
<td>0.550</td>
<td>0.742</td>
<td>0.086</td>
<td>11.051</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>DI3</td>
<td>0.279</td>
<td>0.528</td>
<td>0.099</td>
<td>8.211</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>DI4</td>
<td>0.464</td>
<td>0.681</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived Quality</td>
<td>PQ1</td>
<td>0.650</td>
<td>0.806</td>
<td>0.089</td>
<td>11.216</td>
<td>0.780</td>
<td>0.796</td>
<td>0.568</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PQ2</td>
<td>0.634</td>
<td>0.796</td>
<td>0.098</td>
<td>11.132</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PQ3</td>
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<td>0.649</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourist Satisfaction</td>
<td>TS1</td>
<td>0.517</td>
<td>0.719</td>
<td>0.077</td>
<td>11.581</td>
<td>0.800</td>
<td>0.806</td>
<td>0.510</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TS2</td>
<td>0.430</td>
<td>0.656</td>
<td>0.079</td>
<td>10.601</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TS3</td>
<td>0.576</td>
<td>0.759</td>
<td>0.073</td>
<td>12.175</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>TS4</td>
<td>0.518</td>
<td>0.720</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Place Attachment</td>
<td>PA1</td>
<td>0.854</td>
<td>0.651</td>
<td>0.124</td>
<td>10.755</td>
<td>0.896</td>
<td>0.775</td>
<td>0.639</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PA2</td>
<td>0.423</td>
<td>0.924</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Revisit Intentions</td>
<td>RI1</td>
<td>0.804</td>
<td>0.896</td>
<td>0.058</td>
<td>17.246</td>
<td>0.887</td>
<td>0.887</td>
<td>0.798</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RI2</td>
<td>0.792</td>
<td>0.890</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Discriminate validity was tested by comparing the square root of the average variance extracted by each construct to the correlations between the construct and all other constructs. Table 4 shows the descriptive statistics and correlations between the construct and all other constructs. For each comparison, most of the square roots of the average variance extracted estimates from each construct exceeded the correlation between each construct (see Table 3). This shows that each construct is statistically different from one another.
Table 3. Analysis of discriminate validity (SEM correlations)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Tourism Image</th>
<th>Perceived Quality</th>
<th>Tourist Satisfaction</th>
<th>Place Attachment</th>
<th>Revisit Intentions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tourism Image</td>
<td>0.680</td>
<td>0.642</td>
<td>0.723</td>
<td>0.754</td>
<td>0.721</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived Quality</td>
<td>0.642</td>
<td>0.754</td>
<td>0.822</td>
<td>0.693</td>
<td>0.555</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourist Satisfaction</td>
<td>0.723</td>
<td>0.822</td>
<td>0.714</td>
<td>0.698</td>
<td>0.661</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Place Attachment</td>
<td>0.754</td>
<td>0.693</td>
<td>0.698</td>
<td>0.800</td>
<td>0.559</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Revisit Intentions</td>
<td>0.721</td>
<td>0.555</td>
<td>0.661</td>
<td>0.559</td>
<td>0.945</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a: All correlations are significant at p < 0.05.
b: Diagonal elements in bold are square roots of average variable extracted (AVE)

Second stage: structural model analysis

The proposed conceptual model was tested by using the five constructs: namely tourism image, perceived quality, place attachment, tourist satisfaction, and revisit intentions. Factors of “destination brand”, “entertainment”, “nature and culture” and “sun and sand” were served as the measurement variables of destination image. Also, dimensions of “place dependence” and “place identity” are used as the measurement variables of place attachment. In addition, perceived quality, tourist satisfaction and revisit intentions were measured by three, four and two items as mentioned previously, respectively. Employing the covariance matrix among 15 measurement items as input, the SEM analysis was conducted to examine the relationships between each pair of constructs as hypothesized. The results of SEM analysis were depicted in Fig. 1. The fit indices of the model are summarized in Table 5. The overall model indicates that $\chi^2$ is 251.5 with 82 degrees of freedom (d.f.) ($p<0.0001$). Technically, the $p$-value should be greater than 0.05, i.e., statistically insignificant. However, in practice the $\chi^2$-value is very sensitive to sample size and frequently results in the rejection of a well-fitting model. Hence, the ratio of $\chi^2$ over d.f. has been recommended as a better goodness of fit than $\chi^2$ (Hair et al., 1998). A common level of the $\chi^2$/d.f. ratio is below 5 (though below 3 is better). The $\chi^2$/d.f. ratio of the model is 3.07 (i.e., 251.5/82), indicating an acceptable fit. Furthermore, other indicators of goodness of fit are GFI=0.897, AGFI=0.850, PNFI=0.698, PGFI=0.613, NFI=0.893, RFI=0.863, CFI=0.925, RMSEA=0.082, and RMR=0.032. Comparing these with the corresponding critical values shown in Table 5, it suggests that the hypothesized model fits the empirical data well. Table 4 pro-
vides the summary of goodness of fit indices for both the measurement and the structural equation model.

**Table 4. Summary of goodness of fit indices for measurement and structural models**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criteria</th>
<th>Measurement Model</th>
<th>Structural model</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Indicators</td>
<td>Conformity Assessment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\chi^2$-test</td>
<td></td>
<td>$p&gt;0.05$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\chi^2$</td>
<td></td>
<td>$&lt;3$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\chi^2$/d.f.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Fit indices**

- GFI >0.9 0.904 Conformity 0.897 Approach
- AGFI >0.9 0.856 Approach 0.850 Approach
- PNFI >0.5 0.687 Conformity 0.698 Conformity
- PGFI >0.5 0.603 Conformity 0.613 Conformity
- NFI >0.9 0.901 Conformity 0.893 Approach
- RFI >0.9 0.870 Approach 0.863 Approach

**Alternative indices**

- CFI $>0.9$ 0.904 Conformity 0.925 Conformity
- RMSEA $<0.05$ 0.079 Approach 0.082 Approach
- RMR $<0.05$ 0.030 Conformity 0.032 Conformity

**Assessment of the hypothesized relationship**

Within the overall model, the estimates of the structural coefficients provide the basis for testing the proposed hypotheses. As shown in Fig. 1, destination image has a significantly positive effect on perceived quality, tourist satisfaction, place attachment, and revisit intentions ($\beta=0.714$, $t$-value=7.911, $p<0.001$, $\beta=0.383$, $t$-value=4.337, $p<0.001$, $\beta=0.841$, $t$-value=8.511, $p<0.001$, and $\beta=0.766$, $t$-value=3.797, $p<0.001$, respectively), thus supporting H1, H2, H3, and H4. The perceived quality, as hypothesized, has a significantly positive effect on tourist satisfaction ($\beta=0.545$, $t$-value=5.700, $p<0.001$), thus supporting H7. Nonetheless, it does not have a significant effect on revisit intentions, thus rejecting H8. In addition, the placement attachment does not have a significantly positive effect on revisit intentions, thus rejecting H9. While the tourist satisfaction has a significantly positive effect on revisit intentions ($\beta=0.286$, $t$-value=2.010, $p=0.044$), thus supporting H11. The results of the hypotheses testing are summarized in table 9.
To sum up, an evident path “destination image-perceived quality-satisfaction-revisit intentions” appears in the estimated model.

![Diagram of the estimated structural model](image)

- Standardized regression coefficient with its t-value in parenthesis
- ‘p<0.05; “p<0.01; “”p<0.001
- Significant relationship
- Non-significant relationship

**Figure 1.** The estimated structural model.

**Mediation analysis**

In order to establish a mediating effect that a variable has on the relationship between a predicting variable and a criterion variable, we employed the mediator conditions proposed by Baron and Kenny (1986). For this purpose, three regression equations were estimated: 1) the dependent (Y) on the independent variable (X), 2) the mediator (M) on the independent variable, and 3) the de-
dependent on both the independent and mediating variable together. For mediation to be established, equations 1 and 2 must be significant and the mediator must significantly affect the dependent variable in the third equation. To have a complete mediating effect, the regression coefficient of \( M \) must be significant whereas that of \( X \) must not be. On the other hand, when the regression coefficients associated with both the independent variables and the mediator variable are statistically significant in the third equation. To have a partial mediating effect, the effect of the independent variable in the third equation must be less than its effect in the second equation. In order to test H5, i.e., whether perceived quality is, as expected, a mediating variable in the relationship between destination image and revisit intentions, we conducted mediation analyses via SEM analyses according to Baron et al. (1986). Regression coefficients generated by SEM analyses are presented in Table 5, which revealed that perceived quality partially mediated the relationship between destination image and revisit intentions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 5. Testing the mediating effect of perceived quality</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Equation 1</strong> Revisit Intentions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variables</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Destination Image</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived Quality</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^*p<0.05; \; ^{**}p<0.01; \; ^{***}p<0.001\)

In order to test H6, we conducted similar analyses with tourist satisfaction instead of perceived quality. Our results presented in Table 6 showed that tourist satisfaction partially mediated the relationship between destination image and revisit intentions. Therefore, H6 is partially supported by the results.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 6. Testing the mediating effect of tourist satisfaction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Equation 1</strong> Revisit Intentions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variables</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Destination Image</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourist Satisfaction</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^*p<0.05; \; ^{**}p<0.01; \; ^{***}p<0.001\)
In order to test H10, we conducted similar analyses with place attachment instead of perceived quality. Because the mediator place attachment does not significantly affect the dependent variable revisit intentions in the third equation (see Table 7), H10 is not supported by the results.

Table 7. Testing the mediating effect of place attachment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Equation 1</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Revisit Intentions</td>
<td>Place attachment</td>
<td>Revisit Intentions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
<td>Std error</td>
<td>Std beta</td>
<td>t-stat</td>
<td>Std error</td>
<td>Std beta</td>
<td>t-stat</td>
<td>Std Error</td>
<td>Std beta</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Destination Image</td>
<td>0.111</td>
<td>0.703</td>
<td>9.640***</td>
<td>0.117</td>
<td>0.811</td>
<td>9.613***</td>
<td>0.107</td>
<td>0.599</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Place Attachment</td>
<td>0.076</td>
<td>0.180</td>
<td>1.576</td>
<td>0.107</td>
<td>0.599</td>
<td>8.272***</td>
<td>0.107</td>
<td>0.599</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001

Conclusion

This paper has attempted to investigate the tourist behaviors by constructing a more comprehensive model considering destination image, perceived quality, place attachment, tourist satisfaction, and revisit intentions. The structural relationships between all variables in the study were tested using data obtained from a visitor questionnaire survey at Chiangmai tourism night markets in Thailand. As Lee et al. (2005) argued, although wide agreement among scholars regarding the influence of destination image on process, little empirical research has been done, especially in tourism night markets. In addition, the moderating role of place attachment between destination image and revisit intentions has been frequently neglected in previous research. This study differs from previous studies by taking account of place attachment in the “image-quality-satisfaction-behavioral intentions” model. Destination image influences revisit intentions in two ways: directly and indirectly. The structural relationship analysis indicates that destination image has the most important direct effect on place attachment when compared with perceived quality, tourist satisfaction, and revisit intentions. Moreover, destination image is also a direct antecedent of perceived quality, tourist satisfaction, place attachment, and revisit intentions. The result is consistent with Bigné et al. (2001). In addition, destination image was also found to have an indirect effect on revisit intentions as mediated by perceived quality and tourist satisfaction respectively. This finding is consistent with Bigné et al. (2001). Therefore, in order to improve the visitors’ revisit intentions, the tourism destination managers should increase the visi-
tors’ positive destination image, provide more positive quality perception for the night markets and create higher tourist satisfaction. Hence, endeavors to build or improve the image of a destination facilitate loyal visitors revisiting or recommending behaviors, thus being critical to the success of destination tourism development. In other words, the main focus of destination managers should be to build up and improve destination image dimensions such as offering diverse cuisines, food, and products, creating more exotic sentiments and entertainment, displaying interesting street performances and stall characteristic, and making festive atmosphere.

As a consequence of the above, tourism destinations managers must take special care of the image that they attempt to communicate and visitors’ perceived quality and satisfaction, as these will affect visitors’ revisit intentions. Also, with regard to the sequence “image→quality→satisfaction→revisit intentions”, suggested by the review of the literature, the analysis of the interrelationships as a whole confirms this sequence.

Finally, regarding the relationship between perceived quality and revisit intentions and between place attachment and revisit intentions, the structural equation model shows that the influences of perceived quality and place attachment on revisit intentions cannot be satisfactorily proved. And with regard to the mediating effect of place attachment, the positive influence between destination image and revisit intentions also cannot obtain support. Although these results do not sustain these hypotheses, we think that further research should be carried out, extending the study to different types of destinations and deepen the multidimensional nature of the variables. Finally, this study provides an interesting starting point for empirical research on the relationships among tourism image, place attachment, and revisit intentions in the international tourism night markets. Certainly, refinements in conceptualization and measurement are possible and desirable. More knowledge on place attachment as an independent variable and its effect on tourists’ revisit intentions are necessary to provide a better understanding of its value for post-purchase consumer research.

References


Marketing Research, 30(1), 7-27.


How Do Volunteer Experiences Impact Future Travel Behavior and Intentions?

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Abstract

With the growing trend of volunteer tourism within the industry, much research in the field has been carried out. While interdisciplinary scholarly attention has focused on the motivational factors of participants, it seems as if no research has addressed the connection between volunteer experiences and the future travel behaviour and intentions of volunteers. This paper addresses, through examples from in-depth interviews with long-term volunteer tourists, how the volunteer tourism experience influences future travel intentions. Such manifestation is carried out through the participants’ desire for experiencing authenticity, pseudo-adventures, finding a home away from home and opposition the ‘self’ from ‘other’ tourists in future travels. Overall, the events and sentiments felt on the volunteer trip have become the minimum level to achieve in the future. It seems as if the volunteer holiday is capable of sustainably changing individuals’ travel behaviour and intentions.

Key words: volunteer tourism, authenticity, adventure, Otherness.

Introduction

The combination of volunteering and travelling is not a modern phenomenon. In fact, its early beginnings can be traced back to 1919 when the Swiss Pierre Ceresole presented the idea of an international team working together to repair damage of the First World War (Tomazos & Butler, 2009). Between 1945 and 1973, the economic boom led to an upward trend in volunteer tourism, however, it was not until the 1980s that volunteer organisations started growing significantly (Tomazos & Butler, 2009; Brown, 2005). Even today, the numbers of
volunteer organisations and volunteer tourists keep growing. This growth in supply emphasises the importance of volunteer tourism in the tourism industry. As a result, a number of tourism researchers have found the field of volunteer tourism a topic worth looking into (Wearing, 2003).

Even though there is not one specific definition of the volunteer tourist, Wearing’s (2001) definition seems to be quoted the most. He describes volunteer tourism as applicable:

“(…) to tourists who, for various reasons, volunteer in an organised way to undertake holidays that might involve aiding or alleviating the material poverty of some groups in society, the restoration of certain environments or research into aspects of society or environment” (Wearing, 2001, p.1).

Official data on volunteer tourism is quite hard to find but studies have shown that the Generation Y (born in 1980 or after) is presently the main target for volunteer tourism (Lo & Lee, 2011).

Existing research: With the growing trend of volunteer tourism within the industry, much research in the field has been carried out. One of the main focuses of existing research has been on the motivational factors of participants. One of the recurring motivation of volunteer tourists included altruism and the desire to help others (Lo & Lee, 2011; Brown, 2005). However, egoistic motives emerged as well. The desire to travel to other countries for example (Sin, 2009) was found to be a key motivational factor for participants who had not travelled extensively before. Other research has tried to categorise volunteer tourists in ‘the volunteer-minded’ and ‘the vacation-minded’ (Brown, 2005). Cousins et al. (2009) criticise that most of the existing studies have focused on the participants, their motives and behaviours (Campbell & Smith, 2005; Galley & Clifton, 2004; Caissie & Halpenny, 2003; Kidd et al., 1996; Duffy, 2002 cited in Cousins, Evans, & Sadler, 2009, p. 1070) but not on the volunteer experience itself. It also seems as if no research has addressed the connection between volunteer experiences and the future travel behaviour and intentions of volunteers. This is somewhat surprising since the connection between past travel experience and future travel behaviour is “inherently logical” (Sonmez & Graefe, 1998, p.171). Since earlier research has shown that past travel experience is indeed quite influential on future behavioural intentions (Goodrich, 1978; Mazursky, 1989; Perdue, 1985 cited in Sonmez & Graefe, 1998), the authors of this study chose to investigate specifically the influence of volunteer tourism experiences on future travel intentions.
Following these first thoughts, purposes of this project are:

1. To grasp an understanding of travel behaviour prior to the volunteer vacation.
2. To examine occurring events during the volunteer experience.
3. To identify which experiences and desires are of highest value to the volunteer tourists during the trip.
4. To comprehend how these desires are being translated into future travel intentions and behaviour.

Methodology

Qualitative Research: We have decided to use a qualitative-constructivist approach since it is an approach that strives to understand phenomena and situations as whole. Our research is exploratory due to the fact that we desire to gain an understanding and discover important categories of meaning (Marshall & Rossman, 1999). A qualitative method has been seen to be most suitable and is additionally consistent with previous studies of volunteer tourists (Broad, 2003, McIntosh & Zahra, 2007, Simpson, 2004, Wearing, 2001, in Carter, 2008). Since our method is interpretive, a conclusion about the data will be subjective in order to make sense of the emerging themes (Creswell, 2003 in Carter, 2008).

Sample selection method: The respondents were partly found with the help of two Danish volunteer organisations who forwarded our request for interview candidates to former volunteers. Additional respondents were found through public calls on social network forums. Through the use of snowball-sampling, we were able to gather further respondents who were willing to participate.

The respondents of this study were chosen if they fulfilled a certain set of criteria. For homogeneity reasons, only female respondents were chosen. It was required that they had been on at least one volunteer holiday that involved unpaid work at a foreign destination, however, the nature of the work was not limited to a specific field. After applying the criteria, the authors were left with seven interview respondents who agreed to participate in the present study.

Profile of sample and the interview process: In total, the authors interviewed seven female, Danish students between the age of 24 and 31 years who all participated in one or multiple volunteer holidays in a foreign country. All volunteer holidays were voluntary. The volunteer holidays lasted from two weeks up to twelve weeks and were all performed in non-European countries.
such as Thailand, USA, Nepal, India, Kenya, South Africa, Palestine, Tunisia, Ecuador and Gabon. The work that our respondents carried out varied from helping in an orphanage, teaching English or Social Sciences in schools and environmental conservation work over penguin rehabilitation and construction work to working in a physiotherapy clinic. All trips were organised by either commercial volunteer tourism operators or non-governmental or non-profit organisations. The prices paid ranged from 2000 kr. to 20.000 kr., depending on the length of the stay, the destination and additional services such as joint travels on the weekends or after the work mission.

Results

The findings of the present study have shown a close relation between volunteer experiences and future travel intentions. While analysing the collected data, it became clear that the respondents shared similar experiences during their respective trips even though their work covered a broad variety of tasks.

The perception of experiencing authenticity and the feeling of living in backstage areas was found to be of high importance to the volunteers. A clear distinction between the authentic feeling of a destination or culture on former travel experiences and the authentic feeling of the visited regions during volunteering was made. The respondents perceived their volunteer holiday as very beneficial in getting to know and understanding other cultures whereas they spoke of former vacations somewhat pejoratively. While reflecting on their past travel experiences, the subjects dismissed these experiences to be of less value. That was the case because through volunteering, they had now gained knowledge of the ‘real’ live and the true face of the visited destinations and cultures. This subjective feeling of authenticity has been identified as one major influence on future travel intentions. All respondents stated that they continued to search for access to alleged backstage regions and that they had a higher desire for interaction with the locals, the insiders of a location. Because the volunteers perceived themselves as living and working like members of the local community resulted in them not wanting to settle for less on their next trip. The authenticity of their encounter was seen to be an eye-opening experience that is continuously sought-for in the future.

The notion balancing of safety and adventure while travelling was the second finding in our analysis. As implied by our respondents, their motivation for seeking novel types of experiences was caused by the fact that they perceive their country of residence and their environment as too safe. The respondents expressed the need for escaping the ‘safe’ environment and challenge them-
selves (Sin, 2009). Nevertheless, the respondents were seeking pseudo-adventure experiences where the balance between safety and adventure is managed. They believe that this balance can be established by volunteering through an organisation (Van, 2007). The organisation can in that way function as a ‘protective frame’, protecting them from what they perceive to be dangerous (Kerr & Apter, 1991). Yet, the perception of risk is not static but flexible, and might change over time. What might appear as an adventurous and risk-seeking experience today might be observed as rather ‘boring’ tomorrow (Gyimothy & Mykletun, 2004). The profound feelings of risk, adventure, uncertainty and self-development gained from the volunteer experience made the respondents feel like they have gone through a ‘rite of passage’ (Van Gennep, 1960 cited in Bowen & Clarke, 2009). It was also a way for them to show their surroundings that they managed to ‘survive reality’ and they are planning to challenge themselves yet again in future travels.

The perceived feeling of having a home away from home was another sentiment welcomed by the respondents. Even though most of them stressed the desire to escape their home and life’s routines in Denmark, they had positive attitudes towards establishing routines and an everyday life in the destination. These attitudes lead to a paradoxical situation: On the one hand, they wanted to escape home, on the other hand they welcomed having a home. It seems as if for volunteer tourism, the dichotomy of home versus away is of no use. The experience of having a home away from home in another part of the world has also shown to influence the future travel intentions. The desire for establishing a base while travelling was stressed, as well as the wish for routines during future trips. The respondents are now more likely to travel for longer periods of time in order to fulfil these desires.

The notion of differentiating from other tourists was identified as well. We found that our respondents constructed their tourist role through and in opposition to other ‘selves’ rather than other ‘others’ (Hough, 2011) while differentiating themselves from mainstream tourists by emphasising their connection to the local community and by avoiding ‘touristy stuff’ (Dann, 2002). They perceived the volunteer experience as a gate for getting a backstage experience of the culture while arguing that ‘other’ tourists (the mainstream tourists) only experience the frontstage (Goffman, 1959 cited in Sundbo & Darmer, 2008). Yet, like conventional tourists from whom they want to differentiate themselves, the majority of volunteers actually pursued highly conventional activities while travelling (Cohen, 2004) and found it difficult to avoid tourist activities when they were off from their volunteer ‘duties’. The paradox in this case is that the
respondents constantly imitate one certain ideal tourist role: the cultural enlightened, adventurous and responsible tourist. By differentiating the ‘self’ from ‘other’, the individual gains a certain ‘sense of place in the world’ (Mowforth & Munt, 2009). The volunteer experience thereby acted as a major point of transition that has disturbed former routines, and generates reflexivity about the self in relation tourism experiences in the future (Giddens, 1991).

**Conclusion**

Resulting from the findings, it can be concluded that volunteer tourism is highly influential on future travel intentions. The volunteer tourism experiences impressed the respondents deeply and made a lasting impact on their concept and idea of travelling. The events and sentiments felt on the volunteer trip have become the minimum level to achieve in the future. The volunteers do not intend to experience anything less than what they have already experienced. It seems as if only one single volunteer holiday is already capable of sustainably changing individuals’ travel behaviour and intentions.

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Moderating Effect on Information, Familiarity and Reference Price on Hotel Pricing Policies: The Case of Chinese Customers

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ABSTRACT
The purpose of this research is to determine whether 1) familiarity, 2) level of information provided 3) and reference price moderate Chinese customers’ fairness perception on hotel pricing policies. Although revenue management can increase the profitability, companies can suffer from negative impact in the long run if customers perceive pricing policy to be unfair (Mauri, 2007). Customers may perceive pricing policy as unfair for at least two reasons: Prices are higher than their reference price; or they do not see an increase in value with higher price (Kimes & Wirtz, 2002). Fairness perception is one of the key components for hotels to maximize long-run profit. Customers are willing to accept fair transactions even in low season, while unfairness perception motivates customers to search alternative suppliers (Kahneman, Knetsch, & Thaler, 1986). Studies show that unfairness of pricing policies can be moderated by information and familiarity (Choi, & Mattila, 2004, 2005; Kimes, & Wirtz, 2003; Wirtz, & Kimes, 2007). In the context of this study, customers that are less familiar with a product are defined as ‘lower familiarity customers’, and customers that are more familiar with a product are defined as ‘higher familiarity customers’. According to Choi and Mattila (2006), there are three levels of information that can be provided to the customers: no information; limited information; and full information. Reference price refers to how much customers think a good or service should cost (Kahneman, Knetch, & Thaler, 1986). This study was conducted in two steps. Step 1 determined the rate fences that Chinese customers are most familiar and least familiar. Rate fence examples were collected from four hotel online booking websites. These rate fence examples were drawn into seven rate fence items revised from Lovelock, Wirtz, Keh and Lu (2005) and Beldona and Kwansa (2008). 120 questionnaires were collected in step 1. After testing, weekday/weekend pricing was found to be the rate fence that Chinese leisure travelers are most familiar while flexibility of the booking was identified as the least familiar rate fence. The step 2 tested how familiarity with the rate fence, information provided to the customers and reference price affect Chinese customers’ fairness perception. Step two involved a 2 x 2 x 2 (information x familiarity x reference price) scenario design. The rate fences employed in this step were identified in step one. A total number of 256 questionnaires were collected. The re-
results show that reference price does not have significant impact on Chinese customers’ fairness perception. Although information and familiarity moderate Chinese customer’ fairness perception, information has a stronger impact on fairness perception than familiarity. This study suggests hotels to apply existing pricing policies rather than creating new policies to attract Chinese travelers.

References


Online Reviews Credibility: Implications on Traveller’s Decision Making

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Abstract
The social web is the ideal place to share information, experiences and preferences among consumers. Actually, online reviews and recommendations are becoming increasingly important and seen as a new digital form of word-of-mouth, a key topic for researchers. Despite the significant body of literature about e-wom, there is a lack of research that analyses the phenomenon in the context of the hospitality industry, its drivers, conditioning factors and impacts. This research aims to highlight the online reviews as a reliable and important source of information for travellers, with possible implications in their decision making process. It is expected to yield some relevant contributions to academia, marketing and management in the tourism and hotel businesses.

Key words: E-wom, online reviews, credibility, tourism, consumer behaviour.

Introduction
Word-of-mouth or simply interpersonal communications between tourists and their peers, have been recognized as influential for shaping tourism demand. Some studies suggest that WOM communications can influence travel decisions (Shanka, Ali-Knight, & Pope, 2002), boost wine sales (O’Neill & Palmer, 2004), or even influence tourists when they are choosing a restaurant (Litvin, Blose, & Laird, 2004). With the emergence of the world-wide-web, the original concept has changed and evolved. Electronic word-of-mouth is seen and addressed as a ramification of WOM, and an important topic of research, as evidenced by the growing number of publications in top level marketing journals
in the last decade (Breazeale, 2009). However, despite the significant body of literature, there is a lack of studies on the effect of social media and user generated content (UGC) in the tourism businesses. Therefore, it is expected to contribute to a better understanding of the impacts of E-WOM in the hotel business, addressing the consumer perceptions about credibility of online reviews, and its implications on traveller’s decision making.

**Research question and objectives**

There is a belief that high-quality information is difficult to find in the Internet, due to the amount of lower quality, unfiltered and sometimes contradictory information in the web and an unlimited number of unknown participants, which makes the information validity uncertain and raise suspicious about the credibility of the online reviews (Cheung, Luo, Sia, & Chen, 2009). The purpose of this research is to highlight the online reviews as a reliable and important source of information for travellers, with possible implications in their decision making process. The present research model intends to focus three stages of the traveller decision making process: before the booking, during the stay, and after the experience (see figure I – Research model).

![Figure 1. Research model](image-url)
Firstly it is intended to understand the factors that affect the perceptions of credibility of those online reviews. Secondly, bearing in mind that positive and negative reviews can create expectations, it is important to understand if the expectations were achieved, i.e., understand the impacts of the online reviews on traveller’s satisfaction and perceived value. Finally, given that most online agencies invites tourists to write a review after a hotel stay, it is intended to test the impact of satisfaction and perceived value on e-WOM activity. Moreover, it is considered that the degree of commitment with the online travel agency may mediate this effect.

**Antecedents: Perceived credibility of online reviews of hotel offerings**

People are using product information from the e-WOM network, in order to make purchase decisions. However, reading a review does not imply that a person will follow that recommendation. Actually, investigating how people evaluate the credibility of online recommendations would help to better understand the process by which e-WOM is being used (Cheung et al., 2009). Credibility is a key topic, especially when considering online environments. Many theories have tried to explain how people are influenced by received information, such as the dual-process theory, a useful theoretical framework for explaining communication effectiveness when group opinions/discussions are present, such as in e-WOM communications (Cheung et al., 2009). According to the Dual-process theory, two types of influences contribute to shape the reader’s information-credibility judgment. The “informational” influence is based on the receiver’s self-judgment of the received information, while “normative” refers to the influence of the norms/expectations of others that are implicit or explicit in the choice preference of the group (see Cheung et al., 2009). Based on conclusions from prior literature review (Wathen & Burkell, 2002; Zhang & Watts, 2003), source credibility, argument strength and prior belief will be tested as informational influences. As normative influences, we will test recommendation rating and recommendation consistency.

**Source Credibility**

“Readers who are less knowledgeable on the review topic would be more likely to depend on source credibility to judge the credibility of the review” (Cheung et al., 2009, p. 30). In fact, credibility is one of the criteria we use to filter information (Wathen & Burkell, 2002), and is an important antecedent of e-WOM adoption (McKnight & Kacmar, 2006), because people will only accept online opinions and advices if they perceive them as credible (Wathen & Burkell,
2002). People are vulnerable to the inaccuracy of web-based information and need to evaluate online information critically to avoid misinformation. Researchers found that the presence of personal identifying information has a positive effect on the perceived credibility of online reviews (Xie, Miao, Kuo, & Lee, 2011). Therefore:

✓ H1. Source credibility will have a significant positive effect on perceived credibility of online reviews

**Argument strength**

The argument strength is related to the information accuracy, i.e., the quality of the received information, which will have a direct effect on the receiver attitudes, especially in on-line environments. Researchers have demonstrated the positive effect of the receiver’s perceived information credibility on the willingness to accept the information of a Web site, so information credibility is an important predictor of on-line consumer’s further actions (McKnight & Kacmar, 2006).

Someone who perceives that certain information has valid arguments probably will develop a positive attitude and consider it as valid information and the same is expected to be true in the opposite situation. Thus, we propose:

✓ H2. Argument strength will have a significant positive effect on perceived credibility of online reviews

**Prior belief**

According to Festinger’s cognitive dissonance theory, consumers can detect the level of confirmation / disconfirmation between their prior beliefs and the information received on the evaluation of a product or service (Festinger, 1957). When the information content is consistent with their expectations or previous knowledge, they have more confidence in the information received and this criterion is applied in subsequent purchasing decisions (Zeithaml, 1988; Zhang & Watts, 2003). Some studies have shown that the process of confirmation / disconfirmation of prior beliefs has a significant influence on the credibility of information received (Fogg et al., 2001). So, in online environments, if the online advices or recommendations confirm the reader's prior beliefs, it is expected that he/she will be more likely to consider it credible information. On the other hand the reader may probably refuse the validity of some recommendation, when perceived as a disconfirmation of a prior belief.
Hence:

✓ H3. The confirmation of a prior belief will have a significant positive effect on perceived online reviews credibility

**Recommendation consistency**

"Normative influence cues significantly affect how people determine the credibility of on-line recommendations [and] in the eWOM context, normative cues may be able to supplement the informational cues” (Cheung et al., 2009, p.29). In on-line environments, such as in tourist discussion forums for instance, the reviews are submitted by many different persons, with different experiences and sometimes with contradictory opinions, and we can compare those reviews easily. Thus, recommendation consistency refers to the degree of similarity or consistency between different recommendations concerning the same product or service (Zhang & Watts, 2003), and it seems that readers are concerned about it, particularly low-involvement readers (Cheung et al., 2009). A current recommendation, consistent with previous ones, is likely to convey greater credibility for the reader, because people tend to follow and believe normative opinions (Zhang and Watts, 2003). Thus:

✓ H4. Recommendation consistency will have a significant positive effect on perceived online reviews credibility

**Recommendation Rating**

In the online consumer discussion forums, readers can assess the review with a high or low rating score, depending on their perception of it. Recommendation ratings reflect third parties’ perceptions of the current review Therefore, the total score represents how previous readers reacted to the review and can have a significant influence on the credibility of the information perceived by readers (Cheung et al., 2009). If most readers give a high-level rating to a message, it means that they agree and believe in the content of the message and/or classify the review as useful. Conversely, a very low rating indicates that most readers classify the review as not useful, which may raise suspicion about the credibility of the review. Some findings suggested that a 10% improvement in reviewers’ rating can increase sales by 4.4%, and a 10% increase in review variance can decrease sales by 2.8%" (Ye, Law, & Gu, 2009, p. 181).

Therefore we propose:
H5. Recommendation rating will have a significant positive effect on perceived online reviews credibility

Perceived online reviews credibility and expectations fulfilment

The influence of user reviews is particularly important for experience goods, because their quality is only perceived after consumption, which matches with the nature of the hospitality and tourism industries (Ye, Law, & Gu, 2009). Some findings indicate that perceived credibility of online reviews significantly affects participants’ intention to book the hotel (Xie et al., 2011). Tourists will form their images based on the information acquired from different sources (Seabra, Abrantes, & Lages, 2007). Those images influence perceived expectations, which will influence customer intentions to use or reject a service (Webster, 1991), as well as the degree of satisfaction.

Positive online reviews can increase expectations, but it also makes more difficult to satisfy those expectations and needs (Díaz-Martín, Iglesias, Vásquez, & Ruiz, 2000). Expectations present a certain degree of uncertainty, because they are associated with consumer predictions and beliefs (Spreng & Page, 2001) about some destination or hotel service. In order to avoid this degree of uncertainty, extensive information search will normally precede the decision to book a hotel. Expectations fulfilment is positively affected by information acquired from various non-media information sources (Spreng & Page, 2001; Webster, 1991), such as the Internet (Seabra, Abrantes, & Lages, 2007). Therefore, in order to see whether their expectations were met, tourists will compare the information gathered and prior beliefs in the pre-purchase phase with their own experience at the destination (Seabra et al., 2007), i.e. their degree of satisfaction. On the other hand, customer-perceived value is the “consumer’s overall assessment of the utility of a product based on perceptions of what is received and what is given” (Zeithaml, 1988, p.14).

So it is expected that:

H6. Perceived online review credibility will have an impact on the degree of satisfaction with the destination

H7. Perceived online review credibility will have an impact on the perceived value of the hotel

Outcomes: E-WOM activity (online reviews)

Internet users may have different motivations in using or generating e-WOM. It can be a way of saving time in the decision making process, or of arriving at a
better buying decision (Hennig-Thurau & Walsh, 2003). However, when customers participate in e-WOM, they may also expect some other benefits, like hedonic ones (Wang & Fesenmaier, 2004). The emotional components are present in the customer satisfaction, which can be a stronger predictor of future behavioural intentions (Martin, O’Neill, Hubbard & Palmer, 2008). So, when a destination or a hotel location exceeds the customers’ expectations, it is likely that they feel motivated to share their own positive experiences with others. On the other hand, the online environment can be ideal for customer revenge, especially after a service failure recovery. Some studies support the significant effect of satisfaction on WOM (Matos & Rossi, 2008), as well as the evolution of service failures and complaints (Park & Lehto, 2008). On the other hand, perceived value has an influence on WOM and it has been addressed as a predictor or a correlate of WOM activity, especially in the service context (Matos & Rossi, 2008). So, it is expected that:

- H8. Satisfaction (with the destination) will have an impact on the e-WOM activity
- H9. Perceived value (of the hotel) will have an impact on the e-WOM activity

**The mediating role of commitment**

In the model proposed, commitment will mediate the relationship between e-WOM activity and expectations fulfilment, i.e. satisfaction with the destination and the perceived value of the hotel. “Satisfaction has a strong effect on long-term variables such as commitment and retention” (Hennig-Thurau, 2004, p. 472). Moreover, it seems that the relation between satisfaction and retention is strong in the case of travel agencies (Hennig-Thurau, 2004). Naturally, tourists may disregard some of the online review they have read. However, after arriving at the destination and at the hotel, they have a more grounded view. Therefore, it is expected that the level of satisfaction with the destination and the perceived value about the hotel could affect the level of commitment regarding the service provided by the online travel agency. Thus:

- H10. There is a significant positive effect of satisfaction on commitment
- H11. There is a significant positive effect of perceived value on commitment

When a company recognizes and rewards the customer as someone special, their commitment to the company tends to increase (Lacey, Suh & Morgan,
On the other hand, customers that are higher committed with the company present higher identification with their products and services and tend to value and maintain those relationships. These examples reinforce the affective dimension of the construct (Harrison-Walker, 2001). Several studies have demonstrated the positive relationship between commitment and WOM (Hennig-Thurau, Gwinner & Gremler, 2002; Lacey et al., 2007). Therefore, finally, it is expected that someone committed with the online travel agency, would like to maintain and nurture this relationship, which means that will continue to read reviews, book hotels and post comments on the same website.

So:

✓ H12. There is a significant positive effect of commitment on e-WOM activity (online reviews).

**Methodology**

The objective is to develop an analysis of causality between the factors described in the model designed. The factors/characteristics of the research will be based on quantitative methods, using the structural equations system (see figure II – Methodology design)
For the empirical strand a web survey will be used, with a questionnaire prepared in six different languages: English, Portuguese, Spanish, German, Italian and French. Besides allowing collect a diverse set of responses from travellers from different nationalities, it may also be possible a comparison of results amongst them. The target will be those travellers who have written an online review in a travel agency website and have booked a hotel room through it. They will be invited to respond to a questionnaire, through a website. Therefore, it will be necessary to request the cooperation of an online hotel reservations agency, that ensures that the online reviews are genuine, i.e. correspond to the people who made their reservations through the site and have stayed at the hotel. A pre-test will be done, in order to verify the reliability of the scales (using Cronbach’s Alpha) and refine the measurement instrument, using a sample of 50 tourists. For the research, a simple random sampling approach will be used (300 individuals per idiom, i.e. a sample of 1800 individuals). According to the time plan, data collection will be done between July and September 2012 (see figure III – Time plan).

Univariate data analysis and exploratory factor analysis will be performed using the SPSS 19 (or a later version). Confirmatory factor analysis and estimation of the structural model will be conducted using the LISREL 8.8 (or a later version).
Conclusion

The outcome of the research model (e-WOM activity) implies that a traveller will write a review on the same website where the hotel reservation was made. However, writing a review does not mean that someone will choose the same hotel, will prefer the same online travel agency, or even will use the online reservation procedure as a preference. Moreover, a service provider may be reviewed by a large number of customers with diverse backgrounds (Litvin et al., 2008). So, this research does not intend a cross-cultural comparison, to define the profile of the internet users, or even a typology of online shoppers. Furthermore, the review could be seen as a recommendation or as a complaint. Sometimes is not clearly the valence of it because there are ambivalent online hotel reviews (Xie et al., 2011). There might be many reasons for complaints, but is not the focus of the research. As evidence, e-WOM is a hot topic nowadays and there are plenty opportunities and new avenues to research in the tourism and hospitality field.

Significance

The online travel market shows a considerable size and a continuing growth is predicted for the next years (Miguéns et al., 2008). In Europe it presented almost 19.4% of the total market in 2007 (Gretzel, Hyan-Yoo, & Purifoy, 2008) and it seems that over 105 million American adults used the Internet to plan travel in 2009, a considerable growth comparing the 90 million in 2007 (U.S. Travel Association, 2009). Online communities have a strong influence on the image and the marketing of hotels (Wang & Fesenmaier, 2002). For instance, negative WOM can have a huge impact upon a destination’s or hotel image, because dissatisfied visitors spread negative comments about their experiences, sometimes unfounded (Morgan, Pritchard, & Piggott’s, 2003). Tourism marketers are very keen in device strategies to manage E-WOM, especially according to the intangible characteristic, the emotional influence and the high risk evolved in the decision-making process (Lewis et al., 2000). Hospitality and tourism products are both seasonal and perishable, operate in very competitive markets, and some competitive advantages can be achieved with online interpersonal influence (Litvin et al., 2008).

Companies are facing a global external environment increasingly demanding, highly competitive, and the technological development allows and requires more effective and efficient business communication. Increasingly, companies realise that customers are their most important asset, and the relationships with them are seen as opportunities that should be managed. Thus,
beyond highlight the online reviews as a reliable and important source of information for travellers, this research also emphasize the importance of the social web for tourism providers and marketers, which it can be useful to:

(1) interact with actual customers or potential ones;
(2) understand customers’ expectations, experiences and satisfaction level;
(3) solve problems and avoid or respond to negative comments;
(4) analyse competitive strategies,
(5) monitor the company’s image and reputation;
(6) obtain information from customers which can be very innovative;
(7) and also for revenue generation purposes.

References


Rule of Urban Management in Change of Application of the Land Emphasizing on Commission of Art.5 in Municipality District 1, Tehran

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Abstract
The main subject of urban management, land's application change, effective method of decisions of urban management on these factors and different commissions such as Commission of Art.5 in District 1 of Tehran have been challenged in this research. In deed the effects of these policies on increase of number of construction licenses, total area inserted in the said license, sales of congestion, over congestion, increase of price of the land, destruction, and renovation were examined in the studying area of this research. Finally, change in the urban structure and application of the land are the subjects have been studied from different viewpoints. The change of application in District 1 of Tehran was approximately more than other regions. In deed, the key factory affecting changes of application of the land are: Concerned rules and approvals; enacting unsuitable tax and duties; relying on income resources of the Municipality from sales of over congestion; role of institutes and basic economy of Urban Land Office which have been challenged and discussed in this research.

Key words: urban management, change of application of the land, plan council, Commission of Art.5.

Introduction
Indeed, the urban area consisting the most complicated and diversified manifestations of human life will be unorganized without an urban management system which challenges the present problems and issues while arranging the plans required for future development of the city. Therefore the city as a sys-
tem requires management which determined the objects and coordinates activities of different urban elements (Saeidnia & Ahmad, 2004, p. 19). One of scientists of management and economics, considered management as decision making and declared this duty as the best and main role of the manager (Herbert, 1977, p. 11). In this research, the application of urban lands situated at District 1 of Municipality of Tehran was examined with emphasizing on the role of urban managers. In this case, the relation between changes made to the application of urban lands with urban management policies and the concerned effects were recognized. Hence, the role of the urban managers in the changes of urban lands was changed in the period from 1995 to 2005. In the present research, after collecting data and information through library and surveying systems as the first stage, they are organized through a Geographic Information Systems (GIS) as the second stage. These data are also classified and drawn up based on the requirements and finally drawing of the studying area is revealed through GIS software. In addition to GIS, the satellite photos and remote sounding (RS) are also used. (Hamedi & Farrokhi, 1996, p. 60)

**Urban Management:** Seemingly, if we combine concepts to be used in the past and present situations as design, management, project, science, ...) we can declare more urban issues, even if it is probable that some groups apply their requirements in management explanations. All groups expect urban management to upgrade urban residence levels. Indeed, single description of management is accepting and realizing permanent liability for achieving a series of determined objects, ending to a main goal. What should be done and who a system should be applied to this operation (Nematollahi, 2009 p. 2).

**Record and structure of urban management in Iran and Tehran:** In the past, a princess and a militant were appointed by the governor for a city. These persons enjoyed wide powers and authorities. Indeed, the record of the first official institutes refers to Qajar Arena (Ehtesabieh) whose main duty was organizing public issues of the city. (Soltanzadeh, 1997, p. 215). Urban Management record with today method returns to 90 years before, i.e. approval date of Municipality Act in 1907 which is mostly prepared from urban management pattern of Europe (France and Belgium). Then the law enacted in 1930 (King Reza) which was the basis or urban management system and municipality in Iran. (Tashakor, 1999, p. 5).

The urban management system was as before after the revolution and the city in different issues was under various managements, assumed as sub-set of the Ministries. In this case, the Ministry of the Interior played an important role.
in urban management as a body coordinating local organizations, and appointing governor's general and municipalities. Besides it, the planning recognized as comprehensive, detailed, and conductive projects were examined by departments affiliated to the Ministry of Housing and Urban Planning (Ziari, 2006, p. 2). In Iran, Organizations managing urban issues or those organization dealing with in this regard for any manner are as follows:

1) **Governmental Sections** 2) **Semi Governmental Sections** 3) **Private Sections**

The governmental sections consist of several ministries and organizations as Ministry of the Interior, Ministry of Housing and Urban Planning, Organization for Land and House, Organization for Management and Planning. The semi-governmental sections consist of Municipalities and City Councils and because of problems and special conditions in Iran they are mostly assumed as governmental sections. The public sections are only the Islamic Councils (Kargar & Bahman, 2004, p. 155).

*Establishment of Commission of Art.5:* Start of activities of Commission of Art.5 was coincided with termination of the imposed war and start of peace period which required any type of planning and renovation. The effects of the imposed water were pending development operations and lack of possibility of planning in all aspects such as urban planning.

Problems of the city and several disorganizations caused due to lack of urban service supply and creation of creation of suitable spaces required for the citizens, established the necessity for final and fast operations. For this purpose, the basic change and alternation were established in Urban Management. By examining the approvals of Commission of Art.5 and whatsoever set forth in the Minutes as well as statistical figures related to urban planning activities across the regions reveals that new urban management policy was merely for supplying financial resources required for execution of urban planning whether network and urban services and the rules and regulations and approved plans were the less important elements. Examining and commenting on these operations shall have the important effect in different aspects of the society, application of the land and future structure of the city.

*Situation of studying area:* Presently, the geographical limit, services of Tehran in urban and greater Tehran sets is divided into 22 municipality districts for which district 1 is located at the end of north wing. This area is limited to Alborz mountain chains from north and to Darakeh river from west, and to Shahid Dr. Chamran and Ayatollah Sadr highways from south, and to Mofateh
Blvd., Nakhil and Shahid Langari streets from east. This area measures about 37.099 Km².

Method of managerial decision making about lands application changes in Tehran:

Council for design and examination or Council Supervising Development of City of Tehran: Council Supervising Development of City of Tehran took the responsibility for policy making and supervising development of City of Tehran as of 1973 for about 25 years of period. This council was active until 1988. In addition the said council, a Coordination Committee was established for basic examination of issues as of Feb.17, 1982 and it was active until 1988. Examination of any of the plans brought up in supervision council was the duty of this council. Approvals of this council were as follows:

About 269 plans out of 345, in other word about 75% of decisions about urban plans, enjoyed public aspects and 153 plans or in other word about 44% of approved plans and 69 plans or about 20% enjoyed corrective aspects. In this way we can claim that the main task volume of the council for plan and examination was designing and making policy. The approvals separately revealed that 50% of the applications were changed to public applications and green area and urban services.

The studying showed that it was an equilibrium programmed status and building congestion was fixed and based on approved details plan. The statistical figures for congestion changes prove this case.

Commission of Art.5 of City of Tehran: This commission started to work as of 1987, and according to the studying made by Dr. Parviz Zahedi, this Commission has approved, amended, and refused several major approvals and instruction from 1987 to 1997. From 2540 approvals passed in Commission of Art.5, about 14% equals to 360 approvals concerned to District 5 and about 14% equals to 359 approvals concerned to District 1 and the lowest approval concerned to Districts 10,11, and 17. With regard to the statistical figures and concerned tables, it is considered that 34% of decisions were for the northern areas of 1, 2, 3, and 4. According to the information collected from table 2, the said resolutions and subject of the mentioned approvals were about application of the more comfortable districts of the city namely districts 1 to 5, which totally contains 57% of the approvals for change of applications. In this case, District 1 is placed at top and district 5, 2, 4, and 3 obtained the latter priorities. This case
arises just because of ownership, neighboring, limit, and speed of changes made in these areas.

Table 1. Approvals of the council of plans and examination of city of Tehran across District (1) from 1977 to 1986

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Amending Detailed Plan</th>
<th>Amn In Detailed Plan</th>
<th>Suggesting New Plan</th>
<th>Change of Application</th>
<th>Change of Congestion</th>
<th>Plan Fixation</th>
<th>Combination and Separation</th>
<th>Purchase of properties by Municipality</th>
<th>Constructing Scrapers</th>
<th>Miscellaneous</th>
<th>Total</th>
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<td>1978</td>
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<td>1986</td>
<td>7</td>
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<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
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</tr>
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<td>Total</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>153</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>24</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>34</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Reference: GIP of city of Tehran

Table 2. Statistics for change of application extracted from approvals of Council of Plans and Examinations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>From</th>
<th>Religious</th>
<th>Commercial</th>
<th>Sport</th>
<th>Educational</th>
<th>Administrative</th>
<th>Urban Services</th>
<th>Gree n Area</th>
<th>Residential</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Residential</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
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<td>Urban Services</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Garden</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
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<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cemetery</td>
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<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
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</tr>
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<td>Land without application</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>3</td>
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<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Reference: GIS of City of Tehran.
Table 3. Distribution of Approvals of the Commission of Art.5 based on Municipal Districts from 1987 to 1997

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Approvals Percent</th>
<th>Number of Approvals</th>
<th>Urban Districts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>359</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>278</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>220</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>257</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>360</td>
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<td>6</td>
<td>157</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>48</td>
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<td>3</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>101</td>
<td>2540</td>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Reference: Zahedi and Parviz (1999, p. 52)

Paths were not excluded from the said procedure, and covered 64% of decisions made in districts 1, 3, 5, 2, 4, and 20. This case shows the relation between western and eastern limits with urban development of city of Tehran as well as necessity for organizing traffic network. The share of districts 7, 11, 13, 16, 17,
and 10 were very little in this case which shows lower problems or complicity of the issues.

Table 4. Distribution of approvals of Commission of Art.5, separated with Municipal Districts and subject of approvals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Urban Districts</th>
<th>Subject of Approvals</th>
<th>Other</th>
<th>General Instructions</th>
<th>Paths</th>
<th>Congestions</th>
<th>Parking</th>
<th>Applications</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>93</td>
<td></td>
<td>48</td>
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<td>30</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>186</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td>22</td>
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<td>36</td>
<td>7</td>
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<td>161</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
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<td></td>
<td>29</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>195</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td>17</td>
<td></td>
<td>31</td>
<td>5</td>
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<td>118</td>
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<td>53</td>
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<tr>
<td>8</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>51</td>
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<tr>
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<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td>15</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
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<td></td>
<td>7</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>30</td>
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<tr>
<td>11</td>
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<td>7</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>3</td>
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<td>45</td>
</tr>
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<td>14</td>
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<td>0</td>
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<tr>
<td>17</td>
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</table>

Reference: Zahedi and Parviz (1999, p. 53)

During 15 years, commission of District 5, made decisions for 487 cases in District 1 for which 249 cases was about change of application which included more than 50% of decisions. In this regard, 71 cases was about change of other applications to the urban services and 69 cases for change of residential application, which take the first and second places.
About other approvals of the commission, we should refer to the combinations and separations which reveal about 8 cases before 1996 and 125 cases from 1996 to 2001 within a five-year period, which proves the facilitation terms for separation. This case is one of the main factors for change of application of the urban lands.

Table 5. Approvals of Commission of Art.5 across district 1 of Municipality from 1987 – 2001

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Amending Detailed Plan</th>
<th>Amending Detailed Plan</th>
<th>Suggesting New Plan</th>
<th>Change of Application</th>
<th>Change of Congestion</th>
<th>Plan Fixation</th>
<th>Combination and Separation</th>
<th>Purchase of the properties by Municipality</th>
<th>Constructing skyscrapers</th>
<th>Miscellaneous</th>
<th>Total</th>
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<td>27</td>
</tr>
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Reference: Extracted from GIP of city of Tehran, 2002
#### Table 6. Statistical figures for change of application extracted from Commission of Art.5

<table>
<thead>
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<th>To</th>
<th>Residential</th>
<th>Educational</th>
<th>Administrative</th>
<th>Urban Services</th>
<th>Green Areas</th>
<th>Sports</th>
<th>Gardens</th>
<th>Health</th>
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<td>--</td>
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<td>--</td>
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<td>1</td>
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<td>--</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>33</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>109</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Reference: Extracted from GIS of City of Tehran, 2002

#### Table 7. Change of total application area and residential areas as well as concerned percent from 1991-2001

<table>
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<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Details</td>
<td>Change of total application m²</td>
<td>7.262</td>
<td>29882</td>
<td>89754</td>
<td>115241</td>
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<td>113469</td>
<td>354952</td>
<td>59600</td>
<td>210372</td>
<td>234937</td>
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<td>Change of other applications to residential m²</td>
<td>192.7</td>
<td>29882</td>
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<td>102945</td>
<td>193279</td>
<td>16536</td>
<td>13998</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Percent of applications changed to residential</td>
<td>73.35</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>72.57</td>
<td>91.13</td>
<td>30.68</td>
<td>98.73</td>
<td>54.45</td>
<td>27.74</td>
<td>6.65</td>
<td>30.36</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Reference: Information extracted from GIS of city of Tehran, 2002

Regarding above information, it should be mentioned that area has not mentioned in some years and in some approvals or the area regarding change of application of the land for constructing a sky scraper is not available. But in general, the most percent of applications change were for residential cases which the percent was vary in different years.
Conclusion

Every residential place is established on a basis and the urban land is the main basis for establishment of urban residential places. Based on unique specifications of the land it plays a determinative role in urban management. City and all functions are established on a land with different applications. On the other hand, we can refer to the role of the land as one of the major factor in construction at average production expenses of each square meter. This case is higher than other countries due to economic structure of our country, and it is considerably increased in the recent years. (Amkachi, 2001, p. 48). As mentioned before, Commission for Supervising on Development of City of Tehran, and Committee for coordinating council were active up to 1988 for which the approvals were about design and policy making. During 1977 to 1986, from total approvals about 345 cases concerned to District 1 which means 36% and about 10% was about change of application, but during 1987 to 2001 from all approvals passed in Commission of Art.5, about 487 cases concerned to District 1 and 253 cases about 52% was about urban lands application changes which contains a higher percent in this period which is the highest application changes as of 2001. As a result, we can claim that urban management policies on evolutions and changes of land economy or in other word on political economy affected Management Commissions in the city of Tehran and increased changes of applications of land area. On the other hand, if we examine the local approvals of Commission of Art.5 in different districts of city of Tehran in a certain period from 1987 to 1977, we can concluded that 359 approvals out of 2540 were for District 1 which is was the studying area of this research and District 5 from northern area of the city of Tehran. Each of them approximately contained 14% of the approvals. Economic and social base as well as ecological conditions are different in comparison of other districts in Tehran. For this purpose, the total role of social structure of the society as well as hidden and appear forces are shared in analyzing quality and method of distribution of geographical phenomena as urban land. In this case, the role of political economy of the different political systems in allocation method of urban lands to the different urban applications seems to be an important element. If we evaluate the approvals related to the applications in different districts, we found out that 1749 approvals out of 2540 which means about 69% of the said approvals concerned to the applications divided among different districts for which district 1 consists 244 about 14% of such approvals. In this case, if we refer to the statistics for change of application, we can find out that more applications were for residential
(about 69%). We should refer to residential application from among green area, educational, urban service, and other applications.

We can examine the reason from two aspects as:

Suitable conditions and ecological aspect of this area in comparison of other areas.

Increase of value of the land and price evolutions in comparison of other areas for which the natural situations as "different rate" and "market situation" of the land as well as sales of "over congestion" for the buildings by Municipality, all were the factors affecting concerned approvals. Therefore, price of the land in 70 decade effectively increase number of construction licenses and total area of such license as well as sales of congestion which finally affected urban management in micro level and Urban Management in macro level (High Council of Urban Planning with 269 and 329 approvals).

By looking to the set of rules and regulations as well as urban managers policies in different countries, we can find out the aim of these rules and policies was achieving an optimize utilizing of land and applications thereof in relation to the management, set of rules of urban land, ownership, and price of the land.

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Developing and Promoting Domestic Shopping Tourism at Aqaba, Jordan

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Abstract

Shopping is recognized to be a primary tool for economic development in tourism destinations. Therefore, the main aim of the current research is to identify and assess the nature of shopping tourism in Aqaba in order to develop and improve this fast growing pattern of tourism in Jordan. The current research utilizes a purposive sample which depends on directing the survey to the respondents during the time of shopping. Price offers were considered a determinant factor for frequent shopping at Aqaba. The location of the shopping centers and their proximity and easy access were positively evaluated by respondents. On the other hand, domestic shoppers were not only negative about product arrangement and display, but also about promotion and discounts, and availability of amenities and services such as toilets and rest areas. Integrative efforts on the part of all stakeholders to promote Aqaba as a shopping destination in Jordan would help maximizing the economic and social benefits sought by all stakeholders.

Keywords: shopping tourism, shopping experience, tourist motivations, tourist behavior.

Introduction

Tourism has become the world’s largest industry (Goeldner, et al., 2000; Mclean & Hurd, 2011; Timothy, 2005; Mowforth & Munt, 2003). Tourism shopping refers to shopping behaviors except for accommodation, food, transportation, etc. (Heung & Qu, 1998). The act of shopping is with a few exceptions, a social behavior, and frequently performed in the company of family, friends or relatives. Thus, the social interaction afforded by shopping has even been suggest-
ed to be the prime motivator for some consumers to visit retail establishments (Christiansen & Snepenger, 2002).

In fact, shopping, the first and most important tourism activity for both international and domestic travelers (Goeldner, et al, 2000; Prideaux, et al, 2006), is recognized to be a primary tool for economic development in tourism destinations. Hudman and Hawkins (1989), believed that a tour without shopping is not a complete traveling experience. Kent et al. (1983) claimed that tourists spend more on shopping than on accommodation and food. In the process of tourism shopping, tourists buy not only souvenirs but also things not easily found or too expensive in their home countries (Dimanche, 2003).

Customers today expect to find not only elegance, excellent design and decoration, and special attention, but they also expect shopping centers to have a wide retail variety, exceptional customer service and special amenities that are always available. The challenge to the tourist destination shopping centers is to develop the unique strength of a particular center that could not be copied easily, and to create a distinguished offer that helps in attracting more tourists, increasing the average client cheque, and enhancing its competitive edge. Shopping is not always about the acquisition of objects but in many cases it is about meeting with other people apart from servicing or checking needs that are related to purchasing of products (Timothy, 2005).

**Shopping Experience at Aqaba**

Aqaba is the only outlet to the Red Sea in the Kingdom. Located in southern Jordan near the Saudi Arabian and Egyptian borders, this marvelous city with its warm and clean shores in the heart of the desert, is far away from the main three populated cities in the Kingdom, i.e. Amman, Irbid, and Zarqa. As a first phase in an attempt to enhance its economic development, it was declared a special economic zone in 2001. As a result, imported goods are exempted from custom duty. Aqaba is regarded as the main escape for Jordanians willing to enjoy domestic tourism and is favored by its clean shores and fascinating corals, warm weather, and varied tourism attractions and facilities. This is accompanied by the reasonable prices and wide assortment of a wide variety of goods available, especially clothes, electronics, shampoos, cereals, perfumes, etc.

This has encouraged investors to establish their own business entities at Aqaba to benefit from the special preferences and tax exemptions rendered. During national and religious vacations, hotels in Aqaba normally experience full
occupancy. The case is not quite different during school vacations and some weekends. Domestic tourists enjoy the charm of the city and its exceptional shopping experience altogether. Many local businessmen are encouraged to establish their own stores and shopping centers in Aqaba as an extension to their own establishments in other cities, making use of the plenty of benefits offered at the site. The second phase witnessed investments from non Jordanians, especially Chinese entrepreneurs who have found their sought aims at Aqaba. Economically, Aqaba has over-achieved its predetermined objectives and made planners and decision makers over-optimized to copy this success story to other development areas that have been established later in other governorates.

**Literature Review**

With respect to the literature on tourism shopping, fruitful research has been done so far in various areas: tourists’ shopping preferences and degree of satisfaction (Heung & Cheng, 2000; Reisinger & Turner, 2002); shopping satisfaction among tourists from various nationalities (Wong & Law, 2003); differences in the personal characteristics of on-line shoppers and non-shoppers for tourism products (Card, Chen, & Cole, 2003); shopping tourism retail and leisure (Timothy, 2005); and the synergistic effect of the shopping and leisure experiences of tourists (Jansen-Verbeke, 1991, 1994).

Still the importance of shopping as a tourist attraction is underrepresented in the literature (Heung & Cheng, 2000; Law & Au, 2000). Because research on tourism retailing has only recently begun, there appeared to be a justified need for investigating shopping preferences that tourists exhibit while visiting tourist destinations.

When travelling, an individual’s shopping behavior is markedly different from his/ her normal shopping activity. Money is spent more casually and more non-essential items are bought (Butler, 1991). Consumers gain satisfaction from shopping itself, a part from the purchase of products (Christiansen & Snepenger, 2002).

Shoppers are interested in killing time, finding out what’s new, experiencing the aesthetic of local crafts and souvenirs and enjoying vacation atmosphere (Buttle, 1992). Crick–Furman and Prentice (2000) found that leisure shopping was associated with travel motives of ‘fun’ and ‘spending quality time with family and friends. Tourists spend money on small foolish items be-
cause it is not an ordinary time’ (Gordon, 1987). Furthermore, tourist shopping is not limited to souvenirs; it includes items such as clothes, jewelry, books, arts and crafts, duty-free goods and electronic goods (Timothy & Butler, 1995). People do not go to destinations with a shopping list; rather, shopping becomes a by-product of other experiences (Thomas & Le Tourneur, 2001). Shopping has also been found to be the second most important travel expenditure following accommodation (Turner & Reisinger, 2001). Tourist shopping expenditures account for 30 to 36% of total travel spending (Bussey, 1987; Littrell et al., 1994). Timothy and Buttler (1995) found that drawing advantages of price differences was a motivation, but not the only motivation for cross-border shopping trips when taking into consideration the travel expenses incurred.

It is relatively common for people to travel to shop or shop when traveling (Burns & Warren, 1995). This may be true especially in cities that report shopping to be the number one tourist activity (Halkias, 2001). In the practice of tourism shopping, tourists usually buy not only souvenirs but also items not easily found in their countries, or if so they are too expensive (Dimanche, 2003).

To understand target tourists, shopping centers adopted market segmentation strategies to be able to provide more effective and efficient services (Locker & Ritchard, 1992). Some are specialized in supplying shopping services to local citizens, others for international travelers. Each of these two segments could be subdivided into, for example, leisure travelers and business travelers.

From the above descriptions, it can be concluded that the above areas of research have been heavily concentrated on both developed countries and internationally well-known tourism destinations. Conversely, little research has touched domestic shopping tourism in developing countries like Jordan. A few studies have addressed why citizens residing in large urban areas with multiple shopping opportunities take the time to shop in a comparable shopping environment in another city.

Since the purpose of this study was to examine the motivations of tourist shoppers and the attractions of shopping centers to tourists, it attempts to address the following questions: What are the push factors that motivate Jordanians to shop when they visit Aqaba? And given that there are many shopping centers in the destination, what are the attributes or pull factors that motivate them to select a given shopping center to the exclusion of others?
Methodology

Tourism shopping literature has tended to focus on shopping as a leisure activity for tourists, purchase of souvenirs by tourists, buying exotic or foreign items, and so on. A few studies have addressed why tourists residing in large urban areas with multiple shopping opportunities take time to shop in a comparable shopping environment in another remote city. This study was designed to address this gap of literature. Still the importance of shopping as a tourist attraction is underrepresented in the literature (Heung & Cheng, 2000; Law & Au, 2000). Because research on tourism retailing has only recently begun, there is a justified need for investigating shopping preferences that tourists exhibit while visiting tourist destinations (Paige & Littrell, 2003). The main aim of the current research is to identify and assess the nature of shopping tourism in Aqaba in order to develop and improve this fast growing pattern of tourism in Jordan. The question is whether Jordanians are different in their marketing approaches, and what attracts them more in shopping centers, and how the management of these shopping centers prepares for the satisfaction of these exiting and potential needs. This research seeks to answer these questions for owners and marketers of shopping centers who are interested in developing their marketing strategies to meet clients’ needs.

The current research utilizes a purposive sample which depends on directing the survey to the respondents when leaving shopping centers. Most of Jordanians visit Aqaba in vacations and weekends, and the survey was conducted during these times at the shopping centers and malls so as to take into consideration as representative a sample of the population as possible. Of the (109) questionnaires distributed among the respondents in Aqaba, 86 were returned and found usable, which represents 79% of the total number of the distributed questionnaires.

This study mainly uses the importance – performance analysis proposed by Martilla and James (1977). A questionnaire was developed depending on the relevant review of literature. The administration of the survey lasted approximately eight weeks. The questionnaire has been validated by a jury of the tourism experts. A pilot test was conducted in order to ensure the readability, appropriateness, and reliability of the instrument. Different shopping malls in Aqaba were selected for the distribution of the survey, and non Jordanians were excluded from the distribution in order to fulfill the aim of the research which focuses on domestic shopping tourists. The questionnaires were distributed in person to shoppers leaving malls at the exit points. The questionnaire
is composed of three main parts: The first section relates to the shopping process profile and the domestic tourists’ perception regarding the shopping centers. This section is also concerned with the shopping centers’ accessibility, variety and quality of goods, prices, availability of international brand names, customer services, displays, discounts and promotion, availability of amenities, food and beverage service, availability of parking spaces, interior design, and the general atmosphere of the shopping center. Respondents were asked to rate the investigated attributes on two bases: "importance and availability" on a five-point Likert scale with a rating ranging from 1='unimportant - not available' to 5='very important – highly available'.

In part two, a multiple-choice nominal scale was also used to explore several points relevant to the aim of the study, such as purpose of the visit, numbers of companions, type and nature of the trip, intended length of stay, type of accommodation, average expenditure during the whole journey, and goods purchased. The last part of this section involves the demographic variables such as gender, marital status, educational background and age. The third part of the questionnaire represents two open-ended questions focusing on the challenges that face Jordanians during their shopping in Aqaba, and how to develop and promote shopping tourism in Aqaba from their viewpoints.

**Results**

Results show that 66% of the respondents were male. Only 1.1% of the investigated sample were less than 20 years old, however the age range (20-29 years) was dominant (48.3%) , followed by the age group (30-39 years) which represented 29.9%. These results accord with other researchers (Carpenter, 2007; Guo et al, 2006; Yuksel, 2003) who found that the majority of tourists who prefer to carry out different activities such as sightseeing, water activities and shopping, were of the same age category. Respondents aged 40-49 years represent 11.5 % of the sample and 5.7 % were 50-59 years old. This low percentage could clarify that the senior citizens of the society were not willing to go out for either tourism or even for shopping. Finally the age group (over 60 years) represented 2.3% of the whole sample. It could be concluded that the junior citizens (20-39 years) are the most active and willing group to travel. Regarding the marital status, results showed that 64 % of the sample under investigation was married, while 36% were single tourists. (56%) of the sample under investigation were undergraduates, and (16%) were post-graduates.

In this set of questions data were analyzed and interpreted in terms of importance and availability. Significant differences have been found in the shop-
pers’ perceptions regarding the quality and assortment of products. Price offers were considered a determinant factor for frequent shopping at Aqaba. Analysis of variance was conducted and the findings indicated that product quality, variation of products and prices charged are perceived significantly different (p < 0.001) by the shoppers. Several explanations can be suggested: First: as Aqaba is a duty free area that receives a wide range of products from around the world to be displayed along with local products, this causes differences in products’ prices from one side and quality and variation from another. Second; International trade marks will be more expensive than the local ones. Third; the domestic shoppers expect cheap prices as Aqaba is a duty free area.

From the respondents’ answers, it could be inferred that shopping centers’ staff need to improve their communication skills in the absence of the formal education or training in selling and customer relations. In addition, the seasonality of business which is concentrated in weekends and vacations makes it difficult for the staff to satisfy clients’ expectations. Besides, family tours (a predominant pattern) create congestion in many shopping centers and malls. This simply affects shoppers’ perceptions of employee friendliness as well as the perceived quality of the service interaction.

Price offers were considered a determinant factor for frequent shopping at Aqaba. All these factors are absolutely vital for customers to achieve the shopping experience. Customer flow inside the shopping centers was perceived positively. On the other hand the external appearance of the shopping malls was not well appreciated, especially with the piles of goods displayed haphazardly in many cases, where a large number of visitors inspect these products. Differences existed in the assessment of other customers’ behavior as some patrons behave well during the shopping process while others not. This can be explained as follows: some shoppers accompany their family including children with them to enhance their shopping and entertainment experience. Consequently, children may cause trouble for other shoppers while running and playing irresponsibly. The location of the shopping centers and their accessibility were perceived positively. Most of the shopping centers are gathered in a limited area. The proximity of the shopping area in Aqaba as well as the easy access made the shopping area and the centers easily reachable.

Domestic shoppers were not only negative about product arrangement and display, but also about promotion and discounts. The high goods turn over and crowded shopping centers make it difficult for shopping centers to arrange their products in an attractive manner in most cases, especially during week-
ends. Regarding prices and price discounts, Jordanians are accustomed to bargaining, in addition to the low price perception held among Jordanians when being in Aqaba. This may suggest that the retail sector has to improve its shopping atmosphere by developing the display methods to reduce the time consumed in looking for products and to make the shoppers feel more comfortable. In addition, promotion and discounts should be offered to meet the shoppers’ expectations. This result accords with the obtained results concerned with the products’ prices, when prices are perceived relatively high in some cases.

Availability of amenities and services such as toilets and rest areas was another point negatively evaluated by domestic shoppers. This may have resulted from the lack of these facilities and the absence of signs to indicate their locations in many cases. The majority of the respondents (72%) of the whole sample considered the food and beverage service inside the shopping centers to be insufficient, yet they considered it very important in avoiding the burden of going outside the centers to get food and beverage service. Parking areas need much more attention from the management of the centers regarding their sufficiency and management. The shopping centers were air-conditioned which is very important to enhance the shopping experience. However, means of entertainment were limited or not available in many cases. Entertainment is a very important consideration, especially for families accompanying their children who are considered to be an integral part of the decision-making process.

When shoppers were asked to indicate the principal reasons to visit Aqaba, their responses were different: (73%) of the respondents combine vacation with shopping as Aqaba is a destination where domestic visitors can enjoy the warm shores and do shopping; (16%) visit the area to enjoy the water life; hence Aqaba overlooks the Red Sea which is reputed by its rare coral reefs and regarded as the only outlet to sea in Jordan. (5%) visit the area to experience the cultural attractions represented in castles, historical port, and mosques. (4%) for trade purposes as Aqaba is a duty free area, where traders are able to buy commodities with reduced prices and resell them with relatively higher prices outside Aqaba. The rest (2%) visit Aqaba to meet relatives and friends.

The number of companions traveling to the area together varies: limited visitors travel alone, however (68%) of the sample visit the area in groups of 3-5 persons, (24%) travel in groups of 6-9 persons, and limited number travel in groups of more than 9 persons. 74% of the investigated sample were part of an individual or family trip and 26% participated in organized tours through travel agencies. Regarding the type of visit, it was not surprising that more than 73
% were family tours. It could be concluded that the last four questions completing each other or accord with each other as the majority of the domestic visitors are families of 3-5 members and prefer to spend their vacation and enjoy shopping altogether, using either their own private cars or other means of transportation for economic and cultural reasons. A cross tab-correlation was used to determine the relationship between the purpose and type of visit. It was found that families, in specific visit the area for combined reasons, i.e. vacation and shopping. The correlation coefficient was (0.76) and it was significant at the 0.05 level.

Tours organized by travel agencies were limited. Family tours are predominant in domestic tours as compared to package outbound tours. This point should be taken into consideration by the travel agencies to modify their promotional polices in a way that attracts more domestic travelers. The majority of the respondents used either privately or institutionally owned furnished apartments. Families find such reasonably priced accommodation more comfortable with a higher freedom and privacy margin. Except in high seasons, a low proportion of visitors prefer to stay in hotels during their visit to Aqaba. They may refer to their high prices as compared to other type of accommodations, in addition to the fact that they are less suitable for families looking for cheap accommodation with more freedom, privacy and informal atmosphere. The average length of stay in Aqaba varies depending on the purpose of visit. Pearson correlation has been conducted to verify the relationship between the average length of stay and the purpose of visit. Results showed that vacationers and visitors who want to enjoy water life stay for five nights or more, however shopping and trade visitors stay for a shorter period of two nights or less. Further analysis has been done to include the type of visit with the previous analysis. Apparently families who visit the area for vacation stay for more than five nights, while singles who visit for trade, shopping and / or visiting relatives spend two nights or less. Tourism authorities should take this point into account to increase the average length of stay in Aqaba.

The majority of the respondents (64%) knew about Aqaba through the television, which is the fastest means of advertising and reaches a huge number of people at the same time, (17%) knew through the radio and (13%) through magazines. Travel brochures, friends, and newspapers represented (9%), (4%) and (3%) respectively. When visitors were asked about their average expenditures on accommodation, shopping and food and beverage services, their answers were similar. Respondents allocate little money for accommodation and accept reasonable service quality, however they assign higher budget for shop-
ping and other activities. This result accords with the previously obtained results connected with the type of accommodation. A high percentage (58%) of the respondents visit the area 2-3 times during the last year, and 22% visit the area for the first time. It could be inferred that there is a continuous demand (during weekends and vacations) for Aqaba through the frequent and high visitation by Jordanians throughout the majority of the year. This is an opportunity to guarantee a minimum level of demand and build upon that through motivating first time visitors and encourage them to become a permanent market. To achieve this requires coordination among all stakeholders concerned with developing and promoting Aqaba as an attractive and unique destination for Jordanians. School holidays followed by the official holidays and weekends are the best time for respondents to visit Aqaba. A cross-tabulation correlation has been conducted to investigate the relationship between the best times to visit the area, type of visit and average length of stay. It showed that families who spend more than five nights prefer to visit Aqaba during the school holidays, yet this is considered a very logical finding as families with children who study in schools will be able to travel during the school holidays. Average family income for the respondents ranges from 650 JD ($928) to 1500 JD ($2142), which is considered above average for Jordanian families.

Clothes are considered the main product purchased from Aqaba, followed by groceries and electronics. However as Aqaba is regarded a duty-free zone and most imported products are low priced, visitors are eager to buy different products and commodities. Results showed that (94%) of the sample did not work in the travel and tourism industry; however (6%) work in jobs related to tourism. Almost all the respondents have the intention to return to Aqaba (98%).

NUD*IST was used for the analysis of the third part of the questionnaire in the form of open-ended questions. This computer software is designed to analyze qualitative data and assist in the extraction of text related to a particular theme or concept from a cross section analysis of documents. Conjectures, assertions and assumptions were investigated and either rejected or substantiated (Richards, 2000a, 2000b). After extracting the text related to the same theme, respondents’ perceptions were gathered to set the final opinion regarding a particular issue and report the findings. In other words, data analysis in qualitative research involves the reduction, organization, and interpretation of data in a way that allows the study findings to be shared with others (Bogdan & Bilken, 1998). As mentioned, ‘Data’ in this type of research are the words of the respondents and the analysis is inductive and is an early and ongoing process.
As shown in the literature review, shopping is considered as one of the most important activities for tourists during their journey. From the informants’ responses, an additional determinant attributes appeared to identify the motives leading to accomplish quality shopping in Aqaba, in addition to what barriers and challenges faced them.

Conclusion

To conclude, Aqaba is increasingly becoming more attractive for domestic shopping tourists in Jordan. Tourists positively evaluate the majority of aspects related to shopping in the city. However, in the absence of integrative efforts on the part of all parties involved i.e. the Ministry of Tourism and Antiquities, Jordan Tourism Board, ASEZA, broadcast and print media, and tourism intermediaries and activities, Aqaba may not make use of the potentials available in this respect, and this, of course, may affect the potential for economic and social prosperity stemming from tourism activities in the city.

There is an urgent need to avail the needed amenities and services required by Jordanian citizens as per their expectations and capabilities. Domestic shopping tourism to Aqaba should be encouraged and enhanced in an attempt to reduce the seasonality of the tourism business and increase the efficiency and profitability of the tourism investments in Aqaba. This would help to maximize the economic and social benefits of tourism, particularly those related to alleviating poverty and unemployment. In addition to promoting Aqaba through all media used by Jordanians, it would also be sensible to have a booklet on the main shopping amenities and activities available in Aqaba, prepared and distributed by stakeholders to visitors at the entry points.

Moreover, there appears to be an urgent need for creating awareness on the part of ASEZA for visitors on the tourism facilities and services, and custom duty and legislation. This could attract more tourists and bring more benefits to Aqaba in the long run.

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Mountain Adventure Tourism: Effect of Personal Value over Constraint for its Growth

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Abstract
Acknowledging the presence of constraints such as risk in mountaineering participation, the researchers predict that personal value would be a neutralizer to the constraints for mountain participation. Additionally personal value would be a pull factor for pursuing the risk in mountain adventure tourism and constraints minimization will be more effective regarding mountaineering participation if an individual’s personal value for the adventure is high. Using questionnaires, 324 surveys were collected. Four groups were sampled; non-mountaineers, regular mountaineers, beginner and expert, and four mountain activities were chosen. Data was analyzed using SPSS software, guided by leisure constraint theory. The two null hypothesis states that: 1) there is no relationship between mountaineering participation and low value perception for mountain activity at 95% confident level. 2) There is no significant relationship between value for mountaineering and risk (constraints) avoidance at 95% confident level. To enhance the opportunities for mountain adventure growth in the study area, there should be a correlation value of 75% and above, which would consequently lead to a rejection of the null hypothesis.

Key words: adventure tourism, risk, South Korea

Introduction
Naturally, humans are inclined to searching extraordinary events for the purpose of satisfying and over-powering physical and mental challenge, expressing their valor and strength within their society (Buckley, 2006; McIntyre 1992). However in every society we will find some group of people who are roofed with fear due to the aspect of risk(s) involve in such satisfying life search and others who are motivated by the risk(s) (Csikszentmihalyi 1977; Martine &
Priest, 1986). This distinction drives humans in either group to participate either actively or passively in risk event or activity. Thus the fear of risk turns to be a constraint factor for adventure exploration. Even though it has been seen as a motivator by other research scholars it can be more of a constraint for to many individuals especially the non-experts. Beedie & Hudson (2003) quoted other works mentioned that, adventure is broadly accepted to be about uncertain outcome. According to Ewert (1987) adventure recreation is synonymous to risk recreation. He defines Adventure recreation as “a variety of self-initiated activities utilizing an interaction with the natural environment, that contain elements of real or apparent danger, in which the outcome while uncertain, can be influenced by the participant and circumstance”. Adventure is therefore a high-risk recreational activity. Examples of activities associated to this term include rock climbing, whitewater Kayaking, rafting, sky-diving, mountaineering, scuba diving and Paragliding (Ewert et al, 1989; Schrader & Wann, 1999). An adventurer is thus, the term used to describe he/she who pursues to participate in risky activities which offers them an expected outdoor excitement (Callander, 2003). Pursuing risk involve in adventure, an adventurer looks forward to see which places (water, mountains, rocks, deserts etc) offers a new experience. Walle (1997) is cited in redefining adventure tourism, as he proposes the insight model of adventure tourism, arguing that the independent pull factor underlining adventure participation, is the quest for insight and knowledge rather than risk (Walle, 1997; Weber, 2001) and this also depends on whether the adventure is active or passive because active adventure or “Hard” adventure such as mountaineering (Pomfret, 2004) is inseparable to risk since risk emerges from uncontrollable externalities (natural risk) while “Soft” adventure such as destination travel has the propensity to have optimal minimization of the risk involve. According to Kane and Maurice (2003), the potential definition of “experience” in adventure tourism is a construct freedom to play with reality. According to other scholars undertaking adventure is individually subjective thus it need self decision as to what an individual considers as an adventure. The increasing search for active and passive activities have expanded the adventure industry especially in developing countries, with an increasing trend in the developed world (Berno & Moore, 1996; Callendar, 2003). However, previous works suggest that the client perspective of mountaineering is still under-researched. In this light this research addresses the term “Adventure tourism” with emphasized on mountaineering. It is obvious that apart of risk as a constraint there are other constraint that restricts participation growth and revenue enhancement. Hudson et al in 2009; presented findings that revealed that
the constraint for heli-skiing adventure activity was predominantly intrapersonal and structural constraints.

**Literature Review**

**Conceptualization and Definition of Terminologies**

*Adventure and Tourism*

Weed (2007) conceptualized in his work the relatedness between adventure and tourism, answering the question of how adventure recreation relates with tourism, to establish what we refer to as “adventure tourism”. Based on literature searches, he established that adventure tourism is viewed essentially as an extension of adventure outdoor recreation. An adventurer or adventure tourist refers to, an independent movement in search of high-risk recreational event by an individual. The independency involved is due to the act of individual decision making to participate in an activity with some degree of risk (high or low risk) which is categorized and evaluated by the individuals involved (i.e. self evaluation) so as to be considered an adventure regarding that individuals’ perspectives (Ewert, 1989). Since Adventure encompasses solely outdoor activities, its idea is about exploring a foreign and far away land, out of one’s comfort zone, which introduces the element of tourism (Leiper, 1979, 1995; Weed, 2007). In defining tourism, the Pileus Project website says, “Tourism” is a composite of activities, services, and industries that delivers a travel experience to individuals and groups traveling fifty miles or more from their homes for purposes of pleasure. Encyclopedia explains that “Tourism” as a travel for recreational, leisure or business purposes. Published literature by Weed (2007) and other social scientists explain that adventure recreational activities takes place away from the participant’s home; requiring the participant’s or tourist’s movement from the base to the destination environment. Thus the tourism aspects cannot be ignored. The point of interest to the participant is the activities at the destination area. Tourism has expanded to embrace adventure settings with mountains featuring predominantly in such development (Beedie & Hudson, 2003). Recent development of adventure searching activities, gives us reason to believe that, ‘adventure’ is inseparable from ‘tourism’ because in an adventure exploitation process, there are critical issues like “commodification of the mountain” (Beedie et al, 2003). Beedie cited Cohen (1988), defining commodification as the process by which objects and activities come to be evaluated primarily in terms of their exchange value in the context of trade. One will see that adventure is now packaged as an intangible product to tourist. The tourist will consequently have higher expectations as the price for the adven-
ture consumption or experience get higher. However, to reach out for direct revenue growth through participation increased, there is need to subdue all major constraints acting against participation. This research suggests that, personal value will have strong positive effect over constraints for participation.

**Constraints and Adventure Tourism**

Regardless on the type of adventure tourism or the nature of the tourism activity an individual desires to engage in, research in the last decades has justified with the use of both qualitative and quantitative data that tourist are faced with constraints for tourism participation. Several literature sources have explained different measures of constraints. For instance, Jackson and Dunn (1988) as well as Dottavio (1989) dealt with “ceasing participation” as constraint; Boothby, Tungatt & Townsend (1981); Davies & Prentice (1995) referred to “loss of interest” as a constraint; while Chick and Robert (1989) provided data that links “anti-leisure” to constraint. Other literature sources dealt with constraints facing nonparticipants in acquiring leisure or and tourism to be either internal (i.e. lack of personal skills, abilities, knowledge, and health) or external (lack of time, financial cost, lack of facilities, and transportation problem and background), not leaving out the socioeconomic variations in perception which was also reported by Searle and Jackson (1985) to be a barrier to participation (Gilbert & Hudson, 2000). The scope has also been expanded with the realization that nonparticipants like participants, can also be constrained, though not completely but partially in their frequency of participation and interest (Gilbert & Hudson, 2000; citing Wright & Go-odale, 1991; Shaw, Bonen & McCabe, 1991). More recently, the concept of “constraints negotiation” was introduced by two groups of investigators, (Crawford & Godbey, 1987; Crawford, Jackson & Godbey, 1993) who proposed that there might be a negotiation of constraint by an individual to participate in leisure or tourism activity based on the individual’s hierarchical series (Gilbert & Hudson, 2000). In other words individuals (participants and nonparticipants) can negotiate their constraint depending on the magnitude of the constraint. Due to the complexity of the issue of constraint, it has recently been classified under three subjects, which include interpersonal (e.g. stress, depression, religiosity, anxiety, perceived self-skill, and subject evaluations of the appropriateness of various leisure activities), intrapersonal (the inability to have an associate partner for a chosen leisure or tourism activity) and structural (e.g. economic barriers, availability of time, access, opportunity) constraints (Gilbert & Hudson, 2000). Data from in-depth interviews on skiing adventure activity by Gilbert & Hudson (2000) suggested
that non-skiers where challenged and constraints with fear of the risk involved, while skiers reported lack of time and discre- tionary money as their constraint and challenge for participation. Pennington-Gray and Kerstetter (2002) also looked at constraints for outdoor recreational activity, and concluded that individual perception is a constraint to nature-based tourism activity, and that structural constraints affecting participation were the most prevalent. Notwithstanding, it is obvious that there is a big challenge for growth and revenue expansion in the tourism sector, irrespective of the type of tourism or leisure, due to the constraints and challenges that arises from both internal (e.g. having experience training adventure guides) and externalities (e.g. tourist fear of risk).

The extensive literature on nature-based tourism (Nyaupane, Morias & Graefe, 2004), has revealed that there are constraints in adventure participation and these constraints differs with respect to subject category i.e. either as non-participants, experts or experienced adventure participants. Thus, several publications have made clear what hinders individuals from leisure, tourism consumption and adventure tourism which include the excitement in adventure participation (Fleischer & Pizam, 2002; Gilbert & Hudson, 2000; Gilbert & Hudson, 2000; McGuire, 1984; McGuire, Dottavio & O’Leary, 1986; Pennington-Gray & Kerstetter, 2002; Pennington-Gray & Kerstetter’s, 2002). Despite the wide scope of constraint studies, little attention is given to the other alternatives to minimize the challenge of visible constraints to tourists’ participation. Previous works suggest that the client perspective regarding mountaineering, as a case study, is still under-researched (Beedie, 2003).

Valuing Adventure

Williams and Soutar (2009) emphasize on the critical importance of customer value in the service industry. Rokeach (1973) articulated the behavioral concept with personal value, establishing how personal value shapes and influences human behavior. While recent review of value, notes personal values as the most abstract type of social cognition used to store and guide general responses to different classes of stimuli, applying the concept of value from the service marketing perspective to adventure tourist will not be wrong and for one to say that tourist consumption and decision making for adventure participation is backed with the tourist’s personal value for the adventure in question- the case of mountaineering. Practically, value is measured as a trade-off between benefits and sacrifice. Murphy (1990) explained via using the theory of motivation that, motivation influences the choice, frequency, and performance of tourist towards adventure participation. Wigfield and Eccles (2000) gave support
for this by highlighting that motivation is a determinant from expectancy-value theory. According to expectancy-value theory founded by Fishbein (1970), behavior is a function of the expectancies one has and the value of the goal towards which one is working. Such an approach predicts that, when more than one behavior is possible, the behavior chosen will be the one with the largest combination of expected success and value. Expectancy-value theories hold that people are goal-oriented beings and a learner’s motivation is determined by how much they value the goal (Wigfield & Eccles, 2000). This directly implies that, the choice of a tourist, persistence and performance towards mountaineering adventure is explained by their value attached to the activity. It is worth saying that growth in adventure tourism, specifically mountaineering will be more significant if more concentration is on developing and maintaining an individual’s personal value for mountaineer activities. In Rock climbing the idea of getting to the top is not necessarily the primary goal of the adventure but how to get to the top (Jakus, Riddel & Shaw, 2003). Consequently the experience to get the primary objectives is what is given more value than the primary objective itself. Since risk is an element to mountaineering activities, risk pursuit maybe a primary goal and more of a valued than it would be a constraint depending on the individuals. Cathy Hsu (2009) recent publication makes clear the fact that an individual motivation to perform a certain activity is a function of the expectation of the person’s ability to perform the actions and obtain the desired outcome and the associated personal value for the outcome. Conceptualizing motivation and attitude Hsu makes it clear that, a motivation for an action (e.g. mountaineering) can be influenced by manipulating cues that defines an individual’s expectation concerning the consequences and incentive value of the action (Hsu et al 2009). Thus there is a probability that a high level of personal value can minimized or eliminates the element constraints and its effects for adventure. This therefore will have significantly effect on adventure growth as regards participation and revenue enhancement. In order words the participation of risky adventure can be fully and exclusively motivated by activating ones personal value for the activity. Therefore creating positive thinking, image, and perceived value is a vital aspect of motivating participation for adventure activity.

Research Purpose

This research work therefore, focuses on mountaineering activities in South Korea. Extensively, the main interest is to know how best mountaineering managers or operators can capitalize on the aspect of “value” to enhance reve-
nue and participation growth. In other words, we aim at understanding tourists’ perspectives and personal value for mountaineering activity and to what extend personal value can enhance growth (participation and revenue) despite all the constraints. Researchers have recently begun tackling the necessity of multinational value perspective, examining the post consumption constructs like satisfaction and behavioral intentions (Williams & Soutar, 2009), with inspiration drawn from the eight-dimensional value framework (efficiency, excellence, statues, esteem, play, aesthetics, ethics, spirituality) published by Holbrook (1994). However, personal value and the effect of “value” as a whole have not been seen as a source or opportunity for revenue enhancement in mountain adventure tourism and have also not been shown to be a neutralizer to constraints for adventure participation. We argues that an what surpasses over the edge of constraint is personal value because previous works establish that personal value has an effect on, and reflects individual’s decision making. The research goal is basically to identify;

1. Personal values for mountaineering
2. Possibilities for enhancing revenue in a High Personal Value Innovation for mountaineering activities
3. The justification that personal value is neutralizes the effect of constraints for mountain adventure tourism and thus it will be a better strategy for revenue enhancement and participation increases.

Only a few authors have sought to answer research questions relating to personal value for participating in risky recreation like mountaineering and other adventure based activity (Baker and Crompton 2000). This is a setback, which exert low demand for advanced mountaineering events or activities in high touristic areas like Kangwon-do. We realized that adventure operators, especially in the mountain based areas have not adequately attracted the locals and foreign tourist because they have focused less attention towards addressing the “value” (personal value) participants and non-participant attached to mountaineering. Likewise, developing personal value is yet not a focus factor for neutralizing the presence of participation constraints. The fact that adventure comprises mainly the element of risk with many other constraint factors being evident, only the effect of risk and constraint has so far been addressed by many scholars. In risk management, is it said that the elimination of all the risk which acts as a constraint for activity engagement is not necessarily the objective since it is virtually impossible. Rather the minimization of the risk and other constraint factors with the help relevant identifiable sources like the
government and insurance policy, motivation and training of expert workers to provide good services is the goal in order to make adventure beginners want to return to the experience ground, while ignoring personal value. We argue that risk minimization should be a major strategy to motivate and enact attraction on mountaineering novice depends strongly on the personal value of the targeted participating group of tourist or individuals. This also applies to other constraints factors that avert an individual’s participation.

Considering risk as one major constraint factor to mountain adventure participation, it will require that management create high value awareness, fortifying perceived value for the events, so as to attract new market and stimulate existing adventurers or individuals to pursue mountaineering activities. Kotler and Keller in “Marketing Management” publication, explained that one factor that influences a person’s decision is value. Kotler and Keller reiterated previous publications saying that the only value a company or organization will ever create is the value that comes from the customers (Kotler & Keller, 2009). Less than a decade ago, mountaineering became an attractive adventure and appealing to all, including individuals who are not necessarily aspirant mountaineers (Beedie, 2002). This is an added advantage for revenue enhancement yet not all the mountain resource touristic areas if any, have seen the urgency of exploited this aspect and enhance growth.

Research Questions and Hypothesis: The research seeks to answer questions relating to the personal value attachment of the chosen mountaineering activities. In the context of “valuing adventure” Can the Value attached to mountain adventure experience triumph over individual constraints for having or participating in the adventure activity? If yes, to what extent can value outweigh constraint? Does the result differ with respect to mountaineering experience level? Hypothetically, we expect that low value perception will record high constraints level for each constraint factor against participation, with a correlation between value perception scores and constraints being lower than 50 percent. This implies that; 1) H0 - there will be no relationship between mountaineering participation and low value perception for mountain activity. Likewise, 2) H0 - there will be no significant relationship between high personal value for the mountaineering and risk avoidance considering risk as a major constraint. Risk maintains to be not only a lesser motivating factor for the mountaineering but also a strong challenge and constraint for mountaineering. For risk to be a strong motivator towards individual’s participation there must be high personal value for the activity.
Methodology

As far as mountain adventure is concerned, it is an enormous subject area in recreational tourism because it contains all of the nature-based recreational activities on the mountain site. These include, Rock Climbing, Mt hiking/climbing, Mt Skiing, Mt backpacking, and Mt Biking, Rafting etc. This research has therefore narrowed its study to include four main mountaineering activities – ice & rock climbing, mountain hiking/climbing, Mountain Biking & Skiing. The chosen activities are considered adventurous because of the element of risk and uncertainty involved in participating in these activities, given the chosen mountain site. The main mountain destinations chosen among the many other destinations in Kangwon-do region were Inje and Seoraksang, in addition to MTV mountain biking destinations in Kangwon province. The collection of primary data was made successful using close-ended designed questionnaires. Survey collection was conducted throughout winter to spring seasons and four main mountaineering activities (Rock & Ice Climbing, Hiking, Biking & Skiing) were the chosen activities (see table 1). Subjects for the study includes adventure participants at all levels (beginner, regular and expertise) and non-participant. The questionnaire was divided into two sections and was designed to address pertinent issues related to individual personal values and constraints factors for the mountaineering in the study areas, all sections being designed as close-ended questions. Each question had 5 to 7 scale point for respondent to scale their answer choices. Analyses and conclusion in drawn with a sample sized of 324 questionnaires. This primary data collected was analyzed with SPSS 18.0. Constraint model was applied and constraints factors were adopted from other previous works. Their constraints and its score rate were matched with their personal value perspective score rate, to bring out the conclusion of the result. Value measures were based on, the distant to the mountain destination area, forgone alternatives to participate for the event, willingness to pay for the event regardless the price increase (commodification), and participation decision given the present of whatever constraint.
Table 1. Summary report of the survey on mountain adventure participation considering four mountaineering activities in Kangwon Province, S Korea

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study Sites</th>
<th>N=324</th>
<th>Sample Stat. n %</th>
<th>Adventure Activities (%)</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Seoraksang Mountain area</td>
<td>182</td>
<td>56.2</td>
<td>Mountain Hiking/Climbing</td>
<td>228</td>
<td>70.37</td>
<td>87.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chunscheon Biking (M.T.V)</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>19.75</td>
<td>Mt. Hiking/Climbing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>_</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Mt. Biking</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iraje</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>13.6</td>
<td>Rock &amp; Ice Climbing (Iron Way)</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>8.33</td>
<td>5.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mt. Skiing</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>4.01</td>
<td>Mt. Skiing</td>
<td>2.76</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td>15.01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Results

The first null hypothesis was tested with the use of two variables. The dependent describes the frequency of participation; how often do you participate in Mountain adventure activity chosen above? While the independent variable reflect directly the states of personal value for each subject; Can you rate how valuable is the mountaineering to you? The value rate score below 5 on a 10 scale point and that of the participation frequ-ency read a p-value of .921. While value rate score ≥ 5 gave an absolute significant positive relationship with the participation frequency – p ≤ 0.0001. Thus, at 95% confident level, the we can say, that participa-tion in mountaineering activity have no significant relationship with low personal value attached by in-dividual’s choice of moun-tain activity or mountaineering. In other words, only a strong or positive value perception can attract mountain adventure participation and hence mountaineering growth. Additionally, higher personal value and perceptions is a strong tool to embark on, to achieve the goal of profit making and enhancing revenue in the mountaineering business sector. Graphically presented in fig 1, it can be observed that, the majority of those who recorded high participation frequency have high value rate score. In fig 2, the test variable which states “Can you rate how valuable is the mountaineering activity to you?” had at least one tie be-tween the stated variable (with the present of constraint can you still strive to participate in activity?). These two variables were considered to justifying that there is strength of personal value to mountaineering growth and its effect over constraint as illustrated in fig 2 below. It was observed that, participation fre-
frequency as ‘often’ had a personal value rate score above the average score of 5 on a scale of 10 point.

Looking at fig 2 the Sensitivity (y-axis) represents the true position rate and Specificity (x-axis) the false positive rate and they both represent the test and stated variable respectively. The result between the two variables gave an asymptotic sig at .071 at 95% confident interval (table 2). The diagonal line represents an absolute participatory state for an individual. The curves below the line illustrate that participation based on constraint at that level personal value rate score. The higher the personal value i.e. sensitivity for mountaineering, with an existing constraint i.e. 1-specificity, the more closer the curve gets to the diagonal line (absolute state of participation decision). In order words it reveals a lesser effect of constraint towards participation with an increase in personal value. At a point ≒0.7 sensitivity score (value rate) equates the 1-specificity. Above this point of equilibrium between the two variables, an individual will have surplus effect, whereby the personal value neutralizes his or her existing constraints. The surplus effect is seen clearly as the curve exceeds the diagonal line representing participation. This reveals that, an individual will have an absolutely positive decision towards adventure participation, regardless the strength of the constraint present. Personal value at this level acts as a neutralizer to constraints for mountain adventure participation and hence a strong strategy for mountaineering growth. K-S test was run to establish a conclusion for personal value and risk avoidance (table 2). The result was not
significant at t-value = .806. Thus the second null Hypothesis is true and accepted depending on whether the individual is risk avoider or risk seeker. The result exposes that, personal value had a negative correlation and different significant values with the following constraints; season (p≤0.009), bad health (p≤0.000), discouraging skills (p-value 0.1), no accompanied friend for the activity (p≤0.001), high levy for participation (p≤0.000), difficulty to access information on how to participate (p≤0.586), difficulty to integrates or locate the environment (p≤0.000). Meanwhile positive correlation was observed with risk, time, high prices on equipments needed and their respective p-values were insignificant at p ≤0.243, p≤0.082, & p≤0.167.

Table 2. Test result for second hypothesis (H00). personal value and constraint

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Can You Rate How Valuable Is Mountaineering Activity To You?</th>
<th>Indifferent</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Most Extreme Differences</td>
<td>Absolute</td>
<td>0.131</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>0.084</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Negative</td>
<td>-0.131</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K-S test result</td>
<td>Can you rate how valuable is mountaineering to you?</td>
<td>p-value</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z</td>
<td>.641</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asymp. sig (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.806</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Grouping Variable: "I am afraid of the Risk Involve." |

Conclusion

The main objective of the study was to examine the importance of personal value to the growth of mountain adventure tourism, considering that there are series of constraint factors for an adventure like mountaineering in which risk is involved. To this effect the research thus examines the relationship between personal value and constraints for mountain adventure tourism towards its growth. The research interest was not limited to the relationship that existed between the two variables but to investigate the effect of personal value on the constraints of for an individual to participate in mountaineering. It was observed that the decision for an individual to take an adventure tourism experience or adventurous recreational leisure like mountaineering relates more on the personal valuing and positive perception for the reward or outcome from his/her participation. Personal value acts as a pull factor to mountaineering ad-
venture with the existence of constraints. However, the sustainable of the adventure participants (sustaining the growth) will be influence by the satisfaction derived from the first experience. There is a possibility for constraints to be a continuum constraint i.e. constraint that arises before, and after the first mountaineering adventure experience. In this note the effect of personal value over constraint may not produce the same result. Personal value can only subdue constraint (be it structural, interpersonal, intrapersonal) only at a given high rate value see fig 2. Until an individual hold that degree of value perception to adventure (risky adventure like mountaineering) constraint will play a great deal in preventing growth in the sector. Thus mountaineering operators and mountain tourism destinations or nation (e.g. South Korea - Kangwon-do) have a great challenge of value innovation for the purpose of growth. One route to positivity in adventure participation is via developing internal insight for adventure. Risk management should not only be done in isolation but with the notion of balance with people’s awareness on how well the risk is managed and how management of itself values consumer’s perception. There is need to identify and classify personal value into convenient group to best analysis it effect on constraint factors. This is because every society or group of individuals derives their own unique solution towards the balance of social welfare, economic involvement and demand for leisure or demand for adventure. This difference personal value effect over constraints may also be evident with age differentiation. This is because there is some evidence that young generation would have other adventure activities other than mountaineering that appeal their value and participation.

Of course, a single study is not sufficient for validating or disvalidating the effect of personal value on enhancing mountain adventure tourism growth. The future of adventure tourism participation, its demand and sustainability must be considered critical. The reason is simply because adventure tourism relates to tourism travel, leisure provission and also the aspect of hospitality provision to the participants. It is seen that non-adventurers can be captivated by the provision of good service quality from the train staffs, assuring training and safety of participants. Thus adventure tourism encompasses all the specialised aspect of tourism discipline. The survey developed maybe modified to test the role of personal value as regard other adventurous activity. The finding here is important as it identifies the best way forward in mountain adventure. According to the tested hypothesis based on 95% confident level, it is observed that personal value, participation and risk aviodance is evidently related in which the personal value (independent variable) has ≥ 40 % effect in
determining the dependent variables (mountaineering participation and Risk aviodance). This is relevant to the marking and management departments at large and more especially to Kangwon-do where mountian is one of major touristic attraction mountaineering perception and values of the people therein, is the best way to get direct revenue from participation growth. The result clearly shows that, the vital segment to attack for growth is the group who rates value as around the equilibrium.

References


Key Issues in Marketing Rural Tourism Routes: A KwaZulu-Natal Perspective

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Abstract
Rural tourism routes are a mechanism used to market scattered rural tourism offerings more effectively under a single brand, but not all routes have been successful in attracting visitors in sufficient numbers to be economically sustainable. The aim of this study was to determine the key factors that lead to marketing success. Two very different routes located in rural KwaZulu-Natal, a province in South Africa, were investigated, namely the Midlands Meander and the Battlefields Route. Interviews were conducted with tourism enterprises on the routes, as well as other stakeholders who may influence the success of the routes. The study revealed a number of issues that need to be addressed for a route to be marketed successfully.

Key words: Rural tourism, tourism marketing, sustainable tourism.

Introduction
Rural tourism routes are in essence a mechanism used to market a group of rural tourism products under a single brand name, yet many routes fail to attract sufficient visitors to be economically sustainable (Rogerson, 2007). Previous studies mainly addressed rural tourism routes from a route development or local economic development perspective (Hardy, 2003; Lourens, 2007; Meyer, 2004; Rogerson, 2007). Although some marketing aspects were included, the marketing of rural tourism routes was not the focus of these studies. This study addressed the marketing of rural tourism routes from a supply-side stakeholder perspective, since these entities are most closely involved with the marketing of these routes. Both core stakeholders, who operate tourism products along the route, and enabling stakeholders, who can influence the marketing success
of a route, were included in the study. Two rural routes in rural KwaZulu-Natal were selected as cases for this qualitative, exploratory investigation.

This paper first examines the literature on the marketing of rural tourism routes, followed by a brief description of the research methodology used. The findings of the study are presented as five broad issues that influence the marketing of rural tourism routes. The paper concludes with recommendations on the marketing of rural tourism routes and suggests areas for further research.

**Literature Review**

Unless a rural tourism route can attract visitors in sufficient numbers to provide tourism businesses with markets, businesses along the route will not survive (Roberts & Hall, 2004). Effective marketing therefore becomes critical to the success of the route (Briedenhann & Wickens, 2004b; Lourens, 2007; Roberts & Hall, 2004; Rogerson, 2003). Route marketing has much in common with destination marketing, and routes that achieve iconic status may well be considered by visitors as destinations in their own right (ECIAfrica, 2006). While extensive literature exists on destination marketing, there is a dearth of information on the marketing of tourism routes as a special case in destination marketing.

A tourism route consists of a range of independent tourism enterprises from both the private and the public sectors, which co-operate to market the area as a unique tourism destination. The rationale for the establishment of a tourism route is to collectively market the route as one unit under a single brand name, rather than each tourism offering along the route being marketed individually as a separate entity (Hardy, 2003; Rogerson, 2007). The route mechanism thus allows for route members’ pooled resources to be used more effectively, and so to increase the chances of success, not only for the route as a whole, but also for its members individually.

The success or failure of a rural tourism route not only affects the members of the route, but also many other stakeholders, ranging from the local community to government to non-tourism businesses in the area. While co-operation may enhance the alignment of individual offerings as part of the route marketing planning process, the route management is faced with the challenge of integrating many different and possibly conflicting interests, into a single route marketing plan that all, or at least most, stakeholders will accept and support (Briedenhann & Wickens, 2004b; Olsen, 2003). Route stakeholders need to appreciate that the route competes with other destinations and that they need to
co-operate rather than compete with one another in order to succeed as a tourist destination (Briedenhann & Wickens, 2004a; Lourens, 2007; Rogerson, 2007).

Some routes in South Africa were unable to sustain the route development because they failed to link their offerings to the potential visitor markets (Rogerson, 2007). Visitors need a reason to visit a route (Hardy, 2003). It is therefore fundamental that tourism route developers understand what it is that appeals to the anticipated target market segments (Meyer, 2004). What attracts one market segment may be of little interest to another; in South Africa, for example, what draws international tourists may not appeal to the domestic market (Meyer, 2004; Rogerson, 2007). Furthermore, the themed nature of some routes limits their attractiveness to particular market segments or niche markets. Adequate information about the expectations and experiences of current markets and the needs of potential markets is required for appropriate formulation of the route product and branding, but individual product owners on the route are unlikely to have either the necessary skills or the funding for marketing research (Hardy, 2003; Lourens, 2007; Meyer, 2004). Collaboration and pooling of their resources empower small tourism businesses to overcome the ignorance of visitor needs, lack of marketing skills, and inadequate promotion by collectively conducting costly marketing research, hiring marketing expertise, and targeting markets that would be inaccessible to the individual enterprises, thus benefitting both individual members and the route as a whole (Briedenhann & Wickens, 2004a; Briedenhann & Wickens, 2004b; Gilbert, 1989; Lourens, 2007).

The route brand identity and positioning is a fundamental element of route marketing that will determine how the other elements in the route marketing mix will be molded into the route marketing strategy (Olsen, 2003). While a clear brand identity needs to be formulated for the route, it is important that the tourism product on offer is accurately portrayed just as it is, since misrepresentation can lead to disappointment (Lourens, 2007; Rogerson, 2007). Several authors recommend that an area’s tourism assets be assessed in terms of their unique appeal to specific target market segments, and then to use this knowledge to shape the route’s distinctive brand identity (Lourens, 2007; Meyer, 2004; Rogerson, 2007).

The route product offering needs to reflect the nuances of the local culture to appeal to visitors who are attracted by the natural and cultural heritage that makes the route unique and provides the memorable experiences that they seek (Hardy, 2003; Pine & Gilmore, 1999). Visitors seek memorable tourism experiences and the route needs to engage the visitor in all four realms of experience
namely entertainment, education, escapism and the aesthetic (Pine & Gilmore, 1999). In this regard interpretation is important, as are memorabilia and other positive cues that affirm the nature of the experience (Hayes & MacLeod, 2007; Pine & Gilmore, 1999). In a strange and sometimes risky rural environment, visitors need the reassurance of a clearly identified path and consistency in the presentation of signage, logos, en route information and promotional material (Hardy, 2003; Olsen, 2003). Visitors further need the reassurance of accurate information and knowing what to expect in the more rustic rural environment through clearly defined minimum quality standards that are regularly reassessed (Lourens, 2007).

Tourism route operations are not strictly a marketing function, but they determine the nature and quality of the visitor experience, since production and consumption of service offerings cannot be separated (Zeithaml, et al., 2006, p. 23). Under-pricing of tourism products leads to a lack of profitability rendering the business unsustainable (Briedenhann & Wickens, 2004a). The route therefore needs a sound operating strategy, based on good communication between members, mentoring of members for sustainability, and decision-making that is transparent and not for personal or political gain (Lourens, 2007).

**Methodology**

Since the aim of this study was to gain understanding of tourism routes as a destination marketing stratagem, an interpretive perspective provided insight into the world in which stakeholders in rural routes conduct their business (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2007). A qualitative, exploratory approach was employed to provide both the freedom to pursue in-depth investigation of the participants’ real life experiences and to investigate new avenues discovered during discussions (Labuschagne, 2003). Two rural tourism routes in KwaZulu-Natal, a province of South Africa, were selected as cases for this study, namely the Battlefields Route and the Midlands Meander. Both routes have been in existence for more than two decades, but they differ in other respects. The Battlefields Route embraces almost two thirds of the province of KwaZulu-Natal, it attracts mostly international visitors interested in its strong military history theme and its membership base lies largely with the district and local municipalities that the route traverses. The Midlands Meander is a country arts and crafts route that was started by local artists and crafters and after more than two decades, is still strongly private sector driven. It stretches a mere 80 kilometers from north to south, and attracts mainly domestic visitors from the metropolitan areas of Durban and Gauteng Province.
Rather than using random sampling, in the early stages of this study participants were purposively selected for their potential contribution to the study, and, as the study progressed, snowball sampling was employed to include stakeholders revealed during interviews (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005; Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2007). Fieldwork was conducted during the second half of 2009. Nine semi-structured, in-depth interviews were conducted with core stakeholders (tourism product owners or managers) representing a range of tourism products in different locations on each of the two routes. A further eleven interviews were conducted with enabling stakeholders who have a direct or indirect influence on the success of the two routes. The latter group included a wide variety of stakeholders such as municipal and provincial tourism officers, government departments and agencies, non-governmental organizations, tourism industry organizations, tourism intermediaries, and infrastructure providers. Interviews were recorded and supplemented by observations, printed promotional material and perusal of respondents’ websites. Verbatim quotes from the interviews are included to illustrate the views of stakeholders.

Results

The study showed that the marketing of rural tourism routes is a complex undertaking with many issues that need to be addressed both in the marketing of the route itself and in the environment within which the route carries out its marketing. While a large number of aspects surfaced during the research, this paper only reports on key issues that need to be taken into consideration when developing marketing strategies for rural tourism routes.

Establish a strong route identity and brand

A tourism route can only be identified by visitors through the branded physical evidence that the route presents on brochures, websites and signage. The Midlands Meander and the Battlefields Route both had the elements of brand identity in place, such as well-designed logos, but disappointing use was made of these to brand the routes, especially on the Battlefields Route.

A tourism route is made visible to the traveler through branded route signage, identifying the road to be travelled, as well as the establishments of the individual members of the route. Neither of the two routes was identified by road signage at entry points to the route area or along the route, on sub-route directional signs, or on information boards erected by the municipalities, thus leaving visitors passing through the areas oblivious of the existence of the routes. The Midlands Meander issues identifying boards to members, but pre-
viously the KwaZulu-Natal Provincial Roads Department only allowed these boards to be erected inside the premises and hence they were not visible from the road. This ruling has since been changed and membership boards may now be displayed in the road reserve at the entrance to a member’s premises, which greatly increases the visibility of the Midlands Meander as a tourism route.

Every member of a route needs to promote the route brand. Unlike a community tourism association that accept all applicants, a tourism route organization selects its members and the organization can therefore apply admission criteria to ensure that members adhere to the ethos and standards of the route brand. The route brand thus becomes a commendation, alongside their own brand, for the individual members in the market place, and it is therefore in the interest of the members that they also promote the route brand. The image of the route brand is superimposed on all its members and poor service delivery by one member reflects on the route as a whole, and by implication, on other members as well. The route should therefore demand a certain minimum standard from new applicants and indeed from all its members, otherwise ‘you start getting a lot of rubbish also being advertised, which dilutes the whole impact of the route’ (Product owner). Rural tourism routes can have very rustic offerings, especially where tourism embraces poor rural communities. However, standards of welcome, cleanliness and safety need to be maintained across the spectrum of offerings from five star hotels to ungraded home stays.

While members fully expect the route association to market their products, the reciprocal marketing of the route by members, was lacking. Display of membership boards was fairly common on the Midlands Meander, but relatively few members included the Meander logo and slogan on their websites and brochures, and Meander membership is rarely mentioned in publicity about member establishments or events. It is not a requirement for route members to include route branding in their own advertising, brochures, websites and social media pages, with the result that only some do so, and, though they have no control over publicity, members should at least request that their association with the route be mentioned. The branding of the route also needs to be extended to signage at attractions and view sites along the route where these are under the control of the municipal or provincial authorities and their agencies. For example, attractions such as battlefield sites on the Battlefields Route and San rock art sites on the Midlands Meander, need to communicate their association with the respective routes.
Maps give a tourism route tangibility. Maps are a particularly important marketing tool as they aid visitors in planning their itineraries and, once they have arrived, to navigate the route area. Both the Midlands Meander and the Battlefields Route have maps indicating members or battlefields, respectively. However, neither map is to scale, and both have to be supplemented with the free KwaZulu-Natal Tourist Map issued by Tourism KwaZulu-Natal (TKZN), the provincial tourism authority. While it is appreciated that it may be challenging to indicate all the route information on one map, ideally, the map should be sufficiently clear so that no other map is necessary. In addition, printable maps should be available on the route website, as visitors may want to access a map of the route when using the Internet to plan their holidays before they leave home. Technology savvy visitors may prefer GPS devices instead of maps, but considering the location of rural tourism routes, connectivity may present a problem and false readings can result in visitors getting lost as the following incident illustrates: ‘I had a phone call from a man who said to me: “I’m lost. I’m using my Satmap to find [attraction].” … He was actually on the dirt road below our property. That’s where it took him’ (Product owner). A route that relies only on GPS co-ordinates misses out on an important branding opportunity for the route.

The provincial tourism brand architecture needs to support the route brand. A situation exists in KwaZulu-Natal where TKZN divided the province into eight geographic tourism ‘destinations’. Two of these destinations were named the same as the routes operating in those areas, but the boundaries of the tourism destinations, the routes and the municipalities in the areas, are all different. The Midlands Meander is but a small part of the Midlands destination and the Battlefields route is much larger than the Battlefields destination, with the result that considerable confusion and frustration exists. Furthermore, while some tourism routes are promoted as such on the TKZN website, neither the Midlands Meander, nor the Battlefields Route, are promoted as rural tourism routes by the province. A well marketed route may in time overshadow the local area that it traverses. The brand architecture for a province, and indeed a country, needs to provide for sub-brands that ‘shouldn’t really be defined by physical boundaries, but by the broad experience’ (Enabler). This would allow for tourism route brands with distinctive brand identities and positioning, as routes may nestle inside or cross both political and tourism destination boundaries.
Provide a unique experience

It is the prospect of a unique holiday experience that attracts visitors to a route and induces them to return. For the route to succeed it has to create a unique experience and the study suggested that there are at least three ingredients for such an experience.

Firstly, people provide the warmth in the route experience. Visitors interact with people along the route, be they the hosts who accommodate them, tourist guides, crafters and artists, or simply local people, and especially the ‘owner or some characters on the staff that bring the destination part of the lodge to life’ and ‘women who understand how to make a guest feel happy’ (Enabler). The slower pace and friendly hospitality of rural people allow for easygoing interaction with visitors, but not for compromising of service levels.

Secondly, the rural ambience is created by the sounds of nature and farming activities; the closeness to the land and indigenous cultures; the remoteness of the route; the modest scale of buildings and settlements; and even rustic elements associated with ‘ruralness’ such as dirt roads, outside toilets and the very dark rural nights. A successful rural route may in time attract large city style developments that have the potential to destroy the very elements in which the route’s attraction vests. In this regard, the authorities that sanction such developments have a particular responsibility to conserve and protect the rural ambience intact as a valuable tourism asset through sensitive spatial planning.

Thirdly, the stories make a route unique. The importance of telling the stories that belong to that route alone is well demonstrated on the Battlefields Route where some battlefield guides refer to themselves as raconteurs rather than as historians. The stories that they tell transform a bare battlefield into the reliving of a moving experience: ‘And you take them through the battle and suddenly they are very quiet, and some tough bloke just drifts over there to wipe his glasses when you’re not looking.’ (Product owner). In turn, memorable experiences become stories for visitors to tell once they are home. Such stories can be generated by watching the crafter at work, meeting the artist, engaging an indigenous culture, absorbing nature, taking in a vista, or even enjoying the country cuisine.

Balance the route product mix

Lourens (2007) recommended that the route should offer a ‘wide range of complementary products that add value to the generic product’. This study af-
firmed that the mix of route offerings is of critical importance to attract visitors and that it needs to be balanced on several counts.

The first challenge is to achieve a balance between accommodation and attractors. Entry barriers to the accommodation industry are relatively low and a family home with a few extra rooms can easily be converted into a guest house. The route needs to offer visitors a range of choices in accommodation type and price range since hospitality is a significant portion of the total cost of the holiday. As one product owner remarked: ‘A lot of people don’t want the stuffiness of a five star establishment and feel more relaxed in a more child friendly self-catering environment’ (Product owner). Accommodation enterprises have tended to dominate some South African rural route organizations, including the successful Midlands Meander, which has been ‘quite swamped with hospitality members’ at times. Accommodation owners are often the first to get involved in a route ‘because their businesses are based on occupancy levels’ (Product owner).

However, accommodation alone does not attract visitors and the route needs to offer visitors reasons to come. Broadening the offerings on the Midlands Meander beyond arts and crafts ‘has definitely made the place more attractive because there is more stuff going on’ (Product owner). A route needs to offer activities to participate in, scenery to look at, history to relive, arts and crafts to buy, local cuisine to sample, and more. Drive tourists often travel in family groups and the route needs to appeal to the family as a group, but also to provide for the needs of the individual members of the family. Respondents on the themed Battlefields Route have realized that more than just battlefields need to be on offer. A military history enthusiast may ‘want to go trotting round battlefields for days’, but visiting one battlefield may be more than enough for his wife and children, who then need something else to do if the family is to stay longer. Similarly, the offering needs to be adapted to provide a meaningful experience for market segments with varying degrees of interest in military history, ranging from those who want to spend a whole day on one battlefield with an expert guide, to those who want to spend half an hour in an interpretation centre before moving on to the next battle site.

The onus rests on the route organization to manage the route product mix, especially when admitting new members. Since rural tourism businesses are typically small firms, an oversupplied offering type becomes unsustainable when owners are unable to make a living and businesses fail. To correct an imbalance of offerings may require discouraging some membership categories, while actively pursuing new members in others; as the Midlands Meander in-
deed does with a differentiated fee structure for route membership that encourages artists and crafters and discourages the oversupplied accommodation category.

**All stakeholders need to promote the route**

The responsibility to market the route does not lie solely with the route organization. The study revealed the value of stakeholders promoting the route and each other’s offerings. Members and enablers widely attribute the success of the Midlands Meander to the often referred to ‘*spirit of co-operation*’ that leads ‘*individual product owners [to] market each other’s products as aggressively as they market their own*’ (Enabler). The Midlands Meander Association further supports this philosophy with periodic ‘*Market your neighbour*’ familiarization tours for member’s front line staff. The Battlefields Route exhibited very competitive relationships between product owners, but some of them have started to realize the benefits of working together.

The route association is in a good position to facilitate co-operative route promotions targeting niche markets, since the route has a range of offerings that can be variously packaged to appeal to different niche market segments. The Midlands Meander for example, targets the lucrative wedding market with a wedding link on its website and a page in their brochure, featuring members who offer wedding venues and services.

The provincial tourism website is a gateway for all tourism in the province, and as such, needs to be informative and inclusive. TKZN initially hosted the Midlands Meander on their website, but once the route acquired their own website, no further promotion for the route appeared on the website, other than a link under the Midlands destination tab. Similarly, local municipalities do not promote the tourism routes in their areas in their brochures or on their websites, but attractions and facilities are mentioned individually. For example, the Midlands Meander is not mentioned in the Nottingham Road Tourism brochure though Nottingham Road is in the middle of the Meander; the Battlefields Route is not mentioned in the tourism brochures of any of the towns on the route. Tourism routes are attractors that pull visitors to the towns and rural regions that they traverse, but little reciprocal marketing is taking place.
Use electronic media effectively

Electronic media has radically changed tourism marketing and it is essential for rural tourism routes to fully utilize the connectivity that electronic media offer, particularly websites and social media.

Rural tourism routes need to establish a strong presence on the Internet and the route should have its own website containing information on the route and its members. Websites provide cost-effective medium for remote rural routes to reach potential markets, and especially niche markets interested in the route theme or specific experiences. Much of what rural tourism routes are about can be effectively communicated on the website through video clips, podcasts, photo galleries, and especially testimonials of visitor experiences. Since the Internet is a major source of information for the planning of holiday trips, the route website needs to be kept current and provide downloadable information, such as maps and brochures for potential visitors to study off line at their leisure. Route organizations can benefit from investing in a professionally designed website, incorporating the necessary elements for search engine optimization, user friendliness and visual appeal. Reciprocal links between the route’s and member’s websites encourages cross-marketing. Links from more prominent tourism sites, such as provincial and municipal tourism authorities, are important to guide both search engines and potential visitors to the route website. Web marketing needs to be supported by other media and the route’s web and e-mail addresses need to appear in advertising and on brochures and maps.

While both routes and many of their members already had websites, little use was made of social media. Considering the importance of word-of-mouth marketing in tourism, the routes need to tap into social media to encourage visitors to share first-hand information about their route experiences with others. Links to social media such as Facebook, YouTube, Twitter and others, should be available on the website for easy clicking through to the social media pages to post or read comments.

Conclusion

Rural tourism routes have the potential to aid development in impoverished rural areas with tourism potential in South Africa. In line with other studies on rural tourism routes, this study confirmed that marketing is a critical element in the success of a rural route (Meyer, 2004; Lourens, 2007; Rogerson, 2007).

A tourism route is a composite offering consisting of many different tourism products promoted as a unit under a single brand name (Rogerson, 2007). The
first important action in marketing a route is to establish awareness of the route brand. To this effect, routes not only need a strong presence on the internet and social electronic media, but its existence also needs to be affirmed through branded road signage and identification of route members. Secondly, the route needs to facilitate cross marketing. Within the route structure, members need to market each other’s products, and while the route’s primary function is to promote its members, the members also need to actively promote the route in both conventional and electronic media by incorporating the route logos and links to the route website and social media pages. Thirdly, attention needs to be paid to the route offering which should not only reflect the route theme, ethos and standards, but also needs to be balanced so as to meet the needs of a range of market segments, and offer those visitors a range of choices of where to stay and what to do to. Finally, and perhaps most importantly, the route needs to provide visitors with memorable experiences created through the people, the rural ambience and the stories that make the route unique. Tourism authorities on provincial and local government levels need to promote the tourism routes in their areas of jurisdiction just as actively as they promote attractions and individual tourism offerings. Route brands need to be accommodated and promoted within the provincial brand architecture. The study was limited to two rural tourism routes in KwaZulu-Natal. Since policies and circumstances vary between provinces, expanding the study to routes elsewhere in South Africa may provide additional insights into the marketing of rural tourism routes.

References


Eco-Hotels: A New Approach to Hospitality Industry

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Abstract
Sustainable hotel management assumes an important role in the reduction of the negative effects on environment, since hotels use energy, water, land and raw materials and leave residue. This paper considers the new approach in hotel management to fulfill the goals of sustainable development and environmental management. This study aims to find out whether top hotel managers adopt sustainability procedures and practices to meet sustainability goals and keep customers attracted or to cut down on expenses. To find the answer, the proceedings of environmental management and sustainability were considered and discussed with respect to objective evidences and previous studies. Moreover, a need is felt in hotel management industry for developing some standards for sustainable hotel management and for informing about the initiatives and benefits of sustainable hotel management in this industry. Finally, this study shows that hotel management and sustainability can complete each other and bring mutual benefits.

Key words: environmental management, sustainable development, sustainable tourism, eco-hotels.

Introduction
Hotel management industry is one of the world’s oldest industries. Merchants and missionaries, who were the first explorers and tourists, needed food and a place of residence for rest during their journeys. Locals welcomed these tired travellers to their homes and kitchens and this way a new industry came to existence (Foster, 2009). Management of the environment has become a critical issue for the hotel industry in the wake of calls for sustainable tourism development and growing environmental awareness among tourists, governments
and associations. Consequently, the green hotel movement and ecotourism have become trends in the tourism industry (Olsen & et al, 1998).

During the last two decades, the environmental agenda for both public policy and private business has been dominated by the emergence of sustainable development. The concept has its origins in the growing realization of the finite nature of global natural resources, the rate of human exploitation of the environment and the implications for future generation (Hobson & Essex, 2001). The Brundtland report defined "sustainable development" as development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs" (WCED, 1987, p.431). The concept has been placed further centre-stage following the Earth Summit in 1992 with the emergence of agenda 21, which encouraged the formulation of locally-based and sector specific strategies for transferring sustainable development into practice. Tourism is one sector of the economy that has endorsed the notion of sustainability, at least in policy statements and within some initiatives. This interest reflects a realization that the viability of the industry is dependent on the quality of the resource base, whether in the nature, built or cultural environment. As with other sectors, the translation of theory into practice has been problematic as awareness, understanding, interpretation, interest and implementation within the sector have been highly variable (Godfrey, 1998).

Sustainable Development

Sustainable Development: Today it is not said "what is development?" to define development, rather it is said that "how the development should be". It is where the different values steering development are brought forth. In the modern eye on development, conflict of interests occurs between development and environment, equity is established between generations and the primitive, real and lawful needs are segregated from the false ones (Zahedi, 2007). During the 1970s, the concepts on the effects of mankind on the environment had been the main operating instruction for the organizations and governments. Pressure on the environment has been realized as the uneven development. Therefore, most people got to talk about sustainable development. Most discussions on sustainable development originated from the Brundtland Commission and its report in 1987. Brundtland Report’s definite it as ‘development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs’. Currently the debate surrounding sustainable development focuses on issues such as reliance upon economic growth to improve overall wellbeing, substitution of nonrenewable resources, use of technologies to over-
come dwindling natural resources, environmental management practices to overcome negative impacts of economic growth, and the value of non-human world (Gordon, 2007).

**Sustainable Development in Tourism & Hospitality**

The notion of sustainable development has expanded to cover all forms of development and economic activities including tourism. The interpretation of the concept of sustainable development in tourism remains vague and a number of different approaches have been proposed in an effort to define what constitutes sustainable development in tourism and what not (Butler, 1998). Sustainable development is therefore what the tourism industry of the twenty-first century should strive to achieve. The sustainability paradigm has become “an attractive topic” that promises sustainable growth for the present and into the future. The tourism industry has responded to this paradigm shift by self-regulating and initiating voluntary programs. For instance, numerous voluntary programs and policies such as Green Globe 21, European Blue Flag Campaign, Smart Voyager (Ecuador), Green Leaf (Thailand), and Agenda 21 for Travel and Tourism industry have been launched (Jayawardena et al., 2008).

Tourism Organization defines sustainable tourism as “tourism which leads to management of all resources in such a way that economic, social and aesthetic needs can be filled while maintaining cultural integrity, essentials ecological processes, biological diversity and life support systems.”(McKercher, 2003). In a meeting in Thailand in March 2004, UNWTO reconsidered the definition of sustainable tourism. This reconsideration was intended for informing better about sustainability outcomes in tourism with regard to the results of Sustainable Tourism Conference in Johannesburg. The new conceptual definition stresses making a balance among the environmental, social and economic aspects of tourism, the need for the execution of sustainability principles in all tourism sectors and fulfillment of tourism global goals (e.g. poverty elimination) (Georg, 2008). Also Ko believed that Sustainable development is development that enables the system in that it is located to maintain a state of health that is necessary for survival at a higher level of quality (Ko, 2005).

Indeed, it is felt by some commentators that sustainable tourism may represent a threat to the environment by being used as a guise to sell more holidays and open up new destinations rather than contribute to environmental conservation. Beioly (1995), identifies four features for tourism to be truly sustainable. First, tourism must respect the economic well-being and social and cultural concerns of host communities. Consequently, tourism development in an area
must involve consultation and participation as well as a degree of local control. Second, tourism must respect the characters of the local environment and operate within it’s capability to regenerate itself. Third, tourism should reduce it’s impact on the wider global environment in terms of deplation of natural resources and pollution. Fourth, tourism should provide a meaningful and satisfying experience for the visitor.

Nowadays, labels containing the prefix “Eco-“ are used and some certificates are issued for hotels for the encouragement of friendly treatment of environment and development with minimum damages to environment. The label “Eco” was first used in Europe signified by a blue flag. It was first adopted by tourism and hotel management industry as a means of creating a green and clean mental image of this industry. Over a hundred labels with the prefix “Eco-“ and certain certificates have since been developed (Olsen & et al, 1998).

**Environmental Management for Sustainable Tourism Management:**

There is an obvious relationship between tourism and protection. Natural environment presents lots of tourism-related attractions and this produces an economic incentive for environmental protection because most of protection plans cannot be implemented without tourism incomes. Regarding this mutual relationship, the tourism effects on environment can be considered in three areas of environmental protection, producing conflicts and carrying capacity (Figure. 1) (Tavallai, 2007, p.110).

That notwithstanding, most of the environmental management programs in hotels have been occasioned by the quest for sustainable tourism development. In the context of the hotel industry, it is not possible to understand the importance of the natural environment for hotels and the tourism industry; without bringing in a discussion of development generally and sustainable development in particular. It is therefore imperative for environmental management in hotels to be placed within the framework of sustainable tourism development (Faulk, 2000).

The EPA defines Environmental management as "the process by which the collection of policies, structures, resources, systems and processes are brought to mutual interplay for the achievement of clearly defined environmental policy directives" (EPA, 1997, p.43). Environmental management practices in hotels have been geared towards energy conservation, water conservation, reduction of waste and establishing good relations with local communities. It is as a result of cost saving waste management and energy and water saving have be-
come popular environmental management practices. As managers have come to the realization that they could save on their water and energy bill when they adopt good conservation practices. There are example of transportation companies, hotels and restaurants haven taken steps to recycle and reduce the consumption of energy, thereby reducing costs, increasing profits and taking some steps towards sustainability (Mensah, 2007).

Figure 1. Tourism and environment
Source: John Lee, 1998

The adoption of sustainable practices would then depend on levels of interest, expertise and supporting infrastructure. Research into the environmental awareness, action and performance of the tourist accommodation sector have produced predictable results. Stabler and Goodall’s(1997) study of the hospitality sector on Guernsey amply demonstrated the disposition of businesses to sustainable tourism. Hoteliers possessed a general knowledge of environmental problems but had limited or no understanding of tourism environmental interactions. Only about 18 percent of the respondents were aware of, and could explain, "sustainable tourism" (Hobson & Essex, 2001).
Brown’s (1994) survey of 106 managers from large and medium-sized hotel groups in the UK indicated that the main reason for introducing environmental initiatives was on the basis of cost-saving rather than the benefits for the environment (Brown, 1994, p.23). Indeed, care of the environment was not as important as health and safety, quality, cost or customer care in the decision to introduce such changes. The introduction of environmental initiatives was often hindered by controls and procedures operated by head office. Other research has indicated that manager large hotel groups believe some "sustainable" practices, such as water and energy conservation, to be in conflict with the principle of Luxury accommodation and might adversely affect the enjoyment of a guest’s stay (Hobson & Essex, 2001). In spite of the growing popularity of environmental management in hotels, only large hotels have been found to be at the forefront of environmental management. Nonetheless, it has been realized that sound environmental management is beneficial to all hotels, as it results in profitability, customer retention, improved corporate image and cost saving among others (Mensah, 2007).

**Impacts of Hotels on the Environment:**

In spite of the apparent positive impacts of hotels, they also exert pressure on the environment of destinations, sometimes with dire consequences. Most of the studies on the impacts of hotels on the environment have ben conducted on costal and island resorts. Here, the impacts on the host community have been the focus. In the Mediterranean, hotels could easily consume 400 liters of water per guest per day while locals may only require 701 per day (Hunter & Green, 1995).Hotels have also taken valuable land away from local communities. In Nepal, 400000 hectares of forest were cleared each year to construct hotels, lodges and furniture manufacturing, to provide fuel for cooking and for hot showers and campfires, which led to increased risk of landslides and flooding. Hotels have also contributed to the depletion of energy resources. Through their operations, hotels generate lost of solid and liquid waste, which are discharged into water bodies and other unapproved places or are expensive to manage (Mathieson & Wall, 1982).

**Environmental Management in Hotels:**

A number of hotels are now taking environmental issues seriously and are embarking on activities like recycling, water and energy conservation, environmental education, waste management and afforestation (the planting of trees). The growing environmental consciousness in the industry can be attributed to
government regulation, changing consumer demand, advocacy and initiatives by Non-govermental Organizations (NOGs) and ethics by professional associations. Studies conducted by the International Hotels Environment Initiative (IHEI) and Accor revealed that 90 per cent of hotel guests preferred to stay in hotel that cared for the environment (Mensah, 2007). Environmental management in hotel also reflects a paradigm shift in the industry from mass tourism to sustainable tourism. It is a continuous process adopted through management decisions, through which an organization’s activities are monitored and appropriate programs devised to reduce the negative environmental impacts.

Swarbrooke (1994), believed that the benefits of sustainable tourism are not solely in terms of environmental gains. There can also be benefits for the business in terms of reductions in the cost-base through saving, enhanced reputations, greater appeal to more affluent customers, a favorable impression to investors, improved job satisfaction for staff an enjoyable experience for visitors and benefits for the local community.

The response of the tourism industry to the concept of sustainable development has been mixed. Within the accommodation sector, many of the large businesses have introduced initiatives to promote the principals of sustainability. In 1993, the International Hotel and Environment Initiative, consisting of nine of the world’s major hotel companies, produced a manual of how the environmental performance of hotel could be improved (Hobson & Essex, 2001). There are many example of hotels taking specific initiatives to reduce the impact of their operations on the host community. An EU funded hotel construction project in Western Samoa used traditional designs and techniques and only improved materials where local substitutes could not be produced. The hotel sites are owned by local villagers, local people are employed and local agricultural produce are consumed by tourists. Also Grecotel, the largest hotel chain in Greece uses only local styles and materials in architecture and facilities design. The hotel also sustains the local economy, serves local dishes and encourages environmental conservation, as well as encouraging guests to visit smaller villages (Middleton & Hawkins, 1998). Also at the Kingfisher Bay and Village in Queensland Australia, architectural design and use of fluorescent bubbles allow for minimal energy consumption (Faulk, 2000). In many hotels the guests are asked to inform the hotel receptionist if they have left any towels or bed sheets unused and needless to change so as to reduce the environmental pollution caused by detergents and this way aid the hotels in achieving the environmental sustainable development goals.
Conclusion

Despite the growing international recognition of the importance of environmental sustainability across many economic sectors, the main issue remains the translation of the concept into effective workable and practical strategies. In tourism, the range of tourism businesses, the diversity of environmental impacts and the essentially commercial nature of the business have resulted in various interpretations of the term as well as many real and perceived barriers to its adoption. The main barriers identified in previous research appear to be a lack of understanding and awareness of environmental issues related to tourism, the fear of extra costs, and skepticism of what is perceived to be an impractical and overly theoretical concept. The negative effects of hotels and other places of residence are an inseparable part of this industry. However, the expansion of sustainable development and its strategies to reduce the negative effects in natural, economic and social and cultural environments pictures a prosperous future for this industry and green hotel management. It can be inferred from the results of previous studies that by the adoption of sustainability policies in the modern industry of green hotel management, managers aim rather to reduce the costs, maintain the customers and enhance marketing than to protect and improve the environment.

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Harvester Ant Colonies as a Geomorphosite Maker: Case Study of Ant Nests on Southern Slope of Azay-Tapah

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Abstract

This paper based on the hypothesis that there is a relationship between ants and/or their nests and geomorphologic conditions of slope. Therefore, investigation of this relationship is the most important goal in this paper. For this, in addition to respect of biogeomorphological methodologies, pedogeomorphic indices of slope and characteristics of harvester ant nests have been analyzed, too. The results showed: 1) Greater ant biomass occurred along two geomoephologic unit edges at the contact between slope and alluvial fan, 2) Out of biogeomorphological processes, this slope at present affected from bioerosion and bioconstruction, and for protect of the landscape, the import of biostabilization and bioprotection is necessary, and 3) biogeomorphological relations show that some of the behavioral indices of ants and characteristics of their nests can be indication of pedogeomorphic dynamic situation of slope. These relations are indication of effectiveness of replacing of nests from pedogeomorphic dynamic situation, too.

Key words: biogeomorphology, bioerosion, harvester ants, Azay-Tapah.

Introduction

The geomorphological issues associated with tourism will return to the previous years related to concept of the “land ethic” to the development of a “tourism services ethic” (Leopold, 1949). This relationship in recent years in terms of form and function of morphogenetic systems in relation to ecotourism, has been attention of researchers (Pope, Meierding, & Paradise, 2002; Arrowsmith & Inbakaran, 2002; Jennings, 2004; Pralong, 2005; Serrano & Gonzalez-Trueba, 2005; Brandolini, Faccini, & Piccazzo, 2006). Geomorphosites like Azay-Tapah, geomorphological sites (or geomorphological assets) are defined as geomorphological landforms and processes that have acquired a scenic/aesthetic, scientific, cultural/historical and/or a social/economic value due to human percep-
tion of geological, geomorphological, historical and social factors (Panizza & Piacente, 1993; Pralong, 2005; Quaranta, 1993). In the past two decades, biogeomorphology has been developed increasingly and geomorphological studies are focused toward more emphasis on identifying the ecological components of landscapes (Urban & Daniels, 2006). Biogeomorphology has developed into a well-established research field over the past 20 years, with studies examining a range of two-way interrelations between organisms and geomorphology in a variety of terrestrial and marine environments (Naylor, 2005). Recent biogeomorphological research has focused on some aspects of the two-way linkages between ecological and geomorphological processes (Naylor, Viles, & Carter, 2002).

Ecosystems are composed of many individuals of multiple species of organisms which interact with each other and their abiotic environment to produce complex structures and dynamics (Brown, Valone, & Curtin, 1997). Besides this, most landscapes consist of a mosaic of geomorphic surfaces that differ with respect to dominant erosion, transport, and deposition processes, surface materials, and ages (Frolking & Lepper, 2001). The southern slope of Azay-tapah is an unique landscape that the harvester ants play significant role in the mosaic classification of facial appearance of the slope (Figure 1).

Figure 1. A map of Azay-tapah showing the location of the ant nests and its location on Parsian alluvial fan.
In this study it is assumed that a biogeomorphological relationship between ants, their nests and Geomorphology of the southern slopes of Azay-tapah is established. Therefore, this paper will pursue the following objectives: 1) Define and explanation the biogeomorphological processes range 2) Identify and assess the slope characteristics effects on distribution of ant nests, as far as was possible.

**Study area:** "Azay-tapah" the local name of a hill 1,165 meters above sea level, is a small and the individual on Parsian Plain and in the Southeast of Asyab-Kharabe Promenade, Djolfa County, Northwest Iran (Figure 1). This hill is 65 meters above the surface of the Parsian plain. The hill slopes are rocky, which are composed of Tufa by springs containing calcium carbonate and calcium carbonate precipitation as a result it has been created. However, there is a cliff in the upslopes because the existence of such formations, and the middle and down slopes are covered with soil (Figure 2a). The separated fragments of carbonate rocks from upslopes are seen at the surface of recent sections. In the southern slopes of the hill and the altitude between 1,135 to 1,152 m, the nests of harvester ants (53 nests) (Figure 3) have been established. Circles devoid of any vegetation in the privacy of their nests have been created that are visible as soil spots between the green vegetation from a distance(Figure 2b), because of these kind of ants inherent characteristics in nest building (Wagner, Jones, & Gordon, 2004, p. 798; Nash et al., 2001, p. 707).

**Figure. 2.** a) Southern slope of Azay-tapah showing the location of the ant nests, b) Bare surface of nests
Aerial photographs of the region (1966) (scale: 1:20000) indicates many of these nests were in the west slope of Azay-tapah whereas nowadays they are few in this slope. It’s interesting that on the photoes, the number of nests on the southern slopes is much less than today, a point that represent major environmental changes in recent years in the region.

Methodology

a) Biogeomorphology: There is a wide array of approaches and subjects that constitute biogeomorphological studies. They range from studies primarily concerned with evaluating links between biotic and geomorphological systems, such as through the processes of bioerosion, bioconstruction, biostabilization, bioweathering and bio protection (Naylor, 2005). In this study, given the nature of the subject we are dealing with biological degradation process during which soil movement is done by the ants. The term bioerosion has been used to refer to many different types and scales of processes in the literature and generally can be though to as the weathering and/or removal of material by organic agency (Spencer, 1992; Naylor, 2005). Biogeomorphology of southern slopes of Azay-tapah can be investigated from two aspects:

1- Effects of slope geomorphology on the distribution of ants and their nests

2- The effect of ants in the development of landforms and surface processes.

Figure 3. TIN model of Azay-tapa showing the location of the ant nests on Southern slope
b) Pedogeomorphology: Geomorphology and pedology can be fundamental to the resolution of lithologic and chronostratigraphic relationships in archaeological investigations. Ants build structures that allow colonies to survive in environments that would be lethal without the structures (Whitford, 2003). Niche partitioning in ant assemblages has been attributed to species temperature preferences, humidity preferences, food availability, and nest site availability, and competition (Albrecht & Gotelli, 2001). Therefore, the site selection and the study was such that can show some of the issues raised above. Until recently the influence of ant activity in the erosional processes on slopes has been neglected. Most burrowing ants move soil particles to the surface and the resulting mounds present readily erodible material (Alders, Augustinus, & Nobbe, 1989) and are a good indicator taxa of disturbance (James et al., 1999). Ant’s pedological influence is largely through the construction of nests, galleries, soil sheetings and mounds. Some of the pedological effects are manifested in the physical modification of the soil profile through selecting, transporting and rearranging soil particles. Ant mound longevity varies from weeks to decades. Information on the effects of ants on soil structure and water infiltration is sparse; but ants seem to either increase infiltration by improving soil structure and porosity, or to decrease infiltration by producing compact surfaces which assist runoff and erosion (De & Conacher, 1990). But soil texture and consistency do influence the distribution of the ant. For nests are not constructed in sands or in very loose, structureless soils (Greenslade, 1974). In contrast to nest surface area, relationships between colony age and soil chemistry variables were not better described by a nonlinear model. But, the soils near ant nests often contain higher concentrations of organic matter and mineral forms (Wagner, Jones, & Gordon, 2004).

c) Harvester ants and their nest characteristics: Harvester ant (Pogonomyrmex barbatus) colonies, can occupy the same nest for 20 years (Gordon, 1991, 1992a, b; Wagner et al., 2004). Nests appear as large disks (≤ 2 m diameter) or shallow mounds surrounding the nest entrance. Workers kill existing plants and clip seedlings on the mound, preventing plants from growing on nest sites while the colony is alive. Onto the surface of the mound, workers place debris, excavated soil, and gravel retrieved from surrounding areas (Wagner et al., 2004; Nash et al., 2001). Harvester ants sweep organic matter from surrounding areas and concentrate it in and around the nest. The results suggest that differences between ant nest and surrounding soils result from the combined activity of ant workers (Wagner et al., 2004).
Nest size measurements indicate that nest size increases in early life, slowing and perhaps shrinking thereafter. The surface area of the nest increases for about the first 5–10 years after colony founding, followed by a period of leveling off. A decrease in nest surface area by old colonies might result from decreasing worker numbers, itself a result of a dead or senescent queen, or from a general age-related slowdown in midden work and foraging (Wagner et al., 2004). However, both biotic and abiotic factors influence the dynamics of consumer populations for example, inter specific competition may influence the mortality of older colonies in years when low rainfall limits food availability (Sanders & Gordon, 2004).

To achieve the objectives of the paper, the geomorphological features and all the nests on the slope were identified and determined through frequent field observations and using GPS and morphometric tools (Table 1). Then, using GIS techniques, this information was plotted on maps. For the soil horizons in the nests, Sections on the nests were created (Figure 4).

**Discussion**

*a) Replace the harvester ant nests as an indication of the environmental conditions:* Analyzes the spatial distribution of ant nests on the southern slopes of harvest, "Azay-tapah" show that the ant's nests are built in between two adjacent geomorphological units: Upper cliff slopes and Parsian alluvial fan, where the following features as well:

- The thickness of the soil so that the C horizon is located at a depth of more than one meter.
- Soil due to sand and rock fragments, a well-drained soil is provided.
- Collapsed fragments of the upper cliff are rarely reached on this part of the slope during falling.
- The evolution of soil allowing establishment of dense grass vegetation to grass of ants.
- Because of the coarse and carbonate compounds in the soil, its structure is of great strength (Figure 4) and prevent the destruction of nests during heavy rainfalls are. These soils are considered by ants because of its high moisture retention capacity (Whitford et al, 1976).
Table 1: Coordinates and characteristics of ant nests on the southern slopes of "Azay tapah."

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of ant nests</th>
<th>Latitude</th>
<th>Longitude</th>
<th>Utilized nests</th>
<th>Unutilized nests</th>
<th>Nest diameter (m)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>38°50′40.1″</td>
<td>45°51′51.9″</td>
<td>*</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>38°50′41.4″</td>
<td>45°51′51.9″</td>
<td>*</td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>38°50′40.8″</td>
<td>45°51′50.7″</td>
<td>*</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>38°50′40.7″</td>
<td>45°51′51.2″</td>
<td>*</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>38°50′40.7″</td>
<td>45°51′51.2″</td>
<td>*</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>38°50′40.9″</td>
<td>45°51′51.1″</td>
<td>*</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>38°50′40.5″</td>
<td>45°51′50.8″</td>
<td>*</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>38°50′39.9″</td>
<td>45°51′50.8″</td>
<td>*</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>38°50′40.8″</td>
<td>45°51′50.6″</td>
<td>*</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig. 4: Cross-sections in Ant Nests
| 10 | 38'50'40.5" | 45°51'49.6" | * | 1 |
| 11 | 38'50'40.5" | 45°51'49.7" | * | 1 |
| 12 | 38'50'40.5" | 45°51'49.7" | * | 3 |
| 13 | 38'50'40.4" | 45°51'49.8" | * | 3 |
| 14 | 38'50'40.3" | 45°51'49.9" | * | 3.1 |
| 15 | 38'50'40.4" | 45°51'50.5" | * | 1.7 |
| 16 | 38'50'40.0" | 45°51'50.6" | * | 2.5 |
| 17 | 38'50'40.6" | 45°51'51.1" | * | 3.0 |
| 18 | 38'50'39.9" | 45°51'49.7" | * | 2.2 |
| 19 | 38'50'39.8" | 45°51'49.5" | * | 3.0 |
| 20 | 38'50'40.0" | 45°51'49.6" | * | 2.7 |
| 21 | 38'50'40.0" | 45°51'49.4" | * | 3.5 |
| 22 | 38'50'40.1" | 45°51'49.2" | * | 3.2 |
| 23 | 38'50'40.0" | 45°51'49.4" | * | 3.4 |
| 24 | 38'50'38.8" | 45°51'49.1" | * | 2.0 |
| 25 | 38'50'39.6" | 45°51'49.2" | * | 3.0 |
| 26 | 38'50'39.6" | 45°51'49.0" | * | 3.2 |
| 27 | 38'50'39.3" | 45°51'48.3" | * | 2.7 |
| 28 | 38'50'39.0" | 45°51'48.4" | * | 2.1 |
| 29 | 38'50'39.1" | 45°51'48.2" | * | 1.0 |
| 30 | 38'50'39.1" | 45°51'48.0" | * | 1.0 |
| 31 | 38'50'38.8" | 45°51'47.7" | * | 1.5 |
| 32 | 38'50'38.7" | 45°51'48.4" | * | 1.5 |
| 33 | 38'50'38.7" | 45°51'47.5" | * | 3.4 |
| 34 | 38'50'39.1" | 45°51'47.2" | * | 2.5 |
| 35 | 38'50'39" | 45°51'47.2" | * | 2.8 |
| 36 | 38'50'38.7" | 45°51'46.7" | * | 2.5 |
| 37 | 38'50'38.8" | 45°51'46.7" | * | 2.5 |
| 38 | 38'50'38.6" | 45°51'46.5" | * | 3.2 |
| 39 | 38'50'38.5" | 45°51'46.1" | * | 1.9 |
| 40 | 38'50'38.7" | 45°51'45.9" | * | 2.0 |
| 41 | 38'50'39.1" | 45°51'45.7" | * | 2.9 |
| 42 | 38'50'39.3" | 45°51'45.4" | * | 1.2 |
| 43 | 38'50'39.4" | 45°51'45.2" | * | 2.0 |
| 44 | 38'50'39.8" | 45°51'45.3" | * | 2.7 |
| 45 | 38'50'39.5" | 45°51'45.0" | * | 1.5 |
| 46 | 38'50'39.3" | 45°51'45.0" | * | 1.8 |
| 47 | 38'50'39.1" | 45°51'44.9" | * | 2.0 |
Despite such favorable conditions for nest building, the establishment of a series of nests of harvester ants is in this slope that such a phenomenon that cannot be seen outside the study area. Thus, these ants in addition to feed on the surface of alluvial fan, are protected from flooded nests and collapse of weathering elements of the upper slopes.

Lack of sediment supply from upslope has caused a thick layer of the B horizon on the piedmont and A horizon rarely reaches a thickness of 5 cm. The shallow depth of B horizon clearly indicates that the deposition of colluvium on footslopes during the late Holocene has been minimal. This can also associate with low rate of sediment supply from upslope. General features of soil profiles in the landscape studied show that the sedimentary dynamics of landscape had been a relatively static state in the Holocene period. The same rule probably build nests in this area is stable. However, soil texture and it’s strength and availability of seed vegetation should also considered. Because, among all the slopes with different sediment type, lithology, slope processes and vegetation that have been studied, Only this small slope have been considered by harvester ants for nest building. Figure 3 shows the location of nests on the slope has a collar-like and their height Position increases from West to East. However, the distance between nests in various parts of the slope with upslope Tufa outcrops line is approximately the same size. Following such a situation indicates the location of nests follow the same pedological conditions in which the evolution of soil and drainage is good.

However, in the past 40 years witnessed a decrease in the number of nests on the western slopes and an increase on the southern slopes of Azay-tapah. Studies showed that in recent years place the nests in the western slope have been converted to Livestock barn. Thus, many of the nests and ants and trampled and provide the conditions for migration to southern slope with high isolation. Therefore, although changes in ecosystems and populations of plants and animals in the new climate regime is attributed, that directly through increased winter rainfall or indirectly through interactions change the living components of ecosystems, the organisms affect(Brown et al., 1997). However,
it seems this has been the indirect effect of human performance and its relation to climate change in recent centuries in the world (Calkin, 2002), northwest of Iran (Mokhtari, 2004) and study area (figure 5) that suggests that climate warming over the past, is incompatible. It should be noted that there is still disagreement among researchers in the criteria for selection of colony sites by harvester ant queens might include vegetation density (Dugas, 2001).

![Graph showing temperature changes in the last 40 years Djolfa Station](image)

**Fig. 5:** The temperature changes in the last 40 years Djolfa Station

**B) Nest bare surfaces as active geomorphological surfaces:** Substances may be lost from ant mounds through several routes. First, organic debris may be lost from the mound by active or passive transport. When ants die, their bodies are typically carried from the nest and placed at the periphery of the mound. Passive transport of materials by wind and water also removes organic debris from the mound. Second, organic materials may be transformed, by ants and other soil organisms, and lost from nest soils in mineral form (Wagner et al., 2004). Lack of vegetation in nests (Fig. 2 B) provides conditions to runoff and wind erosion of nest surfaces. Nest surface topography shows despite the transfer of large amounts of underlying soil and straw and shavings to the surface of the nest by the ants, most of the surfaces are concave. Appears to be naked of nest surfaces in the cold seasons exacerbate the erosion of the snow (nivation) on nests. Thus, in the southern slopes of the "Azay-Tapah" we also saw another kind bioconstruction that provides the conditions for the external dynamics and climatic factors activity. Observations showed that some nests (e.g. 6, 14, 34, and 36) despite having a high surface diameter which is a marker of maturity, are abandoned and the reason for the author was unknown and requires further studies.
Conclusion

Based on research results and the unique biogeomorphological features, southern slopes of the Azay-Tapah can be no doubt as a Geomorphosite (Table 2) was introduced. Despite the activity of the variety of geomorphological processes, the nature of this geomorphosite is indebted to Harvester ants. These features include:

1. Existence of the maximum harvester ant biomass at the junction of two geomorphological units (slope and alluvial fan)
2. Indicators suggest some behavioral characteristics of ants and their nests on the geomorphological and pedological changes of slope.
3. Geomorphologic and pedologic dynamics of slope on how to replace nests.
4. Harvester Ants nests indicate establishment of stable conditions in the upslope, well drainage and soil structure stability.
5. The role of the nests on the intensified activity of factors such as surface water and wind erosion and snow.
6. Effect of human performance in handling nests in different parts of slope.
7. Activity bioerosion and bioconstruction processes.
8. It is hoped that the findings of this paper can open a new world of geotourism, that if is not associated with bioprotection and biostabilization processes, will be very short.

Table 2: Azay-Tapah geomorphosite descriptive card.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Identification</th>
<th>Indicator</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **Situation**  | Local Name: Azay-tapah (Dastah-tapah)  
Location: On the Parsian alluvial fan on the northern slope of Keyamaki-Dagh (northwest of Iran), east of Djoila city (34.5 km) and south of Asyab-Kharabe Fall (2.5 km)  
Coordinates: between 38°50'40" to 38°51'01.4"N and 45°51'36.8" to 45°51'54.7"E  
Altitude: 1100-1165 m  |
<p>| <strong>Features</strong>   | Karst landforms, Harvester ant nests, and plant fossil complex |
| <strong>Genesis</strong>    | Local carbonate precipitation and deposition via springs (Tufagenesis System) |
| <strong>Geomorphology</strong> | <strong>Landform description, morphostructures, erosion</strong> |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dynamic</th>
<th>Biogeomorphic and karst processes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chronology</td>
<td>Quaternary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Main interest</td>
<td>Climatic change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary interest</td>
<td>Vegetation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geosite attributes</td>
<td>Karst landforms and Biogeomorphology</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Uses</th>
<th>Cultural content</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Livestock and crops in limited areas bordering</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accessibility</td>
<td>Up to 300 meters away from the asphalt road, paved the way to the foot of the hill.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of interest</td>
<td>Very low, but offers the collection of geomorphological forms, geological phenomena, evidence of climatic change, biogeomorphic phenomena.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State of conservation</td>
<td>Without any attention from the authorities and people of the region due to the unknown. It should be noted that the study area as part of a wildlife area, that is under special protection laws of wildlife areas.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current uses</td>
<td>Grazing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communications</td>
<td>Local passengers board</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infrastructures</td>
<td>Without any infrastructure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impacts</td>
<td>Movement of livestock and loss of vegetation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Legal Status</td>
<td>Protected Area</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

References


Strategies for Innovation Implementation in the Tourism Education at Tshwane University of Technology

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Abstract
This article reports on the strategies towards implementing technology innovation for the tourism students in the department of tourism management at Tshwane university of Technology. A literature review was conducted where the general eLearning innovation models for Higher Education was examined and identified. Data was collected in the Department of Tourism and the analysis reported. The article presents an innovative solution to Higher Institutions of Learning Departments in terms of developing effective approaches to take advantage of the classroom technological innovation. The paper attempts to table an eLearning innovative approach that could contribute towards eLearning participation for the tourism students at Tshwane University of Technology.

Key words: innovation, eLearning, strategy, technology, participation.

Introduction
Laurillard (2004) and Christie et al (2004) define e-learning as the use of digital media in higher education to instruct students with or without their lecturer through any type of information and communication technologies tool and to improve teaching and learning practices (compare Jones, 2008). Fundamentally, e-Learning can be classified as another mode of delivery for teaching and learning. Defining eLearning in a broad perspective, e-Learning includes education conveyed with all electronic media including the mobile phones, internet, satellite broadcasts, IPods, PC’s, interactive TV, and DVD-ROM (Govindasamy, 2002). The effectiveness of teaching and learning with technology depends on the following factors (compare Bates and Pool– when implementing e-learning tools lecturers and students abilities and preferences should be
taken into account. high level competence of teachers – lecturers are developers of e-learning content and instructor implementing pre e 2003):

- appropriate technological tools – both hardware and software;
- suitable didactical approach
- designed courses
- positive attitude of teachers and students to use e-learning.

Institutions of higher education should observe the following significant points in order to achieve desired results when implementing teaching and learning with technology (Njagi et al, 2003):

- The lack of connections to e-learning websites combined with slow downloads depresses students from using e-learning;
- Poor instructor awareness and training in using e-learning facilities will lead to poor outcomes and
- Poor preparation can affect the use of e-learning facilities.
- In the 4E-model of Collis et al. (2000, 2001), a large number of variables for predicting the success of an eLearning implementation in an educational setting are grouped into the following four factors:

  Educational: The educational effectiveness relies on having the problems solved. This includes issues like bridging distances between group members or overcoming the lack of opportunities to meet each other face-to-face. The users' perception will be influenced by the relative advantages one gains from using eLearning compared to other modes of accomplishing educational tasks (Steyn et al, 2005).

  Ease of use: The ease of use includes the ability of users to learn how to use technology with fewer hassles. To achieve these users should be exposed to a user friendly technology, and proficient ways of delivering tasks that suit with the traditional ways of teaching and learning with technology. The other important factors attached to ease of use depends on the user’s computer expertise, prior know-how of technology, and suitable access to networked computers, accessibility of support, and expenditure that come with using the eLearning services (Laanpere & Sogenbits, 2004).

  Engagement: The engagement characteristics include individual mind-set about the use of eLearning. Users who are willing and ready to attempt imple-
menting eLearning normally display a positive attitude towards eLearning satisfaction with successful use. In normal circumstances surrounding the eLearning use a lack of positive attitude towards one’s personal ability to work with technology will results into a negative attitude towards the use of eLearning (Jacobsdo’ttir, 2001; Klaas et al, 2002).

Environment: The environmental factors are those external factors that will affect the successful implementation of eLearning. These environments include socio-cultural and technological issues such as the attitude of personnel and of the organisation towards technology-related improvement for educational reasons; the organisation ability to offer telematic accessible, reliable and affordable services and support at all times (Collis et al, 2001; Sikkel et al, 2002).

Technology Implementation Challenges in the Department of Tourism Management at Tshwane University of Technology (TUT).

Tshwane University of Technology was established in 2006 due to the merger of institutions of higher learning in South Africa. Currently Tshwane University of Technology has more than 50 000 and over 5000 staff members. The specific challenges that the Tourism Department is faced with are:

Lack of systemic approach to e-learning implementation: The implementation of teaching and learning with technology needs to be fully defined and conceptualized from the onset. Unlike in the developed world like The Netherlands and UK have embraced the ICT integration process without clear plans to guide the way because of the financial and resources availability advantages. However the Faculty of Management Sciences in TUT needs to have a strategic plan in place that provides a framework for the development and implementation of teaching and learning with technology (Christie et al, 2004; Cowley et al, 2002; Lorillard, 2004).

Awareness and attitude towards e-learning: The University needs to conscientise the stakeholders about the facilities and services for elearning. When the stakeholders are aware of the elearning resources they will have a positive attitude towards elearning (Jones, 2008; Minton, 2000).

Administrative support: The continuous and binding support from the TUT administration is very important for the success of the sustainable elearning implementation with regard to policy, incentives and resources (Forest, 2008).
Technical support: The technical support is of crucial importance in terms of ensuring ongoing maintenance, uninterrupted bandwidth availability and security (Salmon, 2006).

Staff development: Implementation of e-learning should not be seen as another project in TUT however as part of staff development and student skills upliftment (Jones 2008; Minton 2000).

Lack of ownership: The successful implementation of e-learning at TUT should not depend only on Managers but all the stakeholders should be involved and play a role in the process (Laird, 2004; Mccombs & Vakili, 2005).

Inadequate funds: A good budget dedicated towards the implementation of e-learning will surely produce good results (Forest, 2008). For TUT to turn around the challenges of limited budget should attempt to attract more funding, the following suggestions may be considered:

i. adopt freeware and open source software for e-learning activities;

ii. continuously request funds from government; and

iii. approach variety of external private sources of funds to have a wide financial base.

Singh, O’Donoghue, and Worton (2003) and Laurillard (2004) indicates that for the students learning experience to be enhanced and affected positively and educational effectiveness to be achieved the Universities should develop a structure aimed at implementing teaching and learning with technology into their curriculum.

The degree to which lecturers and learners are prepared for technology innovation introduction could have an impact on how students and teachers adapt into innovation which will ultimately have an impact on effectiveness on technology innovation implementation.

Research Questions
What are the best practices, approaches and strategies of implementing technology innovation in the Tourism education at Tshwane University of Technology for the students and lecturers?

• What are the lecturer’s professional views on classroom technology and suitability for their professional use?
• What are the students’ preferences and performance level in terms of classroom technology?

• Are the teachers and learners convinced that the introduction of technology will have a positive effect on their current performance?

• Can a positive position be taken that there is a correlation between preferences for technology innovation implementation amongst the female students and male students?

**Hypothesis**

• the lectures have positive views of technology innovation in the classrooms;

• the student prefers e-learning as part of the classroom instructional systems;

• the teachers and learners current performance is directly influenced by the current classroom lecturing styles and

• there is a correlation between preferences for technology innovation implementation amongst the female students and male students.

The participants of the study are the tourism students at Tshwane University of Technology. The first year academic staff was selected for the study and 6 completed questionnaires were returned completed. From among approximately 424 students in the Tourism department a stratified random sample of size n=107 was selected. This figure was obtained by using the statistical package nQuery Advisor with the following assumptions: Level of significance of study it is equal to 5 percent. The proportion of students who are not well versed on innovative e-learning techniques varies from 10 percent to 15 percent (Rolando, 2009) based on the literature review conducted for the study. The sample power of the study is 81percent. To select the 107 students sample from the seven departments in the Faculty the researcher used stratified random sampling by using departments as strata. Of the 107 surveyed students 100 percent of the completed questionnaires were returned. Table 1 indicates the proportional allocation with regards to the sample size.
Table 1. Proportional allocation with regards to sample size

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of study</th>
<th>Total number of students</th>
<th>Proportion of Department</th>
<th>No of students selected into sample</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>150/424 = 0.3537</td>
<td>0.3537(107) = 23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>88/2424 = 0.1648</td>
<td>0.1648(107) = 21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>144/424 = 0.3396</td>
<td>0.3396(107)=53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>42/424= 0.0990</td>
<td>0.0990(107)=10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>N = 424 = Population size</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
<td>n = 107 = Sample size of study</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Developed for this study.

Data analyses are presented according to the four sub-questions of the study.

The data analysis was done by means of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) programme which provide researchers with an opportunity to analyse data from a descriptive statistics point to multiple regression techniques.

The data was analyzed in the following manner:

- Sub-question 1, 2 and 3 Pearson Chi-square tests was used
- Sub-question 4 a correlation analysis was used

Descriptive statistics was used to determine students and Lecturers preferences and professional views about technology innovation and whether technology innovation will be adaptable to their teaching and learning styles and furthermore whether technology innovation will have a positive impact on the student’s performance. Mean scores was calculated for each part of the survey. Pearson Chi-square test was used to test for association between two categorical variables. The interpretation was performed at 95% confidence limit.

Research Design

The study is based on the quantitative research method that is non experimental in nature. The quantitative methodologies are concerned with the primarily numeric data and seek to establish relationships and to explain causes of changes in measured social facts (George, 2008). According to White (2005) the quantitative research includes the experimental and non – experimental method. The non– experimental method include the descriptive and survey meth-
ods. The descriptive method and survey research method will be used for the study. White (2005) identifies the following characteristics of the descriptive approach:

- a numerical synopsis entailing correlation engagement which displays relationships between variables;
- an explanation of a specific characteristic frequent presence in sample and
- an detail explanation of a specific individual or group

The researcher used the survey research and individuals responded to the similar questions in the questionnaires and then the researcher organized the responses and conclusions were drawn from them. In conclusion of the survey research the responses were used to find solutions and new information about a problem in question (Holloway, 2004; Kotler, 2006).

**Data Collection**

The multi approach method of data collection ensures that there will be no bias or distortion on the reality of what is being studied. The triangulation method eliminates the study from being arrested in one method. The data collection was done on primary data and secondary data basis. The first leg of the primary data collection will be the pilot study.

The questionnaires form part of the quantitative data method. According to McMillan and Schumacher, (2001) questionnaires are low cost and can be highly confidential and can reach a large community of respondents. The researcher used the information gained from the intensive literature study based on the topic, the practical approaches towards implementation of teaching and learning with technology to develop and design relevant inquiry statements for the questionnaire. The questionnaires were handed out to the students in the classroom with a covering letter explaining the purpose of the study and instructions of how to complete the questionnaires. The researcher emphasized the confidentiality of responses. The pilot study was conducted prior to the actual research. The researcher handed out questionnaires to a group of students who does not for part of the target group and the feedback will be used to rectify any wrong or misunderstood questions.
Results

The Department of Tourism Management needs to draw up the Technology Innovation plan. This plan will guide the department efforts to pushing the boundaries of eLearning participation. Majority of the students used computers for more than 13 years. This means that the students have the computer skills. This indicates that the students have interest in using computers creatively. The lectures in the Tourism department should be encouraged to give students more work using technology. This can include class presentation on PowerPoint and electronic brochures.

Majority of the students are social butterflies and use face book, chat tools and use bbm and followed by Mixit and access it every day. Social media is a great tool for bringing the classroom to life. So instead of textbook Lectures should use social tools to share the most current articles, websites or content with students. By using these tools, they’re learning to be responsible for staying on top of industry trends and information.

Furthermore, the majority of the students use the messaging and discussion tools and use email followed by sms and use it every day followed by after sometimes in a week. Lectures can open up a group chat using a new online tool called Chatterous. Students can create an anonymous handle and use this chat while in the classroom and also they can use chat and e-mail to communicate during class. Using the chat, they can add their voice to the lecture as well as feeling like they have the agency to multitask while listening. Majority of the students do not play online games. The lectures should lecture students using gaming for the following reasons:

* **Motivation** - games can engage and motivate students and in doing so they are more likely to interact in topics covered;

* **Feedback to both the learner and the teacher** – outcomes help students to identify their current levels of achievement and staff can intervene, scaffold and adjust learning opportunities as necessary in relation to the outcomes;

For many students the nature of a game or quiz is *less threatening* than some other learning opportunities;

* **Review learning in the classroom** through *starters* and plenary and

* **Useful revision aids** and through online sources can be used to support independent revision by students

The following was the comments from the lecturers:
• The University should provide more technology facilities to students outside their formal classes;
• Laboratories not user friendly to the blind, voice recognition devices must be introduced;
• The Lecturers should undergo monthly workshops to improve technology use;
• E-learning should become a subject in end user computing;
• All lecture venues must have wireless internet;
• Student should pay a levy for the University to buy laptops for their individual use;
• Mobile projectors must be made available to all Lectures;
• Each classroom should be equipped with mounted data projector;
• All lectures must be forced to use MyTutor;
• Instructional designers should be appointed in each department;
• Lectures should receive technology training each semester and
• All Lectures should access University network at home and must be provided with laptops.

Conclusion

Survey results indicate that the dominant classroom technology in the faculty departments takes the shape of PowerPoint presentations. Given this scenario the staff remains arrested in the system of face to face student –lecturer classroom interaction. The majority of the classrooms are fitted with the projectors mounted in lecture rooms for lecturers to upload their teaching material and teach otherwise a lecturer have to rely on mobile projector technology which take the classroom time due to setting up of the equipment before the lecture start. Even though the majority of the classrooms have mounted projectors according the survey results majority of the lectures do not know how to upload their presentations due to the lack of formal training in technology instructional methods. Lecturers should be trained in technology pedagogy immediately after recruitment and when instructional technology becomes more widely available, lecturers would be in a position to achieve electronic related pedagogical objectives.
Assessing students has also become very difficult, as most lecturers do not give assignments, and those who do cannot provide students with much feedback. Feedback provided to students is normally grades without comments. The results indicate that over 65 percent of the first year students are computer literate which points to the immediate need to introduce classroom technology in the curriculum.

TUT as an institution has a very bureaucratic culture of policy and procedure. This culture may be a major obstacle to adopting and implementing e-learning systems. For an example, the student class attendance policy indicates that a student's physical presence forms part of the number of credit hours earned in a subject and counted toward attainment of the qualification.

When clearly stated the policy indicate that all students shall attend all lectures for the courses which they registered as a precondition to qualify for the final examinations. Any student who is absent from lectures proper permission for a total of 80 percent or more shall be deemed not to have satisfied the attendance requirements and shall not be allowed to take part in the final examinations. The Tourism Department should play a major role in ensuring that the university rethinks this policy as it can somehow defeat the purposes of teaching and learning with technology.

From the survey results it is clear that some instructors prefer the old to the new methods of instruction and the following issues that resulted into this scenario are:

- Lack of staff rewards;
- Lack of financial support;
- Lack of sufficient technical support;
- Outdated equipment in the classrooms;
- Staff attitudes towards new technology;
- Lectures confidence in the current status quo;
- Lecturers lack of confidence in themselves in terms of using the new systems and
- Previous negative experience in using classroom technology.

For the Department of Tourism to be able to overcome these challenges the adoption of an e-learning system skills development in the form of ongoing
training becomes important. Another worrying factor for the faculty to successfully execute their training will be finding appropriate and sufficient time. To defeat the time challenge, the faculty will have to put in place the training and ensures that there is a committee that is in charge and offer adequate support.

Furthermore the benefits of training will include:

- The e-learning implementers will have a broader view of resources needed beyond computers and computer literacy crush courses;
- The positive attitudes and motivation will be enhanced amongst the staff;
- Educated and experience staff capable of implementing e-learning systems into the future and
- Ensure adequate and directed technical support.

The Tourism Department must have clearly defined technology innovation strategic plan that spell out e-learning policies and implementation strategies. This will call for the initiation of a committee that will ensure that the e-learning innovation plan is implemented successfully. The technology innovation committee should comprise members from the wider faculty community for proportional representation. To make sure that the Department start on the right foot the committee members selected should have passion and vision for technology innovation. Committee members must be visionaries with enthusiasm for innovation in educational delivery.

The technology innovation plan should address the following issues:

- Innovation goals and objectives;
- Should not neglect to be in line with the university-wide strategic plan;
- Should include bandwidth management and use;
- The university management involvement;
- The electronic innovation management strategies;
- The electronic innovation sustainability;
- The budget implications content development;
- The technical staff development and support;
- New student enrollment and change management;
• Staff workload implications;
• The intellectual property rights;
• The learners and lecturers expectations and skills;
• Future of technology innovation and
• Monitoring and evaluation of innovation.

Finally, when all this recommendations are put in action the Tourism Department will have created a platform of success for the adoption of e-learning instructional methods and implementation of appropriate supporting technologies with an appropriate technology innovation strategic plan.

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Tourism Development and Growth Challenges Facing Tokologo Municipality Area in the Free State Province

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Abstract
The Tourism Satellite Account (2010) indicate that a total of 599 412 people in 2008 were directly employed by the tourism industry. According to the South Africa Tourism annual report (2007) 61.3% of the foreign visitors’ purpose of visit was leisure. Recreational and Leisure Tourism is a major foreign and domestic visitor’s motivation to travel factor in South Africa. The South African Cabinet in October 2010 approved South African New Growth Plan of which the plan identifies tourism as one of the six core pillars of economic growth in South Africa. The Tokologo Municipality is one of the developing urban areas in South Africa. The paper reports on the challenges that are stifling tourism development and growth in the Tokologo Municipality area. Data was collected by means of survey and interview. The conclusions and recommendations attempt to demonstrate ways in which the Municipality can take advantage of the tourism potential in the area.

Key words: Growth, tourism development, municipality.

Introduction
Globally, tourism is one of the main growing economic sectors. Since the end of the Apartheid era in South Africa’s natural beauty assisted the development of the tourism industry. Currently, The South African labour industry’s absorption rate is more appealing than other competitive sectors. Due to the 2010 Soccer world Cup, South Africa has, benefitted from increased international tourism. Tourism in South Africa has over the past 50 years been one of the fastest-growing industries in the face of economic recessions, high fuel prices and the security and health risks linked to tourism in South Africa accounts for 3% of national GDP. Foreign arrivals in South Africa in 2008, was 9.5 million and in 1994 accounted for three million arrivals. The Tourism Sector Strategy mentions that in 2008, 14 million local South Africans travelled within the country about 33 million trips. The long term investment has been the 2010 Soccer
World Cup (SA Tourism, 2010; George, 2011). Free State Province is geographically located at the centre of South Africa.

Background

The State of the Province Address of the 4th March 2011, sparked interest of the Free state Province the Planning Commission to review of the Free State Growth and Development Strategy. The main aim is to develop such a strategy is that will have a comprehensive approach towards the Free State Economic Development by offering a framework for sustainable growth and economic development for the Province over a ten years period (2004 – 2014) (FSGD, 2007). The following primary objectives will be addressed in the FSGDS:

- stimulation economic development;
- development and enhancement of infrastructure;
- reduction of poverty;
- economic development;
- safe and secure environment for all and
- effective and efficient governance and administration.

The following Key Priority Areas and Strategies that South African Provinces needs to focus on in order to achieve the National Spatial Development Program are identified in the following six categories (FSGD 2007):

- innovation and experimentation;
- high value, differentiated goods;
- labour-intensive, mass-produced goods;
- public services and administration;
- retail and services and
- tourism.

The Case of Tokologo Municipality

Tokologo Municipality is located within Lejweleputswa District Municipality in the Free State Province. The Tokologo Local Municipality area covers 9326 sq km and comprises Boshof, Dealesville, Hertzogville, and Moddervaal which is made out of 1480 farms. The Tokologo Municipality area will be discussed as follows (Ingle, 2007):
**Boshof**

The town is located approximately 124km to the west of Bloemfontein and 53km to the east of Kimberley, along the R64 (old Bloemfontein/Kimberley Road). Commercial and industrial activities are located in Boshof town centre. The business component of Seretse and Kareehof is made of lower order businesses like corner shops and taverns. Primary activities in Boshof are restricted to agriculture, which includes livestock farming, game farming and crop farming. Drought continues to be the major contributor of decline in the agricultural sector’s ability to absorb more workers. The commercial sector mainly consists of service provision to the agricultural community in the rural hinterland. Boshof pride itself with hunting farms attracting tourism.

**Hertzogville**

The town is located approximately 140km to the north of Bloemfontein and 93km to the north of Boshof town along the R59 (Road to Christiana). The trade and service sector provide for local urban and farming community only. Hertzogville is not located along the major roads thoroughfares between large urban centers and resulting in not having any external source of revenue growth in the retail and service industry. Hertzogville industrial sector consists of the cooperative where agricultural products are processed, the abattoir and a few light industrial activities relating to vehicle maintenance and the agricultural sector. Tourism is limited to visitors to the municipality’s Palmietpan Nature Reserve.

**Dealesville**

The town is geographically located 55km to the south east of Boshof and 69km to the west of Bloemfontein along the R64 (old Bloemfontein/Kimberley Road). The economy is primarily focused on agriculture based on crop and livestock farming and salt works at some of the numerous salt pans in the area. Dealesville and Tshwaraganang are separated by vacant land. The surrounding area comprises irrigation and stock farms. Approximately 200ha of land was available for future development according to the IDP. The municipality has ownership of commonage land used for agricultural purposes. Currently in the Tokologo Municipality area Research & Development is in the following areas (Tokologo Municipality IDP 2011\212:

- innovation: to explore utilization of the salt pans as the means for income-base generation;
• production: high value differentiated goods focusing on local & global niche markets (agricultural, manufacturing or natural resources based) and

• tourism eco-scenery, cultural heritage, entertainment, high-quality restaurants & accommodation and average tourism potential due to game farming.

Problem Statement

The tourism development and growth challenges facing the Tokologo Municipality area in the Free State Province.

What are the general tourism development and growth challenges facing the Tokologo Municipality in the Free State Province.

• What is the current tourism development status quo in Tokologo Municipality area;

• What are the key constraints of tourism growth in Tokologo Municipality area and

• What are the steps that the Tokologo Municipality should engage to correct the situation.

Methodology

The Tokologo Municipality department of Local Economy Development was selected for this study. The Tokologo Municipality department of Local Economy Development was relevant for the study as part of its duties is to develop strategies for Events, Adventure, Eco-Tourism and Tourism Management in the area. The research focused on Tokologo Municipality department of Local Economy Development only and excluded other Lejweleputswa District Local Municipalities.

The questionnaire, interview and secondary data (literature) was used to collect the data. The researcher adapted questionnaire into the tourism development and growth concepts and environment challenges as indicated on the South African Tourism white paper (1996). The questionnaire consisted of two sections. Section A is the demographic data while Section B is the tourism development and growth area. Due to the time efficiency and conducive research environment the researcher was able to conduct interviews and collect the questionnaire the same day. Secondly literature based data collection was done. The secondary data collection was drawn from sources like the Statistics

This study is significant as it aims at determining challenges with regard to tourism growth and development in the Tokologo Municipality area. The study will contribute strategies that should generate interest in tourism activities in and around Tokologo Municipality area. These strategies could be used by the Tokologo Municipality Local Economic Development in an attempt to attract more tourists to take part in the tourism activities as part of vibrant tourism development and growth.

Results

Tourism development in Tokologo Municipality has largely been a neglected opportunity. Had its tourism organization and structure been different, Tokologo Municipality would probably have been one of the most visited places in the Free State Province. The neglecting of tourism development resulted in the tourism industry in Tokologo Municipality been protected from generating economic growth competition, attracting long stay tourists. Therefore, the ability of the tourism industry to encourage entrepreneurship, to create new businesses, to strengthen rural communities, to generate foreign exchange and to create employment, remained a farfetched dream.

Inadequately resourced and funded tourism industry: Tokologo Municipality has had a limited view of the potential of tourism in the area and, as a result very few resources have been devoted to developing and let alone promoting the sector.

Myopic private sector: Tokologo Municipality has limited tourism establishments; tend to have a rather limited view of the product they offer – only game farming and accommodation. Let alone the planned Cultural Centre.

Limited development scope due to Municipality strategy and planning: The Tokologo Municipality policies have placed severe constraints on the development scope of the tourism in the area. While the potential of Tokologo Municipality as a tourism destination has been acknowledged, this potential could not effectively be realized due to lack of tourism growth and development plan.
and strategic marketing plan making it hard to attract more tourists to this place.

Limited involvement of local communities: Another major challenge in Tokologo Municipality is the poor involvement of local communities and previously neglected groups in the industry. The need to reverse this situation is of urgent importance. Local communities are not involved because of the following factors:

- lack of information and awareness;
- lack of know-how and training;
- lack of finance;
- lack of interest on the part of existing establishments to build partnerships with local communities and suppliers and
- lack of incentives to reward private enterprise that build or develop local capacity and create job opportunities.

The local communities in Tokologo Municipalities have never been meaningfully exposed to the tourism industry and have not benefited from the country’s vast resources. These have contributed to the following consequences:

- Complete lack of knowledge and understanding of what tourism really is - there is a perception that tourism refers only to people traveling around and staying in hotels. The wider opportunities offered by tourism are not appreciated.
- Lack of training opportunities for the society effectively limits meaningful participation in the tourism industry.
- Inability to access finance to take advantage of entrepreneurial opportunities provided by the tourism sector.
- Lacks of involvement - Tokologo Municipality community have not been involved in the planning, decision-making, investment, development or promotion of the tourism industry. Communities have not been involved or consulted in respect of major investment decisions or developments proposed for areas in which they live.
- Negative attitudes - negative attitudes exist within the industry towards small town’s tourism products which are sometimes viewed with skepticism and regarded as inferior.
Lack of market access - local communities lack access to the lucrative tourism markets as visitors are kept within the Guesthouses and resorts. For the local Shebeens, Taverns or township tours are a rare occasion.

Inadequate training, education and awareness: The previously neglected groups in society are highly disadvantaged and the job of leveling the playing field is a massive one. One of the key vehicles for doing so is education and training - a basic necessity that the majority of the population has not had access to.

Water shortages and pollution: Tokologo Municipality is a water-scarce area and shortages and pollution of groundwater is the major threats to the area as currently majority of local communities rely on this type of water supply.

Poor service delivery: There is a general culture of poor basic community service delivery in Tokologo Municipality which has a major impact on tourism and related sectors.

Lack of infrastructure, in urban and rural areas: There is a lack of infrastructure in the Tokologo Municipality urban and rural areas, which limits the participation of local communities in the tourism industry. In addition, the absence of adequate transportation services effectively prevents rural and urban communities from taking part in the tourism activities, both as potential suppliers of services, and as tourists.

Lack of appropriate institutional structures: The lack of commitment to the tourism industry in Tokologo Municipality is partially evident from the fact that tourism shares the portfolio with various sectors within the Local Economic Development scope.

Conclusion

The recommendations and conclusions are discussed as follows:

Inadequately resourced and funded tourism industry: Tokologo Municipality need to view tourism as strategically important to the economic growth in the area and the necessary plans, policies, actions and resources to support this initiative should be put in place, otherwise tourism will continue to be a neglected opportunity. Adequate funding should be invested to establish a working and efficient Tokologo Municipality Tourism Authority.

Myopic private sector: The Tokologo Municipality should encourage local community to be involved in various tourism initiatives to promote meaningful
community participation and shareholding. Furthermore, the Tokologo Municipality should build partnerships with the government and other private sector so that the highest levels of tourism growth and development to be achieved. The need to reverse limited involvement of local communities is of urgent importance. The factors limiting the meaningful involvement of local communities in the tourism industry can be reversed by doing the following (Monyane, 2008; Middleton, 2008):

- Provision of information and awareness;
- Provision of know-how and training;
- Provision of finance;
- Encourage interest on the part of existing establishments to build partnerships with local communities and suppliers and
- Provision of incentives to reward private enterprise that build or develop local capacity and create job opportunities.

*Inadequate training, education and awareness:* The Free State Province where the Tokologo municipality resides have Universities and Colleges that offer Tourism and hospitality training. The Skills training at the lowest levels (bar-men, cleaners, porters) is mainly done in the private colleges or as an internship. The Tokologo Municipality should make available financial assistance to assist the deserving community members in obtaining tourism skills from these training institutions. Furthermore, The Tokologo Municipality should negotiate with the established tourism private sector enterprises to in service training to locals.

*Poor service delivery:* The Tokologo Municipality should shape up out of the poor basic community services delivery culture within the local communities’ area. The poor basic community services delivery have an impact on the tourism growth and development in Tokologo Municipality area. The local communities should be encouraged to assist the Municipality in ensuring the basic community service delivery is achieved. This can be done through community volunteering and non-governmental organizations involvement.

*Lack of infrastructure:* The Tokologo Municipality should strike deals with private sector to develop the infrastructure and transportation in the Tokologo Municipality to the benefit of tourism development and growth.

*Lack of appropriate institutional structures:* The development of inclusive, effective national, provincial and local structures for the development, manage-
ment and promotion of the tourism sector in Tokologo Municipality area is highly recommended. The objectives and goals of these structures must be influenced by the new mandate, mission and vision for the Tokologo Local municipality in line with the Free State Growth and Development plan objectives.

Tourism security: The long term Strategic Tourism Security plan should be developed in conjunction with the Local Police Services and Communities in the Tokologo Municipality area. This is essential in ensuring sustainable tourism growth and development. The implementation of this recommendation will ensure that the Tokologo Municipality has the potential to achieve the objectives of the Tourism Growth and Development Programme, which include: creation opportunities for the small entrepreneur, promotion of awareness and understanding among different cultures; breeding of a unique tourism sector and creation of new type of tourism like agri-tourism and mine tourism in the area. This will further ensure that tourism in Tokologo Municipality encourage other sectors of the economy to generate new and innovative employment opportunities.

References


Perception of Young University Women about the Recreation Activities Influence on the Student Life Style

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Abstract
The paper reports on the female students’ perception of recreation activities influence on their life style. Most of the Universities in one way or the other incorporates recreational activities for both male and female students. However the women students are likely to be active in the recreational activities attracted by the benefits. The survey was done in the private students residences. Forty questionnaires were randomly distributed amongst female students. A total of hundred percent questionnaires were returned. This paper further reports on finding, conclusions and recommendations. The results assist to understand the perceptions and expectations of University female students with regard to recreation activities as part of the student life style.

Key words: recreation, leisure, health, students, sports.

Introduction
According to the South Africa Tourism (2007) annual report 61.3% of the foreign visitors’ purpose of visit was recreation and leisure. Recreational and Leisure Tourism is a major foreign and domestic visitor’s motivation to travel factor in South Africa. The South African Cabinet in October (2010) approved South African New Growth Plan identifying tourism as one of the six core pillars of economic growth in South Africa. The South African Government Tourism Medium-Term Strategic Framework (2009) election manifesto identifies the following overall priorities in order of importance:

- creating decent work and sustainable livelihoods;
- education;
- health;
- rural development, food security and land reform and
• fight against crime and corruption, and building cohesive and sustainable communities.

Health and education form part of the pillars of the priority sectors. Health and education are associated with recreation and leisure which form part of the tourism industry. In South Africa recreation and leisure particularly is seen as having a positive impact on the well being of the community particularly young women who are engaged in their studies or professions. This paper reports on the perceptions of young university women with regard to the influence of recreation and leisure activities on their life style.

Literature review

Recreation can be defined as an activity that an individual or a group do during leisure time. According Gouws (2001) recreation can be classified in five different ways:

• physical recreation, which includes sport and games;
• community recreation, which is part of social recreation;
• public recreation, the public pays a certain fee to use the facilities;
• voluntary recreation where the public have a choice whether to participate;
• commercial recreation where profit is made, and
• industrial recreation taking place within an enterprise.

In South Africa statistics, indicates that only 2.5 million of the 12.5 million South African women aged 18 years and older participate in recreation and sports activities. Approximately 11.2% of women participate in sport, compared to 42.6% of men, clearly demonstrating that out of four men one is participating in recreation and sports against ten women one is participating in recreation and sports (Department of Sports and Recreation, 2005). Female students have an interest to be involved in recreation activities. According to research conducted there was evidence to support the phenomenon that men and women’s motives for participating in sport are different. Women participate more for intrinsic values like fun, health, friendship not to compete because of being less competitive than male counterparts (Chantel, Guay, Debreva-Martinova, & Vallerand, 1996).
Recreation Activities Benefits

Recreational activities have a wide variety of benefits and most are available to everyone regardless of age, gender or ability. Some of the recreational benefits especially for the female students are as follows (Massachusetts Recreation and Parks Association, 2012):

**Societal benefits:** Participation in recreation involves the development of intimate relationship which results in social identities expressed. The recreational sports are a crucial part of students’ quality of life on campus and to a University’s recruitment and retention of students (The National Intramural Recreational Sports Association [NIRSA], 2012).

**General health:** Recreational activities can lower levels of cardiovascular responses to stress, anxiety and depression. Recreational sport activities assist in triggering positive moods, such as in communicating and eating patterns and reduce the usual impact of more severe life threatening illness symptoms. Furthermore, the risk of having a heart attack reduced by 50% among women (Massachusetts Recreation and Parks Association, 2012).

**The case of Tshwane University of Technology (TUT):** TUT recreation activity and sport is organized by the Bureau for Sport Development (TUT Sport Bureau 2012). TUT University has about several sporting codes registered for participation in both winter and summer South African Students Sport Union (SASSU) games. TUT have world class recreation and sports facilities which attract provincial, national and international teams e.g. Super Sport United playing in the Premier Soccer League use TUT soccer grounds as their training village, Northern Blues hockey association also use TUT Astro- turf stadium as their home ground.

A study conducted by Kriel (2000, pp.58-59) at TUT indicated that only 20% of both male and female students participated in sport and recreational activities. There was only 30% of on campus resident students who indicated that they participate in sport and recreational activities. About 15% of off campus residing day students indicated that they participate in sport and recreation activities at TUT Pretoria Campus.

**Problem Statement**

The study is geared in finding out the perception of the female University students’ participation in the recreational activities and influence on their lifestyle.
What is the perception of the female students with regard to the recreation and leisure activities and the influence on student life style.

- What is the perceptions of the female students’ involvement in the recreation activities;
- What types of recreational programs that female students’ prefer to participate in;
- What are the female students’ challenges of participating in recreational activities and
- What is the perception of female students about the influence of recreational activities on their student life style.

**Methodology**

Forty female students were selected randomly for this study. The students were from the private University students residences in Pretoria, South Africa. The majority of female students who participated had studied in the management fields. The responses where from female students and excluded the male students. Focusing the study on the management female students was a good idea because the courses are somehow recreation and leisure orientated.

The questionnaire was used to collect the data. The researcher adapted the recreational questionnaire of Kamal et. al. (2010). The questionnaire consisted of four sections. Section A is the demographic data while Section B is the perception of recreational activities. Section C is participation in recreational activity. Section D looks at the respondents’ challenges towards recreational activity and the impact on student life style. The respondents in the private residences were provided with similar copies of questionnaires and each female student had to answer the questionnaire at the time given. Due to the time efficiency and conducive research environment the researcher was able to distribute and collect the questionnaires the same day.

This study is significant as it aims at determining the perceptions of female students with regard to recreation activities at the University. The study will contribute strategies that should generate female students’ interest in recreation activities, by informing them about the opportunities and benefits they can gain by participating in recreation activities. These strategies could be used by the Universities Student Affairs, Faculties, Academic Departments, Residence Departments and Bureau for Sport Development in an attempt to attract female students to take part in recreation activities as part of vibrant student life.
Results

The data results and analysis will be discussed as follows:

Section A (Respondents’ background)

On the respondents’ age.

The result shows that majority where 19 years old and a total of 7 respondents or 17.5% of the respondents were 20 years old while 7 respondents or 17.5% of the respondents were 21 years old.

On the respondents’ marital status.

The result indicated that 40 students or 100% were single.

On the respondents’ place of residence.

The results indicate that 29 respondents or 100% of the respondents live off campus.

On the question do you participate in recreational activity regularly. The respondents (30%) perceived themselves as participating in recreational activity regularly while 28 respondents (70%) said they do not participate in recreational activity regularly.

Section B (Perception of recreational activities)

On the respondents’ perceptions towards recreational activity. The question was which of the following are included in your perception of recreation? The majority of the respondents (52.5%) perceived recreational activity as a hobby. The 50% of the respondents answered social interaction, 15% of the respondents chose recreational activity as maintaining good health, 30% of the respondents chose tourism and reducing stress. The remaining respondents chose recreational activity as voluntarily participation with (25%) while 7.5% of the respondents chose sensual pleasure and 17.5% of the respondents’ perceived recreational activity as play or amusement.

On the importance of recreation in the respondents’ life. The question was how would you evaluate the importance of recreation in your life? The total of 57.5% or 17 respondents perceived recreational activity as important in their lives. 2.5% or 1 respondents have answered unimportant while 40 % or 16 respondents have chosen very important.
Section C (Recreational Activity Participation).

On recreational activities participation. The question was what recreational activity did you most participate in? The majority of the respondents (37.5%) said they mostly participated in sports. 33% or 13 respondents have choose outdoor activities whereas 10% or 4 respondents chose other and other activity can be defined as any activity except outdoor activity, leisure activity and sports. It can be dancing, singing, playing music, watching movie and etc. 30% or 12 respondents said leisure activity as a part of recreation program they most participated in.

Section D (Challenges towards recreational activity)

On voluntary recreational activities. The question was have you ever participated in recreational activities voluntarily? About 13 students said they do not participate in recreational activity regularly. Thus, a majority of 67.5% or 27 students participate in recreational activity regularly.

On the choice of starting doing recreational activity. The question was is there any recreational activity that you would like to participate in/start doing regularly? The total of 33 respondents or 82.5% of the respondents have responded ‘Yes’. The remaining 17.5% or 7 respondents have chosen no for that question.

On the respondents’ will to participate in recreational activity. The question was I just don’t have a will to participate in recreational activities. At least 23 or 57.5% of the respondents strongly disagreed that they do not have a will to participate in recreational activities. The 32.5% or 14 respondents have answered neutral to the statement while 7.5% or 3 respondents have chosen agree to the statement.

On the Inappropriate University social environment. The question was the university social environment is inappropriate to participate in leisure activities. A total of 6 or 15% of the respondents agree that the University social environment is inappropriate for them to participate in recreational activity. 4 or 10% of the respondents strongly agreed while a majority (40%) have answered disagree.

On the Positive influence student life. The question was recreational activities can influence my student life positively. About 14 or 35% of the respondents agree that recreational activity can positively influence student life. 12 or 30% of the respondents strongly agreed while (17.5%) have answered neutral. The remaining 7 or 17.5% of the respondents disagreed.
Conclusions

Section A. (Respondents background)

Age.

Majority of the respondents are 19 years old and the following recommendations are made: The University should make available resources to make it possible for the female students to participate in recreational activities. It is the goal of the South African Government to inculcate the culture of a healthy young generation to produce a healthy future generation of leaders.

Marital status

Majority of the respondents are single and the following recommendations are made: Single people have disposal time to participate in the recreational activities. The University Marketing Department, Bureau of Students development should make information available to the students about the available recreational activities on campus.

Place of residence

Majority of the respondents resides off campus and the following recommendations are made: The challenge of the majority of female students not staying off campus premises at Universities is that they are unable to participate in recreation activities due to the transport. The transport arrangement is such that the student who does not reside on campus will be collected at 19:00 in Town and 21:00 will be the last bus taking them back to Town. The transport schedule needs to be revisited so that the students staying off campus can be accommodated to participate in the recreation activities on campus.

Majority of the respondents do not participate in recreational activities regularly and the following recommendations are made: Universities Student Life Department, Sports Development and Faculties must encourage students to participate in recreational activities. This can be done during the open day times through demonstrating the benefits of participating in recreational activities. Some of the benefits that female students who join recreational activities provided by the University are:

- improve their leadership skills
- improve self confidence
- develop critical thinking skills,
- create problem solving strategies,
• enhance creativity,
• promote and experience physical and
• emotional health

The University’s Academic Departments should incorporate recreational activities somehow as part of the curriculum emphasizing these benefits.

Section B (Perceptions of recreational activities)

Majority of the respondents view recreational activities as a hobby and the following recommendations are made: A lot of students perceive recreation as a hobby, social interaction and extreme sports. The implication of this may be that student uses the recreation activities as playing a role of occupying the time that will have been lost especially during University holidays. This finding further suggests that students are willing and passionate participants towards recreational activities. The University should ensure that the female student’s recreational activities resources are catered for within the University campus. Majority of the respondents indicated that recreation is very important in their student life style and the following recommendations are made: Academic Department, Residence Life Department and Student Development should educate more on physical health so that students may realise the importance of recreational activities.

Section C (Recreational activities participation)

Majority of the respondents participated in sports and outdoor recreation activities and the following recommendations are made: The findings imply that female students enjoy doing sports and outdoor activities like netball and swimming. Outdoor activities include mountain climbing, camping, and sky diving. The reason behind these female students interest in outdoor activities is because they are more challenging and can be adventurous. The university should ensure that outdoor and sports activities are available and promoted for the female students.

Section D (Challenges towards recreational activities)

Majority of the respondents participate in recreation activities voluntarily (refer to table 8) and the following recommendations are made: The results imply that students are interested in joining recreational activities. Challenges are normally prevalent making it hard for students to participate in recreational activities. One of the major student challenges is lack of enough time. For the
University to get the students to participate in recreational activities, compulsory recreational activities for the students on and off campus should be organized. Majority of the respondents will start doing other recreational activities (refer to table 9) and the following recommendations are made: Given the findings it can be concluded that the female students are willing to participate in the recreational activities. The university should provide more facilities and equipment for the students to use at anytime on campus aimed at providing the students with a wide variety of recreational activities to choose. This will surely attract the student’s interest towards recreational activity and will be motivated even further.

Majority of the respondents disagreed that they are not willing to participate in recreational activities and the following recommendations are made: The University should create an environment where students can have an equal opportunities to participate in recreational activities freely. The benefits for the students of doing this include,

- increased number of participation
- vibrant teamwork,
- systematic cooperation,
- interactive social connection and
- leadership skills development

Faculties and Academic Departments need to get involved in the management of recreation activities at the University and by doing so students will receive firsthand information about planned recreation events in lecture rooms, department information desk and notice boards. Majority of the respondents agree that the University environment is appropriate for them to participate in recreational activities and the following recommendations are made: The research indicates that the majority of female students do not participate in recreation sports activities due to the following Universities inappropriate environment factors (Nthangeni 2006):

- inadequate students consultation;
- inadequate Student Representative Council engagement;
- insufficient school level exposure to a variety of recreational activities;
- overexposure and pressure to perform at school level;
- relaxed freedom at University vs. strict rules during school;
• safety after hours, more specifically day students, as they are required to travel to and from campus in the evening and they do not have sufficient transport and
• exposure to a large variety of social activities which are more attractive than rigorous recreation and sports training and competition programmes.

The University should turn this situation around by ensuring that there is:

• adequate students consultation;
• adequate Student Representative Council engagement;
• new student recruitment exposed to sufficient information about recreational activities;
• strict rules at University;
• visible security after hours for day students, as they are required to travel to and from campus in the evening and sufficient transport and
• more attractive recreational programmes.

Majority of the respondents agree that recreation activities can positively influence their student life and the following recommendations are made: The university must play a role in informing and educating the students about the advantages of joining recreational activities which include interaction with other students which can improve their social skills and peer support and ultimately academic performance including maintaining good health. The University Sport Development should together with Financial Aid have financial incentives in place for the female students participating in recreational activities. The idea is to make campus orientated recreation more enjoyable as part of the student life style and motivate the majority of female students to participate.

**Conclusion**

Universities in Pretoria are one of the leading higher education institutions in South Africa having quality recreational sport facilities in their campuses. Should these suggested strategies in this paper be implemented, will help the Universities to effectively use recreation and sports resources and facilities to enhance student life style and attract more female students to participate in recreational activities. The participation of more female students in recreational activities will ensure a better and quality student life style and healthy future generation of leaders that South Africa needs.
References


Sustainability of Tourism Development: *Maurice Ile Durable* as a Model for the Future of Tourists Receiving Countries

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Abstract

In 2009 the Government of Mauritius formulated the policies regarding the Maurice Ile Durable Project. This is an ambitious project involving various stakeholders namely those responsible for the various sectors of the economy. The idea is to develop an institutional framework based on the concept of participative democracy so that all future development projects take in to account the vital importance of durability and sustainability. Tourism being one of the major industries in the country and a major stakeholder, it has now become imperative for all tourism plans for the future to be devised in accordance with the exigencies of sustainability and along the lines of MID. The various components of MID have been identified as: Sustainable Energy; Ecotourism; Transport and Land Use; Health and Environment; Sustainable Agriculture and Culture. This paper will endeavor to show the concept of MID as an appropriate model for other countries that are also dependent on the tourism industry as a major source of revenue, a provider of employment, an initiator of the multiplier effect for economic buoyancy and a significant contributor to the increase of wealth and welfare based on spillover effects. The main challenge facing these countries today are the issues of carrying capacity and the finite nature of resources. It is therefore necessary to look at the industry more as a long lasting one based on reasonable numbers of arrivals instead of exponential figures that may defeat the purpose of sustainability.

*Key words:* Sustainability, ecotourism, environment, social and economic impacts, infrastructure and superstructure

Introduction

MID – Maurice Ile Durable is a local, government policy that sets out the means and methods to convert Mauritius into a sustainable island. This objective is to be achieved by getting all stakeholders on board with a view to re-think the ways we have been doing thing and to establish guidelines how development should be conducted. However, MID has also been defined as a *projet de société* (a social Project), ‘a way of being’, ‘a culture’, ‘an attitude’ (UOM report, 2009).

*Features of Mauritius:* Mauritius, that has a population of 1.2m, is made up of a group of islands of volcanic origin with a total area of around 2045 square
kilometers, a total coastline of 496 km, 16,840 square kilometers of territorial sea and 1.9m square kilometres of EEZ (Exclusive Economic Zone). The main island has the following dependencies: Rodrigues, Saint Brandon, Agalega, Tromelin, Chagos, Archipalago and a number of outlying islands. Diego Garcia and Tromelin are disputed islands as there is litigation between Mauritius and UK and the United States regarding the former and with France regarding the latter. An agreement has been reached with the French government for a joint management of Tromelin, although nothing tangible has happened yet. All the population on the main island lives within 100 km of the coast. The mainland has an area of 186.75 square kilometers. The main economic activities in the coastal zone are tourism and fisheries. Tourism contributes to 8.7% of GDP and fisheries sector 1.3% (CSO, 2011).

The Threats to the Coastal Zone: Over the past decade, there has been enormous pressure on lands near the coastal line. Development pressure on the coastal and marine resources of the island has increased. A number of new hotels, luxury villa complexes and other infrastructures have been built close to the shore line, following the same pattern as in earlier years (MSINAR, 2010). The Integrated Coastal Zone Management (ICZM) strategies, policies and guidelines have been finalized and are expected to be propitious within the MID framework. Coastal areas, together with inland locations need special protection. Protected areas have a number of purposes, which include the protection and enjoyment of natural or cultural heritage, the conservation of biodiversity and maintenance of ecological life-support services (IUCN, 1991).

MID and Climate Change: It is a truism that climate change will be the greatest, long term threat to biodiversity in many regions including Mauritius. As the survival of the tourism industry depends on biodiversity, it is imperative for the MID consider ways and means to improve the biodiversity with a view to mitigate climate change effects. Landscapes and environment are the core resources for the tourism industry (Middleton & Hawkins, 1998). Because of the shrinking and limited number of beachfronts remaining for further hotel development, Mauritius tourism strategy will have to rely more and more on ecotourism and inland tourism. Biodiversity conservation, sustainable tourism development and the MID will go hand in hand increasingly.

Transport and Communication: Regarding tourism development and MID, one of the most important areas that the MID policies will have to address will be transport and communication. Air transport and maritime transport will have to focus on if the MID targets are to be achieved in line with tourist fore-
casts. Conscious that an efficient air transport system is fundamental for the sustained development and prosperity of the country and in line with its target of 2.0m tourist arrivals in 2015 (this has since been revised to 2020 as a result of the recession in Europe), the Mauritian government has adopted a gradual air access liberalization policy since 2005 [...] and the airport is being expanded and modernized to cater for a 4.0m passengers per year capacity (MSINAR, 2010)

The purpose of this paper is to help to clarify the MID concept, consolidate and harness ongoing and future activities into a coherent thrust, and provide a framework in which all parties can be positioned for the best results, now and into the future. The MID Support Project is a three-tier intervention that includes: (i) a national policy process that will provide the much needed framework for MID, (ii) support for the MID Fund, and (iii) provision of essential technical expertise (UNDP Newsletter December, 2009). According to the UOM report (2009), MID should be defined in terms of a shared vision based on participative democracy; a set of priority orientations, projects, targets and expected outcomes within a time-frame, i.e. a coherent and consensual action plan; reference to agreed-upon standards and indicators within a dashboard signaling the level of progress towards turning the MID vision into reality.

At a later stage the 5 E’s were added to the initial programme to include five aspects, namely Energy, Economy, employment, Environment and Equity. The project Maurice Ile Durable (MID) is based on a long term vision of the Mauritian government at promoting sustainable development. The main crux of the matter is to make Mauritius less dependent on fossil fuel, with a target of 65% by the year 2028 through increased utilization of renewable energy and a more efficient use of energy in general. According to Rosnay (2008) this objective can be achieved through the use of biomass, bio-ethanol, biogas – 35%, solar – 15%, wind – 6%, hydro – 3%, cogeneration – 3% and waves – 3%. The project also includes the setting up of an Eco Park. For the implementation of the project a Maurice Ile Durable Fund was created with the following objectives:

a) Devising schemes for the preservation of local natural resources with a view to achieving sustainable development and adapting to climate change;

b) Setting up of projects to explore and harness all potential for local sources of renewable energy and to reduce dependency on imported fossil fuels;

c) Promotion of energy savings;
d) Setting up of programmes to reduce consumption of fossil fuels, achieve greater efficiency in the use of energy in enterprises, offices, homes, public sector, transportation sector and in hotels;

e) Devising schemes to encourage innovation by households as well as by businesses to produce their own energy requirements and for the sale of any surplus at a premium;

f) Setting up of programmes to reduce consumption of fossil fuels, achieve greater efficiency in these of energy in enterprises, offices, homes, public sector, transportation sector and in hotels;

g) Devising schemes to encourage innovation by households as well as by businesses to produce their own energy requirements and for the sale of any surplus at a premium;

h) The provision of grants of Rs. 10,000/- (ten thousand rupees per family who wants to purchase solar water heaters;

i) A grant of Rs. 20 m rupees to the Central Electricity Board, the sole electricity supplier, to provide compact fluorescent lamps at half the cost price to consumers.

j) A grant to the Bus Modernization programme to enable all bus operators to renew their fleet, at no extra cost, with new generation buses which are environmentally friendly with reduced emissions, more comfortable with low floors to speed and facilitate boarding;

Further to the above the Maurice Ile Durable concept also includes the following:

a) Projects and programmes to support efforts to protect the environment through recycling of waste, to encourage more efficient use of energy and to increase reliance on renewable energy;

b) Programmes for research and analysis pertaining to the development of renewable sources of energy and consumption trends and to ensure environmental sustainability;

c) Energy management programmes through networking with local and international partners;

d) Awareness campaigns on energy saving and the use of renewable energy sources.

Furthermore, the Ile Maurice Durable Fund will finance the above projects together with the following ones:
a) Street lighting – replacement of 15,468 lighting in rural and urban roads at the cost of Rs. 15.0m. This is expected to lead to monthly savings of Rs. 1.4m on electricity charges.

b) Lighting in schools, hospitals and public buildings – replacement of all conventional lightings by economic compact fluorescent lighting systems.

c) Solar water heating in hospitals

d) Replacement of traffic lights by LED signal lights at the cost of Rs 17.0m. LED lights have the advantage of low maintenance, longer design life, better visibility and high light intensity.

e) (Maurice Ile Durable, Ministry of Energy & Public Utilities, 2009)

**Literature Review**

Tourism is an important contributor to national economies, foreign exchange inflows and employment. The Mauritian tourism industry is no exception except that it now faces some major challenges.

**The Climate Challenge**

The Mauritian tourism industry like in the case of many other destinations is faced with the looming climate challenge. The threats are: loss of beaches due to erosion, coastal inundation, degradation of coastal ecosystems, saline intrusion and coral bleaching. Besides, coastal roads, property development, infrastructure and superstructure are also a threat in the long term. In some coastal areas like Grand Bay and Flic-en-Flac, development has been done without proper planning and in a haphazard way. Although it is not yet very clear how tourists or the industry as such will react to climate change, one thing for sure is that mitigation measures of climate change will come with a cost, such as levies on emissions (especially aviation emission) which will eventually increase the cost of air travel and cruising.

*International Financial Crisis:* The international financial crisis and the unstable Euro have had adverse impacts on the local tourism industry. Mauritius enjoyed a flourishing tourism development before being hit by the crisis. The industry expanded at the annual average rate of 7.1% from 2006 to 2008 with a peak of 15.1% in 2007 (CSO, 2008). However, in 2009, the sector showed a negative 6.4% growth (CSO 2010). As a long haul destinations far from its traditional markets (mostly European), the crisis place Mauritius at a competitive dis-
advantage compared to other destinations. More and, ore Europeans are now choosing destinations closer to Europe.

*Fluctuating Oil Prices:* Peak oil and the fluctuating prices have made matters worse. Currently, around 50% of all imported fuel is used for transportation (MSINAR, 2010) and the industry is heavily dependent on transport. Fluctuating oil prices, therefore, is a serious limiting factor for the growth of the industry. Furthermore, traffic congestion is a serious problem and increases carbon emissions. Congestions also increase transit time from airport to most of the coastal areas where most hotels are found.

*Land Resources:* There is a serious dearth of beach frontage sites for further development and it is estimated that there are no more than some 20-30 further coastal hotel sites that could be made available (MSINAR, 2010). The remaining sites have constraints such as cliffs, muddy/rocky beaches and poor access. Development of additional amenities will take time. A big portion of prime locations are being held under the IRS (Integrated Resort Scheme) and RES (Real Estate Schemes). The challenge will be to reclaim these lands. It is in the area of land resources that the interests of the travel and tourism industry and conservation are closely aligned (Middleton, 1998).

*Water Scarcity:* Tourism growth will result in increased water demand with the target of 2.0m tourist arrivals in 2015. This is an ambitious target formulated by government before the global economic crisis. Although, Mauritius will have now to review this target to more realistic forecast water continues to pose a serious problem. An 8% decreasing rainfall pattern has been observed and is attributed to climate change. As a result, tourism growth could pose a challenge to the water sector in terms of the increased capacity required.

*Competition with Other Destinations:* Rival destinations range from South Africa, Kenya and Tunisia to some European destinations, namely Spain, Portugal and Greece that could offer basically the same products.

The long-term sustainability of the tourism industry is also dependent on the set of policies and strategies adopted with regard to environmental protection, natural resource management and land use planning. In the Maurice Ile Durable (MID) project report 2008 emphasis is laid on:

Esthetics – Site selection, architecture, landscaping and physical planning should be in accordance with the MID. Biodiversity-related tourism should be high on the agenda. Participative democracy should be the basis for the success of the project (MID Analysis and Synthesis Report 2009). To get round the
above mentioned problems and in accordance with the MID broad outlines, the Ministry of Environment and Sustainable Development with the assistance of UNEP has developed the National Sustainable Consumption and production. Priority areas are:

*Sustainable Energy Consumption:* This will include energy audit, reduction of emissions, replacement of high energy consumption equipment and a strategic action plan on energy conservation.

*Sustainable Water Consumption:* Establishment of efficient plumbing codes and regulations, development of rain harvesting systems and audit of high water users

*Sustainable Building and Construction:* Buildings will have acceptable norms based on careful urban and rural planning; amendment of building regulations; amendment of building regulations among others.

*Integrated Solid Waste Management and Recycling:* Recycling of waste of supermarket wastes and diversion of organics waste from the hotel sector; elaboration of integrated waste management action plans in all local authorities.

*Sustainable Public Service Practices:* Government procurement procedures to be reviewed; monitoring of energy use and performance; implementation of environmental reporting in government departments.

*Improvement of market Supply and Demand of Sustainable products and Services:* Development of a national eco-labelling framework with an initial focus on agricultural and food products; promotion of sustainable products through financial incentives and improving their visibility.

*Education and Communication for Sustainable Lifestyles:* Develop locally adapted education resource materials on SCP; capacity building of NGOs on sustainable consumption; develop locally adapted education resources for SMEs on the benefits of best sustainable practices.

*The ‘Green Ceiling’:* The ‘green ceiling’ is a concept to depict the carrying capacity of a destination as shown below. This is an indication that has been established by the Ministry of Tourism (National Long Term Perspective Study: Vision 2020). Over development, it was decided, would destroy the up-market appeal of Mauritius, threaten the ecology of the lagoons and deprive Mauritians of a proper share of their own beaches. The study estimated that total capacity can be increased from the 5,300 (1997) and 15,000 rooms (2010) to 30,000 in 2020 to be in line with government forecasts. However, beyond the ‘green ceiling’,
more efforts have to be made in the promotion of ecotourism and sustainable tourism. The chart below shows that to reach the target of 2.0m arrivals, the country will have to double the level of hotel rooms and consequently raise the green ceiling to about two and a half times. This is where the MID project is expected to make a landmark in the tourism development of the country.

In spite of attempts to measure carrying capacity, it has proved difficult as every country’s profile and topology are not the same. The ‘green ceiling’ concept is more or less an acceptable method to assess the carrying capacity level.

**Criticism of MID:** There has been some serious criticism as to the validity and feasibility of MID. Most critics see this concept as a utopian and unrealistic dream or slogan for the government to catch votes. In its concluding remarks after a seminar organized by the University of Mauritius the report has this to say: “MID is likely to be an attitude rather than a project, a state of mind rather than an idea, a culture of consciousness rather than a programme” (Wordpress, 2009). This approach makes a sensible project look rather academic and theoretical that may not have public commitment.
Methodology

This is based mainly on the author’s work with limited references. As MID is a very new topic and concept in Mauritius the study has some serious limitations, the major one being the availability of literature. However, the work is based on the existing literature and some of the documents published by the concerned ministries and which are mentioned in the reference. The data are from the Central Statistics Office, Mauritius.

Conclusion

This study shows that MID is about to fill a gap as Mauritius is already experiencing the consequences of some of the negative effects of unplanned tourism development. It is necessary to devise policies within the MID together with a plan of action for tangible results. It is also more than ever necessary to identify some of the areas requiring protection in order to improve biodiversity and encourage eco-tourism. MID which is a new concept could be a strong instrument to revolutionize the urban and rural aspects of the country with a view to see a sustainable Mauritius for decades to come. Moreover, if implemented according to its initial outlines will also accompany a sustainable tourism industry in its future development.

References


Glossary

Led light – Light emitting diode light

List of Abbreviations

CSO – Central Statistics Office

EEZ – Exclusive Economic Zone
ICZM - Integrated Coastal Zone Management
MSINAR – Mauritius Strategy for Implementation, National Assessment Report
NGO – Non-Governmental Organisation
SCP – Sustainable Consumption and Production
SME – Small and Medium Enterprises
What Is This Thing Called Medical Tourism?

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Abstract

Even though medical tourism is growing steadily, clear misunderstanding of what is and what not medical tourism is persisting, leading to inaccurate statistical measurements and leads to the inability to assess the size of emerging medical tourism market. Currently the term medical tourism is used as a general term representing so many other related tourisms such as health tourism, wellness tourism, rejuvenation tourism, etc. The current study fills this gap and aims at proposing a technical definition of medical tourism. In order to achieve the aim the following objectives are formulated; first, to examine terminologies such as tourism and medical; second, to critically evaluate existing definitions of medical tourism. The new proposed definition will be (1) useful in distinguishing medical tourism from other forms of related tourisms (2) aid in gathering more realistic and measurable data pertaining medical tourism industry. The method followed in this study is exploratory and analytical. The sources of data are secondary in nature.

Key words: medical tourism, health tourism

Introduction

Medical travel was started with the history. In the past many people used to visit spas and health centers for getting relief to their health problems (Babu, 1998). Sumerians, Greeks, Romans, Japanese, Chinese and Indian cultures show the evidences of people traveling to spas and mineral springs for medical purposes. Emergence of ‘travelling for health’ can be associated with the wealthy European travelling to Greek health destinations, which has Baths, Springs, Gymnasiums, Exercise area and Snake farms. Today medical tourism has captured the world attention, especially after 2006. McKinsey places the current market as 60,000 to 85,000 inpatients a year through medical tourism and has a potential for growth (Ehrbeck, Guevara, & Mango, 2008). Generating revenue high into the billions and comprising 12.7 percent of the global market; medical tourism is expected to grow a whopping 17.6 percent and revenues up by 23 percent by 2012 (Shaw & Crochet, 2011). Statistics suggest that the medical tourism industry in India is worth $333 million. According to Government of India, India’s $17-billion-a-year healthcare industry could grow 13 % in each of
the next 6 years, boosted by medical tourism, which industry watchers say is growing at 30% annually (George, 2009). One estimate for India was of 150,000 medical tourists visiting in 2002, almost half of whom came from the Middle East (Neelakandan, 2003). Singapore claimed an annual 150,000 international patients in 2003, was reported as having 230,000 foreigners seek medical care in 2003.

Certainly numbers are steadily rising in most destinations, but there are no reliable national figures for any country (Connell, 2006a) and there is no definitive information about how many patients receive health care in the medical tourism model (Horowitz & Rosensweig, 2007). Measures of the flows of medical tourists vary enormously, partly because this defies easy categorization and partly because no statistics distinguish it. Most available information about health tourism is anecdotal in nature (Bookman, 2007). This may due to the fact that medical tourism has never been a major focus of the tourism industry until lately (Awadzi & Panda, 2005), conceptually full of nuances, contradictions and contrasts (Reed, 2008), lack of a theoretical foundation as a phenomenon (Ko, 2011) and scholarly inquiry into defining (medical tourism) is scarce (Lamont, 2009).

Lack of discussion concerning the characteristics that distinguish medical tourism from other related health tourism invites more synonymic usages, resulting in inaccurate statistical measurements and leads to the inability to assess the size of emerging medical tourism market. Currently the term medical tourism is used as a general term representing so many other related tourism such as health tourism, wellness tourism, rejuvenation tourism, etc. Since a standard definition is not derived by the academicians or industry watchers different countries and different organizations use label such as health, wellness, medical, and spa almost inter-changeably and the definitions and labels used for this form of tourism are almost endless (Smith & Puzcko, 2009). This all inclusive definition lacks persuasive power (Ko, 2011).

Previous studies on medical tourism have been focused on general aspects (Connell 2006a), outsourcing (Bies & Zacharia, 2007), globalization (Horowitz & Rosensweig, 2007; Awadzi & Panda, 2005), marketing (Hunter, 2007), impacts (Leahy, 2008; Burkett, 2007), concepts (Heung, Kucukusta, & Song, 2010; Ko, 2011; Pocock & Phua, 2011) and little academic efforts were shown to define it. Two articles appeared in defining medical tourism is of Jagyasi, P. (2008) and Albert, D. (2008). But both of their works are peripherencial in nature on the characteristics of medical tourism.
The current study fills this gap and aims at proposing a technical definition of medical tourism. In order to achieve the aim the following objectives are formulated; first, to examine terminologies such as tourism and medical; secondly, to critically evaluate existing definitions of medical tourism. The new proposed definition will be (1) useful in distinguishing medical tourism from other forms of related tourisms (2) aid in gathering more realistic and measurable data pertaining medical tourism industry (3) help in assessing the actual market size (4) assist interested parties to make more concentrated marketing efforts to the identified niche market (5) foster more sustainable medical tourism practices (6) advances the understanding of the term medical tourism and (7) may spark further constructive debates on the concept of medical tourism. The method followed in this study is exploratory and analytical. The sources of data are secondary in nature.

**Literature Review**

In order to identify what is medical tourism and what is not medical tourism, the concept of tourism, medical, and medical tourism needs an exploration.

**Tourism**

Tourism is the most important term that needs to be scrutinized. Since the medical tourism is a subset of multifaceted tourism industry, understanding the term tourism warrants premiere attention. This section examines the major features of the tourism concept and summarizes it. In fact, the task of defining tourism is not nearly as easy as it may appear (Holloway, 1998). The reason is that it is a complex system of integrated parts (Murphy & Murphy, 2006).

One of the earliest definitions of tourism is proposed by Hunziker and Krapf in 1942. According to them, tourism is the sum of the phenomena and relationship arising from the non-residents; not leading to permanent residence or remuneration. This definition is broad and inclusive of all the stakeholders in providing and receiving tourism facilities. McIntosh and Goelder (1986) provides and extensional definition to Hunziker and Krapf (1942) and defines tourism as the sum of the phenomena and relationship arising from the interaction of tourists, business suppliers, host government, and host communities in the process of attracting and hosting these tourists and other visitors. Almost similar definition is given by Weaver and Opperman (2000), who defined tourism as “sum of the phenomena and relationship arising from the interaction among tourists, business suppliers, host governments, host communities, origin governments, universities, community colleges and non-governmental
organizations, in the process of attracting, transporting, hosting and managing these tourists and other visitors” (p.3). McIntosh and Goelder (1986) and Weaver and Opperman (2000) were extending the definition proposed by Hunziker and Krapf (1942), but progressively included more specific stakeholders. On a critical note of the above definitions leads to the fact that tourism is includes all the activities, incidents, affairs or happenings and resulting relationships between the host and guest. Here the host is any person or organization; governmental or non-governmental and the guest is the tourists, who visit the place. The statement “not leading to permanent residence” reflects Theobald’s (1988) definition.

The term ‘tour’, as suggested by Theobald (1988), is derived from ‘tornate’; movement around a central point. Therefore ‘tour’ can be apprehended as a round trip, starting from one point to another and returning to the same point. The suffix ‘ism’ is an act. Therefore etymologically the term ‘tourism’ is the act of engaging in trip to a destination from the one point and returning to the same point. Similarly, in 1976, Tourism society of England defined tourism as the temporary, short-term movement of people to destination outside the places where they normally live and work and their activities during the stay at each destination (Beaver, 2002). This is a simpler version of tourism proposed by Hunziker and Kraft (1942), McIntosh and Goelder (1986) and Weaver and Opperman (2000).

Later in 2006, three definitions given for travel in the Encyclopedia of Travel and Tourism are as follows:

1. The act of travel and set of actions engaged in by people during the trip to places away from their home environment.

2. The aggregate of all business that directly provide goods or services to facilitate business, pleasure, and leisure activities away from home environment

3. The combination of these two phenomena

These definitions include that tourism is an act of travel and all the resulting business transactions. This is in line with Smith’s (1988) definition. According to him tourism is “the aggregate of all business… provide goods and service to facilitate business, pleasure, and leisure activity away from the home environment” (p. 183).
If leisure is a measure of time and recreation embraces the activities undertaken during that time then tourism is simply one of those activities (Boniface & Cooper, 1987). This definition embraces tourism as a leisure activity. In line with this, but with more applied definition about tourism is proposed by Lloyd Stear. He defines tourism as travel and temporary stay, involving at least one night away from the region of a person’s usual domicile which is undertaken with the major expectation of satisfying leisure, pleasure, or recreational needs which are perceived as being better able to be satisfied than in the region of the domicile (Stear, 1993). In this definition he clearly indicates the length of stay, distance, and reasons of tourism. World Tourism Organization in 1994 defined tourism as “the activity of persons travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes not related to the exercise of an activity remunerated from within the place visited” (WTO, 1994). A tourist is a visitor who travels either internationally, by crossing an international border, or domestically by travelling within her/his own country. In both cases the visitor travels to a place other than her/his usual (home) environment, away from home for at least one night and the purpose of the visit is not paid for by the place visited. Tourists that stay for a few hours but not overnight are called excursionists (WTO, 1994). This is more comprehensive and complete in terms of measurement and understanding.

Content analysis of the above definitions provides a common agreement that tourism is a short-term stay away from home and comprises of all activities during the stay. Majority of the definitions mentioned that the purpose of the travel should be business, pleasure or leisure. But definition proposed by WTO confirms that the purpose tourism can be anything other than a remunerated activity and it clarifies that the short-term stay should be at least a night and not more than one year.

**Health Tourism vs. Medical tourism**

Almost two decades ago, Goodrich & Goodrich (1987) defined Healthcare tourism as “the attempt on the part of a tourist facility or destination to attract by deliberately promoting its health-care services and facilities, in addition to its regular tourist amenities.” This is a general definition contains the health related procedures such as spas, rejuvenation therapies, massage therapies etc. while medical Tourism can be considered as a holiday with a provision of cost effective private medical care in collaboration with the tourism industry for patients needing surgical and/or other forms of specialized treatment. It is a
popular mass culture where people travel often-long distances to overseas destinations to obtain medical, dental and surgical care while simultaneously being holidaymakers, in a more conventional sense (Connell, 2006). Similarly, Jagyasi (2008) defines medical tourism as the provision of cost effective private medical care in collaboration with the tourism industry for patients needing surgical and other forms of specialized treatment.

**Diagram 1. Spectrum of health tourism**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Wellness</th>
<th>Medical</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Holistic</td>
<td>Leisure and recreation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medical wellness</td>
<td>Medical (therapeutic)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medical (Surgical)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spiritual</td>
<td>Beauty treatments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Therapeutic recreation</td>
<td>Rehabilitation (illness related)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cosmetic surgery</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yoga and meditation</td>
<td>Sports and fitness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rehabilitation (lifestyle related)</td>
<td>Healing and recuperation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dentistry</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New age</td>
<td>Pampering</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupational wellness</td>
<td>Operations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thalassotherapy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nutritional and Detox programs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Types of health tourism facilities**

- Retreat
- Spas
- Hospitals and clinics
- Ashram
- Hotels and Resorts
- Festivals
- Leisure centers
- Cruises


The above diagram is proposed by Smith, M. and Puzcko, L in 2009 in their book *Health and Wellness Tourism* argues that medical tourism is different from
health tourism. Medical tourism encompasses only the curative treatments, which international patients seek at transnational destinations across the world (Smith & Puzcko, 2009). It can be seen in the above diagram that health tourism is a huge umbrella, under which much niche tourism is attached. According to them medical tourism is curative in nature, rather than travel for general well-being or maintenance of health. Medical facilities are clearly the main focus of medical tourism trips, which may involve some form of intervention such as surgery or treatments, including dentistry and cosmetics. It usually has two major forms: surgical and therapeutic. There is a clear distinction between the two. Surgical, certainly involves certain operation(s), while therapeutic means participating in healing treatments. Wellness tourism does not include medical intervention. It is all about preventative in nature and clearly different from medical tourism. (Smith & Puzcko, 2009, p. 8). But the diagram does not clearly differentiate where the medical tourism boundary stops and where the wellness tourism boundary starts. Some treatments such as medical wellness, occupational wellness etc., it is very difficult to classify whether it is wellness tourism or medical tourism. So that further clarification is required in this regard.

Jabbari (2007) proposes another health tourism structure, to introduce the treatment options available under health tourism. This diagram is also differentiates medical tourism from other forms of tourism.

The above diagram clearly identifies that medical tourism is subset of health tourism and medical tourism comprises of medical treatment as well as Complementary and Alternative treatments. The above classification denotes that surgical, dental and all the reproductive tourism are under medical tourism. Since medical tourism is curative in nature, the differentiation between curative and medical tourism in the above diagram does not have any logical stand.

Authors such as Connell (2006), Jagyasi (2008), Albert (2008) and Smith & Puzcko (2009) have identified medical tourism is a subset of health tourism, for example, Connell (2006); medical tourism is ...... linked to direct medical intervention, and outcomes are expected to be substantial and long term. This medical intervention is the distinguishing factor between wellness tourism (generally health tourism) and medical tourism. It has become the central theme of tourism in an active rather than a passive sense. With the partial exception of some spas, where rejuvenation is the main motive, none of this has involved actual medical treatment, but merely assumed incidental benefits in amenable, relaxing contexts (Connell, 2006b). So that medical tourism is the travel to destinations for surgical or therapeutic purposes and it definitely curative in nature.
Some authors do not identify medical tourism as separate from health tourism, for example, Monica (2007); medical tourism occurs “when international patients travel across boundaries for their healthcare and medical needs.” Most of the definitions proposed are ‘follow the flow’ definitions without any musing, for example, Parekh, (2009) defines medical tourism or medical travel as “the act of travelling to other countries to obtain medical, dental, and surgical care. It is where the healthcare services are sought and delivered outside of the home country.”

In a serious medical condition such as cardiac surgeries, or serious orthopaedic surgeries, the patient may not be in a condition to enjoy the tourism aspect of the country. Even though some travel professionals promote the “tourism” aspect of offshore care; the recreational components have diminishing importance with the serious medical situations. Authors such as Monica (2007) argue that such travel should not be considered as medical tourism, rather it
should be considered as medical travel. Because the main purpose of the patients who travel to health destinations would be more focus on medical related functions. Patients even may not go out of the hospital. But Jagyasi (2008) specifies that every medical tourist directly or indirectly exposes to the tourism aspects such as hospitality, culture or site-seeing. So it is not medical travel rather it is medical tourism. If tourism is about travel and the experience of other cultures then all medical tourism is tourism and he suggests that tourism provides a partial basis for medical tourism (Connell, 2006b). Usually it is also rather more than that, if only because medical tourists can only return home when they are, in a sense, well enough to be (medical) travelers and therefore (medical) tourists (Horowitz & Rosensweig, 2007). The term “medical tourism” was coined by travel agents, because as a business model medical tourism relies on the same allure of adventure coupled with convenience that describes traditional recreational tourism (Burkett, 2007). It is more about the provision of healthcare service across international boundaries than about sprinkling healthcare on vacations. So, medical tourism is really only a small part of medical travel (Ganeshan, 2002).

Interesting perspectives to medical tourism have been given by Srivastava (2006). He describes medical tourism as a situation where doctors travel to other places to deliver services to endogenous population. This perspective is interesting, because this definition includes not only the ‘receiver group, but also the ‘provider group’. Albert (2008) also proposed similar perspective with the inclusion of other stake holders of medical tourism. He suggests that “medical tourists can include patients, providers, healthcare administrators, payers, regulators, NGO, business people and interested parties”.

From above set of definitions the following characteristics of medical tourism can be identified;

a. Trans-national travel
b. Travel for curative purposes, and does not include ‘wellness travel’
c. Sub-set of health tourism
d. Travel for either medical, surgical or dental treatments
e. Medical travelers includes patients, doctors and other stake holders

From these rudimentary characteristics of medical tourism, a more refined and technical definition can be obtained.
Medical

The section below examines the term medical. Since the word ‘medical’ is a scientific word, the researcher envisages that the denoted meaning only stand valid, because the connoted, metaphoric or metonymic meanings will lead to misinterpretation and loses its actual meaning. Since dictionaries are the suitable sources of obtaining denoted meaning, the current section analyzes the term medical from dictionary sources.

The term medicine comes from Late Latin “medicalis” or Latin “medicus” means physician. Related Latin usage is “mederi’ means to heal, give medical attentions to, and cure. Greek usage “medomai” means be mindful of, or term “meditari” means think or reflect on, or consider (online etymology dictionary). The term ‘medical’ is of, or pertaining to the science or practice of medicine, or curative or therapeutic or pertaining to or requiring treatment other than surgical means (dictionary.reference.com, n.d.). Similar meaning is given in medical dictionary.com, “as pertaining to medicine or to the treatment of diseases, pertaining to medicine as opposed to surgery” (medical-dictionary).

One of the popular dictionary, Collins English dictionary provides meaning to the term medical as; of or relating to the science of medicine or to the treatment of patients without surgery (Collins dictionary). Oxford English dictionary also provides almost same explanation that the term ‘medical’ means relating to the science or practice of medicine, or a medical center or the medical profession, or relating to medicine as distinguished from surgery (Oxford English Dicitonary).

The term ‘medical’ means; Relating to the study or practice of medicine; Requiring or amenable to treatment by medicine especially as opposed to surgery; Of, pertaining to, or having to do with, the art of healing disease, or the science of medicine; Being therapeutic, curative or remedial; Being restorative or recuperative. Involving medical practice; in a medical manner; with reference to healing, or to the principles of the healing art; in a curative, remedial or therapeutic manner; A thorough physical examination; includes a variety of tests depending on the age and sex and health of the person (Websters Online Dictionary).

Above dictionary meanings made it clear that the term medical does not depicts anything relates to surgery or surgical intervention. So that the term ‘medical’ means any curative, remedial or therapeutic treatment, a physical examination, or medical practices. Common agreement is that the term medical does not denote any surgery.
Critical Review of Existing Definitions

Traditionally, tourism has been for either business or pleasure, its three main components have been – travel (the means by which people get from one point to another such as air, land and water), accommodation/ lodging (where people stayed during their travel such as hotels and motels) and tours (the activities they engaged in during their period of travel) (Awadzi & Panda 2005), but new lists of tourism types are emerged in recent years, which were not seen earlier. Medical tourism is the resultant of such identification. In medical tourism “two important service industries are dovetailing to attract people who seek healthcare service located beyond the geographical territory of their country” (Chakraborthy, 2005).

Since literature already exists pertaining to the differences in health tourism and medical tourism, we can preserve that argument. Health tourism is a big umbrella, under which so many types of health related tourisms are sprung up. According to the purpose, health tourism can be divided into medical tourism, wellness tourism, tooth tourism, dental tourism, surgical tourism, therapeutic tourism, reproductive tourism, IVF tourism, death tourism, spa tourism, rejuvenation tourism, thalassotherapy tourism, cosmetic tourism, Ayurveda tourism, yoga tourism, meditation tourism, and so on.

Authors such as Connell (2006), Smith & Puzcko (2009), Jagyasi (2009) and Awadzi and Panda (2005) are critically evaluated medical tourism and separated from health tourism. Their argument is that medical tourism is a specialized treatment, which curative in nature and should be resultant in a longer nature. But in their argument specialized treatment includes surgery also.

From the above literature it can be eluded that the definitions of medical tourism comprises of the following parameters;

It is evident that the authors use the parameters such as cost effectiveness, private care, and holiday, international travel, medical, surgical and dental to define medical tourism. When we compile all these terms it is apprehended that;

‘Medical tourism is the transnational travel for medical, dental or surgical reasons.’

Now let us analyze the parameters pertaining to the tourism.
### Table 1. Medical tourism parameters

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameters</th>
<th>Author</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>International healthcare services</td>
<td>Ganeshan, V. (Nov, 2002)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travelling to other countries, medical, dental and surgical care</td>
<td>Parekh, L. (2009)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International travel, healthcare and medical needs</td>
<td>Monica, R. (2007)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travelling to destinations, surgical and medical interventions</td>
<td>Smith &amp; Puzcko, (2009)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctors travel to other destinations, providing medical services</td>
<td>Srivastava, (2006)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medical tourism stake holders, travelling to destinations, medical related reasons</td>
<td>Albert, D. (Nov, 2008)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cost effective private medical care, surgical or specialized medical care</td>
<td>Jagyasi, P., (August, 2008)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 2. Parameters of tourism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>An act of travel, actions engaged during the travel and Business, provisioning goods and services for business, pleasure and leisure</th>
<th>The Encyclopedia of Travel and Tourism (2006)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Travelling from one point and reaching back to the same point</td>
<td>Theobald (1988)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the temporary, short-term movement of people to destination outside the places, activities during the stay at each destination</td>
<td>Tourism society of England (1976)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sum of phenomena and relationships from non-residence, for any non-remunerated activity</td>
<td>Hanziker and Krapf (1984)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sum of phenomena and relationships arising from the interaction between host and tourists</td>
<td>Weaver and Oppermann (2000)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sum of phenomena and relationships between host and tourists or visitors</td>
<td>McIntosh &amp; Goeldner (1986)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business of providing goods and services to business, pleasure and leisure</td>
<td>Smith (1988)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leisure activities</td>
<td>Bonifice and Cooper (1987)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Temporary stay outside the normal domicile for leisure, pleasure and recreational needs</td>
<td>Stear (1993)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the activity travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for leisure, business and other purposes less one year and non-remunerated activity</td>
<td>WTO (1994)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Common parameters used for defining ‘tourism’ are; act of travel, temporary short-term stay, outside their usual environment, for business, leisure and pleasure. The remuneration clause (in defining tourism) can cause difficulties for occasions like Australia’s recent and successful Olympic Games. In some cases the athletes and officials have their expenses covered by the Sydney Organizing Committee of the Olympic Games, yet most would classify them as tourists to Sydney and Australia (Murphy & Murphy, 2006, p. 12). One more debate is that if a person travelling for business purposes, it may lead to remunerated activity, for example, MICE tourism. Moreover according to WTO, the tourism purpose is not confined to business, pleasure or leisure. Therefore in defining tourism, there is no need to specify the purpose of travel. Therefore considering the above statements, tourism can be defined as a short-term movement of people away from their usual environment.

The table below shows the parameters pertaining to the term medical.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter of the term ‘medical’</th>
<th>Source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Of relating to, or concerned with physicians, the practice of medicine, distinguished from surgery, or requiring or devoted to medical treatment</td>
<td>Marriam-Webster’s dictionary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A class of diseases that are traditionally treated by medicine, treatment by medicine, a thorough physical examination</td>
<td>medical-dictionary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pertaining to the science or practice of medicine, curative or therapeutic, pertaining to or requiring treatment other than surgical means</td>
<td>dictionary.reference.com, n.d</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pertaining to medicine or to the treatment of diseases, pertaining to medicine as opposed to surgery</td>
<td>medical-dictionary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physician, heal, give medical attentions to, and cure. be mindful of, think or reflect on, or consider.</td>
<td>online etymology dictionary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relating to the science of medicine or to the treatment of patients without surgery</td>
<td>Collins dictionary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relating to the science or practice of medicine, a medical center, the medical profession, relating to medicine as distinguished from surgery</td>
<td>Oxford English Dicitonary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the study or practice of medicine; requiring or amenable to treatment by medicine especially as opposed to surgery; Of, pertaining to, or having to do with, the art of healing disease, or the science of medicine; Being therapeutic, curative or remedial; Involving medical practice; In a medical manner; with reference to healing, or to the principles of the healing art; In a curative, remedial or therapeutic manner; A thorough physical examination;</td>
<td>Websters Online Dictionary</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the above table, the following parameters can be elicited; practice of medicine, distinguished from surgery, physical examination, curative and ther-
apeutic, treatment of disease, give medical attention to, and healing. This statement is in congruence with the arguments of Connell (2006), Smith & Puzcko (2009), and other authors, who classify medial tourism as a travel for curative purposes, but disagrees with their argument as the inclusion of dental and surgical procedures in medical tourism. When we consider the above parameters, the term medical is primarily for therapeutic in nature, using medical intervention, which is for curative purposes. Therefore;

“Medical” means treatment of diseases by the use of medicine, which is curative, therapeutic or remedial in nature and does not include any surgical intervention.

Three closely related statements taken out from the above analysis are (1) Tourism: A short-term movement of people outside their usual environment (2) Medical: treatment of diseases by means of medicine, which is curative, therapeutic or remedial in nature and not included in any surgical intervention. (3) Medical tourism: Transnational travels for medical, dental or surgical reasons. These parameters are now scrutinized, with a view to a new technical definition of medical tourism.

Tourism: A short-term movement of people outside their usual environment

Tourism is the short-term movement of people outside their usual environment and does not differentiate the between international or national, therefore the medical tourism need not be only trans-national travel. It could be domestic travel also. In such cases many of the above definitions pertaining to the medical tourism should be reconsider to include domestic travel also.

Medical: treatment of diseases by use of medicine, which is curative, therapeutic or remedial in nature and does not include any surgical intervention

Medical does not relate to surgical interventions. In such cases travelling for the purpose of obtaining or providing surgical interventions cannot be considered as medical tourism. So further reframing of the above definition requires the omission of the word surgery or surgical intervention.

Since the term medical does not differentiate patient and doctors, medical tourism could include doctors also, for example, concerned with physicians (marriam-webster.com, n.d.), practice of medicine (dictionary.reference.com, n.d.), give medical attention to (online etymology dictionary), medical profession (Oxford English Dicitonary) and medical practice (Websters Online Dictionary). Therefore medical tourism includes the movement of patients as
well as practitioners. The term patients used here to depict the receiver of medical treatment.

Medical tourism: Transnational travels for medical, dental or surgical reasons.

Since tourism clearly includes the domestic travel, medical tourism need not confined only to international travel. Any travel for medical reasons, international travelers as well as domestic travelers include in the medical tourism. Inclusion of the term ‘dental’ requires further scrutiny. Usually dental procedures need surgical interventions; dental procedures other than surgical intervention can be included in the medical tourism. The researcher envisages that the inclusion of dental is for the easy categorization of medical tourism, and does not contain any scholastic support. Therefore in the new medical tourism model there is no need to specify whether it is dental or non-dental.

**Medical Tourism: A Proposed Definition**

Having critically examined the parameters used in existing definitions of tourism, medical and medical tourism; a new technical definition is proposed. In proposing this technical definition, it is acknowledged that this definition will not be suited to all circumstances. New proposes definition of medical tourism is:

The movement of people outside their usual environment for curative, therapeutic or remedial treatment of diseases.

This definition does not differentiate patients and doctors. Patients are travelling for receiving medical treatment and doctors are for provide medical treatments. More over this definition excludes general interest travelers for the purpose of rejuvenation or preservation of health and also omits people travelling to receive or providing surgical reasons. The patients visit a medical destination and returns in the same day within 24 hours can be classified as medical excursionist. Patients who stay at the destination for more than one year for medical treatment needs further investigation, to include in the category of medical tourism.

The new proposed framework is of medical tourism is given below:
The new technical definition provides clear understanding of what is medical tourism and what is not medical tourism. The researcher, academicians and practitioners can adopt this new definition to distinguish medical tourism from other forms of related tourisms, such as surgical tourism, and tooth tourism, so that it will aid in gathering more realistic and measureable data will also help in assessing the actual market size of medical tourism industry. Stakeholders can make more concentrated and effective marketing efforts to the identified niche market. The major advantages of the new definition are that it may spark further constructive debates on the concept of medical tourism and act as a base for future research.

**Conclusion**

Prominence of academic literature, especially during post 2006 period indicate the significance of medical tourism. But the relationship between tourism and medical has not been studied in-depth. The current study sought to redress the lack of debate regarding the characteristics of tourism, medical and medical tourism. Inconsistent definitions may result in synonymical usage, result in inaccurate statistical usage and leads to the inability to measure the size of the existing medical tourism market. This paper examined the existing terminologies of tourism and medical and critically evaluated various definitions of medical tourism. As a result, a technical definition was proposed,
positing medical tourism as ‘the movement of people outside their usual environment for curative, therapeutic or remedial treatment of diseases.’ This new definition expands the possibilities of investigating the relationship between medical and tourism and justifying the exclusion of ‘surgical travel’ from medical tourism. The current paper extends the possibilities of further debate on issues of same-day medical excursionist and the patients staying for more than one year at the medical destination. The prudent approach would be considering studies measuring specific destination benefits, attributable to same day medical tourists and patients staying more than one year for medical reasons.

References


Trends in Innovative Behaviour of the Estonian Tourism Industry

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Abstract
The aim of this paper is to identify the trends in the innovation-related capability and behaviour of Estonian tourism companies, considering the changing conditions in the global economy and in the competitive environment. The identifiable trends are based on innovation needs surveys conducted among Estonian tourism companies in 2007 and 2011. A qualitative research method was used; 20 senior managers of tourism companies were interviewed in 2007 and 15 in 2011, in structured interviews. The results of the survey in 2007 showed that the strengths of the sector lie in a modern material-technical base, a strong and gradually growing external market, a fast-growing domestic market and assistance provided by national support systems to business development. The small labour force, limited cooperation with educational and research institutions, and the inconsistent development of transport infrastructure emerged as deficiencies. In 2011, strong intra-sectoral competition, membership of the Schengen Area and a high level of flexibility within the sector were pointed out as strengths. A large number of similar products and services and a lack of the knowledge necessary for innovation were named as deficiencies.

Key words: Innovation, service development.

Introduction
The aim of this paper is to identify the trends in the innovation-related capability and behaviour of Estonian tourism companies, considering the changing conditions in the global economy and the competitive environment. Tourism is one of the most rapidly developing economic sectors and plays an important role in the economy of many countries. Estonia’s advantageous geographical position in the vicinity of the Nordic Countries and Russia, its attractive destinations and low cost base have created a very good foundation for the devel-
opment of tourism in the country. According to the Estonian National Tourism Development Plan 2007–2013 (Enterprise Estonia, Estonian Tourism Board, 2006) tourism makes up an average of 8% of Estonia’s gross domestic product and the tourism sector directly and indirectly provides jobs for approximately 55,000 to 60,000 people, which is about 9–10% of the overall employment.

In connection with the Soviet era ending and Estonia regaining its independence, the tourism sector started developing very rapidly (Müristaja, 2007, p. 100). In 1992, Estonia had 67 accommodation service providers, which provided services for a total of 310,000 visitors, but in 2011 the number of accommodation service providers had grown to 597 and the number of visitors to 2.4 million (Statistical Office, 2012). Although the number of tourists is growing steadily, certain bottlenecks have emerged in surveys conducted among foreign and domestic tourists (Enterprise Estonia, Estonian Tourism Board, 2012): product development does not always take into account the needs, expectations and requirements of the target group, price increases have been very rapid, cooperation between individual service providers is limited, making it complicated for visitors to gain a comprehensive experience. In order to reach the next level in development, innovation will be needed.

For the purpose of developing regional innovation policies, approximately 150 interviews with the executive managers of larger Estonian enterprises, including 20 tourism enterprises, were conducted in 2007. The aim of the survey was to map the current situation of the enterprises, the strengths and weaknesses of the sector and potential threats and opportunities and use those as basis for developing regional strategies that support innovation (Tiits, 2007, p. 22-23). The global economic crisis that began in 2008, the decreased flow of tourists, the structural labour shortage and the lack of attention to product development indicated that the former competition advantages are nearly exhausted. The 2007 survey of tourism enterprises was repeated in 2011 with the aim of determining how the Estonian tourism sector enterprises applied innovations in the conditions of the economic recession and their future plans. The paper first provides a brief overview of the types of innovation and the driving and impeding factors. The second half of the paper describes the methods used in conducting the surveys and analyses the results of the two surveys, highlights the development trends in the innovation-related capability of tourism enterprises and the areas of emphasis in the innovation-related activities in the coming years.
Literature Review

Innovation and new service development are important strategic features to safeguard growth and sustainable wealth for every industry, but in particular for those industries where markets are saturated and clients have a choice of products and services from all over the world, such as is the case in tourism (Peters & Pikkemaat, 2009). Tourism has always been subject to changes, reflecting shifts in tastes and preferences, technologies and politico-economic conditions (Hall & Williams, 2008, p. 1). Wahab and Cooper (2001) have said that tourism firms operate in an extremely competitive sector which is characterised by continuous transformation and therefore innovations are often conditions for survival in achieving lower costs and higher quality outputs that meet the demand requirements of potential customers and which introduce new products (Sundbo, Orfila-Sintes, & Sorensen, 2007).

Over the past years, the term “innovation” has increasingly been used to describe the behaviour of tourism enterprises, destinations, and the tourism sector (Hjalager, 2002). One of the first innovation researchers, Schumpeter (1934), distinguished five areas in which companies can introduce innovation (Peters & Pikkemaat, 2009, 2): 1) generation of new or improved products, 2) introduction of new production processes, 3) development of new sales markets, 4) development of new supply markets and 5) reorganisation and/or restructuring of the company. Oslo Manual (OECD, 2005) understands innovation as a new or significantly improved product (goods or services) introduced to the market by a company, as well as the implementation of a new or a significantly improved process, marketing method or new organisational method in business practice, in an enterprise or in communication with external parties. Innovations which are new or significantly improved from the viewpoint of a particular enterprise are considered innovative.

Abernathy and Clark (1985) identified four types of innovation: regular innovations, niche innovations, revolutionary innovations and architectural innovations. The least radical are regular, incremental innovations, however, their impact over a period of time can become quite considerable (Hjalager, 2002, p. 466). Niche innovations tend to challenge collaborative structures, but not basic competences and knowledge. While revolutionary innovations leave external structures unchanged, they have a radical effect on competences (e.g. diffusion of new technology in enterprises). Architectural innovations tend to change overall structures, and establish new rules that remodel the concept of tourism (for example exploitation of a new resource). Hjalager (2009, p. 9)
claims that in general tourism businesses have been found to be mainly imitators and adaptors rather than innovators. However, much innovative effort is concentrated on finding ways to raise business activity in off-peak periods and reduce costs.

Comparing production and service innovations, Hall and Williams (2008, p. 9-11) pointed out four significant differences (see Figure 1): the co-terminality of service production and consumption, information intensity, the importance of the human factor and the critical role of organisational factors. Tourism services are mostly intangible and simultaneously involve production and consumption. The tourist experience is made up of multiple encounters with providers of tourism services over the span of a tourist’s travel.

![Figure 1. Distinctive features of tourism and the shaping of tourism innovation (Hall & Williams, 2008, 13)](image)

Novelli, Schmitz, and Spencer (2006, p. 1150) found that networks, clusters and alliances have produced significant benefits for those SMEs used to working in isolation, which now cooperate with other local players involved in different industrial areas (e.g. agriculture, manufacturing etc). It is no longer sufficient to view innovation as a matter of isolated individual inventors and entrepreneurs. Innovations are a part of a broader economic, cultural and political environment (Sundbo, 1998). The drivers of innovation vary over time and space, and between different types of tourism activities.

One of the most important drivers of innovation is competition. There are several reasons for this (Hall & Williams, 2008), for example: different types of
recreational activities and destinations are easily mutually interchangeable, the reduction of travel barriers, and travel costs. In such an environment, innovation is critical to survival. This also makes it preferable for firms to seek innovations that are not easily copied by their rivals, that is process rather than product innovation. Besides competition, the main drivers of innovations include economic performance, demand and technology. The extent and direction of innovations are also influenced by the strategy and resources of individual companies and the state’s activities in developing the infrastructure and marketing destinations (Sundbo, 1998). The factors impeding the innovative behaviour of enterprises include the reluctance of the sector’s opinion leaders to make changes, holding on to comfort zones, top-down pressure for short-term decisions and the rigidity of hierarchical structures (Hall & Williams, 2008).

**Methodology**

The aim of this paper is to highlight the trends in the innovation-related capability and behaviour of Estonian tourism companies, considering the changing conditions in global economy and competition. The central study questions are: 1) What have the innovative activities been like in recent years and what has been the motivation for innovations? 2) How has the economic recession affected the innovation-related activities of companies? 3) What are the companies' main objectives in the coming years?

The study has been conducted using the qualitative study method, structure interviews, which allowed an in-depth treatment of innovation issues. Interviews were conducted with the companies’ executive managers, who are the most up to date with the strategic choices and innovations of their companies. In 2007, 20 tourism companies and in 2011, 15 tourism companies were surveyed from all over Estonia, based on the principle that the services of the companies cover both the core tourism services (accommodation, catering and travel organisation) and support services (active recreational activities, event organisation, transport etc). The main part of the study (29 questions in total) was the same in both years. In 2011, the study got an additional question about the impact of the economic recession on the innovative behaviour of companies. Interviews were conducted face-to-face or by telephone and the average length of one interview was approximately 40 minutes. All the interviewees were e-mailed the questions for consideration in advance. Text analysis was used in analysing the data.

The age of the companies participating in the surveys varied considerably – some companies had been established immediately after Estonia regained in-
dependence in 1991, and some were very new. The majority of the companies belonged to Estonian investors; several companies had first been partly based on foreign capital, but over time Estonian shareholders had bought out the foreign shareholders. The number of employees in the companies also varied significantly – the majority were classified under micro and small enterprises, while the number of employees of larger spa hotels was more than 100 people (approximately 300 employees in the largest spa hotel).

The paper presents the results of the survey across different innovation types, addresses the factors influencing innovative behaviour, the impact of the economic recession on the innovativeness of the Estonian tourism sector, and the sector’s development opportunities in the light of previous innovations.

**Results**

The results of the 2007 survey showed that the favourable economic environment, including low interest rates, created a favourable environment for tourism sector investment and supported the rapid growth of the sector (European Union support programmes linked to bank loans). By 2011, the economic situation had changed and the lack of resources for investments was considered as one of the factors impeding innovation. The self-financing requirement of structural funds had become a significant factor impeding development. At the same time, product development had become more client-centred and cooperation between the individual service providers in regions had improved.

One innovative direction is the provision of a “hands-on experience”, where clients can make something with their own hands (e.g. soap, bakery products). The following distinction-based innovation examples can be pointed out: special atmosphere (e.g. historical manor), inclusion of educational elements (e.g. demonstrating the construction of an old ship), increase of comfort (e.g. internet connection in all rooms) and information technology (e.g. the possibility of video conferences). On several occasions, the interviewees mentioned that clients expect the companies to be flexible and offer the option to assemble the product package themselves.

The development of tourism requires extensive investments not only in the facilities and technical equipment necessary for the provision of a particular service, but also in the infrastructure related to the facilities. According to a WTTC (2012) study, capital investments in tourism formed 21% of all the capital investments made in Estonia in 2006. The difference from the European Union average of 8.6% derives from the large number of facilities requiring mod-
ernisation as well as from the fact that Estonia is a rapidly developing tourism country. In 2011 investments in tourism formed 6.6% of total investments, which was still twice as high as the European average (3.8%). The successful introduction of information technology has improved the marketing and sales of tourism products, but gaps in the development of the infrastructure (including road maintenance) impair access to the services of companies operating outside major centres.

**Process innovation:** The majority of process innovations were related to auxiliary activities necessary for the everyday operation of companies (accounting or booking systems). The main focus was on improving existing systems, not on procuring new ones. New equipment often requires the training of employees, thus causing organisational innovations. The 2009 economic recession had rather impaired technological innovation, as financial resources were limited. At the same time, financially tighter periods give the impulse to introduce innovative and often free to use technological solutions (Skype calls, Facebook as a marketing channel etc).

The leak factor in the Estonian tourism sector is moderate – in both surveys, entrepreneurs mentioned that they would rather purchase goods and services from local suppliers and mediators. That applies to procuring technical equipment, interior facilities and foodstuffs. Domestic products are preferred on the basis of quality, supply speed and price. Foreign suppliers are mostly used in the absence of local providers.

**Organisational innovation:** During the 2007 survey, the level of unemployment in Estonia was the lowest it had been for the preceding 15 years (4.7%) and the executive managers stated the shortage of labour was one of the main factors impeding the development of their companies. In 2011, the situation was quite the opposite – unemployment was the highest since Estonia regained its independence (13.6%). But labour was again mentioned in lists of bottlenecks – this time, with the emphasis on the shortage of qualified labour. In both surveys, the solution proposed by the respondents involved more efficient cooperation with research and education institutions, in the form of offering practice places for schools and engaging students in research and the development of new products. In 2010, the interviewees pointed out that the economic recession reduced the price of some production inputs (e.g. labour) and has had a positive impact on the innovation and development activities of companies.

In the comparison of the two years, labour output in the tourism sector has grown (productivity per employee on the basis of sales revenue was 24,800
EUR in 2007, and 25,500 EUR in 2010), which was also confirmed by the 2011 survey, where entrepreneurs mentioned that they had had to review the structure of their organisations and cut jobs. The survival of companies was dependent on the restructuring of remuneration policies, which included the reduction of salaries and the recruitment of temporary labour for high demand periods, as well as the reorganisation of work duties. Other organisational innovations mentioned included the development and implementation of regular client programmes. Less attention is paid to the training of employees, although it is acknowledged that clients have become more quality sensitive. However, the large proportion of seasonal labour makes it difficult to maintain the quality of services, as there is often not enough time for training temporary employees and no motivation due to the high labour turnover. Companies tend to use the free of charge training courses offered by the public and the third sectors.

*Marketing innovations:* In terms of sales volumes, 2007 and 2008 were the most successful years in the areas of accommodation and catering, with the sector’s sales volumes reaching 500 to 540 million EUR. At the same time, it should be noted that in 2008, when several major international brands entered the market, was a year of very active competition – the added value earned in accommodation service companies decreased by nearly 10% from the previous year and marketing was price-based.

The results of the 2007 survey showed that the majority of companies offered their services in both the domestic and foreign markets, and there was a link between two variables: the companies’ distance from cities and the proportion of the domestic market of the entire clientele. The farther a company is located from the main centres, the larger the importance of the domestic market. Of the foreign markets, Finland, Sweden and Norway were mentioned most frequently, followed by Russia, Germany and Latvia. In 2011, the foreign markets remained more or less the same, with more emphasis on Russia and Finland. In the years between the two surveys the importance of the domestic market has decreased somewhat, from 41% to 33%, due to the impact of the economic recession on the consumption of tourism services among domestic clients.

Although price is often used for increasing sales and maintaining business in difficult economic situations, the interviewees found that price cannot be a long-term marketing message. The market was cleaned up after the economic
recession and the interviewees thought that the companies primarily providing high-quality services survived.

While in 2007 the main marketing channels mentioned were personal sales, participation in trade shows and the sales of services via booking systems, in 2011 press releases, direct mailing and various PR techniques had become popular marketing measures – mass marketing had been replaced by target group specific and direct marketing. The main innovations included the introduction of social media channels (Facebook, Twitter). The reasons for moving in that direction were as follows: innovativeness, a large number of users and lower costs.

**Innovation-related cooperation:** The first survey also addressed issues related to cooperation and companies mentioned that cooperation is mainly focused on the areas of marketing and regional product development – companies meet at various round table events and organise introduction trips, thereby gaining innovative ideas. On several occasions, the interviewees mentioned the “copy and paste” method, or the (partial and full) copying of products seen elsewhere. Innovation-related cooperation with other companies was generally considered as satisfactory or good. The most important joint activities highlighted in the 2011 survey were joint marketing and sales, particularly in foreign markets (especially important for small enterprises with limited resources). Innovation-related cooperation was rated as relatively weak, with the need to maintain the proprietary information of companies as one of the obstructive reasons – tourism is a highly competitive area, where innovations can easily be copied. In 2011, the importance of networks and clusters was mentioned by more than a half of the interviewees, who thought that cooperation networks important both in generating innovations and implementing innovations. According to the statements of the executive managers interviewed, companies under foreign ownership are less open to cooperation, but that aspect cannot be confirmed within the framework of this study, as the sample did not contain any such companies.

**Factors facilitating and impeding innovations:** In both surveys, the interviewees saw the possibility of making a profit and the need to find new clients as the main motivators of innovation. Particular emphasis was placed on the need to meet the expectations and needs of regular clients, and smaller family businesses also saw innovations as a way of self-realisation. Impeding factors were mainly related to finding sources of financing and highly qualified personnel, and certain groups of companies (e.g. travel agencies) were concerned with the
domination of well-established large companies. In connection with the companies’ future plans for the coming three years, the interviewees most often pointed out the need for product innovations and the wish to expand the company’s activities and implement small-scale innovations. Among marketing innovations, the wish to enter new markets and introduce innovative marketing channels (above all social media) was mentioned. The companies are not planning any organisational innovations, as teams have already been optimised during the economic recession. There is, however, a wish to develop cooperation with other enterprises and parties, and to increase service quality.

The activities of competitors and the need to cut costs are seen as the main motivators of innovations. The interviewees were of the opinion that the threats, to which the companies could potentially be exposed in the coming three years, would mostly arise from the external environment – although the most difficult time for the economy is already past, the changes in the economic environment are still unforeseeable.

Conclusion

The strengths of the Estonian tourism sector highlighted in the 2007 survey included the modern technological base, the strong and steadily growing foreign market, the rapidly growing domestic market and the support of state aid systems for the development of entrepreneurship. The weaknesses mentioned included the shortage of labour, limited cooperation with research and education institutions and the uneven development of the transport infrastructure. In 2011, the strengths included strong intra-sectoral competition, membership of the Schengen visa area and the high flexibility of the sector. Weaknesses included the high level of similarity among products and services and the lack of the knowledge necessary for innovation.

Innovations in the Estonian tourism sector can be considered as regular rather than radical – there is a constant development of products and marketing. Based on the model of Hall and Williams (2008), it can be said that the main factors and processes supporting or sparking innovations include competition between companies, and the wish to increase the client base and sales revenue. The main bottlenecks requiring attention include the increasing importance of competition, the willingness and ability of employees to initiate innovations, and the process of ensuring the quality of products.

Sundbo et al. (2007) argued that the innovation capability of enterprises partly depends on their size or, in this case, the number of employees: larger enter-
prises are economically more secure and more willing to innovate. Different trends can be observed among small enterprises—while some family businesses prefer peaceful development and avoid radical innovations, others whose managers are more prepared to take risks dare to use breakthrough innovations. Hjalager (2002, p. 469) wrote that it can be argued on the basis of many studies conducted all over the world that innovation capacity is closely and positively correlated with the size of enterprise, although SMEs can be highly adaptive to external pressures and potentials, research and development results must usually be of a practical nature if they are to be applied in this type of firm.

The surveys discussed here have confirmed these opinions. The main driving force for implementing innovations in Estonian tourism companies is also the external competition pressure and the main objective of innovations is to cut costs and retain clients. Although it has been argued in literature that the behaviour of large enterprises is more innovative than that of SMEs and large enterprises are often pioneers in the area of innovations, the surveys discussed here did not confirm that argument. SMEs are more flexible in their activities and more prepared to take risks. Such firms are often what may be called “lifestyle” companies, and an important motivator for implementing innovations is the need for self-realisation.

The implementation of innovations is sometimes hampered by not understanding the need for innovations—it is difficult to introduce innovations to the market when old solutions still work. Innovativeness also depends on the enthusiasm of the members of a company, which is often higher in the early years. It can be presumed that the companies established during the economic recession are more innovative than the companies that have been in the market for a longer period, as they have been forced to fight for their foothold in a declining market right from the start. The impact of the economic recession on the innovativeness of enterprises was noticeable—many companies optimised their overhead expenses, including personnel expenses, and launched (in cooperation with partners and competitors) new visitor experience products to meet the changing needs of clients.

The aim of this study was to analyse the innovation-related capability and behaviour of Estonian tourism companies, and therefore the qualitative method was chosen for obtaining an overview of the processes, which, however, entails certain limits to generalisability. The financial indicators and the level of satisfaction of the clients of tourism companies should be studied next. A compre-
hensive analysis would give a more detailed overview of the financial and organisational impact of innovations as well as of client satisfaction in light of the changes implemented.

**Acknowledgement**

The authors wish to express their gratitude to the executive managers surveyed who contributed their time and knowledge and to their employers who permitted their participation in the surveys.

**References**


Studying the Geo-tourist Effects of Gavkhuni Marsh on Development of Sustainable Tourism

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Abstract
With evaluation of environmental, human capabilities, directing of physical development plans in the direction of sustainable development of Tourism and attraction of tourists particularly in the national and transnational level is provided. One of these environmental capabilities is marshes that have abundant potential for developing Geo-Tourism. The present research studies Geo-Tourism role of Gavkhuni marsh in development of sustainable Tourism. The research method is applied and it has been performed based on the analytical nature and collecting information through documentary – Librarian studies, and then by the swot analytical model, the weak, strong points, threats and opportunities in the area have been studied. The research findings express that despite existing abundant Geo-Tourism capacities in this area, some factors such as weak planning in the direction of sustainable development and weakness of propaganda are the main reasons for non-development of Geo-Tourism in this area.

Keywords: geo-tourism, sustainable tourism.

Introduction
Today with the beginning of the 21st century, Tourism industry has been changed to one of the industries with the highest income in the world, severe competition is observed among many world countries for attracting tourists, and Tourism industry as a dynamic industry and with its unique specifications has dedicated an important part of the economic, productive activities of the developed countries to itself. In a manner that based on the forecast by World Tourism Organization in 2020, about 1,560,000,000 individuals will travel and the income resulted from international Tourism will reach $1,500,000,000. in this year (UNWTO, 2007). The organizational societies specially executive systems have found that in the process of Tourism, various positive economic, social,
political, biological and technologic,... effects are covered and in the process of sending tourists, also enrichment of man power, international political profits and promotion of native culture is essential in other locations of the world (Ebrahimzadeh, 2007).

Among various elements of Tourism, Eco-Tourism has had significant growth. Observing nature has always been enjoying for human, in a manner that for satisfying the mental, psychological needs, and responding to his / her curiosities, human being has dedicated visiting natural attractions and trip to the untouched areas as one of his/ her plans in his/ her life (Zahedi, 2006). That one of these plans is Geo-Tourism trip. Geo-Tourism is a knowledgeable and responsive Tourism in nature with the purpose of observance and recognition of the phenomena and geological procedures and also the manner of their formation as well as their evolution period (www.geotourism.gsi.ir). With regard to the precious God-given and cultural enrichments, Iran has always been considered by the tourists. Our country with variety in its nature and land is regarded as a small continent that has placed many sights in it. Isfahan province has many capabilities in the field of Geo-Tourism that can be regarded one important branch of Tourism in this province.

**Theoretical Concepts**

Geo-Tourism as a new concept that is based on the special geographical specifications of a place, increasingly has attracted the attention of people throughout the world. Geo-Tourism can be defined as follows: Tourism that sustains geographical specification of a place or promotes it, and highlights the identity of a location and brilliants it. Obviously Geo-Tourism shall be sustainable, this means that it shall not have destructive effect, but it is concentrated on the humane and natural characteristics which create visional value for a place. Some cases such as herbal, animal life, historical, architectural structures as well as beautiful perspectives (www.geotourism.gsi.ir).

From the most important factors that play role in creating Geo-Tourism phenomena, we can refer to erosion, folds, arches, and saline crystals as well as coral hills (Rahimpour, 2005).

**Sustainable Development**

A development is sustainable that meets the needs of the present descendent without creating negative effects for the future descendent (Khodami, 2004). In fact, not only sustainable development is a scientific problem, but it also is a
ethical order as well and it is related to warming the earth and also with the concept of justice and equalization (Shojaee, 2004). In reality, sustainable development is based on the 3 main principles of ecologic, cultural- social, and economic sustainability (Sinaee, 1994).

**Marsh**

The term of marsh has different meanings for various people. Marsh is said to the lagoon and basin region. The water that naturally or artificially, permanent or provisional, or the static and current water that the level of its water does not exceed 6 m while ebb (Khosravi, 2002). Marsh is an area from natural phenomena which in the process of creating, its soil has been saturated by superficial and underground waters, and it has been constituted during sufficient time and in environmental conditions and it has biological sequence (Majnuni Sufiandi, 1996).

The importance and value of the marshes is to the extent that determining physical value of the marshes has become a science at the present. In general, marshes are categorized to 3 main ecologic, economic, and aesthetic groups.

**Methodology**

The method of this research is descriptive, analytical and collecting data has been performed through documentary- librarian studies. With consideration of the obtained information, the attractions, facilities, services and general status of Geo-Tourism within the area was studied and then the swot model was used for analysis of the findings. For this purpose, the internal environment (strong and weak points) and external environment (threats and opportunities) were studied in the area and then with weighting swot Matrix, finally the suitable strategies for Geo-Tourism development of Gavkhuni marsh were presented.

**Surveying the region under study**

Gavkhuni marsh has been located at the margin of Iran central plateau between the latitudes of 32° and 22' North and 32° and 15' North and also the altitude of 52° and 45° east and 52° and 59° east and in the distance of 145 km south east of Isfahan city and in 25 km of Varzaneh city. Its height from sea level is 1470 m and it is observed in a triangular form (Zahiri, 2000). The depth of water is little in most of the parts and is 1 m. This marsh has been located at north east of Jarghuyeh and west south of Naein and west of Nadushan from Yazd province and also north west of Kavir Abarghu and east of Roudashtin
village. From the best routes for access to the march we can refer to the following:
Isfahan – Jozdan – Barsian- Ejeih- Gavkhuni marsh
Isfahan – Kupayeh – Harand- Ejeih- Varzaneh- Gavkhuni marsh
Isfahan – Ziar – Barsian- Ejeih - Varzaneh- Gavkhuni marsh
Isfahan – Kupayeh – Harand- Varzaneh- Gavkhuni marsh
(www.irandeserts.com)

The average annual temperature is 15.47 Degree that its highest temperature is related to Tir month and its lowest temperature is related to Dey month. The rate of annual rainfall is 74.35 mm, partial moisture is 37.22, and the sunny hours is 3222.5 hours per year.

The number of migrant birds of the marsh have been estimated about 40000 birds that its highest numbers are related to the types of ducks, Flamingo, Anghut, Tanjeh, henna-head duck, and grey geese, and from other animals and amphibian, we can refer to marsh frog, lizard, types of small lizards, deer, zebra,… (that unfortunately most of them do not exist anymore) and total collected plants from Gavkhuni marsh which have been recognized are 65 herbal species that the most important ones are some plants from spinach, tamarisk, chicory, ivy, and gillyflower (Beigi, 1387).

Due to the reason that this marsh is located next to Varzaneh city, in addition to having natural attractions, it has historical attractions such as cistern, ventilation, caravanserai and ancient mills (www.varzanehmiras.ir).

**Results**

Planning for development of Tourism depends on the exact study and recognition of the capabilities in the area under study. Without awareness and recognition of the potentials in each area, there is no possibility for planning. In fact recognizing potentials in each area gives the possibility to the researcher to recognize the development and its direction based on the status quo and the capability of the area in proportion to it.

**Gavkhuni marsh**

The purpose of this stage is recognition and evaluation of the strong, weak points, threats and opportunities for development of Geo-Tourism in the under study area. It means the aspects which it has in access to the aims of planning, favorable or inhibiting fields are considered. So, three categories of the existing strategies, operations and resources have been considered and studied and un-
der the title of strong, weak points, threats and opportunities are described in
the following tables within the framework of Geo-Tourism development di-

mensions (economic, social – cultural, ecologic):

**Conclusion**

With considering the findings of this research, Gavkhuni marsh has abundant
various natural and bio-environmental attractions that can be changed to one
of the Geo-tourist centers in the country. With consideration of the survey of
the status quo and recognizing the strong, weak points in developing Geo-
Tourism of this area, and from another side, the weak points and the threats
that exist in the process of Tourism development in this area, effective strate-
gies on this process with consideration of swot model indicate that weak plan-
nning in the direction of sustainable development and weakness in propaganda
are the major reasons for non- development in Geo-Tourism of this area. The
strategy of development and improvement of managerial institutions and ap-
plying specialized management in Geo-Tourism section and also presenting
short – term, middle-term and long-term plans for developing Geo-Tourism
and also developing propaganda have been recognized as the most important
strategies for Geo-Tourism development in this area. With regard to the ineffi-
ciencies and problems expressed in development of Geo-Tourism for Gavkhuni
marsh, the following cases are suggested for achievement to the growth and
promotion of it:

1. To provide investment for the plans of bio-environmental informatics.
2. To create new occupational opportunities including Tourism mentor,
   Tourism consultant in the Geo-Tourism affairs, mentor for educating
   the preservation from the bio -environment, Tourism guide, short- term
   trips, consultant and coordinator.
3. To use the salt of evaporation pools for salt- therapy
4. To prioritize the local people through participation in Geo-Tourism de-
   velopment in regions and equal distribution of the per capita resulting
   from it among local residents.
5. To provide sufficient security, preserving bio-environment in fertilize
   areas.
6. Appropriate planning for reducing the total costs for the tourists via
   creating tours and offering special discounts.
7. To utilize camel-driving

8. To maintain and preserve attractions in the area in the direction of sustainable development.

9. To hold confederation and competitions for building sandy statues.

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Evaluation of Competitiveness of Tourist Services
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Abstract
Currently, the tourism industry is one of the fastest growing forms of international trade in services. In Kazakhstan, as well as in other CIS countries, tourism as an independent branch, there is relatively recent. Currently, the market of tourist services in Kazakhstan is very diverse. Underdeveloped tourism market, the uneven location of existing tourist business, the huge untapped potential of the industry, insufficient knowledge of the problem determined the relevance of the research topic. The practical significance of the study is that the results allow assessing the competitiveness of tourist services firms, not only Akmola region, but also in other regions of the Republic of Kazakhstan. The proposed method makes it possible to assess the competitiveness of both ready-to-market provision of services and services under development.

Key words: tourism development, tourism competitiveness, tourist services, market research.

Introduction
Tourism in Kazakhstan nowadays is a developing industry and the impact of the tourism industry on the economy of the country is slight. It is adequate to the contribution of the state in the development of the industry, funding for which, as in other social sectors, is a residual. Underdeveloped tourism infrastructure, low quality of service, lack of telecommunications, environmental concerns and other factors led to what is currently in Kazakhstan accounts for less than 1% of world tourist traffic.

Today, the extremely low mobility of tourism is observed both in inbound and outbound tourism. The reasons for this situation are obvious - modest incomes and high prices for tourist services, especially within the country. But despite this, there are positive aspects of the tourism industry in Kazakhstan, because over the past few years the way from the extreme monopoly to full liberalization. Many foreign experts believe that nature has bestowed rich Ka-
Kazakhstan and exceptionally diverse ecosystems, as these lands are filled with unique sites and monuments of cultural-historical heritage, which complement the tourism attraction in the region.

In the long-term program of development of Kazakhstan's government, taking into account the rapid and steady growth of tourism and its powerful impact on the environment, all sectors of the economy and the welfare of the community identified the tourism industry is a priority. Competition - one of the essential features of the tourist market. It is regarded as a factor that regulates compliance of private and public interests, as the "invisible hand" of the market (Adam Smith), equalizing rates of return in order to optimize the distribution of labor and capital. Competition in the tourism market indicates a successful and lucrative tourism industry, based on knowledge of international legal norms and regulations, tourism management and marketing, on a full and comprehensive knowledge of the needs and demands of tourists.

**Literature review**

An important issue when considering the market of tourist services, as well as general market raises the question of the competitive environment. In order to systematically attract a certain segment of consumers, it is necessary to identify, find or invent something that would cause a permanent interest in a wide range of people with sufficient income or have a narrow range but high-income countries. The topic should be attractive enough to get interested in it were willing to sacrifice comfort features, which in the Republic of Kazakhstan at the moment a little (Nurgalieva, 2004).

As marks Ilyina, (2004), Tourist business is attractive for businessmen for diverse reasons: small starting investments; growing demand on tourist services; high level of profitability; minimum term of recoupment of expenses. Under the use-value should be understood as the totality of its most important properties that lead to the degree of suitability of products to meet specific needs in accordance with its purpose (Nermagambetov, Kozhahmetova, & Nurgalieva, 2003).

The competition among travel agencies in our country is enormous. Each year, go to the tourism market and more new firms, each with its own characteristics, advantages, new products, types of services, their experience. At each level of your travel company in the market. Often ignorant tourist does not know what the authority of the firm Nurmagambetov (2009) in their study said that the competition requires firms to create competitive products and services.
There is a dialectical relationship of competition and competitiveness - one follows the other.

Fatkhutdinov (2009) determined - competitiveness - is real and the potential ability of companies and their available options for the design, manufacture and market products that are on price and non-price characteristics of the complex more attractive to consumers than competitors’ products.

Domestic tourism market in most developed countries brings from 30 to 50 percent of total income from tourism. In this regard, Kazakhstan has good prospects. Promotion of tourism products with the brand name of "Kazakhstan" requires not only a clear definition of all components, and location in a particular market segment, but it involves finding the most effective distribution channels, selection of target markets (eg markets, Britain, Germany, Japan, etc.), and the need to bring together organizations in the fields of tourism services to solve common problems the tourism industry and increase its competitiveness (Ismaev, 2006).

By definition Nurmagambetova (2009), competitiveness is the end result of competitive relations, providing a competitive advantage and the ability of subjects to confront each other on the market (local, regional, national, global). Petukhov (1990) and Nurmagambetov (1997) proposed a method of quantifying competitiveness advantage of this method is that it takes into account the most important factor affecting the competitiveness of firms - the competitiveness of services.

**Methodology**

Tourist business is attractive to employers for various reasons: the small up-front investments, growing demand for tourist services, high levels of profitability, the minimum period of payback. Dynamics of the main indicators of tourist companies in Kazakhstan are presented in Table 1.

**Table 1.** Main indicators of tourism companies in the Republic of Kazakhstan

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicators</th>
<th>2008</th>
<th>2009</th>
<th>2010</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The number of travel agencies (units)</td>
<td>1163</td>
<td>1203</td>
<td>1252</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For inbound tourism (persons)</td>
<td>37937</td>
<td>31246</td>
<td>39640</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For outbound tourism (persons)</td>
<td>261070</td>
<td>193951</td>
<td>261709</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For domestic tourism (persons)</td>
<td>174940</td>
<td>122216</td>
<td>157988</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total served tourists (persons)</td>
<td>473947</td>
<td>347413</td>
<td>459337</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: Compiled by the author based on data from the Agency of the Republic of Kazakhstan on Statistics.*
Based on the analysis of the data of Table 1 shows that between 2008 and 2010 due to positive trends in demand in the tourism industry has increased the number of travel agencies by 1.08 times. The number of tourists served from 2008 to 2009 decreased by 1.36 times, and in the period from 2009 to 2010 there was a rise of 1.32 per cent. The temporary decline has occurred due to the fact that the reduced interest in Kazakh tourists to places of recreation within the country, and this is due to the influence of economic crisis on the tourism industry.

Domestic tourism market in most developed countries brings from 30 to 50 percent of total income from tourism. In this regard, Kazakhstan has good prospects. Promotion of tourism products with the brand name of "Kazakhstan" requires not only a clear definition of all components, and location in a particular market segment, but it involves finding the most effective distribution channels, selection of target markets (e.g. markets, Britain, Germany, Japan, etc.), and the need to bring together organizations in the fields of tourism services to solve common problems the tourism industry and enhance its competitiveness. The competitiveness of a cluster affects the competitiveness of firms. In turn, the competitiveness of industry through the industry's market structure and trends of the industry demand affects the competitive position of acting on this market in the cluster. Accordingly, the competitiveness of the national economy largely determines the competitiveness of individual sectors and enterprises, is a macroeconomic factor of their competitiveness. However, obviously the opposite effect of the elements of a lower rank to the next level of competitiveness.

Thus, competitiveness - is the end result of competitive relations, providing a competitive advantage and the ability of subjects to confront each other on the market (local, regional, national, global) [6].

The competitiveness of firms - the ability to successfully confront the other firms in the market to produce competitive products, goods and services.

In the tourist area, the main form of goods acts is a tourist product - set of non-real (in the form of services) and real (consumer goods), consumer values, provided for the tourist in order to meet his needs.

Any goods, as well as provided customer service that has a set of consumer characteristics and informal characteristics, the totality of which is quality. As a technical category, the quality reflects plurality of properties, objects, processes and phenomena. Consequently, the concept of "quality" is applicable not only
to objects (products in tangible form), but also the services of travel agencies. Quality of service is defined as a set of properties and characteristics of services that give it the ability to meet the expected demand arising from or in accordance with the regulations.

The use value - the attitude of people, consumers of the product to its properties, their aggregate. This attitude may be in varying degrees be positive and, accordingly, negative in varying degrees.

The product or service with the same purpose is capable in varying degrees to meet the need, that is, have the same quality but different use value. Thus, use value should be interpreted as the totality of its most important properties that lead to the degree of suitability of products to meet specific needs in accordance with its purpose.

In market conditions there is an objective need for enhancing the role of use value of services as one of the critical factors for success of tourist firms in the tourism market. Therefore particular importance for assessment of the competitiveness of tourist services, provided by the companies, acquire such consumer properties that characterize the level of use value as:

- The degree of accessibility (how easy it is to get timely access to services);
- Reputation of the firm (company credibility);
- Knowledge (whether or not the company understands the needs of the client);
- Reliability (how consistent and reliable service is);
- Security (whether production and consumption of services is not related to hazard and risk);
- Tangible (material-technical base, interior, office).

However, for the client is important not only result from the consumption of services, but also the process of consumption, in which he comes into contact with the staff of the company and they can be estimated by the following indicators of the level of customer service:

- The competence of staff (knowledge, professionalism);
- The level of communication (how well the company has brought to the consumer the essence of its services);
- Courtesy (employees are polite, considerate and attentive to customers);
- The reaction of employees (whether members are showing the desire and ability to rapidly provide service).
- Thus, for assessment of the competitiveness of services we can assume the following:
  - The level of use-value services;
  - The level of service;
  - The price of services.

The feasibility of using methods of quantitative assessment of the attractiveness of the service for the client to another service, a competitor of the same destination and class, proposed by Petukhov, and Nurmaganbetov. The advantage of this method is that it takes into account the most important factors affecting the competitiveness of the firm - competitive services. However, this approach provides a complete picture of the strengths and weaknesses in the company as competitiveness of the company assumes the form of competitiveness of the service and concerns technological, organizational and economic aspects of the company in the market.

The success of the business in the tourism market is determined primarily by an attractive tourist product. The implementation of market interest in the tourist company to its tourist product necessitates a detailed study of its consumer qualities and characteristics, to identify the most attractive sides to tourists.

In determining the level of consumer properties of the service (CPS) assessment of its properties is done by using the method of expert score estimates by estimated property - the degree of compliance actually achieved in the service level - level of requirements for these properties on the client side.

Each estimated property of the service is assigned a point by the expert from 0 to 10 with an interval of 1. Thus, the value of estimate index Y is established by expert in the range 0<Y<10. At the same time the highest rating - 10 points (Y = 10), the property will have if its level is reached and, in expert opinion, fully compliant with the client requirements. The minimum score is zero (Y = 0) can be awarded only in special cases, since the service in accordance with its purpose cannot be given under these conditions. In all other cases, the property is assigned a score, which should reflect one or another attitude of the expert to this property. Further statistical analysis is carried out resulting from examination of data for each of the estimated average value of property is calculated estimates given by experts.
Next, the determination of the level of consumer properties of the service (CPS), which is defined as the average geometric variable of scores given to individual customer service levels according to their relative importance:

\[ \text{CPS} = \frac{Y_{1sr}^{n1} \times Y_{2sr}^{n2} \times \ldots \times Y_{nsr}^{nn}}{n1 \times n2 \times \ldots \times nn} \]  

(1)

where \( Y_{1sr}, Y_{2sr}, \ldots, Y_{nsr} \) – point score of separate properties of service;

\( n1, n2, \ldots, nn \) - coefficients of the relative importance of properties of the service.

In determining the level of consumer properties of the service: a mandatory step is to the procedure of assessment of the relative importance, i.e., how important are from the client's perspective, different properties of the service. The significance of the properties is set by using the method of expert estimates by assigning to each of the properties of the estimated service corresponding numerical value of the coefficient "n" in scores. Valuing properties should be carried out by experts from the perspective of customer service and evaluated based on its primary purpose.

In the course of the calculations can be obtained the following results:

- If CPS = 10, with a 10-point grading scale, in this case, the consumer properties of the service fully comply with the requirements of the client;
- If CPS = 0, this means that the customer is dissatisfied with the service at all, and it is fully inconsistent with his requirements;
- If the CPS is in the range \( 0 < \text{CPS} < 10 \), then it shows the extent to which the level of service corresponds to the client's requirements.

Next, for the client is very important the price and the process of providing services. Provision of services is directly dependent on the level of service (SL) of the company, which can be quantified. The technique of estimating SL is identical to the method of assessment of CPS

The level of service is determined by the formula:

\[ \text{SL} = \frac{X_{1sr}^{n1} \times X_{2sr}^{n2} \times \ldots \times X_{nsr}^{nn}}{n1 \times n2 \times \ldots \times nn} \]  

(2)

where \( X_{1sr}, X_{2sr}, \ldots, X_{nsr} \) - score of properties that characterize the level of service;

\( n1, n2, nn \) - coefficients of the relative importance of the properties of the service level at provision of services.
The client will compare CPS, price, service level of the service of considered company with CPS, price and the service level of the same services of competing companies. Based on this comparison he will give preference to a particular service. Under this approach, the competitiveness of the service of tourist company can be estimated by the formula:

\[
CC_{p/k} = \left( \frac{\text{CPS}_p}{\text{CPS}_k} \right)^\alpha \times \left( \frac{\text{SL}_p}{\text{SL}_k} \right)^\beta \times \left( \frac{\text{C}_p}{\text{C}_k} \right)^\gamma
\]

(3)

Where \( \alpha + \beta + \gamma = 1 \);

Where \( CC_{p/k} \) - an indicator of the competitiveness of services under consideration in relation to the service of a competitor;

\( \text{CPS}_p, \text{CPS}_k \) - evaluation (in points) of the levels of consumer properties for the considered services of the company and competitor companies;

\( \text{C}_c, \text{C}_k \) - the price for the service of the company under consideration and service of competitor companies

\( \text{SL}_p, \text{SL}_k \) - evaluation (in points) of levels of service in compared services;

\( \alpha, \beta, \gamma \)-coefficients of the relative importance of the CPS, prices, and SLs.

The coefficients \( \alpha, \beta, \gamma \) are determined by the experts - specialists in the field of marketing.

The essential meaning of the formula 3 is that indicator, calculated with its help, provides a quantitative assessment of the attractiveness of the company services for the client considered in relation to the same service of the companies competing for the same purpose and class. If the value of index equal to one, the estimated service firms under consideration have equal competitiveness with the comparable service of competing firms. If the measure of competitiveness is greater than one, then the considered service of the company is more competitive than the services of competing firms. If it is less than one, then the service is less competitive.

To assess the competitiveness of the services provided by the tourist company "Sayat" there was the need for short-term market research.

Market research has shown that competitors are tourist companies offering their services on the market in Astana, such as – companies of JSC “Akmola-tourist”, “Astana Best Travel”, “Baiterek Travel”, “Horizon” and others.
Selection of the service has predetermined that the development of domestic tourism should be a priority in the policies of each travel agency.

For the expert examination were involved the specialists of tourist company "Sayat" in the amount of 3 persons and 10 persons from other travel companies of Astana. Expert evaluation of properties of the levels of consumer services for the sale of tourists trips to Kurgaldzhino lake, as well as the average score of properties of the considered service of the companies (on a scale from 0 to 10) and services of competitor companies, obtained by an expert (Appendix A) and values of the coefficients of relative importance are presented in Table 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Indices, characterizing level of consumer properties of the service</th>
<th>Company LLP &quot;Sayat&quot;</th>
<th>Competitor company</th>
<th>Coefficient of relative importance of indices</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Accessibility level</td>
<td>4,0</td>
<td>4,5</td>
<td>0,18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Company reputation</td>
<td>7,8</td>
<td>8,2</td>
<td>0,17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Knowledge</td>
<td>8,5</td>
<td>9,0</td>
<td>0,14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Reliability</td>
<td>8,3</td>
<td>8,9</td>
<td>0,16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Security</td>
<td>5,8</td>
<td>6,9</td>
<td>0,19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Tangibility</td>
<td>5,0</td>
<td>7,6</td>
<td>0,16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1,00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>CPS</td>
<td>6,35</td>
<td>7,19</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Staff competence</td>
<td>6,9</td>
<td>7,0</td>
<td>0,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Communication level</td>
<td>8,3</td>
<td>7,3</td>
<td>0,1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Courtesy</td>
<td>7,5</td>
<td>7,1</td>
<td>0,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Reaction of employees</td>
<td>7,0</td>
<td>6,0</td>
<td>0,3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SL</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>7,02</td>
<td>6,72</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: compiled by the author on the basis of conducted expertise

Based on Tables 2 and 3 February formulas calculated level of consumer service properties UPSr = 6.35 points and 7.19 points = CBSA, and the level of service to the firm "Sayat" RBM = 7.02 points and the services of competing firms Walk = 6, 72 points.

The price for the service of the company "Sayat" - 60000 tenge, average price for the same services of competing firms - 65000 tenge.

Next, determine the level of competitiveness of tourist services firm LP "Sayat" to sell tickets to land on. Kurgaldzhino in relation to the same service firms, competitors in the formula 3.
By expert way were defined coefficients of the relative importance of individual components of the competitiveness of services: \( \alpha = 0.35; \beta = 0.24; \gamma = 0.41 \).

**Results**

Let us perform the calculation of the competitiveness by formula 3 and the index of competitiveness is \( CC_{p/k} = 0.95 \), indicating a lack of preference for the customers for service at the travel agency LLP "Sayat" compared with the same service of competing companies. Although the price of LLP "Sayat" company is lower compared to prices of competing companies, the company pays greater attention to consumer properties of the service and the process of customer service.

From the contents of the formula derived three main areas of competitiveness, such as technical, economic and organizational.

*Technical direction* is connected with the improvement of the accessibility, reliability, consistency, improved confidence in the firm, a clear understanding of customer needs, reducing risk and improving conditions for the provision of services.

*The economic* trend is mainly due to pricing policies. While in the service price index of consumption loses its decisive importance, however, the market of tourist services is the hidden price competition and price for the customer is important when choosing a consumer services.

*Organizational direction* is connected with the process of consumption, during which the customer comes into contact with the staff of the firm. For that would improve the competitiveness of tourism services firm can:

A) increase the quality and consumer properties of services;

B) improve the organization of sales services [7].

**Conclusion**

Quantitative evaluation of the competitiveness of tourist services firms can more confidently go to the domestic and foreign markets and to estimate the chance of successful implementation. It also allows you to define the main directions of improving the competitiveness - from technology improvement of tourist services, that is, with all that allows you to increase the level of consumer characteristics: the degree of availability, the firm's reputation, reliability, etc. The effectiveness of these efforts will also vary. Any action to undertake the
same, the event needs to be substantiated, especially economically. Sometimes it is time consuming and complicated process, but necessary.

References


Representations of Çeşme as a Seaside Resort in Popular Culture

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Abstract

Resorts and beaches are vital revenue generators. The coast encompassing beach and nearshore waters provides an environment conducive to recreation and leisure supporting the biggest tourism trade of any environmental type in the world. Image plays a vital role in tourism that attracts many visitors more than the reality. On the other hand, changes in fashion and consumer tastes can account for rise and fall of destinations from an exogenous demand perspective. Popular culture is a societal activity that can attract, inform, entertain and influence those who experience it directly or indirectly. Popular culture is influenced by heavily mass media. This study is a preliminary study aiming to create a structure that the tourism representations of a popular seaside resort Çeşme on the basis of popular culture among Turkish citizens is analyzed.

Key words: seaside resorts, popular culture, destination image, travel motivations.

Introduction

Pearce (1991, p. 52) expresses a good tourist attraction as one in which the public has clear conceptions of what the place is about, it is one where the activities in the setting are understood, accessible and excite public imagination. Gonzales and Falcon (2003) distinguish tourism resources into three categories which include certain natural resources (such as beaches, mountains, and countryside), cultural assets (such as museums, traditions, and festivals) and services. Çeşme offers a possibility of leisure, social, or cultural experiences at the same
Çeşme is defined as a resort where visitors can stretch out on the warm sand, enjoy a variety of water sports or take a boat trip along the coast and visit the nearby islands (http://www.destinationizmir.com). Çeşme as a resort destination attracts people especially in summer as it is well-known with its beaches, windsurfing and nightlife. Agardy (1993) highlights the importance of beaches as vital revenue generators. She also stresses how the coast encompassing beach and nearshore waters provide an environment conducive to recreation and leisure supporting the biggest tourism trade of any environmental type in the world. Apparently, in terms of this emphasis, Çeşme Peninsula seems to be an advantageous town because of its location in the Aegean Region. Furthermore, Erythrai Ancient City excavated in (the village of) Çeşme-Ildırı, the Castle, Caravanserai and many fountains from Ottoman Period and the other examples of civil architecture in the historical texture of the city compose the historical and archaeological remains of Çeşme (http://www.kultur.gov.tr).

From a festival perspective, visitor audiences create new forms of demand, sources of box office income, and a means of heightening their repute (Quinn, 2006) and there are several festivals organized such as Wine Festival, Herbal Festival, Surf Festival, Millfest (art and fashion) and Chill-out Festival in Çeşme. Çeşme has many historical and thermal attractions that can take the interest of tourists such as Çeşme Castle, Archeological Museum of Çeşme Castle, Caravanserai, Çeşme hot springs, Şifne (Reisdere) thermal spring and mud baths. There are also three harbours; Alaçatı Harbour, Çeşme-Altinyunus Yacht Harbour and Çeşme harbour within the region that yachters can benefit. On the other hand, Alaçatı is one of the most interesting surfing areas in Europe and offers a unique experience of windsurfing. The best thing about Alaçatı is that the winds blow from the land to the sea and no matter how hard the wind blows the waves in the sea stay about the same which makes Alaçatı a safe place for wind surfing (http://www.kultur.gov.tr). As it is also valid for Çeşme, a high proportion of visitors own second homes, condominium or time-shared properties in many resort areas (Lawson, 2004, p. 1). Çeşme is extremely rich in secondary houses; many people from İzmir and İstanbul prefer to buy summer houses and spend their holidays in Çeşme. On the other hand, there are many hotels that accommodate tourists offering a sophisticated and entertaining atmosphere. The occupancy rates of these hotels in 2011 are listed as below:
Table 1. Statistics of accommodating tourists in Cesme in 2011

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of the facility</th>
<th>Domestic (no. of tourists)</th>
<th>Foreign (no. of tourists)</th>
<th>Total (no. of tourists)</th>
<th>Domestic (no. of nights)</th>
<th>Foreign (no. of nights)</th>
<th>Total (no. of nights)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Altınyunus Resort</td>
<td>24.654</td>
<td>6.886</td>
<td>31.540</td>
<td>87.523</td>
<td>43.904</td>
<td>131.427</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Sheraton Çeşme</td>
<td>55.122</td>
<td>13.795</td>
<td>68.917</td>
<td>107.801</td>
<td>27.753</td>
<td>135.554</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Ontur Hotel</td>
<td>23.773</td>
<td>36.221</td>
<td>59.994</td>
<td>58.784</td>
<td>148.413</td>
<td>207.197</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Babaylon Hotel</td>
<td>3.078</td>
<td>5.007</td>
<td>8.085</td>
<td>15.739</td>
<td>25.915</td>
<td>41.654</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 In-Kim Hotel</td>
<td>5.528</td>
<td>446</td>
<td>5.974</td>
<td>15.060</td>
<td>1.671</td>
<td>16.731</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 Familia Hotel</td>
<td>17.731</td>
<td>279</td>
<td>18.010</td>
<td>71.206</td>
<td>1.773</td>
<td>72.979</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 Ridvan Hotel</td>
<td>2.932</td>
<td>805</td>
<td>3.737</td>
<td>5.109</td>
<td>1.578</td>
<td>6.687</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 Ilica Hotel</td>
<td>15.546</td>
<td>4.283</td>
<td>19.829</td>
<td>45.223</td>
<td>15.897</td>
<td>61.120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 Piril Hotel</td>
<td>8.695</td>
<td>4.061</td>
<td>12.756</td>
<td>24.643</td>
<td>31.147</td>
<td>55.790</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 Kerasus Hotel</td>
<td>9.266</td>
<td>2.405</td>
<td>11.671</td>
<td>32.262</td>
<td>15.420</td>
<td>47.682</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 Kerman Hotel</td>
<td>2.125</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>2.300</td>
<td>5.475</td>
<td>202</td>
<td>5.677</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 Sisus Hotel</td>
<td>2.734</td>
<td>1.310</td>
<td>4.044</td>
<td>7.108</td>
<td>7.074</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14 Radisson Blu Hotel</td>
<td>32.892</td>
<td>24.342</td>
<td>57.234</td>
<td>54.271</td>
<td>47.466</td>
<td>101.737</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 Meltem Resort</td>
<td>768</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>768</td>
<td>3.844</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>3.844</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 Kamer Hotel</td>
<td>1.041</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>1.109</td>
<td>2.248</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>2.384</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17 Alaçati Beach Resort</td>
<td>1.801</td>
<td>294</td>
<td>2.095</td>
<td>6.525</td>
<td>1.372</td>
<td>7.897</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18 Termal Lord Hotel</td>
<td>1.979</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1.979</td>
<td>2.736</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2.736</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19 Pasific Hotel</td>
<td>3.900</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>3.900</td>
<td>7.750</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>7.750</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 Albano Hotel</td>
<td>787</td>
<td>1.249</td>
<td>2.036</td>
<td>1.934</td>
<td>3878</td>
<td>5.812</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 7800 Residence Hotel</td>
<td>1.572</td>
<td>455</td>
<td>2.027</td>
<td>3.563</td>
<td>455</td>
<td>4.018</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22 Port Hotel Alaçati</td>
<td>754</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>832</td>
<td>951</td>
<td>203</td>
<td>1.154</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23 Kervansaray</td>
<td>1.965</td>
<td>444</td>
<td>2.409</td>
<td>4.085</td>
<td>1.151</td>
<td>5.236</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24 Ladin Hotel</td>
<td>2.639</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>2.780</td>
<td>8.217</td>
<td>469</td>
<td>8.686</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25 Central Park Otel</td>
<td>2.674</td>
<td>557</td>
<td>3.231</td>
<td>10.790</td>
<td>5.272</td>
<td>16.062</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tot Fac. with doc.</td>
<td>231.854</td>
<td>107.727</td>
<td>339.581</td>
<td>606.565</td>
<td>411.639</td>
<td>1.018.204</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tot Fac. with other doc.</td>
<td>79.608</td>
<td>4.500</td>
<td>84.108</td>
<td>177.720</td>
<td>42.984</td>
<td>220.704</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fac. with municipality doc.</td>
<td>324.386</td>
<td>123.055</td>
<td>758.903</td>
<td>1.730.278</td>
<td>584.739</td>
<td>2.315.017</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The relevant data about the accommodating tourists in Çeşme is taken from CESTOB (Association of Çeşme Hotels) of the year 2011. The total number of tourists that the lodging facilities reported to the association is about 1.182.592. Unfortunately, it was not possible to get the monthly occupancy rates but it’s probable to make comment on the annual numerical differences of domestic and foreign tourists accordingly. In 2011 the number of foreign tourists is about 235.282 and the number of domestic tourists is about 635.848. It can be ob-
served from the data that Çeşme is locally popular due to Turkish popular culture which mentioned earlier in the study. On the other hand, as it is declared by all the tourism authorities in Çeşme, the peak season is especially July and August. It represents the limited popularity of the destination in terms of seasonal demand occurred in July and August with high occupancy rates.

**Literature Review**

**Place Image**

As an elusive and confusing construct, image is believed to have a rather strong effect on consumer behavior (Tasci, Gartner & Cavusgil, 2007). As it is mentioned in the study of Bigne, Sanchez and Sanchez (2001), the image of a destination consists of the subjective interpretation of reality made by the tourist. In another words, as defined by Baloglu and McCleary (1999) a destination image is the expression of all knowledge, impressions, prejudices and emotional thoughts an individual or group has of a particular object or place. Unique destination images are formed depending on tourists’ perceptions of the strength of cognitive and affective attributes (Lin, Morais, Kersteer, & Hou, 2007). Thus, the combination of affective and cognitive factors produces an overall, or compound, image relating to the positive, or negative, evaluation of the product or brand (Beerli & Martin, 2004). Sustaining the destination image for a long term should be another concern for marketers. Therefore, considering the changes, all development should be thought out ahead of time, and attractions and facilities that are built should be there for some reason (Mill, 2001, p. 88). Çeşme is a developing tourist destination, so the investments should be planned and implemented in a sustainable manner. Additionally, d’Hauteserre (2000) defines competitiveness as the ability of a destination to maintain its market position and share and/or to improve upon them through time.

On the other hand, Papatheodorou (2004) states that changes in fashion and consumer tastes can account for rise and fall of destinations from an exogenous demand perspective. As Agarwal (2002: 27) mentions when there is functional shift away from tourism, the resort may become a slum or else lose its tourism function completely. But she also emphasizes that when the encounter-measures are adopted such as the re-orientation of tourism attractions, environmental enhancement, or the repositioning of the destination within an overall market can prevent the decline. Um and Crompton (1992) imply that potential tourists tend to have limited knowledge about a destination that they have not previously visited. According to their study, this knowledge often is confined to symbolic information acquired either from media or from their social
groups. Not only the printed media but also the visual media make destinations as the subject of news. Since visual media can communicate the image better, it’s a beneficial way to use it in terms of inducing a destination image in terms of promotional objectives. TV shows broadcasted on the media are supposed to influence the destination alternatives of the tourists and encourage them to participate in various events in Çeşme. In fact, Çeşme hosts many events such as festivals, concerts, dance shows at the beach clubs either at night or during the daytime. In order to create a strong and consistent image of a destination, destination marketers convey their messages through many channels including films, soap operas, TV shows, video clips of singers and so forth to create higher demand. The research of Hanlan and Kelly (2005) point out the significance of word of mouth communication and its predominance over traditional media as a means of promoting a destination and the creation of destination image. In regard with the local tourism Çeşme stands for prestige and wealth with the effect of the popular culture. There are several TV shows in Turkey that are popular having high ratings all around the country. These play a significant role in the decision-making process of tourists and motivate them to take part in tourism activities and travel to the particular destination. In fact, some of the tourists lead themselves to have the celebrities’ travel habits at a certain destination, such as going to the places that the celebrities go; and doing the things they do that reflects the celebrities’ splendid lives. Actually, the tourist may or may not experience the same atmosphere that the magazine programs try to induce as a destination image, but still destinations attract many people.

**Popular Culture**

Culture and popular culture concept has been defined by many researchers in various research areas (Hofstede, 1980; Hall, 1976; Triandis, 1995; Wilson, 1992; Fiske, 1994). Hofstede (1980) defines culture as ‘the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one human group from another’. Additionally according to Keegan (2002) culture is ‘ways of living, built up by a group of human beings that are transmitted from one generation to another’. On the other hand, popular culture can be defined as the culture of daily life which appeals to and shapes the current tastes of the society in the short run, and is produced by some developed industries and technologies (Parker (2011). Additionally, Fiske (1989) defines popular culture as ‘industrially produced and distributed commodities that must, in order to be economically viable and thus to exist at all, offer a variety of cultural potentialities to a variety of social for-
Popular culture is always in process; its meanings can never be identified in a text, for texts are activated, or made meaningful, only in social relations and in intertextual relations (Fiske, 1994 cited in Conboy, 2001, p. 14). At this point, although culture can be regarded as more static which transforms in a long time, popular culture is easily subject to change and evolves in a shorter time. According to Wilson (1992) popular culture surrounds people in their everyday lives and encompasses all the objects, customs, fads and activities. Popular culture products are supported and produced by developed industries and distributed to different societies having well-formed marketing and advertising plans in the background. This professional production and distribution make them worldwide famous and acceptable (Erken, 2007).

In a similar vein, in the study of Simeon (2006) popular culture is referred to the beliefs and practices, and the objects through which they are organized, that are widely shared among a population. This study strongly stresses popular culture as a societal activity that can attract, inform, entertain and influence those who experience it directly or indirectly. Moreover the greater use of communication technologies and the pressure of popular culture have led individuals, groups and communities to have similar attitudes towards tourism products. The content of popular culture includes sports, films, magazines, fiction, newspapers, television, music, books, sports, computers, games, toys, the Internet and so on. Some characteristics of popular culture are (Erken, 2007):

1. affects people’s daily lives, involving the topics they speak, the music they listen to and movies they like to go,
2. products of popular culture are constantly changing and appealing to the current tastes of groups,
3. appeals to large, heterogeneous groups of people, involving both youngsters and adults.

Popular culture is a bond which connects the tastes and views of people in the real world and people in the imaginary world whereas the important element of popular culture is acceptability within the society (Conboy, 2001, p. 26). Celebrities are usually heroes/heroins or role models of ordinary people. Thus, people are biased to adopt celebrities’ preferences, tastes, likes and dislikes by unquestioning them. Considering the tourism activities, celebrities’ tourism destination preferences also influence people’s holiday preferences. Representations and images of tourist destinations constructed by popular cultural forms of media such as films, television and literature play a significant role in influencing people’s holiday decision-making process (Busby & Klug,
It is apparent that tourism and popular culture have mutual relationship. As Berger (2008) emphasizes, tourism is closely linked to the everyday lives and popular culture of local people where tourists shop souvenirs and local products while they visit other places. Popular culture gained an enormous expansion as with the technological development of mass media that influences people’s daily lives on a wide basis. People from every age are tend to adapt behaviours, attitudes and lifestyles related to popular culture and create a homogenous group of people with similar tastes and preferences. For instance, television is the most significant tool of communicating popular culture that creates icons to be traced in every aspect by the population. Today, popular culture dominates the media that influences people’s behaviours in the real world. Popular culture generates demand by encouraging people to visit certain destinations. Popular culture induces place image of tourists related with relevant detination. Media-related tourism involves visits to places celebrated for associations with books, authors, television programs and films (Busby & Klug, 2001). According to Evans (1997) movie-induced tourism comprises 'tourist visits to a destination or attraction as a result of the destination being featured on television, video or the cinema screen'. Literature, films and television series can induce people to travel not only by the attractive physical properties (spectacular scenery etc.) portrayed but also by their associated themes, story-lines, events, and characters, shaping audiences’ feelings, emotions, and attitudes towards places (Iwashita, 2006). According to Awaritefe (2004) tourists will likely to travel with different motivations on different occasions, possibly also at different times. Hence, Çesme is a resort destination rich in offering alternatives for socialization and entertainment. The opportunities are varied for tourists such as windsurfing, relaxation, rejuvenation, entertainment, yachting and visiting of historical sites. Çesme has a competitive advantage particularly in the domestic tourism market. The reason of this advantage refers to high popularity among high society and celebrities. That’s why it’s mostly preferred as a topic by the magazine journalists and TV professionals.

**Methodology**

In this study, the dimensions of factor analysis are identified by implying a factor analysis in addition to frequencies of the research sample. The questionnaire was conducted only in Turkish as it aims the domestic tourists who travelled to Çesme before. A self-administered survey questionnaire has been designed for the purpose of primary data collection. The survey questionnaire consisted of three sections of questions: demographic profile of the visitors as
well as motivations and sources of information about the destination. The questionnaire consists of 28 measurement items of motivation and 5 demographic items. The respondents were firstly asked to mention whether they have ever been to Çeşme or not. 14 tourists claimed that they had never been to Çeşme and answered only image part of the questionnaire. As our sample is the Turkish citizens who had stayed at Çeşme before, we have excluded these 14 questionnaires from the study. Finally, 146 usable questionnaires are found appropriate for analyzing.

First section of the questionnaire is composed of demographic questions such as; gender, age, education, occupation and monthly income. Then the sources of information were gathered by the multiple choices such as Internet, Films or TV, Travel Articles, Travel Agent, and Travel Guide. The measurement items of motivation were generated from a review of related articles and finally were adapted from the study of Yue (2008). In order to adapt the motivation items to the current study, items not related to the attributes of Çeşme such as “to be daring and adventuresome”, and “to obtain intellectual inspiration” has been excluded. And, in addition to motivation related questions, five more questions have been added to the motivation scale in order to identify the motivations determined by the popular culture. These travel motivations are; traveling to Çeşme as shown on TV shows, travelling to Çeşme as celebrities travel to, traveling to Çeşme where television series are broadcasted, travelling to Çeşme as referred in magazines, traveling to Çeşme as published in newspapers. Additionally, “to tell my friend about the trip” has been excluded from the motivation item as it is equally loaded to varied factors. “To visit a destination valued and appreciated by most people” item has also been excluded from the motivation dimension as it hasn’t got acceptable factor loading. The items were measured by seven seven-point Likert scale. Snowball sampling method was used in order to increase the sample size during the low season. According to Hair et al. (2007) snowball sampling involves identifying a set of respondents who can help researcher identify additional people to include in the study. In this method one respondent refer other potential respondents, and is also called referral sampling (Hair et al., 2007). SPSS 13 statistical package was used to analyze the data.

Results
As a result of the research, the finding are indicating that among respondents of the survey 54.8 % is female whereas 45.2 % are male. Most of the respondents’ age are between 18-24 which refers to 55.5% of the total frequency. Totally
97.9% of the respondents have university degree and above. Also majority of the total respondents are either students (57.5%) or employees (37.7%). Monthly income of the respondents have a range between 2000 and 3999 TL with a percentage of 27.4.

Table 2 represents the survey results of the respondents’ sources in gaining information about Çeşme. The respondents were allowed to mark multiple choices in this section. According to the survey results, there are four major information sources of the destination. The respondents’ most popular information sources are friend or relatives who have visited Çeşme (%56.8), previous visit (%56.2), friend or relative living in Çeşme (%55.5) and internet (%42.2) in sequence.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Frequency (N=146)</th>
<th>Survey Statistics (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Internet</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>42.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travel Book Guide</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>11.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Films or TV or Radio Program</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>14.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advertisement on Newspaper or Magazines</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>21.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travel Article in Newspapers or Magazines</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>18.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travel Agent</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>13.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friend or relative living in Çeşme</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>55.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friend or relative who has visited Çeşme</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>56.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Previous Visit</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>56.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TV and radio advertisements</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>8.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Exploratory factor analysis using the principal component method with varimax rotation was conducted on motivation in order to understand the underlying dimensions. The motivation variables are entered into a factor analysis. The result of the varimax-rotated analysis for motivation indicates the existence of three significant factors with Eigen values greater than 1 that explained 67.992% of the variance. Bartlett’s test of sphericity has a value of 3321.569 (p < 0.001) and Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin statistic is 0.926 for motivation. After the factor analysis, any items that were cross-loaded on two factors with factor loadings less than 0.40 were removed. As a result, items were loaded on components more appropriately. Additionally, four underlying dimensions of motivation has been identified. Based on the result of the factor analysis of motivation, eleven items of the novelty content dimension, six items of purification dimension, five items of popular culture dimension and three items of snobism dimension were loaded on the same factor. The reliability of the fac-
tors was tested by Cronbach’s alpha in order to determine the internal consistency of the scale and the reliability is 0.963.

Table 3. Factor loadings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimensions</th>
<th>Factor Loading</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Purification</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To break from routine</td>
<td>0.839</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To be away from the crowds</td>
<td>0.780</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To rest/relax</td>
<td>0.853</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To be with family or friend</td>
<td>0.663</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To explore new and different things</td>
<td>0.522</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Novelty</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To go shopping</td>
<td>0.426</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To do sightseeing</td>
<td>0.554</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To seek thrill and excitement</td>
<td>0.783</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To satisfy curiosity</td>
<td>0.704</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To have fun and be entertained</td>
<td>0.632</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To meet different people</td>
<td>0.543</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To meet friends with similar interest</td>
<td>0.506</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To enrich my life experience</td>
<td>0.694</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To learn about a different culture</td>
<td>0.671</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To experience different lifestyle</td>
<td>0.615</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To increase knowledge</td>
<td>0.618</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To have a memorable experience</td>
<td>0.629</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Snobizm             |                |
| To visit a destination valued and appreciated by most people | 0.805          |
| To visit a place that my friends haven’t been to | 0.755          |
| To visit a destination that would impress my friends or family | 0.745          |

| Popular Culture     |                |
| Travelling to Çeşme as referred in magazines | 0.795          |
| Travelling to Çeşme as celebrities travel to | 0.813          |
| Travelling to Çeşme where television series are broadcasted | 0.654          |
| Traveling to Çeşme as referred in magazines | 0.813          |
| Traveling to Çeşme as published in newspapers | 0.783          |

Conclusion

Firstly, this study focuses on the link between the destination image and popular culture in terms of literature review. Secondly this study is a preliminary study to pre-test the questionnaire and find out how well the questionnaire works. The questionnaire will be revised accordingly for the future research of the effects of popular culture on the induced destination image. On the other hand, as an individual study, the major limitation of the study is seasonal since the data is gathered between December and February instead of the peak season for Çeşme as a coastal destination in May and September. Therefore, the sample we have reached for the survey is limited to 160. The aim of this study is to emphasize the importance of popular culture on tourism activities of
Çeşme in regard with domestic tourism. Çeşme as a seaside resort is also very popular among celebrities both on a leisure and business basis. Magazine programs and journalists generally track the celebrities and the news about the celebrities takes the attention of people easily. Therefore, news about celebrities in the mass media increases the popularity of the relevant tourism destinations. Especially in the summer time, TV programmes about celebrities’ lifestyles in Turkey focuses on vacations at seaside resorts and various leisure activities of celebrities. Magazine programs containing the lifestyles of celebrities become a phenomenon within Turkish culture which also created “Televole culture”. This type of culture actually refers to snobbism that motivates people who can or can’t afford such vacations. Some people watching such programs in Turkey try to adapt the touristic manners of celebrities. Popular culture has emerged from a continually changing and socially related set of contemporary behaviors, images, practices and products. As the forces of globalization accelerate across borders and a greater increase in development of mass media popular culture influence tourism movements. Further research may focus on a survey to the domestic tourists in order to determine the effects of popular culture on the destination image of Çeşme.

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Experiences of Authenticity at World Heritage Sites: From Cultural Distances to Behavior Intentions

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Abstract
Cultural tourism is a product which people seek more and more. This market is difficult to quantify, and experts suggest that more research would help to identify segments of cultural tourists. An effective way of addressing research is to classify tourists according to their motivations, behaviors and desired experiences (Pedersen, 2002). This study seeks to investigate the relationship among cultural distance, motivation, perception of authenticity at World Heritage Sites and tourism experiences. Authenticity perception, involvement with the sites and future behavior intentions will also be addressed. A survey will be applied in five different languages to collect data from three European historic centers, Guimarães, Córdoba and Firenze classified by UNESCO as World Heritage Sites. The data will be analyzed in order to establish a structural equation model (SEM) which, we hope, will allow tourism and cultural managers to understand if the cultural product and services they offer are appropriate to the tourists’ profile they intend to attract.

Keywords: world heritage, cultural tourism, authenticity perception, cultural distance, behavioral intentions.

Introduction
Cultural tourism is a product which people seek more and more. This market is difficult to quantify, and experts suggest that more research would help to identify segments of cultural tourists. An effective way of addressing research is to classify tourists according to their motivations, behaviors and desired experiences (Pedersen, 2002). Even though there are studies which have investi-
gated many cultural tourist characteristics, there is a possible overlap in the study of the relationships among these concepts. Therefore, this paper aims to close this gap.

The authors believe that different types of motivation and cultural distance will create different perceptions of object and tourism experience authenticity. We hope to establish a relation between the perception of authenticity and the involvement with World Heritage Sites. Also, we will try to determine the factors that influence the intentions to return and recommend this type of cultural tourism destinations. In sum, this study seeks to investigate the relationship among cultural distance, motivation perception of authenticity at World Heritage Sites and touristic experiences. The perception of authenticity, the involvement with the sites and future behavior intentions will also be related. These results will allow cultural and tourist managers to understand if the historic centers classified as World Heritage Site and the services associated with it are suitable to the market segment they wish to capture.

Literature Review

The inscription of sites on the World Heritage list is generally considered an excellent contribution to preserve common history in the form of cultural monuments and landscapes worth preserving. This inscription is often part of local development strategies aiming to increase international tourist arrivals. The 80s mark both the increase of tourism activity and new ways of travelling. If on one hand the number of people traveling has increased and the flows have progressively globalized, on the other hand, tourists seeks places where singularity, culture, authenticity and history have meaning. Tourists are becoming more educated, informed, and demanding. The World Heritage Sites offer a possibility of creating an increasing market segment. In the next lines we will present the concepts that we will try to relate in our study: World Heritage Sites, Cultural Tourism, Authenticity, Cultural Distance, Cultural Motivation, Involvement and Behavior Intentions.

World Heritage Sites

World Heritage is a clear example of a global common good: The World Heritage List reflects the wealth and diversity of the Earth’s cultural and natural heritage (UNESCO 2005). The World Heritage List compiled by UNESCO has become highly popular (Frey, 2010). Many WHS are major attractions for cultural tourism, and are icons of national identity (Shackley, 2006). World Heritage
status plays a crucial role in attracting visitors to the sites, is a “magnet for visitors” (Shackley, 1998). The hierarchy of attractions will differ between tourists based on the set of available attractions that a tourist is aware of, depth of knowledge that the tourist has of each attraction, and the tourist’s personal interests (Lew et al., 2008). The urban WHS, mainly the historic centers, has opened up a series of problems for WHS management, resulting in what has become a nascent crisis. Part of this is about the conflict between the preservationist ethos of the WHS designation and attempts by local authorities to extract economic benefit or at least secure appropriate economic and social development (Pendlebury, 2009).

Cultural tourism

Cultural tourism is a kind of tourism motivated by the desire of experiencing the authentic natural, historic and cultural resources of a community or region (NCDOT, 2000). The interest in local culture, contact with the locals and the populations’ traditions continue to be important during their holiday’s experience, therefore, creating new opportunities of involvement (Poon, 2007). Tourism and culture have always been closely linked in Europe. Europe has always been an important destination for those attracted by its rich cultural and historic legacy. The cultural tourism market in Europe is therefore becoming increasingly competitive. A growing number of cities and regions in the European Union are basing their tourism development strategies on the promotion of cultural heritage, and the number of cultural attractions is growing rapidly (Richards, 2005). Tourist attractions are important to the tourism production process as they are usually the motivating factor to visit specific destinations or places.

Cultural distance

Currently, the international tourism industry is faced with an increasing number of inbound travelers with different cultural backgrounds (Reisinger, 1998). Culture could be defined as the interactive aggregate of common characteristics that influence a human group’s response to its environment (Hofstede, 1990). Cultural distance compares the tourist national culture to the destination host culture and analyzes tourism motivation based on the distance between the two cultures (McKercker, 2001). Cultural distance study can focus on four dimensions: cultural, administrative, geographic, and economic distance (Ghemawat, 2001). Many aspects of subjective culture form patterns of beliefs, attitudes, norms, values, and social behaviors (Kim, 1998).
Cultural motivation

Motivation leads to a choice, instigates, makes a start to a goal directed behavior (Bzuneck, 2004). Cultural tourists are motivated by their interest in historic, artistic, scientific heritage and a community, region, group or institution’s way of life (Silberberg, 1995). Push motivations are more related to internal or emotional aspects. (Crompton, 1979). Tourists may travel to escape routine and search for authentic experience. Pull motivations, on the other hand, are connected to external, situational, or cognitive aspects. According to the reasons that motivate tourism visit, cultural tourists can be divided into three main groups: ‘heritage experience’, ‘learning history’ and ‘recreational experience’ (Poria, 2004).

Authenticity

Authenticity qualifies the sites and touristic experiences. Among other options found in literature, there is a need to analyze the tourist perception of authenticity, bearing in mind the destination, its attractions, motivations, cultural distance, and contact with other tourists (Kohler, 2009). The cultural identity is closely related to authenticity, which in tourism identifies traditional cultures and their origins as genuine, real and unique, establishing a strong connection with the communities’ heritage (Sharpley, 1994). Cultural distance study has increased in tourism research. This is an aspect which attracts tourists as well as a reason to travel (Hottola, 2004).

Involvement

The depth of experiences or level of engagement with the attraction must be considered when segmenting the cultural tourism market. Different people have different abilities to engage with cultural and heritage attractions (McKercher, 2002). Involvement with the places visited and travel experience becomes a kind of pilgrimage to a sacred place. The interest in local culture, contact with the locals and the populations’ traditions continue to be important during their holiday’s experience, therefore, creating new opportunities of involvement (Poon, 2007).

Behavior intentions

Behavior intentions refer to the set of tourists’ attitudes after their visiting experiences. Thus, each distinct and favorable experience will positively influence
future behavior, for example in the subsequent evaluation of destination, the future intentions to return or to recommend the visited site (Bigné et al., 2001). Repeat purchases or recommendations to other people are most usually referred to as consumer loyalty in the marketing literature, but tourism products or destinations loyalty may not be enough to explain why and how they are willing to revisit or recommend them to other potential tourists (Yoon, 2005). Although there are studies that investigate cultural tourists’ involvement, a causal relationship between them has not been studied, so this will be our goal.

**Conceptual Model**

Based on the literature we propose the following conceptual model:

![Conceptual Model Diagram]

**Methodology**

A survey will be applied in five different languages to collect data from three European historic centers, Guimarães, Córdoba and Firenze classified by UNESCO as World Heritage Sites. To analyze the data we will do an exploratory study with SPSS, a confirmatory factorial analysis and structural equation modeling with LISREL. We hope to obtain a structural equation model to measure the relationships between the constructs.

**Results**

It is hoped that, according to different types of motivation and cultural distance, tourists have different perceptions of tourism object and experience authenticity. It is expected to establish the relationships between the perception of authenticity and the tourists’ involvement with the WHS. So as to determine the factors that influences the intentions to return and recommend this type of
cultural tourism destinations. These results will allow tourism and cultural managers to understand if the World Heritage historic centers and the services associated with it are suitable to the tourists’ profile they intend to attract.

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A Cultural Consensus Analysis of Backpackers in South East Asia: Comparison of Backpackers from South East Asia and Australia and New Zealand

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Abstract

The purpose of this study is to test for differences in the shared understanding of the backpacker cultural domain between two groups of backpackers: Group 1) backpackers from Australia and New Zealand and Group 2) backpackers from South East Asian Countries. Based on a survey administered to backpackers in South East Asia, Cultural Consensus Analysis is employed to measure and compare the backpacker culture among these two groups. The findings suggest that both of these groups have a shared understanding of backpacking and that they are significantly different from one another.

Key words: cultural consensus, backpackers, cultural domains.

Introduction

There has been a recent call at decentralizing backpacking research from its current Western Orientation to open up space for studies like Teo and Leong’s (2006) post-colonial examination of Asian backpackers’ contestation of stereotypes and marginalization in the backpacker Mecca of Khoa San Road. Studies have emerged that examine backpacking through cross-cultural lenses (Prideaux & Shiga, 2007). The purpose of this study is to test for differences in the shared understanding of the backpacker cultural domain between two groups of backpackers: Group 1) backpackers from Australia and New Zealand and Group 2) backpackers from South East Asian Countries. While several studies have noted differences between the South East Asian backpackers and
backpackers from ‘Western’ countries, this study employs Cultural Consensus Analysis (CCA) from the field of cognitive anthropology for a deeper exploration differences between each group.

**Literature Review**

Culture is an umbrella word that encompasses a whole set of implicit, widely shared beliefs, traditions, values and expectations that characterize a particular group of people (Pizam et al., 1997). Culture represents values held by a majority of their members and influences people’s behavior on all social levels (Reisinger & Turner, 1997, p. 141). Understanding the impact of cross-cultural backgrounds on tourism of has been a mainstay of tourism and hospitality research.

In the tourism context, cross-cultural differences have been found to affect the perception of service quality (Espinoza, 1999), travel service (Crotts & Erdmann, 2000), information search (Gyrsoy & Chen, 2000), operators’ work and personal life balance (Hsieh & Lin, 2010), language learning in a foreign environment (Kormos & Csizer, 2007), holiday satisfaction (Master & Prideaux, 2000), information at tourism destinations (Ortega & Rodriguez, 2007), group tours (Pizam & Sussmann, 1995), hotel managers (Pizam et al., 1997), host and guest interactions (Reisinger & Turner, 1997; Reisinger & Turner, 1998; Thyne et al., 2006), the perceived impact of political instability on tourism (Seddighi et al., 2001) and hostel customers (Yuksel et al., 2006).

Hottola (2004) argued that the question of assimilation as a result of intercultural adaptation is rather irrelevant in the context of tourism and other short-term visits. Even though backpackers are known for long stay, the acculturation process may not take place if they are not interested to know about the local culture. The majority of the backpacking literature to date has focused on backpackers from Western Europe, North America, and Australia and New Zealand (Allon & Anderson, 2010; Brenner & Fricke, 2007; Chitty et al., 2007; Murphy & Pearce, 1995; Nash et al., 2006; Pearce & Foster, 2007). Recently, studies have started to examine backpackers coming from other counties, including Asia.

Backpacking tourism in South East Asia has been considered the forefront of large scale mainstream tourism in the region (Spreitzerhofer, 1998). The region continues to be acknowledged and acknowledge itself as a primary backpacker destination (Hampton & Hamzah, 2010). Several researchers (Spreitzerhofer, 1998; Lloyd, 2002; Teo & Leong, 2006; Muzaini, 2006; Pek 2007; Lee & Musa,
2008; Reichel et al., 2009; Hampton and Hamzah, 2010; Musa and Thirumoorthi, 2010) have examined backpackers in Southeast Asia. Southeast Asia includes a historical backpacking route of that runs through Malaysia, Thailand (Bangkok), Vietnam (Ho Chi Minh City), Cambodia (Phnom Penh, Siem Riep) and Indonesia (Bali and Yogyakarta) (Hampton & Hamzah, 2010; Lee & Musa, 2008). Several studies have used the region to examine emerging segments of non-Western backpackers.

Employing an ethnographic approach Muzaini (2006) examined the strategies adopted by both Western and Asian backpackers to look ‘local’ within Southeast Asian backpacker enclaves. Muzaini noted that some of the backpackers from Western countries attempted to dress like locals and consume local foods, even though it is nearly impossible to pass as a local. Some of the Asian backpackers attempt the opposite, trying to stand out in appearance from that of the local community so that they are not subjected to discrimination. The discrimination of Asian backpackers in South East Asia has been noted in several studies. For instance, Muzaini (2006) and Teo and Leong (2006) give similar examples of an Asian female backpackers being mistaken as Thai prostitutes. Teo and Leong (2006) examined the Asian backpackers in Khao San, the backpacker mecca of Southeast Asia. Khoa San Road is a well-trodden backpacker enclave well known among backpackers. However, Teo and Leong (2006) note that many Asian backpackers feel lost there. In fact, some of the Asian backpackers expressed that Khao San is too colonized and it is not meant for Asians. The service providers in Khao San cater more to hedonistic demands of Western backpackers. Asian backpackers feel greater comfort in the atmosphere of nearby Thanon Rambuttri (Teo & Leong, 2006).

Governments in South East Asia have varied in their level of support of the backpacking industry, even though the economic impacts of backpackers in South East Asia has been long documented (Hampton, 1998). Hampton and Hamzah (2010) found that in terms of expenditure, the backpackers spent US $15-17 per day on food and accommodation across the five countries: Malaysia, Thailand, Vietnam, Cambodia and Indonesia. Backpackers also spend more on activities such as trekking and scuba diving in Vietnam and Thailand and pay higher entrance fees for national parks and heritage sites. The Vietnamese government perceives that backpackers spend less money and they contribute to negative socio-cultural impacts, thus, little emphasis is given in developing infrastructure and services for the budget market (Lloyd, 2002). In contrast, backpacker tourism is an important market in Malaysia. Backpackers in Malaysia stay three times longer (19 days) and spend 2.3 times more than the average
tourists. The average daily expenditure of backpackers in Malaysia is RM227.06 (US$59.75) and the estimated expenditure per person for the whole duration (19.5 days) is RM 4,427.67 (US$ 1165) (Lee & Musa, 2007).

While the backpacker industry often is targeted toward Western backpackers, some recent studies suggest that backpackers from Asian countries are also potential spenders with varying spending habits. Teo and Leong (2006) found that Japanese and Korean backpackers were perceived to have higher buying power, whereas Singaporeans and Malaysians tended to bargain. Some recent studies show that spending by backpackers can benefit the small local enterprises in addition to the economies a whole (Musa & Thirumoorthi, 2010).

Lee & Musa (2008), Pek (2007) and Musa and Thirumoorthi (2010) reported that majority of the backpackers in Southeast Asia are from Europe, Australia, or New Zealand, but globalization of backpacking culture has resulted in the increased numbers of Asian backpackers. The growing trend of backpacking within this region requires serious attention by the service providers. As stated earlier, some backpacking enclaves in ASEAN countries predominantly cater the Western backpackers and this might make the ASEAN backpackers feel out of the place. Their presence should not be disregarded. Crotts and Erdmann (2000) stated that stereotypes of tourists based upon countries of origin often arise due to cultural differences. This typecasting can contribute to backpacker service providers in South East Asia focusing on satisfying the needs of backpackers from Western markets, while alienating backpackers from within South East Asia. Backpackers from the ASEAN region are a growing market segment for backpacker destination within the region (and the world), and as numbers continue to increase aggregate of economic impact of this group of backpackers will also continue to increase, providing a potential alternative to Western backpacker market that could have lower perceived socio-cultural impacts on local communities.

This paper aims to examine the differences between the shared understanding of the backpacking culture domain of backpackers from South East Asia and Australia and New Zealand. This paper then explores the nature of these differences and offers practical recommendations for the backpacker industry in the region.
Methodology

A self-administered survey was distributed at backpacker accommodations in Kuala Lumpur, Bangkok, and Phuket using purposive sampling. There were a total of 129 valid respondents including 84 from South East Asia and 45 from Australia and New Zealand. The survey instrument was designed to gather respondents’ demographic information including age, gender, education, employment status, nationality, and previous travel experience. Second, the questionnaire employed a set cultural norm statements developed by the author based on an analysis of the literature, previous research experience, personal experience traveling as a backpacker by the author, and several informal interviews with backpackers during the past three years. Sixty dichotomous (Yes/No) cultural norms statements about backpacking cultural domain were used. The questions were worded so that there were a balanced number of positive and negative questions on the same difficulty level. The survey has been used to collect data for a previous study in which greater detail of the development of the cultural domain statements is discussed (see Paris, *in press*), and during its initial design it was pre-tested twice.

Cultural consensus analysis (CCA) was developed in the field of cognitive anthropology as a way of objectively measuring and describing the amount and distribution of culture among a group of individuals (Romney et al., 1986). CCA is based on the propositions that individuals with a common culture have shared cultural knowledge and that individual’s agreement with the shared cultural knowledge varies according to each individual’s possession of culturally correct knowledge (Romney et al., 1986; Weller, 1987). Cultural consensus analysis is based on a cognitive theory of culture, such as that championed by Goodenough (1957). CCA is able to “use the pattern of agreement or consensus among individuals to make inferences about their differential knowledge of the shared information pool constituting culture” (Romney et al., 1987, p. 165). CCA is useful analytical tool for cultural domain analysis, an empirical determination that a set of cultural domain items are related according to an informant group (Borgatti, 1994). When applied to a set of cultural norm statements or questions about a specific cultural domain, such as backpacking, CCA can simultaneously provide an estimate of knowledge or cultural competence of each individual and an estimate of the culturally correct answer to each question (Romney et al., 1996). CCA allows researchers to, “actually measure and compare cultural content of different groups rather than simply assume that because the groups have different names, they also have different cultures” (Chick, 2009, p. 308). In this study, CCA is applied to determine if there is ho-
mogeneity in the backpacker cultural domain for backpackers from two different regions. CCA has recently been applied in several tourism contexts (see Paris, *in press*; Gatewood & Cameron, 2009; Ribeiro, 2011; Kerstetter, Bricker, & Li, 2010).

The data analysis for this study included several parts. First, descriptive analyses, using SPSS 16.0, were used to provide background information on the sample. Then UCINET version 6.232 (Borgatti, Everett & Freeman, 2002) was used to conduct the Cultural Consensus Analysis. The CCA included three procedures. First, a factor analysis was performed to extract the level of agreement of the data. Romney et al. (1986) referred to this as minimal residual factor analysis. The software automatically rotates the data matrix so that the factor analysis is conducted on individuals, not on the items. A single cultural model is indicated by a single dominant factor. Second, a knowledge score is produced for each respondent, which shows the level of a cultural knowledge for the individual. The score is essentially a the individual’s correlation with the first factor, and the scores typically range from 0 to 1.0, with a score of .5 indicating that the individual provided the culturally correct answer 50% of the time (Caulkins, 2001). The third procedure calculates the culturally correct answer for each question. The UCINET software produces the ‘answer keys’ by accumulating the agreements between responses. The agreements are derived on the assumption that agreement between individuals, based on Bayesian weightings, is a function of the level of culturally-correct knowledge each individual has (Shim, 2004).

Thirdly, a Quadratic Assignment Procedure (QAP) Linear Regression Model was fit to a set of matrices to measure the similarity within and compare similarity between two a-priori segments. The sample of this study was broken into two a priori groups based on the nationalities of the respondents: South East Asia and Australia/NZ. The QAP analysis in this study followed the procedure recommended by Hruschka, Sibley, Kalim, and Edmonds (2008), Romney, Moore, Batchelder, and Hsia (2000) and Paris (*in press*), includes two steps. The first step was to prepare the data matrices, and the second step was to fit a QAP linear regression model to those matrices. The data analysis was conducted using UCINET 6.232, MatLab, and SPSS 16.0. For a detailed explanation of QAP Multiple Regression please refer to Paris (*in press*). QAP regression was chosen to examine the differences between the groups for two main reasons. First it allows for the examination of the non-independence of observations while at the same time analyzing pairs of individuals (Hubert and Shultz, 1976). Second, QAP allows for whole matrices to be treated as variables.
in regression analysis, important because the data in the matrices cannot be assumed to be independent. Standard regression would result in an underestimation of the standard errors (Krackhardt, 1987).

Results

Cultural consensus analysis was used to examine the shared cultural models of two cross-cultural backpacker groups. These two groups included individuals from South East Asian countries and from Australia and New Zealand. Three cultural consensus models were tested: 1) the whole sample, 2) Australia and New Zealand, 3) South East Asia. A Quadratic Assignment Procedure (QAP) Linear Regression Model was then used to test whether there was greater within-group than between-group similarities for the two groups. Finally, individual items were examined for difference between the two groups, using independent T-tests.

The two groups did have some differences in the demographic characteristics (Table 1). The South East Asian group was slightly older, with an average age of 30 compared to 25 for the Australia and New Zealand group. Additionally, individuals from the SE Asia group had a much shorter trip length (3 weeks vs 17 weeks), lower overall budget (USD $1255 vs $11367), and a lower daily budget (USD $59 vs $89), all likely to location of the data collection.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1. Respondents Profile</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Attribute</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age (average in years)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior High School</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High School (up to year 12)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College (4 year)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graduate School (advanced degree)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employed (Part-Time)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employed (Full-Time)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For the overall group, the results did not meet the criteria for a shared cultural model, as the eigenvalue ratio was less than three, the mean cultural compe-
tence score was much lower than .5, and there were multiple negative factor loadings. The lack of fit of the overall consensus model indicates that the respondents were potentially drawing from more than one cultural model, supporting the further analysis.

For the Australia and New Zealand sub-group, the results indicated that there was a shared cultural model: eigenvalue ratio=8.48, mean cultural competency score of the sample=.51, SD=.15, and no negative factor loadings. The third model tested for the backpackers from South East Asia also indicated decent model fit: eigenvalue ratio=7.01 and no negative competency scores. However, the average cultural competency score was slightly below the suggested .5 cutoff (.47, SD=.17). There are a couple potential explanations for the low cultural competency score. First, the cultural norm statements used in this study were developed from previous research studies predominantly focused on the ‘western backpacker’. Second, there could be further latent cultural impacts on the cultural competence of each of the individuals, as backpackers from South East Asia represent an extremely diverse population. The same can be said for backpackers from Australia and New Zealand.

While the results of the CCA on the whole sample indicate that respondents draw from more than one cultural model, findings from a larger scale application of CCA on backpacker (Paris, in press) indicated that there is a shared general cultural model for backpackers. Further, for the purposes of this study the applications of the CCA do not indicate whether the regional differences of the two groups represent the latent cultural effects suggested by the CCA on the whole sample. In order to answer these remaining questions, the QAP Linear Regression Model was used to test the hypothesis that there were no systematic factors that contribute to the level of similarity between individuals. Hruschka et al (2008) and Paris (in press) applied the test originally described by Romney, Moore, Batchelder, and Hsia (2000).

The QAP linear regression model indicated that a significant proportion of the variance of the agreement matrix ($R^2=.083, p<.001$) was explained by the independent variables. Individuals in the South East Asian group agreed among themselves significantly more ($p<.001$) than they agreed with backpackers in the Australia and New Zealand group. The individuals in the Australia and New Zealand group agreed among themselves with only marginal significance ($p=.07$). These QAP results indicate that individuals in the two cultural groups draw from significantly different models of cultural understanding of backpacking. Additionally, the QAP results suggest that the latent cultural impact
of the individuals’ geographical region (South East Asia and Australia/NZ) explains a significant, albeit small (8.3%) amount of the variance in the overall cultural agreement. The small amount of variance explained, combined with the low aggregate competency scores for each group suggests that there are potentially other latent cultural impacts on each individuals’ backpacking cultural competence, which could provide a basis for future studies.

To further understand the differences between the two cultural groups of backpackers, independent T-Tests were used to test for significant differences in the level of agreement with each of the 60 cultural norm statements. Table 2 presents all of the statements for which there were significant differences and the proportion of individuals in each group responding ‘yes’ to each statement.

Table 2. Significant differences of cultural norm statements.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement Text</th>
<th>Proportion Answering &quot;Yes&quot;</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sex while backpacking is more free than when at home***</td>
<td>84.4% 36.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Its not a good idea to go local*</td>
<td>37.8% 19.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The more countries the better***</td>
<td>48.9% 79.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Its better to have sex with other backpackers than with locals***</td>
<td>46.7% 15.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A good backpacker does lots of research before leaving home***</td>
<td>51.1% 84.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The cheaper the trip the better the thrill**</td>
<td>46.7% 70.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eating weird food is all part of the experience**</td>
<td>88.9% 67.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Backpackers are more patient and tolerant of people*</td>
<td>60.0% 79.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Backpackers party too much**</td>
<td>42.2% 17.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There are too many hippy type backpackers*</td>
<td>17.8% 36.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Socializing with other backpackers is an important part of the experience*</td>
<td>97.8% 85.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Its better to travel off the beaten track*</td>
<td>80.0% 61.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Backpackers don’t need to shower everyday**</td>
<td>48.9% 23.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Backpacks are better than suitcases*</td>
<td>88.9% 72.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Backpacking allows people to see the world as it really is***</td>
<td>57.8% 89.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Its essential to get the best deal and pay local prices***</td>
<td>60.0% 85.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Backpackers prefer to talk to locals rather than to other backpackers*</td>
<td>17.8% 38.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Backpackers shun technology like iPods, Cell phones, laptops while traveling***</td>
<td>17.8% 54.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drinking is a part of backpacking**</td>
<td>71.1% 42.9%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: * notes significant at p<.05, **-p<.01, and ***-p<.001

**Conclusion**

Respondents from each of the regions significantly differed in the proportion of individuals responding ‘yes’ to 19 of the 60 cultural norm statements. Several patterns emerged. First, there was a clear difference in the perception of backpacking and partying by the two groups. Individuals from the two groups re-
responded drastically different to statements having to do with the more hedonistic aspects of backpacking culture such as partying, drinking, and sex. Individuals from Australia and New Zealand had a much larger proportion of individuals agreeing with statements related to the role of these hedonistic activities as part of the backpacking culture/experience. One reason for this is that the individuals from Australia and New Zealand were generally younger and on longer trips. Another could relate to the cultural norms of the individuals home countries. Second, the responses suggest that South East Asian backpackers prefer a more structured backpacking experience with more pre-planning, less travel away from ‘the beaten track’, and a desire to visit a greater number of countries during the trip. South East Asian backpackers also had a higher percentage of agreement with items concerning backpacking as a form of budget travel, and that backpacking allows individuals to have/develop a more authentic worldview. On the other hand, individuals from Australia and New Zealand agreed to a much greater extent that eating weird food and traveling off the beaten track were important parts of backpacking. These findings all have practical implications for the backpacker industry in South East Asia. Many of the traditional backpacker enclaves, such as Khoa San Road in Bangkok, seemingly cater to the hedonistic experiences, and thus could alienate the growing regional market. Several alternative enclaves have started to develop that are aiming to cater to backpackers from South East Asia and others who want experiences less focused on ‘partying.’ To further cater to this group of backpackers businesses can provide more structured and organized experiences, familiar dining options, and facilitate easier pre-planning through online reservations.

The two groups did share a high level of agreement (78% or greater for both groups) on quite a few items including: ‘Facebook is useful to stay in contact with other people met during the trip’, ‘It’s ok to spend extra money on once in a lifetime experiences’, ‘Backpackers often share their experiences online through Facebook, Email, and blogs’, ‘Socializing with other backpackers is an important part of the experience’, ‘Backpacking is a more free way to travel’, ‘Backpackers seek extreme experiences when they travel’, ‘Backpackers develop an understanding of other cultures’, ‘The journey is more important than the destination’, and ‘Backpackers help each other’. All of these items reflect some of the most agreed upon items of the large scale study of backpacker culture conducted by Paris (in press).

This study applied Cultural Consensus Analysis to understand the cross-cultural differences of backpackers in South East Asia. Findings can be used by
the backpacking industry to understand and benefit from the current mainstreaming and globalizing backpacking market. This study also extends the theoretical understanding of backpacker culture, as well as provides an example of a useful tool for future cross-cultural studies in tourism. CCA could be a useful tool for understanding cultural differences related to tourism development and planning, niche tourism, tourism services, and destination decision making.

References


Managing Tourist Destinations: Different Approaches to Destination Management in Italy

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Abstract
North West After a short review of international literature about destination management, this paper analyzes two different approaches to organize and manage tourist offering used by two Italian regions: Marche and Emilia Romagna. The main objective is to derive - via inductive logic - the conceptual meaning of these approaches compared to the literature on Destination Management and highlight its key managerial implications. The study shows that organizational solutions adopted by the Emilia Romagna region are innovative and original, because they were based on the consideration of a network of operators grouped by service category provided or tourist resources owned rather than focusing on territorial resources as a whole. The case of Marche region, moreover, shows how it is possible to design a hybrid organizational model capable of enhancing both specific themes of supply through the creation of proper networks of tourist operators, according to Emilia Romagna model, and the sub-regional areas grouped in S.T.L. (Local Tourist System). Despite the limitations due to the small number of the cases analyzed, the paper highlights some significant results which open up further research paths, aimed to improve tools and approaches to Destination Management.

Key words: tourist product, experience, destination management, destination marketing.

Introduction
The concept of tourist destination often has different meanings, not always compatible among themselves, both in the literature and among practitioners. Sometimes destination is understood as a geographical area, as a place. In other circumstances, the perceptual dimension is preferred - that is, the tourists’ point of view. In other cases, the two perspectives overlap, considering destination in terms of both producers and consumers. Tourist destination definitions can be placed into two perspectives - the demand and the supply points of view (Franch, 2002). The first group of definitions tends to qualify and assimilate tourist destinations as a set of both natural and artificial attractiveness fac-
tors able to pull in tourists. Therefore, the destination concept and the tourist product concept tend to converge (Buhalis, 2000). The second group of definitions tends to identify destinations including producers – assimilating the destination into the territory and supply system (Tamma, 2002; Brunetti, 2002).

Some contributions have assumed, more or less explicitly, an overlapping perspective with regard to the destination concept, trying to combine demand and supply points of view (Casarin, 2002). It is in this conceptual framework that we introduce the concept of Tourist Destination. The destination can be qualified as a place populated by a combination of businesses and tourism resources able to attract significant inbound tourist numbers, building products capable of meeting visitors’ needs. The destination is a relatively homogeneous area from a territorial, social, economic and cultural point of view. In the overlapping perspective, it must tend to have the same connotations also in terms of demand, to be holistically perceived by current and potential tourists.

Following the experience economy model by Pine and Gilmore (2000), the tourist destination is the place where the offer is made up of a bundle of commodities, goods, service and experiences, both assembled by producers and self-composed by tourists. These offers progressively increase in value. Tourists can be considered simple indifferent addressees of undifferentiated economic proposals, or as an active subject, heavily involved in the production and consumption process of the tourist product with a high immateriality content (services and experiences), until they themselves become a sort of “product”, in the case of “product/transformations”. Tourists become the result of the transformation process put in place by tourism producers to meet their expectations of change and needs at the physical, emotional, psychological and social levels.

It follows that although the tourist product sometimes converges with the resort (the destination), it should be more appropriately considered as a result, an output from the activities carried out by the destination actors. As such, it is a package composed of many elements bundled by one or more producers or by tourists searching for a global tourism product.

A destination is a “stage”, where various tourism products can be arranged in order to satisfy the desires of different market segments. When this stage is able to satisfy the needs of a single market segment (through one type of product), the destination concept and tourism product concept tend to overlap, at least in the perception of intermediaries and users. Assuming, however, that the supply point of view cannot escape the fact that the product is the result of activities performed by destination producers and that although the two con-
cepts are dialectic (the tourist experience is strongly linked to the place in which it occurs) there is a strong distinction between them.

If from the demand-side tourist experiences may qualify as “personal and engaging events that involve moving in space and with a time duration that includes one night”, from the supply-side the tourist product is the result of systemic offer of goods, services, information, tourist attractions, environment, etc. This offer is arranged in a tourism production system in order to provide customers some economic proposals that, going beyond the simple mix of goods and services, is more decidedly and deliberately directed towards providing products with strong experiential content. Products offering a strong experiential content also imply the involvement of a variety of actors and resources on the supply-side, including public and private actors, entrepreneurs, information agents, environmental, financial and technological resources, intangible assets, etc..

Consequently, important and strategically relevant competition in the tourist market occurs among tourist destinations rather than among individual firms. Whether the destination reveals a shared strategic intent or the activities are spontaneously produced by actors, tourists enjoy and perceive a comprehensive experience containing all attractions, goods, services, experiences and transformations they received during their stay (Keller, 2000).

Synthetically:

1. A tourist destination is a geographical area with a block/basin of resources and companies producing commodities, goods, services, experiences and transformations coherent to an emerging and/or deliberate logic;

2. A tourist product is a bundle of commodities, goods, services, experiences and transformations assembled by actors internal or external to the destination or directly by tourists, through needs, motivations and personal cognitive system.

Tourists have the opportunity to use more or less organised resources, commodities, goods, services, experiences and transformations that actors offer them through the destination. What they experience from the point of choosing a destination to the point of returning home represents the comprehensive tourist experience. This highly experiential meaning of the concept of tourist product is consistent with the new trends in consumption, particularly in tourism. The “postmodern” consumer has become less and less rational in choice and increasingly inspired by strong emotional and affective motives (Fabris, 2008). In this perspective, new customer profiles emerge - tourists looking for authentic experiences, not artificial or deceptive, looking for experiences that can express
profound human identity, able to connect intimately with the cultural heritage of the genius loci (Pencarelli e Forlani, 2002; Cova, 2002).

Depending on how it is perceived, the experience may have created more or less value, influencing customer satisfaction, his/her willingness to return to the destination or to provide positive or negative word-of-mouth, with important consequences for the image of the destination (Figure 1).

![Diagram showing the relationship between the tourist, destination, and tourist product](image)

**Figure 1.** Tourists, destination and tourist product

*Source: our data*

The conceptual approach we chose considers tourism experiences as personal and engaging events experienced through a bundle of goods and services. This inevitably questions the validity of the strategic and organizational solutions adopted to create and provide tourist products up to now.

Destination management literature has produced several hypotheses for managing tourist destinations. Some studies suggest spontaneous forms of self-regulation, others consider essential the presence of a strategic leader. A semi-hierarchical model was proposed by Brunetti (2002), which argues that before talking about strategic government of tourist destinations we must specify the limits, indicating that is necessary to maintain a proper balance between strict
management and spontaneity. Tamma (2002) highlights that the characteristics of each destination can bring to the fore several key figures and that there is no single subject which in theory could act as an authority to regulate and coordinate the development of the destination. On the other hand, there are those like Buhalis (2000) who affirms that destinations should be managed by a Destination Management Organization (DMO) responsible for destination designing and marketing and having the power and resources to undertake actions aimed at achieving strategic objectives.

From our point of view, tourist destinations need to identify an entity capable of exercising highly complex and articulated functions (planning, coordination, support, advice, monitoring, marketing, promotion, etc.) and which all the destination actors hold to be legitimate. This role could be played by meta-management representative of public and private members and underpinned by private legal rules in order to facilitate the opening up of ownership. The process of creating this strategic leader is very important in terms of its legitimacy. It may take two forms: top-down or bottom-up (Martini, 2002; Golinelli, 2002).

However, the context strongly influences both organizational solutions and the pertinence of Destination Management principles and tools. Where resources and tourist activities are poorly integrated (fragmentation model), it is extremely difficult to design Destination Management strategies that express a strong and unified supply management (Sciarelli, 2007). Conversely, where there are players who take on a leadership role in organizing and controlling supply (leadership model), or there is good degree of cooperation between operators (cooperation model), it is easier to build a board and identify key players.

Other scholars (Flagstad & Hope, 2001) argue that in “corporate” destinations management is not dissimilar to managing a multi-unit enterprise. The management of “community” destinations is more problematic because resources are owned by several independent subjects. In this case, management must address many conflicting interests and becomes extremely difficult, but it is necessary for long-term destination success (Buhalis, 2000). Finally, we must consider the destination’s geographical extension and its cultural homogeneity. The territory must have a shared identity that allows the leader to activate relationship systems based on trust among actors. Following a “traditional approach”, we can affirm that tourist destination management primarily involves the territorial government. Secondly, it involves resources activated through projects able to promote cooperative systems and to create tourism products capable of addressing competitive challenges.
Methodology

The aim of our empirical research was to evaluate two different approaches to organize and manage tourist offering used by two Italian regions: Marche and Emilia Romagna. The Marche region extends from the Adriatic coast to the Appenine mountain chain, offering a rich territorial geography that encapsulates all of the geographical features of Italy. This region enjoys important historical and artistic heritage resources and contain numerous cities of art and important spiritual and religious sites. In terms of tourism, Marche counts more than 232,000 beds with approximately 2 million of tourists per year and the highest average length of stay in Italy (more than 6 days). In addition, tourist numbers have a high concentration in the coastal areas.

In terms of regional organisation, Marche region has opted for the S.T.L. model (Local Tourism System – Sistemi Turistici Locali), in accordance with national laws and in line with the “traditional” Destination Management approach. In fact - according to Regional legislation – S.T.L. “are the instrument through which the public and private sectors cooperate to manage activities of tourist product formation. The creation of S.T.L. follows a “bottom-up” process, while the creation and dissemination of criteria for formal recognition and the administrative act of recognition remains with the regional government. According to the Regional Law of 2006 (Art.8, comma 4), which draws from National Law n.135 of 29 March 2001, the Systems:

“a) identify tourist products appropriate for the territory in question, also to the point of putting them out on the market, and create a total picture of the value of local resources with particular attention to the specific characteristics of hinterland, mountain and coastal zones;

b) organize reception activities, integrating and harmonizing these with other activities present in the territory in question.” [translated from Italian]

In other words, STLs are public and private actor networks aimed at tourism development, operating in a specific and bounded sub-regional geographical area which have the task of designing and marketing tourism products produced and consumed inside the area (Figure 2).
The STLs analyzed however, show more shadows than lights, particularly regarding marketing policies, financial sustainability and entrepreneurial commitment. The latter, in particular, is often weakened by the excessive public component within the governance as well as the lack of cooperation between players (see Gregori et al., 2010).

Emilia Romagna region, however, offers a different interpretation of Destination Management philosophy. The Emilia Romagna region is more important than the Marche region in terms of tourist numbers - about 8 million tourists a year and more than 432,000 beds - but has similar characteristics. As well, this region is located in central Italy and faces the Adriatic Sea to the east. It borders the Marche region to the south. Both of these regions extend from the Adriatic coast to the Appenine mountain chain, offering important historical and artistic heritage resources and contain numerous cities of art. Emilia Romagna is also characterised by a concentration of arrivals in their coastal areas, particularly in some areas so well known that they overshadow even the regional brand (for example, Rimini).

The Emilia Romagna region has opted for a different organizational solution, defined as Product Unions (Unioni di Prodotto) and Product Clubs (Club di Prodotto).

Product Unions are governed by art 13 (Aggregazioni di prodotto di interesse regionale) of Emilia-Romagna’s Regional Law n. 7 of 4 March 1998, com-
ma 1, which states “The Region favours the process of aggregation and promotion projects so as to reward joint actions taken to develop the regional tourist economy, to strengthen and integrate tourism products as well as to increase and improve available resources”. The following comma identifies priority tourism areas around which Product Unions may be created – in this case, Adriatic Coast, Green Appenines, City of Art/Culture and Business as well as spas.

This represents an important organizational innovation from the traditional model of regional tourism organization. In this case, the objective is to link resources, businesses and public actors not necessarily connected to the territory, but related by their capacity to offer value propositions directed toward specific market segments, so-called “tourism sector” defined by regional law - The Adriatic Coast, Spa and Fitness, Appenines and Nature, Art Cities. In other words, they have pursued strategies not based on valuation of areas on the whole, but focused on resources and attraction groups linked by the same thematic characteristics from the point of view of service offering.

In fact, in the Product Unions, the players are dispersed throughout the entire region, as you can see in the case of “Spa and Fitness” illustrated in Figure 3.

Figure 3. Product unions in Emilia Ronagna Region, the case of “spa and fitness”

Similarly, Product Clubs are networks linked to projects aimed at creating value propositions for specific market segments. They are associated with different legal forms and their members may have different locations. All Clubs
formed in the Emilia Romagna region are potential members of Product Unions\textsuperscript{vii}, just as other associations of tourism operators can participate in the STLs in the Marche region. The matrix in Figure 4 distinguishes STLs, Product Unions and Product Clubs - on one hand considering the location of members and resources (concentrated or dispersed), and on the other hand the degree of thematic coherence in the services offering (low or high).

![Figure 4. STLs, product unions and product clubs positioning matrix](source)

Unlike STLs, the Product Clubs analysed (Pencarelli and Splendiani, 2008) have been shown to posses a strong entrepreneurial drive that has enabled effective marketing actions such as bundling, communications and commercialization. This is facilitated by a better focus on the offering, and members (numerically lower than those of STLs) are able to organise themselves for specific projects, with faster and more readily identifiable feedback.

Research on Product Clubs reveals that creating mono-thematic offers may fail to generate acceptable performance, both for buyers (tourists and intermediaries looking for multi-thematic and multi-experiential travel) and for local stakeholders. In the cases
analysed, there was a noticeable tendency to diversify offerings towards segments other than the main one, focusing on all territorial resources and attractions considered to be important attractiveness factors for external stakeholders and cohesive forces for all the members involved.

The comparative analysis between the two regions shows how different philosophies and organizational approaches adopted by the regions under investigation are complementary, not alternatives. The challenge for local tourism policies is to identify the best mix of organizational solutions and paths aimed at exploiting resources and attractions through market-driven strategies, given the coexistence of “territorial” and “thematic” network of operators. Destinations need to have leaders capable of setting, promoting and marketing tourist products with a strong experiential content, able to balance the functional benefits associated with the quality of services and value associated with the symbolic image of the destination.

Referring to the models explained above, a hybrid organizational solution is that toward which the Marche region is moving, characterized by a path that can be interpreted as an attempt at an integrated approach to Destination Management.

The regional government is currently supporting the creation of a network of stakeholders in the sector of the spa and wellness, with the aim of enhancing regional thermal resources. The consequence is that Marche’s model is still based on the STLs, but at the same time they will be joined by specific entrepreneurial networks devoted to enhance thematic clusters of resources and services.

In fact, the size of the sub-regional STLs failed to provide proper exploitation of thermal resources due to the scarcity of supply (approximately two thermal operators for each STL)\(^\text{viii}\). The creation of these networks responds to the need to organize the supply of Spa in order to achieve qualification and integration, since currently, Marche spa and wellness companies have weak strategies driven by poorly-oriented cooperation and are therefore individualistic\(^\text{ix}\).

The creation of the networks can help individual enterprises to implement efficiently and effectively a strategic approach substantiated primarily by an expansion of service offering. In this sense, the network may be a desirable way to achieve such a strategic approach, especially where the individual actually proves unable to design their own personalized services and extensions. As well, the establishment of networks makes possible economies of scale (especially for communication policies), the development of learning economies, and a condition of complementarity of resources. The membership of a relational
network also provides the participants with a high degree of strategic flexibility - allowing the extension of the scope of the actors due to influence from different cultures and organizational models.

The study suggests that the success of a destination requires that management understand the perspective of the customer and knows how to create, communicate and deliver value to them through a broad offering with a strong experiential content.

**Implications**

The path taken by the Marche region in order to integrate the original territorial approach (Local Tourist System) with a product approach (Product Club) in the field of wellness and SPA is still at the beginning, but there are a number of critical factors on which to focus for any future development – a sort of strategic and organizational challenges. The first step is to create a network with organizational structures – that develop a system guided by a strategic leader capable of guiding the actors and policies to implement effective destination marketing and branding, in particular:

- market analysis and segmentation, in order to capture the different needs within the wellness demand;

- creation and delivery of proposals for goods and services tailored to meet the many and varied experiential requirements of customers;

- definition of flexible pricing policies, designed to meet different customer segments, even taking into account the seasonal dynamics of supply and dissimilar content related to the wellness business;

- creation of a brand network capable of supporting highly themed offerings and focused on the need for spa and wellness, but also able to enhance the resources and the territory;

- identification of solutions for the selling products – including partnerships with incoming travel agencies – in order to link sales and promotion policies.

From the point of view of Destination Marketing, the challenge for thermal spa networks will be to gain strategic autonomy within a marketing strategy guided by the regional government. In particular, the critical relationship is that between the thermal network and STLs. The first will be distributed throughout the entire region and will be called to work together with all STLs
to ensure the integration of the regional supply, as well as the exploitation of thermal resources.

In this context it is very important to consider the choices of Destination Brand Management, potentially capable of making consistent and integrated destination marketing policies, balancing strong appeal of regional brand and targeting of the value proposition to specific market segments (Cf. Anholt, 2008; Beerli & Martin, 2004; Gallarza et al, 2002).

Destination Branding policies operate at different territorial levels referring to different objects and therefore involve a multitude of actors. Managing and branding destinations need to cope with the constant dialectic among brands and brand activities. Territorial branding activities are oriented towards expressing uniformity of values and symbols. Territorial brands “should be indicative of the location’s vision for the future and receive wide stakeholder support: it is aligned to the “corporate brand” (see Kerr, 2006). Branding activities involving network and business brands, instead, focus on the providers and resources that produce tourist services, focusing on characteristics like quality and professionalism, aiming to improve tourists’ loyalty. Finally, product branding activities aim at stimulating purchase of a specific value proposition.

Following Hankinson (2007; see also Morgan et al., 2002), we can affirm that the interweaving and overlapping of different activities makes the role of the key-player very complex. It is responsible for coordinating and giving coherency to various paths and seeking a shared mission aimed at the valorisation of territorial identity. This complexity can be solved through the construction of a adequate Brand Portfolio and its Brand Architecture (see Aaker & Joachimsthaler, 2000).

The analysis of destination branding policies adopted by the two regions analyzed – Marche and Emilia Romagna – shows that there are two different management strategies of Brand Portfolio and two different structures of Brand Architecture, both with some inconsistencies.

The Emilia Romagna region opted for an Endorsed Identity strategy, that is the decision to articulate the Regional Brand over territorial themes, organized into Product Unions and Product Clubs. This approach does not act directly on the regional brand, but stresses the promotion of networks related to a specific thematic offering. It constitutes, therefore, a strong identification of the regional brand on the themes of supply, and themes are the elements that underpin the
benefits promised to the audience. The risk of this approach lies in a potential lack of enhancement of regional brand.

The Marche region, however, has opted for the Monolithic Identity focusing on a master brand through which to convey the image of a whole with respect to all the targets (Branded House strategy). In this case, although it is necessary to enhance the regional brand, to opt for Monolithic Identity may limit the opportunities for differentiation toward target segments.

The analysis shows that both approaches to Brand Architecture appear inadequate with respect to the strategic and organizational choices made by the regions.

Regional Brand Architecture, in our opinion, should make use of sub-branding and endorsed-branding policies, in order to guarantee firstly the necessary autonomy of the different brands and, secondly, the exploitation of cognitive associations with the Master Brand, that is - the only factor potentially unifying the entire Brand Portfolio. In conclusion, although at an early stage, the path undertaken by the Marche region can be considered an attempt at a hybrid organizational model as described in this study. This model can be implemented and is potentially capable of ensuring the full development of the complex and composite tourist supply of a broad tourism system such as that of the Italian regions.

**Conclusion**

First of all, this paper shows that there is no one best approach to Destination Management and Destination Marketing at the regional level. In our opinion it is necessary to combine territorial resources and tourist product perspectives in order to build value propositions with high level of experiential content based on networks able to bundle and synthesize the dialectical relationship between destinations and tourist products. We tried to make clear this dialectical relationship in the first section, explaining the conceptual framework, which points out the differences between tourist destination and tourist products. There is a very strong dialectical relationship between them due to the fact that tourist products are extremely affected by the location in which they are provided (Destination) because they possess highly experiential content. If the concepts tend to overlap on the demand side, on the supply-side the clear distinction between the two cannot be missed. Products are the result of activities carried out by the supply system located within the destination.
The comparative analysis between regions shows how different philosophies and organizational approaches adopted by the two are not alternatives, but complementary. A hybrid organizational model can be capable of exploiting peripheral tourist areas by enhancing resource networks, as the case of thermal network of Marche Region.

The observation of the Emilia Romagna model, although innovative and original, shows that to provide mono-themed tourism products is not viable for meeting customer needs for those looking for thematic and multi-experiential travel. This is demonstrated by the tendency of tourism firms to diversify the offering with additional services. Local actors also need to reinforce their sense of belonging linked to the territory - an essential element of identity and shared values.

The Marche approach, on the other hand, appears unable to enhance and promote the themes of the offering because branding policies are exclusively focused on the regional brand. The objective of enhancing the competitiveness of thermal resources of the Marche could be achieved through the creation of a network to endorse the STLs. This integrated approach is, in our opinion, better suited to appreciating the resources and actors related to the Spa and Wellness industry while preserving the area's identity - a source of value also in reference to highly themed tourist products.

The case of Marche region – in particular the example of the creation of a spa network within the regional boundaries - show that is possible to integrate local resources with entrepreneurial networks. The tourist offering of STLs can be enriched by activating networks of spa enterprises linked by a “product brand” and the same competitive goals. Accordingly, the Regional Brand Portfolio will be enriched by a new network brand – thermal spa network - which will require clear choices in terms of image positioning compared to competitors, the definition of the symbolic benefits promised to targets, endorsed branding policies to establish the link with the regional master brand and other related brands, etc.

Any strategic and organizational solution, moreover, should be coordinated with destination branding policies and consistent with the Brand Architecture approach. Destinations have to find a proper balance that ensures the necessary autonomy of the different brands and themes of supply while at the same time ensuring the exploitation of cognitive associations with the regional brand, a unifying factor for the entire tourist offer.
Key-factors of communication and branding mainly concern the complexity of the "destination" entity, in which several interests tend to overlap and application of Destination Management issues becomes very difficult. The role of the public entity, in this sense, is to increase the brand equity of region and, this way, increase competitiveness through support and incentives to tourism businesses, whether individually or in network form. For this purpose, the local tourist areas must implement strategic branding approaches by sharing processes among the actors of the regional destination according to participative approaches that involve the multitude of tourist operators that contribute to the destination brand formation and therefore to positioning the region's image. Destinations need to have leaders capable of setting, promoting and marketing tourist products with a strong experiential content, able to balance the functional benefits associated with the quality of services and value associated with the symbolic image of the destination.

References


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i Following Hanna and Rowley (2008), the identification of a tourist destination from a geographical point of view is complicated in itself. As the authors emphasise, this “is complicated by the fact that a destination may include several towns, cities or municipalities, other government provinces or even an island archipelago may be the entire country”. This depends on the definition of the “hierarchy of destinations” (Martini, 2002), anticipating the need for strict connection with demand.

ii Here we refer to cases in which tourists who purchase vacations and vacation packages in health spas, instructional retreats, training schools, etc. in which the client pays to be transformed or undergo transformations the results of which depend on both the supplier’s ability and the activities applied by the client.


The geographic extent of the territory is varied. Some Clubs operate nationally, like the “Borghi più Belli d’Italia”, others at the regional or interregional level, others at the sub-regional level or in single cities.

The admissibility of members in Product Union statutes is conditioned by their business activities within the specific “tourism sector” to which belongs.

The spa towns in the Marche region are ten: Montegrimano, Pitinum Thermae, Terme di Raffaello, Terme di Carignano, Terme dell’Aspio, Terme San Vittore, Terme Santa Lucia, Terme di Sarnano, Terme di Palme, Acquasanta Terme.

This is even more necessary in light of the changes in consumption of products and services related to spas and wellness. The services mainly related to thermal and curative health needs – i.e., the spa, in virtue of the therapeutic properties - has given way progressively to fruition due to a growing demand for well-being aimed at “feeling good”, to experience where health, relaxation and entertainment meet. In this sense, the question of spas grows, requiring more complex and complicated package offerings than traditional treatment services, moving toward supply systems characterized by large and diverse portfolios of services and payment formulas capable of ensuring physical and mental well-being for customers. This is closer to the profile of the leisure traveler that the tourist in need of care. The prospect of a thermal demand has "evolved" and "extended". On the supply side, it requires the inclusion of types of firms that differ from traditional spas. It must include health and fitness clubs, increasingly competing with traditional thermal spa formulas and therefore pushing companies to direct strategies at new levels of competition.

Depending on the object to which the brand is linked, a brand may be:
- territorial, referring to a specific geographical area. This may be institutional, linked to administrative boundaries (nation, region, province, town, mountain community, protected area, etc.) or natural (lakes, rivers, mountains, etc.);
- of resource, referring to single resources (natural or artificial). This becomes increasingly important in proportion to the attractiveness of the resource and, therefore, is able to influence the destination choice process. Brand becomes a medium of communicating information between tourists and resources;
- of network, referring to a supply system based on shared projects. Following the definition of destination used in this paper, “network brand” identifies a group of businesses and tourist resources operating together in a project and sharing a common aim. In reality this is not always true. Brand may be the only element that unites the players. Network brands focus on tourism “producers”, and therefore belong to the supply-side. Examples of network brands are those of STLs, Product Clubs and Unions, franchising networks, tourism boards and other type of networks;
of product, referring to a bundle of services or experiences created to respond to a particular need. Product brands focus on tourists’ perceptual dimension, communicating the value proposition rather than the players that provide it;

- of enterprise, referring to tourism businesses that provide goods, services and tourist experiences (tour operator, travel agencies, hotels, etc.).

Cruising or Not? Factors that Influence the Decision to Undertake or Not a Cruise

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Abstract
The purpose of this study was to identify what drive Portuguese tourists to choose to take a cruise or not. This research grounds on “push and pull factor model” developed by Dann (1977) and Crompton (1979). The empirical research was conducted with a web survey applied to Portuguese people by means of snowball sample techniques, from which 362 usable questionnaires were collected. Multivariate, a component analysis and a cluster-analyses were performed to depict the main factors motivating and preventing Portuguese to take or not cruise. The results suggest that taking a cruise is driven by push and pull factors as new experiences, the luxury and comfort on board, the atmosphere on board, the luxury hotel ship and the good entertainment. In contrast, the decision for not undertaking a cruise holiday is mainly driven by lack of opportunity, money and companion. The results also suggest that the non-cruisers’ image is not well defined yet, meaning that cruisers are more likely to repeat than the others who never take a cruise. The results show the path to develop this form of tourism that in Portugal is only emerging.

Key words: cruise, cruisers push and pull motivations, cruisers segmentation.

Introduction
The European Cruise industry continues to increase its share of the global cruise market with 25.2 million passengers visiting European ports in 2010 (European Cruise Council, 2011). Cruising can be described as a “multi-center holiday”, which means the individual takes the cruise as a moving hotel with
him/her from one point to another point (Ward, 2001). Cruising affords vacationers with the opportunity to visit several destinations in one trip, provide a hassle-free voyage, and presents a good value of product (Chuan Lu & An Lui, 2004). A review of the past literature on tourist motivation indicates that the analysis of motivations based on the two dimensions of push and pull factors have been generally accepted (Yuan & McDonald, 1990). The concept behind push and pull is that people travel because they are pushed by their own internal forces and pulled by the external forces of destination attributes.

Despite the vast amount of attention that tourism scholars have paid to studying travel motivation little effort has been paid to studying tourist motivation in the context of cruise tourism. De La Vina and Ford (2001) concluded that ‘the cruise industry is an increasingly vital segment of the tourism sector that has escaped the rigorous examination of academic research’. Kerstetter, Yin and Yarnal (2005) indicated limited research exists on the motivational factors that influence an individual’s decision to cruise. The little research that exists on the motivations to cruise has focused on the motives for cruising; consequently, there is a lack of understanding about the motivations for “not” cruising. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to investigate what drives Portuguese tourists to take, and not to take a cruise. It is expected that an examination of non-cruisers, potential cruisers and cruisers will extend the current travel decision making literature and, from a practical perspective, the knowledge about different motivations of cruisers. This, in turn, can help marketers in the design of more effective products for each group.

**Literature Review**

Past research on tourist’s motivations could not be directly applied to the cruise industry, because an individual is able to visit different countries after doing a one time of check-in procedure (Cartwright & Baird, 1999). Moreover, the cost of a cruise package is relatively lower since the rate of the full package covers ground transportation, food and beverages, activities, and entertainment (Singh, 2000).

Qu and Ping (1999) studied the motivation, satisfaction and sociodemographics of Hong Kong cruise travelers and found the major travelling motivation factors were to escape from normal life, the social gathering, and the beautiful environment and scenery. De La Vina and Ford (2001) identified previous cruise experiences, the cost, the duration of the cruise, and visiting new destinations, were significant considerations for consumers choosing a cruise. Teye and Leclerc (2003) observed the motivations to cruise in relation to cruise tour-
ists’ ethnicity. A factor analysis ascertained that the most important motives for white Caucasians were the social dimensions, the cultural discovery, and family and kinship, while for ethnic minorities these were the opportunity for uninhibited pursuits, the cultural discovery, and the entertainment opportunities. Josiam, Huang, Spears, Kennon and Bahulkar (2009) studied the needs of the ethnic Chinese segment and the Taiwanese cruisers in particular. The push factors were identified as discovery, enjoyment, social/Esteem needs, escape, and family time, but the pull motivation was unifactorial.

Petrick, Li, and Park (2007) using Crompton’s (1992) choice set model, studied cruise passengers’ decision making process. Their results indicated loyalty, familiarity, and social influences were the main reasons influencing the decision to go on a cruise. In addition, Petrick (2004a) found less loyal and first-time cruisers to be less price sensitive and spend more. Both, Petrick (2004a) and Petrick and Sirakaya (2004) found loyal and satisfied first-time cruisers had greater future cruising intentions. More recently, Hung and Petrick (2011) examined the role that motivation played on the intention to cruise by developing a measurement scale for cruise motivations. The authors found relaxation, enhancing kinship relationships or friendships, and convenience to be the major motivations for taking a cruise. It was also established that motivation had a positive influence on cruising intention.

Cruisers, Potential Cruisers and Non-Cruisers.

The review of past cruise motivation literature suggests the decision to cruise is related to numerous factors, however the focus of tourist motivations has been on motives for cruising. Consequently, there is a lack of understanding about the motivations for “not” cruising. Yarnal and Kerstetter (2005) also referred that little research has examined current non-customers of cruise vacations. Exploring current noncustomers in tourism is also important, as researchers (Dann, 1977; Crompton, 1979; Jeong and Park, 1997; Lee and Crompton, 1992; Wahlers & Etzel, 1985) have found that a basic motive for leisure travel is seeking new or different experiences. This implies that when leisure travelers switch to other vacation forms, an industry may be left with current offerings designed to meet current customers’ expectations, which might not meet those of current non-customers (Park & Petrick, 2009).

However, it can be argued that cruisers and potential cruisers are different from first-time and repeat visitors. Potential cruisers represent a group of consumers who are new to the product category (i.e., cruise), while first-time visitors to a destination or a hotel usually have had experiences with the product
category (i.e., destination or hotel). Cruisers and potential cruisers differ from each other in product-related knowledge and motivations (Gitelson & Crompton, 1984). Understanding how cruisers, potential cruisers and non-cruisers differ is critical to the continued development of travel decision making theory and effective cruise marketing strategies.

**Methodology**

Considering the theoretical evidence found in the literature, this study aimed to examine the motivations of the Portuguese tourists in relation to taking a cruise trip. Thus it explores a market segments based on pull and push motivations for cruising, followed by a comparison based on sociodemographics and cruise trip patterns. The framework presented in this research segments the Portuguese cruise market based on the sequential use of a number of statistical tests. First the cruise motives were factor-analysed and then cluster-analysed to identify psycographic segments. In the second phase the goodness of fit of the classification of the individuals was tested with an multiple discriminant analysis (MDA). Finally, sociodemographic and tripographic variables were cross-tabulated with clusters to profile each segment. Further potential cruisers and non-cruisers are incorporated on clusters as two independent groups from which the reasons/motives they declared for not having cruise yet or for not cruise at all are outlined. Figure 1 depicts the proposed segmentation framework.

![Figure 1. Segmentation framework](image)

The framework derived from traditional segmentation, represents a step forward, as it is not confined to merely one of the techniques. On the contrary it proposed a methodology that, supported by complementary techniques, allows us to reach a very detailed market differentiation. The integration of these
variables allows for the understanding of the consumer’s choice, as cruisers are organized into groups with similar motivations.

**Survey**

Considering the lack of previous studies on this topic, a mixed methodology or multi-method, called a sequential study design (Creswell, 2003; Tashakkori & Teddie, 2003) was employed. A sequential study design consists of two stages to address the objectives of the study. Stage one starts with a qualitative method which is followed by a quantitative method based on the findings of the qualitative method (Tashakkori & Teddie, 2003). This design is especially advantageous for building a new survey (Creswell, 2003). In stage one a preliminary online survey was created. In this survey, three questions were asked: one that aimed to identify cruisers, potential cruisers and non-cruisers; another question asking about future intentions for cruising; and finally an open answer question about the main motivation for cruising and for not cruising. The objective of the latter was to find out other motivation measurement items beyond the motivations that are already reported in past studies about the motivations for cruising. The sample size for this preliminary online survey was not determined a priori. Rather the strategy was to continue asking Portuguese people until the increment of new motivation items was exhausted. A total of 124 questionnaires were collected for content analysis. Answers were reviewed about the motivations for cruising from Portuguese people who have participated in cruises and those who have not yet done so.

Based on past studies in the context of cruise motivations and in the results of the qualitative research a list of 23 cruising motivations were retained and used to design a structured online survey for the second stage. This survey consisted of three groups of questions. The first focused on previous cruising, their intention to cruise and the motivations for cruise (those who intended) and not to cruise (those who did not intend). Intrinsic and extrinsic motivations were included in this group, which consists of a set of 23 push-an-pull motives. The questions were measured by a Likert-type scale from 1 (Strongly disagree) and 5 (Strongly agree). Some of the 23 push-and-pull motives considered in this study were similar to those found in the literature (Hung & Petrick, 2011; Petrick, Li, & Xiangand, 2007; Andriotis & Agiomirgianakis, 2010; De La Vina & Ford, 2001; Huang, Spears, Kennon, & Bahulkar, 2009; Qu & Ping, 1999). The second group of questions focused on the characteristics of the last cruise trip and included questions that aimed to determine how people cruise; their reservation mode and time to decide; the information sources used when
choosing a cruise trip; the chosen cruise company, the cruise port-of-call, the number of people they travelled with and the spending, both inside and outside the cruise ship. The third group included questions related to the social and demographic characteristics of the respondents, in order to establish who these Portuguese cruisers (and non-cruisers) are. This section included questions about age, gender, occupation, and family annual income.

Using a snowball sampling technique, the online data was collected from 392 Portuguese between August and November of 2010. Of those 392 collected questionnaires, 30 were eliminated, because they were incomplete or had an excessive amount of missing data, which represents 92.3% of the initial sample collected. From the usable 362 questionnaires, 129 were defined as cruiser travelers because they had taken at least one cruise before; 32 were classified as non-cruisers because they had never taken a cruise and did not intend to do it; and 201 were regarded as potential cruisers, that is, those who had not done it before but wanted to do it in the future.

**Results**

The cruise motives were used to segment the Portuguese cruisers. This two-pronged approach is a commonly used analysis technique in tourism research (Keng & Cheng, 1999; Loker & Perdue, 1992). MDA was used to confirm the profile of each cluster. The characterization of the clusters was developed using cross-tabs and the Pearson chi-square test to highlight the statistical differences between the clusters within sociodemographic and cruise trip patterns. The aim of these analyses was to identify actionable results and variables that might be useful for cruise companies to know their Portuguese customers are and what motivates them to take a cruise, to ensure they can continue to provide the necessary services and activities in their ships.

**Why do they cruise?**

The PCA with varimax rotation was employed to identify the underlying dimensions of cruise motives and to reduce the 13 motives into more manageable groups, together accounting for 66.32% of the total variance (KMO=0.812; Bartlett test: \( p =0.00 \)) were found. These results are shown in table 1. Considering the meaning of the motives with higher loading, the push factors were labeled Sea Dependence, Experience and Luxury. Cronbach’s alpha, the most commonly used reliability measure was applied to test the reliability of the extracted factors. The internal consistencies of these factors are above average, exceeding 0.8 in all cases, which is more than the recommended level
of 0.60 for exploratory studies (Hair, Anderson, Tatham and Black, 1998). The first factor Sea Dependence is related with feelings of love, freedom and fascination for the sea and the pleasure of sailling. Experience, the second factor, encompasses people’s with the desire for learning about new cultures and have different living situations. The third factor, luxury mainly pertains to social recognition and the need to field appreciated/special. The table 1 also show the mean importance level of each push motive. The importance ranking was based on the mean scores in the Likert-Type, 5-point scale.

Table 1. Principal components of push motives and pull motives (after varimax rotation), means and ranks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Push Motives</th>
<th>Variance explained (%)</th>
<th>Reliability</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sea Dependence</td>
<td>3.59</td>
<td>25.753</td>
<td>.900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I cruise for the sense of freedom in the sea</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>1.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I cruise for the pleasure of sailling</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>1.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I cruise for the strong dependence of the sea</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>3.06</td>
<td>1.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I cruise for the mystery and fascination for the sea</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>3.59</td>
<td>1.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I cruise because I love to being on the sea</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>1.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experience</td>
<td>4.26</td>
<td>21.149</td>
<td>.875</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I cruise to have new experiences</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>4.45</td>
<td>0.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I cruise to learn</td>
<td>0.61</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>1.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I cruise to experience new cultures</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>4.32</td>
<td>0.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I cruise to learn about new cultures</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>4.36</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Luxury</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>19.421</td>
<td>.847</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I cruise for the luxury and comfort on board</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>4.15</td>
<td>0.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I cruise because I like being served</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>1.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I cruise because I want/to be pampered</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>1.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I cruise to have a high status vacation</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>2.55</td>
<td>1.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pull Motives</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>30.4</td>
<td>.859</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ship Facilities</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>30.4</td>
<td>.859</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I cruise because it has good Food and Beverage</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>1.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I cruise because it has good entertainment</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>4.16</td>
<td>0.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I cruise because of the services included</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>0.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I cruise because of the concept of the cruise</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>0.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I cruise due to the onboard Atmosphere</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>4.41</td>
<td>0.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entertainment</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>28.1</td>
<td>.829</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Luxury hotel ship</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>1.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I cruise because of the diversity of programs</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>0.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I cruise because of the Price / quality relationship</td>
<td>0.51</td>
<td>4.15</td>
<td>0.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I cruise to travel in a transport that I rarely use</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>0.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I cruise because of the company prestigious</td>
<td>0.61</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>1.04</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
What do they cruise for?

Results from the application of PCA to the 10 pull motives can be seen in table 1. From the pull motives, two new factors were extracted, together accounting for 58.6% of the total variance (KMO= 0.922; Bartlett test: \( p =0.00 \)). The resulting pull factor were labeled as follows: ship facilities and entertainment. Ship facilities, includes motives related with services onboard and physical attributes associated with ship. The second factor, entertainment is related with onboard activities and with the physical evidence associated with the luxury accommodations and the company prestigious. Cronbach’s alpha for these factors also exceeds 0.8, indicating a good degree of internal consistency.

Psicographic Segmentation

The PCA allows for the determination of five key cruise motives that presuppose groups with different push and pull motives. The market segmentation is intented to follow a psychografic methodology, which is why the motivational dimensions were used as segmentation variables. The identification of the market segments was achieved by means of the cluster analysis, which consists of a group of statistical procedures that gather together relatively homogenous groups into a sample. The non hierarchical cluster technique- the K-means cluster analysis-gathered the observation into three groups, the first with 46 cases, the second with 27 and the third with 56. (see table 2). Accounding with discriminant analysis, 96.1% of those belonging to the validation sample were correctly classified. Taking into account that the subjects are grouped into clusters in such a way that inside the clusters they are as similar as possible and outside the clusters, they are dissimilar as possible, the differences between the clusters means that they must be significantly different in at least one of the cases.

The cluster named as “Sea Lovers”, represents 35.7% of the actual cruisers and they have a strong motivation for all the elements associated with the pleasure of being on the sea and with the sense of freedom. The luxury motive is the less important for this group of cruisers.

The next clusters, “Adventures Cruisers” (20.2%) are cruisers motivated by the sense of learning and discovering about new cultures and also have new experiences. This group views the factors associated with the Sea dependence and with Ship facilities as least important.

The last cluster and the largest group (44.2%) were labeled as “Luxury Cruisers”, because they seem to be interested in all the elements that make
them feel appreciated, like being served and like to be pampered, but they also desire some social recognition. Moreover, the “Luxury Cruisers” are also motivated by the entertainment associated with the diversity of programs and the luxury and prestigious of company. The ship facilities was also a motive that attract this group of passengers that appreciated the onboard services and facilities. On contrary they give less importance to the experience.

Table 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor and cluster</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Chi-Square</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Asymp. Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sea Dependence</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>57.269</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sea Lovers</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adventure Cruisers</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>1.19</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Luxury Cruisers</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Experience</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>8.105</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sea Lovers</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>2.59</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adventure Cruisers</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Luxury Cruisers</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Luxury</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>78.688</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sea Lovers</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>1.67</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adventure Cruisers</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>2.44</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Luxury Cruisers</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>4.16</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Ship Facilities</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>44.565</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sea Lovers</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>2.35</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adventure Cruisers</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>2.11</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Luxury Cruisers</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>3.39</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Entertainment</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>32.521</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sea Lovers</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>2.48</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adventure Cruisers</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>2.19</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Luxury Cruisers</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Why they didn’t done a cruise trip yet? Potencial Cruisers.

For potential cruisers, the reasons for not having undertaken a cruise trip were varied. In descending order of frequency, the three most frequent reasons were a lack of opportunity (52.6%), a lack of money (15.5%) and no one to go with
(10.3%). Other reasons included the high prices, waiting for a good promotion and lack of time.

Table 3. Motives for not Having Undertaken and for Not Doing a Cruise Trip.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Motives for not having undertake</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Motives for not doing</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No Money</td>
<td>15.5</td>
<td>I have no interest in doing a cruise trip</td>
<td>43.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No opportunity yet</td>
<td>52.6</td>
<td>I preferred another type of holidays</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No one to go with</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>Price</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher prices</td>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>Fear it is unsafe</td>
<td>6.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Reason</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Phobia</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Waiting for a good promotion</td>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>Other reasons</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Why they don´t cruise? Non- Cruisers

As far as those who said they were not interested in doing a cruise trip is concerned, the main reason for not wanting to do one was a lack of interest (43.8%). Besides their lack of interest, there were three other reasons, accounting for 12.5 percent of the answers each: preference for other types of holidays, price and phobia. Safety fears were mentioned by 6.3% percent of this group.

Comparing the Segments

Table 4 shows that non-cruisers and potential cruisers are not different, except for their gender make up. While cruisers and potential cruisers tend to be predominantly females, the majority of non-cruisers are males. There are, however visible differences between non-cruisers and potential cruisers, and the three actual cruiser segments. Non- and potential cruisers tend to be younger, more likely to be single and economically inactive, and have lower monthly income than actual cruisers. While still different from non- and potential cruisers, adventure cruisers appeared to be closer to these than were the luxury cruisers and sea lovers in terms of income, marital status and monthly income. In fact, no differences emerged between non- and potential cruisers and the adventure cruisers with regards to income. No differences in educational level were identified.
Table 4. Clusters sociodemographic characteristics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sea Lovers</th>
<th>Adventure Cruisers</th>
<th>Luxury Cruisers</th>
<th>Potencial Cruisers</th>
<th>Non-Cruisers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>x²=9.522</td>
<td>df= 4</td>
<td>p= 0.049</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>34%</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>26%</td>
<td>28%</td>
<td>55%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>66%</td>
<td>75%</td>
<td>74%</td>
<td>72%</td>
<td>45%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age</strong></td>
<td>x²=39.332</td>
<td>df= 4</td>
<td>p= 0.000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18-34</td>
<td>43%</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>36%</td>
<td>78%</td>
<td>62%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35 and over</td>
<td>57%</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>64%</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td>38%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Marital Status</strong></td>
<td>x²=21.839</td>
<td>df= 4</td>
<td>p= 0.000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>48%</td>
<td>60%</td>
<td>36%</td>
<td>71%</td>
<td>72%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In a relationship</td>
<td>52%</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>64%</td>
<td>29%</td>
<td>28%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Employment situation</strong></td>
<td>x²=12.148</td>
<td>df= 4</td>
<td>p= 0.016</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economically active</td>
<td>85%</td>
<td>85%</td>
<td>90%</td>
<td>70%</td>
<td>62%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economically inactive</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>38%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Family’s Monthly Income</strong></td>
<td>x²=25.574</td>
<td>df= 4</td>
<td>p= 0.000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Below 2000€</td>
<td>27%</td>
<td>70%</td>
<td>49%</td>
<td>68%</td>
<td>76%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001€ and above</td>
<td>73%</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>51%</td>
<td>32%</td>
<td>24%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Education</strong></td>
<td>x²=3.544</td>
<td>df= 4</td>
<td>p= 0.471</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Up to secondary</td>
<td>27%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>24%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graduate and post-graduate</td>
<td>73%</td>
<td>90%</td>
<td>82%</td>
<td>75%</td>
<td>76%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

How do they Cruise?

Table 5. Cluster’s tripographic characteristics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sea Lovers</th>
<th>Adventure Cruisers</th>
<th>Luxury Cruisers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Number of cruise trips done</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One cruise trip</td>
<td>x²=2.443</td>
<td>df= 2</td>
<td>p= 0.295</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 1</td>
<td>54%</td>
<td>41%</td>
<td>59%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>46%</td>
<td>37%</td>
<td>41%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>When was the last one</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than 1 year</td>
<td>x²=4.045</td>
<td>df= 2</td>
<td>p= 0.132</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 1 year</td>
<td>55%</td>
<td>29%</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>45%</td>
<td>71%</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cruise with whom (last one)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friends</td>
<td>x²=3.860</td>
<td>df= 2</td>
<td>p= 0.145</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relatives</td>
<td>37%</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>63%</td>
<td>67%</td>
<td>82%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cruise reservation (last one)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travel Agent</td>
<td>x²=0.579</td>
<td>df= 4</td>
<td>p= 0.965</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Online Travel Agent</td>
<td>64%</td>
<td>60%</td>
<td>67%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Directly to the cruise operator</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>26%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Booked how much in advance of departure</strong></td>
<td>x²=1.094</td>
<td>df= 8</td>
<td>p= 0.895</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time to Decision</td>
<td>x² = 1.620</td>
<td>df = 4</td>
<td>p = 0.805</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------</td>
<td>------------</td>
<td>--------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between 1 and 3 days</td>
<td>53%</td>
<td>55%</td>
<td>48%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between 4 days and one week</td>
<td>42%</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>39%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than one week</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cruise trip-days</th>
<th>x² = 0.235</th>
<th>df = 2</th>
<th>p = 0.889</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than 7 days</td>
<td>37%</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>41%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between 7 and 15 days</td>
<td>63%</td>
<td>65%</td>
<td>59%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Food Board *</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Breakfast only / half board</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full board (break-fast, lunch and dinner)</td>
<td>49%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All inclusive (meals and drinks)</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Chi-square test not shown because more than 20% of the cells had an expected count of less than 5.

Few tripographic differences emerged between the three actual cruisers segments. There were differences with regards to the information sources used. Adventure cruisers tended to search on the Internet and obtain information through the travel agent, sea lovers searched through the Internet and other sources, while luxury cruisers mainly on the Internet, but also through travel agents and other sources.

There were no differences in terms of cruise reservation, with two thirds booked through a traditional travel agent, with a further 3 out of 10 booked directly with the cruise operator. Only a small proportion was purchased through online travel agents, suggesting that the booking of cruise trips had not shifted to online as much as other types of travel. It appears that cruisers tried to obtain information from travel agents and then book the trip through them. The majority of cruisers were not regular cruisers (last trip was over a 12 months), and when they did it they tended to cruise with relatives and travel
on cruises of over 7 days long. The booking of the cruise trip was usually made less than 3 months in advance, with around 30 percent making the reservation at the ‘last minute’ (less than one month before departure). The time to decision was usually fairly short, not exceeding 3 days.

**Conclusion**

The purpose of this study was to explore the motivations of the Portuguese tourists when choosing to take a cruise or not. Based on push and pull motivations, three segments of previous cruisers were identified. These segments were then compared based on the cruise trip patterns. Non- and potential cruisers were asked the reasons for not wanting to do/having done a cruise and the five groups (three cruiser segments, non-cruisers and potential cruisers) were then compared based on their sociodemographic characteristics.

The main motives for taking a cruise trip (push factors) were labeled as Sea Dependence, Experience and Luxury, which are in accordance with push motives identified in previous research (Qu & Ping, 1999; De La Vina & Ford, 2001; Huang, Spears, Kennon, & Bahulkar, 2009; Hung & Petrick, 2011). The pull motives were related to ship facilities and entertainment, which are also in line with previous studies (see, e.g., Teye & Leclerc, 2003; Li & Petrick, 2008) in this field. Cluster analysis of the 129 respondents who had taken a cruise before resulted in three groups: “Sea Lovers”, “Adventures Cruisers” and “Luxury Cruisers”. The “Sea lovers” have strong feelings of associated to the sea and are not so interested in the luxury aspects of cruising. The “Adventure Cruisers” are mainly motivated by the sense of learning and discovering as well as having new experiences, for example associated to the possibility of visiting several places during the cruise trip. For them, the benefits of travelling over water are important, and neither are the ship facilities. This segment appears to be close to the characteristics of allocentric tourists Huang and Hsu (2009).

Finally the “Luxury Cruisers” are mainly motivated by the opportunity to feel special and appreciated. However, they are also looking for the entertainment and onboard services and facilities. Conversely, the experiential aspects are less important.

Several marketing implications can be drawn from the identification of these three segments. From a promotion point of view, cruise operators should emphasize differentiated messages so that they can target the three segments. In order to attract and satisfy sea lovers, the cruise industry should emphasize the freedom provided by the cruising experience. To target the adventure
cruisers and in line with Hung and Petrick (2011), operators should stress the many learning opportunities, whether onboard or at the ports of call. To target the luxury cruisers, the glamour and high standards of service needs to be highlighted. In terms of the product itself, cruise operators should also consider adapting the product to the priorities of each segment. For example, to satisfy luxury cruisers, cruise operators should try to make this passengers feel special. For instance, Hung and Petrick (2011) suggested that a public recognition to those who have cruised frequently may boost their self-esteem and make them feel appreciated and also if the cruise liner distributes a certificate which indicates the passenger’s name and the dates of her/his cruise, they will be able to show and share this with others when they return.

The three actual cruisers segments were not different with regards to the tripographic characteristics. One interesting finding is that the decision making process for a cruise has some differences when comparing with the purchase of other tourism products. More than half of the cruisers on this study made their cruise reservation through a travel agent and they made a decision within one to three days. These differences may be explained because the decision-making process of purchasing a cruise vacation is more complex than decisions related to choosing other types of holiday. Similar to choosing a destination, cruisers must decide whether or not to take a vacation and where to go, but also which cruise line company to travel with and which ship. Thus, considering this product complexity, cruisers preferred to book through a travel agency or a cruise agency and not through the internet. Considering that cruisers have a direct contact with a personal consultant (travel agent), this may explain the short time to take the decision because the personal contact makes them feel more secure about their decision.

The potential cruisers are critical to the continued growth of the cruising market in Portugal. The results show that a lack of opportunity, a lack of money and no one to go with were the main reasons not to have done it yet. Cruise operators should try to work through these constraints so that the potential cruisers become actual cruisers. For example, with regards to the lack of money, cruise operators should promote cruising as a more desired travel mode than other alternatives, emphasizing in their communication messages the cost of a cruise package is often lower since the cost of a full package covers ground transportation, food and beverages, activities, and entertainment.

Finally, the non-Portuguese cruisers mentioned that they are not interesting in the cruisers tourism product because they preferred other types of holidays,
but they also mentioned the price and phobia. Despite their reasons, cruise marketers should try to attract the Portuguese who lack an interest for this product by showing on their promotional instruments and images the ability of the cruise experience to satisfy a broad range of tourism experiences due to the fact that there are different cruise thematic packages based on cultural, natural and gastronomic destinations or interests.

In general the results of this study make some contributions to travel motivation as well as the cruising literature and they also might be useful for cruise companies to know their Portuguese customers are and what motivates them to take or not a cruise, and to ensure they can continue to provide the necessary services and activities in their ships.

References


Testing Segment Quality in Rural tourism

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Abstract

Segmentation in tourism has been very important and popular research topic. However, most segmentation studies have focused on finding the segmentation solution instead of applying the results to practice. In this study unique opportunity is used to test how segmentation solutions of an earlier rural tourism segmentation study conducted in 2009 represent rural tourist segments in 2011 and how well tourists can relate themselves to the segments found in the earlier study, i.e. how well the segments can be applied to practice. There results show that the four segments found in the earlier study exist in reality. However, segment sizes are crucially different and there is some overlap between segments. These can be partially explained by differences in samples.

Key words: segmentation, rural tourism, cluster analysis, segment quality.

Introduction

For decades segmentation has been one of the cornerstones of marketing. Segmentation means grouping customers with homogenous needs and buying behaviour into segments (McDonald & Dunbar, 2004). Also in tourism literature market segmentation is popular topic. Especially in rural tourism segmentation has been found an important research topic. Most of the earlier market segmentation research in tourism have focused on finding a segmentation solution based on common sense or data driven research and then validating those results by comparing external factors such as socio-demographics, activities or buying behaviour. However, even though usefulness of segmentation solution for managerial purposes is very important, there has been very few tourism studies examining how well segmentation solutions work in practice and how well respondents can relate themselves to different segments. In this study an unique opportunity is used to test the effectiveness of an earlier segmentation study, in this case rural tourism segments in Finland. This study contributes to tourism segmentation by being the first study to examine the quality of an ear-
lier segmentation study using separately collected empirical data. It also contributes to measuring segmentation effectiveness as well as choosing the correct segmentation solution and provides a way to find overlapping segments using results based on cluster analysis.

**Literature Review**

There has been plenty of interest in literature in segmenting rural tourists. Rural tourist segmentation has been justified by need to know the causative factors and influences by which tourists in rural areas are motivated to become included in various market segments (Park & Yoon, 2009), obtain better understanding of the demand for rural tourism (Molera & Albaladejo, 2007) or rural tourist behaviour (Pesonen, forthcoming), providing deeper insight into the profile of rural tourists in two Scottish locations (Frochot, 2005) and lack of research that deals with the rural tourism sector (Kastenholz, Davis, & Paul, 1999). Rural tourists have been segmented primary by travel motivations (Park & Yoon, 2009) or by benefits they seek (Kastenholz, Davis, & Paul 1999; Frochot, 2005; Molera & Albaladejo, 2007). Also a combination of the two has been used (Pesonen, forthcoming). Oh and Schuett (2010) explored a visitor segmentation approach based on rural visitor spending behaviour.

Kastenholz et al. (1999) found four rural tourist segments: Want-It-All Ruralists, Independent Ruralists, Traditional Ruralists and Environmental Ruralists. Also Molera and Albaladejo (2007) found four different segments and named them Family rural tourists, Relax rural tourists, Rural life tourists and Tourists of rural accommodation. Four segments was also chosen to best represent rural tourists by Frochot (2005) who named the segments Actives, Relaxers, Gazers and Rurals. To no surprise, four segments were also found by Park and Yoon (2009) who named the segments Family togetherness, Passive tourists, Want-it-all and Learning and excitement. Finally, Pesonen (forthcoming) named four rural tourists segments in Finland as Family travellers, Wellbeing travellers, Home region travellers and Social travellers.

Common to all these segmentation studies is the use of clustering methodology to find the segmentation solution. According to Dolnicar (2002), clustering has become a very popular way of identifying market segments based on survey data. However, results of segmentation studies such as these are more than questionable because of some very fundamental weaknesses (Dolnicar, 2002), for example segmentation results are always obtained. Often in segmentation studies stability is tested and results are assumed to be valid and reliable if the segments are found in the data set repeatedly. As clustering is an explor-
tory tool (Dolnicar, 2002) the results are one of many possible solutions. Importantly is that solutions are useful for industry purposes, and according to Dibb and Simkin (2010), close attention has to be paid to segment quality.

There is also a possibility that market segments can overlap each other. According to Saunders (1994) in conventional cluster analysis observations are separated into mutually exclusive sub-sets which are then described, whereas in reality segment members could belong to more than one group. Baloglu and Uysal (1996) found significant overlap with German overseas pleasure traveller segments using canonical correlation analysis. However, cluster analysis, the most popular segmentation method in tourist segmentation (Dolnicar, 2002), does not allow segment overlap and the topic of overlapping segments with means cluster analysis is not often discussed. In this study overlap of segments found using k-means cluster analysis is explored.

Dibb and Simkin (2010) examined the practical application, impact and efficacy of segment quality criteria using a longitudinal case study from the Eastern European mobile phone market. Based on a literature review they listed six segment quality themes. These are homogenous segments, segment size and potential profitability, segment stability, segment accessibility, segment compatibility and segment actionability.

Testing quality of the segments is crucial step in market segmentation process (Dibb & Simkin 2010). According to Dibb and Simkin (2010) using qualitative criteria to evaluate quality of the segments enable the intuitive managerial logic of the recommendation to be judged. In this study attention is paid especially to segment size and segment stability.

Segmentation results can hardly be useful for managerial purposes if they are not stable over time and if people can’t relate themselves to segments, that is the segments do not depict segments that actually exist. According to Hair et al. (2010) validity is the degree to which a measure accurately represents what it is supposed to. In this study validity of the results of an earlier rural tourist segmentation study by Pesonen (forthcoming) is examined using qualitative criteria, that is how users of the same website can relate themselves to segments found in the earlier study.

According to Dibb and Simkin (2010), one of the difficulties marketers face is testing the quality and robustness of segments. Saunders (1994) states that statistically significant results have to be usable and accepted by managers. Managers have to believe in the clusters formed, recognize them, and see how
they can be used. By proving that tourists can relate themselves to segments found using statistical methods it can be showed that the segments exist also in reality.

Based on the literature review this study has three research questions:

How well can Finnish rural tourists relate themselves to the rural tourist segments?

How do the segments overlap each other? And

How do two different samples from the website differ from each other regarding travel motivations and demographics?

Methodology

Pesonen (forthcoming) and Pesonen and Komppula (2010) found four different rural tourist segments in Finland. During summer 2009 they collected information using a survey on the largest rural tourism website in Finland on what motivates rural tourists to travel and what kind of destination attributes they value. They had altogether 727 usable answers and segmented the respondents into four segments based on their travel motivations using K-means cluster analysis. The segments were Social Travellers (N=213, 29.3 %), Wellbeing Travellers (N=164, 22.6 %), Home Region Travellers (N=148, 20.4%) and Family Travellers (N=202, 27.8 %).

For the purpose of this study a new questionnaire was used to validate the segmentation results of the earlier study. The questionnaire was promoted to the users on the same website that was used by Pesonen (forthcoming). Banner advertisement with a prize of 400 euro gift certificate was used to direct the users to the questionnaire. Data was collected during summer 2011, from beginning of March to end of August. Altogether 1937 responses were obtained, all from Finnish users. Of those 1778 were usable for this study. Most of the deleted responses were result of duplicated answers from same respondents.

The differences between segments reported by Pesonen (forthcoming) were used to describe the four segments of rural tourists. Respondents were asked to choose the segment which describes them the best. The description of segments is presented in Table 1.
Table 1. Segment descriptions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Segment name</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Social travellers</td>
<td>During your holiday you want to meet interesting people, be active and maybe even have a feeling of romance. You appreciate destination that has a rich history and culture and where you can meet new people outside your own family. You also like to have control over your own holiday. You prefer travelling with friends.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family travellers</td>
<td>You enjoy travelling with your family. Having fun, being together with your family, new &quot;once in a lifetime&quot; experiences and all new and exciting motivate you to travel. You want the destination to be safe for the family and that your children enjoy the destination. You also appreciate environmental friendliness of a destination.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Well being tourists</td>
<td>You want to escape the busy everyday life to the peace and quiet of the countryside. You want to relax from the ordinary and hassle of the cities and enjoy privacy and comfort. You appreciate that there are no timetables for you, peaceful atmosphere, good possibilities for outdoor activities and beautiful landscapes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Home region traveller</td>
<td>You are interested in travelling to the region where your family comes from.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Something else, what?</td>
<td>If none of the above options does not describe you as a rural tourists you can define your own rural tourism behaviour here.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Respondents were also able to choose several different segments. The purpose of this was to see how well description of a single segment could be used to describe a rural tourist or would a combination of several segments serve better, thus exploring the possibility of segment overlap.

To examine segment stability over time 12 travel motivations that differentiated the segments the most in the study by Pesonen (forthcoming) were measured also in this study using 7 point Likert scale. These motivations were compared using data collected for this study and data used by Pesonen (forthcoming). Comparative analysis was made using one way variance analysis (ANOVA). All responses with missing values in travel motivations were deleted from this analysis. Also age and gender were measured and compared using chi square and ANOVA respectively.

Results

The results of the study are presented in Table 2. As can be seen, most of the respondents could relate themselves to one of the segments presented to them. 10.1 per cent of respondents would position themselves to two different segments, 1.6 per cent to three and eight respondents (0.4 %) think that all the segment descriptions fit them. 3.8 per cent of respondents did not think that any of the segments could describe them. Family travellers was the largest segment with 36.2 per cent of respondents, closely followed by Well being tour-
ists (34.1%). Approximately ten per cent of respondents think that description of Social rural tourists describe them the best. Only 4.2 per cent found description of Home region travellers fit them the best.

**Table 2.** Rural tourists relating themselves to segments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Segment name</th>
<th>Rural tourists relating themselves to segments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Social rural tourists</td>
<td>170 (9.6 %)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family travellers</td>
<td>643 (36.2 %)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Well being tourists</td>
<td>606 (34.1 %)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Home region traveller</td>
<td>75 (4.2 %)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>People belonging to two</td>
<td>180 (10.1 %)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>segments</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>People belonging to three</td>
<td>28 (1.6 %)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>segments</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>People belonging to four</td>
<td>8 (0.4 %)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>segments</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Something else</td>
<td>68 (3.8%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Altogether 12 travel motivations were measured in this study as well as by Pesonen (forthcoming). The results of comparative analysis are presented in Table 3. As can be seen from the Table 3, there are statistically significant differences in many travel motivations. All the motivations that differ have higher mean score in the study conducted during summer 2009 except for visiting places where respondent’s family comes from. However, in both studies relaxing away from the ordinary was the most important travel motivation, followed by escape from busy everyday life and hassle-free vacation.

**Table 3.** Comparing travel motivations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study / Motivation</th>
<th>2009</th>
<th>2011</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I would have a hassle-free vacation</td>
<td>6.02</td>
<td>5.61</td>
<td>39.11</td>
<td>p&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I would like to escape from a busy everyday life</td>
<td>6.03</td>
<td>5.72</td>
<td>30.17</td>
<td>p&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There would be an opportunity to be together as a family</td>
<td>5.89</td>
<td>5.62</td>
<td>16.25</td>
<td>p&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I could visit places my family comes from</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>3.59</td>
<td>13.27</td>
<td>p&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I would have a feeling like I was being pampered</td>
<td>4.91</td>
<td>4.81</td>
<td>1.61</td>
<td>p=0.205</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I would have an opportunity to be physically</td>
<td>4.70</td>
<td>4.64</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>p=0.335</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
There are also some differences between respondents in age and gender. In the study conducted in 2009 17 per cent of respondents were male. In the current study 26.3 per cent are male. The difference is statistically significant ($\chi^2=24.35$, $p<0.001$). The respondents are also younger in this study with average age of 39 years compared to 43 years in 2009 study. ($F=40.37$, $p<0.001$).

**Conclusion**

Based on the results it can be argued that rural tourist segments presented by Pesonen (Forthcoming) depict Finnish rural tourists quite accurately. Most of the website users could relate themselves to one particular segment. The largest segment is Family travellers (36.2 %) closely followed by Well being travellers (34.1%). Only 3.8 per cent of respondents could not find themselves in any of the segments or in their combinations. Some respondents (12.1 %) chose at least two different segments to describe them the best. Even though there is some overlap between segments most of the respondents could categorize themselves as a member of a single segment, making it easy to use results. Saunders (1994) regard overlapping clusters as an unnecessary confusion and suggest that researchers should aim to find easily interpretable clusters. When comparing these results to those of Pesonen (forthcoming) it can clearly be seen that there is a large difference in segment sizes. Whereas Pesonen (forthcoming) found that the four segments have almost equal number of rural tourists, the results of this study show that Family travellers and Well being travellers are actually much larger segments than Home region travellers or Social travellers.

There are many differences between samples used by Pesonen (forthcoming) and this study. Even though both data are collected from the same rural tourism website only two years apart there are many differences in travel motivations, age and gender of the respondents. It is unknown whether these dif-
ferences are result of changes in sample or changes in population between studies. However, the typical respondent can be described the same in both studies: middle aged female that is mostly motivated to travel by relaxation, escape and hassle-free vacation.

Stability of segments over time is also very important for managerial purposes. The results have no managerial purpose if they can be used only at the time of data collection and not in the future. The data for this study is collected on a rural tourism website, compromising only from online respondents. In order to for example differentiate the offering on a website it is important for managers to have stable solution and have ways to examine change in segments over time. According to Hoek et al. (1996) including variables that predict consumer behaviour to the segmentation base as very important in order to find segments that have fairly constant nature. The segment descriptions of Pesonen (forthcoming) and this study are also based on travel companions. Social travellers are travelling with friends, Family travellers with family and Well being travellers with their partner. These segments can thus be regarded as fairly constant.

The results show that these four segments can be used by managers of rural tourism companies. The results of Pesonen (forthcoming) seem to be reliable as well as actionable enough for rural tourism companies to use in marketing and product development. These segmentation result help rural tourism companies to understand their customers and what they want.

The results also show that data driven solutions from statistical segmentation methods, in this case K-means cluster analysis, should be interpreted with caution. Even though solution might seem logical and correct it does not necessarily represent real world. Relative segment size is an important factor in deciding which segments to target and the results of this study suggest that segmentation using K-means cluster analysis is only a starting point for market segmentation and that segments need to be evaluated carefully.

The strength of quantitative studies lies in generalizability of results. However, despite extensive research on rural tourism segmentation the results are always destination or country specific. Alternative approach could be using a combination of qualitative and quantitative segmentation. For example Mackellar (2009) segmented festival participants based on their behaviour using qualitative methodology. Quantitative approach could be used to generalize segmentation results of a qualitative study using for example methodology presented in this study.
There are some limitations to this study. Data collection was done only on one website and an Internet survey was used. This means that some rural tourists that do not use the Internet to seek information regarding their holiday are not included in this study. The validation of the segments found using the categorical data is out of the scope of this paper but is a crucial next step in examining the usefulness of the segments presented in this study. The wording of the question of how well customers can relate themselves to segments should be explored further. The topic of applying segmentation results to practice is very important (Dibb & Simkin 2010) and also in tourism this field requires further research.

Acknowledgements

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References


Contemporary Trends in the Development of Tourism in the Polish-Slovak Borderland – Two Decades after the Transformation

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Abstract
The present paper describes the conditions, level and prospects of the development of tourism in the Polish-Slovak borderland. In the last twenty years tourism become one of the most important sectors of national economy in many countries, not only in the richest ones, but also in developing, post-communist countries such as Poland or Slovakia. The Polish-Slovak borderland belongs to the regions of more than average tourism at. This area is almost entirely mountainous and it is located in the Carpathians with great natural and cultural values which are abundant in these countries and are the basis for tourism development. Although the area has a high potential for tourism, its local economy in the tourism sector is still being developed. The authors try to present new trends in the tourism industry comparing the situation in transboundary regions of two countries - Poland and Slovakia and tries to show significance of the tourist function in their economies.

Key words: tourism development, contemporary trends, types of tourism, tourism planning.

Introduction
The political changes which took place in Poland and Czechoslovakia after 1989 and the dissolution of the latter one into the Czech Republic and the Slovak Republic on the January 1st, 1993, have contributed to the massive socio-economic transformations in those countries. Particularly noticeable changes occurred at the border between Poland and Slovakia, which, and nearly entire length of it, runs along the Carpathian Arc ridges. Despite being a natural barrier typical for mountainous areas and having a separating function during the communist times, the southern boundary of Poland has started to play quite a
different function after systemic changes. The main determinants have become: cooperation, contacts and both cultural and socio-economic exchange. These processes have continued in the subsequent years, in which both countries began their efforts to join the European Union, successfully concluded in 2004 and followed by their entry into the Schengen area in 2007.

The main objective of the regional policy of the European Union is economic unity and a harmonious development of all regions. This can be achieved by increasing the cohesion level i.e.: by reducing disparities between the various regions, and by seeking to mitigate backwardness of the less developed areas. Already during the early unification processes of Europe, such underdeveloped areas were in particular borderland areas, which were attributed an extremely important role, as areas crucial for the integration of European societies (Fig. 1).

Figure 1. The cross-border cooperation in Europe (2007) within Euroregions and other cross-border associations

Source: “Crossborder Cooperation Areas 2007” Editor: AEBR and Leibniz-Institute for Regional Geography Leipzig
The success of the first Euroregion established in 1958 at the border of the Netherlands and Germany (its name - EUREGIO - was adopted to name other similar associations of cities, municipalities and rural districts operating as cross-border cooperation) has caused a rapid development of this first, informal form of cross-border cooperation between borderland regions in Western Europe. A proven model of cross-border cooperation have been implemented since the early 1990s in borderlands of the Central and Eastern Europe, providing tangible benefits to those areas in the form of economic activation of peripheral areas.

One of the major development directions for border regions of Poland and Slovakia recognized after the borders have been opened was the development of tourism, which in economic terms is considered to be an important growth factor. Considering the European integration of the two countries, the dynamic development of international tourism, as well as the growing wealth of societies in Central and Eastern Europe, there were new, extremely favourable conditions for increased efforts and strengthened cooperation in the context of cross-border tourism.

Table 1. The similarities and differences of the Polish-Slovak borderland

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The similarities</th>
<th>Differences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tourism is an important sector of economy</td>
<td>tourism infrastructure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>high attractiveness for tourists</td>
<td>local entrepreneurship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>natural environment</td>
<td>the different pace of transformation processes after 1990.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>low level of degradation and pollution of the natural environment</td>
<td>the number of institutional cooperation instruments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>historical circumstances before 1918</td>
<td>a different model of tourism before 1989</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the important role of transit</td>
<td>population density</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shortages in infrastructure</td>
<td>ethnic diversity</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: author’s own research

The specific character of the Polish-Slovak borderland

The length of the border between Poland and Slovakia is 541 kilometres. The research area of this study has been a selected area of the Polish-Slovak borderland located entirely in the Carpathians. The analysis has been performed for territorial units of second level - powiats (districts) in Poland and the corresponding okreses (counties) in Slovakia - which are located directly at the border or which have been selected due to their apparent cross-border affiliations.
(Fig. 2). They are located in three provinces in Poland: the Subcarpathian, Lesser Poland and Silesian Voivodeships, and in two provinces in Slovakia: the Žilina Region and the Prešov Region.

This area is characterized by superior and unique in Europe natural and cultural values (including the numerous protected areas and objects of the UNESCO list), which constitute the core and determine the development of tourism. At the same time the Polish-Slovak borderland is one of the poorest and least urbanized areas, with plenty of agricultural land, which induces high level of unemployment, development of shadow economy, and other unfavourable demographic phenomena - such as migration of young people to cities or abroad in search of work. Therefore, the development of tourism - adequately supported by local authorities - can bring tangible benefits to the local population, especially as the population of the area is renowned for its hospitality.

![Map of the Polish-Slovak borderland]

**Figure 2.** The analysed area of the Polish-Slovak borderland

*Source: author’s own research*

The strategic importance of tourism - especially in the Polish and Slovakian Carpathians, which have traditionally been the holiday areas for national residents - has been distinguished in numerous intergovernmental planning doc-
ums, including the Development Strategy of the Polish-Slovak border areas for the years 2000-2006, the Operational Programme for the Cross-Border Cooperation Republic of Poland - Slovak Republic 2007-2013, which set out the most important directions of socio-economic development through tourism. In the same time, three Euroregions have been established in this border area (the Carpathian Euroregion in 1993, the Tatras Euroregion in 1994, the Beskydy Mountains Euroregion in 2000), which form the official structures of transboundary cooperation and open up great opportunities for raising funds for the implementation of various tasks contributing to the development of the region.

**Current trends of tourism development in the Polish-Slovak borderland**

The development of tourism in the Carpathians induces the spatial expansion of tourism onto areas, which previously had no great importance. This process includes construction of new accommodation facilities of high standards with spa & wellness services, emergence of modern ski resorts, development of rural tourism, marking new thematic tourist routes and construction of the so-called second homes. The high and diversified tourist values in the analysed area allow different forms of tourism to be practised throughout the year. The fastest growing and most profitable sectors of tourism on the Polish-Slovak borderland include: ski tourism and health tourism. These forms of tourism - apart from rural tourism, agro-tourism and urban tourism - are now recognized as priority in many planning and strategic documents for the Carpathian cross-border region (Klamár, 2009).

**Ski tourism**

The traditions of skiing in the Eastern Carpathians and the Tatra Mountains go back to the turn of the nineteenth and twentieth century, when cross country skiing has developed with focus on long hikes and ski races. The increased interest in developing downhill skiing tourism in Poland and Slovakia dates back to the mid 1990s, when ski tourism began to render considerable profits. Now, practising winter and active forms of recreation fits the current trend associated with the "healthy" lifestyle.

During this time, numerous investments have been made throughout the region, especially in the skiing infrastructure and accompanying infrastructure. The aim was to modernise existing and build new facilities, which, even though at a minimal extent, could compete with Alpine resorts. Polish and Slovak ski resorts also began to compete for tourist traffic generated on the Polish
market and the markets of other countries in Central and Eastern Europe - Czech Republic, Hungary, Russia, Ukraine, Lithuania, Romania or Bulgaria.

The biggest investments in recent years have been carried out in Slovakia, where a system has been developed with modern ski centres equipped with highly efficient facilities for skiers' transportation up the slopes, as well as with wide, well-prepared and diverse ski routes and snow-parks for snowboarders. The total number of ski resorts with ski infrastructure is approximately one hundred. The biggest resorts are located in the Tatras, Low Tatras, Greater Fatra and the Kysucké Beskydy, and the following centres are considered to have international importance:

- the Jasna - Lower Tatras ski resort - consisting of 24 ski runs of the total length of 34 km, including 15 km with artificial snow making and available for 5 months of the year,

- High Tatras ski resort - consisting of three localities: Tatranská Lomnica, Štrbske Pleso and Starý Smokovec, in which there are almost 23 km of alpine routes and more than 20 km routes for cross-country skiing,

- the Snow Paradise complex - Veľká Rača Oščadnica - with 14 km of alpine routes and more than 10 km of routes for cross-country skiing.

Before the season 2011/2012, in order to improve the quality of services, many resorts have acquired new equipment, such as the 6-seat chair lift with a capacity of 2600 people per hour opened in Tatranská Lomnica (the cost of construction - about 7.7 million Euro). A similar lift has also been opened in the same season in Jasna (capacity of 2400 persons/h), and both resorts started using a smart parking system that allows visitors on skis convenient and faster access to the lifts. The biggest ski resorts in Slovakia belong to the Tatra Mountain Resorts Company, PLC, which also owns the most exclusive hotels in the region (Madziková, 2011).

These significant investments in the Slovak part of the Tatra Mountains, interfering with the natural environment (for example in Tatranská Lomnica and Štrbske Pleso), were possible as a result of the catastrophic deforestation caused by hurricane winds in November 2004.

All these places made sure to additionally enhance their attractiveness by acquiring special facilities and equipment (such as toboggan tracks and runs, snowtubing, snowrafting, kitewing (windsurfing on ice or snow, obstacle
courses and thermal swimming pools), which adequately prepared can serve tourists also in the summer.

The demand for skiing and the competitiveness of modernised Slovak resorts have resulted in an infrastructure development also on the Polish side of the Carpathians. Facilities for downhill skiing are located in 133 towns of the area (Mika, 2009), but most of them are multi-functional tourist centres, with no particular speciality, which is not conducive to competition with Slovak ski resorts.

The centre with the longest tradition and the most extensive ski facilities in the Polish Carpathians is situated at the foot of the Tatra Mountains in Zakopane (about 42 km of alpine routes). Well developed ski infrastructure within the analysed area can be also found in: Wisła, Korbielów, Krynica, Bukowina Tatrzańska and Białka Tatrzańska.

Sadly, apart from the few positive cases (e.g. Białka Tatrzanska, Bukowina Tatrzańska) most facilities for skiers in Polish resorts still require expansion and modernisation, because they significantly differ from the standards set by Alpine resorts, and even the Slovak ones - located just across the border.

An example of good practice in the development of a modern ski resort in Poland may be the actions taken since the beginning of the 21st century in Białka Tatrzańska. Until recently, it was known only as a holiday village. Thanks to right decisions and successful investments (such as cable cars, a number of ski runs of the total length of 10.5 km, thermal swimming pools, hotel facilities of various standards) it is currently one of the most popular mountain resorts, where the tourist season lasts practically the whole year, and the number of tourists in the winter season often exceeds up to three times the number of residents (Krzesiwo, 2011).

It is worth noting that the largest ski complexes in Białka (Kotelnica, Kaniówka and Bania) have been established on the initiative of inhabitants of the village. For example, the Kotelnica Białczańska ski complex takes the form of a company with 51 persons participating (Krzesiwo, 2011).

As the development of downhill skiing, and especially the construction of the infrastructure necessary for its cultivation, has a particularly high impact on the environment, its pace in Poland is much slower than in Slovakia. The main development barriers also include: the development of Natura 2000 protected areas and the opposition of environmental organisations, the lack of sufficient funds in the budgets of municipalities to invest in skiing and supporting infra-
structure, social conflicts associated with skiing in big resorts or the lack of legal regulations ordering the relationships between land owners and ski facilities managers (Mika, 2009).

The most important trends observed in skiing tourism industry in the Polish-Slovak borderland include:

- development of skiing infrastructure in new localities with no previous skiing traditions;
- modernisation and establishment of new high quality devices for skiers’ up slope transportation;
- popularisation of snowmaking devices on ski slopes (also in order to prolong the winter season);
- some of skiing resorts functioning in competitive conditions to other national and international skiing centres;
- creating new skiing resorts based on initiatives of local communities
- combining skiing resorts offer with spa services (spa & wellness), often with the use of thermal water, which is part of a global trend of development of winter tourism.

Health tourism

Other important factors for tourism development in the Polish and Slovakian Carpathians are favourable bioclimatic conditions and the abundance of mineral and thermal waters. They became the foundation for numerous spas and holiday resorts visited every year by tourists and patients, who seek health improvement, rehabilitation, rejuvenation, or just rest and relaxation.

There are a total of 18 spas in the analysed area (in Poland - 12, in Slovakia - 6, but in Slovakia we can additionally distinguish climatic health resorts, for example in the Tatra Mountains). The highest numbers of health resort patients and visitors can be observed in: Krynica, Ustroń, Iwonicz Zdrój, Rabka and Szczawnica on the Polish side of the border and in Bardejovské Kúpele, Vyšné Ružbachy, Rajecké Teplice and Turčianske Teplice on the Slovak side.

Sanatorium and health resort treatments in the twenty-first century are still co-financed by the national health care in most European countries, but to a much lesser extent than in the 1970s and 1980 (Rogers, 2009).
Today, health resort treatments are not just limited to traditional medicine and spa treatments based on mineral water, thermal water and peloids. The other, parallel and very dynamic model of development is wellness treatment combined with a wide range of relaxation and regeneration services (Rogers, 2009). This trend is also clearly visible in the Polish-Slovak borderland region.

Therefore, the increasing profit for health resorts in both countries is generated by commercial visitors (i.e. spa guests without a medical referral who cover the full cost of stay). This is due to reorientation of health resorts on products and market segments, which bring increased profits, such as foreign markets and domestic tourists opting for fully paid shorter stays (max. 7 days) than the standard health resort stays. Such actions aimed at attracting potential customers with a wider range of treatments (including spa & wellness offer) and attractive prices induce strong competition between health resorts throughout the entire Carpathian region.

Since the mid 1980s in what is now Slovakia, geothermal waters have been exploited, not only for treatments in spas, but also for thermal swimming pools, where tourists can rest and relax. Such objects were initially established in health resorts only (e.g. Vyšné Ružbachy, Turčianske Teplice), but due to the growing tourists’ interest in this form of recreation decisions have been made to build modern thermal bath complexes in new locations.

The investment boom in Slovakia began after 2000. The first aquapark-type facilities using geothermal water were the Tatralandia - opened in July 2003 in Liptovský Mikuláš, the Aquacity in Poprad (2003) and the Thermal Park Bešeňová (modernised and significantly expanded by expenditures of a Georgian investor in 2005).

According to the Slovak National Centre for Tourism in Poland, these three largest complexes of thermal pools in the Polish-Slovak borderland are annually visited by over 800 thousand tourists, among which nearly half are Polish.

The opening of these facilities was a huge tourist hit and economic success not only for the villages, in which they were located, but for the entire region. The effect was not only a reduction of unemployment, but also an increase of entrepreneurship among local residents, who began to build new hotels and guest houses, as well as to modernise their homes in order to offer tourist accommodation.

Responding to the growing demand and the increasing number of tourists from Poland, Czech Republic and Ukraine, the existing complexes began to ex-
pand, old complexes were modernised and new ones were created, such as in Oravice, Rajecké Teplice and Vrbov.

![Figure 3. The Tatralandia Aquapark in Liptovský Mikuláš - the largest recreation complex in Central and Eastern Europe, Phot. Author](image)

Organizational and legal issues such as the difficulty to receive the permit to extract and use the geothermal water, as well as the required large financial input were the main reasons for the delay of such investments in Poland. Despite the launch of the first thermal baths, which have been opened in the Podhale region in the following towns: Szaflary (the Podhale Thermal Baths opened in 2008), in Bukowina Tatrzańska (Terma & Bukovina, 2008), in Zakopane (Aquapark, 2006) and Białka Tatrzańska (Terma & Bania, 2011), the Polish part of the cross-border region still does not match the thermal baths offer in Slovakia.

It should be noted that modern objects created in recent years in both countries have also extensive catering facilities and accommodation facilities (with congress tourism as a supplementary product) and numerous additional attractions (such as fitness centres, amusement parks for children, ropes courses etc.) which causes a high concentration of incoming tourism with highly differentiated motivations and forms of stay.

The clearly visible trend in the Polish and Slovakian Carpathians is to combine skiing with other forms of recreation, primarily with biological regeneration (spa & wellness), which results in the construction of new hotels with a wide range of such services near the ski lifts (Mika, 2009). The best examples
are the complexes in Oravice, Liptovsky Mikuláš, Biaľka Tatranská, Bukowina Tatranská and Krynica, which advertise as "ski & spa resorts".

**Conclusion**

The development of incoming tourism in the Polish-Slovak cross-border region requires the tourism industry to constantly take innovative actions, regarding both the types of services and their standards. Unfortunately, despite the substantial financial investments (including funding from the EU) the tourism potential of the borderland, and particularly in its eastern part, is still not properly used. The major obstacle here is the still deficient infrastructure, including poor accessibility of the border (no expressways between the two countries and between major urban centres). In the case of the most attractive tourist destination in the analysed area, which is the Tatra region, this problem was solved by launching (in the winter season 2011/2012) flight services on the route Warsaw - Poprad and Gdańsk - Poprad, which shortened the travel time of tourists in some cases by a few or even several hours. Other important barriers to the development of tourism especially in the eastern part of the Polish-Slovak borderland include:

- too poor and low standard tourism infrastructure, or its deficiency,
- lack of entertainment and recreation offer in towns aspiring to become tourist destinations,
- not sufficient promotion of local, regional and cross-border tourism models
- scant exposure and promotion of cultural values or thematic tourist routes (Piziak, 2008).

In this part of this borderland, more beneficial actions - apart from expanding the offer and promoting the most popular forms of active tourism - seem to be the embracing of the new trends in the world tourism market and promoting niche tourism and often narrowly specialized forms of tourism, such as: culinary tourism, historic and rural tourism, based on rich cultural values and the shared history of the area. In the near future they may also become branded products tourist of the Carpathian region.

A significant improvement on the other hand can be seen in the creation of new and the upkeep of existing cross-border tourist routes - hiking routes, bicycle trails, equestrian trails and nature trails. Notable examples are themed trails stretching along both sides of the border - such as Intercultural Tourist
Route of the Polish-Slovak borderland, the tourist trail "Following the Good Soldier Švejk" and the Carpathian Temples tourist trail.

An impetus for the development of tourism in undercapitalized areas in the eastern Polish-Slovak borderland in the Carpathians would be undoubtedly provided by a large investment in a complex of thermal pools or a thematic amusement park. In recent years, there was a plan to build such a facility (Ptasie udolie with the area of 450 ha) near the town of Humenne in Slovakia, however, due to the withdrawal of Dutch investor the project was suspended. Such an investment would certainly be of crucial and strategic importance for the activation of the entire region, whose tourism carrying capacity in the eastern part has not yet been exceeded.

No doubt, however, that the basis for development of tourism in this region should be a smart strategy for searching and creating a comprehensive tourism product, which will be accepted by both foreign and domestic tourists. But in order to make tourism one of the pillars of the development of the Polish-Slovak borderland, it is necessary to take extensive and costly actions in this direction based on cooperation, and undertaken and carried out jointly by the Poles and Slovaks, with the participation of local and governmental authorities at all levels.

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Summer Tourism and Climate Change in the Alpine Region: 
Is a Viagra-effect Likely to Happen? 
- An Overview on Research Findings in Austria

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Introduction

Generally speaking, in Austria climate change will lead to an increase of the average temperature. Therefore a decrease of snow cover, reduced size of glaciers and a change of the precipitation rate are to be expected. As figure 1 shows, the change of the overall temperature will already be significant over the next two decades and by 2030 especially the western part of Austria will be seriously affected. The dark color indicates an increase of more than 4 degrees Celsius. Actual scenarios illustrate, that the number of excessively hot days (defined as a day with temperatures above 30°, Kromp-Kolb & Formayer, 2005) will increase, and therefore the bathing season extend to up to four month annually (Fleischhacker & Formayer, 2007).
The tourism branch discusses these findings in a controversial manner. One hand negative impacts must be expected for the winter season (Unbebaun et al., 2007, Landauer & Pröbstl, 2008; Landauer et al., 2011); On the other hand positive effects are likely for the summer season. Tourism experts expect that the positive effect in summer tourism will be able to cover possible losses in winter (Fleischhacker & Formayer, 2007). One important base for this expectation is the development in lake tourism. Most Austrian lakes are embedded in a spectacular alpine panorama and will be more attractive in the future under the conditions of climate change. Reiter (2008), head of a trend oriented consulting office, summarizes the expected effects in summer with the statement that “climate change will be the “Viagra” for the old fashioned summer tourism in Austria”. This positive expectation is based on the increasing number of days with sunshine and high temperatures. This expectations are expert based only and do not reflect the actual opinion of the customer. Beside the significant lake tourism with about 12,2 Mio. overnight stays, Alpine tourism with hiking and mountaineering is also considered important for the overall future development of the summer tourism in Austria. The expectations of experts can be summarized as follows (Chladek, 2005; BMLFUW, 2009; Greil 2011):
• Lake tourism will profit from climate change.
• Therefore the destinations around lakes will gain in attraction.
• The season will be extended. This will lead to positive economic effects for the entire region.
• The new conditions will also enhance the daily visits by the local population.
• Under the conditions of climate change the Mediterranean region will become too hot for many tourists. The temperatures in the alpine area will be in contrast to this development more attractive, at least for families and the elderly generation.
• Also mountaineering and mountain related holiday trips will be more attractive in the future.

So overall trend research and local experts proclaim a bright future for summer tourism in the Alps. Based on the increase in the daily summer temperature and daily hours of sunshine they expect the so-called Viagra effect and an increase of summer tourists. In order to move beyond an expert only approach, since 2007 we have repeatedly investigated the tourist or the potential tourist about their possible future behavior under the conditions of climate change. In this paper we summarize some of the main findings and discuss whether the future for tourism is as bright as the experts predict.

Methodology

This paper summarizes several empirical studies for the alpine region. First of all we analyzed the most important target group. Since this is Germany, we asked a representative sample of the German population about their willingness to visit the Austrian mountains in their coming holidays (online survey with a representative sample N = 1135). Furthermore we simulated in this questionnaire various tourism offers. We also changed the average weather conditions and simulated conditions with and without a possible effect of climate change. This study investigates how attractive the alpine area is for the German tourist and whether the clientele of German tourist could be increased under the conditions of climate change in the future.

In a second step we analyzed the two main offers in detail: the lake and the mountain and hiking tourism. Therefore we asked tourist and second home owners around the Lake Attersee, in order to study the expected increase of lake tourism. The study was done by questionnaire (by paper and e-mail, N = 260) with support of the local communities, involving the second home owners. The Attersee region is suitable because this is a traditional tourism destination
with the first tourists arriving in 1825. The tourism there is very much depending on weather conditions and the community depends on tourism and the economic effects of many second home owners. The number of second homes increased in the community Attersee from 2 persons in 1959 up to 1145 part time inhabitants forty years later. This trend has not stopped yet. An overview of all communities around the lake shows that the number of regular inhabitants is nearly as high as the about of inhabitants in second homes. The second home owners have to pay a fee based on the area of the flat or house per year. There is also a fee for each over night stay by a tourist. Around the Attersee the amount of income for the community generated by the fees for second homes is higher than income based on tourism related fees.

Finally, we started an online survey in cooperation with mountaineering clubs in Germany and Austria to learn more about possible effects of climate change on this type of tourists (N= 300). 80% of the respondents were interested in holidays and weekend trips in the alpine area. In the following we present selected results in order to see whether the expert opinion and the planned behavior by the clients are in line.

**Results**

The analyses of the main target group show that not every German tourist is interested in the Alpine area. The results are very positive for the Austrian tourism business because only about 10% of the German population is not interested in the Alps. This could support the expectation by experts to achieve more tourists in the summer season to compensate possible losses in winter. A further segmentation reveals two groups: tourists who have already experienced a summer holiday in the Austrian mountains and a group without any experience, but interest. The segmentation by experience revealed major differences between the two groups. The experienced alpine tourist can be divided in three main segments: the traditional mountain tourist interested in mountaineering and hiking only, the social and sport oriented client and the relaxation oriented segment.

The inexperienced tourist can be divided in a sport and activity oriented segment, a traditional and nature-oriented segment and again a mainly convenience oriented segment.

With the exception of the relaxing and convenience oriented segments in both groups the majority of the experienced and inexperienced tourists did not react on the increase of days with more sun shine and temperature in a positive
manner. Since the segments interested in mountaineering and hiking was less interested in an increase of days with sunshine and higher temperatures it is likely that there is no positive effect by climate change per se but an effect related to the expected activities and main motives.

The questionnaire asking lake tourists underlined these findings. The lake tourist is very much attracted by the possible increase of temperature and sunshine.

Figure 2 shows the results of the second home owners asked what will happen under the circumstances of climate change. Two thirds of them plan to extend their holidays and about 80% plan to visit the site more often. Further analyses showed that this planned behavior is linked to the changing conditions and the increase of sunshine and warm temperatures. It is also significantly linked to the swimming in the lake. The tourists also said that they will visit the site more often, but that they are not able to extend their holiday. The differences can be explained by differences in the social structure and age. The second home owners have a higher income and many of them are already retired.

![Figure 2. Planned behavior by the second home owner.](image)
Questions about the expenditure of tourist and second home owners show that the positive effects on second home owners will lead to economic benefits. This study therefore underlines the strong relationship to the planned activities and the positive effect on lake tourism.

The third study looked at hiking and mountaineering tourists. They visited the mountains in most cases accompanied by partner, family or friends (87%). The main motives are nature experience, activities in the mountains and beautiful landscape. About 75% visit the mountains more than 10 times a year. Therefore this group is important for the local tourism industry. But climate change will have different impacts in the high mountains because here the rising temperatures will increase the risk of landslides and rock falls. The results show that the majority is not familiar with the changing risk due to climate change. If significant landslides or accidents would happen this group is likely to leave this alpine destination. A further increase of mountain, climbing and hiking tourism by climate change is therefore unlikely. Opposite effects might happen.

Conclusion

The high expectations that summer tourism in the alpine region will be stimulated significantly by climate change are not likely to happen. The main findings based on motivation, the selected location and the main activities show positive as well as negative trends. The experienced alpine tourist is interested in nature related experiences such as hiking and climbing. Therefore the increase of heat days and sunshine will not stimulate more visits. Also the study about mountaineers underlined this trend. Furthermore the reduction of permafrost will increase dangerous situations. The social and sport oriented client and the relaxation oriented segment have clear preferences in favor of sunshine and warmer days. This can also be seen when asking lake tourists about their possible future behavior. Lake tourism is likely to profit from increasing temperatures. A significant part of the associated positive effects will not be caused by incoming tourists but by increased numbers of local visitors and the effect of second home owners.

References


Heritage Tourist’s Perceived Authenticity in Revisiting Heritage Tourism Destination in Malaysia

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Abstract
This paper is endeavors to study on the relationship of perceived authenticity and revisit intention to heritage tourism destination. Four heritage sites in Malaysia obtain recognition from the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) as the world heritage sites since 2000. Kinabalu Park and Gunung Mulu National Park entered in the world heritage sites listing in 2000. Whilst, Georgetown and Malacca which known as the historic cities create a centre of tourist’s attention from all over the world in 2007. However, the issue of authenticity and originality are the main forefront to determine the magnitude of heritage tourism. The objectives of the study are: (1) to further explore the motivations of potential visitors to heritage site; (2) to examine the relationship of perceived authenticity and satisfaction to revisit the heritage site; (3) to analyze the role of perceived authenticity as a measure in shaping tourist’s satisfaction in visiting the heritage site; (4) to explore the significance of perceived authenticity towards revisiting the heritage site. Therefore, it is expected that perceived authenticity will have a great positive influence to the tourist intention to revisit heritage destination in Malaysia.

Key words: heritage tourism, tourism website, perceived authenticity, tourist behavior.

Introduction
The acceleration of tourism industry provides numerous advantages which in turn will benefits the country and residents in term of monetary and recognition. However, as the industry become more globalize, heritage has become a commodity or a product that attract people to come to cherish and learn (Badaruddin, 2005). Globalization of the industry also became the major reason in developing modern infrastructures such as hotels, tourist attractions, recreation areas and other infrastructures. These developments catalyst the heritage tour-
ism market increasingly growing. Badaruddin (2005) revealed that postmodernism has brought up the value of heritage, and tourism has not only glorify it but pressures for tourism development, in some cases, bring the downfall of heritage sites worldwide.

The issue of authenticity is a serious concern in heritage studies. Numerous studies in heritage addressed the issue of experiences in relation with authenticity. Kala (2008) define authenticity as property of native behavior, sites, dress, cuisine, theater, dance, music, artifacts and so on of being unaffected by the presence of the tourists. The authenticity of heritage and historic experiences is a complex issue, but it is of sufficient importance to warrant attention to ensure the primacy of visitor experiences (Prideaux and Timothy 2008). Majority of researchers believed that authenticity can profile tourists’ experience, and able to improve it. MacCannell (1973, 1976) has previously pioneering the concept of authenticity to the sociological studies that is related to tourist motivation and experience in the past two decades, as cited in Wang (1999).

According to few researchers such as Kolar and Zabkar, (2010); Li (2003); Harvey (2004) & Taylor (2001), declared that the issue of authenticity in heritage tourism is indistinguishable and debatable. Thus, it has made authenticity one of the focal issues among the researchers for the past few decades. Authenticity is often staged and commoditized to meet the needs of the tourist (Chhabra 2005). These criteria were uniqueness and originality, workmanship, aesthetics, cultural and historic integrity, craftsperson and materials, shopping experience, and genuineness. (Chhabra,2005).

Tourists’ perception towards the authenticity of a particular heritage sites is one of the underlying factors which determine their decision to travel to a destination. Therefore, it is vital to understand the motivation and behavior as well as strategic and tactical implications concerning tourist destination management (Kolar & Zabkar, 2010). Apostolakis (2003) contended that the concept of authenticity is of pivotal significance in heritage tourism settings due to authenticity is the main attribute that brings the two component part (tourist and attraction) together.

This framework has one (1) independent variable, which is perceived and the attributes for perceived authenticity are heritage site attributes, offerings and experience. The moderating variable is motivation which moderates the three (3) attributes of independent variable relationship towards satisfaction.
Literature Review

Tourists’ perception towards the authenticity of a particular heritage sites is one of the underlying factors which determine their decision to travel to a destination. Therefore, it is vital to understand the motivation and behavior as well as strategic and tactical implications concerning tourist destination management (Kolar & Zabkar, 2010). Apostolakis (2003) contended that the concept of authenticity is of pivotal significance in heritage tourism settings due to authenticity is the main attribute that brings the two component part (tourist and attraction) together.

Wang (1999) identified that in tourism industry, the issue of authenticity is the main focal point that need to be focus on. Wang identified in Table 1 that the issue of authenticity can be differentiated into two separate issues mainly tourist experiences (authentic experiences) and toured objects. Other than that, the complex nature of authenticity in tourism is exhibited in the fact that it can be further classified into objective, constructive and existential authenticity (Wang, 1999; Harvey, 2004).

Table 1. Three types of authenticity in tourist experiences

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<tr>
<th>Object-Related Authenticity in Tourism</th>
<th>Activity-Related Authenticity in Tourism</th>
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<tr>
<td>Objective authenticity refers to the authenticity of originals. Correspondingly, authentic experiences in tourism are equated to an epistemology experience (i.e., cognition) of the authenticity of originals.</td>
<td>Existential authenticity refers to a potential existential state of being that is to be activated by tourist activities. Correspondingly, authentic experiences in tourism are to achieve this activated existential of being within the luminal process of tourism. Existential authenticity can have nothing to do with the authenticity of toured objects.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Constructive authenticity refers to the authenticity projected onto toured objects by tourists or tourism producers in terms of their imagery, expectations, preferences, beliefs, powers, etc. There are various versions of authenticities experiences in tourism and the authenticity of toured objects is constitutive of one another. In this sense, the authenticity of toured objects in facts symbolic authenticity.</td>
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In the intervening time, Timothy and Boyd (2003) have created a five part typology of distorted pasts, which are indicative of the types of in authenticity that exist most typically within the realm of heritage, as cited in Prideaux and Timothy (2008).
1. Invented places: wherein replicas of historic places, non original renditions of the past, and imaginary or contrived places, people and events are created.

2. Relative authenticity: Authenticity is a relative concept, influenced and defined by individual experience, social and cultural influences, politics and official histories.

3. Ethnic intruders: situation where actors in a so called authentic reproduction or ethnic display do not belong to the ethnic or cultural group they are representing.

4. Sanitized and idealized places and events: Historical accuracy is not in agreement with aesthetic and sensory harmony for people can only see representations of the past through museums and living heritage with eyes of the present (Barthel, 1990 as cited in Prideaux & Timothy, 2008).

5. Unknown past: it is impossible to achieve true authenticity because people in the current era find it difficult to understand how people lived in the past.

Abundances of research in heritage study focus on the heritage site management, tourist experiences, tourist behavior, marketing, commoditization and authenticity. Earlier on, Kolar & Zabkar (2010) examined the relevance & conceptualization of the authenticity concept in cultural tourism from the managerial standpoint. They concentrated on the concept of perceived authenticity & its antecedents & consequences in cultural motivation & customer loyalty. On the other hand, Cole, 2007; Wiles & Stoep, 2007 and Jokilehto (2006) have been reviewed authenticity from the perspective of stakeholders. Cole (2007) found that commercialization of local identities often leads to negative consequences toward heritage tourism; therefore, the researcher examines the authenticity from the perspective stakeholders, such as of government, tourist and villagers. Whereas, Wiles and Stoep (2007) investigates stakeholder assurance on the historical authenticity toward the heritage tourism products, services and experiences created for visitors. Whilst, Jokilehto (2006) explores how stakeholder beliefs regarding historical authenticity influence the heritage tourism products, services, & experiences created for visitors.


Kolar and Zabkar (2009) stated that the notions and aspects of authenticity should not be avoided but exposed and studied even more thoroughly in order to understand them. As part of the social sciences, authenticity has been discussed and analyzed as a motivational factor in tourism for more than two decades (Paschinger, 2007). Kolar and Zabkar (2009) further explain that the construct is highly relevant for understanding tourist behavior and important for tourism management, attracts an immense amount of academics’ attention, stimulates a lot of endeavors in practice and transcend various disciplines.

As stated in Paschinger (2007), the need to ensure inherent features such as authenticity and quality is crucial in order to retain the successful of heritage tourism. Apostolakis (2003) professed that authenticity is the major element that contribute to the development of heritage tourism in particular and generally to tourism industry. On the contrary, authenticity always associated with tourists’ behavior, according to Chhabra et al. (2003), perceived authenticity can be used to measure a product quality and also as a determinant of tourist satisfaction.

Motivation

Heritage tourism in Malaysia is one of the emerging segments that increasingly gaining tourist attention from all over the world, however the motivation of the tourist to experience the heritage characters is unknown and unexplored to the required level. The current issue in many tourism literatures is the concept of motivation and satisfaction which is the most important constructs resulted from the tourist behavior (Arnold, et al. 2006; Chen & Chen, 2011; Clarke, 2008; Devesa, Laguna, & Palacios, 2010; Gnoth, 1997; Nicolau & M{à}s, 2006; Swanson & Horridge, 2006). Earlier on, Crompton (1979) was one of the pioneers for motivation in tourism study and also affirmed that motivation is one of the most important variables that contribute to behavior.

In the study of behavior, there are many theories being developed in order to fathom in depth about wide range of human behavior. Most compelling foundation in behavior intention studies were pioneered by Theory of Rea-soned Action (Fishbein & Azjen, 1975) and Theory of Planned Behavior (Azjen, 1985). These two theories are the main theories utilized by researchers in prognosticating human being behavior in numerous fields.
In Theory of Planned Behavior, Azjen (1985) declared the intention to perform behavior of different kinds can be predicted with high accuracy from attitudes toward the behavior subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control; and intentions, together with perceptions of behavioral control, account for considerable variance in actual behavior. Whereas, Theory of Reasoned Action developed by Fishbein et al. (1975, 1980) describes the relation concerning the beliefs, attitudes, norms, intentions and behaviors of a person.

According to Azjen (1985), the intention to perform behavior of different kinds can be predicted with high accuracy from attitudes toward the behavior subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control; and intentions, together with perceptions of behavioral control, account for considerable variance in actual behavior. Reigner (2008) asserted that theory of planned behavior provides a framework for understanding the behavior and its cognitive precursors, and evaluating the efficacy of persuasive messages for indirectly managing behavior.

Within every literature of motivation declared that motivation commonly associated with “intrinsic” and “extrinsic” motivation. Intrinsic motivation is also being recognized as “push” while extrinsic is identified as “pull” factors (Chen & Chen, 2011; Devesa, et al., 2010). According to Crompton (1979) push factors are socio-psychological motives, which originally motivated from one’s interest and desire to do a particular task rather than be affected from external environment. Anomie and ego enhancement are said belong to push factors (Chen & Chen, 2011). They further explain that anomie means that people’s desire to escape from daily life can be fulfilled by traveling, while ego-enhancement means people need to be recognized by others.

On the contrary, extrinsic or pull motivation is basically known as a pressure derive from external factors of the person. Crompton (1979) confirmed that pull factors are motives aroused by the destinations rather than emerging exclusively from within the tourist himself. In addition, Nicolau & Más, (2006) discovered that destination features are the main moderating role in nearly all of tourist’s motivation study. They examine that physical, cultural and interpersonal motivation. Given these points, to build the tourist intention to revisit, the practitioner must understand the role of motivations which is able to enhance their behavior. Therefore, it is vital to consider both motivation and satisfaction constructs at the same time in order to access the tourist intention to revisit heritage destination.
Satisfaction

The study of tourist satisfaction and motivation towards the destination has long been studied by several researchers and now it is considered as one of the superseded issues. Notwithstanding, it is one of the vital issues that need to be explore in the fullness of time due to it able to enhance the tourist eagerness to revisit apart from achieving the destination’s goals in providing tremendous experience to the tourist. As a matter of fact, the changing of the tourist profile has influence the tourist behavior in travel related decision making. Under that circumstance, this issue has once more turn out to be the major concentration of several researchers in the field of tourism that have found numerous antecedents that strongly associated to revisit intention (Assaker, Vinzi, & O’Connor, 2011; George & George, 2004; Hong, Lee, Lee, & Jang, 2009; Jang & Feng, 2007; Katircioglu, 2009; Kozak, 2001; Um, et al., 2006).

Revisit Intention

In a similar context, revisit intention is decisive in assuring the prosperity of a particular tourism destination apart from recommend (C.-F. Chen & Tsai, 2007). According to Chen & Tsai (2007), perceived trip quality, perceived value and overall satisfaction will further enhance the tourists’ intention to revisit and recommend to others. Conversely, according to Um et al., (2006) the antecedents for satisfaction constructs are attractiveness, quality, customer value and images helps them to constantly study on the revisit intention to a destination. They found that the most prominent antecedent of revisit intention and the strongest indicator of satisfaction are perceived attractiveness. Revisit intention together with word of mouth publicity, price sensitivity, spending behavior and spending risk are the main variables that contribute to a market development (Petrick, 2004). On the other hand, in other literature, revisit intention is caused by the tourists’ novelty-seeking and destination satisfaction (Jang & Feng, 2007).

In line with the earlier statement, revisit intention in this study is mediate by tourist satisfaction during the visit. Conventionally, satisfaction derive when quality of service obtain by the customer is surpass the customer expectation. According to Um et al, (2006), revisit intention has been regarded as an extension of satisfaction rather than an initiator of revisit decision making process. Kozak (2001) asserted that satisfaction in tourism study is considered as a central concept in the study of tourist behavior. Indeed, although the number of previous visits and the level of overall satisfaction are considerable influ-
ences to revisit intention, the maturity of destinations is also an important stimulus (Um, et al., 2006).

Therefore, it is vital to consider both motivation and satisfaction constructs at the same time in order to obtain more information about loyalty. The authors also concluded that, to build the customer loyalty, destination manager must knows about the role of push motivation affect their destination loyalty. Furthermore, if tourists were satisfied with their travel experiences, they are willing to revisit and suggest to others. Moreover, satisfaction is found to directly affect the destination loyalty.

**Methodology**

There will be two stages that may be used in this study. The first stage is to choose suitable geographical area which is city or state. Malaysia possesses many heritage destinations that can be regarded as well-known due to their unique characters that able to magnetize tourist attention such as in Perak, Kedah, Penang, Malacca, Sabah and Sarawak. The first clusters stage for this study is heritage destinations that received flock of heritage tourists in Malaysia. Therefore, the researchers decided to choose Malacca and Penang as preferred destinations to distribute the questionnaires. As stated earlier in this research, Malacca and Penang are the only two heritage destinations in Peninsular Malaysia that obtain UNESCO endorsement as world heritage destination.

For the second stage, there are several heritage sites that will be choose from the both heritage destinations. For Malacca, the sites are Porta de Santiago (A Famosa, Jonker Street, Proclamation of Independence Memorial (Malacca Club), Stadthuys, Kampung Kling Mosque, Fortaleza de Malacca (Malacca Fort), Dutch Square, and Cheng Hoon Teng Temple, which are believed act as the main major significance attraction in Malacca. As for Penang the preferred locations are Pre-war houses, Clock Tower, Kapitan Keling Mosque, Fort Cornwallis Lighthouse, Chinatown and Esplanade.

The reason of choosing the Malacca and Penang as the preferred heritage destination for the study is due to the reputation of the state as the World Heritage City and the destination also possess high tourist arrivals and diversity of tourists every year. Malacca owns profusion of heritage buildings, houses and sites, a mixture of cultural, and rich of historical diversity. Chhabra et al. (2003) affirmed that the built environments (such as historical homes, castles, and industrial sites) are perhaps the most obvious manifestations of heritage and the most popular destinations under heritage tourism.
UNESCO (2008) declared that:

*The cities and ports of Melaka and George Town are the products of 500 years of trading and cultural contacts between East and West. Immigration and influences from many parts of Asia and Europe have created a specific multicultural identity, manifested in both tangible and intangible heritage, such as areas for different ethnic groups and functions, religious pluralism, and streets lined with typical shop houses and religious buildings. Melaka demonstrates the early stages of this history, originating in the 15th century Malay sultanate and the Portuguese and Dutch periods beginning in 1511; while George Town represents the British era from the end of the 18th century.*

The population element of this study is international and domestic tourists that travel to and within Malaysia. The sampling units will be the tourist that readily available in the mentioned heritage sites. However, it is hard to access the domestic tourist as they maybe the local people that spend their leisure time during the weekend. Therefore, before the researcher decides to distribute the questionnaire to the particular tourist, he or she will be asked a few questions which entitle them to answer the questionnaire. They will be orally asked the state of origin and purposes of visiting Malacca or Penang. The procedure is compulsory to every domestic people in order to differentiate the tourist and to obtain valid result.

A great evaluation of the preceding study and research in related area was done in order to have better understanding on the study and to decide what instruments needed for the questionnaire. Several variables from previous study were used to develop the appropriate questionnaires in order to access the tourist’s perception of authenticity. The elements of perceived authenticity and other related elements that affect the tourist’s satisfaction in heritage tourism will be used in constructing the questionnaire.

The questionnaire generally includes closed-ended questions. Additionally, there are several questions for the respondents to add up qualitative information in the comments area in the questionnaire. Basically, the questionnaire contained 7 sections, namely general information, perceived authenticity, perceived risk, experiential value perception, satisfaction, motivation and revisit intention.

**Results**

In regard to the three proposed variables, it is estimated that the first variable which is heritage site attributes is the most predictors that influence tourist to
revisit the heritage destination. In the intervening time, the offerings available and experience gain during the visit to the proposed heritage destination in the heritage destinations are expected to motivate the tourist to the revisit intention. Therefore, it is expected that tourists’ perceived authenticity will have a great positive influence to the tourist intention to revisit heritage destinations in Malaysia.

Conclusion

Fathoming tourist’s behavior intention in tourism industry particularly in heritage sector can be considered as a multifaceted task. The study of tourist’s behavior is somehow important to the escalation of heritage tourism as in Malaysia this issue is being abandoned by many researchers. Therefore, it is expected that the outcome of the study will assist practitioner such as the tourism related bodies, heritage site management, tourism marketers, and tourism related business such as travel agency in fathoming the heritage tourist perception of authenticity in revisiting heritage site particularly within the context of Malaysia.

References


Adventure Tourism: The Thrill of Risk, or the Search for Tranquility

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Abstract

There seems to be a growing trend of “Adventure Tourism” that involves outdoors risky activities. Are we witnessing a phenomenon that requires changing our basic concepts of safety seeker consumer/tourist? Or is it possible that adventure tourism is not perceived as a risky form of tourism by its participants? In order to partially investigate this research question, Scuba diving has been selected as the focus of the current study. The purpose of this study is to investigate the motives and risk experiences of Scuba divers with the intent to reveal the nature of the experience sought. In general, there are two conflicting hypotheses to be tested: a. Scuba diving as a form of arousal and risk seeking; and b. Scuba diving as a means to achieve a sense of happiness, tranquility and ultimate relaxation. In order to decipher this dilemma, the current exploratory study utilizes in-depth interviews with Scuba divers.

Key words: scuba diving, adventure tourism, risk perceptions, tourist behavior.

Introduction

According to the theory of perceived risk consumers perceive risk when purchasing products, be they goods or services, and usually devise means to alleviate these fears and uncertainties. Researchers in consumer behavior often note that consumer perceived risk consists of several types of risks, for example, physical, financial, performance, social, psychological, time –and oppor-
tunity loss (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2007). As soon as the consumer has experienced a certain level of risk, his/her behavior changes, from delaying the purchase to using strategies designed to reduce risk to a “tolerable” level. It should be noted that perceived risk influences the consumer even if, in fact, a risk does not actually exist. In contrast, an unperceived risk will not affect consumer’s behavior, even if it is real and tangible (Fuchs & Reichel, 2010).

Tourism is often characterized with the service-specific characteristics of intangibility, inseparability, variability and perishability (Grönroos, 1990, 2007; Zeithmal, Bitner, & Gremler, 2006; Lovelock & Wirtz, 2007). Moreover, the tourism “product” is prone to specific risk factors such as bad weather; unfriendly locals; airport personnel strikes; terror; crime; political unrest; disease and natural disasters; as well as deceits and inconsiderate treatment that might raise the risk perception of a particular tourist destination.

Karamustafa, Fuchs and Reichel (2012) reviewed numerous studies on tourism risk and in particular mentioned Roehl and Fesenmair’s (1992) study that presented three basic dimensions of perceived risk: physical-equipment risk, vacation risk and destination risk. The literature indicates that tourist risk perception is correlated with various tourists’ contexts as well as sub segments of tourists in terms of different cultures and nationalities (Dolnicar, 2005; Fuchs & Reichel, 2004; Reisinger & Mavondo, 2005, 2006). Contexts could include specific issues such as Eitzinger & Wiedemann’s (2007) study on the ski tourism industry; Yüksel and Yüksel’s (2007) study on international tourists while shopping on vacation; and commercial air travel (Boksberger, Bieger, & Laesser, 2007). The current study examines risk perceptions in the context of Scuba divers, as a sub-set of adventure tourism. The following section focuses on adventure tourism and its presumed link to sensation seeking and risk perception.

**Adventure Tourism**

Adventure, as defined by Swarbrooke et al. (2003), is when a person voluntarily takes a path that leads to the unknown, where he or she will face challenges and may find out or acquire something valuable in that experience. Such a condition is based on each individual’s perception of the situation and of him or herself, which makes every adventure subjective and unique. Swarbrooke et al. (2003) definition of adventure as interpreted by Carnicelli-Filho, Schwartz and Tahara (2010) assumes a voluntary characteristic, but they do not explain how that definition might alter if a person is involuntarily involved in such activities. The authors conclude that adventure is synonymous with risk, fear, and action, and thus cannot be considered a passive experience. “Such action
may be physical, intellectual, emotional, or spiritual in nature and involves being, doing, touching, seeing, and feeling” (Carnicelli-Filho et al., 2010, p. 954). A somewhat similar definition of adventure tourism refers to tourists whose main motivation is to be involved in physical acts or sports that constitute an adventure experience that often involves a sense of risk and exhilaration. In a culture in which taking “unnecessary” risks is often seen as foolish, senseless, and even reckless (Lupton, 1999), there seems to be something of a trend toward increasing acceptance of risk in recreational activities. (Laurendeau, 2006). Indeed, there is considerable evidence that risk, rather than something to be avoided, is constitutive of many sporting experiences (Albert, 1999; Donnelly, 2004; Young, 1993).

According to Valery (2006) the term ‘adventure’ is an evocative word for many people and attracts tourists to the world’s wild places, yet its meaning is a subjective and fluid one in modern society. The author also argues that adventure is often viewed as “a diluted commodity form as a sports tourism product” and would include activities such as rock-climbing, kayaking, bungee jumping, fairground rides, snow sports and trekking (p. 174). Some would accept the idea that an ‘adventure experience’ can be ordered, paid for and delivered by a professional service provider as an ‘adventure tourism’ product at mass markets. This commercialization process can be viewed as an antithesis to “adventure”. However, this does not stop marketers and entrepreneurs claiming to offer adventure experiences in reliable, controlled packages aimed at mass markets (see also Mortlock, 1984).

From the aforementioned theories and concepts it is clear that there must be a “drive” or an “instinct for adventure”, the urge to experience adventure (Mortlock, 1984) and the need for the generated “rush”. This urge or drive is akin to the image of an individual poised on a knife edge between success and failure, and, indeed, as many sociologists have described voluntary risk-takers as “edgeworkers” (Allman, et al., 2009). As noted earlier, fear and risk are presumably essential components of adventure tourism. In conclusion, the current literature on the one hand emphasizes risk taking and fear as major motives for adventure tourism, while, on the other hand, consumer behavior theory and risk perception studies depicts tourist as risk averse, resorting to various forms of risk reduction and alleviation.

**Focusing on Scuba- Diving**

SCUBA, or as widely known as “Scuba”, meaning Self Contained Underwater Breathing Apparatus, was designed and popularized by Jacques Cousteau and Emile Gagnan in 1943. At the same time, the activity provides elements of risk and uncertainty that hold the potential for experiences which are unique and exciting (Cater & Cater, 2007; O’Sullivan, 2008). Indeed, according to Dimmock (2009), most studies on SCUBA diving focused on its risky aspects and perceptions. Yet, there is a point to examine the possibility that it involves also a high component of comfort. Comfort reflects one’s ability to function easily within an environment where engagement is free from stress and difficulty. Comfort is akin to achieving a state of equilibrium, where one can be pleasantly relaxed.

**Study Question**

As noted earlier, most research into SCUBA diving experiences delineated the paramount role of risk (Miller & Taubman-Ben-Ari, 2004; Roos, 1979; Wilks, 1991), as well as of satisfaction (Musa, Kadir, and Lee, 2006) or motivation. Interestingly, Todd, Graefe, and Mann (2002) revealed that as diving skill increased, participants were less motivated by risks. Tschapka (2006) found that divers do not enjoy the physical risks or problems that can occur with SCUBA diving. These findings may lend support for a view that participants seek a comfortable, tranquil state during a SCUBA dive (Dimmock, 2009), besides, instead, or in addition to the expected thrill and sensation associated with risk. To phrase it in a similar, yet alternative dilemma, adventure tourism is clearly associated with risk and hazard.

The question is, however, how does one resolve the major tenet of consumer behavior as basically risk-avoider? Are we dealing with a group of “outliers”, adventure tourists who do not fit the basic assumption about human behavior, or is the assumption about the nature of adventure tourism and the motivation behind as presented above by Beedie and Hudson (2003). Another explanation is presented by Ewert and Hollenhorst (1989), who found that although adventure tourists seek out increasingly difficult and challenging opportunities, they paradoxically do not necessarily search for higher levels of risk. The authors speculate that this may be because adventure tourists appear to have an implicit belief that they are in control of the experience and that they are not exposing themselves to risk and danger because they can control the situation. Again, one cannot totally ignore the risks and hazards associated with activities in rugged environments. As noted earlier, Allman et al. (2009) and Brymer and Oades (2009) maintain that risk is a means of becoming positively transformed, which is apparently essential to adventure seekers their
quality of life. In other words, extreme sport participants purposefully take risks and are transformed by the common realization of humility and true courage.

To summarize our research question, it seems that there are three main alternatives, not necessarily mutually exclusive, to the attractiveness and motivations associated with SCUBA diving:

A. A branch of adventure tourism where the main motivation is the need to overcome risk and hence induce thrill and sensation.
B. Scuba diving as a branch of adventure tourism that might involve objective risk, yet risk is mitigated by the feeling of control over the situation.
C. Scuba diving is predominately a relaxation, tranquility, comfort-seeking touristic leisure activity.

In order to try to entangle this puzzle, the current study attempts to focus on Scuba divers and examine in an in-depth qualitative means the nature of their experience. Scuba diving has long been named among adventure tourism activities, abundant with risk and excitement. At the same time, some authors question the real risky aspects of Scuba diving, emphasizing its leisure tranquil nature. As noted above the three possible interpretations are to other adventure tourism activities. By deciphering the nature of Scuba diving, we believe we will be able to shed light on the nature of other adventure activities as well.

**Methodology**

In order to gain in-depth knowledge about Scuba diving experience, it was decided to conduct open ended interviews with experiences Scuba divers. Seventeen Scuba divers were interviewed by tow to the authors mainly in the resort city of Eilat, on the Red-Sea and in the center of Israel. While clearly not a representative sample, the different regions allowed to cover various types of occupations and life-styles. Each interview took between an hour and an hour and a half. The questions focused on the “general experience of scuba diving”, the motivation, the risk feelings, risk control, risk reduction means, and additional comments given by the interviewees.

Three researchers participating in the data analysis ensured a measure of triangulation in the data analysis not only from contents analysis perspective, but also from academic background: one each from marketing, sociology and tourism studies. Fortunately, the main themes echoed by the interviews were
extremely easy to detect. An overview of the triangulation has been supervised by a colleague, who was not part of this project.

The interpretive qualitative methodology seemed appropriate to achieve the study’s research questions. Indeed, numerous studies on tourists indicate the relative acceptance of qualitative research as necessary (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005; Hollinshead, 2006; Stewart, 1998). The use of a qualitative research paradigm supports different assumptions, including that multiple meanings can account for human actions and that the language used to describe and interpret social behavior is often value laden (Lincoln & Guba, 2003; Schwandt, 2003). Using qualitative research methods provides researchers with rich data that allows meanings to be uncovered and contributes to a broader understanding of phenomena (Jennings, 2001). Securing participants for this study involved an active search among groups of Scuba divers in clubs in Eilat and the snowballing effects of word-of-mouth.

Results

The results section presents the major themes that emerged through the triangulation and contents analyses: In search for tranquility?; motives; perceived risks; means for risk reduction; and the significant role of the “Buddy”.

In Search for Tranquility

As one of the possible explanations for the motives for Scuba diving, the issue of tranquility, calmness and tranquility search is significantly manifested: “…I love the feeling of detachment at sea. This is the place where I can really relax…As soon as I sense the water, I start feeling free. Nothing bothers me… it’s a full dis-involvement with pressing reality that is left on the surface. It is a wonderful sensation of floating, to be suspended in the middle of nowhere, a sense of freedom; it is like getting back to the womb. It is amazing and I am always sad at the end of a dive” (Daniel, an IT engineer). Anat appreciates “…the serenity and the magnificent corals and fish” .Yehuda, an IT engineer describes: “…it feels like walking on the moon; a different world full of experiences; full of life you cannot see elsewhere…Diving is similar to Yoga; it clears your mind…. Once, dealing with a herd of sharks, I had to exert self-control that ended up as the best meditation I have ever had…” Similarly, Keren, a graduate student in Marine Biology emphasizes “It is quiet, and I get the feeling of being floating…a sensation of weightless… also enjoy the low temperature sensation associated with diving…a feeling of disengagement…freedom and relaxation…no phones….a feeling of lack of gravitation forces…”.
sue of serenity is also raised by Esther: “no noises; no telephones...I am totally disconnected from daily routines and instead transfer to the enchanted kingdom of the fish and corals. This is my hideaway, my hamlet of serenity, surrounded by beautiful fish and a sight...SCUBA diving is a happiness generating activity... with the help of the overwhelming wave of Adrenaline, the whole experience is powerful and addictive”. Esther also reported an experience of diving along a whale shark as “a most powerful and exciting experience. Every time I recall this experience I relive it excitedly”.

Apart from being associated at times with Adrenalin, the way to inward tranquility may require a toll: “…I hate the heavy and uncomfortable equipment... It’s no fun carrying this heavy stuff from the car to the sea, it’s a nightmare. The best way is to jump out of a boat…” (Anat).

**Motives**

The following are major quotes that reflect on the motives for scuba diving:

“…has been a dream of my childhood... Watched Jacques Cousteau shows on T.V... My brother loved diving, so I became so envious that that I took a two week break from work and underwent diving training as well…” (Daniel). Similarly, Anat started diving following her sister’s positive word-of-mouth: “…her diving tales and positive experiences…”

It is interesting that also for Yehuda it is more of a journey into the self rather than just fun, adventure or Adrenalin generating sport. “Indeed, it is challenging, but the real challenge is to learn how to behave rationally and calmly in a strange, foreign environment; this challenging experience includes elements of self-restraining fear; after conquering the initial fear, the experience becomes extremely pleasurable.” Being a guide, Yehuda confesses that “some people are motivated by the love of nature, coupled with a great affinity toward “gadgets”, technical elements, undersea photography and, of course, sports”

For some people, the motive for starting Scuba diving is interpersonal. Esther recounts meeting a new boyfriend who enjoyed SCUBA diving. “We started taking advantage on any opportunity we had: Eilat, the Sinai, Thailand and the Maldives islands. I had also a desire to bump into a whale and dive along, and indeed I accomplished it”. Another personal self-conscious motive was suggested by Esther: “…diving is considered a masculine hobby. It causes both women and men to look at us admiringly”
Indeed, as noted in the case of Esther, the main motive for SCUBA diving might be a combination of environmental and inter-personal interests operating simultaneously. This is also evident in the case of Roy, who stated that he started diving because he was attracted to experience a different world. “...You only with yourself....within the undersea view and nature... after having met my wife (Anat), it turned into an enjoyable joint experience...We enjoy the process, all the preparations...travelling to Eilat, the planning process and shopping for equipment.”

**Perceived Risks**

It is interesting to note that even a most carefree diver (like Daniel) still recognizes possible risks due to situations beyond divers control “...accidents can take place as a result of an uncontrollable situation, such as sharks, being bruised while diving, partner loss of control...and an accumulation of Nitrogen in the body”. Also, there is a risk that the air supply might be depleted”. Roy, a 28 year old civil engineer: “...I do not like the feeling of risk, but if something wrong happens—this is very scary. Diving is not a natural activity for human beings; we were not designed to be under the water. There is a potential risk of breathing problems....when you feel unbalanced, or when there is some water inside the mask—the heart starts beating quickly... There were times that I felt bad, under pressure, and without control. Another participant, Yehuda, describes most divers as afraid of the risks that involve broken equipment. Also, “...the first experience of most divers contains a sense of unfamiliarity and a certain level of distrust with the breathing equipment. The first experience also involves unknown issues such as fear of the marine environment and physical issues such as ear pressure and penetration of water into the mouth”. It is interesting to note that some of the risks take shape in the form of family and friends’ worries: “…They are afraid that I will not return alive from Scuba diving expeditions due to media coverage of diving accidents” (Yehuda). Keren raises a long list of risks, probably based on her background as a marine biologist. First of all, the risk of drowning: “…You are entering an environment which is basically hostile to us...we cannot hold our breath for very long time... If you take off your diving equipment at the depth of 90 feet under and try to dive---you will surely die”. She also mentions the risk of vertigo:”...sometimes the bottom is so low and far that you cannot see it. This may cause a situation of dis-orientation and fear...divers sometimes not really know exactly where they are....remember that there are no signs that tell you to make a left or right...”.Also, Keren referred to problems associated with deep diving
such as the aforementioned Nitrogen accumulation, referring to it as “Rupture of the Deep”. “If one descends too quickly from the deep, the lungs might be torn...or a decompression sickness. “Esther attests to the possible risks of undercurrents’ that related to a particular destination. “For example, in the Maldives Islands diving is hard due to strong undercurrents. There are spots where you have to hang on tightly to the reef in order not to be swept away with the currents. Then you watch schools of fish quickly surrounding you, one after the other, in incredible speed. In such situations you have to swim with the flaw, otherwise you have no chance to survive...”

However, there is a general feeling of safety as indicated, for example, by Daniel’s decision to let his two sons SCUBA dive from the age of eight under the supervision of a guide, within a secured dolphin reef. Similarly, Esther reports: “...my three children all dive. The older two ones have a one star diving license, while the youngest is taking introduction classes”. Anat reports: “...There are no risks a afraid of, except perhaps losing my partner...”

Means for Risk Reduction

“I do not dive more than twice a day, in order to avoid Nitrogen accumulation in my body... . Diving involves many risks, some of them are avoidable. For example, use only well-maintained equipment; do not consume alcohol before diving; rest well; drink much water; follow up safety instructions and plan accordingly: make sure you know how deep you are supposed to dive and how much air you need for each dive” (Daniel). The issue for the need for control is aired also by Yehuda who asserts that “indeed, diving clears your head, but you have to be in control”. Roy mentions that at times of crisis or anxiety, “...I stop panicking and try to convince myself psychologically that I do have enough air and that my “Buddy” is watching me...I also learned how to be less concerned with my anxieties about risks, more self-confident and focus on the diving experience”

The Significant Role of the “Buddy”

The interviews clearly demonstrated the paramount role of the “buddy” in the diving experience. Apart from being an explicit means for risk reduction strategy, it involves issues of friendship and trust. The “buddy” is both a source of trust and risk alleviation. Yehuda (IT engineer) describes SCUBA diving as “social interaction, as you are required to dive with a partner; If I arrive without a partner, I will choose one amongst the group of divers”. Esther reveals that during her first experiences of diving, “my partner kept holding my arm. I was
very afraid, but later on I got used to it and learned how to concentrate on the experience per se’. For Anat, the “buddy” is instrumental in the sense that her “…only responsibility during the dive is photography”.

Yet, the required “Buddy” may cause some concerns. “…Accidents may happen...if my buddy loses control and I have to fight with him in order to gain control over him...I always dive with a buddy. If I am out of air, he will give me some from his container and he can help me floating...Therefore, I do not choose anyone to be my ‘buddy’....” (Daniel).

It is interesting to note that some dive with a steady ‘buddy, while others choose a “buddy” according to the occasion. Yet, the choice is a crucial process that is based on the diver’s own intuition. For example, Daniel confesses:

“My partner is not a steady one. We all meet at the club and join the group of divers. The group leader usually determines the couples, yet there are some people I surely know that I would never dive with them as “buddy”. For example, if I see someone drops carelessly the equipment by the car, it is an indication that he does not treat his equipment with the required care. Consequently, I cannot trust such a person as a partner”.

Anat (an IT engineer and Roy’s wife) “Since I do not have a sense of direction, I often get lost...so I dive with my partner. He is a responsible adult; he knows how to navigate... I keep losing my orientation in the water, and while diving the Red Sea I can easily find myself in another territorial waters (Jordan).”. The role of the “buddy” as a means for risk reduction is accentuated by Keren, who asserts that “…in new diving sites qualified buddies is a must, especially in order to be aware of undercurrents and risks”. This risk reduction role of the “Buddy” is elaborated in the discussion about means for risk reduction.

Conclusion
Valery (2006) noted that adventure is a subjective experience, and may vary from person to person in its intensity of emotions, colors, textures, smells, tastes and sounds: The problem is that in a risk society immersed in a culture of fear and insecurity regarding the hidden danger lurking in our everyday lives, people tend to turn to the licensed, risk-free marketplace products rather than attempting to go it alone. In the great outdoors or anywhere else, a yearning for expert assistance and ‘professional’ guidance often extinguishes the possibility for personal experiment…” (Valery, 2006, p. 185-186).
In essence, the above indicates one of the dilemmas of this study: how the scuba diving experience is described and felt by different people, and is it possible to reach a tranquil, peaceful state of mind, given the risks and the need to depend on other people? It seems that the search for pleasure derived from serenity is more powerful than the search for the type of risk that involves the thrill of “rush”.

Hence, one wonders if at least in the case of Scuba diving risk is a major component. In other words, if Scuba diving is indeed a type of adventure tourism, the adventure itself is carefully masked under a strong wish for serenity, tranquility, relaxation and the utilization of protective procedures. At least in this sample, no “risk-hunger” drive has been proclaimed by either one of the participants. On the contrary, one can speculate that there seems to be a “secret” bonding between Scuba divers:”If one follows safety procedure and the “buddy system”---nothing bad or risky will happen. However, we should present ourselves are a select group of adventure tourists, our impressive equipment attests to special image”. In sum, this study questions the meaning of risk as applies to adventure tourism and raises the possibility that risk is being commodified in order to market safe “adventure” to masses of tourists.

References


Gender in Golf: Heterogeneity in the Participation of Women

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Abstract

The low participation of women in golf derives from the male-dominated tradition of the game. Embedded in the intrapersonal, interpersonal and structural paradigm, this study aims to find which factors facilitate and inhibit women’s participation. A survey applied to 39 Portuguese female golfers comprised qualitative and quantitative questions. The stratified sample accommodated the profiles that portray different perceptions: age group; marital status; with/without children. Descriptive and non-parametric tests were used to assess differences within the profiles. The findings reveal that the main differences mirror the way women perceive golf: either “a healthy physical activity” or “a competitive sport”. All women’s answers reflect their acceptance and accommodation of the cultural gender norms. On a structural level, results evidence homogeneity indicating that women tend to tacitly accept golf as a men’s sport, where they are only tolerated. These results show that the male-dominated tradition of the game is also perpetuated by women.

Key words: golf; gender asymmetries; Portugal; facilitators/constraints.

Introduction

Golf is a male-dominated leisure activity, interdicted to women since its beginning in the 18th century, when the rules of golf were written in Scotland. Although the exclusion of women was not specified in the rules, they were not allowed in the majority of clubhouses. Even today female participation in the game is low and derives mainly from the male-dominated focus of the game. This reality has persisted to date and seems difficult to overcome, since nearly 80% of golf players are men (European Golf Association, 2011). When compared to other sports, golf offers the possibility of mixed gender participation, since it provides an opportunity for a family to share recreation together.
Gender is a social and cultural construct that prejudices against women in many sectors, including leisure involvement. McGinnis, McQuillan, and Chapple (2005) conceptualize gender as a “social structure that organizes society into different and unequal categories based on sex and as an ideology that promotes inequities between the socially constructed categories of men and women” (McGinnis et al., 2005, p. 317). Research on women in male-dominated occupations, statistical discrimination, and feminist research in sports (McGinnis et al., 2005; George, Kay, & Vamplew, 2007) is a field that deserves further investigation. Hence, this paper focuses on the barriers created by gendered expectations and hegemonic masculinity that frame golf as a masculine sport, and aims to disclose women’s decision to participate in a “men’s game”. Our research addresses two questions: to identify what the most important factors are that induce or constrain women’s recreational play in golf, and to understand how and to what extent Portuguese women perceive these factors as facilitators or inhibitors. It aims to evaluate the influence of these factors on golf participation by means of an interpretative analysis of 39 interviews with women golfers carried out in Portugal. Theoretically, the intrapersonal, interpersonal and structural (henceforth 3D) paradigm (Crawford & Godbey, 1987) provides the best contextual background to support the analysis. The literature defines constraints (Jackson, 1997), and facilitators (Raymore, 2002), as factors or conditions that are assumed by researchers and perceived or experienced by individuals to enable or inhibit leisure preferences and which enhance or prohibit participation. A number of factors emerged from these interviews as the most relevant and were incorporated in a questionnaire with a scale of concordance. At a later stage, this questionnaire was applied to the same 39 respondents with the intention of confirming the interpretation of the interviews and testing whether these women perceived those factors in a similar way. The sample was stratified to accommodate the profiles: age group; marital status; with/without children. Descriptive and non-parametric tests were used to assess differences within these profiles.

This paper contributes to leisure and sports literature in three ways. Firstly, from a conceptual perspective, by exploring the way women deal with gender inequities in their participation decision, the study enhances the 3D factors paradigm, as it helps to understand which factors mostly influence the option to participate or not in an area dominated by men, an issue that has been recognized as being of major importance (McGinnis, Gentry, & McQuillan, 2009; Vamplew, 2010). Secondly, interpretative analysis anchored on a well-established theoretical background (Constraints/Facilitators theory) was meth-
odologically applied. Thirdly, on an empirical level, the conclusions of this paper are of paramount importance for marketers and female golf practitioners, opening paths for future research. By making visible the structures and dynamics that favour men in golf and highlighting the perceptions women have of these bias inequities, we contribute to research in gender and sports.

Following this introduction, section two presents the literature review on leisure and sports under a gendered perspective. Section three advances the theories that structure this research; the fourth section explains the methodology applied, followed by a discussion of the results in section five. The final section includes the conclusions, limitations, and perspectives for further research.

**Literature Review**

Research on leisure participation is vast and the study of women’s leisure is intrinsically related to gender roles in society and constraints women face deriving from gender inequalities in most domains (Crawford & Godbey, 1987; Henderson, 1990; Henderson & Hickerson, 2007). Borsay (2006) reflects upon a British structured society in which “inequality based upon differential possessions of wealth, status, and power” enhanced class fragmentation in the social order (Borsay, 2006, p. 75). This stratification influenced the leisure activities chosen by different classes, leading to segmentation and exclusion. Despite this, “women tended towards feminine-appropriate sports such as tennis and golf which offered opportunities for social contact and moderate exercise” (George, 2009, p. 335). This status quo has prevailed to date and Borsay (2006) advances that sport is biologically male-orientated, emphasising “strength, competition, and combat“ (Borsay, 2006, p.121). Interest in physical activity and sports has increased in the last decades (Kaczynski & Henderson, 2007; Miller & Brown, 2005). Authors like Arthur et al. (2009), McGinnis & Gentry (2006) or Vamplew (2010) explore the social context of women in golf. In the last decades, a wide body of research on tourism and leisure has used the Constraints-Facilitators theory (Jackson, 1997; Raymore, 2002) in order to understand how the decision to participate or not occurs, providing useful insights into general patterns of participation. Many authors applied the constraints-facilitators proposal to leisure, sports and golf studies under a gendered perspective, broadening knowledge on women’s choices (Callan & Thomas, 2006; Carroll & Alexandris, 1997; Haig-Muir, 2000; Miller & Brown, 2005). These scholars find that the 3D factors - intrapersonal, interpersonal and structural (Crawford & Godbey, 1987), acting as constraints and/or facilitators, are grounds to explain the decision to participate in leisure and sports. Research on the 3D factors concludes
that these dimensions belong to the individuals’ living environment, having a strong effect on participation decision on different levels. The intrapersonal factors refer to the inner self of the individuals and comprise their characteristics, fears and beliefs. Some of the intrapersonal factors identified in the literature are: motivation, past experiences and personal performance (knowledge and ability), self-esteem and personality. The literature states that these factors clearly facilitate involvement in leisure and sports, such as golf. On an interpersonal level, the family’s incentive, lifestyle or companion/friends’ interaction are a crucial facilitator, whereas “the ethics of care” - the traditional role of women taking care of others before attending to their own needs (Gilligan, 1982) - and gender norms function as strong constraints; social interactions may have both effects. The structural factors relate to external factors that inhibit participation, like institutions, infra-structures, socio-economic status, social background, financial resources (money), gender and race (Raymore, 2002). Further research has introduced additional factors under this dimension: family obligations, time, cultural/social attitude and status quo, geographic location and course policy/conduciveness (Callan & Thomas, 2006; Haig-Muir, 2000; McGinnis & Gentry, 2006; McGinnis et al., 2009).

**Conceptual framework**

These factors are assumed to be the main drivers of leisure and sports participation. Based on the aforementioned literature, the present study proposes a compilation of the most relevant factors in each dimension. Hence, this paper explores antecedent facts relating to the individuals, in order to understand how different lifestyles, living conditions and previous sport experiences influence gender bias perception and verbalisation, and consequently, how these affect participation in golf. Figure 1 shows the conceptual framework on which the research relies.

On the basis of the literature review and the conceptual model in Figure 1, the study is framed by the following research presuppositions:

- **P1**: Different age groups justify different golf participation perceptions and verbalisations of the 3D factors.
- **P2**: Different marital status (married/divorced/single) justifies different golf participation perceptions and verbalizations of the 3D factors.
- **P3**: Having children or not justifies different golf participation perceptions and verbalizations of the 3D factors.
Building on the above assumptions, the research strives to illustrate different options using selected examples and also analyses diverse life contexts, perceptions of gender bias participation, and the resultant closing stages chosen by the individuals.

![Conceptual framework](image)

**Figure 1. Conceptual framework**

**Methodology**

To evaluate the research proposals of this study, the authors selected both qualitative and quantitative methodologies, as the most appropriate approach to obtain a holistic interpretation on undisclosed facts. The present study is based on 39 semi-structured interviews and uses a theoretical sampling approach (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; McCracken, 1988; Ragin, 1994; Woodside et al., 2005). The sampling strategy used is not intended to offer representativeness, but to focus on exploring and describing facilitators and constraints informed by a specific group of Portuguese female golfers. The theoretical sampling considers combinations of case profiles across 4-7 attributes (Woodside et al., 2005) and recommends 5-8 interviews per cell (McCracken, 1988; Woodside et al., 2005). Table 1 displays the stratification of the interviewees, illustrating the number of
profiles created based on social status, in accordance with McGinnis et al. (2003), who argue that most of the constraints women experience in sport participation are mainly due to their social condition. Some profiles are unfeasible to reach, namely single women with children, thus this profile is not considered.

Table 1. Sample Stratification

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age group</th>
<th>Marital status</th>
<th>With/without child</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Under 40 years</td>
<td>Single/Divorced</td>
<td>Without children</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Married</td>
<td>Without children</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>With children</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 40 years</td>
<td>Single/Divorced</td>
<td>Without children</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Married</td>
<td>Without children</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>With children</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The study also uses a snowball sampling, the most appropriate to reach participants through “formal and informal networks connections” (Jennings, 2010, p. 140). The researchers first meet interviewees at the clubhouse; other members are identified by these members and then by the next participants until the sample is complete (Jennings, 2010). The interviews were conducted face-to-face, lasting between 1.30 to 5.30 hours and were divided into three main parts: the first part provides a matrix detailing all previous sport experiences and the second comprises 76 open-ended questions, covering three sections about the person’s life background and socio-demographics, daily life activities and routines, concerning professional and extra-professional activities; the final section focuses on sport experiences, behaviours and factors the interviewees face when choosing a male-dominated sport. Nevertheless, the interviews present disadvantages associated with the fact that it is a subjective epistemological approach and its critics raise the question of the “reliability and validity” of the material (Jennings, 2010, p.175). To validate the interpretation of the interviews, a questionnaire was later applied to the same participants. As a result, a theoretical sampling and data triangulation support this research. To test if the interpretations of the authors are exactly what the women state in the interviews, a questionnaire with all the factors derived from the transcript statements was applied to the same women. This questionnaire includes two sections, one with a concordance scale of five points with 50 factors derived from the interpreta-
tion of the interviews that may act as facilitators or constraints. The second part comprises a set of questions to characterise the women in socio-demographic terms. All interviews were recorded and the *verbatim* transcripts became the object of interpretative and comparative analyses, in order to determine analytic categories, following the recommendations of McCracken (1988).

Semi-structured interviews are one of the most appropriate techniques to obtain a holistic interpretation of the interviewees, their past and present contexts, and the sport participation decision. This is not only because people need time to think over their experiences (Oppermann, 1995) but also because the semi-structured interview method involves a person-to-person interaction and an immersion of the researcher in the research setting, which results in a better understanding and significance of the social phenomena under study (Ragin, 1994). The questionnaire was codified and treated with SPSS software. To test the interpretation of the interviews and observe whether these women’s discourses reflect exactly what they really think, non-parametric tests were performed using the Kruskal-Wallis test, since it provides a one-way analysis of variance and detects differences in distribution location. The Kruskal-Wallis test assumes that there is no previous ordering of the populations from which the samples are drawn, thus this is the most appropriate test for categorical variables as in this case.

**Results**

A set of 50 factors arose from the interviews. These factors were incorporated into a questionnaire which was applied to the same 39 women with the double objective of checking if the authors’ interpretations are what these women really mean, and also to test if the women’s perceptions vary according to their social condition, such as having children or not, their marital status and age.

Overall the factors show high scores of agreement which means that the interpretations of the authors are in accordance with the statements transcribed from the interviews. From the 50 factors considered, 22 present levels of agreement over 50%. On an intrapersonal level, from the 10 factors considered, 8 score over 50% of agreement, with a median over 4. The factors that rank higher in this dimension are “I look for pleasure and entertainment in the game” (92%), “I like to challenge my capacities and test my limits” (87%) and “I feel free when I play” (79%). This is in accordance with research that indicates that women see golf under two perspectives: an opportunity to combine an open air activity with social interaction and the more serious golfers who want to compete (George, 2010; Vamplew, 2010). From the 26 interpersonal factors
considered, 11 present levels of agreement over 50%, with a median over 4. The 26 factors were gathered addressing three subthemes: gender norms, social and “the ethics of care”. The factors that rank higher in this dimension are “I like to play with good friends” (92%) within the social; “men use golf to do business with each other” (85%), gender; “I would feel very bad to leave my sick children at home and go to play” (85%) and “women postpone their leisure programmes for the sake of their families” (85%), confirming the “ethic of care” perception that leisure and sports/golf researchers have highlighted (Henderson & Allen, 1991; Miller & Brown, 2005). Finally, on a structural level, out of the 14 factors, only 2 score over 50%, indicating that the majority of respondents accommodate the gender nature of the game. The factors that rank higher in this dimension are related to lack of time: “women do not have much time to play” (67%) and “a game of golf is so time consuming that I don’t have time for that” (54%), which conforms to leisure/sports literature (McGinnis & Gentry, 2006; Miller & Brown, 2005).

Having applied the questionnaire to the 39 Portuguese golfers previously interviewed, we concluded that our findings echo the respondents’ discourses, thus, quotations were introduced to support the results. Results of the present study are depicted below under each of the selected profiles.

Presupposition P1: Different age groups justify different golf participation perceptions and verbalisations of the 3D factors, is confirmed as follows: concerning age group the main differences appear to be related to intrapersonal factors and the median score of factors with statistical differences may lead to tentative conclusions.

These women’s discourses illustrate the statistical differences highlighted: on the intrapersonal level, regaining strength and energies is more important for women over 40 (80%), whereas only 50% of women under 40 mentioned it, a conclusion that is related to their physical condition more than anything else. The percentages increase concerning the perception of the game as pleasure and entertainment: 88% for women under 40s and 100% for over 40s. It was a general opinion that: “it is very good when you have a group and we play together; we can have a good time and still motive each other to play a good game”. On the structural level, only a low number (8% of the under 40s and 20% of the over 40s) consider the rules of game a significant inhibitor: “The rules may favour men but with the staggered tees for women, it can be balanced…” McGinnis et al. (2009) concluded that women find different strategies to cope with inequities, some of them through what the authors called “accom-
modating strategy (i.e., acknowledging masculine rituals and working around them)” (McGinnis et al., 2009, p. 19), and this attitude emerges from our respondents’ discourses.

**Table 2. 3D factors different perceptions by age group**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimensions</th>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>Chi-Square</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Asymp. Sig.</th>
<th>Under 40 years</th>
<th>Over 40 years</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intrapersonal</td>
<td>Playing golf makes me recover strength and energy</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5,892</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.015</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I look for pleasure and entertainment in the game</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6,947</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.008</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Structural</td>
<td>The rules of golf do not facilitate women's participation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6,880</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.009</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Presupposition P2: Different marital status (married/divorced/single) justifies different golf participation perceptions and verbalizations of the 3D factors, is also confirmed:

**Table 3. 3D different perceptions by marital status**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimensions</th>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>Chi-Square</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Asymp. Sig.</th>
<th>Single/divorced</th>
<th>Divorced</th>
<th>Married</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Interpersonal</td>
<td>I like to play a game that everybody plays</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6,024</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.014</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Structural</td>
<td>A game of golf is so time-consuming that I don’t have time for it</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9,445</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.002</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Statistical differences in marital status show that on an interpersonal level, single/divorced women (61%) perceive the practice of golf as essentially based on social interaction. They enjoy the “social golf”, i.e. getting together to socialise and make friends: “I don’t play very well but I don’t miss a game, because we have a good time together” whereas only 29% of married women find so-
cializing relevant. This conclusion is linked to the lack of time (structural), the strongest inhibitor to married women’s participation: 76% affirm that as a normal game of golf may take 4.30 to 5 hours; it is very time-consuming, clearly constraining their participation. Only 28% of the single/divorced women mention lack of time. According to some of the more competitive interviewees, the lack of time perception derives more from the fact that Portuguese women lack interest in sports as part of their cultural tradition. One woman advanced: “I think that sometimes is more an excuse because women in Portugal are not used to doing sports so it is not really their priority. It is cultural.” Presupposition P3: Having children or not justifies different golf participation perceptions and verbalizations of the 3D factors, finds confirmation in the following analysis:

Table 4. 3D different perceptions in women with or without children

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimensions</th>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>Chi-Square</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Asymp. Sig.</th>
<th>Without children</th>
<th>With children</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intrapersonal</td>
<td>The perfect game is when I relax and rest</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4,169</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.041</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I would feel very bad to leave my sick children at home and go to play</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6,270</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.012</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpersonal</td>
<td>I like to play a game that everybody plays</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4,126</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.042</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Playing golf is a way to avoid loneliness</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4,011</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.045</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Family comes first, always before leisure</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5,988</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.014</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Women postpone their leisure programmes for the sake of their families</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6,306</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.012</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Both on intrapersonal and interpersonal levels, women with children clearly want to relax, 71% against 40% of women without children. When asked if they would feel bad to leave their sick children at home and go play, the percentages were: 100% of the women with children and 76% of the women without children. On an interpersonal level the responses reveal that 86% of women with children affirm that the family comes first and 100% would postpone their leisure programmes for the sake of the family. This group does not have time to socialise, so they do not find it relevant (29%). Women without children (72%) acknowledge the restrictions imposed on women with children. However, being single, this group does not perceive interpersonal factors as constraining: “Many women say they don’t have time to play golf. I think it is more a ques-
tion of organisation but, above all, Portuguese women are not very keen on sports. It is cultural... Yet, when you have children and a family to look after, it is not easy at all”. Their verbalisations show they are engrained with the cultural and social gender norms, but they do not want to accommodate those norms: “women deserve to do things for themselves and should not give up everything when they have a family, but the influence of the traditional role required from women is still very present in our society. Men wouldn’t skip their game of golf for the family, but women do”. In fact, it is more a cultural inhibitor than an effective restriction.

**Conclusion**

The present research deepened the understanding of how gender inequities in golf affect female participation decision formations. From the analysis of 39 semi-structured interviews and a survey of Portuguese women golfers, the three presuppositions that anchored the research were confirmed. Results from this study propose that women with distinct backgrounds and life contexts evidence different degrees of perceptions, leading to diverse decisions. The results and quotations extracted from the 39 interviews by means of content analysis effectively confirm our initial presuppositions that were also confirmed by quantitative analysis, through the set of non-parametric tests performed. Overall, the most important facilitator and constraint factors of women’s participation in golf and sports were outlined in this paper. The present research concludes that the three dimensions of factors (intrapersonal, interpersonal and structural) influence women’s golf practice, albeit at different levels. The main differences mirror the way women perceive golf: some consider it “a healthy physical activity” whereas others enjoy golf as “a competitive sport”; some women play to feel relaxed and regain strength while others concentrate on testing their limits. All women agree that they would feel bad to leave their children at home while playing, even the ones without children, which reflects their acceptance and accommodation of cultural gender norms. Furthermore, all women agree that “family comes first” whilst the more committed golfers say that they need time for themselves. All the respondents find golf important as a means of socialising. On a structural level, results show homogeneity indicating that women tend to tacitly accept golf as a men’s sport, where they are only tolerated. These results indicate that the male-dominated tradition of the game is also perpetuated by women.

The intrapersonal factor that clearly enhances female involvement is motivation under two different aspects: the best players enjoy the competition, an-
other group enjoys relaxing and regaining strength, while a third group mentioned pleasure and entertainment as a way to balance the daily routine. On an interpersonal level, the most significant factors relate to the possibility golf presents to socialise, to meet people and to be with friends. The interpersonal constraint that all women mentioned is the “ethics of care”: family comes first and most women postpone their leisure programmes to accommodate their family’s needs. This result indicates that gender norms and the caring role ascribed to women in traditional societies are engrained in women. On a structural level, findings evidence homogeneity indicating that women tend to tacitly accept golf as a men’s sport, where they are only tolerated. These results show that the male-dominated tradition of the game is also perpetuated by women.

The conclusions of this paper are of paramount importance for marketers and female golf practitioners, opening paths for future research. By identifying the dynamics that privilege men in golf and the perceptions women have of these biased inequities and constraints, we enhance the ongoing research in gender and sports sociology.

In spite of the limitations of the study, mainly deriving from the geographical and sampling scopes limited to Portuguese women, it brings up some interesting ideas which, if applied to a more extensive sample, may contribute to gender and golf research.

References


Abstract
The purpose of this study is reviewing the effective factors on tourism development in Khour and Biyabanak town by using SWOT model. The research method is descriptive-analytic along with observing studying and filling out the questionnaire. The studies show that, in spite of its special geographical position, its location in the central Iranian desert and desert tourism attractions, this town has the capacity of becoming a major tourist hub (with the ability of desert hiking) in Iran. The result of this study indicated that in khour and Biyabanak town, there are 17 strength points and opportunities as its advantages and 15 points (weakness and threats) as its limitations and forwarding difficulties which this town facing to develop the tourism industry. After declaring the strategies, Functional Quantitative Matrix is used for presenting some guidelines and suggestions to promote the level of tourism quality and quantity in khour and Biyabanak town, and then by tourism development in this desert town, we can achieve the Social- economical development in this region.

Key words: tourism development, desert, desertification, strategic planning.
Introduction

In today’s world, tourism industry is moving towards the targeted holidays and a trip which can provide the relaxation and meet mental needs together. In general, we can mention to cultural, ethical, artistic, naturalistic tourism as a new forms of tourists tendencies in the world. Tourism in the nature makes the leisure activities possible which these natural attractions are often the first thing that draws the tourists in the destinations (Kazemi, 1385). The most important incentive that will encourage tourist to visit the natural attractions is the curiosity of tourists in identifying rare plants and animal species and natural resources that cause the increase of their deep appreciation of nature and finally, strengthen the sense of conservation and protection of natural environments (Rezvani, 2001). In this field, the attractive structure of these places is very important to attract the tourist (Cartner, 2002). Nowadays, desert hiking is one of the more attractive activities for tourist and Iran, where the vast expanse of its land is surrounded by the deserts, have a unique situation in this respect.

The present article attempts to provide suitable approaches, by SWOT technique, for the purpose of optimal and objective utilization of the strengths and weakness points and opportunities and eliminating weakness points and threats for the reason of achieving to sustainable tourism development in the desert city of Khour and Biyabanak by analysis of strengths and weakness points and also opportunities from the viewpoints of relative experts.

Literature Review

One of the spatial patterns of tourism is nature tourism or ecotourism which its spatial extent is included in natural environment (Poply & Saghai, 2006). By introducing and dividing the nature into two parts; animate and inanimate, and by combining it with a large tourism industry (Nekoei Sadri, 2009), Valas and Pires believe that if you follow the following six principles, tourism activities would be considered as ecotourism;

1. Being bound over activities that have minimal negative environment consequences.
2. Planning for increasing the awareness and understanding of the nature and cultural characteristics that leads visitors to have more responsibilities towards the preservation of natural and cultural characteristics
3. Participating in preservation and management of areas that are legally protected and also other natural areas;
4. Strengthening local communities in decision-making process to determine the type and amount of tourism activities;

5. Providing direct economic benefits and also supplemental incomes for local communities;

6. Notifying of the local community (through training) of their natural values (Jahanian & Zandi, 2010: 63).

Eco-tourist with the right combination of developed and environmental protection and cultural heritage makes a stability in such a way that is compatible with the environment, not lead to the destruction and reduction of resources, and is associated with teaching and learning for all parties involved, including local people, ecological tourists, government officials and relative industry operators (Zahedi, 2003). Geo-tourism is one of the sub branches of the Eco-tourist in which introduction of natural and spectacular phenomena of geology to the tourism, according to both professional and public attractions, is being examined. The emergence of this new branch of tourism brings appearance of new economic vision, entrepreneurship, management, conservation and sustainable development.

**Position of Khour & biyabanak city in Isfahan province**

Khour & biyabanak city, which is located in the north hemisphere desert belt, is one of the Isfahan cities. It has desert climate with average rainfall of less than 100 mm. the lands of this area are gypsum, salty and lime. Its mountains belong to central mountains of Iran and also folding of the Alpine and its highest mountain is just a little bit more than 2,000 meters above sea level. The average height of this area is 980 meters from the level of open sea. The city of Khour & Biyabanak, with Khour centralism and with the space equal to 11676/5 Km, occupies about 10% of the total area of Isfahan province. Also it also has placed 17656 people of Isfahan province population in it². Geographical coordination is presented in Table 1.

**Table 1. Geographical coordination of this zone**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Space (km²)</th>
<th>Longitude</th>
<th>Latitude</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Isfahan</td>
<td>107090/1</td>
<td>55° 32´ to 49 °38´ east longitude</td>
<td>34° 27´ to 30 °43´ north latitude</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Khour &amp; Biyabanak</td>
<td>120000</td>
<td>°east longitude58</td>
<td>°north latitude32</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Statistical yearbook; 1388, p. 21*
Introduction of tourism attraction and geo-tourism in the desert city of Khour & Biyabanak

Khour and Biyabanak is a desert city which has cities and villages with desert architecture. These features caused that this city has the most beautiful tourist desert attractions. In the following, a brief introduction of natural and historical attractions is presented.

Rig Jen desert

Rig Jen is a large area of sandy hills and salty dunes, which due to its extensive marshes and high arenaceous lands and lack of water, is one of the most arduous area in the world and now there is no path or small village in this region and except researchers who can be counted with the fingers, nobody has crossed it yet. This desert is located in the southwest of Dasht-e Kavir and its latitude is equal to 3800 square kilometers. Huge masses of active sandy dunes without Erg covering, which is popular in Persian language as a Rig Jen or arenaceous, can be found in this area. Infrastructure of Rig Jin is an eroded plain which at present is surrounded by pyramidal sandy dunes (Ghoud). The ma-
jor sediment and erosive materials Rig Jin zone has been formed from erosive Albourz hillsides.

**Salkonon Salt Lake**

Salkonon salt lake is located in the south of large central desert of Iran and northeast of Mesr village. The source of supplying salt water of this lake is the Amir Abad village's agricultural waste which is situated in the south of Mesr village. The terrains of this lake are swampy and the type of lake's soil is clay alkaline soil which is covered by salt.

**Mesr Village**

The geographic position of the village is 34°04' east longitude to 47°54' north latitude that due to the proximity to south of great desert, it has dry and hot weather. The sandy dunes and rich vegetation of tamarisk and Tagh, beautiful palm groves, named Farahzad, canebrake surrounded by sand dune, 6 Km from the Mesr village, with cane that sometimes reach to a height of 4 meters and is the main watering trough for desert wildlife is the unique beauty of the area where provide a suitable place for cameraman to take photo of desert wildlife.

**Jandagh City & Desert**

In fact, Jandagh desert which is located in Dash-e Kavir is one of the most beautiful desert regions in Iran. Its geographical position is 56° 33° north latitude and 54° 21° east longitude. Its height is 1213 meters from the level of open sea. Jandagh city, in the past, had been situated on the route of communication highway of passing convoy from Jandagh to Bydestan and before crossing the enormous desert, the convoys who were going to departure from south of Iran to Ray and north of Iran stay temporarily in Jandagh.

**Salt Lake Khour**

Salt Lake Khour located in the geographical position 55°15' to 56°15',east and 33°30' to 34°30' North is the world's largest seasonal salt lake (Playa). This lake is extended from center to south of Iran central desert. The height of this lake is the average 707 meters from the level of open sea and is one of the sawed-off parts in Iran's plateau. The depth of salt in this lake varies from 5 cm to 10 cm. the difference is due to constant movement of saline groundwater aquifers and black mud in the lower layers of salt which prevent from formation and density of the saline platforms. The lands around this lake in the east,
west and north parts are severely swampy with high percentage of adhesion and in the south parts, it is bloated. The air temperature is the hottest time is 55 degrees and coldest time (night) 25 degrees. High temperature difference between day and night causes to crack the surface salt layer and lower moisture layers lose its wetness by occurred cracks that cause to form Polygon saline (saline platform). This desert is consists of two north and south grabens that the extent of southern graben is 3 times larger than the northern graben. The height of northern graben from the sea level is 15 meters more than the height of southern graben from sea level. 20% of the north graben is consists of black salt while, in the southern graben, it is just 5%. The basis of sharp and explosive forms of black salt in this region is as follows; infrared radiation can be passed through white salt. The best layer to absorb this radiation is black mud in lower layers. Because of absorption of sun ray, these mud get warm and become expansion and by bring pressure on the surface of the layers cause to break out the surface layers and get out from lower layers to surface of the desert. These mud, after becoming dry, in consequence of wind and rain erosion, change to sharp and explosive forms. This lake, in the rainy season, becomes in the form of a clay and salt mixture and in dry season it becomes a sea of white salt. In recent years, studies have been made to extract potash from the lake that if it puts in practice, this lake would become the largest potash mine in the world.

We can mention to historical villages beside palm groves that help create incredibly memorable views that will never be forgotten as other attractions in the city Khour. The historical houses in Khour are made of mud brick. These houses have high walls with flat and dome roofs with beautiful vents and doorpost. The historical houses in Khour have four porticos and the entrance is connected to the Ivan by Hashti. One of these villages with historical context is Mehrjan or Mehrgan which is pronounced in local dialect "Mehrgoun". The oldest inscription of this village is related to eight and nine centuries A.H. We can mention to Garmeh village and its hot spring, valuable context of Aroosan village and its hot spring, Iraj hot spring, Khanaj hot spring, Bayazeh historical houses, 1000 years old olive tree, as other attractions of this region.

**Jandagh Castle**

This thousand years old castle has still residents. Locan people say that this castle had been Anushirvan's prison; however, the context of this castle says something else. Yaghma-e Jandaghi, who is the greatest poet of the Qajar epoch and contemporary with Naser-AlDin Shan epoch, lived in this region and some parts his house are yet remained there. Jandagh mosque, Khour mosque, and
Arab mosque are the most ancient mosques in Khour. Arab mosque which is located in Arab district is known as "Fatemi mosque". This mosque is rebuilt in 1373. The mosque has a dome-shaped architecture which is on the strong pillars. Narv mosque; according to residents, this is the oldest mosque in the region.

**Dasht-e Kavir region**

It has desert rare animal species and geological potentials. Khour palm groves Shah beyzai's castle are several years old. Naser khousrow mentioned to it in his logbook and has lodged for a while in it. Iraj, which is located in the Mehrjan-Chopanan road, is one of the villages suitable for winter quarters. This village is located in the hillside of low height of mountain. At the top of this mountain, there is a small castle which is not very ancient and the materials used for its building are completely different from ones that we have in Beyzai and Jandagh.

**Context of Bayaze village**

This village is located ten miles away from south east of Khour. In addition to its famous and beautiful castles, this village has a very pleasing landscape. Its rural context with portico houses and congress portico has a unique context.

**Bazyab Spring**

Slightly away from main road, in the way of Mehrjan road to Chopanan road, Bazaryab region is at the foot of High Mountain in which there are a lot of tasty spring waters. The water of this spring is one of the amazing waters in the world; its salubrity is like a miracle. There are cavities on the mountain's wall which are really impassable and apparently, were the old warehouse and the place of holding certain objects and commodities.

**Methodology**

Because of instability in this sector and the nature of such planning, strategic planning methodology for tourism development can be useful (Behzadfar & Zamanian, 2008). Strategic planning can be considered as a sort of planning for taking decisions, implementing the activities for forming a system and its guidance, function and causes (Hekmat nia & Mosavi, 2006). Among the existing methods, SWOT method which evaluates opportunities, threats, strengths and weaknesses is the most common (Nakhi & Abadi, 2010). Strengths and weaknesses are those factors that have internal and intrinsic character. Opportunities and threats have external character that other factors, other than the potential
and capacities have influence on it (Hussey, 1991). We can use internal and external factors for better evaluation and ranking (Yuksel, 2007). The first step in analysis of tourism strategic planning regarding to desert regions is to identify the factors and characters affecting the development of these areas (Pirez & Robison, 2004). According to the studied components and the nature of the subject, the approach related to this study is "descriptive - analytic". In this paper, after finding the strength points, weaknesses, opportunities and threats related to Khour & Biyabanak city, and analyze them from the viewpoints of experts for the development of tourism using the technique of SWOT, suitable strategies are presented for efficient and targeted utilization of strengths points and opportunities and also elimination of weaknesses and threats in order to achieve sustainable tourism development. The most important yield factors for strategic planning in the city of Khour & Biyabanak are presented in Table 2.

**Table 2.** Matrix SWOT, the main factors affecting tourism in Khour & Biyabanak city

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Internal</th>
<th>External</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>S (strength)</td>
<td>O (Opportunities)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S1 =</td>
<td>Having desert attractions for the development and expansion of domestic and foreign tourism</td>
<td>O1 = being susceptible for making geo-park</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>S2 = Existence of historical context and the landscape of desert cities and villages</td>
<td>O2 = Willingness of private sector for investment in tourism sector</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>S3 = Diversity of tourism resources in the city</td>
<td>O3 = The positive attitude of custodians of the tourism industry in the desert area</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>S4 = Having the potential to do activities related to ecotourism based on desert</td>
<td>O4 = Existence of Mesr village with international reputation in this city</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>S5 = Having the potential to do exercise related to desert environment</td>
<td>O5 = Creation of job variation in the tourism sector</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>S6 = Ability to develop rural tourism</td>
<td>O6 = Migration reduction from the city</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>S7 = Having the potential to do adventure tourism activities</td>
<td>O7 = Having valuable medicinal species</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>S8 = There is no need to invest a lot in this industry in comparison to other economic sectors in the city</td>
<td>O9 = Enjoying a variety of handicraft and traditional arts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>W (Weaknesses)</td>
<td>T (Threats)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W1 =</td>
<td>Poor health services and facilities</td>
<td>T1 = Dominant hot and dry desert climate in the city</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W2 =</td>
<td>Sources of tourism don’t become tourism attractions</td>
<td>T2 = The low level of urbanization in the city in comparison with Isfahan city</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W3 =</td>
<td>The tourism attraction in this city is one-dimensional</td>
<td>T3 = Poor performance of travel agencies in offering desert hiking tours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W4 =</td>
<td>No travel service offices in the city</td>
<td>T4 = Not suitable presentation of desert and desert attractions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W5 =</td>
<td>Inappropriate infrastructure for tourism</td>
<td>T5 = Seasonality of tourism in the city</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W6 =</td>
<td>Security threats result from desert characterisitcs of the city</td>
<td>T6 = There are competitive objectives in other provinces</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W7 =</td>
<td>Lack of planning and investment of custodians of the tourism sector in the city</td>
<td>T7 = Geographical isolation and remoteness from the capital</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W8 =</td>
<td>Inappropriate and inadequate facilities and equipment, accommodation and welfare in the city</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
According to Table 2, 8 internal strength points vs. 8 internal weaknesses and 9 external opportunities vs. external threats has been identified and investigated. For the tourism development, Overall, 17 strength points and opportunities as the advantages and 15 weaknesses and threats as the disadvantages, constraints and bottlenecks facing Khour city have been identified. In sum, we can reach the conclusion that the city has potentials and advantages suitable for tourism development. For quantitative, rational and more precise results, each component of the "SWOT" in Table 2, we used the opinions of 30 experts in the range of one to nine. The accomplished priorities are presented in Table 3. This table shows the total given weight, the average rank and relative weight of each component in "SWOT" from the view of experts.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 3. Priority assessment matrix components of &quot;SWOT&quot; from the experts' viewpoints</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>SWOT analysis</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Strength(S)</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S1 = Having desert attractions for the development and expansion of domestic and foreign tourism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S2 = Existence of historical context and the landscape of desert cities and villages</td>
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<td>S6 = Ability to develop rural tourism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S7 = Having the potential to do adventure tourism activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S8 = There is no need to invest a lot in this industry in comparison to other economic sectors in the city</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>(W)Weaknesses</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W1 = Poor health services and facilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W2 = Sources of tourism don’t become tourism attractions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W3 = The tourism attraction in this city is one-dimensional</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>W6 = Security threats result from desert characteristics of the city</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W7 = Lack of planning and investment of custodians of the tourism sector in the city</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W8 = Inappropriate and inadequate facilities and equipment, accommodation and welfare in the city</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>(O)opportunities</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O1 = Being susceptible for making geopark</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O2 = Willingness of private sector for investment in tourism sector</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O3 = The positive attitude of custodians of the tourism industry in the desert area</td>
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<td>O4 = Existence of Mesr village with international reputation in this city</td>
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<tr>
<td>O5 = Creation of job variation in the tourism sector</td>
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<tr>
<td>O6 = Migration reduction from the city</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O7 = Having valuable medicinal species</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O8 = Very low density compared to the Isfahan province</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O9 = Enjoying a variety of handicraft and traditional arts</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(T) Threats

| T1 = Dominant hot and dry desert climate in the city | 186 | 6.2 | 0.68 | 6 |
| T2 = The low level of urbanization in the city in comparison with Isfahan city | 174 | 5.8 | 0.64 | 7 |
| T3 = Poor performance of travel agencies in offering desert hiking tours | 246 | 8.2 | 0.91 | 2 |
| T4 = Not suitable presentation of desert and desert attractions | 252 | 8.4 | 0.93 | 1 |
| T5 = Seasonality of tourism in the city | 240 | 8 | 0.88 | 3 |
| T6 = There are competitive objectives in other provinces | 234 | 7.8 | 0.86 | 4 |
| T7 = Geographical isolation and remoteness from the capital | 222 | 7.4 | 0.82 | 5 |

According to Table 3, analysis from the experts indicates that having of desert attractions for domestic and foreign tourism, in the first rank, is the most important internal strength point and then, having the potential to exercise suitable for desert environment, with relative 95% points, has been in the second position of tourism development and diversity of tourism resources in the city, with relative point 0.46%, has been the least important internal strength point in tourism development. The Mesr village, with international reputation in this city, has been in the first rank as an external opportunity, while positive attitude of custodians of this industry in tourism development in desert regions, with the relative point 0.44%, has been considered as the least important external opportunity for the development of ecotourism.

About internal weaknesses, we can mention to the lack of travel service offices in the city as the main internal weakness and also, the lowest priority among internal weaknesses is related to the security threats result from desert characteristics, with relative point 0.66%, and lack of proper presentation of desert and desert attractions, with a mean point 8.4 and relative point 0.93, as the most important external threat are other mentionable points.

**Results**

Strategy presentation can be considered as a series of mission design and policies that provides four options or strategies.

**SO strategy:** are those strategies that are designed and built based on study of a series of ways that can be set by identifying their strengths points and for the aim of taking advantage of the opportunities.
ST strategies; are those strategies that are considered the strength points as a way to avoid the threats.

WO strategies; are those strategies that are emphasized on taking advantage of the opportunities by overcoming weaknesses in a complex.

WT strategies; are those strategies that are essentially defensive in nature and emphasized on minimization of the weaknesses and also avoiding the threats (Nohegar & Hoseinzadeh; 1388, p.165).

Table 4. SWOT matrix and strategy compilation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Weaknesses</th>
<th>Strength points</th>
<th>SWOT matrix</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>WO strategies (review)</td>
<td>SO strategies (aggressive-competitive)</td>
<td>Opportunities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WT strategies (defensive)</td>
<td>ST strategies (diversity)</td>
<td>Threats</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Short-term and long-term development strategies compilation

In table 5, strategy analysis system in the city of Khour & Biyabanak is presented.

Table 5. Quantitative Strategies Matrix for tourism development in Khour & Biyabanak city

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SO (aggressive-competitive)</th>
<th>ST (variety)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>So1 = Utilization of recourses and tourism potentials to create a distinctive and diverse product.</td>
<td>ST1 = advertising programs to introduce the city, ecotourism attractions and geotourism.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>So2 = construction of tourist accommodation and entertainment units appropriate for tourist input volume.</td>
<td>ST2 = improvement and development of tourism travel agencies and services and watchful supervision on</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>So3 = repair, protect and restore to the context of historical villages in the city</td>
<td>ST3 = information system improvement and road signs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>So = Construction and development of fixed and temporary camps in this region and between the road centers.</td>
<td>ST 4 = doing marketing studies and identify competitive advantages of the region to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>So5 = Ecotourism planning for desert hiking paths (motorcycling, camel riding) and also planning for holding rally championship.</td>
<td>ST5 = infrastructure construction and development and tourism infrastructure facilities suitable with desert regions for</td>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>76.43</td>
<td>64.81</td>
<td>61.33</td>
<td>73.25</td>
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</table>
the agencies in order to assign them to move toward supportive tours in the city improve competitive position of the city and attract target markets

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>70.17</td>
<td>72.27</td>
<td>39.33</td>
<td>79.39</td>
<td>69.88</td>
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</table>

**WO(review)**

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Wo1 = preparation for private sector investment with the granting of state aid and tax exemption</td>
<td>Wo2 = development and improvement of road communication from the cities to villages and also development and improvement of desert attractions</td>
<td>Wo3 = creation and development of security stations, tourist police establishment and security cases exploration</td>
<td>Wo4 = creation and development of tourism service offices to get tourist attraction in the city</td>
<td>Wo5 = holding training courses to inform tour guides about tourism characteristics in desert regions</td>
<td>Wo6 = Using people’s participation in all stages of planning</td>
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<tr>
<td>71.22</td>
<td>62.47</td>
<td>65.36</td>
<td>49.7</td>
<td>59.29</td>
<td>70.51</td>
</tr>
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</table>

**WT (defensive)**

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>WT1 = development of health level, development and improvement of health services in the region</td>
<td>WT2 = Pay attention to endurable capacity in the region</td>
<td>WT3 = Using specialized ecological tourism management and also management stability in program implementation</td>
<td>WT4 = Providing employment levels from tourism activities to maximize local employment</td>
<td>WT5 = Training local people to produce desirable and quality handicrafts and pay attention to the folk arts for tourist attraction</td>
<td>WT6 = Diversifying the tourism products in the city through the development of new tourism methods</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>64.62</td>
<td>54.82</td>
<td>70.52</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>58.39</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Conclusion**

The result of quantitative strategic planning matrix, which is presented separately for the various strategies, shows that SO1 strategy (Utilization of resources and tourism potentials to create a distinctive and diverse product) with the highest point 83/52, represent the best strategy in Khour & Biyabanak city. ST2 with 79/39 points and SO5 with 79/43 (Ecotourism planning for desert hiking paths (motorcycling, camel riding) and also planning for holding rally championship) are second and third strategy, respectively. Other important strategies which are in the minimum distance of these three strategies include SO2 (construction of tourist accommodation and entertainment units appropriate for tourist input volume) with 73/25 points, ST4 (doing marketing studies and
identify competitive advantages of the region to improve competitive position of the city and attract target markets), WO6 (Using people's participation in all stages of planning) with 71/22 points, WT4 (providing employment levels from tourism activities to maximize local employment) with 70/52 and Wo1(preparation for private sector investment with the granting of state aid and tax exemptions). Other strategies with 69/88 to 39/33 are in lower rank order.

In order to develop tourism in Khour & Biyabanak city, beside analysis which has been done and compiling strategy, the following suggestions are presented:

Investment measures based on hardware and administrative are actions in different domains which can be formed at different levels. Requirements of such measures include accessing to required infrastructure, appropriate location, providing funds and facilities to attract private sector participation, supplying the specialists, design fits the natural environment. In this regard, the traditional restroom construction and also camping in Khour city and nearby villages such as Mesr and Farahzad, construction of integrated utilities in the way of the main city routes, establishment of travel service offices in the downtown, establishment of tourist information office, and improvement of Iraj and Khanj springs and Garmeh and Aroosan hot water springs are suggested.

Due to the multi-sectoral of this industry, development process in tourism sector enters into other fields. Provision of infrastructure in every region provides tourism industry development, so providing the needed funds, coordination among concerned agencies and organizations, and attention to environment issues are essential requirements. The suggestions which presented in this regards would be; installing and maintaining of tourism signs in the main tourism routes in the city, construction of WC in Aroosan, Mesr, Bayazeh, Farahzad villages and khour city, construction of tourism infrastructure and access routes to the Mesr, Farahzad, Beyazeh, Mehrjan, Garme villages and etc.

Repairing fences and buildings of Jandagh castle, restoration of the historic context of the village Bayazeh, the annual publicity in target markets, preparation and distribution of promotional items from the tourism attractions in the city (brochures, manuals, maps and ...), preparation and installation of promotional tourism attraction billboards in the main roads, participation in local exhibition, holding short-term training course for tour guides, and preparation of educational materials for tourism interests for public. Observing special tours and excursion based on the city's talents and abilities requires coordination with the travel service offices as one of the most reputable and well known way
in the travel distribution and its implementation. Cooperation of target agencies for the implementation of organizational group & students tours, invitation to cooperate with travel agencies and tour organizer and discount consideration for facilities, services and visits are the requirements of group tours. We can mention to the planning and implementation of annul student and collegian group tours, with the target of city tourism, holding of desert hiking tours, with desert targets, villages group tours and a one-day family tours as different kind of group tours.

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www.agdir.ir

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Factors Moderating the Acceptance to Determine Preferences of Malay Kuih among Malay Ethnic

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Abstract

The purpose of this study is to determine the moderating factors of acceptance in determine the preferences of Malay kuih among Malay ethnic. Focus group interview was conducted to three focus groups with different backgrounds, which included housewife, workingwomen and university students. It is found that childhood memories play an important role in shaping the habits of the participants when accepting Malay kuih. This was followed by the food characteristics of the Malay kuih and the contextual settings such as time and occasion. Overall, it shows that there is a different in terms of factors that moderates the Malay ethnic acceptance compared to the Model of Food Choice by Gains (1996), which was adapted for this study.

Key words: Malay Kuih, food acceptance, food preferences, food choice, Malay Ethnic.

Introduction

Food carries symbolic meanings and has psychological significance beyond its nutritive value, which becomes secondary for many consumers (Kahn, 1981). Sijtsema, Linneman, Gaasbeek, Dagevos, and Jongen (2002) quoted Toors and Veen (1985): Food does not only alleviate hunger, but it also acts as a medium of communication, to show power and status, safety and security function, and to differentiate religion due to its range of functions. Foods have developed a general sense to individuals and societal well-being. Among others, the general sense includes the acceptance and preferences of individuals towards certain foods. Food is also synonym with the culture of a country or the society. For example, Thailand is well known for its “tom-yum gong” which was widely
accepted internationally. Curry would be the most symbolic food to represent India. As for China, Peking duck would be the main delicacies, which attracts others to come and taste the country local food heritage, to name a few. As for Malaysia, The cultural and traditional diversification has conjured a variety of cuisines to be offered here (Jalis et.al., 2007).

In comparison to Western counterparts such as sweetmeats and desserts, which started from the 14th century in the Western continent, there is one form of dessert, which represents the Malay ethnic. The desserts mentioned here are the traditional Malay kuih. Comes in variety of shapes and colors, and were made from the unique blend of ingredients used for making the kuih, this delightful and rich dessert offers distinctive flavor and texture to the taste buds, which contribute to its popularity among the locals.

However, despite the long history of these delicious small delicacies, far too little attention has been paid to the acceptance and the preference level of the Malay kuih among consumers. Simultaneously, question on the factors that influence the acceptance and preferences of the Malay kuih, as well as the moderating variables that support the acceptance and preference for Malay kuih has not being truly identified and yet to be solved. Therefore, in this research, the question on the moderating factors that influences the acceptance, which leads to preferences of Malay kuih, will be discussed accordingly.

**Literature Review**

Human and food. Two different words with two different meanings yet have a very closed liaison between one another. From the perspectives of Wright, Nancarrow, and Kwok (2001), food does not only act as a source of nourishment, but also for developing trading and cultural links between nations. It also acts as a pastime for personal indulgence, a medium for socializing with family, friends, and others and in contributing to a general sense of individual and national well-being. Thus, is the significance the food in terms of its position and roles in the society.

**What is Malay Kuih?**

Recognized as one of the local heritage delicacies of Malaysian gastronomic product, Malay kuih can be found in every state in this country. The term kuih is deriving from the Hokkien words "koe". These small yet delicious bite size snacks can be found in different shapes, colors, textures, and designs (Anonymous, 2011). In Malaysia, the terms ‘kuih’ is usually associated among the Ma-
lay and Chinese as well as *Nyonya* descendents. It is believed that the kuih has been in existence from the early history of the Malay civilization in Malaysia during the 1000BC whereby the Malays are known as proto-Malays (Ryan, 1976). From the exposure by the Malay ethnic culinary and cultural heritage, the ingredients used and methods of preparing the kuih has been developed and altered, which was made throughout the years. Although there were some variations made throughout the years, yet the original taste is retained same as the original kuih.

**Food Acceptance**

The definition for the word food acceptance has been varied throughout the years considerably in the literature context. In the earlier years, Pilgrim (1957) described food acceptance comprised of both behavioral and attitudinal components, and the pleasure inherent in it. In his Model of Food Acceptance, perception was identified as the main aspects that influence the food acceptance. As can be seen from a research conducted by Cardello and Maller (1982), food acceptance was defined as “the expressed degree of liking or disliking for a food when obtained in response to a prepared sample of the food”. In 1994, a study conducted by Cardello evaluated the consumer expectations and their role in food acceptance. By using a schematic model of human food-related behavior, the researcher measured the food acceptance from the area of psychology known as “psychophysics” or also known as “sensory evaluation” from the food science perspectives. From the result of his study, it was disconfirmed that consumer expectations play a significant role in both sensory perception of food and the determination of food acceptance.

**Food Preference**

In the food context, but from a different perspective, preference is another important relevant idea to be touched. Different from food acceptance, Pilgrim and Kamen (1959) defined food preferences as the degree of like or dislike for a food from the sensory evaluation perspective. This notion is almost similar to Cardello and Maller (1982), which described food preference as “the expressed degree of liking or disliking for a food when obtained in response to a food name”. According to Randall and Sanjur (1981), food preference was considered as a phenomenon that rest predominantly in the affective domain and can exist independently on consumption. Looking at the model of factors, which influence food preferences developed by the researchers, three factors were recognized: individual, food, as well as environment. In comparison to Randall
and Sanjur (1981) model, Kahn (1981) has also developed a model on factors influencing food preferences. In his model, Kahn (1981) segregated the factors into seven groups, which includes personal factors, socio-economic factors, educational factors, cultural, religious and regional factors, intrinsic factors, extrinsic factors, and biological, physiological and psychological factors. Each of these factors is connectable to the terms related to food, the individual as well as the environment and at the same time shows the interaction between the groups of factors (Sijtsema et al., 2002).

**Factors moderating acceptance leading to preferences**

In order for individual to accept and prefer certain foods, there are factors that influence the decision making process. The food choice models have been selected to portray the factors moderating the acceptance to determine the preference of the Malay kuih. Among the first researcher to study food choice listing would be Yudkin in 1956. In this study, Yudkin (1956) listed the physical, social and physiological as the influencing factors (Hamilton, McIlveen & Strugnell, 2000). Based on the structural vision of dinner by Tolksdorf (1975), a model was developed to describe the complexity of food related behavior as cited by Sitjsema et al. from Jobse van Putten (1995). According to the researchers, a dinner is appreciated as a representation of the complex term food. There are two parts exist in this research, which is the meal, and the situation. As for this study itself, Gains (1996) Food Choice Model is being used as the moderating factor to portray the relationship between acceptances leading to the preferences for the Malay kuih. In this model, Gain segregated the factors into three main perspectives, which are consumer, food, and context. Sitjsema et al. cited Gains (1996) who concluded that food; consumer and context are themselves bundles of various factors and phenomena.

Looking at the food characteristics, taste, smell, texture, nutrients, as well as image and packaging of the products took all into consideration for the model developed (Sijtsema et al., 2002). This gives a significant view of the determinants of food that will influence the acceptance of the product among the consumers. From the perspectives of consumers, habits, culture, physiology, personality, and mood plays an important role in shaping the choice. Each of these factors is considered as the personal characteristics that influence the consumer’s food choice. As for the third characteristic, the importance of context was being discussed. Gains (1996) stated that the position of context is defined as a product of time, place, circumstance, manner, and who and what the food is consumed with. Moreover, it is important to food manufacturers to understand
who might buy their product, what the potential buyer perceived the product to be like, and where and when they might consume it (Sitjsema et. al, 2002).

Methodology

A non-experimental, qualitative study was used to answer the research questions that were set forth by the researcher. Data were collected through focus group interview as well as observation on the behavior of the participants. The focus group interview and observation on behavior were used to extract the moderating factors that influence the respondent’s food choice, the behavior in choosing food, and the demographic background.

The sample for this study was segregated into three focus group, which consists of three Malay women per group. The first focus group which consists of Malay housewives with the age ranges between 35 to 65 years old were chosen for this study due to the fact that they are very familiar with the Malay kuih especially in preparing the food for the consumption of their family. For the second focus group, three workingwomen with the age range between 26 to 32, while for the third focus group, local Malay university students at the age of 25 years old were selected as the sample as it was believed that both focus groups are familiar with Malay kuih and have the experience related to the study. As Scheibehenne, Miesler, and Todd (2007) stated that, “people have also been shown to seek emotional comfort, mood improvement, familiarity, and novelty when choosing food”.

A set of open-ended questionnaire was developed by the researcher to obtain the data needed, which enhanced the understanding of the experience of the participants. It is worth to mention that for each focus group, the respondents illustrated different connotations as well as experiences on the moderating factors. However, due to the limitation of time, it is hard for the researcher to obtain desired information throughout the entire Malay population in this country. For the contextual settings, this study would be the basis for other potential researched in the future which related to the Malaysian gastronomic heritage. Therefore, Kampung Raja Uda and Universiti Teknologi MARA, Shah Alam, were selected as the venues for the collection of data based on the high population of Malay ethnic in these areas.

Results

Based on the objective given for the study, the findings for the research were revealed. As a result, Malay kuih was best defined as “local kuih that was in-
herited from generation to generation by the Malay ethnic, rich in taste as well as flavor, and can be made or can be bought as a commercialized product.” In terms of acceptance, majority of the informants accept Malay kuih and amongst the Malay kuih that was mention included *kuih keria, epok-epok, kuih kaswi, jemput-jemput pisang, lepat-lepat, popiah, cucur badak, kuih seri muka, talam, ketayap, kuih seri ayu, kuih bingka, roti jala, kuih koci* and also *kuih lapis*. As for the factors that moderate the acceptance of Malay kuih, the food character, which was the taste factor, would be the most dominant factor when accepting Malay kuih. This was followed by personal characteristics, which included childhood memories, habits as well as culture. On the other hand, contextual settings such as time, occasions, and monetary (financial) falls as the third factor in moderating the acceptance of the informants on Malay kuih.

From the objective also, the focus groups were asked on the moderating factors that have influenced them when accepting Malay kuih based on different categories. In responding for the first category that was the personal factor, majority of the focus group members agreed that childhood memory was the key factor when accepting Malay kuih. This was followed by habits, mood and taste, and last but not least the health reason. On the other hand, color and shape of the Malay kuih plays an important role for the respondents to accept the Malay kuih. Both of these factors falls under the food characteristic’s categories. Other than color and shape, taste and cleanliness was also listed among the character of food that moderates their acceptance from the respondent’s point of view. In terms of contextual settings, majority of the respondents consumed the Malay kuih together with other dishes especially in the morning for breakfast. Only a few respondents agreed that they did consume the Malay kuih in the evening during teatime. In addition to the contextual settings information, the Malay kuih were usually eaten with family members and it was served during occasions such as during engagement, birthday parties, and matrimonial occasions, to name a few.
Figure 1. Suggested model of factors moderating the acceptance to determine preferences of Malay Kuih among Malay Ethnic.

Conclusion
The Malay kuih is considered the special delicacies of the Malay ethnics are known for its delicious taste and flavor. It comes in variety of shapes, colors, as well as texture, either sweet or savory, are well accepted among the local society. From one generation to another generation, the Malay kuih never failed to have its own position in competing with the western desserts. The three main characteristics, which included the consumer characteristics, the food characteristics, and the contextual environment, supported this phenomenon, undoubtedly. Each of these factors contributes to the existence of the Malay kuih throughout the years. As the world changes, varieties of new desserts emerged throughout the years, and there are certain elements that needed to be preserved. In this context it would be our local gastronomic product, the Malay kuih. A point to ponder would be “How long can the Malay kuih remain in existence under the current circumstance?”

References


Congress Tourism: An Application of Destination Benchmarking to Strategy Development

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Abstract  
This research paper seeks to study the status of congress tourism promotion, infrastructure basis of considering destination (Istanbul, Almaty, Astana) with the plan to develop the strategy for needs of country. The aim of research paper is drawn conclusion that helps to know and understand, and designed to determine the conditions of development to find out obstacles and the factors that affect its development with further development of strategy for congress tourism development in Kazakhstan. The findings and recommendations implied by this research paper will be presented to decision-makers in Kazakhstan tourism sector to be taken into account. This research paper applies benchmarking method by comparing three destinations (Istanbul, Almaty, Astana) in such indexes as government support level, taxes and other payments, infrastructure, promotion, price, service quality and etc.

Key words: destination benchmarking, congress tourism, strategy development.

Introduction  
The tourism industry has an important place in both developing and developed countries. Kazakhstan, the 9th largest country in the world, having a rich history of nomadic civilizations, a large natural diversity and being a part of the famous Silk Road, still attracts few tourists from around the world. The World Travel and Tourism Council in its long-term forecasts, taking this present cyclical downturn into account, points to a mature but steady phase of growth for world travel and tourism between 2009 and 2018. Growth is expected to average 4.4% per annum over the period, supporting 297 million jobs and 10.5% of global GDP by 2018 (WTTC, 2009). According to forecasts of the WTO tourists with high incomes will be given preference for Asia-Pacific region rather than Europe and the determinant of attractiveness for tourists will be exotic, congress tourism and golf tourism (UNWTO). Congress tourism is one of the Kazakhstani top niche market tourism segments and this paper re-
search the status of congress tourism promotion, infrastructure basis of considering destination (Istanbul, Almaty, Astana) with the plan to develop the strategy for needs of country.

**Literature Review**

Tourism is a sector of the national economy which, as a contrast with other sectors, provides a wider profitability for those involved in this industry. In case it is managed properly, the service supplier as well as the budget gets a profit which, if returned in the economy, induces a rise in labour demand and profit.

“Conference tourism, compared with further fields of tourism, brings higher profit so the previously described effect is even stronger” (Horvath, 2011). A conference as a prearranged meeting for consultation or exchanges of information or discussion (especially one with a formal agenda) (The Free Dictionary, 2009). Conversely, a convention is described as an assembly, especially a meeting of representatives of some profession, society, or religious political organization. A convention is further defined as a general and formal meeting of a legislative body social or economic group in order to provide information on a particular situation, and in order to deliberate and, consequently establish consent on policies amongst participants. A congress is a formal assembly of a union, trade body, or similar organisation; the assembly of a society (Inanc, O.2011). “Congress tourism is a journey of people outside their homes with the needs of exchanging experiences and knowledge in the fields of science or profession, a set of relationships, accommodation and travel (Karasu, 1996).

Congress tourism can be regarded as business tourism and there is no commonly used definition and ICCA uses definition as: Business tourism is the provision of facilities and services to the millions of delegates who annually attend meetings, congresses, exhibitions, business events, incentive travels and corporate hospitality. The economic effects of congresses and trade fairs are so intense that they are rather a means of economy development than part of tourism (Cameron, 2009). The number of business related meetings and conferences are rapidly growing, and is according to WTO data, congress tourism captures about 30% of total tourism income in the world. Similarly International Congress and Convention Association (ICCA) reports that every year almost 75 million people participate about 9000 meetings. This type of tourism activities has the additional benefit of also including an element of leisure tourism. Conference delegates people accompanying them may attend social programs and trips during the organization, or they may extend their stay after the event for leisure purposes.
Due to these reasons, conference tourism is one of the most important links of promotional activities for tourism destinations (Inanc.O.2011). “A large part of the effects of conference tourism are thanks to the spending of tourists” (David, 2004). “The spending of conference tourists is the highest if compared with other fields of tourism” (Schreiber, 2004, p. 136). It does not only include the amount of money that is spent on taking part on the sessions but the whole cost of the journey. Guests spend, for instance, on travelling, accommodation, food. They also buy in local shops, so the incomes that are realized around the environment of conferences must also be considered when examining the effects (Goschmann, 2000). 10 million conferences and congresses conducting in the world and market value is equal to 250 billion USD. (Witt, Brooke, & Buckley, 1992). Experts estimate that the market is developing with a 5% rate per year on average over the years (Hughes, 1996). In 2010, the average number of conference participants as compared to past years has a tendency to fall and the average number of participants according to ICCA equal to 571 people around the world. According to delegate expenditure survey conducted by the UK National Tourist Board average expenditure of participants are between 120-305 euro’s per day (UKNTB, 2006).

İstanbul as the city of congress tourism: The share of Convention Tourism in Turkey, which is now 200 million dollars, only 2% of the 10 billion dollars of the total tourism revenue, is tending to increase considerably. Every year, Istanbul hosts 100,000 people who travel for Convention Tourism. Convention Tourism, which is an indispensable fact of the Industries and Regional Economies, is growing rapidly, especially in Turkey. At least 20 to 25 conventions are held in Turkey each year. These numbers are expected to explode after 2008 and the following years (Emirgil, 2008) Currently, the share and importance of congress tourism income in Turkey increasing constantly, and due to its geographic location as a bridge between Asia and Europe, and modern conference centers and hotels along with historical and cultural background, Istanbul becomes one of the most popular city for conferences. Since year 2000, Istanbul placed first 25 cities in conference tourism and in 2009, with 80 meetings Istanbul ranked 17th in the world.(Inanc.O.2011) According to Turkish Association of Travel Agencies (TURSAB) total capacity of congress tourism capacities are 441 871(TURSAB, 2009). In 2007, Turkey’s tourism promotional budget was more than $100 million. For 2008, the budget will increase by 40%. Turkey is being advertised on billboards, buses, taxis and in TV commercials all around the world since Jan. 15, 2008. Istanbul also offers convenient transportation, with daily flights connecting the main cities of the world to Istanbul’s “Atatürk
International Airport”, which has a passenger capacity of 20 million annually and the charter airport “Sabiha Gökçen” is situated at the other end of the city (Emirgil, 2008).

**Almaty & Astana as the city of congress tourism:** Acknowledging the potential contribution of tourism to the country’s prosperity, image and growth, Kazakhstan officially made tourism its high priority sector by adopting Government Program for the Development of Tourism Industry. It has become one of the most promising business spheres and key economic activities. Since the country’s independence, tourism market has been increasing every year; for instance, in 2007 alone, the international tourism receipts contributed to the country’s economy KZT710 billion and input of outgoing tourist expenditures reached KZT281 billion (Euromonitor, 2009). Today, tourism is one of the most advantageous and dynamic industries of the country’s economy. Due to high market potential and numerous opportunities for continuing growth, it is predicted, that in 2009, Kazakhstani tourism contribution to GDP will rise to KZT1,340.2 billion (or US$11,168.4 million). (World Travel and Tourism Council, 2009). According to the Ministry of Tourism and Sports of the Republic of Kazakhstan (2009), 5 million 311 thousand inbound travelers entered Kazakhstan in 2007; however, only 62 thousand 117 people were served by tourist companies. This difference can be explained by the two main reasons. First, due to strong petroleum industry and vast mineral resources, the country attracts huge foreign investments that drive flow of foreign travelers coming to Kazakhstan for business, professional, and educational purposes (Euromonitor, 2011). Second, the country is not perceived as a tourist destination because of its inability to be presented as an attractive, distinctive and unique place (Euromonitor, 2009). Nowadays, the primary tourist services in Kazakhstan are provided by about 1000 tourist organizations; among them approximately 37 companies conduct their operations in collaboration with foreign partners to present the traveling opportunities for local and international tourists (Ministry of Tourism and Sports of RK, 2009). However, due to dynamic agendas of international conferences, regular arrivals of business travelers coming for project development, business meetings and negotiations all over the country, Kazakhstan is cultivating a positive image of a ‘burgeoning’ business tourist destination (Euromonitor, 2009). The high-potential sector of tourism in the Republic of Kazakhstan would be congress or conference tourism among all of the existent tourism segments. (Djordjevic, 2008, p. 20). In December Astana hosted the OSCE Summit on January and February 2011, the Winter Asian Games and Astana Economic Forum.
Methodology

Complexity of relationships in an international tourism market, exceptional competitiveness and a constant rise of new tourist destinations set new challenges for tourist destination management. Complex nature of tourism demands an integrated approach towards strategic management and cooperation (formal and informal) between the offer carrier, local community and other stakeholders at the destination level. (Milohnić I & Jurdana D.2008). Consequently research methodology was chosen regarding to aim to development of strategy and applies benchmarking method. Benchmarking provides gradation and measuring results and sets up norms and standards. (Milohnic & Jurdana, 2008). Benchmarking is essentially a means through which good or best practices can be identified and adopted, and is a formal and structured process of searching for those practices which lead to superior or improved performance, the observation and exchange of information about those practices, and the adaptation and implementation of those practices into one’s own organisation. One platform can work through which experiences of good or bad practices are exchanged and from which cooperation shall take place between tourism destinations (Kozak, 2004). Benchmarking is one of modern, effective methods of adaptation to market changes and needs. Aim of tourist destination benchmarking lies in the possibility of comparison, evaluation and better results’ achievement when contrasted to its competitors. (Milohnic & Jurdana, 2008). There are several types of benchmarking (Kozak, 2004). Althought there are different types for the destination evaluation, this paper will tackle in strategic benchmarking. Strategic benchmarking means investigation and comparison of successful corporation strategies and their internal factors (Kocel, 2003). Fostering the exchange of best practices for the congress tourism development can significantly contribute to the competitiveness of tourism destinations.

Results

Consequently status of congress tourism promotion, infrastructure basis of considering destination (Istanbul, Almaty, Astana) analyzed using by ICCA, TURSAB, Turkey tourism strategy 2023 and other sources and facility basis comparison presented below Table 1.
Table 1. Comparison of the conference rooms and capacity between cities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hotel Category</th>
<th>Istanbul</th>
<th>Astana</th>
<th>Almaty</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5 star</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>conference rooms</td>
<td>399</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capacity</td>
<td>53158</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 star</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>conference rooms</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capacity</td>
<td>14801</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 star</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>conference rooms</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capacity</td>
<td>1465</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>convention center</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>conference rooms</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capacity</td>
<td>12000</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other facilities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>conference rooms</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capacity</td>
<td>6271</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to above table Kazakhstani facility base needed in further development and governmental and private sector cooperation and support will be important in this field. Creating of National congress tourism bureau is vital point in Kazakhstan tourism promotion. Congress tourism is not presented in national tourism development strategy of Kazakhstan and underestimated. So Turkey’s congress tourism strategy is very good source to developing the national strategy and its implementation. Consequently we can summarize following points from analysis of Turkish strategy:

Table 2. Summary of promotion and marketing for transfer of congress tourism initiatives of Turkey to Kazakhstan

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Initiative</th>
<th>Transfer to Kazakhstan</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Promotional efforts based in scientific analysis &amp; studies</td>
<td>Create scientific base for research &amp; development of industry in National level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sustainable image</td>
<td>Create sustainable image based in nomadic culture, ‘smart’ Astana, Business &amp; Ski Tourism Almaty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More Public Relation activities</td>
<td>Effective use of Public Relations using of Astana Cycling team, Anti nuclear movement, Annual Congress of World Religions, Astana Business Summit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotion efforts customised to certain number of products</td>
<td>Niche markets as: MICE market,Eco-tourism, extreme &amp; adventures, cultural and Nomadic tourism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Movie production industry used as the tool for promotion</td>
<td>Creating of Films based in nomadic culture as: Chingis Khan, Tamerlane,Dede Korkut,Golden Horde,Al-Farabi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Destination branding</td>
<td>City branding strategies development as: Smart Astana</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alternative strategies:Single target group(STG),Intensified Promotion strategy(IPS),Total promotion strategy(PS),Undifferentiated Promotion strategy(UPS)</td>
<td>Doing similar in-STG-predetermined target groups, IPS-multiple target groups, TPS- total segments, UPS- account common segments of groups and differences</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Conclusion

Congress tourism is important type of alternative tourism which creates positive impact in destination economy. Government of Kazakhstan and private sector should develop new national strategy for congress tourism in coopera-
tion with each other and establish national congress tourism bureau for promotion. Facility base needs in further development and supports. New promotional strategy should be launched according to gain the goals. Application of benchmarking will gain on importance in development and effort of achieving better competitiveness of a tourist destination.

References

Ausstellungen, Events, Kongresse, Tagungen, Incentives, Sponsoring. FaicCon Fachbuch, Mannheim.
Tourist Shopping Behaviour towards Malaysia as a Shopping Destination

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Abstract

Shopping is the core of consumption and retailing the emblem of a consumer society and also the oldest and most common activities associated with travel. Malaysia Mega Sale event is an annual tourism event whereby this study explores the inbound tourists shopping behaviour that include awareness, perception and preferences. A survey was conducted at 6 shopping complexes within Kuala Lumpur and the data was collected from 205 respondents using the convenient sampling method. To analyse the data, descriptive and exploratory analysis was used. The result of the study showed awareness, perceptions and preferences supports moderate positive coefficient of correlation value where those three variables have significant relationship between tourists’ intention to shop. Therefore, the outcome of the study will have a significant implication for tour operators, marketers and retailers to understand the needs of Malaysia inbound tourists’ intention towards shopping in Malaysia.

Key words: shopping, behavioural intentions, shopping tourism.
Introduction

Huyen and Hwang (2006) stated that shopping is one of the oldest and most important aspects of tourism and several researchers have concluded that for many visitors no trip is complete without having spent time shopping in shops, malls or at local markets. Yuksel and Yuksel (2007) mentioned that, shopping is one of the most pervasive leisure activities engaged in by tourists’ with significant economic, psychological and social benefits. While, Timothy (2005) mentioned that, shopping is motivated by a huge number of interests and desires, including people’s psychological needs or social desires, which to simply owning something unique or something they need.

In Malaysia, tourism industry has shown tremendous growth since the last decades and has become one of the popular tourist destinations in the region. According to the United Nations World Tourism Organization – UNWTO (2010) barometer, Malaysia has made it into the top 10 countries with the most tourist arrival for 2009. Malaysian Tourism Minister Dato’ Sri Dr Ng Yen Yen (The Star, May 2010) said the tourism industry was the second highest income-earner for the country. In this research, we want to study on the tourists’ intentions to purchase, which the study focuses on the awareness, perception and preferences of the tourists to go shopping during the Malaysia Mega Sale. A study done by Lin and Chen (2009), determine that tourists’ intention represent what they think they will purchase which are positively related to their awareness, perception, and preferences of value and willingness to buy. Researchers also proposed that tourists’ intention to purchase and repurchase revealed whether they are interested to buy the same product or brand again.

Literature Review

According to Edwards (2000) which was cited by Timothy (2005), consumption, leisure and tourism are words that derived from different centuries which symbolises on the differences throughout human world development through several years. It is a word transformation process that showed the changes from modernity into post modernity as it involves a social paradigm shift from production and work to consumption and leisure. The act of consuming specifically in leisure can be divided into two perspectives such as: (1) consuming tangible products by investing (e.g. eating and drinking) or by using in a physical way (e.g. buying new shoes and clothes), and (2) consuming utilize services or items that will not be physically expended which is also known as symbolic consumption (e.g. watching a movie, staying at a hotel). Therefore, the act of travel not only includes a physical consumption but also fall under the pur-
view of the second type of consumption (Dimanche & Samdahl, 1994; Edwards, 2000; Urry, 1995; Timothy, 2005).

**Shopping as Leisure and Tourism Consumption**

There are two different types of consumption: (1) leisure and tourism and (2) shopping and retailing. These two types of consumption are depending on each other where it encourages people to shop and purchase merchandise and services. Nowadays, shopping trends is not just an activity of consuming daily goods but it is already turn out to be an exciting moments as it known as a cultural event. Timothy (2005) found that Edwards (2000) had proposed five different assertions that support the claims such as: (1) the changing nature from daily goods consumption for everyday survival to as part of the free time activity, (2) major influences in creating the identity are shopping, consumption and materialism, (3) symbolic meanings of items have surpassed their utilitarian value (4) the process and experience of shopping are guided by a wide range of unconscious desires, wishes and dreams that may or may not be fulfilled, and (5) shopping is an exciting moments which creates image and value interpretation that is socially constructed. Therefore, shopping cannot be classified into a single, undifferentiated category because there are many forms of shopping as there are motivations to shop.

**Shopping Tourism**

According to Timothy (2005), tourism is an important form of leisure behaviour while shopping is an important leisure activity. Shopping significantly contributes to the economics of the tourism destination as non-basic consumption whereby the expenditures account of shopping approximately one third of total tourism spending and it greatly generates employment for the host community (Luo & Lu, 2010). Butler (1991) also has determined that there are two categories in defining the relationships between shopping and tourism. Firstly, it acts as the main reason for tourists to shop during their vacation and secondly, it had been considered as part of their activity that may encourage by other things rather than shopping (e.g. sunbathing, ecotourism). Therefore, shopping could be considered as an added value of the destination being visited as most of tourists’ consumption is on the wholesale items.

**Tourists’ Shopping Behaviour Intentions**

Researchers (George & Yaoyuneong, 2010), noted that venue closest to the consumer’s housing areas will be able to gain highest shopping value for their go-
ods. While through the study by Arnold and Reynolds, (2003); George and Yayouneong, (2010), observed that mostly all shoppers were influenced by the promotional efforts held by the retailers which in the end will leads to repurchased and revisit decision. It is known as the ‘shopping momentum’, whereby consumers do this without their conscious awareness. Therefore, from previous research, it could be identify that there are three motivating factors behind shopping that directly influencing the decision of tourists to involve with shopping tourism such as the awareness variable, perceptions and preferences variables.

**Awareness Variable**

*Promotional Tools*

According to Hsu et al (2010) media attractiveness such as radio, newspapers insertions, billboards and magazines is a part of the promotional tools used to cater awareness of tourists’ to encourage them to come again. The authors stated that the more promotions and advertising being done, the greater it could offer information to attract the tourists’ intention to purchase. Rajagopal (2011) stated with the introduction of new technologies it has encouraged shopping through the satellite, internet and cable radio. Online promotion technique such as internet will able to grasp the attention of tourists’ towards the related information given (Guo et al., 2009).

*Knowledge*

Hsu et al (2010) had examined that awareness is important towards creating tourists’ intention to purchase, thus helpful advertising, appearance and decoration, informative and good quality of brand products are part of promotional tools used to grab tourists’ aim to shop. In addition, the importance of word-of-mouth (WOM) for service firms has been well establish (Mangold & Miller, 1999) and Hutchinson, J. et al (2009) added that WOM can be positive and negative, marketers are more interested in promoting positive WOM, such as recommendations to others. Besides that, knowledge is an important factor for tourists’ to plan their shopping activity because there are variety of locations to shop which include retail stores, shopping arcades and shopping malls that have an opportunities to grasp tourists’ intention to come and shop (Al-Saleh & Hannam, 2010).
Perception Variable

Extrinsic Value

Merchandise

Tourists’ perception on the product quality will impact on the perceived value towards the merchandise and thus product perceptions later will determine the store image and directly influenced tourists’ decision to shop (Lloyd et al., 2011). Hsu et al (2010) noted that by having a strong merchandise mix which could provide tourists’ with a wider choice of products and services, it will enhance tourists’ intention to purchase and able to fulfil tourists’ need and want. Thus, the quality of the product, selection of wider choice of products and price tagging would be the most significant influences for tourists’ as they can evaluate the strong merchandise mix.

Prices

According to (Keown, 1989; Timothy, 2005), prices play an important role in generating and encouraging the development of shopping tourism. This is supported by the increasing numbers of tourists’ and consumers to a destination which offers cheaper prices compared to other similar places which offer higher prices. The one with lower prices plus with good services and quality will be popular than the others. However, lower prices and low service quality and services will discourage the tourists’ to the destination. On the other hand, Yang (2010) argued that even majority of the tourists’ would pay at a lower price but some tourists’ are able to pay higher price when an experience is added to the products or services as they find the offer are more relevant according to their needs.

Intrinsic Value

Demographic and Psychographic Characteristics

Demographic segments such as age, gender, occupation, education, monthly household income, family size and distance travelled have significant relationship with tourists’ intention to purchase (Prasad & Aryasri, 2011). According to Mokhlis and Salleh (2009), they had proved that demographic characteristics were used to segment tourists’ markets which include income, age, gender, marital status and so forth, as it is amongst the easiest way to measure, especially in tourists’ shopping activities. Indeed, various studies done in the past have provided considerable evidence that demographics characteristics of tou-
rists’ relate to their perceptions, attitudes, preferences and purchase decisions (Bakewell & Mitchell, 2006). Consequently, Murphy et al. (2011) noted that some tourists’ shopping behaviour may be driven by necessity, in which a need to buy gifts and a desire to extend the experience of the destination. Moreover, the researchers added that response like “something to do, wanted to buy something for other people, wanted a souvenir of the trip, like to shop or always shop on trips, lower prices or saves money, wanted to buy items unique from the destination and a different selection of stores to those at home” are the most common motives for shopping based on the psychographic characteristic (Guo et al., 2009; Murphy et al., 2011).

Personal needs

The study done by Timothy (2005) explained that the main reason people travel specifically to shop is related to the product available away from home, the price differentials in the destination compared to those at home, and image and environment of the destination. Tourists’ shopping behaviour was revealed and characterised as luxury (Guo et al., 2009) because they do not only like to purchase souvenirs (Dimanche, 2003) but also clothing, jewellery, books, arts and crafts, and trendy electronics or digital gadgets which are typically not in the specific list (Guo et al., 2009; Lehew & Wesley, 2006). The patterns of the study clearly showed that tourists buy a wide variety of product based on their needs and preferences. Al-Saleh and Hannam (2010) added that tourists’ normally will tried to find as much as they could to keep the souvenirs for themselves as a self- reward to boost a depressed mood and to appreciate themselves or for gift-giving to others.

Preferences Variable

Shopping Pattern

According to Fairhurst et al. (2007), they stressed out that the most influencing and convincing factor for tourists’ in choosing and deciding where to shop while travelling, is the word-of-mouth recommendation from family or friends. Moreover, many tourists’ preferred to shop based on high quality merchandise, excellent service, attractive packaging, social status and gift-giving because it shows a level of prestige and sophistication which represent social stature and good taste which assist the trip to a destination more enjoyable or valuable (Kim et al., 2011). Different cultural backgrounds in regards to the shopping behaviour of the tourists’ also be a sole reason in which it influence tourists’
preferences on what they want to purchase and for who they consider to purchase whether for themselves, for family or friends (Guo et al., 2009; Kim & Littrell, 2001).

Experiences
It have been identified that shopping for souvenirs is an important factor for tourists’ in which the souvenirs help the tourists’ to remember a certain time (memorable) and it also offers a tangible evidence of the travel experience during the holiday (Fairhurst et al., 2007). Yang (2010) determined that in some situation, shopping could create memorable and valuable consumption experiences for tourists’ and are able to improve their satisfaction and loyalty through their experiential journey. Study done by Timothy and Butler (1995) categorized that recreation, enjoyment and relaxation portray the tourists feelings after they have had an experience of shopping as the experience helped tourists’ escape from their daily routines.

Methodology
The intention of this study is to look at the relationship of the tourists’ behavioural intention towards Malaysia Mega Sale which includes awareness, perceptions and preferences. The researchers use a survey consisting of a self-administered questionnaire to reach many respondents and gives significant meaningful result (Babbie, 1995). Furthermore, descriptive research are able to identify the relationships between variables and provides clear specifications on who, what, where, when and why the research been conducted (Sekaran, 2003).

The instruments used for the study is the survey questionnaire as the primary data source and in-depth literature review on the topics related to the awareness, perceptions, preferences and the relations to tourists intention to shop. The questionnaire was developed for each categories based on the objectives of the study.

The unit of analysis for this research is individual in the major shopping complex that had been actively participating in the shopping carnival which have directly involved with the event. Among the popular shopping complexes are Sungai Wang Plaza, Bukit Bintang Plaza, Berjaya Times Square, Suria KLCC, Pavilion, Farenheit 88 and Lot 10. The tourists that attending the shopping carnival was used as the sampling frame for this study. The carnivals that
run three times yearly have the expected number of shopper more that 1 million and with estimated receipts of 16.2 billion.

The sample size to meet the requirement to carry the study is 381 based on Krejcie and Morgan decision model. Only 205 samples were collected from international tourists that shop in Kuala Lumpur area only. In addition, Gay and Airasian (2000) had mentioned the sample sizes of 30 respondents can produced correlation, causal-comparative and experimental research. However, the bigger sample is more likely to detect a difference between groups. The data collection was conducted for three months from August and continues in the month of November to early December 2011. The convenience sampling technique was used with reference to the element in population has a known and equal chance of being selected as a subject.

With regards to the instrument itself, the questionnaire comprises of five sections (section A). The Section B focused on the question related to the tourist awareness towards Malaysia Mega Sales. 12 items were probed from previous studies and categorised into knowledge and information gathered from promotional tools that related to the Malaysia Mega Sale campaign. The awareness was measured by 5 points Likert scale that indicated one (1) strongly disagree to five (5) indicating strongly agree. In Section C, the researchers have to identify the perceptions of the tourists towards shopping activities in Malaysia with extrinsic and intrinsic variables. In order to measure the perceptions of the international tourist towards shopping, the researchers pointed out 10 items generated from previous literature on the perceptions variables. Items in this section required respondents to indicate their level of perceptions on a 5 points liker scale ranging from one (1) with “strongly disagree” to five (5) with “strongly agree”. In the Section D of the questionnaire, the researchers focus on the tourist preferences and experiences towards shopping in Malaysia. Items in this section required respondents to choose their level of agreement from a five type likert scale from one (1) with “strongly disagree” to five (5) with “strongly agree” for experiences and for shopping pattern. In the final section, the researchers investigate the international tourists’ intention toward shopping activities in Malaysia. This section required respondents to indicate their level of agreement between the respondents and their intentions toward shopping in Malaysia from five (5) type Likert scales which ranging from one (1) with strongly disagree to five (5) with strongly agree.

The researchers distributed and monitored the questionnaires at different spot and different location for a period of 3 months. During this period (Au-
The arrivals of tourists were beginning to accrue as they come for the Malaysia Mega Sale event. Some of the questionnaires were disseminated at various places such as shopping complexes, Malaysia Tourist Information Centre (MATIC), and via e-mail to Tourism Malaysia Offices around the world such as Milan, United Arabs Emirates, Japan and China. All questions asked primarily concerning on the factors that contribute towards the developing of tourists’ intentions to shop.

Results

The results from 205 respondents, 67 respondents (32.7%) are from ASEAN countries followed by West Asia countries at about 40 respondents (20%), 36 respondents (17.5%) from Europe countries, continue with 30 respondents (14.6%) from East Asia countries, Americas countries which is 11 respondents (5.4%), Oceania and South Asia countries at about 10 respondents (4.9%) and 9 respondents (4.4%), lastly from Africa country which is 1 respondent (0.5%). Further, it shows that the travelling patterns in the tourism industry are still between regions due to the accessibility and other factors influencing such as the moderate currency exchange and lack of communication barrier towards a certain country which are probably the indicators for tourists’ to travel and involve with shopping activities.

Based on the highest rating in tourist awareness towards Malaysia Mega Sale were abundant shops are available (M=3.92). The highest score shows that most of the respondents agree that Malaysia offered abundant shops in selling variety of items. Respondents also agree that Malaysia is a good shopping destination. These results also supported the statistics data from Tourism Malaysia on Shopping that contributed 28.6% from the total receipts. The less favoured on awareness toward Malaysia Mega Sales is prior experiences. The probability that tourists have a good time and prior experiences did not affected their decision to do the shopping activities in Malaysia.

Apart from that, the researchers also asked the respondents on their level of awareness towards Malaysia Mega Sale and only 187 out of 205 respondents were aware on this campaign. 18 respondents were not aware on the campaign and were asked to proceed and answer the next section. The standard deviation for the awareness slightly high due to the element of zero data that related to the none or unaware of Malaysia Mega Sale campaign. The zero data affected the overall standard deviation for the awareness variable since 18 respondents unaware of the campaign.
The result shows that 22% respondents agreed that Indonesia is one of their favourite shopping destination followed by Singapore at 20.5%, Korea (26 respondents), Hong Kong (19 respondents), Dubai (15 respondents) and Thailand (9 respondents). However out of 205 questionnaires, 49 respondents did not respond and give their feedback on the countries that have a similar sales campaign as Malaysia.

The mean result shows the perceptions divided into two categories. The category for extrinsic (pull) variables are value for money (M=4.15) and the intrinsic (push) variables are the respondents able to get exposure to new products during the shopping trip (M=4.19). Consequently, the above data supported that the respondents perceptions toward shopping activities represent in the mix between extrinsic and intrinsic variables. The highest scores from intrinsic variables from the tourist are able to get new exposure to new products during the shopping trips followed by extrinsic variables on Malaysia is value for money destination. The data show extrinsic and intrinsic variables are important for respondents to express their perceptions towards shopping in Malaysia. These results show that respondent’s perceptions will influence them to participate in the shopping activities.

The questionnaires were divided into two categories comprises of their preferences in shopping pattern and their preferences based on previous experiences. The fifth highest mean in shopping pattern are arts, crafts and souvenirs (M=4.04) followed by cultural and history value (M=4.04). To added, in Hungary it is shows that the most popular purchased are cultural items, arts and crafts, glassware, and porcelains (Michalko & Timothy, 2002). The result significantly related to tourist preferences in identifying what are tourist preferred products, factor that may influence them to purchase and the decision that they make through the shopping activities.

On the other hand, the result for respondent preferences according to their experiences and the result in mean showed that respondents felt that they attained more value while shopping with attribute on shopping trip helped them to release pressure and stress (M=4.33) whereby this highest mean scores shows that shopping experience can be related to the study done by Al-Saleh and Hannam (2010) which stated that tourist’s normally will tried to find as much items as they could to keep the souvenirs for themselves as a self-reward to boost a depressed mood and to appreciate themselves or for gift-giving to others. The findings in mean showed that respondents felt that shopping are a
good activity for them to release their tension and stress since most respondents agreed to the statement that researchers asked them.

The highest means score resulted that majority of respondents agreed that shopping is important to them (M=4.15) followed by shopping is interesting (M=4.15) and shopping is appealing (M=4.15). Looking at the mean finding and the indicator it is proofed that respondents felt shopping can be considered as a ‘must’ activity while visiting other country. Respondent felt that shopping is significantly related to their activities and most respondent show that shopping is enjoyable and created fruitful experiences. This is one of the factors that will attract the tourist to repeat their visit.

Research Question 1 and Hypothesis 1

Research Question 1: Is there any relationship between tourists’ awareness level towards tourists’ intention to shop?

Ho: There is no relationship between tourists level of awareness towards tourist intention to shop.

H₁: There is a significant relationship between tourists level of awareness towards tourist intention to shop.

The result indicates that there is significant correlation between tourist intention and their awareness towards Malaysia Mega Sale which is significant at the 0.01 (sig. value = 0.000 < 0.05). The result supports moderate positive coefficient of correlation value, r = 0.419. The result shows that alternative hypothesis; H₁ is accepted at 95% confidence level that indicated the relation between tourist awareness towards Malaysia Mega Sale and their intentions to shop. It can conclude that there is moderate relationship between awareness towards Malaysia Mega Sale and tourists intentions to shop. Therefore we can accept H₁ as there is a relationship between tourist levels of awareness towards tourist intentions to shop.

Research Question 2 and Hypothesis 2

Research Question 2: Is there any relationship between tourists’ perceptions level towards tourists’ intention to shop?

Ho: There is no relationship between tourists level of perceptions towards tourist intention to shop.

H₁: There is a significant relationship between tourists level of perceptions towards tourist intention to shop.
The result indicates that there is a significant correlation between tourist perceptions towards intentions to shop during Malaysia Mega Sale which is significant at the 0.01 (sig. value = 0.000 < 0.05). The result supports moderate positive coefficient of correlation value, r = 0.500. The results shows that alternative hypothesis, H1 is accepted at 95% confidence level that indicated the relation between tourist perceptions towards Malaysia Mega Sale and their intentions to shop. It can conclude that there is a moderate relationship between perceptions towards Malaysia Mega Sale and tourists intentions to shop. Therefore we can accept H1 with there is a relationship between tourist levels of perceptions towards tourist intentions to shop.

Research Question 3 and Hypothesis 3

Research Question 3: Is there any relationship between tourists’ preferences level towards tourists’ intention to shop?

Ho: There is no relationship between tourists level of preferences towards tourist intention to shop.

H1: There is a significant relationship between tourists level of preferences towards tourist intention to shop.

The result indicates that there is strong significant correlation between tourist intention and their preferences towards Malaysia Mega Sale which is significant at the 0.01 (sig. value = 0.000 < 0.05). The result supports moderate positive coefficient of correlation value, r = 0.632. The result shows that alternative hypothesis; H1 is accepted at 95% confidence level that indicated the relation between tourist preferences towards Malaysia Mega Sale and their intentions to shop. It can conclude that there is a strong relationship between preferences towards Malaysia Mega Sale and tourists intentions to shop. Therefore we can accept H1 with there is a relationship between tourist levels of perceptions towards tourist intentions to shop during Malaysia Mega Sale.

Analysis of the Relationship between Tourist Awareness and Intentions towards Malaysia Mega Sale

H1: There is a relationship between tourists level of awareness towards tourist intention to shop.

Ho: There is no relationship between tourists level of awareness towards tourist intention to shop.
A linear regression was conducted to test the assumption of this study. The researchers have to evaluate whether there is a relationship between awareness and intention towards Malaysia Mega Sale. The statistical result can be explained as \((R^2 = 0.175, \text{ Adj. } R^2 = 0.171, F = 43.132, p = 0.000)\). The result shows the moderate significant relationship between awareness and intentions. Level of awareness \((\beta=0.419, P<0.05)\) shows a positive significant between awareness and tourists intention to shop. The results disclosed that 17.1 percents of the variance (R square) in awareness was significantly explained. The result shows that awareness are significantly influenced and associated with tourist intentions to shop since beta value represents unit contribution of awareness variables (Pallant, 2001). However in comparison with perceptions and preferences variables, the influences between awareness and intentions associated in moderate level. Based on the results, there is a significant relationship between awareness and tourist intentions to shop. The researchers reject the hypothesis null and accept the hypothesis alternative.

**Analysis of the Relationship between Tourist Perceptions and Intentions towards Malaysia Mega Sale**

**H1:** There is a relationship between tourists level of perceptions towards tourist intention to shop.

**Ho:** There is no relationship between tourists level of perceptions towards tourist intention to shop.

A linear regression was conducted to test the assumption of this study. Specifically, the researcher hope to evaluate whether there is a relationship between perceptions and tourist intentions to shop. The statistical result can be explained as \((R^2 = 0.250, \text{ Adj. } R^2 = 0.247, F = 67.761, p =0.000)\). The result shows the medium significant relationship between perceptions and intentions. Level of perceptions \((\beta=0.500, P<0.05)\) shows a positive significant between perceptions and tourists intention to shop. The result disclosed 24.7 percents of the variance (R square) in perceptions significantly explained. Based on the result, perceptions are significantly influenced and associated with intentions however the percentages relatively lower than preferences. The researchers concluded to reject the hypothesis null and accept the hypothesis alternative.
Analysis of the Relationship between Tourist Preferences and Intentions towards Malaysia Mega Sale

Hi: There is a relationship between tourists level of preferences towards tourist intention to shop.

Ho: There is no relationship between tourists level of preferences towards tourist intention to shop.

A single step regression was conducted to test the assumption of this study. Specifically, the researcher hope to evaluate whether there is a relationship between preferences and tourist intentions to shop. The statistical result can be explained as ($R^2 = 0.399$, Adj. $R^2 = 0.396$, $F = 134.93$, $p = 0.000$). The result shows the strong significant relationship between preferences and intentions. Level of preferences ($\beta = 0.632$, $P < 0.05$) shows a strong significant on tourists intention to shop. 39.60 percents of variance (R Square) are calculated in show the significant with the dependent variable i.e: intentions. Preferences are strongly significantly influenced and associated with intentions compared to awareness and perceptions. Based on the result, there is a significant relationship between preferences and tourist intentions to shop. The researchers accept the hypothesis alternative. Furthermore, the findings that related to preferences based experiences done by Timothy and Butler (1995) categorized that recreation, enjoyment and relaxation portray the tourists feelings after they have had an experience of shopping as the experience helped tourists’ escape from their daily routines.

Conclusion

As a conclusion, it is hoped that the information given from this study will facilitate the government agencies, marketers’ and retailers’ to have better understanding and could identified the tourists’ behavioural intentions towards Malaysia Mega Sale. Therefore, they can position themselves to stand in line with the advance of information technology. In fact, a better understanding of the tourists’ behavioural intentions includes awareness, perceptions and preferences levels in which, it also provide marketers and retailers with valuable information so that they can be more sensitive and effective in improving their products and services. Finally, by studying tourists’ behavioural intentions towards shopping that were identified from the previous research will help to determine and compared either it is applicable, reliable and valid or not to the Malaysia Mega Sales. On the other hand, for organization which directly involved in promoting Malaysia such as Tourism Malaysia, the findings is im-
important for them to identify viable market segments, develop strategies and to create better promotional programs to attract internationally and also domestically tourists’.

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Finnish Hunters’ Push Motivations - Similarities and Differences When Hunting in Local and Non-local Hunting Grounds

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Abstract
This paper concentrates on hunting tourism, which is defined as a consumptive form of wildlife tourism. The aim is to examine the similarities and differences in hunters’ motivations when they hunt on their usual, local hunting grounds and when they have traveled to another location as a hunting tourist. Data for this study was collected during September-November 2011 via web survey. Finnish hunters evaluated the importance of 32 selected motivational variables on a 5-point Likert scale. The same variables were used for inquiries on local and non-local hunting. Statistically significant difference between these two forms of hunting is examined by utilizing paired-samples T-test. Understanding motivational factors of hunting tourism could help the future development of hunting tourism service products.

Key words: hunting tourism, sport tourism, motivation.

Introduction
Hunting tourism and its possibilities for tourism development in rural areas have received more attention in Finland during recent years (Keskinarkaus & Matilainen, 2010; Nygård & Uthardt, 2011). In increasing numbers, contemporary hunters live in urban areas and have to travel longer distance to participate and to perform their hunting activities (Nygård & Uthardt, 2011). This change is one of the reasons for increased demand for commercial hunting services (Keskinarkaus & Matilainen, 2010; Rutanen, Matilainen, Muuttola & Tittonen, 2007).

From an evolutionary perspective hunting has been for centuries essential for feeding nutritional needs. However, in developed countries, hunting is contemporarily mainly a recreational activity, which can give a moment of excitement, pride in one’s skill and the feeling of achievement. Hunting tourism can be seen as hunting where the hunter travels outside of his own hunting area or
his place of residence to hunt. (Rutanen et al., 2007; Nygård & Uthardt, 2011). Since two most widely recognized uses of African wildlife resources are tourism and hunting (Baker 1997b), it is understandable that most of the research related to hunting tourism comes from the African continent (e.g. Baker, 1997a,b; Whitman et al., 2004; Kaltenborn, Nyahongo & Tingstad, 2005; Lindsey, Roulet & Romañach, 2007; McGranaham, 2011). Topics vary from impacts of trophy hunting to finding sustainable solutions for maintaining and supporting hunting tourism. Willebrand (2009), Nygård and Uthardt (2011) have studied local hunters’ opinions and attitudes towards hunting tourism in Sweden and Finland, but still vital elements of hunting tourism experience remain broadly unstudied. Knowledge on hunting tourists’ expectations, motivations and evaluations on service attributes may help hunting tourism service providers to differentiate and develop their services. This study concentrates on finding out what items and factors are motivating and “pushing” Finnish hunters to perform their regular hunting, and which factors inspire them to participate on a hunting trip.

**Literature Review**

Wide range of activities can be seen as wildlife tourism, such as going on a wildlife safari in Africa, whale watching from a boat, bird-watching either independently or with a commercial guide, visiting a zoo, big game fishing and trophy hunting. Simply put, wildlife tourism is based on encounters with non-domesticated (non-human) animals, and these encounters can take place in animals’ natural habitat or in captivity (Higginbottom, 2004). A conceptual framework for wildlife tourism by Duffus and Dearden (1990) focused on three dimensions of wildlife-human interaction. These include hunting and fishing (consumptive use), zoos and aquaria (low-consumptive) and wildlife observation and photography (non-consumptive). However, currently wildlife tourism activities are usually classified only in two categories, non-consumptive and consumptive, outlining the term “low-consumptive”. Non-consumptive activities consist of events such as viewing, photographing and feeding the animal. Consumptive wildlife tourism activities involve killing or removing the animal from its natural environment, or having any parts of its body utilized (Freese, 1998). Both categories form parts of a continuum in which there is often some overlapping (Newsome, Dowling & Moore, 2005, p. 6). Consumptive wildlife tourism is seen as a niche product and has received little attention from researchers (Lovelock, 2008).
Floyd and Gramann (1997) categorized hunters based on the psychological experiences desired from their hunting participation: *outdoor enthusiast, high-challenge harvester, low-challenge harvester, and non-harvester*. The outdoor enthusiasts were those who “stressed nature enjoyment and seeing animals as important hunting experiences”, whereas the non-harvesters were primarily interested in “getting away”, enjoying nature, and placed a little importance on harvesting. On the contrary, the experiences most sought by the high-challenge harvesters were associated with challenge, risk and skill development, and for the low-challenge harvester, nature enjoyment, fitness, excitement, seeing animals in their natural habitat were the most desired experiences (Floyd & Gramann, 1997). Floyd and Gramann (1997) also found that hunter segments with different patterns of desired experiences differ on setting preferences. They used 30 experience-preference items with cluster analysis that produced eight experience clusters, such as nature enjoyment, performance-oriented harvest, social interaction, challenge & risk, change of routine, fitness-excitement, equipment & skill testing and trophy harvest. For example, the high-challenge harvesters who were interested in shooting big game animals, preferred hunting in undeveloped, remote settings which were exclusive to them as these settings maximized their chance of obtaining the outcome they desired, shooting game as well as preserving the challenge of the hunt. Floyd and Gramann (1997) suggest that in addition to the need to identify types of wildlife tourists as defined by their desired social and psychological experiences, linking these desired experiences to setting preferences provides a useful tool in marketing hunting possibilities (Newsome, Dowling & Moore, 2005, p. 104). Hayslette, Armstrong and Mirarchi (2001) studied motivations and satisfactions related mourning dove hunting in Alabama. Study results indicated that most Alabama hunters seemed to be motivated by multiple, primarily nonsuccess-based satisfactions like companionship, nature/aesthetics, exercise, challenge, tradition, escape, and knowledge. Radder (2005) reported findings on international trophy hunters’ motives. She distinguished motivating factors as spiritual, emotional, intellectual, self-directed, biological and social needs.

According to Baloglu and Uysal (1996), most discussions in the tourist motivation literature are related to the concept of “push” and “pull” factors. This concept is based on a theory that people travel because they are pushed and pulled by “forces” to do so. The “forces” describe how individuals are “pushed” by motivational variables into making a travel decision and how the destination area is “pulling” the individual. Traditionally, it has been thought that the push motivations explain the desire for travel and the pull motivations
explain the actual destination choice (Crompton, 1979). Push-Pull framework presented by Dann (1977) and further developed by Crompton (1979) is a commonly used framework in motivational tourism studies. Push factors are seen as relating to the needs and wants of the tourist that lead to the decision of traveling, and pull factors have been characterized in terms of the features, attractions or attributes of the destination that draw people to choose that destination (Klenosky, 2002).

**Methodology**

This study takes an exploratory approach and aims to bring new information on hunting tourism related motivations. In this study, hunting tourism is defined as hunting activity in which the hunter travels outside of his own hunting area or his place of residence to hunt (Rutanen, Matilainen, Muuttol & Titoonen, 2007; Nygård & Uthardt, 2011). This view was also confirmed in interviews conducted prior to this study. Interviews revealed that hunters did not commonly consider their regular hunting activity as hunting tourism even if the hunting grounds that they regularly hunted on, located at a lengthy distance that required an overnight stay at the destination.

Data for this study was collected during September-November 2011 with a web survey. Announcements about the survey were placed in the websites of Suomen Riistakeskus (Finnish Game Management Center), Suomen Metsästäjäliitto (Finnish Hunters’ Association) and in an official hunting magazine of Finnish Game Management Center, ‘Metsästäjälehti’. Also an invitation was sent via email to approximately 450 registered hunting clubs or hunting parties. By the end of November 2011, 557 respondents had taken part of the survey. 467 respondents answered that they had been on a hunting trip that required an overnight stay outside their regular hunting grounds, and are therefore considered as hunting tourists in this study. These respondents are considered as focus group and are used in the analysis.

Respondents were asked to evaluate 32 variables on a Likert 5-point scale. Firstly, respondents evaluated why do they hunt, and secondly, why do they go on a hunting trip outside their regular hunting grounds. The variables used in this study are based on the conducted preliminary interviews and earlier hunter motivation and preferences studies. (Floyd & Gramann, 1997; Hayslette, Armstrong & Mirarchi, 2001; Radder, 2005; Radder & Bech-Larsen, 2008). These variables are seen as “push” forces described in push-pull framework (Dann, 1977; Crompton, 1979). The same variables were used for measuring importance for the regular hunting and for the hunting trip. Results are displayed
in mean values for each variable. The mean values are compared with a paired samples t-test between cases of regular hunting and hunting trip motivations.

Results

Table 1 contains background information about respondents. Most of the respondents were males (90.4%). 9.6% were females. 11% were under 30 years old, 25% were 30-39 years old, 27% were 40-29 years old, 24% were 50-59 and 13% over 60 years old. Most common types of education in the sample were upper secondary education (29.6%), polytechnic/institute-level education (21.4%), university education (21%) and vocational (19.9%). 8% of respondents had primary level education. Most of the respondents live in a relationship and have children (64.9%), 23.3% are in a relationship but do not have children. 11% of respondents announced their life stage to be single. Majority of respondents have started hunting under the age of 18 (63.2%), and most respondents have been on a hunting trip in Finland (86.3%). Most common destinations for hunting trips outside Finland are Estonia (31.7%) and Sweden (26.1%).

Table 1. Background information about respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Been On A Hunting Trip In …</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
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<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>422</td>
<td>90.4%</td>
<td>Estonia</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>31.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Under 30 years old</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>10.9%</td>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>6.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-39</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>25.1%</td>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-49</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>26.8%</td>
<td>Africa</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>7.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50-59</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>24.2%</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60 years and over</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>13.1%</td>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>8.1%</td>
<td>Elsewhere</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>10.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upper secondary education</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>29.6%</td>
<td>Started hunting</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocational education</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>19.9%</td>
<td>Under 18 years old</td>
<td>295</td>
<td>63.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Polytechnic/institute-level education</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>21.4%</td>
<td>At age 18-30</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>19.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic education</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>21.0%</td>
<td>At age 31-50</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>11.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Life stage</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>11.3%</td>
<td>Over 50 years old</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>5.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In a relationship, no children</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>23.3%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In a relationship, children</td>
<td>303</td>
<td>64.9%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single parent</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.4%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gross income</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In Table 2 shows all used variables with their mean values for regular hunting and for hunting trip. Also the absolute value of mean difference (M1-M2) is displayed with values of statistical significance (Sig.). In mean values, the scale goes from one to five, where 1 indicates opinion ‘not important at all’ and 5 is ‘very important’. The same scale is used in Tables 3 and 4.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VARIABLE</th>
<th>Regular hunting</th>
<th>Hunting trip</th>
<th>Difference</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. To escape from everyday routines</td>
<td>4.37</td>
<td>4.41</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>.384</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. To relax</td>
<td>4.46</td>
<td>4.39</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>.044</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. To be together with hunting compan</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. To be alone</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>2.38</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. To catch prey</td>
<td>2.78</td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. To be together with family</td>
<td>2.38</td>
<td>2.18</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. To shoot</td>
<td>2.35</td>
<td>2.60</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. To enjoy nature</td>
<td>4.55</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. To keep physically fit</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>0.46</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. To enjoy challenges of hunting</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>4.13</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>.075</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. To experience the excitement of a</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>.393</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. To have fun</td>
<td>3.09</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. To challenge myself and my skills</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>.009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. To acquire meat from prey</td>
<td>2.98</td>
<td>2.66</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. To teach hunting skills to others</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>2.64</td>
<td>0.40</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. To improve my woodmen/hunter skills</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>.951</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
17. To acquire hunting trophies & 1.91 & 2.18 & 0.27 & .000  
18. To uphold family hunting tradition & 2.72 & 2.38 & 0.34 & .000  
19. To learn from nature & 4.04 & 3.92 & 0.12 & .004  
20. To learn new hunting forms & 3.31 & 3.79 & 0.48 & .000  
21. To meet new people & 2.98 & 3.35 & 0.37 & .000  
22. To regulate animal populations & 3.03 & 2.46 & 0.57 & .000  
23. To improve my shooting skill & 3.01 & 2.75 & 0.26 & .000  
24. To improve my hunting skills & 3.91 & 3.91 & 0.00 & .801  
25. To enjoy the beauty of nature & 4.32 & 4.37 & 0.05 & .158  
26. To learn animal behavior models & 3.98 & 3.97 & 0.01 & .846  
27. To have a chance to use one’s hunting equipment & 3.59 & 3.43 & 0.16 & .000  
28. To be away from family & 2.19 & 2.27 & 0.08 & .076  
29. To see animals in their natural habitat & 3.99 & 4.05 & 0.06 & .064  
30. To hunt with a dog & 4.12 & 3.74 & 0.38 & .000  
31. To experience new sceneries & 3.87 & 4.41 & 0.54 & .000  
32. To experience new landscapes & 3.84 & 4.39 & 0.55 & .000  

1 = Not important at all … 5 = Very important

Table 3. Mean values and mean value differences of variables that are considered important (M > 3.5)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Regular hunting</th>
<th>Hunting trip</th>
<th>Diff.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean Value (1)</td>
<td>Mean Value (2)</td>
<td>M1-M2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. To escape from everyday routines</td>
<td>4.37</td>
<td><strong>4.41</strong></td>
<td>0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. To relax</td>
<td><strong>4.46</strong></td>
<td>4.39</td>
<td>0.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. To be together with hunting companions</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td><strong>4.09</strong></td>
<td>0.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. To enjoy nature</td>
<td><strong>4.55</strong></td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>0.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. To enjoy challenges of hunting</td>
<td><strong>4.20</strong></td>
<td>4.13</td>
<td>0.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. To experience the excitement of a hunt</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td><strong>4.07</strong></td>
<td>0.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. To challenge myself and my skills</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td><strong>3.85</strong></td>
<td>0.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. To improve my woodsmen/hunter skills</td>
<td><strong>3.82</strong></td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. To learn from nature</td>
<td><strong>4.04</strong></td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>0.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. To improve my hunting skills</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td><strong>3.91</strong></td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
25. To enjoy the beauty of nature 4.32 4.37 0.05
26. To learn animal behavior models 3.98 3.97 0.01
29. To see animals in their natural habitat 3.99 4.05 0.06
30. To hunt with a dog 4.12 3.74 0.38
31. To experience new sceneries 3.87 4.41 0.54
32. To experience new landscapes 3.84 4.39 0.55

Table 3 shows the similarities and contains only the variables which were considered important for regular hunting and for a hunting trip. Especially important for both types of hunting were escaping from everyday routines, relaxation, enjoying nature and its beauty, seeing animals in their natural habitat and learning about their behavior models. Even when relaxation and escaping from routines are considered important, hunters want to enjoy the challenges and excitement of hunting and also improve their woodsmen and hunting skills. Hunting with a dog is also seen important.

Table 4. The variables’ importance in mean values with statistically significant difference between regular hunting and hunting trip (sorted by mean difference)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables more important in regular hunting</th>
<th>Regular Hunting Mean Value (1)</th>
<th>Hunting Trip Mean Value (2)</th>
<th>M1-M2</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4. To be alone</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>2.38</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. To regulate animal populations</td>
<td>3.03</td>
<td>2.46</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. To keep physically fit</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>0.46</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. To teach hunting skills to others</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>2.64</td>
<td>0.40</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. To hunt with a dog</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>0.38</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. To uphold family hunting tradition</td>
<td>2.72</td>
<td>2.38</td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. To acquire meat from prey</td>
<td>2.98</td>
<td>2.66</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. To improve my shooting skill</td>
<td>3.01</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. To enjoy nature</td>
<td>4.55</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. To be together with family</td>
<td>2.38</td>
<td>2.18</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. To have a possibility to use one’s hunting equipment</td>
<td>3.59</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. To learn from nature</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>.004</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Variables more important on hunting trip

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>32. To experience new landscapes</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td>4.39</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31. To experience new sceneries</td>
<td>3.87</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>4.41</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. To learn new hunting methods</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. To meet new people</td>
<td>2.98</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. To be together with hunting companions</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. To catch prey</td>
<td>2.78</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. To acquire hunting trophies</td>
<td>1.91</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>2.18</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. To shoot</td>
<td>2.35</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>2.60</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. To have fun</td>
<td>3.09</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. To challenge myself and my skills</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 = Not important at all … 5 = Very important

In Table 4, the variables with statistically significant difference (confidence level of 95%) are presented in order of mean difference. Not all variables in this table are considered important by respondents, but the table provides the observations about difference in opinions when comparing variables’ importance between regular hunting and a hunting trip. For instance, the new landscapes and new sceneries are considered more important in a hunting trip. Also being together with hunting companies, meeting new people and having fun are somewhat important. On a regular hunt, a Finnish hunter is more willing to be alone, enjoy nature and hunt with his/hers dog.

Conclusion

The aim of this paper is to provide new information on Finnish hunters’ motivations related to their regular hunting activity and hunting trips. For developing hunting tourism services, information is needed on what motivates hunters to travel outside their regular, local hunting grounds. Based on the information gathered in this study, it seems that compared with their regular hunting activity, Finnish hunters are more likely willing to take part on a hunting trip to experience new landscapes and sceneries, and for social reasons (e.g. hunt with friends, meet new people). Some of the specific hunting activity related variables, such as catching prey, acquiring game meat, acquiring hunting trophies or shooting were considered not very important for regular hunting or for hunting trip. Floyd’s and Gramann’s (1997) study describes similar observations in
a group called *nonharvesters*. The importance of nature, animal observations and the change of routines is more emphasized instead of the traits of hunting activity itself.

As the results of this study are presented mostly on descriptive level in an explorative manner, further analysis utilizing quantitative and multivariate methods (e.g. principal component analysis) could assist to gain more insight on the connections of used variables and distinguish the possible underlying motives. Also gathering data with these same variables from other hunting cultures for comparison would presumably point out culture specific characteristics, preferences and motivations.

**Acknowledgement**

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**References**


The Impact of Effective Employee Performance Appraisal System (EEPAS) On Quality of Customer Service in Hotel Operations

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ABSTRACT

Today, the delivery of quality service is one of the major challenges facing hospitality managers. It is an essential element for success in the emerging and competitive global hospitality markets. Employees are a key element in this process as they represent the core of communication with hotel customers. This study tends to investigate one of the tools that can be used to attain high quality of customer service, in particular, Employee Performance Appraisal System (EPAS). The investigation evaluates the impact of designing an EPAS on the quality of customer service. A dual survey of both management and employees has been undertaken in 40 five-star hotels in Egypt. The outcome of this research provided evidence on the significance and positive impact of EPAS on the quality of customer service. Furthermore, it identified the gap between the current EPAS and a more credible prospective one and the discrepancy between managers’ and employees’ perception.

Key words: performance appraisal system, quality of customer service, effective appraisal dimensions.

Introduction

Frontline employees in the hospitality industry play a key role in delivering the service product. Excellent service provided by employees can create lasting positive experiences for customers (Petcharak, 2002). Excellence in service quality is a mandate to achieve customer loyalty and retention which is the primary goal of hospitality business organizations (Ehigie, 2006). As a result of today’s severe competition, sustainable competitive advantage lies in delivering high quality services that will in turn bring about profitable and satisfied customers (Shemwell, Yavas & Bilgin, 1998). Therefore, there is no doubt as regards the significance of service quality as the ultimate goal of service providers
throughout the world (Sureshchander, Rajendran & Anantharaman, 2002). Success of a service provider depends on the high quality relationship with customers (Panda, 2003). Zeithaml, Bitner and Gremler (2006: 350) validate that the people factor in services is a very important element in the evaluation of the quality of that particular service. Employees represent the mirror of the organization and the interface between the organization and the customer. They represent what the customers see and practice in their evaluation of the service experience. Sureshchander et al. (2002) describe service quality as the degree of discrepancy between the customers’ normative expectations of the service and their perceptions of the service performance.

Human resource is the most critical resource for any organization in today’s highly competitive business environment. The primary task of any manager is to have an organization that functions effectively by its frontline personnel. To do so, employees must work efficiently and produce results that are beneficial to the organization (Cinar, Bektas, & Aslan, 2011). In the same vein, satisfied employees create satisfied customers and vice versa (Zeithaml et al., 2006). Furthermore, employees are important for organizations to realize effective performance as they represent the organization in the customer’s eyes, the brand, as well as being the internal marketers.

One of the tools that has been widely used by management to enhance frontline employees effective performance is the use of employee performance appraisal system (Longenecker & Goff, 1992). The assumption appears to be that an effectively designed, implemented, and administered performance appraisal system can provide the organization, the manager, and the employee with a plethora of benefits e.g., clarifies job duties, performance expectations and goals (Coens, Jenkins, & Block, 2000; Dedileux & Shrm, 2003; Kirkpatrick, 2006).

**Literature Review**

Performance appraisal (PA) is the process by which an employee’s contribution to the organization during a specified period of time is assessed (Fisher, Shaw, & Schoenfeldt, 1999). It is an important basis for corporate personnel decisions and an important aspect in human resources management. It is also a significant part of the control process in administration (KavussiShal, 1999). Whilst it evaluates the quality of employee performance, it influences either the success or the failure of the organization (Kumbhar, 2011). Thus, EPAS is one of the greatest accountabilities of contemporary management (Jabeen, 2011).
Accordingly, Nelson (2000) suggests that appropriate design of EPAS can give a competitive advantage to the organization. EPAS has been considered a key element in the organizational success (Rasch, 2004). In contrast, ineffective performance appraisal may promote the feelings of unfairness and consequently a higher employee turnover. It may also be considered as a source of considerable dissatisfaction for both managers and employees (Jabeen, 2011).

Literature review of the topic has revealed four key dimensions that are considered essential to a successful and effective appraisal system. These dimensions are addressed in the following section along with the relationship between EPAS and the quality of customer service.

**Clarifications of performance expectations**

The ambiguity of performance criteria in a new environment can cause problems for a new employee. Employees are not always told how the organization will evaluate them (Martin and Batrol, 1986). Further, Martin and Batrol (1989) indicated that participation of the person being evaluated in the performance appraisal process (goal setting and appraisal criteria) is a very important element in clarifying what is expected to be accomplished and when it should be accomplished. It also allows the employee to plan how the required goals will be accomplished (Martin and Batrol, 1985).

**Multi-source evaluation (The 360 degree feedback)**

In 360 degree feedback, the assessment process turns upside down as the employee is rated from multiple relevant associates such as peers, subordinates, customers, the employee himself as well as supervisors (Greguras, Ford, and Brutus, 2003; Penny, 2003; Pilbeam and Corbridge, 2006; Scott, 2004; Shrestha, 2007). The collective information from multi-raters gives the employee a clear understanding of his personal strengths and is used to help promote his development and progress (France, 2001).

**Organizational justice**

Cropanzano, Bowen and Gilliland (2007) concluded that the organizational justice is a personal evaluation from the employee about the ethical and moral standing of managerial conduct of his organization. Accordingly, producing the organizational justice requires management to consider the perspective of an employee to understand the sorts of events that influence the subjective feeling of the organizational justice. Cropanzano et al. (2007) designated three types of organizational justice which are procedural justice, distributive justice
and interactional justice. These types mainly refer to the perceived fairness of the relationship between the organization and the employee within the context of the performance appraisal process (Holbrook, 2002).

**The frequency of rating**

The EPAS can be extremely effective when there is ongoing formal and informal performance feedback rather than providing formal feedback once a year (Martin and Batrol, 2003). Providing employee with feedback has maximum impact when it is given as close as possible to the action. In the same vein, Hollenbeck (2003) established that feedback is required to be given frequently due two reasons; firstly, managers have to correct any deficiencies immediately. Secondly, the subordinates should not be surprised by the evaluation.

**Performance appraisal and quality of customer service**

Contemporary EPAS is employed to act as a powerful means of managerial control (Longenecker, 1997). EPAS is a process which involves creating work standards; evaluate employee’s actual performance relative to those work standards set by the organization; and giving feedback to employee so as to motivate him or her to improve the job performance or to eliminate performance deficiency (Dessler, 2000). In general, human resource management practices affect the total quality of the service provided as they have a significant impact on employee and customer satisfaction by affecting employees' quality awareness (Caliskan, 2010; Ching-Chow, 2006).

EPAS is a good instrument to improve the quality and quantity of the manpower's performance (KavussiShal, 1999). It identifies the employees' talents and capacities and advises them of new means, plans and goals to develop performance (Najafi, Hamidi, Vatankhah & Purnajaf, 2010). Thus, EPAS can give a competitive advantage to many organizations by providing accurate assessments of employee productivity and quality of work as well as motivating employees to higher levels of performance via helpful feedback (Jabeen, 2011). Consequently, employers should adapt good reward and performance appraisal practices to improve service quality since these practices have an impact on employees’ organizational behaviors (Babaei, Ahmad and Idris, 2012). Furthermore, Soltani, Van dermeer, Williams and Lai (2006) suggested a criteria as vital to any quality-driven performance system addressing joint issues relevant to performance appraisal and quality of service. The criteria include involving all employees in the identification of the appraisal system and approaching performance evaluation as a quality management effort with a customer focus.
Jawahar (2006) conducted a study that investigated the potential consequences of customer satisfaction with the appraisal system. He found that when performance appraisal system is satisfactory, all will benefit; employees, raters and the organization. These benefits will be reflected in job satisfaction, lower turnover intentions, more commitment and influence of future performance and therefore enhance the quality of service.

**Methodology**

The primary objective of this research was to measure the extent of applying the four dimensions of effective EPAS (clarification of performance expectations, using multi-source evaluation, organizational justice and frequency of rating), and to identify the discrepancy between managers’ and employees’ perception of the application of these dimensions. A dual survey was circulated in five-star hotels in Egypt. One of which was addressed to employees and the other to management.

A random sample of 40 five-star hotels was defined, representing 30 percent of the 133 five-star hotels population in Egypt. Three copies of employees' questionnaire were distributed in each hotel among employees counting for a total number of 120 participants. The other survey was distributed to Front Office Managers counting for a total of 40 participants.

The first section of both questionnaires gathered some profile data about the participants such as the professional title, age, gender, the educational level, and number of working years in the hotel. The second section of the questionnaire involved a pool of 27 items designed to assess the significance and measure the extent to which the application of the four dimensions of EPAS outlined earlier in the literature review are applied. Each of the questionnaires’ questions employed a 3 ranking Likert-scale.

The second questionnaire addressed the 12 items of performance appraisal practices with the objective of measuring the extent to which these items affect the quality of customer service provided by frontline personnel. A three-Likert scale ranking was also used.

**Results**

The data for the entire study were input into the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) 17.0 program for Windows to interpret results. Descriptive statistics were generated for the variables of interest, and a second reliability analysis of the instruments was conducted to ensure that the items properly repre-
sent each dimension. The two research questions were examined through various data analysis procedures and are individually discussed in further detail as outlined later.

The demographic profile of respondents is shown in Table 1 which reflects the composition of the participating sample.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1. Managers and employees’ profile</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Educational level</th>
<th>No. of working years in the hotel%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Managers</td>
<td>Employees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary school</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher education</td>
<td>95.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>4.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The first question in this research investigated the effectiveness of EPAS based on the extent of considering four dimensions in the application process and whether that application varies among those different dimensions. In general, results in table 2 revealed that most employees and managers acknowledged the application of these dimensions.

In regard to the first dimension, an average of (47.4%) of employees perceived its application in the EPAS while (29.4%) were neutral in their perception and the rest (23.2%) did not perceive that application at all. The most practice that was renowned as the most applied practice was (A4) "Supervisor gives me a chance to question how I should meet job duties", It recorded the highest score (57.5%) and in contrast the practice (A2) "Supervisor explains to me the standards that are used to evaluate my performance" recorded the lowest score (38.3%). On the other hand and from the managers’ opinion, it was noted that the majority of managers (75%) claimed the application of practice (A4) and only (12.5%) emphasized that it is not considered in application. Practice (A1) "Supervisor explains what he/she expects for my performance", recorded the
highest score (92.5%) while practice (A2) "Supervisor explains to me the standards that are used to evaluate my performance" recorded the lowest score (42.5%).

Table 2. The frequency of occurrence and degree of applying an effective EPAS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimensions of effective EPAS</th>
<th>To what extent the four dimensions are applied in the hotel</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Employees' perception</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Not applied</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Applied</td>
<td>Not applied</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Applied</td>
<td>Not applied</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Applied</td>
<td>Not applied</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Applied</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(A) Clarification of expectations</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>19.2</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>50.8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>92.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Supervisor explains what he/she expects for my performance.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Supervisor explains the standards that are used to evaluate my performance.</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>35.0</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>26.7</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>38.3</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>37.5</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>42.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I get the information I need to do my job well.</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>15.0</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>34.2</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>50.8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>80.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Supervisor gives me a chance to question how I should meet job duties.</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>32.5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>75.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Performance planning sessions are provided to help better understand the supervisor's expectations for my performance.</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>34.3</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>26.3</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>39.4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>15.0</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>80.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>23.2</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>29.4</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>47.4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>38.5</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>74.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(B) Multi-raters</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. My performance is evaluated by many raters.</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>9.2</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>44.2</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>46.6</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>22.5</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>35.0</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>42.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Each staff member related with my performance participates in the rating process.</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>55.0</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>30.8</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>14.2</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>67.5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Multi-raters evaluate my performance for the purpose of employee development.</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>29.2</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>30.8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>45.9</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>35.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Multi-raters may evaluate my performance for some administrative purposes.</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>28.3</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>43.4</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>29.3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>47.5</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>42.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>30.4</td>
<td>47.5</td>
<td>39.6</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>35.9</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>35.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(C) The organizational justice</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Procedural justice</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Procedures that are used to evaluate me are fair.</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>45.9</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>48.1</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>22.5</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>47.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. My supervisor takes into account factors beyond my control.</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>16.3</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>47.3</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>36.4</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>27.5</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>32.5</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I am allowed to express my own views about performance during the appraisal process.</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>24.2</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>48.5</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>27.3</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>30.8</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>32.5</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>37.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I can challenge my performance rating if it seems unfair.</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>27.3</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>39.4</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>35.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Rating of my performance can be changed if it is incorrect or unfair.</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>41.4</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>36.4</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>22.2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>92.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Adequate information is provided to supervisor when he/she is going to evaluate me.</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>35.8</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>47.5</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>22.5</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>45.0</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>32.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Performance appraisal criteria may include some elements that are not originally related to my performance.</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>34.3</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>37.4</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>28.3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>97.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The second dimension which is "using multi-raters" was perceived to be applied by (30%) of the participants and (35%) of managers while (30.4%) from employees and (30%) of managers did not perceive its application. It was apparent that the practice (B1) "My performance is rated by many raters" recorded the highest score of both managers and employees with (42.5%) and (46.6%)
respectively. Practice (B2) "Each staff member related with my performance participates in the rating process" recorded the lowest scores (20%) and (14.2%) as regards to both managers and employees respectively.

Table 2. The frequency of occurrence and degree of applying an effective EPAS (Continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimensions of effective EPAS</th>
<th>Employees' perception</th>
<th>Managers' perception</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Applied</td>
<td>Not applied</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Distributive justice</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. My final rating reflects how much effort I do.</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. There is no bias or favorite in evaluating performance.</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. My final rating is justified by the supervisor.</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Interactional justice</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. I am dealt with respect during the performance appraisal session.</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Supervisor allows a range of communication with me during the appraisal session.</td>
<td>15.0</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Supervisor holds a special meeting for evaluating performance.</td>
<td>39.4</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Supervisor shares the relevant information about my performance with me.</td>
<td>17.2</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Average</strong></td>
<td>27</td>
<td>22.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>(D) Frequency of rating</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Supervisor frequently let me know how I am doing.</td>
<td>53.5</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Supervisor evaluates my performance on annual basis.</td>
<td>47.5</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Supervisor reviews my performance at least every three months even in informal rating session.</td>
<td>43.4</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Supervisor provides me with a report related to my performance.</td>
<td>29.3</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Average</strong></td>
<td>52</td>
<td>43.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

F.* refers to the frequency of occurrence

The third dimension which is "the organizational justice" was divided into three categories; procedural justice, distributive justice and interactional justice. While (38.6%) of employees agreed that it is implemented, (22.1%) of employees gave negative reply. It was interesting to notice that interactional justice was more perceived than other types of organizational justice with an average of (44.8%) of employees while the distributive justice was the most emphasized by managers to apply with an average of (63.3%).

The fourth dimension which is "the frequency of rating" was perceived with low percentage of employees with an average (28%), while an average (43.4%) did not perceive its application in work place and (28.6%) was neutral about its
application. This result is dissimilar to managers’ perception as an average of (40.6%) emphasized the application while (32.2%) did not emphasize its application and (27.2%) were neutral.

It was apparent that practice (D1) "Supervisor frequently let me know how I am doing" recorded the highest score (75%) for this dimension as regard to managers, while it recorded the lowest score (20.2%) as regard to employees. It was also apparent that practice (D4) "Supervisor provides me with a report related to my performance" recorded the highest score (42.4%) by the employees while the practice (D2) "Supervisor evaluates my performance on annual basis" recorded the lowest score of (10%) by managers.

Finally, it was noted that not all dimensions were perceived to be implemented in the work place. The first dimension "clarification of performance expectations" and the third dimension "the organizational justice" were perceived to be implemented as regard to both managers and employees. The implementation of the fourth dimension "the frequency of rating" was only perceived by a small majority of managers. Regarding the implementation of the second dimension "using multi-raters", it had a week perception altogether by both managers and employees.

In order to test the discrepancy between employees' and managers' perceptions of the four dimensions, an ANOVA test along with mean and p values were used. The results are shown in Table 3. The outcome showed that the only significance of p value was in the third dimension "the organizational justice" which recorded (.001). Although managers perceived the application of that dimension with a mean of 2.38, employees perceived that application with even a lower mean of 2.16. Accordingly, this result suggests that managers should consider the application of such factor in a manner that is more credible to employees and which reflects its significance as perceived by the employees.

The second question of this research investigated the impact of an effective EPAS through the four dimensions on the quality of customer service. The Results in table 4 indicated that all the prospective dimensions were perceived to be important on the quality of customer service. The first dimension "Clarification of performance" was agreed to be important by an average (82.9%) of respondents, while only (5 %) did not agree and (12.1%) of respondents were neutral. (95%) of respondents stated that when the required performance is clarified to them in advance, they will perform better. About (71%) of respondents also indicated that the supervisors' response to their questions helped them to achieve the expected performance.
Table 3. Comparison between managers’ and employees’ perceptions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EPAS dimension</th>
<th>Application</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. deviation</th>
<th>P value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1- Clarification of expectations</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.55</td>
<td>.298</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managers</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.44</td>
<td>.319</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employees</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.04</td>
<td>.543</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2- Using multi-raters</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.83</td>
<td>.643</td>
<td>.001*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managers</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.04</td>
<td>.543</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employees</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.83</td>
<td>.643</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3- Organizational justice</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.16</td>
<td>.365</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managers</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.38</td>
<td>.221</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employees</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.16</td>
<td>.365</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4- Frequency of rating</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.99</td>
<td>.461</td>
<td>.260</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managers</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.88</td>
<td>.491</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employees</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.99</td>
<td>.461</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Additionally, although the second dimension "using multi-raters" was agreed by an average (51.7%) of respondents to be important for achieving the quality of performance however, (22.9%) of them disagreed and (25.4%) were neutral. In particular, (52.5%) agreed on the positive impact of participating of all associates related to the job in the rating process to improve the quality of performance. Only half of the respondents (50.8%) agreed to the importance of customers' participation in their rating to enhance the performance.

The third dimension" the organizational justice" was perceived to be important for the quality of customer service by an average of (81.5%) of respondents, while (6%) did not perceive that and (12.5%) were neutral. The fair rewarding system was the most important item to motivate employees towards achieving quality as more than (95%) of employee agreed on. On other hand, communication with supervisor was the least important for them as it was agreed by (75%).

Finally, an average of (74.2%) of respondents agreed to the significance of the fourth dimension "frequency of feedback" on the quality of customer service while (17%) disagreed and (8.8%) were neutral.

Although all dimensions proved to have an impact on the quality of customer service as perceived by the majority of employees, it was noted that they vary in their degree of importance. For example, clarification of performance expectations was the most important (82.9%) for them while using multi-raters (51.7%) was the least important.
Table 4. The impact of EPAS dimensions on the quality of customer service

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 4. The impact of EPAS dimensions on the quality of customer service</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em><em>F</em> refers to the frequency of occurrence</em>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Conclusion</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The outcome of this research revealed that the four dimensions of EPAS which were investigated by the researchers are implemented in the participating sample. However, the level of implementation varies according to level of management’ perception. This conclusion is in agreement with the literature and empirical studies which have been explored earlier in the literature review.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The research also investigated the potential of any discrepancy between managers' and employees' perceptions as regards the dimensions of EPAS. It has shown a single and significant discrepancy to the implementation which relates to organizational justice. The employees perceived the degree of implementing organizational justice in a lower level than managers. This result alerts managers to consider the organizational justice in a more effective approach that matches employees' needs.

The researchers also investigated the importance of the four dimensions of an effective EPAS on the quality of customer service in the Egyptian five-star hotels, the outcome revealed that implementing the four dimensions were perceived quite a significant issue to achieve the quality of customer service.

In conclusion, it can be established that EPAS is the system that clarifies performance expectation from employee in advance and involves all persons related to the employee's performance. In addition, it should give frequent feedback to employees, adopt fair procedures, reward employees without bias, and support the personal relationships between the supervisor and the employee. This study also provides evidence that EPAS can yield more favorable outcomes such as achieving the quality of customer service in hotel operations as a result of employees' satisfaction, retention and loyalty to the employer.

Finally, hospitality managers should consider that EPAS has a significant impact on the organization performance. The link between EPAS and the quality of customer service will enable managers to design performance appraisal programs that will bring forth better operational results to attain higher organizational performance.

It is also noteworthy that several limitations were encountered in the current study. These included the selection of the sample to be investigated; the category of five-star hotels in Egypt. Future research should explore other categories of hotels as well as other types of service contexts such as restaurants, motels, etc. The present study relied mainly on the impact of four dimensions of EPAS and consequently the quality of customer service. The findings of the study were, therefore, indicative rather than conclusive. It would be useful for future research to investigate others dimensions that can serve in establishing an EPAS. Moreover, it will be sensible to investigate the impact of the other human resources practices in achieving the quality of customer service. Furthermore, although the published research generally reports positive statistical relationships between the adoption of EPAS and the quality of customer ser-
vice, it should also be kept in mind that many other factors besides performance appraisal practices could influence service quality.

References


Republic of Macedonia, a New Wine Tourism Destination – Is It Possible?

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Abstract
Republic of Macedonia is a country that has a great potential to develop tourism while at the same time it is a wine manufacturer with well-recognized historical traditions, therefore the relationship of tourism with wine should imposes itself naturally. Although there are a lot of regions that have all the necessary potential for developing this form of tourism product and unfortunately for the Macedonian tourism industry, wine tourism is not well developed. Today, Macedonian wine tourism is still at its infancy and there is general lack of data and information. Starting from this position and analyzing the current situation, the aim of this paper is to note the initial steps as well as the possibilities for development of wine tourism in Republic of Macedonia. The main purpose which the research effort will be confronted with, above all, is aimed at determining the possibilities for development, which in turn is the starting point in finding adequate models for development of these tourism products.

Key words: wine tourism, Macedonia, vineyards, wine, vine cellars.

Introduction
Wine tourism is a global phenomenon that becomes increasingly popular every day. Wine and tourism have always gone together, but today wine itself becomes a motivation for discovering new destinations, visiting famous and prestigious wine cellars and getting acquainted with gastronomy, customs and habits of a particular destination. Wine tourism is expanding all over the world and becoming not just an accompanying part of many travels, but purposeful activity and independent kind of tourism. This is why over the last two decades; wine tourism development has captured the attention of the academic community, and since than there has been a steady increase in academic articles covering this type of tourism. Today, wine tourism can be defined from several standpoints, because it is closely intertwined with other forms of tour-
ism and linked with the environment, culinary, educational, leisure etc. The most commonly used definition is the one provided by Hall where, according to him, wine tourism is referring to "visiting of vineyards, wineries, wine festivals and wine shows, while the major motivating factors for visitors are wine tasting and/or experiencing the attributes of a wine region" (Hall, 1996). People worldwide are becoming increasingly interested in experiencing different things while they are on vacation, so wine cellar tours provide exactly that. "Wine, in particular the high quality one, eventually becomes the lead for tourist routes and a valid reason to discover the territory" (Di Gregorio & Licari, 2006, p. 2). Tourists can learn something new or something more about the grapevine, the methods of growing the grapevine, the ways of wine making, the ways of combining wine with food, the history of the winery and the place where the wine cellar is located. Exactly that is the reason for the tremendous growth of the wine tourism.

Wine tourism, although it is centered around the wine, it encompasses the entire experience of the area that is visited. Getz et al. (2008), note that wine tourism will not be successful when vineyards and wineries are the only attractions. Successful development of wine tourism destinations includes additional attractions such as fine dining, cultural experiences, and unique lodging opportunities (Getz et al., 2008). "The very nature of the wine industry lends itself to a union with tourism, providing the tourist with the opportunity to experience history, food, culture, new smells, sounds and tastes ... a combination of culture, lifestyle and territory". (Cambourne, 2004). Wine tourism is not just a visit to vineyards and wineries, wine festivals and exhibitions, where the wine is the most important part, but it is also a possibility to taste the past, learn about customs, enjoy the natural beauty in combination with the local cuisine and a unique experience.

Many wine regions in the world receive special government subsidies for the development of wine tourism, because of the fact that this kind of tourism offer has great positive effect on the overall economic activity in a particular environment. Therefore, traditional wine producer countries such as France, Italy and Spain, and in recent times, also the countries of the so-called new world, such as Australia, Argentina and Chile, are investing huge sums of money at this branch. Findings show that new world wine regions appeared to move more aggressively than old world wine regions to create the infrastructure and inter-industry network relationships to bolster wine tourism (Abel, 2009; Beames, 2003).
The main purpose of this paper is to focus on the current situation of the wine tourism and to analyse the possibilities for development of this type of tourism product in the Republic of Macedonia. This paper uses descriptive method of analysis that brings the fundamental characteristics of wine tourism. The objectives of the research are the opportunities and perspectives of wine tourism development, with a special consideration on the additional benefits that this kind of tourism development will generate for the region. Therefore, this analysis should be a basic direction for perspective development of rural areas in Republic of Macedonia, through agro tourism and wine tourism as developmental strategy forms.

Methodology

For the purposes of this study, apart from the field studies, additional researches including interviews were carried out in order to collect complementary arguments on various issues. In this context, the detailed description of all activities included in the primary and the secondary research is as following:

- analysis of relevant documents, other research and statistical data;
- analysis of the strategic and development documents in Republic of Macedonia that are relevant to the tourism development and wine tourism;
- analysis of representative sample of other similar destinations in the world as well as their models of regulation, management and development of wine tourism;
- analysis of legal documents and other elements of the institutional and legal frameworks related to the development of tourism in Republic of Macedonia;
- Interviewing the key people in Republic of Macedonia where this kind of tourism can be developed and other field research.

Collecting, systemizing, analyzing and presenting of the available data, from methodological point of view was conducted with the use of logically justified and scientifically established methodological approaches.

Results

Macedonia – The Cradle of the Wine Culture in Europe

Republic of Macedonia is a country with very long wine-growing tradition. Many historical documents and archaeological findings testify to the tradition
of grape growing and wine production as early as ancient times. Grape seeds, more than 6500 years old, have been found in excavations near Drama, which for centuries was an ancient Macedonian city. It is the oldest archaeological evidence affirming that vineyards and the beginnings of wine production on European soil are in Macedonia.

Ancient Macedonians were among the biggest fans of wine. Evidence for this is that ancient Macedonians were one of the few nations in the world that in its mythological deities had a god of wine. The most favorite drink of the famous ancient kings Philip II and his son Alexander the Great, was wine. Wines from Macedonia at that time were exported by ships throughout the then known world (Eugene N. Borza, 1990). The rich and distinguish wine tradition continued during the Roman Empire, when Macedonia as a part of the Eastern Roman Empire - became one of the most important regions for grape cultivation in the Empire. Grape growing continued after the arrival of the Slavs and was freely developed until the fourteenth century. During the period of the Ottoman Empire (1350-1918), winemaking was kept alive in Macedonia's abundant monasteries.

Macedonian viticulture reached its peak during the 1980s, when Macedonia accounted for two-thirds of all wine production in the Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia. Since its independence, Macedonian agriculture has faced dramatic market changes. The market size dropped from 22 million to 2 million people. It caused big problems in the utilization of the production capacities but also the products sale at the foreign market was in crisis. All of the previously established relations with the export market had to be renewed and there was a need of rebranding itself as a modern winemaking country with a long tradition. But poor production methods, low yields, and lack of high quality bottled wine plague the Macedonian wine industry. Since 1991 until 2004, Macedonia lagged far behind other European wine producing nations, the wine industry was focused on production of bulk and cheap wine, mostly destined for the German and the neighbouring countries market. But over the last few years, quality has increased significantly. In 2004 the Republic of Macedonia enacted a new Law on Wine that complies with the regulations of the European Union and is protecting the interests of producers and consumers, improving the quality of wine and a better functioning of the internal and external market in wine.
Favourable Condition for Wine Growing and Wine Regions in the Republic of Macedonia

Republic of Macedonia has very good conditions for making high quality wine. Under the influence of the Mediterranean climate from the south, and the continental influences from the north, a particular modification of the Mediterranean climate is formed that is moderated by neighbouring mountains, which provide a natural barrier from cold northern winds. The climate is characterised with long hot summers and cold winters with high snowfall, highly favourable for grapevine growing. The terrains under vineyards are undulating and hilly, with gentle slopes of varying aspects also favourable for grapevine growing. Grapevine plantations are located at 110-650 metres above sea level, mostly planted on tchernozem, rendzina and vertisol soils, and only occasionally on cinnamon and diluvia soils. As a result of these attributes, Macedonia has been a wine producer and exporter for many, many years.

Republic of Macedonia represents one grape growing area, which geographically can be divided into three grape growing regions. The Central Region (Povardarie) is the largest and most famous grape growing region which encompasses 83 percent of the total production, followed by the Western Region (Pelagonija-Polog region), that covers 13 percent of the production and the Eastern Region (Pcinja-Osogovo region) that covers about 4 percent of the production.

These three regions are further classified, according to the specific climatic conditions, soil and viticultural tradition of the region, into 16 wine growing districts (sub-regions) with specific localities. Production in the different vine-growing regions and sub-regions is largely unbalanced. The Tikves sub-region is the main production area of grapes and wine (about 30% of the production), followed by Gevgelija-Valandovo, Skopje, Veles and Strumica-Radovis sub-regions.

Viticulture and Wine Production in the Republic of Macedonia

Today viticulture is one of the most important sectors of Macedonian agriculture and an important source of income and employment in rural areas. Combined grape and wine production contributes around 17-20 percent to the agricultural GDP (Dimitrievski & Kotevska, 2008). Wine is the first beverage export and the second biggest agricultural export after tobacco.
### Table 1. Wine regions in Macedonia

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Wine Region / District</th>
<th>Area (ha)</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Central Region – Povardarie</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skopje</td>
<td>2,240</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Veles</td>
<td>2,125</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tikvesh</td>
<td>8,695</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gevgelija-Velandovo</td>
<td>3,241</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strumica-Radovish</td>
<td>2,295</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ovce Pole</td>
<td>1,615</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kocani-Vinica</td>
<td>571</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>20,782</td>
<td>85.64%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>East Region - Pcinja-Osogovo</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kratovo</td>
<td>234</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kumanovo</td>
<td>1,738</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pijanec</td>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>1,981</td>
<td>8.16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>West Region – Pelagonija-Polog</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prilep</td>
<td>74</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bitola</td>
<td>615</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ohrid</td>
<td>614</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prespa</td>
<td>149</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kicevo</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tetovo</td>
<td>49</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>1,503</td>
<td>6.19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td>24,266</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 2. Area under vineyard cultivation, annual grape and wine production, as well as, import and export of wine

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grapes Harvested Area (Ha)</td>
<td>28142</td>
<td>26960</td>
<td>26530</td>
<td>27111</td>
<td>26194</td>
<td>25692</td>
<td>24777</td>
<td>25644</td>
<td>25866</td>
<td>21312</td>
<td>22401</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wine Production (Tonnes)</td>
<td>243567</td>
<td>231034</td>
<td>264258</td>
<td>238053</td>
<td>118635</td>
<td>243821</td>
<td>254613</td>
<td>265717</td>
<td>254308</td>
<td>290701</td>
<td>23834</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imp. Quantity (Tonnes)</td>
<td>122710</td>
<td>91187</td>
<td>96142</td>
<td>83000</td>
<td>44701</td>
<td>93038</td>
<td>105850</td>
<td>105000</td>
<td>70000</td>
<td>98840</td>
<td>168100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Export Quantity (Tonnes)</td>
<td>57000</td>
<td>83176</td>
<td>82409</td>
<td>80553</td>
<td>72614</td>
<td>56127</td>
<td>56759</td>
<td>65590</td>
<td>82862</td>
<td>91021</td>
<td>76338</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** State Statistical Office, 2008, FAO
The amount of land under vineyard cultivation occupied approximately 22,400 ha in 2008. As can be seen from the table, there has been a steady decrease of ha of vineyards in spite of Macedonia's convenient climatic conditions. One of the reasons for the decreasing of the vineyards area is that Macedonian vineyards are relatively old. Around 38% are in their end of production cycle, and need to be uprooted and replanted with new vines, and more than 60% are planted before 15 years.

Grape production in the Republic of Macedonia is mainly of local varieties (www.fao.org, 2011). Vineyards of the Vranec grape variety cover 50% of the total area planted with red grape varieties, and vineyards of the Smederevka grape variety cover 60% of the total area planted with white grape varieties. In recent years there has been an increase in the plantation of foreign vine varieties in order to make more exports of quality wine (UNECE, 2002) and to meet the demand of foreign markets (www.fao.org, 2011).

The average annual production of grapes is around 230,000 tons and it varies depending on the year. The average production totalled 264,258 tons in 2000, 118,935 tons in 2002, 265,717 tons in 2005 and 236,834 tons. Table grape varieties represent about 30% of the total grape production and the remaining 70% belongs to the winemaking varieties. The annual average wine production in the previous five years is 1 million hl, which is around 50% of the country's wine cellars utilised capacity. In Macedonia there are about 80 wineries, but not all of them are active in wine production. Most of the wineries (90%) are with capacity up to between 50,000 hl, 5 with a capacity between 51,000 and 150,000 hl and 3 with a capacity of 151,000 to 500,000 hl.

**Wine Tourism in the Republic of Macedonia**

Republic of Macedonia is a country that has a great potential to develop tourism while at the same time it is a wine manufacturer with well-recognized historical traditions, therefore the relationship of tourism with wine should impose itself naturally. Although there are a lot of regions that have all the necessary potential for developing this form of tourism product and unfortunately for the Macedonian tourism industry, wine tourism is not well developed. Republic of Macedonia lacks part of a segment of tourists who travel at the end of the world only to taste good wine. In fact, wine tourists have not yet come in our country and the main reason for this is that Macedonia has not been recognized worldwide as a wine country and destination. Centuries of wine production have been lost to global markets before the incursion of new world wine
countries offering "better wine product." The road to the actual development of wine tourism is long and that is the case because there are many problems, for example, many of the wineries are not ready to receive tourists, there are no restaurants with good wine card, there are not many wine events, etc.

During the last 10 years, the number of new private wineries has grown considerably, from 21 registered wineries in 2003, 45 in the beginning of 2007 to 80 registered wineries today. Unfortunately, only some of them have started to offer wine tourism as additional product on the tourist market and have opened their wineries for visitors. This is not because Macedonian wineries didn't understand or recognized the benefits and values of tourism development, just the contrary, they are the first ones that started to promote this tourist product, but for many new and small wineries wine tourism is a secondary, for some even tertiary priority, because the main effort is still focused in widening the vineyards and upgrading the production and the quality of wine. An interesting fact we should note is that Macedonian winemakers were the first ones to understand the potential of wine tourism and used it as a vehicle to diversify their businesses and increase sales.

According to the research, from a total of 80 wineries, 21 are currently involved in wine tourism or, in other words, 26.25% of wineries included tourism in their offer. Besides the fact that large percentage of the wineries are opening up to the visitors, this does not mean that we can talk about wine tourism. Their product, in this stage is only in primary form, because it does not include the surroundings, with all the natural, cultural and historical landmarks.

Looking at the individual performances of the wineries in the Republic of Macedonia, a pioneer in the development of the wine tourism is the winery “Popova Kula” in Demir Kapija. This winery in its development program, since the beginnings in 2006, has included the wine tourism as an important element in the functioning of the winery. Today, the winery in its offer for wine tourism includes: a wine tasting room, conference hall, restaurant, summer terrace, wine shop and a hotel with 11 rooms. Due to the increased demand for this kind of tourism, as well as the very small number of accommodation facilities in this region, additional 12 rooms will be soon added to the existing rooms. At the moment, only one more winery, offers accommodation (Chateau Kamnik), but a few of them are in the process of preparing accommodation facilities (Stobi, Grkov, Ezemit vino). The winery “Chateau Kamnik” is a part of the complex The Hunter’s Lodge KAMNIK, which has a hotel with 15 rooms, a tennis court and a shooting range. While within the winery there is a restaurant
and enoteca in which except the wines from this winery, over 150 different types of wines from the region and beyond can be tasted.

We can not talk about wine tourism, and not mention the biggest and the oldest winery in the Balkans (winery “Tikvesh” and “Elenovi”). The winery “Tikvesh” represents a real ambassador of the viticulture and wine tourism. In April 2008 the department of wine tourism started to work with reconstruction of the restaurant in its cellar and since then it continuously notes increase of the number of visitors, in the frames of the winery there is a restaurant for 50 people, a souvenir shop and multiple rooms suitable for organizing group tasting. The oldest winery in the Balkans – The Royal winery, now named “Elenovi” was founded in 1925 as property of the former king of Yugoslavia, Aleksandar Karadjordjevic. Today, the facilities of this winery stretch across five hectares of land and due to the historical and cultural heritage this winery is a monument of culture, protected by UNESCO. It represents a true wine tourist resort where the traditional way of wine production can be experienced, because the same equipment that was used eight decades ago is still used today. Other wineries that offer wine tourism as a one day wine tour including activities like: organised educational tours, wine tasting, restaurant or cellar lunches, where Macedonian specialties can be tasted; are the wineries Grkov, Bovin, Stobi, Popov, Fonko, Dudin and Ezemit Vino. The other wineries involved in wine tourism, winery Pivka, Kartal, Tristo, Povardarie, Chekorovi, Radevski, Filovski, Imako Vino and also the winery Malerich, offer only the possibility for tasting high quality wines.

Some of the wineries are considering the perspectives of the wine tourism and plan to actively engage in it, by building wine tasting halls, as is the case with the winery Gjorcev, winery Premium and more.

In the table below, are presented the wineries that already started to offer wine tasting and other services, in order to promote their brands and direct sales.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Winery</th>
<th>Year of establishment</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Vineyard area (ha)</th>
<th>Production capacity (litres)</th>
<th>Wine tourism</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Accommodation</td>
<td>Cellar lunches</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tikves</td>
<td>1946</td>
<td>Kavadarci</td>
<td>500+3500</td>
<td>55 million</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bovin</td>
<td>1998</td>
<td>Negotino</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>1 million</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Popova Kula</td>
<td>2001</td>
<td>D.Kapija</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>200 000</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3. Wineries involved in wine tourism
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Visitors</th>
<th>Yearly Revenue</th>
<th>Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Stobi</td>
<td>2010</td>
<td>Gradsko</td>
<td>600</td>
<td>5 million</td>
<td>+ +</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Chateau Kamnik</td>
<td>2002</td>
<td>Skopje</td>
<td>12,5</td>
<td>50 000</td>
<td>+ + +</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Popov</td>
<td>2001</td>
<td>Kavadarci</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>420 000</td>
<td>- + +</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Kartal</td>
<td>2006</td>
<td>Skopje</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>200 000</td>
<td>- - +</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Elenovi (Agropin)</td>
<td>1925/1990</td>
<td>D.Kapija</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>10 million</td>
<td>- + +</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Grkov</td>
<td>2008</td>
<td>Kavadarci</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>120 000</td>
<td>+ +</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Fonko</td>
<td>2000</td>
<td>Negotino</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>3 million</td>
<td>- + +</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Pivka</td>
<td>2002</td>
<td>Negotino</td>
<td>4,5</td>
<td>300 000</td>
<td>- - +</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Tristo</td>
<td>1995</td>
<td>Veles</td>
<td>3,5</td>
<td>30 000</td>
<td>- - +</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Dudin</td>
<td>2004</td>
<td>Krvolak</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>500 000</td>
<td>- + +</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Cekorovi</td>
<td>1998</td>
<td>Kavadarci</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20 000</td>
<td>- - +</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Povardarie</td>
<td>1963</td>
<td>Negotino</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>30-35 million</td>
<td>- - +</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Imako Vino</td>
<td>1991</td>
<td>Stip</td>
<td>650</td>
<td>10 million</td>
<td>- - +</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Ezemit Vino</td>
<td>2002</td>
<td>Stip</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>3 million</td>
<td>+ +</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Maleric</td>
<td>2006</td>
<td>Negotino</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>500 000</td>
<td>- - +</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Filovski</td>
<td>2005</td>
<td>S. Przdevo</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>150 000</td>
<td>- - +</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Radevski</td>
<td>2006</td>
<td>Skopje</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>50 000</td>
<td>- - +</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>Skovin</td>
<td>1979</td>
<td>Skopje</td>
<td>500</td>
<td>17 million</td>
<td>- - +</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Author research

All of these wineries are independently attracting a remarkable number of tourists in their cellars, unfortunately, none of them tracks how many persons visited or engaged in tourism activities while visiting the winery. One more thing we should notice, that it is an important indicator of the development of the wine tourism in the Republic of Macedonia is that all wineries report that visitor traffic is currently mostly generated through direct contact rather than through travel agencies and tour operators.

Analyzing the state of wine tourism in Macedonia we see that this entrepreneurship spirit of the wine makers is paying up, and most wineries are planning to engage in wine tourism in the near future, but for thorough development this is not enough; there is a need to develop wine roads as special forms...
of tourism in the context of wine tourism. They offer a dramatic web of attractions, good wine, good food, history, culture, sceneries etc. This is why, wine roads, in the Republic of Macedonia, should be an essential part of the wine growing regions, they will help establishing a creative and quick revival of this rural areas, as well as enhance the tourist offer. Currently in the Republic of Macedonia, we will notice that some wine roads are offered to the visitors, but they are not officially registered by the relevant institutions, they are created by various travel agencies that have set up cooperation with the local wineries and have included wine tourism and wine routes in their sale.

In this regard, in 2006 the Tikvesh Wine Route Foundation was founded by 4 municipalities (Kavadarci, Negotino, Demir Kapija and Rosoman) and two wineries. The goal of the Foundation is, with government assistance and support and some international funds and organisations to provide basis for development and promotions of the region as an attractive tourism destination. The Foundation has so far promoted awareness on wine tourism at regional level, but because of lack of knowledge, lack of cooperation between the wine producers, limited resources, etc., it is still working on the registration of the first Wine Route in Macedonia, there is still no wine map, as initial informative tourist offer, not to mention atlas of wine regions etc.

In recent years, the Republic of Macedonia has undertaken initial activities to further the development of wine tourism. Namely, the Macedonian government in its National Tourism Development Strategy 2009 - 2013, positions wine tourism as one of the major tourist products, but unfortunately does not give any analysis of how and where we can develop this kind of tourism.

If we want to use the full potential of wine tourism, there must be a planned approach, based on scientific research, and it is necessity for it to be integrated in the whole tourist product that Macedonia is currently building.

The current National strategy for viticulture and winemaking adopted in 2009, stipulates, among other things, the development of the wine tourism and the rural tourism as an “booster for alternative source of income of the wineries and modern methods of promoting traditional heritage and natural/cultural resources of the country” in order to “establish measures for popularization and promotion of the wine tourism and the opportunities which it offers”. All of this is connected with the predictions for the development of the rural tourism which envisages “inclusion of the individual wine growers and the micro – producers of wine in the system of wine roads”.
The marketing is another weakness of the Macedonian wine industry that can be improved by a government–supported body. Today’s marketing of the Macedonian wines is in its beginnings and a Strategy for marketing of the Macedonian wine is in the works. One of the marketing endeavours of the government institutions for promoting of the Macedonian wines and the Republic of Macedonia as a wine country was the promotional video “Macedonian wine – timeless”. But, this is a small step towards opening a way to the consumers, who are exposed to the more aggressive offer and campaign of the other forces in the wine business.

If the Republic of Macedonia wants to export its wine, and at the same time to develop the wine tourism, and thus earn bigger profits, it should develop a collective marketing politics for the Macedonian wine that would include all the wineries form the Republic of Macedonia. A unique marketing scheme would not only lower the costs, but would be more effective than the current strategies which range from the nonexistent to the individual.

On a state level in the Ministry of Economy–sector for tourism, in the frames of the national strategy for development of the tourism, this kind of tourism is not sufficiently appreciated, and thus there is no opportunity for serious movement towards its realization. For example, even the initial steps that were made in the past through making web sites that would advertise the Macedonian wine, the wine roads in Macedonia and the wineries, such as www.macedonianwineroute.com and www.mkwineriesguide.com.mk, are non-functional today, although are frequently mentioned in foreign tourist guides.

**Conclusion**

Republic of Macedonia is in a situation where it is necessary to timely and effectively incorporates its tourist offer in European and global trends, from creating conditions and incentives, to the development of entrepreneurships, raising and improving the quality of services and the overall tourist economy. Macedonia has a great chance to establish itself as a new exotic wine country. Past experiences show that a great deal of our territory remains undiscovered for foreign, and unfortunately for domestic tourists as well. On the other hand a large percentage of the population is not aware of the opportunities for the development of certain areas that tourism provides and the additional revenue it can bring. According to the presented standpoints in this paper, Republic of Macedonia has three unique characteristics: (first) thousands of years of tradition in wine, (second) the existence of unique, authentic varieties and (third) is the exceptional quality of wines. Our greatest strength is that we have a perfect
mix of conditions that do not need to be artificially created, as is the practice in many countries. Building on this Macedonia can become an original wine tourism destination offering something new to the global wine tourism market. Despite being late in understanding the potential of wine tourism, the pioneer efforts in developing wine tourism, created a solid base for further development that will enable Republic of Macedonia to catching up with other wine tourism destinations.

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An Assessment of College Students’ Knowledge of Nutrition and Its Effects on Eating Behaviors in Surabaya

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Abstract

College students in Surabaya were surveyed to examine their knowledge of nutrition and its effect on their eating behavior. The number of meals eaten was recorded weekly and evaluated based on gender, age, hometown, whom they live with, and the monthly expenditure. College students were asked about their beliefs and knowledge about different foods for their nutritional value and their intentions of eating these foods. Questionnaires were distributed to the college students from three private universities. The study revealed that college students with different gender, age group, whom they live with, and expenditure have different knowledge of nutrition. While, a difference in ages does not affect eating behavior. In addition, knowledge of nutrition was related with eating behaviors.

Key words: knowledge of nutrition, eating behaviors, college students.

Introduction

Nowadays, food nutrition and health are having a great concern all over the world. Many nutrition and health authorities offer guidance for people to avoid health problems associated with over or under-consumption of certain foods. However, it largely depends on the attitude of the people to their food intake and health (http://ezinearticles.com/?Food-and-Health-Concerns-Among-People&id=4487405, 28 Jan 2011).

Insufficient intake of food or of certain nutrients can cause nutrition disorders, an inability of the body to absorb and use nutrients. Another meaning is
overconsumption of certain foods, such as obesity caused by excess energy intake, anemia caused by insufficient intake of iron, and impaired sight because of inadequate intake of vitamin A. Nutrition disorders can be particularly serious in children, since they interfere with growth and development, and may predispose to many health problems, such as infection and chronic disease (WHO, http://www.who.int/topics/nutrition_disorders/en/, 28 Jan 2011). In fact, older adults are probably more nutrition-minded because they have more health problems, such as heart disease and high blood pressure, and are more likely to have to change their diet for health reasons. Beside that, people with higher income and educational levels also tend to think about nutrition more often when choosing what to eat (Drummond, 2010, p. 5). On the other hand, young adults who go to college also face the challenge of not eating unhealthy foods. As teenagers leave home, they become more responsible for themselves and their eating habits. College students can be stressful and lead to poor eating choices (Drummond, 2010, p. 2).

This fact has led to significant interest in determining influences on college student’s eating habits. Korinth, Schiess and Westenhoefer (2009) found in their study that knowledge of nutrition affect food choices and food consumption. They found that students with high nutrition knowledge, tend to restrict their food intake in order to control their weight, but they do not have more disturbed or disordered eating patterns than the other students. Moreover, during the course of their studies, they adopt slightly more healthy food choices and decrease their tendency to be obsessive in their eating behavior. Bordi, et al. (2006) observed that attitudes were significantly related with intention, and nutritional beliefs were marginally related with attitudes, and, intentions were marginally related to meals eaten by middle school children.

In Indonesia, obesity and eating behavior become the important issue to be concern. Based on World Health Organization data, in 2011, 32.9% or 78.2 millions Indonesian are obese. Siloam Hospital physician nutrition specialist, Oetoro states that this high percentage of obesity is due to several factors. One of the factors is changes of Indonesian lifestyle. Furthermore, Oetoro says that now eating junkfood becomes a trend especially for young people (Jawa Pos, 14 August 2011).

Knowledge of nutrition and a positive attitude toward nutrition may translate into nutritious eating practices. For some people, knowledge is enough to stimulate new eating behavior, but for most people, knowledge is not enough and change is difficult (Drummond, 2010). Therefore, the objectives of this
study were to (1) examine the knowledge of nutrition among college students in Surabaya as well as where they obtained information that led to this knowledge, (2) investigate eating behaviors of college students as well as their attention in food calories they consumed, (3) investigate the correlation between college students’ knowledge of nutrition and their eating behaviors.

**Literature Review**

World Health Organization on its site stated that nutrition is the intake of food, considered in relation to the body’s dietary needs. Good nutrition – an adequate, well-balanced diet combined with regular physical activity – is a cornerstone of good health. Poor nutrition can lead to reduced immunity, increased susceptibility to disease, impaired physical and mental development, and reduced productivity. [http://www.who.int/topics/nutrition/en/, 29 Jan 2011]. Drummond K. and Brefere L. (2010) also stated that nutrition is a science that studies nutrients and other substances in foods and in the body and the way those nutrients relate to health and disease. Nutrients are the nourishing substances in food that provide energy and promote the growth and maintenance of the body. Puspitorini (2011, p. 4) clarified that it is not good for health that every day people consume specific food in certain quantities, due to maintain their performance. Moreover, Gordon-Davis & Rensburg (2002) described nutrition as the study of the relationship between people and their food. While, Drummond and Brefere (2010) stated that women and older adults tend to consider nutrition more often than do men or young adults when choosing what to eat. Whereas, people with higher incomes and educational levels also tend to think about nutrition more.

**Nutrition for Teenager and Young Adult**

Teenagers have specific nutritional needs, especially after reaching puberty. Growth rate is high, and if coupled with vigorous exercise, then need for nutrients and energy is very high. Furthermore, this is a period of doubt, confusion and peer pressure for many teenagers, and they might not want to conform to previously accepted food routines. Eating foods providing adequate calcium to attain maximum bone density is very important in helping prevent osteoporosis and bone fractures in later life. (Gordon-Davis & Rensburg, 2002). Girls during adolescence should be encouraged to eat plenty of iron-rich foods since iron losses occur due to menstruation and therefore requirements are high. (Gaman & Sherrington, 2002)
**Eating Behavior of Teenager and Young Adult**

The number of meals teenagers miss and eat away from home increases from early adolescence to late adolescence, reflecting the growing need for independence and time away from home. The evening meal appears to be the most regularly eaten meal of the day. Females are found to skip the evening meals, as well as breakfast and lunch, more often than males. Breakfast if frequently neglected and is omitted more by teenagers and young adults under 25 years of age than by any other age group in the population. A likely explanation as to why females are more apt to miss breakfast than are males is the pursuit of thinness and frequent attempts at dieting. Many teenage girls believe that they can control their weight by omitting breakfast or lunch. Young women who are dieting should be counseled that this approach is likely to accomplish just the opposite. By midmorning or lunchtime they may be so hungry that they eat more than if they had had at least simple foods in the early morning. (Worthington-Roberts & Williams, 1996).

**Methodology**

A total of 742 college students from 3 private universities in Surabaya, namely Petra Christian University, Surabaya University and Widya Mandala University took part in fulfilling the questionnaire. Of the respondents, (1) 56.1 percent were females, and 43.9 were males; (2) 19.8 percent were in the age of 16-28, 68.7 percent were in the age of 19-21 and 11.5% were in the age of 22-24; (3) 50.3 percent had monthly expenditure less than 1 million Rupiahs excluding accommodation, 30.1 percent, 13.7 percent, 5.9 percent had monthly expenditure between 1 million – 1.5 million, 1.5 millions – 2 millions and more than 2 million Rupiahs ; (3) 55.8 percent were originally from Surabaya and 64.3 percent of them lived with their family. The data collected from the questionnaire was analyzed by using descriptive statistics to calculate frequency distribution in order to investigate eating behavior in a week of college students. The questions were categorized into 5 groups which are “never”, “1-2 times”, “3-4 times”, “5-6 times” and “more than 7 times”. As for investigating the knowledge of college students, the questions were categorized into 3 groups which are “agree”, “disagree” and “don’t know”. In addition, nonparametric test by using Mann Whitney and Kruskal Wallis test were used to compare the difference between gender, age, hometown, whom they live with, expenditure with their eating behavior and knowledge of nutrition. Furthermore, in this paper, it was also shown the correlation between nutrition knowledge and eating behavior by using cross tabulation.
Results

About 30% of College students in Surabaya obtain much of their nutritional information from their school or university. While Media and internet contributed equally about 17% as college students source of information to learn about nutrition. About 80% of respondents admits that they know alot about knowledge of nutrition while only 6.8% said that they did not know anything about nutrition. On the other hand, more than 90% of college students believe that it is important to learn about nutrition.

College students of private universities in Surabaya were asked 12 statements about their knowledge about nutrition. The scoring system was used to indicate the level of nutritional knowledge of college students from high, middle, and low. The result showed that about 60.6 percent of college students had high level, 33 percent and 6.1 percent had middle and low level of nutritional knowledge respectively.

Results of the Mann Whitney test from table 1 indicated that there is a difference in nutritional knowledge between male and female especially in perception on “consumption of fast food, fried food, and canned food/frozen food”, “the food eaten affect healthy”, “less fat consumption” at the 0.05 level of significance. Male more tolerable than female that fast food and fried food can be consumed often, canned/frozen foods are just as good as fresh foods, the food eaten did not affect healthy, and not neccessary to eat less fat.

In addition, there is no difference in nutritional knowledge among those whose hometown was from Surabaya or outside Surabaya. It means that nutritional knowledge of college students are not affected by their hometown. However, there is a difference between whom the college students live with and their nutritional knowledge. College students living with their family were more tolerable (95%) that exercise is just as important as the food eaten than those who did not live with their family (90%).
Table 1. Mann Whitney test of nutritional knowledge

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nutrition Knowledge</th>
<th>Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Hometown</th>
<th>living with</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Additional protein can make you stronger</td>
<td>0.411</td>
<td>0.824</td>
<td>0.681</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fast Foods are okay to eat everyday</td>
<td>0.034(*)</td>
<td>0.550</td>
<td>0.877</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Processed foods have less nutritional content than fresh foods</td>
<td>0.228</td>
<td>0.094</td>
<td>0.682</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fruits can be consumed as much as the preferred</td>
<td>0.433</td>
<td>0.148</td>
<td>0.116</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fried foods can be consumed as often as possible</td>
<td>0.000(*)</td>
<td>0.947</td>
<td>0.226</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canned and frozen foods are just as good as fresh foods</td>
<td>0.007(*)</td>
<td>0.531</td>
<td>0.878</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Milk is good for strong bone</td>
<td>0.958</td>
<td>0.119</td>
<td>0.958</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercise is just as important as the food you eat for staying healthy</td>
<td>0.817</td>
<td>0.753</td>
<td>0.025(*)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The food you eat affects your healthy</td>
<td>0.022(*)</td>
<td>0.496</td>
<td>0.871</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To stay healthy you should eat less fat</td>
<td>0.002(*)</td>
<td>0.662</td>
<td>0.972</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foods like sweets and ice cream are okay to eat, but not all the time</td>
<td>0.339</td>
<td>0.083</td>
<td>0.656</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fruits and vegetables are low fat and low calories</td>
<td>0.422</td>
<td>0.475</td>
<td>0.463</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

The results of Kruskal Wallis test in table 2 indicated that there is a difference in nutritional knowledge among age group of 16-18, 19-21 and 22-24 especially in opinion of “fast food and fried food consumption”, “canned and frozen foods are just as good as fresh foods”. From the data surveyed, it can be shown that the age group of 16-18 had a higher percentage of disagree about the frequent consumption of fast food and fried food. It shows that the younger ages was more aware about nutrition in particular about “frequent consumption of fast food and fried food” and also the perception that “frozen foods are just as good as fresh foods”. As for expenditure, there is a difference in nutritional knowledge among the college students’ expenditure especially in the statement that “processed foods have less nutritional content than fresh foods” and “Fried food can be eaten as often as possible”. College students who had expenditure less than 1 million Rupiahs was more tolerable than those whose expenditure was higher than one million Rupiahs.
Table 2. Kruskal Wallis test of nutritional knowledge

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nutrition Knowledge</th>
<th>Asymp. Sig.</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Expenditure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Additional protein can make you stronger</td>
<td>0.888</td>
<td>0.438</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fast Foods are okay to eat everyday</td>
<td>0.020(*)</td>
<td>0.062</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Processed foods have less nutritional content than fresh foods</td>
<td>0.053</td>
<td>0.014(*)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fruits can be consumed as much as the preferred</td>
<td>0.811</td>
<td>0.416</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fried foods can be consumed as often as possible</td>
<td>0.000(*)</td>
<td>0.004(*)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canned and frozen foods are just as good as fresh foods</td>
<td>0.016(*)</td>
<td>0.051</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Milk is good for strong bone</td>
<td>0.053</td>
<td>0.360</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercise is just as important as the food you eat for staying healthy</td>
<td>0.250</td>
<td>0.613</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The food you eat affects your healthy</td>
<td>0.087</td>
<td>0.140</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To stay healthy you should eat less fat</td>
<td>0.281</td>
<td>0.330</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foods like sweets and ice cream are okay to eat, but not all the time</td>
<td>0.171</td>
<td>0.379</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fruits and vegetables are low fat and low calories</td>
<td>0.477</td>
<td>0.530</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

Eating Behaviors of College Students

Only 8.9% of college students in Surabaya have the attention of food calories they consumed. While 50.4 percent of them did not pay any attention and 40.7 percent only sometimes pay attention to food calories they consumed. From the data collected, it was revealed that more than 5 times in a week, 46.3 percent of college students were eating out and 32.5 percent were eating vegetables. Furthermore, it was indicated that less than 3 times college students were eating out (26 percent), eating breakfast (51.9 percent), eating after 9 pm (56.9 percent); eating fast food (74.8 percent), eating canned/frozen foods (79.9 percent), eating fried snack (52.8 percent), eating fruit (47.2 percent), eating vegetables (35.8 percent), and drinking milk (54.2 percent). These findings were surprising because only 33.1 percent, 32.5 percent, 23.9 percent, 21.2 percent of college students were eating breakfast, vegetables, drinking milk, and eating fruit more than 4 times a week respectively.

The results from Mann Whitney test indicated that there is a difference in eating behavior between gender with eating behavior especially in “eating after 9 pm”, “consuming canned/frozen food” and “eating fruit”. Males had the tendency to eat after 9 pm often and consume less canned/frozen food than female. While female had eating fruit more often than male. This finding might
be considered to support the research from Cooke and Wardle (2005), which showed that girls like fruit and vegetables more than boys did.

Furthermore, from table 3, it also can be seen that there is a difference in eating behavior between hometown in "eating out", "having breakfast", "consuming canned/frozen food", "eating fruits", "eating vegetables". Those whose hometown were not from Surabaya had more often in eating out but less in having breakfast, consuming canned/frozen food, eating fruits and vegetables compared to those who were from Surabaya. This is due to the data collected that about 60 percent of college students who do not live Surabaya were lived independently in a boarding house. Therefore, they tend to eating out more, having less breakfast, fruits, as well as vegetables. As mentioned by Sharma B., et al. (2009) that students who lived in family home consumed more helpings of both fruit and vegetables every day, compared with young adults who lived independently.

In addition, there is a difference in eating behavior between whom college students live with particularly in "eating out", "having breakfast", "eating fruits" and "eating vegetables". As previously mentioned that those who did not live with their family were more often to have eating out, but less to have breakfast, eating fruit and vegetables.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Eating Behavior</th>
<th>Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gender</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eating out</td>
<td>0.124</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having breakfast</td>
<td>0.644</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eating after 9 pm</td>
<td>0.003(*)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eating fast food</td>
<td>0.365</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consuming canned or frozen food</td>
<td>0.049(*)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having a fried snacks</td>
<td>0.936</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eating fruits</td>
<td>0.012(*)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eating vegetables</td>
<td>0.248</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drinking milk</td>
<td>0.275</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)
The results of Kruskal Wallis test of eating behaviors indicated that there is a difference between age group in their eating behaviour particularly in “eating vegetables”. More than 5 percent of college students in all ages had never eating vegetable. There is also a difference between expenditure especially in “eating out”, “eating after 9pm”, “eating fast food”, “consuming canned/frozen foods”, and “having fried snacks”. College students whose expenditure per month were less than one million Rupiahs tend to have less eating out, eating after 9pm, eating fast food, consuming canned/frozen food, having fried snack compared to those whose expenditure were higher than 1 million Rupiahs. These findings were supported by Davis’ (1982) that provide strong evidence suggesting interaction between socioeconomic factors and the income-food expenditure relationship, while these interactions affect household nutritional consumption.

Table 4. Kruskal Wallis test of eating behavior

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Eating Behavior</th>
<th>Asymp. Sig.</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Expenditure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Eating out</td>
<td>0.910</td>
<td>0.000(*)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having breakfast</td>
<td>0.433</td>
<td>0.119</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eating after 9 pm</td>
<td>0.383</td>
<td>0.035(*)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eating fast food</td>
<td>0.277</td>
<td>0.000(*)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consuming canned or frozen food</td>
<td>0.070</td>
<td>0.031(*)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having a fried snacks</td>
<td>0.988</td>
<td>0.014(*)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eating fruits</td>
<td>0.201</td>
<td>0.544</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eating vegetables</td>
<td>0.038(*)</td>
<td>0.354</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drinking milk</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.055</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

Correlation between Nutritional Knowledge and Eating Behaviors

A correlation between nutritional knowledge and eating behaviours was observed by Bordi et. al, (2006). The study found that students’ nutritional beliefs influence their attitudes, and their attitude influences their intentions, and their intentions, in turn, influence their dietary behaviour. This current study supports the previous study that the level of knowledge of college students about nutrition influences their eating behaviour. Those who have higher nutritional knowledge have lesser consumption (<3 times a week) of fast food,
canned/frozen food, as well as fried snack. In other words, the higher the level of nutritional knowledge of college students, the higher the percentage of having less consumption of eating fast food, canned/forzen food and fried snack. Furthermore, from the table 5, it can be seen that the higher level of nutritional knowledge, the more frequent of college students to have breakfast more than 4 times a week. However, the higher the knowledge of nutrition, the lesser the percentage of eating after 9 pm less than 3 times a week compared to the middle and the low level of knowledge. It was also indicated that the low level of nutritional knowledge has the lowest percentage in consuming fruit and vegetables more than 4 times a week. It means that those who have low level of knowledge about nutrition consumed less frequent of fruit and vegetables.

| Table 5. The correlation between nutritional knowledge and eating behaviors |
|------------------------------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|
| Eating Behavior              | Low <=2  | Middle 3-4 | High >5  | Low <=2  | Middle 3-4 | High >5  | Low <=2  | Middle 3-4 | High >5  |
| Eating Out                   | 42.2     | 15.6     | 42.2     | 25.3     | 28.4     | 46.3     | 25.9     | 27.9     | 46.2     |
| Having Breakfast             | 57.8     | 22.2     | 70.7     | 15.7     | 34.4     | 53.8     | 11.7     | 34.4     | 34.4     |
| Eating after 9 pm            | 60       | 26.7     | 13.3     | 59.6     | 21.4     | 19.0     | 50.6     | 29.1     | 20.2     |
| Eating Fast Food             | 60       | 31.1     | 8.89     | 74.5     | 19.0     | 6.55     | 78.9     | 13.8     | 7.29     |
| Consuming canned/frozen food| 60       | 31.1     | 8.89     | 78.8     | 15.1     | 6.11     | 85.4     | 12.1     | 2.43     |
| Having Fried snacks          | 42.2     | 44.4     | 13.3     | 52       | 34.9     | 13.1     | 56.7     | 30.4     | 13       |
| Eating Fruit                 | 40       | 46.7     | 13.3     | 46.7     | 30.1     | 23.1     | 49.8     | 31.2     | 19       |
| Eating Vegetables            | 42.2     | 44.4     | 13.3     | 37.1     | 28.8     | 34.1     | 32.8     | 33.6     | 33.6     |
| Drinking Milk                | 42.2     | 28.9     | 28.9     | 57.2     | 19.7     | 23.1     | 51.8     | 24.7     | 23.5     |

**Conclusion**

This study assessed the knowledge of nutrition and eating behavior among college students at private universities in Surabaya. They can be regarded as having high knowledge of nutrition, it can be seen from their eating pattern that they consumed less fast food, canned/frozen food, fried snack as well as eating after 9 pm. However, surprisingly, they consumed less fruit, vegetables, and milk which were less than 3 times a week. Although some relationships or correlation are unclear and still need further investigation, this study provides
some insight regarding the knowledge of nutrition and eating behavior among college students in Surabaya. The result of this research study supports the need for effective nutrition information to young people, in order to create a better eating habit. Since this study suggests that college students rely on school/universities for nutritional information, educators have an obligation to improve the nutritional information possessed by college students. This information will hopefully influence nutritional belief, attitude, and dietary behavior, leading to the development of healthier eating behaviors and better overall health. Finally, more detail research focusing on college students is needed to explore further, particularly the factors that influence their perception towards healthy eating.

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Destinations as Loosely Coupled Modular Structures

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Abstract

Destinations are very complex and difficult for marketing and managing due to the local stakeholders’ relationships. Albeit this concept is not new there was little tourism destinations analysis undertaken within the perspective of the modularity theory. A proposition is made to consider a tourism destination from a viewpoint of the modularity theory.

Key words: stakeholders, modular destinations, experiences, supply chains.

Introduction

The complexity of local stakeholders’ relationships makes destinations some of the most difficult artifacts for marketing and managing (Sautter & Leisen, 1999). Though difficult to define a tourism destination is an important unit of analysis (Haywood, 1986). Exploring destinations from different perspectives continues to be the hottest issue in tourism studies (Candela & Figini, 2010). Undoubtedly, the concept itself is not new but there is a short record of tourism destinations’ analysis within the perspective of the modularity theory. Given these inputs a proposition is made to consider a tourism destination from a viewpoint of the modularity theory to find out if: a) destinations are loosely coupled modular structures; b) modular destinations and experiences are isomorphic; c) so are the tourism supply chains to deliver experiences. Noteworthy, service modularity is a growing area of interest which attracts a great deal of research activities.

Literature Review

Definitions of tourism destination are numerous and there are many difficulties in setting clear borders to it (Jafari, 2000). Making this literature review brief it is conceptualized, e.g., as: a) a package of tourism facilities and services, which like any other consumer product, is composed of a number of multi-
dimensional attributes; b) amalgam(s) of tourism products, offering an integrated experience to consumers; c) an amalgam of products and services available in one location that can draw visitors from beyond its spatial confines; d) the tourist product that in certain markets competes with other products; e) a supply system correlated with a specific area; c) an industry which occurs at destination areas (Ritchie & Crouch, 1993; Buhalis, 2000; Pearce, 1992; Bieger, 1998; Tamma, 2002; Brunetti, 2002; Murphy, 1985). Destinations are the places where service providers and tourists interact and create the tourism experience (von Friedrichs Grängsjö, 2003). This is the residency of all tourism products, which are service products, made of multiple services and thus often referred to as a service package or bundle (Stickdorn & Özer, 2009). There is no denying that tourism destinations develop in an uncontrolled manner (Presenza, 2005). They mirror loose collections of entities which work together on a semi-organized partly cooperative basis, driven largely by their own self-interests (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003). They are characterized by very low density of connections and low clusterization (Baggio et al., 2010). There is a tendency of tourism stakeholders to retreat from any forms of collaboration or cooperation. The destinations’ weaknesses in the cohesiveness can be treated by managerial efforts which are to take into account a “natural” destination self-organization tendency to run which one needs “better indications for actions and plans” (Baggio et al., 2010). These facts may be taken as the indicators that modularity can offer a useful perspective to destination analysis and service development. Modular systems are known for loose component coupling. High recombinability enables heterogeneous elements to be recombined into a variety of heterogeneous configurations thereby increasing product variety through low interdependency (Schilling, 2000). Modularity is of systemic nature so the definition of it as “the degree to which the components of the system can be separated and recombined to create a variety of configuration without losing its functionality” (Schilling, 2000) makes it a useful instrument to view services as systems (Voss & Hsuan, 2009) therefore making this definition applicable to services as well as physical goods. Aggregating independent functional units, referred to as modules, to make tourism supply chain, or destination, or disaggregating this chain, or destination, into modules, ensures the benefits of the modularity theory as applied to services. Modular service is configured from one or several service modules which can be service elements or processes (Pekkarinen & Ulkuniemi, 2008). Thus, tourism experiences made of modules reflect destinations’ structures (architectures). The more modules destination is made of the richer the experiences received. One can consume as much of experiences as large and diversified a modular destination structure is. Modular
destinations and experiences are isomorphic. So are the tourism supply chains to deliver experiences. Given the above, one could adopt the point of view that destinations are loosely coupled modular structures though the conception as referred to destination, no doubt, needs some further research.

**Methodology**

To validate the proposition made a literature analysis was employed to find out if the modularity theory obtains possible touch points with various destination concepts and the latest research in both directions. Thus, the research objective chosen was limited to finding the congruence between destination structure and modularity conception. The limitation imposed was the scope and time of research.

**Results**

The main outcome of this research is an attempt to make the modularity theory applicable to services rendered in destination and to destination itself. Understandably, the proposition made at a glance, explicitly and implicitly, looks like a promising approach to aggregation and disaggregation of supply chains and destinations. Further research is necessary to arrive at the applied solutions to explore if this approach is a close approximation to the reality.

**Conclusion**

Bringing this endeavor to a close we are to highlight a promising aspect of the modularity theory as regards the applied side of destination research. Albeit yet hypothetically, there is no denying that: a) tourism experiences made of modules reflect destinations’ structures (architectures); b) the more modules destination is made of the richer the experiences received; c) one can consume as much of experiences as large and diversified a modular destination structure is; d) modular destinations and experiences are isomorphic. The same can be said about the tourism supply chains used to deliver experiences. In our opinion loose coupling of destinations’ architectures reflects the reality.

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References


Internet Pushed Features of Mountain Resorts
Stepping Aside or Joining the Crowd

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Abstract
The major world-renowned high-altitude ski resorts do not communicate much. There is hardly any advertising; their press relations distort their true identity more than anything else. Therefore their brochures first and then their web sites best inform the generally wealthy customers who patronize them. These media describes in detail what they seek in order to become better known and attract their customers and reflect their selected positioning. In this paper, we shall examine the criteria of choice offered by the resorts through these media in order to assess their relative importance by resort and by country. We shall examine whether there is a consensus on the criteria proposed and shall assess whether those are likely to inform and convince a potential population of customers.

Key words: ski resorts, mountain resorts, winter tourism.

Introduction
We opted to focus on two media: the internet, since web sites, together with brochures that are very similar, are the first communication showcases of resorts. Internet constitutes a major stake in the luxury industry (internet users stem in their majority from rich countries, are middle or upper class and are often city dwellers). According to the web marketing agency cvfm.com, tourism accommodation is the most sought after field with over 35% of requests. However, the internet cannot be considered a sales tool for luxury goods that must maintain the selective distribution that distinguishes them. The world of luxury can only use the Internet for informative purposes and as a means of intermediation and marketing. The website of a luxury resort is foremost a showcase (1). The development of the internet raises the issue of image control, the very stake of luxury. By reinforcing the material image of luxury product (the internet user has the opportunity of seeing it more often), one reduces the share of representation linked to the product/service, its image coefficient (2).
The websites of resorts as showcases of the values conveyed will therefore be analysed; a website indeed only mirrors what the resort wishes to be.

The resorts studied were selected for their popularity among the local and international press: they are mentioned in glowing terms in most articles and/or columns dedicated to winter sports. They regularly make the headlines of tabloids because of the celebrities they attract and are listed in the lead of international and local rankings of the “best spots” for ski (3). They are also and above all renowned for their luxury hotels and their fine cuisine, which constitute crucial criteria among well-off customers. The twelve selected resorts were quoted by all the experts (4) as being high-end resorts that compete against one another throughout the world. They serve one another as reference when trying to define their positioning. They were analyzed by geographic zone: North America (Aspen, Vail and Whistler), France (Courchevel, Megève, Chamonix and Val d’Isère) Switzerland (Gstaad and St Moritz), Austria (Lech-Zürs) and finally Italy (The Dolomites: Alta Badia, Cortina d’Ampezzo).

Given the specificities of communication in luxury tourism, 24 items were kept to analyze the image of a dream destination or increase the renown of the product/service that sell by enhancing the services or the unique setting of a given resort, or both simultaneously. Those criteria are, in detail, all the elements based on which well-to-do customers may choose a winter resort thanks to the information or the communication they have a right to expect from the website or the brochure on the said resort. i.e.: 1. the price, 2. declared socio-professional category, 3. altitude in relation to health, 4. beauty of the landscape, 5. architecture, 6. tradition: village, history, 7. reputation, imaginary, 8. safety and privacy, 9.sustainable development, 10. new trends: such as sneaker-wearing affluent customers, alternative luxury, 11. access to the resort, 12. friendliness of the locals, foreign languages spoken, welcome in the hotel, mood, atmosphere, child-friendliness, 13. ski: levels, quality of the ski area, altitude for snow cover, 14. quality of the slopes, maintenance, equipment, 15. other snow sports, 16. hotels and accommodation “ski in – ski out”, 17. comfort of the accommodation on offer: bedding, size of the rooms, 18. customised services, modern equipment, spa....,19. eating: lifestyle, gastronomy, tradition, dietary meals, à la carte, outside catering in the resort and in the mountains, 20. nightlife: bars, clubs, casinos, 21. activities: ski front, cultural aspects: concerts, exhibitions..., 22. shopping: luxury brands, 23. summer activities; golf, 24. miscellaneous: such as corporate tourism....
These criteria are not specially weighted in our study. We only need to check whether they are present and how in each website or brochure. The most important weighting of a criterion will appear when it is quoted under multiple forms and will thus be the object of several entries.

Results

Prices

What importance does the price of a hotel room or a ski holiday hold for a very well-off family? Does it constitute a key decision-making point as is most often the case for all segments of the population? A certain number of studies as a result of the change of attitude of customers towards luxury clearly show that rich customers seek a good quality/price ratio; they therefore want « their money’s worth ». Indeed, a fair quality/price ratio is even more of a stake in the luxury hospitality business than in the other segments of the industry, notably during post-recession times since the high prices are based on a rational pricing policy. (5)

That is probably why practically all resorts (except for Val d’Isère) communicate directly or indirectly on prices, implicitly or explicitly. They strive to clearly expose the wide range of services on offer for customers to choose from according to their means and are intent not to seem to be exclusively devoted to the very rich. Thus, the Chamonix website has a link to the tourism office website, which is more attractive; the Aspen website has a link to a dedicated site after a quick presentation of the key selling points (price/location). Regarding accommodation issues, the St Moritz website is linked to the portal of the tourism office portal, which offers the opportunity to search for availabilities as well as a downloadable brochure, including a list of choices of possible accommodation. As for Vail, the price, which is not revealed, may be guessed according to the level of comfort, of service, of equipment… the price in Badia in the Dolomites is displayed on an individual page reached thanks to a search engine. Most of the resorts display their widest price range. As is the case of Courchevel (« from comfortable to luxurious »), of Megève (« from camping to private chalets, including hotels, B&B, from 0 to 5 stars»), of Aspen (« very wide range: lodge, inn, condo, resort, hotel, properties, 5 stars ») or of St Moritz (« from camping in the surrounding villages to the 5* palace, including the traditional cottage in the heart of St Moritz »), Whistler (« highly diversified range from 0 to 5 stars, from B&B or condo to executive chalet, including town
homes») and Lech Zürs («from the guesthouse to the private holiday home including inns and hotels»).

Among those resorts clearly displaying their prices one may include Megève (from 5000 to 20000 €), Whistler (up to over 700€ per night), Gstaad (from 85 Swiss francs to 50/400 Swiss francs). Practically an exception, Cortina d’Ampezzo boasts a sustained promotional policy in a separate section (for instance «Early Snow» at the kick-off of the season) and boasts prices deemed reasonable. Whistler also displays preferential prices in order to attract more «run of the mill» customers. The criteria proposed by search engines may vary from the most ordinary (washing machine, balcony, telecom…) to exclusive services, thus mirroring the wide range purposefully described and in accordance to the period of the stay. Prices, as in Whistler, may be consulted only once the period and the accommodation have been selected.

**Socio-professional Categories**

The prices paid by wealthy customers do not absolutely guarantee they will encounter, in the selected resort and foremost in the hotel patronized, customers who are compatible with their demands or with the wishes their social status imposes. Yet all hotel managers vouch for the desire of their customers to mingle with their friends or their peers. It is one the very first criteria of choice of a skiing holiday. Among the traditional customers of the palaces, one generally encounters show business types, professions, captains of industry…. And nationalities that are different from one’s own. Two types of population regularly cause trouble for hotel managers: some journalists, certain new-rich whose fortune was made quickly and by means other than labour. Hotel managers generally strive to diversify as much as they can the geographic origins of their customers; the customers for their part, as certain studies demonstrate, like to mingle with customers from the same country as their own!

Since this data is not politically correct, it is not showcased on the websites of resorts except in a subtle and indirect manner: Megève promotes its exclusive accommodation and shows off its luxury; the local limousine service in Vail echoes its fondness for luxury; Gstaad describes its «world renowned village of chalets» and its «stylish resort»; Lech Zürs mentions the numerous elements of comfort and of service in its exclusive chalets, yet includes few pictures and then again only outdoor shots; St Moritz explicitly evokes «elegance» and «style», as being the key components of its image. Its catchphrase «Top of the world» is no innocent pun in this sense. The choice of partners and the
luxury brand stores which the site constantly promotes are consistent with the displayed image.

Other resorts on the other hand boast quite a general public set of mind such as Cortina d’Ampezzo whose access to the slopes is free during the Ladies Alpine Ski World cup. And in the accommodation offer, the « roots » aspect may emerge more than the « posh » side: holidays on the farm and nights in a refuge in Badia (Dolomites) and nights spent on farms, in the hay, under a tepee, in a pasture cabin in Gstaad. No showy luxury show through whether in Courchevel, Val d’Isère, Aspen and even less so in Chamonix which in its accommodation section provides visitors with information on town planning, social housing and occupation of the public domain! Let us also add that Whistler is the sole resort to display signs of a strong opening towards the gay community (TAG-labelled site)

**Altitude and Health**

Altitude and health are related only in the case of four of the websites of the resorts studied: Gstaad, St Moritz, Lech Zürs and Alta Badia. The latter mentions the presence of the « AlteVie » trail and altitude and the beneficial effects of mountain hiking are promoted. Lech Zürs located at 1450 m evokes purity and communion with nature, insists on the numerous hiking trails that have made it a favourite venue for Nordic walking. St Moritz, located at 1856 meters above the sea level, boasts unobstructed views on the surrounding mountains and lakes, a sunny climate, and the National Park of the region. Gstaad is described as a low and medium altitude resort yet is also labelled « Wellness Destination»: five hotels boast a complete wellness infrastructure and eight a partial one; it has a sports centre with an indoor pool, recreation areas, nature conservation areas, medical assistance and care.

**Beauty and Scenery**

It is not systematically mentioned: Val d’Isère and St Moritz do not refer to it; it is referred to indirectly when Megève evokes the protection of the environment or when Whistler refers to the vastness of its site. As for Gstaad, it does mention the great lakes (Léman, Thoune, la Gruyère) but a section devoted to access, more to locate the resort geographically than to truly highlight the beauty of its scenery. Conversely other resorts know how to turn the beauty of their site into a selling point and proceed in doing so differently. Courchevel with the Parc de la Vanoise, its exceptional fauna and flora, the natural site of la Rosière; Chamonix describes its site as sitting on the roof of Europe with its
extravagant nature (half of the European glaciers and the Mer de Glace) and its natural reserves (Carlavayron, Bérard, Aiguilles Rouges); Aspen with its White River Natural Forest; Vail with its golf course overlooking the Gore Range (with 360° panoramic views); Lech Zürs flaunts the harmony of its scenery and promotes communion with nature; Alta Badia mentions astoundingly beautiful mountains of an exceptional quality and ten natural parks (Dolomites d’Ampezzo, Dolomiti di Sesto, Dolomiti Bullunesi...) and Cortina its UNESCO listed Natural Heritage Site.

**Architecture**

Only four of the resorts studied underline the quality or the beauty of their architecture which could however have been considered a key selling point. Val d’Isère highlights its traditional Savoyard architecture made from local materials (stone, wood and stone roof tiles). Gstaad does likewise for its historical buildings with old wood houses; finally Lech Zürs mentions the fact that it was elected « Most Beautiful Village in Europe » in 2004. Chamonix, for its part only mentions a picturesque landlocked village.

**History and Tradition**

Certain resorts pull a veil over their history, either because they do not have one or because they’d rather not refer to it: such is the case of Aspen, Vail, Megève, Cortina d’Ampezzo and Whistler. Others on the contrary refer to their past: the village of Val d’Isère built along the patterns of old traditional hamlets with its historical baroque testimonials via the religious venues; the monastic past, the role of Napoleon the 3rd and the peasant families of Chamonix; the Walser house open to visitors in Lech Zürs; the various characteristics of the villages spread around Gstaad (romantic, sports and leisure oriented, stylish and posh), the historical site of the village of Saanen; the figure of Déodat Tancré de Gratet, Gratet de Dolomieu, who discovered the Alta Badia rock, its dual origin, both Germanic (Tyrol and woodwork) and Latin which turned it into a conflict zone between the Italians and the Austrians; through its history, St Moritz wishes to place the spotlight on its thermal lakes but above all on the birth of Alpine tourism of which it was the origin. History also rhymes with tradition and authenticity, the ancestral know-how one encounters in Courchevel in the pasture farms and the production of Beaufort cheese or in Gstaad crafts or yet again in the traditional Savoyard cooking of Val d’Isère.
Reputation and Appeal to the Imaginary

Reputation and imaginary must make prospective customers dream and lead them to come and share these exclusive favourite spots, usually the privilege of the « happy few ». It is often the attributes used to depict them that play that part: vastness of the highest peaks and grandness in Courchevel, the mysterious and remote village of Chamonix, fondness for over the top in Aspen (36 Disneylands, 4 Eiffel Towers in the mountains), the biggest resort of the USA in Vail, the village of Gstaad renowned worldwide for its poshness and grand luxury, St Moritz, cosmopolitan vortex of luxury and elegance where the Kennedy family, Alfred Hitchcock, John Ford, Brigitte Bardot and many other celebrities have come to spend their holidays; unique rock in the world in Alta Badia, listed as a natural heritage site by UNESCO. A balance or a compromise between tradition and modernity enhances the phenomenon: world-scale championships in Val d’Isère, a highly acclaimed sports venue (first winter Olympic Games in 1924) as in St Moritz, where on two occasions the winter Olympic Games were held; and a strong scientific inclination in Chamonix, exceptional winter sports in Lech Zürs; the venue for the Olympic Games in 1956 and the yearly Ladies Alpine Ski World Cup in Cortina d’Ampezzo.

Quiet

Quiet takes on several aspects: safety (on the slopes, in hotels, in the resort), respect for a privacy sheltered from intrusive stares, the quest for a luxury as subdued as possible; it is a well-rehashed theme among hotel managers who never reveal who their customers are and protect them from all types of aggression. Wealthy customers in addition have body guards; hotels are equipped with video surveillance. Obsession with safety and quiet has led hotels and chalets to become fully privatized over certain periods. One therefore expects this specific offer in terms of service not to be explicitly communicated on the web sites of resorts while it is in fact a key criterion of choice for wealthy customers. Only Lech Zürs mentions top of the range remote chalets with the recurring comment « on the outskirts » and Cortina d’Ampezzo offers an alternative to privatized rentals with a contact and no further detail. Other resorts only mention services: Courchevel boasts privatized chalets with governesses, jacuzzis etc..., Megève serviced chalets and Vail private chauffeured transport from the airport.
Sustainable Development

Can sustainable development be a factor in the choice of a high-end winter sports resort? Seven of the twelve resorts studied allude to it, in a global way, like Megève, whose tourism office was the first in France to be ISO 14001 certified or more specifically, by placing the spotlight on the presence of the first national park in Central Europe in the area around St Moritz, underlining the fact that the protection of the environment has been a stake as early as the late 19th century... or yet again by offering accommodation in farms, nights in mountain refuges or huts, consumption of organic harvests .... (Italian Dolomites and Gstaad). Responsible tourism may also focus on accessibility for the disabled (Adapted Tourism in Megève) or on ecology in Whistler, Lech Zürs and Gstaad. Atypical accommodations in Gstaad such as tepees also foster a different relationship with nature such as the biomass heating factory or the high level of minerals of the tap water in Lech Zürs. However Whistler is the resort which endorses the most extensively this theme with its teams in charge of protecting nature and of building awareness among tourists, its protection of the flora and the fauna, its competition on sustainable development with prize-givings......

Alternative Luxury and Trends

A new generation is coming to the fore however its conception of luxury has changed a lot. Luxury has become more individual than social and the symbolic factor remains the unifying element It is a question of personal enjoyment for the «sneaker-wearing rich » as they are called. This new generation of enterprising thirty-somethings contributes to breaking the traditional codes; it disturbs through its seemingly conflicting demands as it seeks a different kind of well-being. For its members, hotel managers will need to outdo themselves in terms of ingenuity, offer increasingly luxurious, trendy and intimate products. Hotels that are in a position to offer them today are rare and a new type of palace is emerging on the market; the historical palaces will therefore need to react, like the Royal Monceau in Paris(6) that has elected to challenge its structure and its codes. At least, such was their intention. Surprisingly enough, none of the websites of the resorts studied target this gilded youth that it so happens uses the internet intensively. Certain hotels such as the Cheval Blanc in Courchevel have nonetheless attracted such customers. Others in Whistler also share a more modern conception adapted to a New Age luxury and do not shy from offering last-minute deals in high-end hotels.
Access to Resorts

More traditionally, most of the websites – apart from Aspen’s - mention access to the resort by plane, train or road; only Alta Badia limits its information to very general public means of transport (Cortina Express); others insist on private transportation or limo taxis and helicopters (Courchevel, Vail, Whistler, Val d’Isère, Megève). The Courchevel, Val d’Isère, Megève or St Moritz websites boast specific sections (for instance « Reaching Megève ») or special infrastructures (Fly and Ski for Cortina d’Ampezzo). Distances from airports are not always listed; the sites of Gstaad and Lech Zürs devoted exclusively to German speakers may be an obstacle. Only Megève and Whistler are concerned with access for the disabled; all mention their free shuttle services.... Gstaad offers maps and timetables; Lech Zürs and St Moritz mention the state of the roads, the latter also supplying train timetables. Proximity with large towns such as Geneva for Chamonix and Megève, Vancouver for Whistler, Denver for Vail is rarely resorted to as a sales pitch, whereas the Dolomites could avoid mentioning the substantial distance that separates them from Verona or Venice. Easy access, notably from abroad, can be a real asset for customers who are foreign in their majority.

Local Welcome

The best welcome foreigners may appreciate is to hear their own language spoken, or at the very least English. The four languages most frequently used, varying from one website to the next, are English, French, German and Italian. Only three resorts offer more: Japanese, Korean and Chinese in Whistler; Russian, Polish, Japanese and Chinese for Cortina D’Ampezzo and St Moritz (even though the latter only supplies part of the information in those languages, the full web site being only available in English and in German). But this is only the case of the websites. « The cosmopolitan atmosphere » is one of the pillars of the brand image of St Moritz (70% of foreign tourists) as is « style » which requires the presence of luxury brand stores. Hence the issue of the quality of the welcome is all the more essential for a resort such as St Moritz. Yet in the stores, the situation is trickier; staff at Courchevel are taking Russian classes for the benefit of the resort and for their own benefit. Nothing transpires however in terms of the warmth of the local welcome that is sometimes better left unmentioned....even hotels are discrete on that topic, in all resorts!
Altitude and Snow Cover

Altitude is a factual data that may be viewed in a positive light by skiers in search of snow cover if it is high or negatively for health reasons and conversely. It is most often the case high up yet certain resorts such as Megève in France or Gstaad abroad are not located very high. The ski area represents a major key selling asset for Courchevel (Les 3 Vallées, « the largest ski area in the world »), for Val d’Isère (« legendary ski area », « exhilarating peaks for expert skiers »), Whistler (official site for the winter Olympic and Paralympics games of 2010) or St Moritz (which has welcomed the winter Olympics twice). Nevertheless no indication is provided on the websites of Megève (1100m) Chamonix (links to the websites of the ski areas with no comments), Vail and the Dolomites. The precisions given regarding the highest peaks (Val d’Isère at 3450m), the last ski lifts (at 2000m in Whistler), the vertical rise (1900m in Val d’Isère, between 1000 and 3000 in Gstaad, between 1300 and 2800m in Lech Zürs). One may also learn about the yearly snowfalls (7.62 m in Aspen), the proportion of natural and man-made snow cover (in Gstaad and in Lech Zürs: 58% man-made). Finally, off-piste practices are mentioned in Val d’Isère and Aspen (the Powder Tour, guided off-piste in powder snow). Among high altitude resorts, only Courchevel in France describes its altitude as being « energizing » and extols the quiet. St Moritz, in Switzerland, praises its altitude as it guarantees snow cover and sunshine. The beauty of the scenery at such an altitude is also highlighted.

Diversity and Quality of Alpine Ski

Many resorts describe the levels at which ski may be practiced, sometimes with an abundance of detail (Aspen, Whistler, Lech, Cortina), insisting on the various levels which are accessible (Courchevel, Aspen, Vail, Val d’Isère - high level and general public Espace Killy – Gstaad Whistler, Cortina, St Moritz) via links (Chamonix, Lech, Badia), maps (Vail, St Moritz), with special mentions (disabled travelers for Whistler, mother/child offer in Badia). Megève is the only one not to express itself on this topic. St Moritz insists more specifically on the great diversity of its ski area and the vast choice left for all publics in terms of alpine ski: it is thus specified that 10 ski lifts are reserved for beginners. The quality of the ski is also described differently! Snow blowers (Courchevel), comfort (Megève), number of slopes (Val d’Isère, Whistler, Cortina), number of kilometres of slope (Val d’Isère, Gstaad, Lech, St Moritz), number of ski lifts, (Val d’Isère, Whistler, Gstaad, Cortina, St Moritz), detachable chair lifts (Lech), snowboarding terrains (Val d’Isère, Vail), number of snow parks (Lech, 3 in
Aspen, 4 in Gstaad). Other data such as the hourly output may be supplied (Lech, Cortina), heated ski lifts and powder snow (Lech). Helicopter drop-offs are mentioned only in Megève.

**Other Sports or Snow-related Activities**

Among other sports related to snow or ice, Nordic ski is often mentioned (Megève, Dynastar trophy in Val d’Isère, Chamonix, Gstaad, Lech, Badia, Nordic Centre in Cortina, St Moritz); snowshoe hiking comes next (Val d’Isère, Gstaad, Lech, Badia, Cortina, St Moritz), sledge (Vail, Whistler, Gstaad, Lech, Badia, Cortina, St Moritz), ice skating rings (Courchevel, Megève, Gstaad, Lech, Badia, Cortina, St Moritz); then snowmobile (Val d’Isère, St Moritz), snow biking (Gstaad), husky sleighs (Megève, Val d’Isère, Lech, St Moritz), bobsleigh (Aspen, St Moritz); finally ice cascades and igloos (Val d’Isère, St Moritz), and nature trails (fauna and flora in Val d’Isère or St Moritz, game in Lech) are listed among the elements you may choose from in those resorts. St Moritz deserves specific attention because of the very large choice of snow-related sports on offer: twenty or so activities are indeed on offer besides skiing (let us mention for instance horse races on frozen lakes or Olympic ski jump).

**Location of Hotels**

Some customers aspire to secluded locations in order not to be seen but there are also die-hard fans of closeness to the slopes. Courchevel alternates between promoting the closeness of the slopes or that of hiking trails. Vail offers an interactive map on which to select hotels, not according to their price but to their location in the resort.

**Comfort of Hotels**

Many customers are more specifically concerned with the size of the rooms and the comfort of bedding. Landing a fifth star in France in January 2010 was dependent on the size of the rooms. Hotel managers have often had to increase their size to approximately 40 m² by turning three rooms into two larger ones. However their description remains often vague (« very beautiful hotels with high standards of comfort » in the case of Cortina d’Ampezzo), (« from budget to grand luxury » for Gstaad) or classical (« spa, gym, concierge services» ... for Vail).
Customization of Services

Numerous websites do not mention those exclusive services, perhaps because they are naturally provided in all luxury hotels under varying guises: sports equipment and relaxation, pool, spa, well-being, photographer, physiotherapist, hairdresser, private transportation (Courchevel, Megève, Vail, Gstaad, St Moritz...). Some Beauty/Well-being services are accessible to all as in Gstaad. A simple contact may be indicated without these services appearing on the website (for instance in Cortina d’Ampezzo).

Quality of Catering

Among the resorts or the hotels, five resorts altogether mention their restaurants. Aspen and Vail limit themselves to merely list without describing them or giving particulars about the food/atmosphere; on the other hand Courchevel, Megève, Gstaad and St Moritz have turned this aspect into a substantial selling point. Megève mentions those restaurants listed in the Michelin and Gault et Millau guidebooks as well as other venues conversant in the art of new and traditional cuisine. Gstaad and St Moritz mention the restaurants awarded a distinction by the Michelin, the Gault & Millau, the Swiss Guild of cooking set up in certain hotels (Bagatelle in Grand Chalet, Prado in the Bellevue hotel in Gstaad). St Moritz also insists on its Gourmet Festival which celebrates gourmet food in the presence of international leading chefs and budding talents.

In Courchevel a true war of the chefs is currently being waged: Michelin star restaurants (7) signings by renowned chefs and new stars who have established the fame of those mountain palace restaurants (8). The stars strengthen the communication strategy around luxury but certain dread a certain sclerosis of the sumptuous image of the resort in opposition to the real diversity of the offer. These restaurants build loyalty among certain rich gourmet customers; as for those large financial corporations which own several dining venues, often belonging to various categories, they can afford to consider that a fine restaurant is part and parcel of the promotional investments of their group and accept to lose out financially on a gourmet restaurant to the benefit of the image of the whole group and find in it a real global interest. With seven Michelin star restaurants including four that were awarded Michelin stars in 2010, Courchevel is one of the places in the world in which one comes across the most Michelin star venues per m². Among high altitude resorts, four stand out: Val d’Isère, Aspen, St Moritz and Vail. The latter provides pictures and practi-
The «dining» section offers a choice of starters by type of food before selecting the price range and finally the name of the restaurant.

**Nightlife**

Party animals may choose their resort according to the nightlife. Resorts such as Courchevel, Chamonix, Lech Zürs or Badia don’t mention it! Many do not dwell on it such as Megève (« bowling, casino, cinema ») or St Moritz, do not offer links to the websites concerned (Aspen) or do not do so in English (Gstaad), do not mention a specific atmosphere (Val d’Isère, Cortina d’Ampezzo). The only ones to list the bars and night clubs are Val d’Isère (from a practical standpoint, with no pictures provided), Aspen (main features and atmosphere briefly described), Vail (age-adapted events), Cortina d’Ampezzo (opening hours). In the end, only Whistler and Gstaad have turned it into a selling point: Whistler, « fun and riotous if that’s what you’re after » and Gstaad with its numerous bars welcoming the nightlife in each village.

**Entertainment and Cultural Activities**

Certain activities remain linked to snow, such as torchlight descents on snow fronts, sound and light shows (in Courchevel and Megève notably), the Nuits Rouges with shows on the slopes and festive light displays in Val d’Isère, prizeguardings and championships (Aspen, Val d’Isère). Other activities revolve around culture: film festivals (Vail, Aspen), concerts (Courchevel, Vail, ballet and opera in Aspen, Val d’Isère, Lech Zürs, polyphonic choir, Music Campus and Musical Corps Parade in Cortina d’Ampezzo, Snow and Symphony classical music festival, concerts during Sinfonia Engiadina in St Moritz), painting and sculpture exhibitions, art galleries (Dali in Courchevel, Megève, Aspen, Lech Zürs, Val d’Isère, St Moritz), theatre (Aspen), dance (Aspen, Whistler). Other activities revolve around nature, discovery of the surrounding region, local crafts (visit of the village and farms and crafts-related escapades in Val d’Isère, fauna and flora discovery trails, green hikes, bear-watching in Whistler, village fairs in Courchevel, pasture festival, introduction to gruyere-making techniques in Gstaad, events based on friendliness and sharing in Aspen, dance evenings in Whistler, discovery of the National Park of Engadine, 1st National Park in Central Europe in St Moritz).

Certain resorts focus their activities on genuine specialities: for some, cooking classes (Val d’Isère, Courchevel) for others their scientific interest (festival of sciences, Alpine Museum, Museum of Crystals in Chamonix), others yet on their history (Walser house in Lech Zürs, excursions in Innsbruck, Italian Do-
lomites, tradition and history in St Moritz, which was famed as early as the 12th century for its thermal cures). Lech Zürs particularly stands out for organizing tours of Bavarian royal castles, Swarovski crystal, of the world heritage site Bregenzerwald forest, a world heritage site, as well as the Dolomites: «First World War Ski Tour» of the Italian trenches in Badia in a trip combining history and nature; and for Cortina: 15th century church erected on the occasion of barbaric invasions, Civic Library containing 21300 volumes pertaining to local history, Paleontological and Ethnographic museums, Great War Museum.

Last but not least, Gstaad and Lech Zürs are the resorts that best highlight the exceptional events they host and that are likely to attract their preferred customers. In Gstaad: Swatch FIVB World Tour, Allianz Switzerland Open Gstaad, Menuhin Festival Gstaad, Polo Gold Cup Gstaad, Country Night Gstaad; in Lech Zürs: Parish Festival, Village Festival, and Peak Triathlon. St Moritz insists more on international-scale events such as the world snow polo cup or the St Moritz City Race which brings together celebrities and distinguished guests.

Shopping and Luxury Stores

Val d’Isère, Chamonix et Badia do not mention their businesses. Among those resorts that do, Gstaad and Lech Zürs limit themselves to mentioning the usual services all towns provide. Only Courchevel, Megève, Aspen Vail, St Moritz and Cortina pride themselves on their luxury stores, mainly major ready-to-wear brands, jewellery, art galleries. Whistler focuses more exclusively on luxury sporting equipment, Megève on delicatessen food and regional products and Cortina on local cabinet-making crafts.

Sports and Summer Activities

Although all resorts would like to open year-round, high-end customers are naturally not the same in the winter than in the summer. Activities on offer are not very differentiating and though they are always present, hardly constitute an element of choice compared to the winter season. One traditionally comes across: hiking, mountain biking, climbing, fishing, tennis, pools, ice skating rings, well-being, balneotherapy, horse riding, yoga, summer sledging, shooting, go-kart. In addition to golfing (Aspen and St Moritz), kayaking/canoeing/rafting (Megève, Aspen, Vail, Gstaad, Lech Zürs, Cortina), hang-gliding/paragliding/helicopters/hot-air balloons (Courchevel, Megève, Gstaad, St Moritz and Lech Zürs), hunting (Vail), jeep tours (Vail), trekking (Cortina, St Moritz), the Mont Blanc Marathon (Chamonix).
During certain periods of the year, the presence of a golf course may become a decisive element in the choice of a resort. Six resorts describe this offer: Chamonix, Aspen, Vail, St Moritz, Whistler and Lech Zürs. Aspen and Lech are the resorts that give a more detailed account. Aspen has six golf clubs over the two sites, some public and others privately run, located between 2 and 40 km from the villages. Whistler describes five prestigious golf courses: one designed by Arnold Palmer, another by architect Robert Muir Graves and yet another by Robert Cupp. Lech Zürs numbers over fifteen golf courses within a 1½ hour radius; the services of professional golfer Daniel Green are on offer in the framework of the Lech Golfing Academy.

**Miscellaneous – Business Tourism**

Further criteria such as business tourism may attract or on the contrary put off a population of rich holiday-goers, as with school holidays over certain periods of the year. Only Courchevel, Val d’Isère and Whistler mention the potential presence of groups on the occasion of weddings or summer camps (Whistler), seminars or promotional events (Courchevel, Val d’Isère).

**Conclusion**

One may draw two conclusions from the way resorts describe themselves through their web sites and their brochures: firstly, there is a real consensus regarding informative rather than promotional elements. The resorts do not truly strive to sell themselves beyond the mere description of what they have to offer; secondly, many resorts and hotels do not take into consideration the evolutions of high-end winter sports tourism; these could be taken into account while preserving their appeal for more traditional customers. Indeed this is essential in order to renew their customers, to attract younger customers and to build loyalty among the different customer segments. An offer that would echo those various evolutions could constitute an innovative and profitable positioning for those resorts best prepared.

**References**

1. According to Mr Leusseux (Duke Agency), l’année où les marques de luxe ont commencé à croire à l’internet, CB News luxury edition n°595, the expectations of internet users of content are high. For half of them, luxury web sites must entice, surprise and for 63 % of them, the web site must often be updated.

(5) The American Luxury Market Report 2003 underlines the fact that tourism probably belongs to one of those rare sectors in luxury in which the buyer undertakes a comparison of price/benefits (Unity Marketing firm).

(6) In Paris, these also include the upcoming Mandarin Oriental, the Shangri-la, and later the Peninsula. Study by the Jones firm « Lang Lasalles Hôtels » on the Parisian palaces by 2015, by Léa Barnetown. Quotidien du Tourisme, August 28, 2008.

(7) 2 stars: Michel Rochedy (Le Chabichou), J.P. Jacob (Le Bateau Ivre), 1 star: Alexandre Ourago (La Table du Kilimandjaro).

(8) 2 stars: Pierre Gagnaire (Les Airelles), Yannick Alleno (Le Cheval Blanc) – 1 star: Il Vino, Azimut Le Praz, Farçon in Tania (located in the neighbouring area of Courchevel) – no star: Guy Martin (Le Lana).
Abstract

In 2011 a new interest in e-books and new media has re-focused the attention on books also as potential source of inspiration for tourists: “following their white rabbits”, people can receive information about a monument, a town, a village or a restaurant. Focusing on “tourism” information, a reader can recreate the atmosphere embedded in the pages deciding to book a trip to visit the real places described, directly from a website. The purpose of this paper is to provide a framework for literary tourism to help both the supply and the demand side (i.e. tour operators and consumers) to exploit the business opportunity generated by the “touristic layer” in any book, leveraging on destination images and bookenarium.com community.

Key words: literary tourism, destination image, alternative tourism.

Introduction

The act of reading a book is, at the same time, one of the most common and personal action anyone has the opportunity to experience during his life. While reading a book, a reader can delve into his thoughts and connect his memories, feelings or fantasies with the written content of the pages: the words, the sentences, the passages and the chapters are transformed in “places” to be explored. Using his mind, the reader is naturally transformed into a tourist who can visit the whole world, either this world is real or it comes from his imagination. The opportunity of “using” the visual content of the books for touristic purposes is not new: the studies about literary tourism (Squire, 1996) and destination images (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Etchner & Ritchie, 1993; Martin & Bosque, 2008) highlight the important role of images in tourism. How to capitalize on these images linked to books to attract tourists is, nonetheless, not so immediate: in fact travel agencies, online searches, etc. do not offer many specific travels related to books. However, leveraging on the rise of new technologies and behavioral trends of sharing through social networking, it’s possible to
create new business models in literary tourism. bookenarium.com represents a solution able to fill the previous gaps and expectations: it allows its users (reader / tourist) to easily “enter into any book” and to explore its contents, thanks to its browsing features. Leveraging on the information shared by the community, it’s possible for the users the opportunity to be addressed into “real worlds” connected to a specific book and, at the same time, to easily book any service (trips, travels, hotels etc.) directly from the same platform. The purpose of this paper is to describe how the services offered by bookenarium.com can represent a powerful tool for both the demand side (the readers and the tourists) and the supply side (the service providers and tour operators) because of its capability of stimulating the demand and matching the needs of each part involved.

Literature Review

Images play an important role in the projection of a destination: in literature is generally accepted that destination images influence tourists’ behaviors (Baloglu & McClearly, 1999; Etchner & Ritchie, 1993; Martin & Bosque, 2008) and that these images have the power to change and rearrange the tourists’ impressions and perceptions of a destination “giving him a pre-taste of the destination” Fakeye and Crompton (1991). Accordingly to Kotler and Gertner (2004), the destination images held by consumers are so powerful that they can either benefit the place or induce a negative impact. In order to benefit the destination, images have to match some criteria: they have to be distinctive, appealing, simple and believable. The turning point is that, because authenticity is a subjective concept, any image can become authentic depending on whom the viewer is and how much he trusts the source of those images. Moscardo and Pearce (1999) understand that the authenticity perceived by tourists “is a judgment or value placed on it by the observer”, as cited in Reisinger and Steiner (2006). The latter also mention how “authenticity is a projection of tourists’ own beliefs, expectations, preferences, stereotyped images, and consciousness onto toured objects.” Britton (1991) has scouted into the factors which contribute to that trust. He helps us underlining the potential role of elements different from the activities intended to sell travel and tour products, pointing his attention towards the social groups, cultural features, and physical elements incorporated into tourism. The image of a certain destination can be based on different sources: images sometimes are portrayed in novels or movies or advertising, but can be based also on the tourists’ interpretation and expectations of these images to be seen at the particular destination. These sources can be
various and “external” (e.g. movies, songs and books) as well as “internal” (memories, fantasies etc.).

In order to offer to the potential tourists the “right” destination image, it becomes fundamental to study the process of formation of a destination image. Thanks to the work of Baloglu and McClearly (1999) this is possible. They created a framework based on the interactive relationship between the destination image, the personal and stimulus factors: from their work is clear that the receipt of the “right” destination image has to consider not only the “usual” information sources (e.g. previous experience and the distribution channels) but also some psychological factors (consumers’ values, motivations, social factors like age, marital status, etc.). The main challenge for the tourist operators becomes to find a way to use the personal information a tourist could provide.

The new opportunity thanks to social networking: After having understood how tourists’ impressions of the images of the destination can play an important role in tourism industry, we have to consider that destination image can be greatly influenced by other consumers through the latest technology and trends. For centuries, people have expressed thoughts and emotions through arts, by paper and ink. In the last 20 years, technology has been evolving in ways that it allows people to communicate their thoughts to others through the use of social networks and tools. The combination of IT tools and destination images could pave the path towards a new way to communicate with tourists: as using the web is possible to use new channels to distribute of tourism products, the addition of online information sources to the image formation agents is essential. Choi, Lehto, and Morrison (2006) state that although image formation has been examined extensively in the literature, research on the web as an image formation agent is still in its early stages. Schmallegger and Carson (2007) have been the first to understand the potential usage of social tools (like blogs) for promotional touristic purposes thanks to their help in defining the destination images. On top of that, they highlight the importance of information exchange between consumers which, thanks to direct “independent” experience with the tourism product, offers more value compared to traditional tourist information sources. Pan et al. (2007) reinforce this theory as they believe that “interpersonal influence arising from opinion exchange between consumers is an important factor influencing consumers’ purchase decisions”.

The “right moment” to come into play: In literature the opportunities of influencing tourist behaviors by “guiding” them leveraging on their perception is not new. Fawcett and Cormack (2001) recognize this opportunity, stating that
“what is authentic is formed partly by the personal commitments, bureaucratic mandates, and entrepreneurial interests/economic necessities that site guardians face” and “those who manage popular sites...hold different versions of the authentic”. Consumers’ destination images depend largely on external stimuli (called by the latter “image formation agents”) (Gunn, 1988; Gartner, 1993). Gunn (1988) introduced the notion of organic (i.e. generated by unbiased sources) and induced (i.e. based on marketing and promotional material) images in tourism, offers a model to show how different agents can contribute to the destination image formation. Gunn’s model contains seven phases of the travel experience within which the image is constantly changing: only in some specific phases, when destination images are created, is possible to exploit organic or induced images as represented in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>#</th>
<th>Phase</th>
<th>Destination image formation</th>
<th>Agents able to influence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Accumulation of mental images about vacation experiences</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>induced</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Modification of those images by further information</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>induced</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Decision to take a vacation trip</td>
<td>no</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Travel to the destination</td>
<td>no</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Participation at the destination</td>
<td>no</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Return home</td>
<td>no</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Modification of images based on the vacation experience</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>organic</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Methodology**

We decided to focus on a particular niche of tourists, i.e. those potentially interested in visiting places connected to books they’ve read or heard of. For them there’re few opportunities to scout offerings, because of the supply limits: only a few books or saga are considered famous enough to have a “real” tour dedicated to them and the tourism associated with books is a niche product itself.

Our first assumption has been that these niche tourists have to be considered first of all readers, who can only at a certain moment manifest interests in visiting some places connected with a book.

We’ve also assumed that the readers would like to avoid to be exposed to strong sources of advertisement. In our idea, when a reader picks up a book, he expects that there are only two parties involved: the reader himself and the book/the author. If, as consumers of entertainment, people can accept the presence of advertisements as it becomes integral to a story, the placing of some-
thing similar to advertisement within a book could be perceived as a violation of the intimacy between the author and reader. Another important assumption is that books, differently from other media in which people “accept” product placement, take place entirely in the theater of the mind or better, in different theaters of mind, each mind being different. So, while it could help to illustrate a scene by mentioning someone writing on a Mac in PS Café in Singapore, the perception of those two unique aspects varies from reader to reader thanks to personal experience and knowledge of Singapore’s atmosphere.

Due to these limits, we’ve considered only a few online websites which have demonstrated capabilities to offer some functionalities to explore the books and visit the places mentioned inside them. The result of this search is summarized in Table 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Website</th>
<th>Organic images</th>
<th>Induced images</th>
<th>Social networking</th>
<th>Booking feature</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bookdrum.com</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bookenarium.com</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>in progress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smalldemons.com</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>no</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 shows that all the current offers are quite limited in terms of features offered. In case of bookdrum.com, these limits are represented by the number of books processed / uploaded which is close to 200 units and the lack of an adequate offering to help potential tourists in booking operations. In case of smalldemons.com, even if it’s expected a quick bypass of the bookdrum.com limits, the main drawback is related to the limited personal contribution of the various users. The core of Small Demons is to track, through crowd sourcing, all the “main” things within literature and to offer its users a chance to purchase associated items: exploring the content in a book, Small Demons offers the opportunity to increase tourism discovering the real places described in books; nonetheless something is missing: being the reading experience an intimate action which takes place within the reader’s mind theater, the usage of images to describe a particular place and involve tourists cannot be “limited” to general destination images. bookenarium.com, even if still in beta testing, has been created to bypass all the previous limits. bookenarium.com wants “to stimulate, explore, express and share readers’ thoughts and imagination while reading a book”, leveraging on other users’ experiences.
Bearing in mind the potential impacts of the sources, we’ve decide to test a modified version of Gunn’s model to take into consideration the influences of social networks in any of the steps where destination images normally come into play; on top of that, as represented in Table 3 which shows agents and their relative importance, we tried to consider also the opportunity of interaction in step 5.

Table 3. Bookenarium.com suggestions algorithm tuned on part of Gunn’s Model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>#</th>
<th>Phase</th>
<th>Primary agent</th>
<th>Secondary agent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Accumulation of mental images about vacation experiences</td>
<td>Induced</td>
<td>organic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Modification of those images by further information</td>
<td>Induced</td>
<td>organic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Participation at the destination</td>
<td>Organic</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Modification of images based on the vacation experience</td>
<td>Organic</td>
<td>induced</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thanks to our privileged contact with bookenarium.com management team, we’ve tried to mingle the mix of destination images as items, the importance of community features linked to those images and Gunn’s model to maximize the impacts on potential tourists. These impacts are measured in the subsequent stimulus of the readers to enter into the booking section offered by tour operators.

Starting from the suggestion algorithm of the site, which is responsible to suggest the next section to be visited, we’ve tried to “tune” the frequency and order of appearance of the destination images, both the non-sponsored (created by user) and the sponsored (created by tour operator) ones.

We chose a group of 15 testers (age: 25-35, 60% males, limit of 3 for the same nationality and with max of 2 travels a year each) who had the possibility to browse among all the 20+ uploaded bookenarium (i.e. the virtual universes about a book created by readers). In the beta-section of bookenarium.com has been available one of the following three options at a time:

1. induced destination images enhancer,
2. organic destination images experience enhancer,
3. dynamically balanced destination images enhancer.

Option 3 is the result of aforementioned tuning of the suggestions algorithm, which depends on the following variables, ordered decreasingly by importance:
1. number of images in category “landscape” uploaded by the user (organic images) on the website,
2. number of offerings by (simulated) tour operators for a certain destination (induced images),
3. number of images uploaded by other users in a specific bookenarium,
4. pre-existent interest in a book expressed by the creation of a bookenarium for a book,
5. the reputation of a certain destination (measured by the a questionnaire given to the group itself).

We have given to the testers a questionnaire to measure the reputation of the destination and their preferences. We have also directly observed their behavior in terms of visited pages by clicking on a destination image, click on sponsored sections and time spent in each of these pages.

**Results**

The vast majority (90%) of the testers have expressed in the questionnaire the desire of having some induced destination images offered in the suggestion section, preferring the dynamically balanced enhancer to the other ones. In terms of result of navigation towards a sponsored section, all the users have clicked at least two times one of the sponsored offers if using the dynamically balanced destination images enhancer, even two times more than when the other enhancer options have been selected.

The most interesting result is related to the limited role played by the reputation of a destination in attracting the users to the sponsored offerings. On the contrary, the most powerful source of influence for the users have been their previous behavior in posting something on bookenarium.com (organic images, even indirect ones, i.e. not connected to the specific bookenarium in which they explored the sponsored section), the number of offerings (induced images) available and images uploaded from other people (indirect organic) in a certain bookenarium.

**Conclusion**

Leveraging on technology, bookenarium.com will exploit its suggestion algorithm to improve the likelihood that readers will find the content they like for a potential travel and, consequently, the likelihood that readers will buy that content (i.e. the travel), becoming tourists.
To obtain this result the reader has to be guided into the accomplishment of his tourist needs browsing destination images uploaded by the community and not only by sponsored agents (induced images), even if the number of the latter counts. The “suggestions section” of the website, if the dynamically balanced algorithm comes into play, actually conveys more readers towards the sponsored pages.

With bookenarium.com is offered to each reader the chance to create his own book universe, leveraging on the flow of more information, ideas, experiences etc. and, at the same time, giving him the chance to customize his reading experience by adding personal considerations, ideas and emotion lived while reading the book, i.e. creating the organic images. The passion for uploading these organic images seems to be one of the most important elements to be considered to identify the potential tourists.

bookenarium.com can be properly tuned to help readers to become literary tourists. Leveraging on the following elements is possible to offer to this particular cluster of “tourists from books” a new experience:

1. the essence of bookenarium.com itself, i.e. helping readers to build their own universe while exploring a book thanks to the upload of organic destination images;

2. the structure of bookenarium.com, which allows at the same time both the users (who can share information and destination images about places mentioned directly or indirectly in a book) and tour operators (who, uploading more induced destination images can attract more users);

3. the opportunity of tuning the bookenarium.com suggestions section in order to balance both the induced and organic destination images based on the past behavior of any user.

Acknowledgement

I thank Gabriele Villani for helping me with the development of bookenarium.com and with the focus on tourist needs. I am heartily thankful to my fiancée Lily, whose encouragement, guidance and support always helped me.

References


Tourism, Governance and Networks: 
A Theoretical Study 

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Abstract 

The neoliberal reforms with the redefinition role of political power provided the appearance of a new paradigm: the governance and networks. However, the thematic of governance and networks have been few explored in tourism. In this context, the objective of this research is to analyze the theoretical-methodological approaches utilized in the researches about governance and/or networks in tourism. As criterion for selecting the material, it was used the occurrence of the words governance and/or networks in the titles of papers published in QUALIS Journals. Predominantly, it was found that the approaches about networks are directed for the management and cooperation to enhance the competitiveness of business and tourist destinations, while there is a need of more studies on governance.

Key words: concepts, governance, networks.

Introduction 

The neoliberal dominant context in the political and economic scope and their reflexes in the public administration promoted an enabling environment for governance and the interest in the formation of networks in several areas, even regarding to tourism development. Rhodes (2007) states the governance as a new way of governing aims to improve the public management and to overcome the bureaucratic and inefficient model. However, the local scale has allowed new possibilities and experiences about the public management (Gonzalez, 2008). In this sense, the use of networks in this universe can provide an analysis about the process and dynamics related to the decision-making by the social actors involved in tourism sector. According to Cross, Parker and Borgatti (2002) cited in Scott, Cooper and Baggio (2008), the networks analysis has become a standard diagnostic-prescriptive tool for management in order to improve the organizational interaction. In tourism, networks analysis has been applied to studies on policy networks and also on networks of business organi-
organizations. Considering the increasing studies on governance and networks, the aim of this research is to analyze the theoretical and methodological approaches used in researches on governance and networks in tourism. Also, it intends to meet the objectives, methods, theoretical approaches and the most cited authors in the papers published in journals that form the database of the Coordination for the Improvement of Higher Education Personnel – CAPES, Brazil. The results expressed here concern to the papers selected according to the inclusion criteria for research. Mainly, the approaches about networks link for the management and cooperation as innovative tool in order to improve the business and tourist destination competitiveness. On the other hand, some studies have researched networks in international tourism and the cooperation among tourism scholars.

Governance and Networks in Tourism: Governance, a new paradigm, emerges in counterpoint to traditional forms of government. In the political arena where problems are presented, the policies are developed and implemented to bring together citizens, civil society organizations and government representatives, turning into a space in which all or almost all have a place (Blanco & Goma, 2002). This is a less negative and bureaucratic atmosphere in which all are jointly responsible for the decisions taken. Thus, the 1990s attended a growing range of studies linking governance and networks relating them to the new standards created by the neoliberal reforms and the redefinition of the public power, private initiative, voluntarism (Bevir, 2009) and nongovernmental organizations.

In the sphere of governance, the political participation of citizens and organizations representatives, as well as the partnership, is reinforced with potential to promote the inclusion and involvement of citizens in formulation process and implementation policies. Therefore, it is necessary that civil society be active and receptive to engage in the democratic process (Bevir, 2009). However, governance does not only assume the active participation of citizens and organizations. It further requires transparency, responsiveness, consensus orientation, equity, effectiveness and efficiency, accountability and the rule of law (Dregde & Pforr, 2008). It is in the context of governance together with the partnership that arise formal and informal networks. There is a concordance in the fact that the networks are sets of formal and/or informal social relations, which shape the collaborative action among industry, government and civil society (Atkinson & Coleman, 1992; Howlett & Ramesh, 1995; Rhodes, 1997 as cited in Dregde 2006). In the universe of governance, networks represent more than the flow of information among social actors. Under ideal conditions, net-
works provide the democracy of the decision processes and formulation of public policies. According to Tyler and Dinan (2001), Pforr (2002) cited in Dredge (2006), in the context of planning and tourism management, network theory provides an important analytical approach to study the development policy of the local tourism as well as to understand the relationship among government, community and private initiative.

Networks theory aims to improve the understanding about the interactions as well as the cooperation which now exists among the public power, private initiative and civil society and how they act collectively. Valdez (2009) states that networks have been presented in different tourism segments as an answer to the challenges related to efficiency and competitiveness in the area of services quality, in the promotion of tourist destinations and also in the field of the inter-relationships among educational institutions, tourism business and government bodies. They are responsible for the planning and implementation of tourism development plans at local, regional and national levels. The configuration of networks is defined in terms of the number of social actors that comprise it by the complexity that is measured, by the homogeneity or heterogeneity, by the intensity characterized by relational links among the actors and by the permeability. Furthermore, there are power relations which have direct connection with the asymmetry in the distribution of resources.

Networks can also be horizontal or multilevel depending on the actors that are involved and those who represent them (Blanco & Gomá, 2002). Among the actors that integrate the network, it can also analyze the links among people who have weak ties or not (Granovetter, 1983) cited in Trejos (2009).

In the context of tourism planning, networks have the potential to provide the understanding of the social capital interaction that involves tourism as well as the interdependence, reciprocity, mutual benefit, trust, representativeness and leadership (Dredge, 2006). According to Valdez (2009), in tourism, networks are formed by actors that comprise the social capital and which are usually small and medium-size private companies that offer goods and services related to tourism; by the public bodies of the local governments related to tourism; by the national public bodies related to tourism; by several nongovernmental organizations; by the educational institutions; by the cultural organizations; by the host community and tourists, varying according to local social setting. It is in this context, where the diversity of social actors tends to participate in the planning process and implementation actions for tourism develop-
ment, which presents itself as a field to be explored by further studies about governance and networks.

**Methodology**

The methodological procedures used to prepare this paper are mainly theoretical and exploratory considering that their basis was extracted from journals classified and considered more important, according to scores received by QUALIS criteria that belong to Coordination for the Improvement of Higher Education Personnel - CAPES, Brazil. Firstly, the CAPES Journals classified in strata A1, A2, and B (1, 2, 3, 4 and 5) to the Administration, Accounting and Tourism areas in the triennium 2007 – 2009, were searched in order to identify the specific tourism and hospitality journals. Secondly, it was proceeded the selection of papers that present the word ‘network’ or ‘governance’ in the title. These words appeared in the papers in Spanish, English and Portuguese once the journals accept papers in these languages. The research was carried out from October to December of 2011 and studies published between 2000 and 2011 were included.

Thus, the journals that comprise the work are: International Journal of Hospitality Management, A1; International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, A2; Estudios y Perspectivas en Turismo, B1; Pasos, B1; Tourism and Hospitality Research, B1; Cuadernos de Turismo, B2; Turismo em Análise, B2; TURyDES, B3; Turismo Visão e Ação, B3; Caderno Virtual de Turismo, B4; Revista Acadêmica do Observatório de Inovação do Turismo, B4; Global Tourism, B5; and Revista de Hospitalidade, B5.

The journal Cuadernos de Turismo, B2, did not show any article that could be included in the analysis and the Journal of Tourism and Development, B5, was dismissed because the publications were not available online. As the objective of this study is to analyze the theoretical and methodological approaches used in research on governance and networks in tourism, it was made a spreadsheet that included: stratum QUALIS, name of the journal, title of the study, aim, object of study, methodology, theoretical approach and most cited authors. Among the most cited authors, it was considered those who were references to address issues directly related to networks and governance. The data sheet was prepared considering the methodology of thematic analysis that, according to Bardin (2009), includes the discovery of the cores meaning with some significance for the analytical purpose.
The fields of spreadsheet were filled during the reading and interpretation of the selected papers. Twenty-four papers related to the networks thematic were analyzed and four of them were dismissed due to reasons related to the duplicity of publications in journals. Others, which were analyzed, use the term ‘network’ to specify hospitality network and relational network in the context of data envelopment analysis and analysis of neural networks, which have different characteristics from those considered for the study of social network analysis. Finally, another two papers about governance were analyzed, totaling twenty-six papers and one was dismissed because the term ‘governance’ was applied in the context of hospitality governance.

Results

The results presented below turn to the objectives, methodology, theoretical approaches and the most cited authors. Regarding to the analyzed researches with reference to the governance and networks, it can be claimed that, in relation to the governance, the objectives focus on the exploration of nature and the extension of corporate governance practices in the hospitality industry. Among the analyzed papers, it was not found any research focused on the governance as a new form of governing, although it was mentioned in the work of Guillet and Mattila (2010).

For networks, the analyzed papers provide a range of information that allows knowing the theoretical and conceptual approaches and their application. In the examined works, it was identified a trend in the use of networks for the following purpose:

1. To analyze, map and discuss collaborative networks in the field of research in business and hospitality (Hu & Racherla, 2008; Morrison, Lynch, & Johns, 2004);

2. To identify, map and analyze the relationships among the actors, the small business networks, the cooperation and the contribution to tourism development (Carvalho & Giglio, 2011; Andrighi & Hoffmann, 2010; Barquín & Villarreal, 2010; Czajkowski & Cunha, 2010; Silva & Flôr, 2010; Jiménez, Foley, Frampton, & Kelliher, 2009; Trejos, 2009; Valdez, 2009; Timur & Getz, 2008; Tisnley & Lynch, 2001);

3. To deal with the networks in the context of the Brazilian state reforms and to discuss the spatial dimension of the regional networks of tourism in Brazil (Fratucci, 2011; Fratucci, 2009; Endres, 2003);
4. Network as factor of innovation, competitiveness and association for companies of tourism sector (Silva, 2004; Rodrigues & Rodrigues, 2009; Braga, Braga & Souza, 2010).

In the study conducted by Dias (2011) entitled ‘Paradiplomacy and tourism in the networks of cities of Mercosur’, the word ‘network’ is in the title of the paper but it was not developed in the text.

Regarding to the methodology, only 35% of authors classified their researches as qualitative and 30% as exploratory and descriptive, the rest did not refer which kind of methodology they use. The research techniques most used were structured or semi-structured interviews, 35%, while the questionnaires were applied in 19% of works and 46% did not specify how they proceeded with the data collection. Only two studies, 10%, indicated the use of the networks analysis as methodological tool and the use of software packages Pajek and UCINET, to analyze the relationships among the social actors, and another study used the software Statistica 6.0 to proceed with the descriptive data analysis. Other research techniques found in the analyzed studies were participant observation, case study and relational interpretative analysis. As well as the content analysis and snow ball sampling. Among the categories of analysis, the theoretical approaches about the subject, the governance and networks, it was possible to know the concepts, characteristics, benefits and limitations related to networks, while for the governance no studies were found which allow to do the analysis. It was possible to observe that 10% of the analyzed papers did not show concept about network.

In order to include the content presented in the analyzed papers, the content analysis was proceeded (Bardin, 2009) with the aim of grouping the theoretical and conceptual approaches once the authors used references according to their area of expertise. Thus, the referenced concepts are related to:

1. The relations among people and/or organizations with common purpose of sharing resources; flow of information with characteristics related to size, density or connectivity, openness and centrality (Hu & Pradeep, 2008; Morrison et al., 2004);

2. The business cooperation and the correlation with local development relying on concepts from management such as marketing, associativism, innovation and competitiveness (Carvalho & Giglio, 2011; Andrisghi & Hoffmann, 2010; Barquín & Villarreal, 2010; Braga et al., 2010; Czajkowski & Cunha, 2010; Silva & Flôr, 2010; Jimenez et al., 2009; Ro-
3. The absence of the State to respond to social demands and problems of governability, giving possibility for the use of new management tools such as political networks for the local development (Endres, 2003); and;

4. The establishment of regional networks territories in order to understand the space of the spatial organization in the contemporary society (Fratucci, 2011; Fratucci, 2009).

As regards to the most cited authors related to the thematic networks, it was observed that there are differences which, practically, divide them into two groups: the first, integrated by researchers and/or study of countries such as Canada, Korea, United States, Ireland, United Kingdom and Taiwan; and the second, with researchers and/or studies, predominantly, from Brazil, and only one from Costa Rica and Mexico. Regarding to the most cited authors, in the papers published in English, the studies of Ahmad, Gulati, Lynch, Morrison, Newman, Taylor, Teixeira, Thorpe and Tinsley prevail; especially the studies of Lynch and Morrison, single or co-authored. While in the second group, there are more diverse authors as Balestrini, Frombrun, Granovetter, Henneberg, Jarillo, Kooiman, Le Galé, Naudé, Mouzas, Tatcher, Tálamo, Tichy, Tushman, and Verschoore, which obtain higher significant proportions in the works related to networks in small businesses.

In this study, it was found that there is a need of theoretical clarity concerning the networks and their properties, characteristics and applications. Then, there are studies in which the term ‘network’ is used separately and disconnected from a theoretical and methodological referential. This is supported by the studies of O’Toole (1997) and Borzel (1998) mentioned by Dredge (2006), who indentifies that despite the increasing attention given to the networks in the field of policy analysis, in the literature in general, there is a strong criticism in relation to the lack of a clear definition about the networks as well as about the methodological approach. It was also observed the need to improve the presentation’s form of the methodologies used in the researches, particularly, in theoretical papers, because in many cases they were disabled. Concerning the types of researches, it was identified that a significant number of analyzed papers was restricted to describe the relationships among the actors. These studies did not deepen their analysis from the interpretation of the meanings obtained with the results of their researches. Regarding to the criteria, one of the limitations
used to select the papers about governance is that if it were extrapolated to the universe of papers, the term ‘participation’ would have permitted the analysis carried out for networks, once the studies in tourism have focused, mainly, on the term ‘participation’ when addressing the governance.

**Conclusion**

In conclusion, this study tried to analyze the theoretical and methodological approach about the issue of governance and networks in the context of tourism in order to understand how this topic is worked regarding to the use of the concepts, objectives, methodologies, cited authors and universe of application. In the analyzed studies, it is possible to identify the predominance of descriptive exploratory studies in horizontal networks, especially, concerning the cooperation among small businesses and expressing a certain superficiality and timidity in the approach of this topic. Jiménez et al. (2010) presented a critique to the studied network indicating that the benefits related to the network are availed only for the generation of jobs and economic resources, to the detriment of other possibilities such as the recovery of the natural and cultural heritage in order to find strategies for the utilization and conservation of the physical environment, especially human.

It was also noted, that there is a need of higher clarity in the use of concepts related to the specificity and profile of each study, as well as the use of appropriate methodologies. Although the limitations related to the methodology of networks approaches were presented in several studies (Dredge, 2006), the search for more appropriate approaches must persist in order to contribute to bridge this research gap. This fact could avoid the use of the word ‘network’ in isolated contexts and disconnected from a theoretical and methodological approach, as it was found among the analyzed papers. In this context, further studies are required to explore the potential that network analysis offers in order to understand the number of the involved actors, negotiation process, cooperation and decision making among the social actors inserted in the network. As well as, the characteristics concerned to the structure and size of the network, power relations, rules of conduct and how the results of these researchers can contribute to the tourism development in its various approaches.

**References**


The Development of a Heritage Visitor Scale of Motivation: Research in Progress at New Zealand Sites of Heritage and Cultural Interest

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Abstract
The paper reports initial findings from a study into the motives and evaluations made by visitors to three leading locations of heritage and cultural importance in New Zealand. The sample comprises 1066 respondents, including international as well as domestic tourists. An exploratory factor analysis indicates five dimensions underlying a scale of 23 items, and an interest in the past combined with locations being able to add value to a holiday are seen as possessing importance in explaining variance with the scale. The proposed scale scores highly in measures of reliability and the derivation of the scale is explained in the paper.

Key words: heritage, culture, New Zealand, history, maori.

Introduction
The purpose of this paper is to report interim findings from a project that is currently being completed. The project relates to the motives for visiting places of historic and heritage importance in New Zealand and data are being drawn from over 1,000 respondents to three key locations as is described below. The structure of the paper is to first identify some of the key literature in heritage tourism, then to describe the locations where data were collected and the mode of data collection and research design. Next the sample characteristics are described and finally results from an early stage of analysis will be provided.
Literature Review

Motives of visitors visiting heritage and history settings

Investigating the main reasons or motivations for travel is arguably important as researchers commonly agree that fundamental motives are the driving forces behind all leisure and tourism activities (Crompton, 1979; Hsu, Cai, & Mimi, 2010). Consequently research on the motivations for visiting heritage settings is in itself a continuing theme in heritage tourism research (Poria, Reichel, & Biran, 2006; Prentice, Guerin, & McGugan, 1998; Richards, 2002).

Researchers are also classifying different concepts and dimensions when exploring tourists’ motivation at heritage settings. The literature suggests that historic places are visited for a wide range of reasons (Timothy & Boyd, 2003). For example, McCain and Ray (2003) identify the motives for engaging in genealogical endeavours – to search for information or simply feel connected to ancestors and ancestral roots. According to Uzzel (1996), the same historic location (battlefield) is visited for different reasons at various points of time as tourists from one generation may come to pay homage and remember, while younger ones may view the visit as day trip or excursion. Another example is that given by Davies and Prentice (1995) who provided a theoretical background for understanding why people do and do not visit museums. They regarded a visit to a museum as a leisure activity, seeing museums as ‘heritage attractions’ (Davies & Prentice, 1995) while Kerstetter, Confer and Graefe (2001) suggested tourists visiting heritage sites are characterised by their interests in history per se. Prentice (1993) has suggested that the heterogeneity of heritage attractions would imply that it should not be assumed that the reasons given by tourists for visiting different types of heritage attractions are generally the same for given differing types of tourists.

Similarly, it is argued that exploring reasons or motives for visiting heritage destinations is critical for a better understanding of heritage tourism. For example, one dimension is that heritage tourism should be understood based on the relationship between the individual and heritage site when the latter is presented as part of their own heritage or activity by tourists in a space where historic artefacts are on display (Poria, Butler, & Airey, 2004). It means that to understand the presence of people in places where, for example, religious artefacts are presented, there is a need to explore elements different from those used in the wider leisure tourism literature (Poria et al., 2006). Some studies are often based on spaces classified as “heritage”, but may have nothing to do with
an individual’s own heritage (Jansen-Verbeke & van Rekom, 1996). For example, Verbeke and Rekon (1996) in their research about the role of museums, identified motivations such as ‘to escape from daily routine’ and ‘to be in the open air’, but such motivations have nothing to do with the heritage that lies at the heart of the site.

However, Poria et al (2004) argued that it is doubtful if such motives would apply for understanding visitation patterns of Jews to Nazi-related spaces or of New Yorkers to the memorial site built for those who were killed in the attack on the Twin Towers. In such cases any interpretation of the reasons for travel based only on concepts derived from leisure and recreation may not be relevant (Poria et al., 2004). Such observations also raise issues pertaining to the temporal elements of a site, in that those things of recent history may be interpreted by visitors differently to those recording sites of more antiquity. There is also a cultural component. In New Zealand Maori have a concept of time based on a seamlessness of inter-generational contact to the land, and thus they may interpret sites differently to New Zealanders of an European or Asian extraction (Ryan, 1997). Moscardo (1996) emphasises two main motivations at heritage attractions: the educational and entertainment/social motives. Similarly, Poria (2004) states that it seems that the two most common reasons to visit a heritage site reported in the literature are education (i.e. the tourists’ willingness to learn) and entertainment (i.e. the tourists’ desire to be entertained).

Poria et al (2004) further indicate that Prentice (1993)’s work on motivations of tourists at heritage attractions: pleasure of viewing, education, information, relaxation, entertainment and exercise, may be applicable to any form of heritage. Additionally, Prentice (2004) indicated that not all tourists are mindless, nor are all primarily motivated by escape and the desire to consume unreal dreams as a form of self-delusion. Nor are all passive or accepting only of essentially visual experiences. Experiential learning has been frequently found as a motivator for tourists visiting heritage attractions, with processes of reflection prompted by spotting items familiar from a tourist’s past or prompting conscience (Herbert, 2001; McIntosh & Prentice, 1999; Prentice et al., 1998). On the other hand, general findings through this literature review appear to indicate similar dimensions of all motivations for heritage tourism research, specifically tourists to historic properties can mainly be motivated from educational, learning, entertainment, and social reasons or may be motivated by reasons of having interest or connection to historic properties as part of their own heritage. However, it is likely that the compositions or connotations of motivational factors vary from specific destination to destination or from different country to
different country. In the design of this research project an examination of the literature and the themes contained within it are listed in Table 1.

**Table 1.** Potential questionnaire items derived from literature and preliminary study

1. **Tourist motivation items**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Scale items</th>
<th>Source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>To learn about this property’s historic background.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>To see how people worked and lived in other times in this property.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>As part of a holiday</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>For pleasure in viewing gardens and surroundings of this property.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Just as an exercise in walking.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>As part of a day out</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>To show this property to my children or family members.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>To spend time with my family.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Because this property is part of my own heritage</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Because this property relates to my identity.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>For a particular interest in old items, paintings and furniture of this property.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. **Enduring involvement items**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Scale item</th>
<th>Source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>I give myself pleasure by getting involved in the various things to do in this property.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Visiting this property is a bit like giving a gift to oneself.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>That I visit this property gives people an indication of the type of person/family I am.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Where I visit this property says something about me.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>You can really tell a lot about a person/family by whether or not they visit this property.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>It is extremely annoying to choose a visit to this property that is not suitable.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>When I visit this property, I am never sure of my choice</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>It's rather hard to choose this property as a holiday destination.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. **Perceived value items**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Scale items</th>
<th>Source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>The tour in this property was well-organised</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>The entrance fee is reasonably priced.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>I think that given whole services features, my experience was an acceptable value for the money, time, and effort I spent.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>I feel that this visit would make a good impression on other people</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>This property is a place where I want to visit</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. **Satisfaction items**
This paper sought to investigate the motivations of heritage visitors at three heritage and cultural sites in New Zealand which will be described briefly below.

**Study location and data collection**

Data for the main survey were collected from three sites, namely the Rangiriri Battlefield site, Te Puia and the Rotorua Bath House Museum (see Figure 1, map of study area). Specifically, these sites represent New Zealand’s heritage and history in the period of the Maori Land Wars and the Colonial period at the latter part of the nineteenth century. Rangiriri Battlefield is considered to be the site of one of the more important battles of the New Zealand Wars. There is a cemetery in Rangiriri township containing the graves of British soldiers and...
memorials. Across the road from the cemetery is the Rangiriri Battle Site Heritage Centre and teashop which has a model of the Pa and an audiovisual presentation of the battle. The Battlefield Heritage Centre contains displays, artefacts and information about the site including the battle. The second heritage site, the Rotorua Bath House Museum, was originally erected in 1885 and is a rare and unique example as a Spanish Mission-style geothermal baths in New Zealand, and highly unusual in an international context. Its design is significant for reflecting a move in public buildings from British architectural models to those incorporating American and international influences, itself part of a broader cultural shift. It also incorporates Maori influences, such as in a carved face above its main door, which was one of the first times the Crown made reference to Maori in the design of a public building. Indeed, the building is nationally and internationally significant for its associations with the history of tourism, and for its rarity as a building type. The last heritage site is Te Puia where inherits the cultural performers in daily concerts during Maori cultural tours, the traditional Maori arts and crafts were the chronicles of the culture, carving and weaving centuries of history as well as the home of the survival of Kiwi, New Zealand’s national icon is also conserved here.

Figure 1. Three history and heritage sites in New Zealand
A convenience sampling method was used, but has the advantage of being comparatively large, totalling 1067 respondents.

**Table 2.** Demographic characteristic of respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographics</th>
<th>Frequency Count</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender (N= 1062)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>476</td>
<td>44.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>586</td>
<td>55.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age group (N=1062)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;18 years old</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>7.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19 - 25 years</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>10.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26 - 35 years</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>16.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36 - 45 years</td>
<td>167</td>
<td>15.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46- 55 years</td>
<td>194</td>
<td>18.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>56 - 65 years</td>
<td>224</td>
<td>21.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;66 years old</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>10.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presence of children under the age of 16 years on this visit (N=1044)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>167</td>
<td>16.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>877</td>
<td>84.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational background (N=1017)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary school</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>4.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High school</td>
<td>323</td>
<td>31.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Under-graduate</td>
<td>261</td>
<td>25.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post graduate</td>
<td>388</td>
<td>38.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income levels</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Below average</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>7.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>535</td>
<td>52.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above average</td>
<td>307</td>
<td>29.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Significantly above average</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>10.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Usual place of residents (N=1063)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>16.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealand</td>
<td>414</td>
<td>38.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North America</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>5.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>169</td>
<td>15.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South America</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Europe</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>16.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle East</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Asian</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 shows that the number of female respondents (586) was higher than male respondents (476), representing a ratio of 55.2% and 44.6% respectively. In terms of age, the majority of respondents are between 46-65, accounting for nearly 40% of the sample, and respondents aged between 56-65 account for 21.1%. This implies that tourists interested in heritage and historic attractions are more likely to belong to an older age group which is not inconsistent with findings by, for example, Chen & Kerstetter (2001). In terms of education, respond-
ents were mostly well educated as more than 60% respondents had completed a diploma/bachelor degree and strikingly 38.2% completed a postgraduate degree. With regard to income levels, table 3 indicates that the highest percentages perceived themselves as earning an “average” income, followed by “above average” and “significantly above average” income (52.1%, 29.9% and 10.9% respectively). In term of presence of children under the age of 16 years on this visit, 84% of the visitors were unaccompanied by children. Table 3 also reveals that the international visitors account for 61.1% of the sample, reflecting the choice of Te Puia and Rotorua as sites of data collection. The majority of international visitors came from the UK, Australia and Europe (16.2%, 16.0% and 15.9% respectively) while the Asians are under-represented, comprising only 5.7% of the sample. This was expected due to the mode of data collection at Te Puia in the café area as most Chinese visiting that site tend to do so as part of coach parties and do not use the café facilities, while their coach parties also tend to avoid the museum.

Analysis

In assessing the reliability and validity of the data, a conventional means of analysis is to undertake a factor analysis to reduce the number of dimensions and to simplify possible modeling. Prior to undertaking this the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin test of sampling adequacy was calculated using PASW with the result that the KMO equaled 0.92 and the Bartlett Test of Sphericity equaled 11140.44 with p<0.001. This last test is to assess whether variables are truly independent of each other within the sample and yet correlate within themselves – that is the diagonal within a matrix has a value of 1.0. This condition was achieved. A further check is to examine the item to scale correlations and the values of scale alpha coefficients if a variable is deleted. The overall scale alpha coefficient, calculated as:

\[
\alpha = \frac{K}{K-1} \left(1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{K} \sigma_{Y_i}^2}{\sigma_X^2}\right)
\]

where \( K \) is the number of components (\( K \)-items or testlets), \( \sigma_X^2 \) the variance of the observed total test scores, and \( \sigma_{Y_i}^2 \) the variance of component \( i \) for the current sample of persons was 0.90 for the scale of 22 items used in the questionnaire. This is deemed to be a good result, for anything higher than 0.95 repre-
sents the possibility of a uni-dimensional scale. Equally the alpha coefficient did not fall below 0.87 if an item was deleted. In addition, item to scale correlations tended to be acceptable other than the items ‘This is just a place to see while on my holiday’ (r=0.10) and ‘This is just a pleasurable place to visit’ (r=0.28). The implications of this are discussed below with reference to the exploratory factor analysis that was conducted.

Given that these initial tests were satisfactory, as was the size of the sample, the descriptive statistics are provided below as the first set of findings. The first aspect to note is that there exists a slight negative skew, that is, scores tend to the higher half of the scale for most items. Items at the bottom of the list tend to normal distribution but the item on membership of the New Zealand Historic Places Trust is positively skewed with a low mean score, clearly indicating a lack of interest in membership, and by implication, a lack of serious involvement in historic places. One potential explanatory factor is the high numbers of international visitors as explained above.

Table 3. Scale – descriptive statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Skewness</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I would recommend this place to my friends</td>
<td>1060</td>
<td>5.69</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>-1.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Historic places help you to capture a sense of the past</td>
<td>1061</td>
<td>5.67</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>-1.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I find the service here to be very good</td>
<td>1060</td>
<td>5.63</td>
<td>1.19</td>
<td>-1.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I enjoy learning about a place’s history and heritage</td>
<td>1061</td>
<td>5.55</td>
<td>1.34</td>
<td>-0.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like to have a sense of the past</td>
<td>1061</td>
<td>5.52</td>
<td>1.29</td>
<td>-0.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I thought the displays here were interesting</td>
<td>1056</td>
<td>5.34</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>-1.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think this place represents good value</td>
<td>1058</td>
<td>5.30</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>-0.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have an interest in visiting historical places</td>
<td>1064</td>
<td>5.29</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>-0.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This visit helps me to enjoy my holiday</td>
<td>1051</td>
<td>5.27</td>
<td>1.45</td>
<td>-1.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I thought the interpretation offered here was interesting</td>
<td>1052</td>
<td>5.16</td>
<td>1.44</td>
<td>-0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This location enables me to imagine the past</td>
<td>1062</td>
<td>5.06</td>
<td>1.51</td>
<td>-0.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This is just a pleasurable place to visit</td>
<td>1057</td>
<td>5.05</td>
<td>1.48</td>
<td>-0.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I actually learnt a lot by coming here</td>
<td>1060</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>1.55</td>
<td>-0.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I often visit historical sites</td>
<td>1055</td>
<td>4.88</td>
<td>1.57</td>
<td>-0.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Because visiting historic places helps create sense of place</td>
<td>1048</td>
<td>4.87</td>
<td>1.51</td>
<td>-0.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Based on my visit here I will visit other historic locations in NZ</td>
<td>1059</td>
<td>4.78</td>
<td>1.68</td>
<td>-0.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I often visit museums</td>
<td>1063</td>
<td>4.69</td>
<td>1.65</td>
<td>-0.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The prices here are quite reasonable</td>
<td>1059</td>
<td>4.41</td>
<td>1.53</td>
<td>-0.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Because visiting historic places helps create sense of self</td>
<td>1056</td>
<td>4.35</td>
<td>1.63</td>
<td>-0.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This is just a place to see while on my holiday</td>
<td>1049</td>
<td>4.28</td>
<td>1.83</td>
<td>-0.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coming here gave my group interesting things to talk about</td>
<td>1022</td>
<td>4.01</td>
<td>1.92</td>
<td>-0.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My interest in history is especially specific to this place</td>
<td>1055</td>
<td>3.39</td>
<td>1.70</td>
<td>0.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I would like to be a member of the NZ Historic Places Trust</td>
<td>1043</td>
<td>2.38</td>
<td>1.71</td>
<td>1.11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Equally what is clear is the level of interest and enjoyment that people obtain from visiting historic places, and it is planned that future analysis will seek to better identify the degrees of interest exist, given the point just made that ‘serious’ involvement tends to be lacking in terms of membership of a formal organisation associated with such places. It is also notable that historic and heritage places have a role in adding to the enjoyment that people obtain from their holidays.

However, prior to undertaking a further interpretation of these results, an exploratory factor analysis was undertaken as a test of convergent reliability – that is the separate items converge to form a logical smaller set of dimensions. A rotated varimax principal components analysis was undertaken using the conventional cut off point of eigenvalues having values greater than one. The results are shown in Table 4. The five factors were found to explain 62.37% of the total variance in the scale. Equally commonalities tended to be high, comfortably ‘explaining’ over 50% of the variance within individual items for all of the items in the scale. Correlations between the identified factors were generally less than 0.3 other than between factors one and two, where \( r=0.48 \), albeit at a non-significant level.

**Table 4.** Exploratory factor analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Component 1</th>
<th>Component 2</th>
<th>Component 3</th>
<th>Component 4</th>
<th>Component 5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I often visit historical sites</td>
<td>0.817</td>
<td>0.119</td>
<td>0.036</td>
<td>0.085</td>
<td>0.085</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have an interest in visiting historical places</td>
<td>0.803</td>
<td>0.217</td>
<td>0.107</td>
<td>0.066</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I enjoy learning about a place’s history and heritage</td>
<td>0.793</td>
<td>0.259</td>
<td>0.131</td>
<td>0.060</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like to have a sense of the past</td>
<td>0.773</td>
<td>0.184</td>
<td>0.133</td>
<td>0.072</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Historic places help you to capture a sense of the past</td>
<td>0.760</td>
<td>0.230</td>
<td>0.140</td>
<td>0.033</td>
<td>0.061</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I often visit museums</td>
<td>0.698</td>
<td>0.129</td>
<td>0.028</td>
<td>0.141</td>
<td>0.105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Because visiting historic places helps create sense of place</td>
<td>0.664</td>
<td>0.252</td>
<td>0.027</td>
<td>0.243</td>
<td>0.071</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Because visiting historic places helps create sense of self</td>
<td>0.571</td>
<td>0.181</td>
<td>0.073</td>
<td>0.423</td>
<td>0.129</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I thought the interpretation offered here was interesting</td>
<td>0.174</td>
<td>0.776</td>
<td>0.124</td>
<td>0.089</td>
<td>0.102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I actually learnt a lot by coming here</td>
<td>0.208</td>
<td>0.763</td>
<td>0.226</td>
<td>0.173</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The factors within the scale thus appear to measure ‘visitation to historical through creating a sense of place and its history, and relationship to it’. Arguably it represents a form of historical place attachment as described in the environmental psychological literature that relates to residents’ sense of place (Gu & Ryan, 2008), but with visitors seeking to capture a sense of the past of the places they visit. The second factor relates to ‘learning’ – both for its own sake and as a source enjoyment. Third, there is the issue of ‘price and value for money’, fourth ‘formal involvement’ and last ‘holiday enjoyment’. With reference to the comment about low item to scale correlations for these two items it can be seen from table that the eigenvalues for factor five on the other factors.
are very low, and indeed the correlation matrix confirmed this factor was independent of the remaining four factors.

The strength of the first factor and the role of the sense of history can be shown graphically, as in Figure 2. By collapsing the factors into two the integrity of the first factor is clearly demonstrated, but what is of interest is the graphical location of membership on the Historical Places Trust as falling below the 45 degree line. This has significance for future examination of the data for a New Zealand sub-sample.

Indeed, examining factors that might determine serious involvement as characterized by membership of the New Zealand Historic Places Trust was one motivating factor for the research. Using the variables identified in Table 3 with such membership being the determined variable generated an adjusted coefficient of correlation of 0.13. The highest beta coefficient was for having a specific interest in the site ($\beta=0.17$, $p<0.001$), and the overall graphic of residuals is shown in Figure 2.
Examining possible determinants of a willingness to become a member of the New Zealand Historic Places Trust meant recoding the item on that willingness into three categories, namely ‘low’ (scores 1 to 3), ‘medium’ (4) and ‘high’ (5-7) to permit the use of multinomial regression techniques that also permitted the use of socio-demographic data as determining variables. This provided data of interest for future analysis with a Cox and Snell Pseudo Coefficient of Correlation on 0.25 and an overall correct classification of cases to the ‘membership’ classification of 76.2%. The statistically significant Liklihood Ratio tests are shown in Table 5 and it is suggested that both a general interest in visiting historical places and a specific interest in a given location are key drivers of possible interest in membership, and that these are reinforced by the possible social interactions that such interest can give rise to. There is, therefore a consistency in the data. That normal place of residency is important is not unexpected, with New Zealanders indicating a higher interest. However, while these data are of interest, a more careful analysis will be undertaken in the future because the data are problematical for this form of analysis because the small numbers of those indicating strong interest in such membership mean that many cells in the matrix being analysed have less than 5 members, and this is something the authors will pay future attention to.
Table 5. Likelihood ratio tests

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>-2 Log Likelihood</th>
<th>Chi-Square</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
<td>1078.303(a)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have an interest in visiting historical places</td>
<td>1093.456</td>
<td>15.153</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My interest in history is especially specific to this place</td>
<td>1087.224</td>
<td>8.921</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I would recommend this place to my friends</td>
<td>1089.560</td>
<td>11.258</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coming here gave my group interesting things to talk about</td>
<td>1088.480</td>
<td>10.177</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The prices here are quite reasonable.</td>
<td>1089.024</td>
<td>10.721</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Where are you normally resident?</td>
<td>1118.481</td>
<td>40.178</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>.002</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Conclusions

As stated at the outset, this paper reports only the first results of an analysis of data that at the time of writing has been collected and collated, and its initial concerns are to assess whether the scales possessed validity and reliability prior to conducting later analysis. The analysis indicates that further analysis is permissible. In terms of current findings, degrees of self-selection and self-reinforcement are being found, that is, those people with an interest in history and heritage are being attracted to heritage sites in New Zealand regardless of their nationality. Nonetheless the visitor experience is also being enhanced by factors such as modes of presentation that, it seems, can encourage social interaction by providing things of interest to talk about during the visit, which confirms other work relating to museum studies (Ryan, 1992; Ryan & Hsu, 2011) and pricing thought acceptable by visitors.

These findings in themselves confirm existing literatures, but also leave unanswered other questions such as the nature and depth of interest and the respective roles of passing and serious interest in history. The full data set will permit examination of those and other questions using not only quantitative but also qualitative data, and some of these results will be presented during the conference presentation.
References


Free Economic Zones as a Factor of the Development of Tourist Business

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Abstract
This research paper seeks to study experience of development and promotion of tourism business in FEZ, also analyses of economic matters of second and third generation of free economic zones (industrial-manufacturing and teknopolice) and their comparison with touristic sphere. The aim of research paper is conclusions and suggestions, which help to know and understand for what FEZ are exist in Kazakhstan, also to determine the conditions of development to find out obstacles and the factors that affect its development with further development of FEZ. This research paper represents that zones of these generations can be regarded as local conservation of partnership realization, that will allow exploiting and realizing new business conceptions of developing touristic sphere in «Burabay» FEZ. The research paper develops recommendations for destination strategy.

Key words: economic zones, tourism development, tourism economics.

Introduction
Creation of free economic zones brings along a socio-economic development, strengthening of strategic positions of the state in the world market. FEZ is created with the purpose of increase of production competitiveness, increase of currency receivables, complex use of state, commercial and foreign capital. As an institutional innovation in Kazakhstan FEZ are oriented to implement the separate strategic tasks such, as an increase of competitiveness of national economy on world markets, walking away from raw export-material specialization in international connections.

Formation of FEZ in Kazakhstan is called to decide such tasks, as bringing in the economy of country of foreign capital, technologies and new forms of organization of labour. Free economic zones are able to produce considerable structural changes in the economy of Kazakhstan, to increase of stake raw material, hi-tech and service sectors, to create and develop new perspective industries and directions, give up unpromising productions and industries. FEZ
is especially important, because they can assist getting up of enterprise culture, forming the new standards of life, increase of the degree of development innovativeness of one or another territory and country on the whole.

In many countries next modifications of free economic zones are used:

- free trade zones are the territorial formations shown outside national custom territory;
- specialized (industrially-, trade- and scientific and production), possessing the dedicated custom mode, fiscal and financial privileges;
- innovative, concentrating national and foreign research, project and scientific and production firms, prepossessing the single system of fiscal and financial privileges;
- complex are zones of free enterprise, special and special economic zones.

**Literature Review**

We will consider development of the specialized economic zones in Kazakhstan. In 2007 by the Laws "On the special economic zones in Republic of Kazakhstan", and also "About making alteration and additions in some legislative acts of PK on questions of activity of the special economic zones" was signed by the President of Kazakhstan N.A. Nazarbayev.

The Government program "30 corporate leaders of Kazakhstan", sent to successful realization of breach projects was worked out. For the acceleration of their realization it was announced the numerous privileges, given to manufacturers within the framework of new zonal formations for the economy of Kazakhstan providing state stimulation of industrially-innovative development.

The primary purpose of the specialized zones is the creation or development of separate, priority from the point of view of national interests of country, industries of economy, separate productions, separate spheres of public or state activity. The legal mode of such zones reflects the declared aims and stimulates the development of only corresponding spheres of activity: privileges and preferences operate only in regard to those subjects activity of that corresponds to the aims of creation of zone.

It is also necessary to say that, Kazakhstani economic zones attracted a foreign capital, currency receivables, created infrastructures with the purpose of expansion of external economic connections, inculcated the modern methods of management and management and to that end passed enterprises in an exter-
nal management to the home and foreign investors, inculcated the modern methods of management in production, founded the international standards of business collaboration. The social problems of zone supposed to decide due to creation of additional workplaces and providing the employment of population, increase of living standards of citizens of this region, building of accommodation, development of necessary infrastructure.

**Methodology**

In Kazakhstan successful development was got by 6 FEZ "Astana is a new city", "Morport Aktau", "Park of information technologies", "Ontustyk", "National industrial petrochemical technological parks", "Burabay", and also 2 industrial zones in cities both Astana and Karaganda.

For example, on the territory of FEZ "Astana - a new city" 277 objects are registered. 29 investment projects will be realized in the economic zone of "Morport Aktau". In "Park of information technologies" there registered 63 companies. On territory of "Ontustyk" two investment projects of companies of "OxyTextile" and "Chlopkoprom-sellyuloza" are realized. In "National industrial petrochemical technological parks" a project will be realized through building of the integrated gazchemical complex.

Kyzylordinskaya economic zone has been functioned for the series of years the basic tasks of that was: mastering of oil and gas deposits of Southturgays basin, increase of volumes of booty of oil and gas, introduction of new oil-processing productions, producing of export of oriented commodities as cardboard and paper products.
At the end of 2011 additionally three new FEZ with a concrete branch orientation were created in Kazakhstan. In Karaganda region FEZ "SariArka" was created which was focused on the development of metallurgy and metal-processing, in Almaty region FEZ "Khorgos - East Gate" the development of transport-logistic potential, in the Pavlodar region FEZ "Pavlodar" aimed to the development of chemical and petrochemical fields of industry.

Among FEZ it is possible to mark Lisakovsk, that produced experience of functioning in particular economic treatment. In 1992 Lisakovsk which is located in Kostanay region the status of free economic zone was given. Then in 1996 on Decree of President "About the special economic zones" it was regenerated in the special economic zone. Lisakovskaya FEZ began to function in the conditions of market economy on the basis of Lisakovski ore mining and processing combine (it has 40% from a general industrial production of city volume). In a zone development was got by enterprises on processing of agricultural produce, and it decided the problem of providing food and to a certain extent to employment of population. [3]

The first zone of new generation appeared in 2002. FEZ "Astana is a new city" was created by the Decree of the President of RK on July, 29 2001. №645 "About creation of the special economic zone "Astana is a new city" and began to function since January, 1 2002. The primary objective of this FEZ creation is providing of speed-up development of administratively-business center of the capital - left-bank of the river Ishim and the creation of modern infrastructure, building of unique objects of the administrative and sociocultural setting, comfort accommodation, providing of favourable conditions for economic and social development of the capital as well. The territory of FEZ made 1052,6 ha initially, that grew to 5900 ha for today. It most effective FEZ in Kazakhstan. On territory of FEZ "Astana is a new city" by beginning of 2010 141 projects had been realized on total of 628 milliards tenge.

FEZ "Morport Aktau", functioning since January, 1 2003 as follows from the name, located on territory of marine trade port and adherent to it the territory within the limits of city Aktau. The total area of FEZ arranged 227,1ha originally, according to Decree of the President RK №853 dated April, 26 2002. "About creation of the special economic zone of "Morport Aktau", but later it was extended and at present it comprises of 2000ha. This FEZ is created for steadily development, increases of competitiveness of national economy and its integration in the world economic system, involving the Kazakhstan economy in
FEZ "Park of information technologies" was created in 2003 aimed to the development of industry of IT in Kazakhstan and the creation high-efficiency, including hi-tech and oriented to the export, productions of modern information technologies, mastering of producing of new types of products of information technologies, attracting investments. The territory of FEZ, by the total area of 343 ha, is located in township Alatau Medeu district of Almaty and adherent earth of the area of Almaty. Financing of projects of FEZ while mainly carries out the "National innovative fund". As it was told in FEZ, the decision of infrastructural questions requires primary attention, in parallel, or passing ahead the decision of questions by land and building of FEZ. So, at the existent state of infrastructural questions, even on condition of selection of lots of lands on the already bought and executed earth back, realization of further project and building activity can appear difficult because of the absence of necessary technical requirements, in particular because of the absence of backlogs on electric power. In times of FEZ functioning 23 projects are created to the amount of a more than 10 billion tenge.

Presently, the master-plan of creation of tourist center "Burabay" is worked out and ratified, certain company-operator on building of FEZ "Burabay". According to worked out master to the plan, realization of project is pre-arranged for 12 years till 2021 with laying out on seven stages, the planned bringing in of investments in a project will make 3 billion US dollars. The territory of FEZ comprises 370 ha. It gets organized for the creature of high-efficiency and competitive tourist infrastructure able to provide and satisfy the necessity of Kazakhstan and foreign travelers. [4] It is expected, actually on earth of zone an unblemished motor transport will begin to be used ecologically, such as a little aviation. "Burabay" will begin to have a single base of the travelers given for service. The high priority types of work are planned to be: organization and becoming the cultural and cognitive, healthy, ecological, business, sporting and another types of tourism; suggestion of heterogeneous tourist services conformable to the international stereotypes, in the field of health promotion, entertainment, grant of motor transport, hotel, excursion, informative services and others; organization of promotion of production of various souvenir products, regarding to the state topic. As the perimeters of FEZ are counted by the custom border of the Republic of Kazakhstan, the borders of zone are equipped by the special enclosure. Geographically FEZ is located on the north coast of lake of Shuchie on the territory of public state natural park "Burabay".
Table 1. SWOT-analysis of the development of FEZs in Kazakhstan

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strengths</th>
<th>Weaknesses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Favorable business-climate of countries, supported by economic and political stability.</td>
<td>2. Ineffectiveness of adjusting and managements.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Presence of rich natural and mineral resources in a country.</td>
<td>3. Absence of account individual features of zones.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Advantageous geographical liking of Kazakhstan for large user markets of Central Asia and Russia.</td>
<td>4. Bureaucratization.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Low efficiency of budgetary expenses.</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Possibilities</th>
<th>Threats</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Going into the markets of the Customs union and other countries.</td>
<td>Loss of investment attractiveness of FEZ in result of ineffective public policy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Achievement of indicators of Government program of the forced industrially-innovative development of Republic of Kazakhstan to 2015.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is also necessary to mark, that on January, 31, 2007 in Akorda Nursultan Nazarbayev had been presented the plan of becoming of resort zone "Burabay" offering the tourist-entertaining ensemble in ashore of the lake Shuchie. A working plan is considered to be executed by the Turkish company "BF Global", winning the tender. Realization of this plan is pre-arranged for 12 years with laying out on 5 borders. The set recruiting of investments in a plan is 3 billion US dollars. In the scales of plan on the territory of zone the erection of 3 hotels (6 star), 4 hotels (5 star), 7 hotels (4 star), 7 casinos, entertainment centers and shops, dwellings of 4-5-storied buildings and villas, golf-club and horse-sport center, are taken into account. For the supporters of winter rest ice skating rinks will become organized and skiing highways are laid with front-rank lifts. Farther more introductions of all plans a resort zone will be able to undertake every year to 93 million persons.

Results

Now by the Ministry of industry and trade of republic - authorized body in the areas of creature and functioning of the specialized money zones - organizational measures are perceived on a creature administration, tax committee and custom of FEZ "Burabai". Earth of FEZ "Burabai" is considered the stake of custom earth of the Republic of Kazakhstan, which the custom mode of independent custom zone works on. Custom registration and control will begin to be carried out in a norm, envisaged by the customs legislation of Republic of Kazakhstan. Release from the customs duties of taxes, and also application of
mechanism of the entered equipment, raw material, materials, and also other commodities necessary for implementation of productive processes, it is necessary to mark:

- a custom free zone, allowing to all physical and legal persons involved in economic activity within the limits of territory of city to use a right for the duty-free and untaxed import of commodities, is set.
- the commodities produced on territory of the special economic zone are exempted from taxes at export.
- favorable tax treatment, that spreads foremost to the enterprises engaging in building and exploitation of the real estate, is forced into application.

After getting a capital status and organization of the special economic zone there is "Astana - a new city" a great number of modern architectonically-town-planning projects in city is realized The population of city grew with 270 thousand persons in 1996 to 633 thousands in 2008 Expansion of external economic relations and creation of favorable investment climate in the capital are one of main priorities of steady development of Astana. The volume of investments in the fixed assets of city grew for 21 times - with a 19,3 billion tenge in 1997 to 436,9 billion tenge in 2007. 856 joint ventures with participation companies from many countries and 1344 foreign enterprises work in the capital, engaging in planning and building. Due to foreign capital investments large investment projects are put into effect: international airport, Islam cultural center, buildings of residence of the President and Akimat, Senate of Parliament and buildings of diplomatic small town.

The territory of FEZ was megascopic on 4387,8 ha, and the term of functioning is prolonged to 2010. Presently the territory of FEZ comprises 5440,4 ha, that almost is more in 5 times in comparison with primary area - 1-52,6 ha. For all period of FEZ functioning 857 billion tenge are involved, that is 3,5 times more than pre-arranged volume. Considerably the infrastructure of city has been broadened and developed. Astana becomes the large cultural and tourist center of Kazakhstan. The amount of tourist firms in Astana has increased since 2005 to 2011 in 1,7 times- from 54 to 95. Profits from tourism increased in 1,5 times, the indexes of inbound tourism grew on 66 %, there is the considerable getting up on internal tourism - from 187749 to 256204 persons.

Presently regional Program of tourist industry development, creating terms for system and successive work of municipal authorities in the field of tourism,
operates in Astana. For the realization of this program 43269 thousand tenge of budgetary facilities are allocated. The aim of this Program is the development of competitive tourist sector and increase of stake of tourism in the economy of city through perfection of organizationally-economic terms of internal and entrance tourism. In connection with the increase of population of city of Astana, increase of stream of foreign tourists arriving as on the business, so recreational aims of journey, there is a deficit of places of feed, placing and leisure. It is also necessary to mark that, along with the quantitative filling with of internal market the new objects of tourist infrastructure, and it should be promoted a service culture, extended possibilities of tourist services, diversified the tourist product of the capital. Taking into account that tourist industry is one of her priority directions, then in the period of 2008 to 2011 it is certain to take a reference-point on its system forming as to competitive industry, creating an economic multiplicative effect for other industries in totality presenting a tourist cluster.

Conclusion

For the integral strategy formulation, aimed at providing steady character of competitiveness of tourist sector of economy factors that give comparative advantages to the development of tourist industry in city Astana were certain in city Astana:

- an increase of population of Astana city, and also a height over of number of arriving will be brought to the increase of requirement in a recreation;
- strengthening of role of Astana as an economic center of country, and also as cities of international value will create pre-conditions for the increase of business activity of population, considerably will increase the stake of business and eventful tourism the same in a general tourist stream;
- capital status, development of left-bank and building of 2 new centers on right and on the left bank in south-east direction will give an impulse to the increase of demand on excursion activity with the purpose of acquaintance with sights of city Astana;
- strengthening of urbanization of city will entail a requirement in the in a civilized manner-cognitive segment of economy.

Coming from the tendencies and factors indicated higher next priorities were distinguished in development of industry of tourism Astana:
• development of Astana as a center of business tourism;
• development of Astana as a center of in a civilized manner-cognitive tourism;
• development Astana as regional tourist service - center, transit-distributive knot, attendant
• ethnotourism, ecological and sporting-health tourism in near-by regions (Flue, Kurgaljino, lake Zerenda, Koyandi of and other).

Analyzing the modern state of functioning FEZ in Kazakhstan it is possible to mark a few negative moments. Weak working of conception of TEA on creation of FEZ; slow selection of the budgetary financing; the mechanism of bringing in of external managing company FEZ is absent; subzero effectiveness of budgetary expenses (emptying conference halls are built instead of infrastructure); a construction is objects of FEZ of subzero quality, some collapse. Problems and miscalculations, related to development of FEZ show evidently, that the serious revision of conceptual bases and strategy of their development is required. In former conceptions and grounds of creation of zones not to a full degree such important factors were taken into account as:

• advantage of economical - geographical position and optimality of sizes of territory, resource base;
• presence in the region of necessary productive and business infrastructure and favorable terms for foreign economic activity;
• presence of skilled potential.

Other task of the investment providing of industrial development is development of Kazakhstan maintenance, for the legal adjusting of processes of that more than 10 acts of government are worked out and ratified. Ratified Single methodology of calculation of Kazakhstan maintenance at the purchases of commodities, works and services and List of organizations, purchase of commodities, works and services of that subject to monitoring of Kazakhstan maintenance. The measures of state support of home commodity producers and home suppliers of works and services are certain. Thus, creation of FEZ promoted Astana the dynamically developing center of country, plugging in itself a modern infrastructure, last innovative and informative technologies, positioning a city not only as the capital of Kazakhstan but also as a large center of development of tourism.
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Discussion of the Leisure and Health-preserving Industry: Case Study of Tibetan Medicine Foot Spa in Tainan City, Taiwan

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Abstract  
The industry of leisure and health-preserving area has been emphasized in Taiwan since Taiwanese’ living standard makes tremendous improvement nowadays. This distinctive industry integrates the area of health issues and tourism, in which the idea of leisure and recreation could be associated with the concept of health-preserving. In fact, health-preserving industries could be seen everywhere in Taiwan recently, such as foot massage, spa treatment and other related business. Tibetan Medicine (TM) foot spa is a popular treatment in this industry. It is safe, cheap, no side effect, and suitable for various generations. TM spa is functioned by thermal energy. High heat steam distills the essence of the treatment is aborted by human skin system then delivering the essence to the circulatory system to build up body strength and further alleviating symptoms or recovering one’s health. This study is a case study by comparing with the quantitative and qualitative research method. For the quantitative research, age, gender, and consumption frequency will have significant effect on certain indicators (metabolic index, osteoporosis index, weight and etc). Moreover, qualitative research can be summarized as follows: lifestyle, eating habits, and family medical history of the participants, will have the different results from the treatment.

Key words: leisure and health-preserving industry, Tibetan medicine foot spa, metabolic index
Introduction

As a result of transportation and Internet developed, healthcare tourism is already along with globalization become no boundary, this also urges European and American going to the developing countries enjoying the low cost, the high quality healthcare related service. Healthcare Tourism has attained the status of an industry and is today perceived as the fastest growing segment in marketing a tourist destination, many countries were already evolved into investment of healthcare service, including Thailand, India, Singapore, Malaysia and so on (Huang, 2009). People in Taiwan tend to spend their leisure time to maintain their health. It is highly involved both in leisure tourism and healthcare tourism. Taiwanese government is the key to develop healthcare tourism and manage related businesses by establishing the regulations and system. The government has listed the healthcare tourism in national economic strategy, review healthcare related policies, encourage business to produce functional foods, and educate people the concept of healthcare. Under governmental policy and leading, the healthcare related businesses such as food spa, massage, etc., are rapidly developed recently in Taiwan. In view of healthcare tourism is a new business in Taiwan, Tibetan Medicine (TM) foot spa is a popular treatment in this industry. It is safe, cheap, no side effect, and suitable for various generations and for occupation injury such as operators standing by feet for long time in factory and white collar workers using their mental ability overtime without taking a rest. This study is a case study by comparing with the quantitative and qualitative research methods and supporting with medical literature to research the effect of Tibetan medicine spa bring out in healthcare tourism and find out how it works effectively in maintaining body health.

Literature Review

Leisure and Health-preserving Industry in Taiwan: It has witnessed people change of their attitude toward healthcare making healthcare tourism rapid growth over the year and today has assumed the status of an industry where people from all around the world are traveling to other countries to obtain both physical and mental health condition while at the same time touring, vacationing, and fully experiencing the attractions of the countries that they are visiting. A study by the Deloitte consulting firm estimated that global medical and healthcare tourism could yield as much as $60 billion revenue by 2008 and 8% of in annual spending on this industry (Huang, 2009). Simultaneously following the public health and the medicine developed highly, most diseases could be wiped out and be prevented effectively, the mortality rate of Taiwanese
drops year by year, the life quality has been improved, and the average life expectancy has been prolonged. According to the estimated, senior citizen proportion will reach as high as 29.8% in Taiwan, the ratio of ageing increases faster than the developed countries.

The structure of Taiwan is changing into ageing society gradually, the awareness of healthcare along with the change, seeking for a completely joyful and colorful retirement life with quality and self-respect. In the future, healthcare industry plays a strong character in leisure time offering related practices to bring the body, mind, and spirit into balance. Cross- Strait Health Care and Leisure Activities Association took a questionnaire survey in November, 2008 at the Shanghai international traveling trade fair, obtaining 1,006 effective samples and the investigation discovered that 41% Chinese have the intention to obtain the specific medical treatment in Taiwan, 24% are willing to take dental care, 3% are for the treatment for cardiovascular disease, 2% are for artificial parthenogenesis, 1% are for organ transplantation. The investigation also discovered that Chinese appreciates the medical treatment of Taiwan in an intermediate rank among in American, European, South Korean, Singapore, Hong Kong, Taiwan, Chinese, and Thailand total 8 countries, Taiwan is 4th inferior to US, Europe and Singapore. And there are 70% of the interviewees, who are willing to have healthcare in Taiwan, considering to choice the expensive general medical checkup. Refer to the restrictions for transportation and cross-strait travel policy, the plan for medical internationalization would be focus on healthcare tourism in the short-term. (Huang Zhi Ying, 2009). Industrial Technology Research Institute(ITRI) investigated that the target market of in-home medical instrument is 50 to 70 years old Chinese, the middle class, having a regular retiring daily life, worrying about having disease destroying their life and loading household economic stress making them aware of healthcare highly, therefore, they have more purchase power on healthcare related service. It is same in Taiwan.

Although the mission for a business is make profit, the trend of globalized competition in 21st century forces every country to run business functionally for sustainability. In Taiwan, in order to increase the standard of leisure and healthcare business, the government emphasized the importance of specialization, profundity, and breadth of vision to establish the management system and train the business specialized. To meet the customer’s need of healthcare, there would be more related issues to be concerned and discovered along with the business operation.
Tibetan Medicine foot spa: Tibetan Medicine (TM) foot spa is an ancient external treatment for healthcare, which utilizes a complex herbal formula to recover from diseases. There are 3 main applications, bath application, steam application, and plaster application in practice, all are functioned by thermal energy with the features of safe, cheap, and no side effect under over 1200 years clinical holistic Tibetan medicine system. (Huang, 2002; Sallon, 2006). The experiment certified high heat steam distilling the essence of the Tibetan herbal medicine aborted by human skin system then delivering the essence to the circulatory system to promote the level of basal metabolic rate, stimulate immune system and regulate nervous system. (Jin, 2010) Besides the medical effect, It’s intended beneficial effect is preventive medicine, skin care and postpone ageing. (Xie & Yong, 2008).

Methodology

The purpose of this study was to explore the curative effect of Tibetan Medicine (TM) foot spa. As little academic research in TM foot spa has been conducted in the past, an exploratory study was deemed to be appropriate. We tried to make the cooperation with the TM foot spa clubhouse in Tainan City, Taiwan. And got 33 samples by simple random sampling from the clubhouse then collected their before and after treatment data. About the treatment data, because of the literature review shows the metabolic index is the most important index of the TM foot spa treatment, we put emphasis on the metabolic index analysis. Paired sample t-tests were performed to find whether any significant difference existed between the before and after the TM foot Spa treatment the participants will get the improvement on the metabolic index or not. After that, we made the interview of the participants and the host of the clubhouse, and then try to get some information about how to improve the curative effect of TM foot spa. The results from interview will be discussed in the part of the conclusion.

Results

The 33 samples from the TM foot spa clubhouse are included 48.5% male and 51.5% female means the TM foot spa treatment is accepted by male and female. Moreover, the average age is 51 years old and the youngest is 26 years old and the oldest is 75 years old.
Table 1. Gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>48.5</td>
<td>48.5</td>
<td>48.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>51.5</td>
<td>51.5</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. Age

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AGE</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid N (listwise)</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>51.39</td>
<td>19.720</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To assess significant differences between the before and after metabolic index of the participants who took the TM foot Spa treatment, a paired sample t-test was conducted. For the metabolic index, the before and after data via paired sample t-test analysis, the results revealed that t= -8.632, p≤0.001 were found to be statistically significant. That means after the TM foot Spa treatment the participants will get different result of the metabolic index and most of them got the higher scores on metabolic index.

Table 3. Paired samples statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pair 1</th>
<th>Metabolic (Before)</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Metabolic (After)</td>
<td>1328.09</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>154.562</td>
<td>26.906</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1355.91</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>168.031</td>
<td>29.250</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4. Paired samples correlations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pair 1</th>
<th>Metabolic (Before) &amp; Metabolic (After)</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Correlation</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>33</td>
<td>.997</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5. Paired samples test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pair 1</th>
<th>Metabolic (Before) - Metabolic (After)</th>
<th>Paired Differences</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Std. Deviation Mean</td>
<td>Std. Error Mean</td>
<td>99% Confidence Interval of the Difference</td>
<td>Lower</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-27.82</td>
<td>18.513</td>
<td>3.223</td>
<td>-36.64</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Conclusion

TM foot spa is a popular treatment in the Leisure and Health-preserving Industry. Because it is safe, cheap, no side effect, and suitable for various generations. As the data shows, the gender of the participants is almost the same between male and female. Furthermore, the age of the participants is between 26 and 75 years old, and that means the participants for the TM foot spa are from a large general population. For the curative effect, the data from the TM foot spa clubhouse in Tainan City, Taiwan, they measured and collected a lot of index of the TM foot spa treatment, which included metabolic index, osteoporosis index, body fat index, weight and etc. But as the research results from the literature review we couldn’t find the evidences to support that the TM foot spa treatment can improve the index like osteoporosis index, body fat index, weight and so on. But some of the references addressed that the TM foot spa treatment is helpful for the metabolic index, and this result is the same with this study, the outputs of the metabolic index analysis via paired sample t-tests, we can know the participants’ metabolic index after the TM foot spa treatment is higher than before. That means the TM foot spa treatment can help to increase participants’ metabolism. Moreover, the information from the interview of the participants and the host of the clubhouse can be summarized as follows: the lifestyle and eating habits of the participants will have the different results from the treatment. The participant who live the regular life and have light diet, the curative effect will be more remarkable. And if the participant who takes exercise in their daily life the progress of the curative effect will be more obvious. In addition, if the participants’ who have hereditary diseases (family medical history) such as heart disease and diabetes, that the treatment effect will be influenced, but the TM foot spa treatment for the whom got the hereditary diseases will more focus on the health protection. That means TM foot spa treatment can help them to reduce the symptom of their hereditary diseases if they can take the treatment in regular sequence.

In Taiwan, the leisure and health-preserving industry is a new and rapidly growth industry, but less the rules and the regulation to follow. The service quality and the measurement of the curative effect also lack the standard. If we want to continue to launch the business in the leisure and health-preserving industry, the rules and standards establishments will become the most important step in the future. And it also have to refer to the part of medical tourism is the leisure and health-preserving industry will put more emphasis on the treatment and curative effect.
References


Passenger Preferences for Whale Watching Tour Attributes in Tofino, British Columbia

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ABSTRACT
With the continued growth of the whale watching industry, many studies have focused on the impacts of whale watching on the whales. Fewer studies have measured tourists’ preferences for tour attributes and none have assessed the tourists’ willingness to pay for distant habitat protection. In this case study, we surveyed whale watchers in Tofino, British Columbia, located at the entrance of Clayoquot Sound (a recently designated Biosphere Reserve) and immediately to the north of Pacific Rim National Park. The results of the study suggest tourists differ in their preference for tour characteristics, including the type of education received, the degree of crowding, tour cost, and the number and type of whale species observed. The study also suggests that whale watchers are willing to pay an additional fee to preserve grey whale breeding habitat in Baja California, Mexico.

Key words: whale watchers, tour attributes, intention to return.

Introduction
Over the past two decades, the whale watching industry has rapidly grown and expanded to all continents of the world (Hyot, 2009; O’Connor, Campbell, Cortez, & Knowles, 2009). Whale watching now takes place in over 70 countries and in more than 500 communities (Hoyt, 2007). To appeal to the growing number of tourists and to accommodate for varied interests and needs, whale watch tour operators offer a variety of tours that may differ in terms of duration, the quantity and quality of onboard interpretation, cost, and boat design (Hyot, 2009). The rapid growth and diversification of the industry highlights the need to understand tourist profiles and preferences for tour
characteristics, (Ziegler, Dearden, & Rollins, 2012). Equally important is the need to gauge tourist support for conservation of the watched species. Many species popular for whale watching are classified as “endangered” or at risk of becoming endangered (Orams, 2000), and are therefore in need of protection. With such a large number of people spending a significant amount of money to participate in whale watching activities, the potential to collect funds for conservation is great (Tapper, 2006).

While several studies have examined the factors influencing whale watcher satisfaction (Birtles, Valentine, Curnock, Arnold, & Dunstan, 2002; Finkler & Higham, 2004; Orams, 2000; Valentine, Birtles, Curnock, Arnold, & Dunstan, 2004), few have analysed preferences for specific levels of these identified factors. For example, several studies have identified “observing whales” as a factor that influences passenger enjoyment (Andersen & Miller, 2006; Orams, 2000); however little information currently exists regarding preferences for one species over another, even though the humpback whale is red listed in Canada (COSEWIC, 2004), or for additional species one might be able to observe. Other tour characteristics in Tofino relate to duration, service, onboard education, boat length and capacity, marine species observed, and price. With this type of information, tour operators can design tours and services that best meet actual customer needs and not perceived needs (Moscardo & Saltzer, 2005; Ziegler et al., 2012). The first goal of this research project is to fill this gap by measuring the preferences of whale watchers for different tour attributes.

The second research question addresses a methodological issue that arises when applying a choice experiment (CE) in a tourism context: how to frame the stated choice question when some respondents have serious intention for revisiting, while others may never visit again. Given the proximity of Tofino to Pacific Rim National Park and the Clayoquot Biosphere Reserve, it is a highly desirable location for repeat visitors from nearby Victoria, Vancouver and Seattle, as well as one time visitors for whom Tofino is one of the ‘must see’ destinations on a tour of Western Canada or even all of North America. This discrepancy in clientele poses a unique challenge for a CE, as the framing for a possible visit needs to differ, if all of them are to answer the CE task. Therefore, we are comparing three types of visitors as combinations of intention to visit Tofino again or not, and intention to book another whale watching tour or not.
Methodology

Whale watchers from several tour operators were intercepted and surveyed during the summer of 2010, either before or after their whale watching tour. Each one of them completed a short intercept survey, and provided their electronic contact information. In January and February 2011 they were invited to complete a web survey in which they described their whale watching experience in Tofino, their environmental interests, awareness, and behaviours, and they completed a CE. The associated choice task asked respondents to choose one tour from two hypothetical options, consisting of seven salient tour attributes (Figure 1). The CE consisted of 64 choice sets, and was based on a fractional factorial design (Montgomery, 2001). Each respondent evaluated a total of 6 choice sets, and not choosing was also one option. The response behaviour is consistent with random utility theory (McFadden, 1981), and therefore analysis is based on a multinomial logit model (Louviere et al., 2000), using Latent Gold Choice software.

Respondents with the intent to return to Tofino and book another whale watching tour were asked for the choice they would make during their next visit; respondents without intention to return to Tofino and/or whale watch again were asked which tour they would recommend to an acquaintance.

Results

Almost 800 individuals were recruited via the intercept survey during the summer of 2010. Approximately half of the recruited individuals were from North America (47%), half from Europe (47%), and 5% from other countries (e.g., Australia, Israel, New Zealand). Of these, 686 invitations were successfully mailed, and a total of 253 respondents completed the entire survey without missing data, for a response rate of 29 percent.

The three segments based on intended repeat behaviour differed significantly in their origin, clearly identifying the ‘no-return’ segment as the more distant travellers and globetrotters (Table 1). The segments also differed by their earlier visits to Tofino, and their likelihood to go whale watching again somewhere on the west coast of North America. The small sample sizes for the two segments no longer interested in whale watching cannot be considered representative, as they might reflect a self-selection bias as these survey recruits were less likely to complete the internet survey.
24. Please choose your preferred tour.
If you require more information, please move your mouse over the question marks to the left of the characteristic.

| Tour Characteristics                  | Tour A                     | Tour B                     | Neither                  |
|---------------------------------------|****************************|****************************|--------------------------|
| Number of grey whales observed       | >7 grey whales             | >7 grey whales             | I would not go on either tour |
| Number of humpback whales observed   | >7 humpbacks               | >7 humpbacks               |                          |
| Harbor porpoise                       |                           |                           |                          |
| Stellar sea lions                     |                           |                           |                          |
| Tufted puffin                         |                           |                           |                          |
| Sea otter                             |                           |                           |                          |
| >5 boats                              |                           |                           |                          |
| Naturalist                            |                           |                           |                          |
| High                                  |                           |                           |                          |
| Low                                   |                           |                           |                          |
| Cost of tour per person (taxes and fuel surcharge included) | $128 CAD               | $128 CAD               |                          |

**Figure 1.** Example of one choice set

**Table 1** Characteristics of the 3 segments distinguished by their interest to return to Tofino, and interest in joining a whale watching tour again

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Most preferred Return to Tofino Whale watch</th>
<th>Recommend to a friend Return to Tofino No whale watch</th>
<th>No return</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No. of respondents</td>
<td>n=151</td>
<td>n=21</td>
<td>n=23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>77%</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Origin</td>
<td>51% North American</td>
<td>81% North American</td>
<td>25% North American</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>44% European</td>
<td>15% European</td>
<td>54% European</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4% Other</td>
<td>3% Other</td>
<td>20% Other</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prior Visit(s) to Tofino</td>
<td>72% No</td>
<td>55% No</td>
<td>95% No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>28% Yes</td>
<td>45% Yes</td>
<td>4% Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likelihood of Whale Watching along West Coast of North America</td>
<td>More likely</td>
<td>Less likely</td>
<td>Least likely</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2. Results of the CE by three segments based on likelihood to return to Tofino and to whalewatch again

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SEGMENTS</th>
<th>Return AND whale w. (N=151)</th>
<th>Return, but NO whale w. (N=21)</th>
<th>no return (N=23)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>R²</td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>0.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R²(0)</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>0.35</td>
<td>0.47</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ATTRIBUTES</th>
<th>est</th>
<th>s.e.</th>
<th>z-value</th>
<th>est</th>
<th>s.e.</th>
<th>z-value</th>
<th>est</th>
<th>s.e.</th>
<th>z-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intercept'</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>choosing neither</td>
<td>-0.79</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>-12.91</td>
<td>-0.45</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>-3.34</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>-5.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>choosing A or B</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>12.91</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>5.51</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Model parameters below represent one joint model between the three segments (no sign. diff. observed)

- greywhales (lin) | 0.26 | 0.02 | 12.43
- greywhales (qud) | -0.07 | 0.01 | -8.16
- humpb. w. (lin) | 0.25 | 0.02 | 12.58
- humpb. w. (quad) | -0.04 | 0.01 | -4.68
- Porpoise
  - none | -0.18 | 0.06 | -3.18
  - present | 0.18 | 0.06 | 3.18
- stellar sealion
  - none | -0.20 | 0.06 | -3.50
  - present | 0.20 | 0.06 | 3.50
- Puffin
  - none | -0.22 | 0.05 | -4.05
  - present | 0.22 | 0.05 | 4.05
- sea otter
  - none | -0.20 | 0.05 | -3.77
  - present | 0.20 | 0.05 | 3.77
- # boats (lin) | -0.22 | 0.03 | -7.96
- # boats (quad) | -0.03 | 0.01 | -1.96
- information
  - Captain - low | -1.04 | 0.11 | -9.80
  - Captain-medium | -0.02 | 0.11 | -0.20
Table 2 contains the results of the choice experiment for the three segments. As no significant differences emerged between the three segments of intention for repeat visits, they were modelled as one homogenous group. While we are aware that this lack of significance might be due to the small sample sizes of the two non-repeating segments, their estimates were so similar that such a combination was warranted. The only significant difference was associated with the intercept, indicating that the likely repeat visitors and repeat whale watchers were much more likely to choose one of the offered tours as opposed to the respondents who will visit Tofino again, but have no further interest in whale watching. Interesting that the respondents without intention to visit Tofino were equally likely to choose alternatives in the CE as the first group was.

On the other product attributes, the respondents preferred to see more whales over fewer whales, although the negative quadratic estimate indicates a lower utility associated with larger numbers of whales. Respondents also enjoyed watching other wildlife. Porpoises, stellar sea lions, puffins and sea otters all were considered about equally important. Whale watchers are also very sensitive to having other boats interfering with their experience, with a high number of boats deemed even worse (as indicated by the negative quadratic estimate). The majority of respondents clearly preferred a naturalist on board to provide them with continuous information, and interestingly no further preference was indicated for naturalists providing extra information about conservation issues in the marine environment, and what participants can do to help protect the environment. Finally, as to expected, whale watchers are sensitive to the price of the product which varied between $78 and $128 for a 4h tour, but it was not deemed to be the most important variable.

**Conclusion**

Whale watching in Tofino is one important destination activity to be enjoyed by tourists visiting the community or region for a few days. The whale watch-
ing product is a rather homogenous product with little separation between operators, except that they offer the tours on boats of different types and comfort (12 passenger zodiacs, as well as 30 and 75 passenger boats). Our analysis also showed that the CE results did not differ when respondents were segmented by boat types. The expectations of whale watchers are rather similar: they truly enjoy wildlife viewing, and do not want to be disturbed by too many other boats in the process. Having a naturalist on board is considered an important additional asset. Whale watchers are happy to observe either humpback whales or grey whales, and once they have observed five or more of them their marginal utility in encountering more declines sharply. The highly positive intercept shows that the visitors are overall satisfied with the various tour features, and even given the price range we used in the CE they are likely to choose one of the tours rather than not enjoying whale watching.

The second research question investigated if it is possible to solicit responses to a CE from visitors who do not intend to revisit the destination, or to participate in a commercially guided trip such as whale watching again. Our results indicate that framing the question as a recommendation to friends and relatives as opposed to actually intended behaviour did not affect the resulting parameter estimates of the CE; only the intercept might be affected. We must admit that our sample size of non-interested respondents was rather small, but even when we pooled the two groups who made a recommendation, the resulting model still remained very similar to the model of repeat visitors.

References


Comparisons of Customer Perceptions and Expectations of the Products and Services at the Innibos Arts Festival

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Abstract
The growth in the number of festivals in South Africa provides a platform for researchers in events management to place greater emphasis on service quality to gain a competitive advantage. The SERVQUAL model and an adaption of the Grönroos model was used to develop a questionnaire to identify service perceptions and expectations of service quality at the Innibos National Arts Festival in Nelspruit. Two sets of data were collected: the first collection prior to festival goers’ attending the festival to measure their expectations, and the second collection after festival goers’ attendance at the festival to measure their perceptions of quality. This study aimed at comparing customer’s expectations and perceptions of service quality of the attendees of the festival. This study will assist the Management of Innibos and other arts festivals to improve the service quality and meet the expectations of their customers. It was found that festival goers’ were satisfied with the service quality of the festival.

Key words: service quality, SERVQUAL, festivals, perceptions, expectations.

Introduction
A series of key technological, political and social events during the first 50 years of the twentieth century propelled tourism into a major worldwide industry (Fridgen, 2006). The industry has moved forward rapidly and today tourism has assumed significance and emerged as a global phenomenon, that affects an increasing the range of environments (Page & Connel, 2006). Events and festivals that are included as part of these environments, which are closely linked to tourism. These act as a catalyst for business activities as well as being an income generator for host communities (Allen, Bowden, O’Toole, Harris & McDonnell, 2005). According to Thrane (2002), festivals are considered as one
of the fastest growing types of tourism attractions. Many festivals are dependent on support from the local area. Their continued viability and sustainability are dependent on a high level of repeat visitation which is directly linked to the quality of the offerings.

According to Smith & Brown (2008, p.42), in recent years, small towns have begun to use local festivals as a distinctive form of tourism and part of an economic development strategy to attract tourists. One such example of this strategy is the Innibos National Arts Festival, held annually in the city of Mbombela, the capital of the Mpumalanga province. The festival is held in June, and boasts a variety of theatre, cabaret, classical and rock productions at various venues in and around Nelspruit. The visual arts are well represented including an arts meander and various art exhibitions (Innibos, 2008).

**Literature Review**

Events, according to Tassiopoulos (2010), are described as being a unique form of tourist attractions, ranging in size and scale. These can affect economies in the global media through to recreational events at parks and community festivals. Festivals have recently been considered one of the fastest growing types of tourism attractions and many festivals draw from a local area, therefore their continued viability and sustainability are dependent on a high level of repeat visitations which can be linked directly to the quality of the offerings (Thrane, 2002). Art festivals that occur in almost every part of the world represent unlimited diversity embracing a repertoire of performances and exhibits, top performers and artists in the field celebrating a form of art, an historical event or a true artist (Getz, 1997). This diversity of presentations is evident at the Innibos National Arts Festival which is the theme of the study.

Neither the festival nor the events will be successful unless the needs, expectations and motivations of the attendees are met. Those festivals that seek to fulfill customer requirements and deliver the highest level of satisfaction to their customers will be successful (Van Zyl, 2008). As the Innibos National Arts Festival is competing for support from the same target market as many other festivals in South Africa, one means of gaining competitive advantage and ensuring sustainability, is to deliver quality service. It is vital for the festival management to appreciate the importance of attendee satisfaction with the services and products on offer at the Innibos National Arts Festival. Identification of products and services which will and will not meet the expectations of the attendees of the Innibos National Arts Festival is cardinal to success.
Service quality is recognized as one of the major factors for ensuring an organization’s sustainability, and one of the driving forces behind an organization’s success. This measured by the margin between customers’ expectations and service received. The most extensively used scale for evaluating service quality is the SERVQUAL model developed by Parasuraman, Berry and Zeithmal in 1985 (Alenezim, Kamil & Basri, 2010). The Grönroos service quality model (Grönroos, 1988) is a functional technical model and that has been used in the insurance, shipping, airline, car rental, travel agency and public sector industries (Seth, 2004). Farmer (2004) endorses the structure of what is known as the SERVQUAL model, an instrument of multi-item scale that measures consumer perceptions of service quality, as indicated in Figure 1 below.

![Figure 1. SERVQUAL model](image)

Source: Zeithaml, Parasuraman & Berry, 1990
There are five major gaps in the service quality concept as illustrated in Figure 1. Gap 5 is the gap most relevant to this study and to the expectations and perceptions of the attendees at the Innibos National Arts Festival.

- Gap 1: Customer expectations versus management perceptions
- Gap 2: Management perceptions versus service specifications
- Gap 3: Service specifications versus service delivery
- Gap 4: Service delivery versus external communication
- Gap 5: The discrepancy between customer expectations and their perceptions of the service delivered

**Methodology**

The criteria for respondents to meet were firstly, that had not previously visited the festival and secondly, that they visit the main stage and theatre shows. Some 190 attendees responded to the questionnaire. The statistical analysis was performed on a construct level as well as an individual variable level. The workflow diagram which illustrates this and addresses the research questions follows:

*Figure 2. Construct level gap analysis*
To perform a gap analysis on the construct level a confirmation factor analysis (to test construct validity) with a reliability analysis was performed using the pre-data. This analysis was performed on each of the 8 constructs of the questionnaire that form part of the composite SERVQUAL and adapted Grönroos model. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measurement of sampling adequacy was used. In addition the Cronbach’s α, was used to test reliability and to determine whether the factors were consistent and reliable. As the value is above 0.7, which is considered to be adequate and satisfactory, the convergent consistency of the construct has been met.

After this analysis the construct scores were calculated for data collected before and after the festival. These scores were subjected to a paired t-test to identify differences (gaps) between the data collected before and after the festival, using a 0.05 % significance level.

To quantify the practical significance of statistical significant gaps the Cohen effect size was calculated. This is defined as \[ d = \frac{|D|}{s_d} \] where \(|D|\) is the absolute value of the average of the difference between after – before scores, and \(s_d\) is the standard deviation of the differences.

The value of \(d\) can be interpreted on the following scale:

- \(d < 0.2\): small effect
- \(d \approx 0.5\): medium effect
- \(d > 0.8\): large effect

**Variable level gap analysis**

After having determined the significant gaps on the construct level, the issue of the variables which constituted the main contribution to the gap were identified. Note that the contribution may be in a negative direction (i.e. the respondents may have experienced a lower value than the perceived value), or a positive direction (i.e. respondents may have experiences a higher value than the perceived value) or no change in response (i.e. respondents report no change in opinion from before or after the festival).

To quantify the above said objective, a frequency analysis was used instead of calculating averages. Differences between the positive and negative percentages were then used as a ranking variable. As these values provide further insight into the gaps formed, they are tabulated and interpreted. In addition, the frequencies of a negative movement were accumulated. The same accumulation was performed for a neutral and a positive movement. These cumulative frequencies were divided by the total number of respondents to produce a per-
percentage distribution with mass points indicating negative, neutral and positive change.

**Results**

Given the validity and reliability of the constructs, the construct level gap analysis conducted was based on the construct scores, which are presented in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paired Differences</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std deviation</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p-value</th>
<th>Effect size</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Entertainment</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>1.78</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>0.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Site elements</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>3.17</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Price</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>0.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food and bev</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>2.83</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Craft vendors</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.44</td>
<td>4.90</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parking</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>0.52</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Children entertain</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.44</td>
<td>2.02</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staff</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>7.16</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.52</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From Table 1, it is concluded that site, food and beverage, vendor, children and staff show statistically significant differences when the after score measurement are compared with the before score measurements. However, only staff show an effect size of medium importance whereas all the other construct differences are rated as small to medium in importance. The variable level gap analysis was performed using a frequency analysis and variable ranking as described in the statistical methodology section. An analysis is presented for each construct. Table 2 represents the variable level gap analysis where the variables are ranked within each construct highlights the larger positive and negative gaps.

**Table 2. Variable Gap Analysis**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Negative change</th>
<th>No change</th>
<th>Positive change</th>
<th>Difference (Positive - Negative)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Entertainment</td>
<td>Signage</td>
<td>5.85</td>
<td>79.79</td>
<td>14.36</td>
<td>8.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Value for money</td>
<td>8.51</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>16.49</td>
<td>7.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Category</td>
<td>Value 1</td>
<td>Value 2</td>
<td>Value 3</td>
<td>Value 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------</td>
<td>---------</td>
<td>---------</td>
<td>---------</td>
<td>---------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safety and security</td>
<td>5.29</td>
<td>86.77</td>
<td>7.94</td>
<td>2.65</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall satisfaction</td>
<td>6.32</td>
<td>85.26</td>
<td>8.42</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Toilets (cleanliness)</td>
<td>11.29</td>
<td>75.81</td>
<td>12.9</td>
<td>1.61</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Toilets (availability)</td>
<td>13.76</td>
<td>73.02</td>
<td>13.23</td>
<td>-0.53</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accessibility for special needs</td>
<td>12.57</td>
<td>77.25</td>
<td>10.18</td>
<td>-2.39</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Site elements</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promptness of artists</td>
<td>2.15</td>
<td>81.72</td>
<td>16.13</td>
<td>13.98</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Programme material</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>80.95</td>
<td>15.34</td>
<td>11.64</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entertainment promised</td>
<td>2.16</td>
<td>86.49</td>
<td>11.35</td>
<td>9.19</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality of shows</td>
<td>3.19</td>
<td>88.83</td>
<td>7.98</td>
<td>4.79</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Viewing and seating</td>
<td>10.81</td>
<td>75.14</td>
<td>14.05</td>
<td>3.24</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variety of shows</td>
<td>5.41</td>
<td>86.49</td>
<td>8.11</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality of sound</td>
<td>10.58</td>
<td>81.48</td>
<td>7.94</td>
<td>-2.64</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Price</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parking</td>
<td>7.41</td>
<td>69.31</td>
<td>23.28</td>
<td>15.87</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entrance tickets</td>
<td>13.16</td>
<td>71.05</td>
<td>15.79</td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vendor/exhibits</td>
<td>13.37</td>
<td>73.26</td>
<td>13.37</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theatre (paid tickets)</td>
<td>19.28</td>
<td>68.07</td>
<td>12.65</td>
<td>-6.63</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food and beverage</td>
<td>28.57</td>
<td>60.32</td>
<td>11.11</td>
<td>-17.46</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service delivery</td>
<td>2.14</td>
<td>82.35</td>
<td>15.51</td>
<td>13.37</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cleanliness/hygiene</td>
<td>4.84</td>
<td>80.11</td>
<td>15.05</td>
<td>10.21</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Value for money</td>
<td>5.38</td>
<td>79.57</td>
<td>15.05</td>
<td>9.67</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality</td>
<td>4.84</td>
<td>83.87</td>
<td>11.29</td>
<td>6.45</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Availability/accessibility</td>
<td>4.81</td>
<td>84.49</td>
<td>10.7</td>
<td>5.89</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quantity</td>
<td>5.41</td>
<td>84.32</td>
<td>10.27</td>
<td>4.86</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variety</td>
<td>7.49</td>
<td>82.89</td>
<td>9.63</td>
<td>2.14</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control of alcohol (age)</td>
<td>12.12</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>12.88</td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vendor</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Value for money</td>
<td>3.17</td>
<td>73.54</td>
<td>23.28</td>
<td>20.11</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accessibility</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>77.78</td>
<td>18.52</td>
<td>14.82</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General service delivery</td>
<td>2.65</td>
<td>81.48</td>
<td>15.87</td>
<td>13.22</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variety of arts and crafts</td>
<td>6.88</td>
<td>76.72</td>
<td>16.4</td>
<td>9.52</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parking</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safety and security</td>
<td>5.35</td>
<td>75.4</td>
<td>19.25</td>
<td>13.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Signage</td>
<td>15.51</td>
<td>68.45</td>
<td>16.04</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Availability</td>
<td>15.51</td>
<td>69.52</td>
<td>14.97</td>
<td>-0.54</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
From Table 2, it is concluded that there was an overall positive change when comparing the experience with the perceptions in all constructs. Constructs in which the changes are the largest are vendor and staff constructs. Note that negative changes are observed in the entertainment, site, price and parking constructs. However, these changes are negligible except for the construct of price. The variables with larger gaps are highlighted in Table 2. These findings concur with what is evident in the construct level gap analysis. Specifically, the staff and vendor constructs have medium to large effect sizes. Price has the smallest effect size, which could be explained by the combination of positive and negative movements.

Conclusion

The results of the conducted research provide grounds for making the influences: Attendees are currently satisfied with the service quality offered by the Innibos National Arts Festival. There are however areas that need to be improved to maintain competitive advantage. The areas of dissatisfaction include price and parking. Overall staff scored extremely high on satisfaction based on SERVQUAL factors which include empathy, courtesy, responsiveness and reliability.
References


Using Destination Image Perceptions to Segment the African-American Tourism Market: An Application of Cluster Analysis

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Abstract
African-American travelers account for 172.6 million domestic person-trips in the United States representing around 9% of the travel market and $48.6 billion in spending (Cook, 2010). Almost all states in the U.S. try to entice visitation from this segment, and the state of Louisiana is no exception. African-American travelers accounted for 17% of the 25 million visitors to Louisiana in 2010 and this study explores the characteristics of this demographic segment (TNS, 2010). Data was collected via an online survey from African-American respondents (n=430) interested in traveling to the state of Louisiana. The survey contained questions regarding demographics, intent to visit, previous trip characteristics, trip characteristics when planning any trip, reasons for not visiting, and perceptions of destination attributes. Three distinct clusters emerged from the analysis each representing a unique market segment and further underscoring the heterogeneity of African-American tourists. Each of these segments is discussed and strategies for marketing to these segments provided.

Key words: African-American travel, cluster analysis, market segmentation

Introduction
African-Americans in the United States represent 13% of the total population, an increase of over 26% since 1990 (Magazine Publishers of America, 2008). These consumers have considerable buying power which is expected to reach
$1.1 trillion by the year 2015 (Nielsen, 2011). With respect to the tourism industry, African-American travelers account for 172.6 million domestic person-trips in the United States representing around 9% of the travel market and $48.6 billion in spending (Cook, 2010). Almost all states in the U.S. try to entice visitation from this segment, and the state of Louisiana is no exception. African-American travelers accounted for 17% of the 25 million visitors to Louisiana in 2010 (TNS, 2010) making this an important tourism market segment. In addition, travel experts recognize that this growing demographic segment has different travel interests and behaviors (U.S. Travel Association/Ypartnership, 2010) resulting in several states in the U.S. deciding to create targeted marketing plans to attract these travelers. For instance, the Louisiana Office of Tourism has a special interest web site dedicated to the African-American Heritage Trail in the state. Such initiatives are common in U.S. southern states such as Mississippi and Alabama which are deeply rooted in African-American culture and history. Research on multicultural travelers has been conducted by a limited number of private research entities (Mandala Research, 2011; TIA, 2003) but these results are not widely published or easily available. In addition, the current travel research on multicultural travelers such as African-Americans, Hispanics, and Asian Americans tend to regard these various racial or ethnic submarkets as monolithic and homogeneous. Clearly, these demographic segments have well known differences in national origin, but there is very little research on the whether these segments have differences in travel attitudes and behaviors within each group despite the importance of this potentially lucrative travel market.

Therefore, the purpose of this study is to fill this void in the literature, this study focuses on African-American travelers and explores whether this market can be segmented further in order to create more effective and targeted marketing plans. Specifically, the purpose of this study is to explore the characteristics of African-American travelers regarding demographics, intent to visit, previous trip characteristics, trip characteristics when planning any trip, reasons for not visiting, and perceptions of destination attributes. Further, the study examines whether these characteristics show that African-American travelers can be further subdivided into smaller market segments based on differences in the perceptions of destination image attributes.

**Literature Review**

**African-American Travel:** According to the U.S. Census Bureau (2010), African-American or Black “refers to a person having origins in any of the Black racial
groups of Africa. It includes people who indicated their race(s) as “Black, African Am., or Negro” or reported entries such as African-American, Kenyan, Nigerian, or Haitian” (p.3). This population is projected to reach 48 million people in 2020, a growth of 14% from 2010 (Cook, 2010). As stated earlier, they have significant buying power and are different from other U.S. demographic segments by skewing toward a younger and more urban population with 40% of African-Americans living in cities. Most importantly to marketers, they are heavy consumers of TV and magazine media and want to be seen as heterogeneous rather than homogeneous due to their varied opinions, attitudes, values and interests. (Magazine Publishers of America, 2008.)

A recent study by Mandala Research (2011) on African-American travelers showed that the primary purpose of their trips were to visit friends and family using the automobile as the mode of transportation. The majority of their trips were within 500 miles of their homes, with African-American travelers relying heavily on family and friends as their sources of information. Further, African-American leisure travelers like to plan trips that are mentally beneficial that result in memories that can be shared when they return home. Cook (2010) also found that African-Americans liked pampering trips to enjoy the finer things in life and preferred trips that were fully packed with activities. In addition, the children of these travelers had an influence on their travel decisions.

The majority of African-Americans live in the southern states of the U.S. with heavy concentrations in Mississippi, Alabama, Georgia and Louisiana among others. Societies of these and nearly all southern U.S. states are indelibly intertwined with African-American history and culture. As indicated in the results of Mandala Research (2011), one of the African-American travel segments was labeled as “Curious and Engaged” whose choice of destination was based heavily on places that highlighted African-American culture and heritage. While cost of the trip was considered one of the most important variables in trip planning, Agarwal and Yochum (1999) found that there were no statistically significant differences in travel spending between African-Americans and other racial/ethnic groups at a destination. This indicates that price may be an important variable during the initial travel decision (i.e., travel vs. do not travel; destination choice; accommodation choice, etc.), but less important when it comes to decisions during travel (i.e., souvenir purchases; dining decisions, etc.).

**Destination Image:** The role of destination image is widely studied in tourism literature, and while its importance has been demonstrated, it is still a
complex variable. The concept of image, is generally understood to be “formed
by the consumer’s reasoned and emotional interpretation as the consequence of
two closely interrelated components: perceptive/cognitive evaluations referring
to the individual’s own knowledge and beliefs about the object (an evaluation
of the perceived attributes of the object), and affective appraisals relating to an
individual’s feelings towards the object” (Beerli & Martin, 2004, p.658). Destination image is affected by both cognitive and affective evaluations (Baloglu &
McCleary, 1999; Stern & Krakover, 1993). Beerli and Martin (2004) tested a
model on the formation of destination image. This model posited that the des-
tination image is formed by two overall factors: information sources (both pri-
mary and secondary) and personal factors (motivations, vacation experience,
sociodemographic characteristics). According to this path model, these two
factors lead to a cognitive image which in turn leads to an affective image, both
of which make up the overall image of a destination.

Many scales have been developed to measure destination image including
studies that have included the reliability of the scales (Baloglu & McCleary,
1999; Echtner & Ritchie, 1993). These scales incorporated many attributes or
dimensions of destinations including natural resources, general infrastructure,
tourist infrastructure, leisure and recreation, culture, history and art, political
and economic factors, natural environment, social environment and atmos-
phere of the destination (Beerli & Martin, 2004). Naturally, not all destinations
will have attributes that fall under all these dimensions resulting in researchers
selecting attributes that would relate specifically to the particular destinations
in their studies (Chen, Chen & Lee, 2010).

Methodology

At the request of the Louisiana Office of Tourism, a twenty-three question
online survey instrument was developed to assess African-Americans’ destina-
tion image perceptions of Louisiana. Specifically, the survey contained ques-
tions regarding demographics, intent to visit, previous trip characteristics, trip
characteristics when planning any trip, reasons for not visiting, and percep-
tions of destination attributes. These destination image attributes included
several of those indicated by Echtner and Ritchie (2003) including personal
safety, presence and quality of tourist infrastructure, leisure and entertainment,
culture, uniqueness, family activities, and value for money. Questions of par-
ticular interest to this study are found in Table 1.

Data was collected electronically and researchers began with a database
containing 14,759 usable email addresses for individuals who during the past
two years had requested a Louisiana tourism marketing brochure targeted toward the African-American visitor. An initial request containing a link to the survey was sent to potential respondents. Approximately ten days later, a follow-up request was sent. A total of 990 surveys were completed. However, only 430 of those respondents identified themselves as African-Americans and were included in subsequent analysis presented in this study. A demographic profile of respondents is presented in Table 2. The typical respondent as evidenced by the modes was female, married, between the ages of 45-54, not retired, not a student, with household income between $25,001-$50,000, and with no children under 18 at home.

A two-step cluster analysis was conducted in order to group African-American respondents based on their responses to perceptions of Louisiana as a tourist destination. Cluster analysis is a technique that is used to identify groups of individuals who are similar to each other when it comes to researcher specified attributes. In essence, each cluster represents a unique segment of the market. Specifically, two-step cluster analysis was utilized because it allows for rapid formation of clusters and assists the researchers in determining the appropriate number of clusters. The researchers do not have to specify a priori the number of clusters that seem desirable, and therefore the natural number of market segments emerge (Norusis, 2012).

Results

The nine destination image perception questions outlined in Table 1 were specified as the clustering variables. Utilizing these variables is akin to behavioral segmentation which creates segments based on consumers’ knowledge, attitudes, uses, or responses to a product/service (Armstrong & Kotler 2011). Three distinct clusters emerge. Cluster #1 represents 33.3% of the market and holds the most positive image of the destination with an average perception score of 4.76 indicating that they agree to strongly agree with all image perception questions. Cluster #2 is the largest cluster representing 56.8% of the market. These individuals hold slightly positive views of the destination with an average perception score of 3.97. Cluster #3 is the smallest cluster representing only 9.9% of the market. Respondents in Cluster #3 possess the most negative image of the destination, rating all nine perception statements lower than individuals in other clusters. The average perception score for Cluster #3 is 2.64. Table 3 presents each cluster’s mean response to each perception statement along with the overall mean perception score.
The distributions within the clusters for specific items of interest in the study are shown in Table 4. With regard to previous visits and intentions to visit, significant differences (p=.030) did emerge across clusters. Members of Cluster #1 were almost equally divided into those who visited in the past year, those who had definite plans to visit within a year and those who were considering visiting within a year. The majority (53.9%) of Cluster #2 members were considering visiting within a year while 29.9% had visited during the past two years. Although Cluster #3 is small in size, they had the most members who had previously visited Louisiana (46.2%). To better understand each cluster, Chi Square tests of differences were conducted.

Respondents also were asked to identify their purpose for their travel to Louisiana by selecting all that apply from the following list: business, convention, leisure/pleasure, attend festival/event, family reunion, education, and sports related. The most predominant purposes of trip for all clusters were for leisure and to attend festivals. Cluster #3 members also indicated that they were traveling for business (18.5%) and family reunions (18.5%). Chi square tests showed that the only significant difference (p<.05) that emerged was related to travelling to attend a festival/event; with 50.5% of respondents in Cluster #1, 40.6% of respondents in Cluster #2, and 22.2% of respondents in Cluster #3 indicated this was a primary reason for visiting.

Respondents were also queried about the types of activities they were most interested in when travelling. Presented with a list of 18 activities (i.e., culinary, cultural, visiting state parks, visiting museums), they were asked to select all that interested them. A significant difference (p<.05) with respect to culinary activities and borderline significant differences (.05<p<.10) with respect to cultural activities, interest in visiting zoos, aquariums, or science museums, and interest in visiting state parks emerged across clusters. With respect to culinary activities, 61.5% of Cluster #1, 51.6% of Cluster #2, and 25.9% of Cluster #3 indicated interest. When it comes to cultural activities, a similar pattern emerges with 58.2% of Cluster #1, 52.9% of Cluster #2, and 33.3% of Cluster #3 expressing interest. Cluster #1 seems most interest in visiting zoos, aquariums or science museums when compared to Cluster #2 and #3. Levels of interest were 56.0%, 40.6%, and 40.7%, respectively. Cluster #3 showed slightly more interest in visiting state parks than the other two clusters with 37% of Cluster #3 indicating interest compared to 29.7% for Cluster #1 and 20% for Cluster #2.

Clusters also were examined for differences when it comes to marketing-related issues. While there were no significant differences with respect to
whether or not one had seen or heard an advertisement for Louisiana tourism, a directional difference did emerge with the most positive cluster (Cluster #1) having been more likely to have seen or heard an advertisement. Further, a borderline significant (p=.076) difference emerged with respect to the primary source of information regarding Louisiana as a tourist destination. With respect to Cluster #1, 42.4% rely on family/friends, 36.5% rely on the Internet, and 21.2% rely on advertising. In contrast, 39.2% of respondents in Cluster #2 and 40% of respondents in Cluster #3 rely on advertising; 31.8% of respondents in Cluster #2 and 32% of respondents in Cluster #3 rely on friends/family; and 29.1% of respondents in Cluster #2 and 28% of respondents in Cluster #3 rely on the Internet. It is interesting to note that those clusters relying on advertising are less positive towards Louisiana than the cluster relying on other sources.

Interestingly, no significant demographic (i.e., age, income, gender) differences emerge across clusters. This further underscores the heterogeneity of the African-American market and follows from marketing theory which cautions against total reliance on demographic segmentation due to the complexity of most consumers (e.g. Dolnicar, 2005; Tynan & Drayton, 1987).

Conclusion

Market segmentation is one of the bedrock principles of marketing and is used to subdivide markets into groups whose particular needs can be identified and better served by an organization. The four major ways that markets can be segmented are geographic, demographic, psychographic, and behavioral (Kotler, Bowen & Makens, 2006). Many different segmentation variables can be used in each of these methods to subdivide a market with an objective of identifying groups of potential customers who have similar needs and wants. It is generally accepted that both geographic and demographic segments are more easily identified and measured (Shoemaker, Lewis & Yesawich, 2007). However, these advantages may be mitigated by the fact that it may be sometimes flawed to assume that the members of each segment will have similar needs and wants.

This study shows that demographic segments need to be examined further to identify sub groups within the segments. In the case of African-American travelers, the results of cluster analysis show that there were three sub groups based on their ratings of the destination image attributes of Louisiana. Cluster #1 had the highest mean ratings (4.76) on the attributes of destination image and represent 33.3% of the market. Their high scores are also reflected in the
fact that 66% of them have either definite plans to visit or considering a visit. This is similar to findings of Chalip, Green and Hill (2003); Chen, Chen, Lee (2010) and others who showed the relationship between positive destination image and intention to visit. Since members of this cluster are also more likely to use friends and family as their sources of information, their destination image would be considered more organic (Gunn, 1997). Their highly positive destination image could also make them Advocates of Louisiana as a destination as they in turn report their experiences to their friends and family. This segment is also differentiated by their preponderance of visiting to attend festivals and also being involved in culinary activities thus living up to a former market positioning slogan for Louisiana as the state where “We’re really cookin’”.

Cluster #2 represents the largest segment among African-American travelers in this study (56.8%). While almost 30% have visited the state in the past two years, 70% of them have plans or are considering visits. They can be classified as Loyalists and their destination attribute ratings are not as high as Cluster #1, but still can be seen as quite positive at a mean of 3.97 on scale of 1 to 5. Their image is more induced (Li et al., 2009) since they tend get their information from commercial sources such as advertising. This is a positive finding as the state of Louisiana spends considerable amount of money on tourism advertising each year. This group also showed the most interest in historic sites and has high expectations of the cultural experiences in Louisiana.

Cluster #3, the smallest proportion of members in our study (9.9%), has the lowest scores on destination image. Many of them (46.2%) have visited Louisiana in the past two years and it is possible that their destination image ratings have been influenced by their visits as found by Phillips and Jang (2010) where cognitive and affective images were altered after a visit to a destination. As can be expected only a few (11.5%) of the members of this cluster have definite plans to visit, and on a positive note, 42.3% are considering visiting within a year. They do seem to be more interested in state parks and were more likely than the other clusters to take trips for family reunions and for business. The latter two purposes of trips could also have taken the destination choice out of these individuals’ hands since these are trips necessary for a business purpose or for preplanned family reunions. This group also uses commercial sources of information and thus may be influenced by advertising and promotion that highlights concert performances, fairs and festivals, and state parks which are their preferred activities. Nevertheless, for Louisiana as a destination, it is fortunate that this Indifferent cluster represents less than 10% of the sample.
With each cluster representing a distinct segment of the African-American tourism market, marketers can choose which segments of the market to pursue and craft appropriate marketing plans for doing so. Each cluster possesses distinct attitudes about Louisiana as a tourism destination, motivations for traveling to Louisiana, and activities they are interested in engaging in once they arrive. Astute marketers will craft personally relevant advertisements and marketing collaterals for each cluster since the “most important variable affecting a person’s motivation to process a message is the perceived personal relevance of the communication” (Petty, Unnava, & Strathman, 1991, p. 245). In addition, the differences in information sources can be utilized by marketers to choose appropriate promotional mediums for these messages.

Understanding the attitudes possessed by each cluster allows marketers to work on unique attitude change strategies for each. Ajzen and Fishbein’s (1980) expectancy-value theory of attitude change posits that attitude formation is driven by the likelihood that an attribute is associated with an object (e.g., personal safety and Louisiana) and how desirable or important that attribute is to an individual (e.g., is this particular cluster concerned about personal safety). To change an attitude, a marketer must change the target market’s perception of the likelihood it is associated with an object (i.e., Louisiana) or change the importance of that attribute. In this particular study, Cluster #3 indicates a higher interest in visiting state parts making the number and quality of state parks an important attribute when it comes to this group. This cluster’s attitude toward Louisiana could be enhanced by directing advertisements and other targeted marketing communications towards them that feature Louisiana state parks. This would enhance the “likelihood” of the attribute being associated with Louisiana resulting in positive attitude change. Marketers also can sway the importance of an attribute to a particular cluster. Cluster #2 and #3 were less interested in zoos, aquariums and science museums. The ‘importance’ of this activity might be increased by showing them Louisiana’s world-class offerings in these categories and how interesting they are to visit.

As with any study, this study has several limitations which result in future research opportunities. This study utilizes a self-selected convenience sample of African-American travelers who have asked to receive information on traveling to Louisiana. Arguably, this sample, while including a broad spectrum of African-American travel consumers as seen in Table 2, may exclude other key individuals. In particular, this study excludes individuals who have yet to consider Louisiana as a tourism destination. Future researchers are encouraged to
survey these individuals and when possible, implement other sampling techniques.

In addition, the current survey instrument, at the request of the client, contains many nominal and ordinal scaled questions. While appropriate for the study at hand, these items limit the depth of the data and complexity of data analysis. Future researchers are encouraged to expand, as appropriate, the scale items. For instance, instead of asking respondents if they are interested in historic sites or gambling, researchers might measure how interested using a common 5 or 7-point numerical scale. This will result in more detailed insights into the clusters. Another limitation is that the majority of the respondents are females. These females are likely requesting information on behalf of a household or other traveling group. Efforts to better understand the group decision making process of African-American consumers is of interest. For instance, are these females the decision maker or are they simply filling the role of information gatherer? What are the roles of others in the group and how do their preferences and perceptions impact the decision?

African-Americans are a valuable demographic segment for the travel and tourism industry both in terms of their numbers and buying power. Results from the current study could be used as lessons learned for understanding travel preferences of African Americans traveling to a variety of destinations. Culinary and cultural events are among the top preferred activities of African Americans visiting any destination. Because the wording of the survey questions specifically focused on activities at any destination, these results could be applied to a variety of locations and destination marketers and travel professionals could utilize this information to pull the African American leisure traveler to their specific locations.

References


Hostelling in China: An Ethnography of Youth Hostels

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Abstract
This paper aims at clarifying the nature of Youth Hostels and the interplay of Youth Hostels and backpacker tourism in China. Based on multi-sited ethnographic fieldworks, I examine the network of Youth Hostels and everyday life in some hostel. Compared with early Youth Hostel movement in Europe, hostelling in China reflects people’s preference to stylized accommodation and declining taste on commercialization. Hostels constitute a network that is connected to the backpackers’ network, in which people’s identities can exchange each other. Everyday life in hostels turns out to be a disciplined system that not only meets the need of efficient commercial operations, but also produces an illusion of ideal utopia for outsiders.

Key words: youth tourism, hostels, ethnography, backpackers.

Introduction
The tradition of hostelling can be dated from German Wandervogel in the late 19th century (Savage, 2010, p. 95-106). Unsatisfied with alienated social life, the youth launched the movement that a great number of students were encouraged to leave schools and to travel to the nature. Institutionalized by adult leaders, Youth Hostel conserved its spirit from the movement, forming an organization (International Youth Hostel Federation, IYHF) that lasts for nearly 100 years (Grassl & Heath, 1998). When backpacking thriving in big scale in 1970s, a new class “drifter” (Cohen, 1973; 2004) appeared on the stage of tourism. Meanwhile, various independent hostels and hostel associations sprang up. Hostelling shifted from single organization to tourism phenomenon. Today, hostelling is less restrictive and inflexible than it was before. “The hostel sector has adapted to the changing global demand, and many even cater to families and business travelers who are attempting travel on a budget” (Timothy & Teye, 2009, p. 213). Hostelling is the way that backpackers or independ-
ent travelers who travel on budget seek less-expensive accommodations where they can interact with other travelers in their own socio-economic and age category. Since there are versions on the name of hostel in China, I use Hostel in broad sense that refers to a budget accommodation for backpackers. Youth Hostel actually stands for an organizational hostel with special history.

This paper provides a case of hostelling in China, especially focusing on the role of Youth Hostels in backpacker tourism. Based on multi-sited fieldwork in the network of Youth Hostels, this paper portrays a picture of hostelling in China in ethnographical way that means it incorporates long-time participant observation and extensive qualitative interviews.

**Literature Review**

In recent years, backpacker tourism increasingly draws attentions in tourism studies (Richard & Wilson, 2004; Hannam & Ateljevic, 2008; Hannam & Diekmann, 2010). However, in the numerous literatures, there is a shortage of China’s cases. Backpacker tourism in China can be divided into Chinese backpacking and foreign backpacking. Actually, the latter took the lead in the tourism industry when China was open for foreign tourists and investments. Chinese backpacking emerged after mass tourism thriving in China. Similar to the image of “anti-tourism” in foreign backpacking (Welk, 2004, p. 77-91), Chinese backpackers prefer non-touristic sites in Yunnan Province which is away from urban life in coastal cities.

In the tourism studies in China, researches are focused on foreign backpackers’ behaviors and descriptive analysis of backpacker tourism in specific areas. Zhu (2009) is the first Chinese researcher closely to study backpacker tourism in China. Based on interdisciplinary methods, she provided an outline of backpacker tourism referring to mass foreign literatures and with some Chinese empirical evidences, which is the introductory contribution on Chinese backpacker tourism studies. However, it is just regarded as a general overview of backpacker tourism academically and practically, not reaching the in-depth theoretical level of backpacker tourism. Different from commercial nature of mass tourism, backpacker tourism appears to be a kind of cultural tourism that attracts attention from anthropologists. Lim (2009) and Zhang (2008) explored “donkey friends” (nickname of Chinese backpackers) from anthropological perspective. Lim focused on “the impact of internet on the formation of travel communities” (Lim, 2009, p. 291). He argued that Chinese backpackers devel-

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1 There is a new group called “flashpackers” who travel with expensive backpack (Hannam & Diekmann, 2010)
oped “a particular linguistic and behavioral code that makes the community a distinct cultural entity” (Lim, 2009, p. 301). What’s more, Chinese backpacking demonstrated a series of core values and ethos that affected their social interactions, such as “freedom”, “equality” and “altruism” (Lim, 2009, p. 300). Therefore, Lim suggested that researchers pay attention on both physical enclave and online enclave in backpacker tourism.

Zhang examined the voluntary association of Chinese backpackers in the aspects of their cultural identity, interpersonal relationships and social network. She argued that emerging phenomenon of “donkey friends” demonstrated “the rise of the new public sphere of middle class in post-socialist urban China” (Zhang, 2008). On the other hand, she emphasized this does not mean that these grassroots organizations target the state and challenge state authority. Zhang (2008: 207-208) argued against traditional Guanxi researches that with the diffusion of the Internet and emergence of xiaozì (middle class) in the cities, urban individuals expressed evermore eagerness to meet people like themselves and form horizontal ties and independent fellowships.

These two studies demonstrate socio-cultural insights on Chinese backpacker tourism. Lim and Zhang both associate “donkey friends” with civil society and new public sphere. Lim centers on influence from internet, while Zhang exhibits extensive empirical data. Compared with Zhu’s work, the two reflect the authors’ theoretical concerns. However, researches on (Youth) Hostels account for very small proportion in backpacker tourism studies, let alone cases in China. Two angles to examine hostels are consistent with two main perspectives in tourism studies. One is economic (or managerial) perspective: Nash et al. (2006) investigate the customer satisfaction on Youth Hostels in Scotland, and conclude seven factors affecting service quality and customer satisfaction. The other is socio-cultural perspective: O’Regan (2010) regards backpacker hostel as a place for consumption and performance, “routed in the discourse of spatial mobility, experience seeking, performance and identity” (O’Regan, 2010, p.85). Since backpacker tourism inclines to the socio-cultural phenomenon, I prefer O’Regan’s perspective, and portray it anthropologically.

In the anthropology of tourism, host and guest are inseparable. However, in backpacker tourism, there exists another subject, hostels, apart from local communities and backpackers. According to the five criteria of backpackers by Pearce (1990; 2008, p. 39), hostelling is the key part in backpacking. Especially in China, hostelling is resulted from and results in backpacking, which is ignored by Lim and Zhang. In addition, the organization “YHA China” (Youth
Hostel Association, affiliated with IYHF) links the hostelling in the world and backpacking in China. It is worth mentioning that two master students were conducting fieldworks on hostelling in China when my research was proceeding. Su (2010) focuses on backpackers experience in Youth Hostels based on her participant observation in daily works there, while Liu (2011) associates the space of Youth Hostel with broad Chinese social context, through her multisited observations and interviews. Compared with the two studies, I spent much more time engaging in the network of Youth Hostels. My research focus narrows down to the network of hostels and its interactions with backpackers. Unlike Su’s concerns on backpackers’ side, I paid more attention to working environment in Youth Hostels.

Methodology

This paper is an ethnography of Youth Hostels in China. Ethnography ties fieldwork and culture together (Van, 1988, p. 1). In other words, ethnography is a written product of fieldwork on some culture. In anthropological tradition, fieldwork is mainly to conduct participant observations in a bounded community. This scientific ethnography was not only challenged by politics of writing (Clifford & Marcus, 1986), but also inapplicable to some current social phenomenon, such as tourism. Ethnographers like to study host communities rather than mobile guest groups because of no a fixed range of people to study and fragmented and fleeting interactions among tourists.

In terms of my research, backpackers come and go hurriedly in Youth Hostels, even though hostels are bounded place. Therefore, on one hand, I stayed in some hostel to observe internal operations; on other hand, I joined some backpacker groups and travelled together. To be specific, I worked as a staff in two hostels, involving with receptions, housekeeping and cooking. As a volunteer, I participated in organizing many activities by single hostel and YHA China. What’s more, I joined some online chatting groups to conduct open interviews there. Some in-depth interviews with bosses of hostels were conducted during the fieldtrip. To me, “fieldwork has always been a mix of institutionalized practices of dwelling and traveling” (Clifford, 1997, p. 67).

As for field site selection, I chose to work in two Youth Hostels in Guangdong where YHA China is located. I also visited more than 30 hostels distributing in Beijing, Shanghai, Wuhan, Yunnan and Sichuan, which stand for two categories, city-based and tourism-based. The former receives some businesspersons’ visits, while the latter is basically filled with backpackers.
Through these qualitative techniques, I collected many textual data. In order to portray the culture of hostelling in China, I produce “realist tales” here (Van, 1988, pp. 45-72). In other words, I try to stand at research subjects’ point of view, and interpret some questions: why people hostel, how backpacker networks connect to hostel networks and what is the everyday life like in Youth Hostels.

Results

In this part, I will examine the network of Youth Hostels in China and its interactions with backpackers. In addition, I will uncover the everyday life in Youth Hostels.

Whose Hostel: Youth Hostels in China

The question “whose hostel” I propose aim at the reason why hostelling appears in China and structure of Youth Hostel networks. I will explore the question from boss’ and lodger’s perspective, while most studies on backpacking focus on tourists’ side, disregarding the mediation that hostels act. In fact, these two forces are involved with active interactions.

Idealization and Commercialization: Boss's Youth Hostel

To begin with, I introduce Chinese “Youth Hostel movement”, which is conducted in official way and minjian’s way. Officially, a group from Tourism Administration of Guangdong Province came to Europe for business visit in 1998. After realizing the idea of Youth Hostel, the bureau decided to bring this model back for the structural adjustment of tourism industry in Guangdong. Meanwhile, another association appeared under administration of Beijing bureau. Till 2006, Guangdong association was approved to join the IYHF. On the other hand, Chinese backpacking had set out in late 1990s when Youth Hostel was brought in. The main backpacker associations (or called outdoor clubs) are distributed in Beijing, Guangdong, Shanghai and Kunming. After 2000, various backpacker associations and clubs sprang up in China. Some hostels I visited in Yunnan are owned by “donkey friends” from Shanghai and around. They knew the Youth Hostel after opening their hostels, and decided to join the brand these years. In recent years, two routes of Chinese hostelling are merged.

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2 I use the word “lodger” rather than backpacker because Youth Hostel in China is not only for backpacking, but also for multi-usages of different peoples, such as businesspersons in city-based hostels.
4 For details on disputation between two associations, see Liu Y. (2011: 37-40).
Through promotion of YHA, more and more hostel owners chose to join in the network. Each boss has to pay franchising fee to headquarter, while the association hardly manages to operate single hostel. Unlike hostelling in Hong Kong or other area\(^5\), the hostel owners have much agency to develop their idea for hostel design and manage the business for their own sake. There is a vivid saying in the league that running a hostel is like raising a baby that reflects boss’ characteristic.

Then, why these people would like to join the hostelling business that can “not make a big fortune” as they put it? One important factor is their pursuit of new lifestyle called xiaozi (middle class). Some recognized friend in the same boat during backpacking and set up their business; some didn’t want to completely quit their original work, so they invest into hostels and hire a manager in charge of daily operation. Anyway, hostelling become a new lifestyle for them, which refracts their ideal disposition on lives.

Another factor, profit, cannot be denied when it comes to business. For the YHA’s logo of blue triangle is well-received for years, some boss think it’s a good way to attract foreign tourists who are considered to have well consuming capacity. The products it sells are higher than ones in stores. The reason why it is still called budget accommodation is only because consumers are foreigner and middle class people in China. Ironically, the business motivation is always despised by boss; instead, a kind of divergent ideal spirit is highlighted.

We can see that for boss, hostel owner, hostelling is resulted from the balance of idealization and commercialization. This discreet strategy is closely related to their position between official network and minjian network.

**Consuming Hostels: Lodger’s Hostel**

In cities, hostels are often occupied by businesspersons. For example, in Guangzhou, Youth Hostel is often booked by businesspersons who attend Canton Fair in spring and fall. In Shanghai, some hostels are welcome for young graduate students from surrounding cities who are hunting for occupations but not settling yet. In the remote touristic area, there are more backpackers staying in Youth Hostels, who are almost foreigners. These years, Chinese backpackers especially potential flashpackers who are wealthy and want to experience interactional hostelling lives appear in Youth Hostels. Besides, Youth Hostel received cold welcome on campus. Students rarely heard of it and worried about safety there. Furthermore, some independent travelers did not consider Youth

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\(^5\) As for the case of Hong Kong, the YHA owns seven hostels, and are responsible for the daily work in each hostel. Most youth hostels are established in remote area in 1970s or 1980s, supported by fundraising.
Hostel as a cheap accommodation. Accordingly, hostelling in China appears diversified, whose meaning varies to the different lodgers. In addition, it diverges from original mission of Youth Hostel, and the official association has limited impact on development of hostelling at the bottom. In light of this statement, hostelling in China is neither pure backpacking nor the legacy of the social movement in Europe. In the context of dilemma between idealization and commercialization, hostel owners in the pursuit of ideal spirits like xiaozi, freedom, relaxing etc. have to commercialize the operation of hostels, in order to balance the investment and return. People visiting hostels also aim at similar ideal spirits, disregarding price they pay. In fact, the outstanding feature of hostels is their shared space. Rooms, lobby, kitchen, and even bathroom are shared in hostels so that lodgers unavoidably interact with each other. Therefore, no matter what kind of people are, backpackers, businesspeople, or students, they lodgers choose hostelling due to the accommodation associated the ideal spirits that bosses create. The price factor becomes secondary. That is to say, lodgers share the similar taste that reflects symbolic meanings. Through hostelling, Boss and lodgers together produce a distinct class (Bourdieu, 1984).

Youth Hostel network turns out to be official network. There are other interactional systems based on guanxi (personal relationship) that overlap the official one. Bosses will visit each other non-periodically, forming an informal circle. They post their hostel poster to intimate hostel, expecting friends to promote their own service. The association carefully balances the relationship within the network of hostels. To response to Lim (2009) and Zhang (2008), I state that not only backpackers have social networks and potentially lead to civil society but hostel owners also possess kinds of networks where incubate mingjian. Some bosses actively participate in backpacking online forum, and some really guide backpackers to different destination around their hostels. Hostels become the basement of backpackers. Through internet, spreading hostels are integrated. I knew a case that a hostel in Suzhou was dismantled groundlessly for municipal construction, which causes online protests from other hostels. It’s worth mentioning that YHA as a social organization began to appear in Chinese civil society. Some Youth Hostels regularly held workshops or trainings for NGOs.

How to “Hostel”: a Micro-ethnography of Youth Hostels

Here, I will examine micro level of lives in hostels. To be specific, I firstly focus on overall everyday life in Youth Hostels, and then turn to different groups of people there.
Everyday life in Youth Hostels

As I mentioned before, Youth Hostels are regarded as a utopian space where is filled with travelers’ imagination on “freedom”, “xiaozier” etc. Some lodgers consider hostelling as an important part of traveling rather than a simple one-night accommodation. However, if we go further into operation of a Youth Hostel, we will find out this ideal utopia turns out to be a closed and routine everyday life. The operation of the hostel is divided into two parts: reception and housekeeping. There are two roles as receptionist (Qiantai): cashier (dadang), who has been staying at reception in charge of check-in, check-out, booking, left-luggage, etc.; runner (paotui), who is flexible for any tasks like room inspection, patrol in the hostel, food preparation, etc. Housekeeping is conducted by middle-aged women (aiyi). Next, I will elaborate the lives in a Youth Hostel through its four characteristics. The first characteristic is a round system. Because Youth Hostels are normally in small scale with least proportional staff, the workload they assume is rather much, and every part in the operation has to be all linked with one another. All the staffs engage in their works according to fixed sequence set by boss. Limited human resource reinforces the standardization of the process otherwise they cannot handle kinds of trifle in time. Even if boss does not always come to the hostel, the staffs have developed a habit faced with “discipline” (Foucault, 1977). Youth Hostels exhibit well-designed round system. Different from hotel system, the operation of the Youth Hostel reflects boss’ disposition rather than so-called “Youth Hostel culture” (whose counterpart in hotel is corporate culture).

The second characteristic is Huanbao (Environmental Protection). With long history, Youth Hostels advocate Huanbao, which is embodied in disuse of disposable objects. In fact, Huanbao in Youth Hostel is not only viewed as a culture but also acquired as knowledge. Under discipline of round system, staffs acquire the norm and behave naturally. These behaviors supported by all sorts of reasons, were conveyed as knowledge to one another. Huanbao does not mean real environmentally friendly. From macro perspective, it is the presentation of organizational culture; from micro perspective, it is the normalization of operational knowledge.

The third is the produced public space. I have argued that shared public space is an important factor to motivate lodgers’ choice. Actually, hostel staffs participate in the production of public space. In the public area of Youth Hostels, most lodgers like to stay silently and don’t eager to socialize, especially for Chinese lodgers. Sometimes, staffs’ or boss’ active participation accelerates the
interactions and forms a shared public space. Christmas and Spring Festival are peak period for activities. Many hostels invite lodgers to join in and take photos together. These photos are showed on the internet, winning much praise from other hostels or backpackers. Staffs and bosses become performers in the elaborate program. When it ends, the everyday life returns to the close system. The fourth characteristic is tiaoke (select guests). Youth Hostels have its criteria to decide whether to accept lodgers. Holding a kind of ideal spirit, bosses devise both the layout and management of the hostel. Even if commercial profits are important to the hostel, idealization urges them to repel incompatible guests. Affected by boss’ disposition in the system, staffs tend to act in the same way. Staffs have agency to get along with guests they like or to keep indifferent to guests they dislike. Through four characteristics of everyday life in the Youth Hostel, we can find that working in hostels does not look like a utopia that outsiders imagine. Staffs have to assume the burden of a round system, in which they acquire a norm of Huanbao, out of which they produce a public space and present it to outsiders, at the periphery of which they have limited agency to interact with guests. In summary, everyday life in Youth Hostel actually is a closed utopia disciplined by boss.

People in Youth Hostels

Although qiantai have to live in the round system, they develop a kind of discourse system for their own sake. Many of them have nicknames. They like to make up jokes based on trifles. Another discourse is the knowledge such as Huanbao they acquire and convey. The old qiantai are responsible for teaching new comers how to work in the Youth Hostel. They use a kind of systematic discourse to relate, sometimes enquiring details from older qiantai. Besides, qiantai have agency to tiaoke. They are allowed to contact lodgers after work, but the round system limits qiantai’s agency to interact, because the operation of Youth Hostels is still based on commercial principle that external organizational behavior cannot contradict organizational operation. Further, qiantai are trapped into the closed utopia that they never imagine, so they often present real themselves on the internet to release the depression. Low wages and few promotion cause high rate of turnover. What’s more, lifestyle appears different from what they assume. Under all kinds of social pressure, like marriage, estate purchase, they have to leave the utopia they were longing for.

Even so, qiantai are still connected to the network of Youth Hostel. They choose hostels during traveling, and revisit old friends in the hostel. They become active outsiders in the online communities of hostelling. In this sense,
they change the identity from qiantai to backpackers. Let us move to the group of ayi in charge of housekeeping in hostels. In a strict sense, ayi fail to engage in Youth Hostel culture. According to their opinions, Youth Hostel, same as hotel, is just a workplace to earn for lives. In the Youth Hostel, ayi are the migrant workers from inland provinces.

In terms of four characteristics of Youth Hostel I mentioned, ayi get used to the round system, not having a kind of spiritual dilemma like qiantai. They also have to be faced with special discourses like Huanbao. For them, this is disciplined regulation to obey. In their regular works, they view themselves as common servants so that no case of tiaoke happens. The only thing to do is to make rooms clean, fitting into the whole system. As for producing public space, they also contribute little apart from related physical works. Since ayi are senior and have much more experience than young qiantai, their interaction is so useful for qiantai that their anxiety could be lightened, also, qiantai often help ayi do the physical works. That is why they are called ayi (aunt) by qiantai. The third group, longtime lodgers, also exerts influence on the everyday life in hostels. They generally have been to many hostels, and are familiar with how a hostel operates. In this sense, they can make larger use of facilities and service hostels offer. Similar to other lodgers, stylish feather and budget factor are both reasons they stay. They sometimes help staffs deal with things; in turn, they can get some favor from staffs. Some longtime lodgers affect hostels positively, while some just play tricks to utilize free resources. On one hand, they are exempt from disciplined system; on the other hand, they can contribute to produce the public space.

In this part, I examined the micro level of hostelling in China. Unlike a utopia bosses describe and lodgers imagine, staffs lead a disciplined life in the hostel. The young people who desire a free lifestyle, are trapped into another norm. How to “hostel”? It depends on hostellers’ position. Everyone has their own strategies.

**Conclusion**

This paper offers a case of hostelling in China. Compared with early Youth Hostel movement, it reflects social transformation in China. Hostelling in Europe emerged in the context of industrial society and developed into an organization. Hostelling in China was pushed by administrative force paralleling with voluntary force.
Moreover, this paper adds a perspective of hostels to backpacker tourism studies. Hostels are not only the space for backpacking, but also constitute a network that is connected to and overlapped in some parts of backpacking networks. What’s more, people’s identities in both fields can exchange each other. Backpackers can become a boss of a hostel when they decide to set up business; bosses can shoulder their packs and travel around. Young backpackers can become a qiantai in hostel; a former qiantai still concerns online communities even if they quit. The boundary is vague for these two networks. As for relationship between hostelling and backpacking, the former is resulted from the latter, because one of development path is from minjian where backpackers contribute. On the other hand, hostelling also results in backpacking in China. The establishment of YHA China promotes the gathering of distributing backpacking force in the country and reinforces the image of hostelling in the public. The organization links the hostelling and backpacking though they fail to unify the whole hostels market.

Lastly, this paper provides a micro ethnographic perspective to understand the everyday life inside hostels. Not looking so nice as outsiders perceive, the lives there reflect broader social context. Boss has a personal mission, while YHA has an organizational mission, but hostels have to survive in the market. A disciplined system is so efficient that it can meet the needs of customers and produce an illusion of utopia for outsiders especially for young people who desire this lifestyle and plan to join the hostel in the future.

Acknowledgement

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Effects of Relationship Quality on the Justice – Revisit Intentions Relationship

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Abstract
No matter how excellent the service delivered, service providers still often make mistakes in meeting the expectations of today’s guests, who tend to be more demanding and less loyal than ever before. How to prevent service failure and to motivate visitors to revisit a destination has been widely discussed. To date, however, few studies have explored the role of relationship quality (RQ) when explaining how justice (JU) impacts revisit intentions (RI). This study, therefore, tries to address this problem and in order to achieve the study objectives, a questionnaire was deployed. Data was collected from Cross Strait Leisure Farms and structural equation modeling (SEM) was used to analyze the proposed model. The results indicate that JU can lead to the higher RI and RQ acts a moderator on the JU-RI relation. In other words, if farms can establish and maintain a higher RQ with visitors, the relation that higher JU leads to higher RI may not be necessarily true.

Key words: relationship quality, justice, revisit intentions.
Introduction

No matter how excellent the service delivered, service providers still often make mistakes in meeting the expectations of today’s guests, who tend to be more demanding and less loyal than ever before (Kim, Kim, & Kim, 2009). How to prevent service failure has been widely discussed (Kim et al., 2009; Namkunga & Jang, 2009). Furthermore, many studies reveal that justice might be an important factor in responding to service failure, achieving higher relationship quality (RQ), and subsequently leading to higher intention to revisit (Ha & Chung, 2009; Kim et al., 2009; Namkunga & Jang, 2009; Kan, Yen, & Huan, 2009; Yen, Wu, & Wu, 2010). Only a small number of studies, however, focused on the moderated role of RQ.

One study states that RQ could moderate the relationship between justice and future behavioral intentions, such as revisit intention and willingness to recommend (Ha & Chung, 2009). Others demonstrated that RQ could partially mediate the relationship between justice and behavioral loyalty (Kan et al., 2009; Yen & Liu, 2009b). Unfortunately, audiences can not understand which parts of RQ mediate the justice-revisit intentions relationship when RQ was measured by multidimensional concepts. Managers are also confused that they don’t know which key efforts, such as higher justice and/or higher satisfaction, should be focused on first given limited resources, in order to increase visitors’ revisit intentions.

Continued exploration of the nature and the extent of RQ would benefit destination authorities in planning and marketing for tourism and outdoor recreation services. Therefore, the objectives of this study are (1) to clarify the role of RQ on justice-revisit intentions relationship; (2) to identify which part of RQ is a key factor in achieving visitors’ revisit intentions; and (3) to offer some implications based on the results.

Literature Review

The concept of justice (JU) can be considered an important and basic concept for humanity. Equity theory (Adams, 1965) argues that individuals compare their input–output ratios with those of others in order to determine the level of fairness. When individuals perceive inequity, they modify their effort, or change their perceptions of inputs or outcomes in order to achieve actual equity or psychological equity (Adams, 1965; Yen & Liu, 2009b). Of course, one choice is to terminate the relationship (Ting, 2006). Justice has been defined as the output/input ratio and it, has been commonly understood as a broad, multi-
faceted construct, encompassing three dimensions: distributive justice (DJ), procedural justice (PJ), and interactional justice (IJ), (Alexander & Ruderman, 1987; Yen et al., 2010). DJ refers to “the allocation of costs and benefits in achieving equitable exchange relationships,” (Smith et al., 1999; Yen et al., 2010). PJ refers to “the perceived fairness of policies, procedures, and criteria used by decision makers to arrive at the outcome of a dispute or negotiation” (Blodgett et al., 1997; Yen et al., 2010). IJ is related to “the way customers involved and it means the evaluation of the degree to which the customers have experienced justice in human interactions from the employees of service firms” (Sparks & McColl-Kennedy, 2001; Kim et al., 2009).

Definition of relationship quality

Relationship quality (RQ) refers to a visitor’s perceptions of how well the whole relationship fulfills the expectations, predictions, goals and desires the visitor has concerning the whole relationship (De Wulf et al., 2001, Yen & Liu, 2009b; Yen et al., 2010). RQ is widely considered a higher-order concept that consists of customer relational satisfaction (RS), trust (TRU), and relational commitment (RC); and its relevance for maintaining successful relationships with customers has been discussed widely in relation to the tourism and leisure area (Kan et al., 2009; Yen et al., 2010). RS is an affective state in contrast with more rational outcomes and resulting from an overall appraisal of his or her relationship with the leisure farm (Kan et al., 2009; Yen et al., 2010). TRU refers to a visitor’s confidence in a farm’s reliability and integrity after experiencing the service (Kan et al., 2009; Yen et al., 2010). RC is the visitor’s intention to maintain a valuable relationship with leisure farm (Yen & Liu, 2009a).

Definition of revisit intentions

The concept of revisit intentions (RI) comes from behavioral intentions. Oliver (1997) defined behavioral intentions (i.e., repurchase and word-of-mouth intentions) as “a stated likelihood to engage in a behavior”. Early studies considered repurchase intention to be at the heart of customer commitment or loyalty (Day, 1969; Jacoby & Kyner, 1973; Jarvis & Wilcox, 1977). RI has been regarded as an extension of satisfaction rather than an initiator of the revisit decision-making process (Um, Chon, & Ro, 2006). In line with Han et al. (2009), RI is described as an affirmed likelihood to revisit the restaurant in either the absence or the presence of a positive attitude toward the service provider.
**Relationships among concepts**

The conceptual model is drawn in Figure 1. One of the main objectives of this study is to examine the role of RQ in the relationship between perceived justice and revisit intentions. Earlier studies state that higher RQ would lead to higher behavioral intentions, repurchase intentions and words of mouth in a hospitality context (Kim, Han, & Lee, 2001; Kim & Cha, 2002). Some demonstrate higher RQ, such as satisfaction with the service provider, trust in the service provider, and intent to maintain the relation could partially influence loyalty from justice in a leisure context (Kan et al., 2009; Yen & Liu, 2009).

![Figure 1. Conceptual model](image)

Moreover, researchers examined the effects of distributive, procedural, and interactional justice on customers’ repatronage intention and negative word of mouth intention (Blodgett et al., 1997). Their results found different levels (low-med-high) of recovery scenarios based on the three justice dimensions when testing how each recovery effort, with varying degrees of recovery, influences customer behavioral intentions. The effect of justice on behavioral intentions was significant in a customer-firm context study encouraging future researchers to examine the justice-revisit intentions relationship. Another study showed that perceived justice influences recovery satisfaction and overall satisfaction, which leads to positive behavioral intentions, such as revisit intention and willingness to recommend (Ok et al., 2005). Others found that perceived justice has a positive effect on revisit intentions in hospitality industry (Ha & Chung, 2009). Therefore, this study proposes the following hypotheses:

- H1: A higher level of a visitor’s perceived justice leads to a higher level of his or her revisit intentions.
Furthermore, considering a situation between visitors and service providers, do visitors care about justice problems when a good RQ with the service provider exists? Ha & Chung (2009) illustrated that customers with high RQ have more confidence in the quality of the service provider’s future performance than those with low RQ. The gap, which part of RQ acts more emergent role, has not been clarified. Visitors with higher satisfaction could lead to higher revisit intentions (Um et al., 2006). Visitors, who are highly satisfied with the service provider, might less likely to care about justice problems than the ones who were less satisfied. Moreover, customers who trust and have a commitment to the service provider care about future benefits, such as, confidence which reduces perceived risk and anxiety, economic advantages such as reduced prices and discounts, and a perception of friendliness and familiarity (Gwinner et al., 1998; Wong & Sohal, 2002). In this case, visitors with greater trust and commitment might have a long-term focus on visitor-service provider relationship. Thus, the short-term events (unfair service associated with distribution, procedure and interaction) might have lower probabilities to influence their revisit intentions. Therefore, this study proposed the following hypotheses:

- H2: The effects of perceived justice on revisit intentions vary across the levels of relationship quality.
- H2a: The effects of perceived justice on revisit intentions vary across the levels of relationship satisfaction.
- H2b: The effects of perceived justice on revisit intentions vary across the levels of trust.
- H2c: The effects of perceived justice on revisit intentions vary across the levels of relationship commitment.

**Methodology**

To ensure the content validity of the scales, the items selected for the constructs were mainly adopted from prior studies. The study uses exiting scales for measuring perceived justice, relationship quality and revisit intentions. Nine items for perceived justice were drawn from the studies of Seider & Berry (1998), Ha & Chung (2009) and Yen et al. (2010). Nine items for relationship quality were adapted based on the studies of Yen and Liu (2009a) and Kan et al. (2009). Three items for revisit intentions were drawn from Kim et al. (2009), Ha & Chung (2009) and Namkunga & Jang (2009). Likert scales (1-7) with anchors ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree” were used for all ques-
tions. All of the scales showed that they had a good reliability and validity in the prior research.

Because the visitors’ population are diverse in leisure farm management, to serve visitors with fair treatments seems to be more difficult on holidays and other busy time. The phenomenon of visitors’ centralization might cause deficiencies in the facilities the service quality might be lower, and subsequently, customers might be dissatisfied and file complaints. This might increase the probability of justice problems (Yen & Liu, 2009b). Considering the research issue at hand, leisure farms are adequate research objects.

A personal interview method was employed for the survey. Before collecting data, 16 surveyors were trained for three hours by the researcher to inform them know of the process used for this survey. Items measuring the various constructs were mixed in the questionnaire to reduce halo effects. To ensure that respondents were distributed across ages and genders, surveyors were assigned to particular combinations of quota criteria and were allowed to select respondents who matched these criteria (e.g. friends, family, and neighbors). Respondents were asked to complete the questionnaire and then describe the meaning of each question, explain their answers, and state any problems they encountered while answering questions. Some questionnaires were also offered at the counter to let visitor fill in. This allowed the researcher to collect additional information to validate the responses.

Furthermore, using the time period on weekends to collect data during May-July of 2009 also helped the researcher collect both the rush time data and regular time data. Finally, a total of 338 valid questionnaires were received from leisure farms in Taiwan and Beijing. With regard to demographic characteristics, approximately 50.9% of respondents were male. For the age, 23.7% respondents ranged 20-29 years old, 29.3% respondents ranged 30-39 years old, 26% respondents ranged 40-49 years old and 21% respondents ranged 50-59 years old or above. Approximately 39.4% respondents held a university degree, and about 45.6% respondents were on their first visit.

Results

Normality was tested by means of SPSS 17.0 based on the skewness and kurtosis of the observed variables (Bollen, 1989). Both samples revealed acceptable kurtosis (-0.4.76 ~ -0.058) and skewness (-0.534~ 0.127) for most observed variables except interaction items (see Table 1). A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) using AMOS 17.0 was conducted to test the measurement model. The chi-
squares ($\chi^2 = 188$) was significant ($p < 0.05$; Bollen, 1989), a finding not unusual with large sample sizes (Doney & Cannon, 1997). The ratio of chi-square to degrees of freedom (d.f.) was 1.845 for measurement model, which is acceptable since it does not exceed 2 (Marsh & Hovecar, 1985). The value of goodness-of-fit index (GFI) was 0.943 and the adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI) was 0.905. The value of root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) was 0.050. All of the model fitness measures are higher or acceptably close to the standards suggested by Hu & Bentler (1999), i.e., 0.90 for GFI and AGFI, and 0.05 for RMSEA. Given that the overall goodness-of-fit (GFI) indices are good, the model was developed on theoretical basis, and the level of consistency of the samples is high, the model did not require any modification.

The study assessed the quality of the measurement efforts by investigating unidimensionality, convergent validity, reliability and discriminant validity. Each construct included appropriate items that loaded at least .78 on their respective hypothesized component and loaded no larger than .30 on other components in a factor analysis. In addition, the overall goodness of fit supports unidimensionality (Steenkamp & van Trijp 1991). Convergent validity is supported by all loadings being significant ($p < .01$) and nearly all $R^2$ exceeding .50 (Hildebrandt, 1987). For an item and a construct to assess good reliability; square multiple correlation (SMC) should be higher than 0.4, composite reliability should exceed 0.60, and the average variance extracted (AVE) should at least be 0.50 (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). All scales demonstrate good reliabilities. Hence, reliability is successfully achieved. The study tested discriminant validity by means of checking whether correlations among the latent constructs were significantly less than 1. In all samples, construct correlations indeed met this criterion.

**Table 1. Reliability and validity**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Concept</th>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Skewness</th>
<th>Kurtosis</th>
<th>Loading</th>
<th>SMC</th>
<th>CR</th>
<th>AVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>JU</td>
<td>DJ</td>
<td>14.37</td>
<td>3.01</td>
<td>-1.26</td>
<td>.127</td>
<td>.82</td>
<td>.672</td>
<td>.90</td>
<td>.67</td>
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<tr>
<td>PJ</td>
<td></td>
<td>14.66</td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>-0.58</td>
<td>-0.284</td>
<td>.83</td>
<td>.692</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IJ</td>
<td></td>
<td>14.71</td>
<td>2.97</td>
<td>-1.28</td>
<td>-0.041</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td>.642</td>
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<tr>
<td>RQ</td>
<td>RS</td>
<td>15.38</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>-2.32</td>
<td>-0.046</td>
<td>.90</td>
<td>.811</td>
<td>.92</td>
<td>.79</td>
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<tr>
<td>TR</td>
<td></td>
<td>15.12</td>
<td>3.28</td>
<td>-1.77</td>
<td>-0.331</td>
<td>.90</td>
<td>.815</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RC</td>
<td></td>
<td>14.35</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>-1.82</td>
<td>-0.397</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td>.745</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>RI</td>
<td>REV1</td>
<td>4.81</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>-3.29</td>
<td>-3.91</td>
<td>.85</td>
<td>.726</td>
<td>.84</td>
<td>.65</td>
</tr>
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</table>
First, this study examined the effect of RQ on the JU-RI relation. The results of a structural model analysis are reported in Table 2. The chi-squares ($\chi^2 = 188$) is not significant ($p < 0.05$). The ratio of chi-square to degrees of freedom (d.f.) is 1.845, which does not exceed 2. The value of goodness-of-fit index (GFI) is 0.943 and adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI) is 0.905. The value of the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) is 0.050. All of the model fitness measures are acceptable given the standards suggested by Hu & Bentler (1999), i.e., 0.90 for GFI and AGFI, and 0.05 for RMSEA. The effect of JU on RI is 0.538. Overall, 29% variance of RI can be explained by JU. H1 is therefore accepted.

Then, the main effect of RQ on RI is confirmed (standardized $\lambda = 0.310$; $t$-value= 2.021). Finally the moderating effect of RQ on JU-RI is found (standardized $\lambda = -0.101$; $t$-value= -2.295). H2 is thus accepted.
### Table 2. Results of hypotheses testing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent</th>
<th>Dependent</th>
<th>Std. λ</th>
<th>t-values</th>
<th>R2</th>
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<td>JU</td>
<td>RI</td>
<td>.538</td>
<td>3.404</td>
<td>.689</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INT(RQ×JU)</td>
<td>RI</td>
<td>-.101</td>
<td>-2.295</td>
<td></td>
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<td>RI</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>RC</td>
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<td>rev2</td>
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<td>IN1</td>
<td>.717</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>.838</td>
<td>24.948</td>
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<td>INT</td>
<td>IN3</td>
<td>.857</td>
<td>18.766</td>
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<tr>
<td>INT</td>
<td>IN4</td>
<td>.794</td>
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<tr>
<td>INT</td>
<td>IN5</td>
<td>.879</td>
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<td>INT</td>
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<td>.871</td>
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<td>INT</td>
<td>IN7</td>
<td>.730</td>
<td>17.604</td>
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<tr>
<td>INT</td>
<td>IN8</td>
<td>.883</td>
<td>16.549</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>INT</td>
<td>IN9</td>
<td>.865</td>
<td>16.208</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Model fit: $\chi^2$=188.203; df=102 (p=.000); $\chi^2$/df= 1.845; GFI=.943; AGFI=.905; CFI=.986; RMSEA=.050

### Conclusion

This study is aimed at investigating the potential role of justice in influencing visitors’ attitudes, revisit intentions under consideration of relationship quality as a moderator. To viewers’ knowledge, this study has further clarified the role of relationship quality on justice-revisit intentions. The findings from this study not only support previous findings that higher justice could lead to increased revisit intentions. Moreover, the study also revealed that the justice-revisit intentions relationship can be moderated by relationship quality while it is measured in multiple dimensions. Each element, furthermore, has a moderating effect on the justice-revisit intentions relationship.

Several implications can be drawn from these findings. First, revisit intentions could be influenced by justice, indicating that visitors want to receive fair results as compared to their input. They need to be treated by a fair process; and they desire to have a fair interaction with service providers compared to their input. In line with Kim et al. (2009), repeating visit is an essential asset to any successful hotel business. For farm managers, the significant role of justice in affecting revisit intentions would be supported by fair distributive treatment such as “discounts,” “coupons,” and “offering free gifts and/or food” (Blodgett
et al., 1997; Chebat and Slusarczyk, 2005; Smith et al., 1999; Wirtz and Mattila, 2004; Kim et al., 2009; Yen et al., 2010); fair procedure treatment such as “timeliness,” “promptness,” “approach,” “exibility,” “procedure control,” “outcome control,” “right policy and execution,” and “appropriate method” (Blodgett et al., 1997; Chebat & Slusarczyk, 2005; Maxham & Netemeyer, 2002; Smith et al., 1999; Wirtz & Mattila, 2004; Kim et al., 2009; Yen et al., 2010), fair interactional treatment such as “courtesy,” “respect,” “interest,” “careful listening,” “effort,” “trust,” “explanation,” “empathy,” “apology,” and “communication” (Blodgett et al., 1997; Mattila, 2001; Smith et al., 1999; Wirtz & Mattila, 2004; Kim et al., 2009; Yen et al., 2010), which are surely important in achieving satisfaction for visitors.

Moreover, the greater and enduring relationship satisfaction could decrease the justice-revisit intentions relationship, which means that even if an individual treatment is perceived as unfair by a firm, visitors might still have greater revisit intention if they perceive greater relationship satisfaction with service providers. On the other hand, fair treatment should be given to visitors with lower relationship satisfaction. Farm managers should clarify reasons why guests can become dissatisfied, and work to prevent dissatisfaction. Additionally, they should consider what patronage offering can be provided to maintain the relationship with satisfied guests.

In addition, higher trust could decrease justice-revisit intentions relationship. That is, visitors would have higher revisit intentions when they perceived higher trust to a farm probably without being too concerned about justice. In other words, fair treatment should be done to those visitors who perceived lower trust. Given that farm managers have confirmed the confidence of visitors, providing a reliable service should be carried out to achieve the set confidence. Pricing and labeling of a farm product offered should be honest and clear. After the visitors have higher confidence, fair treatments offered by the farm will have increase their revisit intention.

Finally, a greater relationship commitment will likely decrease the justice-revisit intentions relationship, implying that visitors would have greater revisit intentions while they have greater relationship commitment to a firm. Most of all, its moderating effect is higher than others, which indicates that it should be treated with priority. To those enjoying site watching, there might be lower probabilities to achieve their relationship commitment. Offering fair treatment seems to be a more efficient strategy. For those who desire to maintain the val-
uable relationship, managers should focus on the issue of how to achieve relationship commitment.

References


Analysis of the Hospitality of the Local Community in Ecotourism

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Abstract

Climate, natural attractions and heritage of human civilization with different geographic and ethnic diversity of the expensive stuff of feel in the field of tourism and economy has brought to life. The tourist industry provides jobs for about 200 million, and about 10% of jobs directly or indirectly depends on it. The local community is a group of tourists on their arrival to the destination will be dealt with. Accordingly, the host community is very important. If this approach is the correct and proper, it would attract tourists. The purpose of research is to analyze the hospitality of the local community in ecotourism is attracting increasing and using the SWOT model. The method of research is practical and gathering information by use of library-document research. The findings of this study can be increased interest in the education community for tourists and opportunities in the fields mentioned.

Key words: ecotourism, SWOT, local communities, ecotourism.

Introduction

Tourism has become one of the most dynamic socioeconomic sectors of the contemporary world and in the last decades of the 20th century has increased annually at an average rate from the 4 to the 5%. Tourism represents the largest movement and fastest growth of any single industry in the world, providing 194.6 million jobs globally, which translates into one of each thirteen jobs on the planet. Worldwide, tourism and related activities generated more than $6 tril-
lion in sales during 2005. In 2006, according to the World Tourism Organization (WTO), tourism revenues represented 3.6% of the GDP and accounted for nearly 10.3% of all jobs are considered as relating to tourism. For 2010, the WTO estimates a world-wide movement of 1006 million tourists, of which 190 million will visit the North American continent. The WTO predicts this growth of world tourism will reach a peak in the year 2020 with 1561 million tourists, with the North American continent receiving 282 million of those tourists. This 18.1% market participation rate represents an annual average growth of 3.8% of the world tourism in the period from 1995 to 2020. It is expected that tourism to North American will experience a decline of about 1.2% as more tourists visit the Asian continent. (Contreras & Hernandez, 2007 ).

Today’s consumers are more sophisticated than ever before. Consumer Reports, and the Internet, they are accustomed to comparing products and prices, scrutinizing quality claims with a jaundiced eye, and demanding satisfaction when products or services fall short. And these attitudes aren’t applied only to business. Citizens have become justas demanding and hard-nosed (some might say cynical) about government, social and civic organizations, and not-for-profit institutions.

Literature Review

Regina Scheyvens In an article on "Case study Ecotourism and the empowerment of local communities" study about ecotourism development and its effect on local communities he studied different sample of places which have tourism development and evaluated the effect of this growth and development on local communities and emphasis on training toward explanation local communities. But the aim of researcher in this article is study about the role of local community to attract tourists and then study about strength, weakness, opportunities and threat points in this matrix and suggest some solutions toward problems. “Rhoades & et” in the his article with title “Defining Indicators Which Make Sense to Local People: Intra-Cultural Variation in Perceptions of Natural Resources” : The development of culturally relevant indicators of sustainability and quality of life is a need frequently cited but rarely addressed in the social science literature. This article presents a method and a case study based on an applied ethnoecology approach and utilizing an adaptation of the Thematic Apperception Test. Pictures of scenes around the Manupali watershed in Bukidnon, Philippines, were used to elicit people’s perceptions and assessments of different environmental features and agricultural practices. Informants’ stories were scored based on dominant themes to identify indicators of sustainability and quality of life that are relevant for different ethnic, gender,
and age groups. These contextually sensitive indicators, the authors conclude, differ significantly from externally defined indicators and vary systematically as a function of socioeconomic and sociodemographic parameters. Taking culturally relevant indicators into consideration can help shape development trajectories that local people can identify with and benefit from in the short- and long-term.

**Methodology**

SWOT Method: A process generates information that is helpful in matching an organization or group’s goals, programs, and capacities to the social environment in which it operates. Note that in itself is only a data capture - the analysis follows (www.rapidbi.com) After identifying the SWOT’s, identification of the factors and their interdependence helps clarify the steps needed to achieve the ending objectives (Chen & Bruneski, 2007).

Hospitality behavior: “the study of when, why, how, and where people do or do not buy product” (Consumer Behavior, 2010, Para. 1). Eco-tourism focuses on local cultures, wilderness adventures, volunteering, personal growth and learning new ways to live on our vulnerable planet. It is typically defined as travel to destinations where the flora, fauna, and cultural heritage are the primary attractions. Responsible ecotourism includes programs that minimize the adverse effects of traditional tourism on the natural environment, and enhance the cultural integrity of local people. Therefore, in addition to evaluating environmental and cultural factors, initiatives by hospitality providers to promote recycling, energy efficiency, water re-use, and the creation of economic opportunities for local communities are an integral part of ecotourism (http://www.gdrc.org). The study addresses one specific research questions as below:

1. What’s the role of local communities to face ecotourists and attract them during their accommodations?

From 2001 and 11th September, tourism statistics changed a lot all over the world, especially in America and Europe. So automatically the number of tourists reduced and all things which are related to tourism (like accommodation, transportation, etc) were in a stagnation situation. Some places like hotels because of its extent and number of employees and high cost become incurred a loss more than ever before. This problem caused them to create some places for accommodation but in small and average size so they could reduce their loss.
Also if these places were managed well would have their special customers. Actually create local inns is studied from different dimensions.

Ecotourism: In this research, ecotourism is discussed in special way because the special Characteristic of ecotourists during traveling process is that, they don’t pay attention to hotels, its facilities and luxuries. So local Accommodations are attractive and have lower cost for them. Ecotourism is one of the most significant economical activities in all over the world. This branch of tourism creating good opportunities for visitors to become aware in case of protect cultures and how they can protect local cultures and nature. This situation will bring lots of income for local communities, rural and natural region. Ecotourism popularity is its appropriate tools for protecting regions. Performance and develop ecotourism have results like: increasing importance and economical value of protected regions and ecosystem. Create direct income for protected regions. Its lead to coherent organization for from protected region in level of local, national and international communities. Increase the culture of sustainable use of natural resource and decrease environmental treats. These regions have high capability to cause ecotourism benefits for local people, while there is no capability for regions with lower visitors.

Investors: investors are one of the most important tourism sectors. Although create a small inn than a hotel has less cost but also attract investors to these regions are not easy. In the first step if we could attract investors to specific region, we could develop other parts like transportation, foods, etc and at the end cause development for region. Of course it’s necessary to say that local communities are in group of low income classes and average level so at the first step they don’t invest a lot in these places. It’s common that a foreign investor comes for investigating and by developing, construction and build, these lands become more and more valuable, which had no financial values before investors presence. Also this situation causes service-jobs which are resulted from investigating in this part and local people who goes toward these job become dissatisfied after awhile, because this imagination that some people with good economical level by the name of investigator comes to their living place and the result of their presence is low level jobs with low incomes for local people while the life cost is too high in these places.

Local communities: significant problem about this group is unawareness and sufficient recognition about benefits of developing ecotourism. That would be solved with special training to these people.
Making people awareness, create capacity in local communities and use them for an active corporation, are ways which can be effective for growing ecotourism.

Jacques Derrida in his interview about hospitality says: there is no just one meaning for hospitality everywhere, because it’s complicated with culture and civilization of place. In addition hospitality has some rules and regulation so it’s not true that just because of that you are hospitable, don’t control it. Actually it’s better to have principle framework and also perform hospitality according their customs. These rules are so important because if concentrate on them, passengers feel satisfied and by more attention on accessible information, security will be there. So it shouldn’t just concentrate on positive aspects and just focus on tourists entering to local houses. Because irregular entry, without any plan and managing causes lots of problems in a long time.

Results

Creating places with the least facilities but good qualities for coming ecotourists who has less expectation about amenities and facilities than the other tourists. But its suggested by attract investors to places where have this situations, create a brand that remind some standards, amenities and costs. Also ability of accessing these places for all tourists all over the world. Below table shows strength and weakness, opportunities and threats points for this subject and accordingly gives some suggestion. Train local communities make them become aware towards develop tourism benefits. Also in this case local communities will be proud of their customs and native land cultures. This matter causes spiritual heritage, also create good memory for tourists. Also suggest administrators to use young educated people who are interested in these activities and employ them as tour leader and trainer for local people. In addition, these people are so responsible and have lots of perfect ideas which can be usable most of the time.
Table 1. Analysis of the hospitality of the local community in ecotourism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strengths</th>
<th>Weaknesses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>*Expect less of a tourist accommodation</td>
<td>*Unbelievable manner of local people to ancestors culture.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*Create a context for the region without the threat of tourist for attractions</td>
<td>*Creator anti – advertisement seek of tourism among local people.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*Create two-way communication between local people and tourists</td>
<td>* Lake of primary facility water, gas phone,.....</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* The use of advertising media to introduce the unique characteristics of the people</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* Converted to the oral tradition of theater and screen, and Night Poetry and storytelling</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Opportunities</th>
<th>Threats</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>*Use of local people culture and costume to increase tourist accommodation duration.</td>
<td>* Local people contentment and engloup propret behavior with tourist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* Create employment in region.</td>
<td>* higher costs about meals land and the other things in region</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* Train local people about tourist cultures.</td>
<td>*apply local people in low grated job</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*create apropriate infrastructure for welfare tourism and attract people of region.</td>
<td>*lake of security in region</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*create a small museum about hospitality custom of local people</td>
<td>* dishonor unread show about regions culture and civilization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*create accommodation facility.</td>
<td>* noun appropriate ways to attraction sight</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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www.consumerpsychologist.com
www.rapidbi.com
An International Winter School for the Cultural Tourism in Albania: Strategies for the Management and Development

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Abstract

At this time of a global economic crisis, culture and cultural tourism play a vital role in combating the hardship as the tourism industry is becoming one of the driving forces of the world economy. Albania as a country not yet overrun by mass tourism can be an important player with its history and its natural and cultural features. The international cooperation between Padua University and different Albanian Universities (Durrës and Gjirokastra) has as a major goal the exchange of didactic methodologies and the training of future personnel in the field of cultural tourism. The courses were divided into lectures and lessons on the field, visiting sites, archaeological and natural parks. The curriculum involved also the design of management strategies for enhanced appreciation and enjoyment of the region by local or foreign tourists.

Key words: culture tourism, tourist strategies, tourism development, tourism management, tourism education

Introduction

Today, in the internet era, almost everything can be reached with the click of a button. Any information can be found quickly, and reaching even distant destinations doesn’t cost too much money thanks to well-known “low cost” promotions. Today, tourism remains an important industry in many countries, despite the actual economic recession in the United States and Europe. Nowadays, when someone wants to take a trip, he doesn’t always turn to a travel agency to evaluate the offers and choose the destination. Lots of people choose to do trips as “Independent Travellers”, who decide on their own the destination, the period, the hotel, the places to visit, the restaurants and the activities
to be undertaken during their brief vacation periods (e.g. attending a show, visiting a museum, religious buildings, places, naturalistic parks, etc). But despite this, the travels agencies (both through websites and brochures) tend to offer touristic trips that do not promote the cultural. The travellers are often pushed towards destinations that are easy to manage, already enjoy a nice reputation and often are almost a status symbol, totally ignoring the rest of the other possible destinations, and tending to channel and standardize everything (WTO, 2005; Corona, 2010). The term “cultural tourism” describes a way of travelling that aims to enrich our understanding of an area and the customs of people living there with a bigger attention to cultural aspects. This way of travelling not necessarily concentrates in a short period of the year, for example only during the summer holidays like for seaside tourism, or only during the winter holidays for winter sports season, but can be expanded to every month and day of the year.

If we take a look at Italy, we can see that the cities more popular and visited during the whole year are cities of art, namely the centers that preserve their culture and the history of the country, for example Rome, Naples, Pompeii, Florence, Milan, Venice. As we well know, Italy is an open-air museum, with the largest number of UNESCO sites (more than 45), and therefore around these large “factories of tourism and culture”, gravitate other centers, so-called “minor destinations” (Cusimano, 2006). Only in recent years Italy is giving more importance to these destinations, rediscovering the infinite resources they offer with their great historical and artistic treasures, e.g. environmental, ethnographic, wine and food. From this point of view, Italy is steering into a new dimension of planning and promoting, with thematic tours that help visitors to understand, but especially to bring out and cultivate their interest in the land and its traditions (Melandri, 2006). Here we think is important to point out that to promote a country first of all is necessary to get to know that country, and know doesn’t just mean “see”: it is necessary to go and get in contact with its geographical and natural situation, with the beautiful and unspoiled territory which is not only nature, but it is mainly the area chosen and shaped by man through centuries, with changing motivation and effects. So, knowing a country means being able to recognize the traces of the people who lived there day after day, working and shaping the land (Zanovello, 2006; Cusimano, 2006). But at the same time to recover traces of the past, to preserve, to exploit and to disseminate the knowledge professionals and expert figures are necessary who are able to work with the region and its resources from every angle. From these
requirements the exigency to train appropriate and professional experts able to identify and promote all the aspects connected to the cultural tourism is born.

Albania, with regards to its geographical position, is a country very closely linked to Italy. During the centuries it has had an important role in the history of the Balkan, Adriatic and Mediterranean area. Thanks to the geographical position and to the history of the region, Albania preserves inside itself a rich cultural heritage, in some aspects unexplored and not yet well known to the international community. It is just due to the regime collapse and after a transit period that Albania has opened its territory for tourism. The tourism in the Balkan area, till yesterday, has concentrated countries which are better know, as for example the countries close by to Albania like Slovenia, Croatia, Greece and Turkey. The main reason for this was that Albania has been for more than forty years a region that was not visitable due to the totalitarian political regime. Starting from 2005 the country was facing and resolving a numbers of problems related to roadways, reception facilities (ports, airports, hotels, information points, etc.) and the restaurant industry. In this last years Albania is working on the recovery and protection of historical and artistic monuments to make them accessible to the public, also for education and training of new generations about the management of the entire industry of “tourism”, where the fundamental element is the real knowledge of its heritage. We believe that without a good knowledge it is not possible to increase and promote a region. It is not enough to open an archaeological area or get a site listed in the UNESCO World Heritages. For the really development of tourism is necessary to create a network of operators, because each element – museum, archaeological site, art city or naturalistic park – can try to benefit because it is part of a comprehensive and unified system (Zanovello, 2006; Cicerchia, 2009).

Methodology and Results

An International Winter School in Albania: In recent decades only the economic aspects of cultural tourism (heritage, processes, products, etc.) and the profits derived from it (economic wealth, jobs, etc.) have been the centre of the attention of studies, of interest and analysed by international economists and managers (Rispoli & Brunetti, 2009; Quagluio, 1997). Therefore, the cultural tourism can be consider a “young” sector in the general view of the tourism industry, with some elements still unexplored, like for example the assessment in economic terms and the heritage of the intangible assets (language, culinary tradition, traditional costumes, music, etc.) (Hysi & Mosko, 2012; Vito, 2012).
If one takes a closer look at the cultural industry, it becomes clear that a large number of producers of all kinds of goods and many events considered to be cultural by the common feeling (production company and individual) gravitate in close proximity to the sector. In the development of the tourism sector a big variety of stakeholders take part: individuals and business companies, non-profit organizations as well as producer of goods and services connected to the cultural production (heritage and events). Given the large number of the operative parties involved (Torona) and given that in Albania the tourism sector in these last years is in a great evolution, in February of last year (thanks to the financing through the Padua University, the universities of Durrës and Gjirokastra (Fig.1), an intensive study course on Cultural Tourism was held. The principal aim of the course was cultural training of the students on the management of Cultural Heritage, which appears to be generally lacking in tour operators.

![Figure 1](image.png)

**Figure 1.** A Mediterranean map indicating the locations of the Universities that have taken part at the International Winter School 2011 (revised by E. Omari).

In the International Winter school Italian professors from Padua University, from the Institute for Regional Development and Location Management, from the European Academy of Bolzano and Albanian professors from the Universities of Gjirokastra and of Durrës took part, as well as twenty Albanian students from both the Albanian universities but from different degrees in different fields: Economy, Management, Tourism, History and Geography, Foreign Lan-
guages, Pedagogical Sciences, etc. The lessons, the workshops and the discussions were held in English, in Italian and sometimes in Albanian to facilitate the discussions between younger students. During the course we tried to provide a comprehensive framework to the participants, both on international tourism and on local tourism bearing in mind four fundamental and unavoidable “elements” for each project on Cultural Heritage, for the proper upkeep of the immense collective heritage (Fig. 2).

![Figure 2. The four elements needed for a correct management of Culture Heritage.](image)

To better transfer the scientific knowledge and to better realise the objectives of the Winter School, the course has been planned from a didactic view to focus on three guidelines: didactic-scientific, didactic-instructive and didactic-human. The didactic-scientific work in the Winter School course is based on the comparison of different scientific experiences in the three participating universities. Padua University is one of the most ancient universities of Italy, established in 1222 AD. It has a long tradition on the didactic field with international relationships that enrich the knowledge as well as the scientific research. Durrës University is a young university with some of the professors working there having studied and having still some relations with Italian universities. Gjirokastra University has been active for more than 40 years and is one of the biggest universities in Albania. Today it has some international relations with Northern European Universities, especially in Great Britain. The study week organized within a Winter School was a good opportunity to share knowledge and provoke discussions about the tourism research, the university didactic and the international relations between Italian and Albanian professors.

All the didactic activities were co-managed by the professors of the three universities, who took turns during school hours. In this lessons the professors
brought to the attention of the students the general view about the International tourism (Marchioro, 2012, p. 11-30; Dal, 2012, p. 31-40) and about the characteristics of local marketing (Licaj, 2012, p. 41-52), followed by an introduction to the history and archaeology of Albanian territory (Hoti, 2012, p. 53-62; Sala, 2012, p. 75-82; Shapllo, 2012, p. 83-92). Subsequently the professors lectured with themes about the management of tourism, the promotion and the organization of the region as a tourist destination. At the same time the professors spoke with a particular attention about the economic development of a territory, the role of cultural tourism and the sustainable tourism on it (Zyberi, 2012, p. 63-74). Another topic during the lectures of the Winter School was a general view on environmental heritage and some aspects of intangible heritage and linguistic and the literary of Albania. Also among the topics covered were all the necessary information for better comprehending what is tourism in general and cultural tourism in particular; what are the main features and what the principal benefits and strategies to be put in place for the development of cultural tourism at an international and local level (Trimarchi, 2007; Crosetti & Vaiano, 2009; Fusco & Nijkamp, 2009).

For a better understanding of the theoretical information and to develop strategies to use and develop the territory, the frontal lectures that were held for two days at the University of Durrës and for two days at University of University of Gjirokastra (Fig. 3), were interspersed with an educational two days trip to sites and places of cultural interest for Albania (Zanovello & Omari, 2012, p. 113-128).

The didactic-instructive work was not limited to just teaching in the classroom, but was also taken outside with guided tours to historical centers of universities and museums, with visits in archaeological, historical and natural sites, but also to meetings with people engaged on the field of the enhancement of Culture Heritage (Touristic Information Office, NPO Organizations, etc). During the didactic trip, the students visited important archaeological sites like Apollonia and Oricum. The Oricum site is located in a military zone. Due to this it is little know and normally not accessible to visitors (Fig. 4). It holds medieval monuments with an important history for Albania, like the Monastery of Ardenica, the Mesopotam church, the Mosque of Vlora and the castle of Porto Palermo. The journey also took the group to paths that pass through an area of great natural value. One site was for example the protected area of the Natural Park of Llogara. (Zanovello & Omari, 2012, p. 113-128).
Figure 3. Students during a lesson in the University.

Figure 4. A practice lesson in an archaeological site.
To encourage a debate on the topics and to promote the students to think of new ideas and projects, laboratories and workshops which involve students and professors in groups of works and in threads about issues related to tourism and cultural aspects of Albania have been planned. The topics covered were propulsion for the students to identify the characteristics and the peculiarities on which they were supposed to reflect. During these laboratories they worked on three main topics: cultural heritage, environmental heritage, culture of hospitality. Through individual and group work, the students tried to explore the theme of Destination Management, a useful tool for increasing tourism development and a strategic approach to land management, and its implementation through the establishment of Destination Management Organization (Marchioro, 2012, p. 13-29). From an educational perspective we considered it appropriate that in addition to presentations by the professors the students could also make their voices heard and could freely express their ideas as well. Therefore at the end of lessons and based on the work done throughout the week the students proposed development and marketing strategies, and presented their ideas and projects in a workshop with a group discussion. Here the students addressed issues related to the historic and cultural heritage of Albania and its promotion in tourism. Their ideas have proven to be very interesting, with new ideas and advanced (e.g. the application of modern technology for dissemination through social networks, handhelds, smart phones, reconstructions in 3D, etc).

The work done during the Winter School was meant to teach students that knowledge is the fundamental basis of any action, and to further developing it through knowledge exchange with other countries, but the personal experience in the winter school is unique and essential as well. Therefore the third and final point of the training project was the didactic-human aspect. This part was realized with the presence and the “coexistence” between students and professors even during the “resting” time, during the eating breaks, during bus transfers and during the visits. This experience has led to knowledge exchange about the many less obvious aspects of life in Albania and the Albanian society: for example the experience of traditional cuisine, or of popular traditions like traditional dances where the students are able to express there identity with freshness and spontaneity, involving also the Italian professors (Fig. 5). A week of common life, of intensive and continuous dialogue have facilitated the exchange of ideas and experiences and created a familiar atmosphere during the week. The human aspect made the courses even more attractive and made the students take part in 100 percent of all activities.
Figure 5. The participants of the International Winter School in front of Gjirokastra University, Albania.

The Winter School, like any college course following the European didactic standards (Bologna Charter), issued a certificate with the attribution of 4 ECTS for each student at the end of the week.

Conclusion

With the respect of strategies for the management and development of the cultural tourism in Albania, in a week of study and research we have been able to provide the participants with a mode of operation in the cultural tourism context following hierarchical steps: know – valorise – promote. The proposed methodology for this intensive course is as follows: lessons in classrooms and in the field, individual and group work, with works by both professors and students. This is a modus operandi that has been proposed for the first time in Albania. The activities in 2011 have been highly successful in many aspects: didactic, formative and in international cooperation. Because of this reason another winter school will be carried out between the end of February and the beginning of March 2012. We believe that only by comparing our work and exchanging our ideas with people working in the same field in other countries it is possible to bring out useful tools for the development of tourism of especially minor destinations.
At the end of the didactic trip and during the final workshop it became clear that Albania has inside it an extraordinary variety of sites, very important from a cultural and scientific point of view, but lacking under the fruition profile. These sites, if properly organized, would be able to promote and enhance their environment and the people living close by. Even in areas lagging behind, improving the ability to attract visitors makes it possible to develop the local economy which especially the resident population could benefit from. This way the population can consider the cultural tourism for promoting local economic development (Licaj, 2011, p. 46-49).

To realize this, a number of transversal measures are necessary in Albania, for example expansion of the infrastructure, of transport and connections to allow for better accessibility to places of culture; the development and care of the cultural heritage through innovative management and conservation at the same time; through creating partnerships with other cultural and economic centers and sites in other countries, more and more interventions for dissemination and communication (increased use of the internet), the recovery and development of sites not well known (the so-called “minor destinations), innovation and application of new technologies to cultural heritage. The instruments used to achieve these objectives must be dialogue and cooperation between different actors in the world of cultural tourism. These actors include for example the state institutions, the universities and the tourism bodies. In this historic moment of great change, political and economic, education plays a fundamental role. Instructing new generations that archaeological and cultural sites are very important helps give the public of all ages an understanding of the cultural treasures that Albania has. For this reason both the archaeological sites and the museums should be renewed with educational areas and pathways. Therefore, people working in the tourism sector must always keep in mind the matching between demand and supply, which represents the strength to realize the programming of the above mentioned strategies. In conclusion, the way that Albania must travel in the field of cultural tourism is one of harmony of intent between the needs of conservation and of communication.

Acknowledgement

We would like to take the opportunity of this publication to express our most sincere gratitude to the organizers of the 6th World Conference for Graduate Research in “Tourism, Hospitality and Leisure”, who give us the opportunity to present the didactic research we have carried out in the last year. We also want to express our gratitude to all the participants of the International Winter
School (professors, students and administrative staff of the Universities) as well as the Cultural Ministry of Albania which was one of the promoters of this didactic event. Special thanks to Mark Guttenbrunner for his help with writing this paper in English.

References


Tourist Attraction Development in Denmark and its Impact on Regions

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Abstract
The research aim of this paper is two-fold: firstly, to discuss and highlight the development of cultural and tourist attractions both at national and regional level; secondly to show that tourist attractions play important roles both in destination marketing and the economic contribution to the Danish regions. The paper presents an investigation on the definitions of different concepts within the cultural, tourism and creative industries, and experienced economy. The statistical approach is used in this analysis, both relating to the data presentation and the application of the Danish regional model for the economic assessment of tourist attraction. The paper describes the trends of cultural and tourist attractions in Denmark both in the economic terms and in terms of numbers of visitors at attractions. Tourist attractions have an influence on tourists’ choice of their destination. The last part of the paper focuses on the case studies within which the economic impacts of tourist attraction on the regions are presented. The Danish inter-regional model is applied for analyzing the economic and employment effects of these tourist attractions. The conclusion is drawn in the last section.

Key words: tourism attractions, cultural tourism, national accounts for culture industry, economic impact.

Introduction
Tourism, creativity- and culture-contained activities, and the so-called ‘experience economy’ created by all these activities is observed by its growing importance in our society. The trends of these activities influence both production and consumption. From the supply-side, producers tries to add the new designs and culture featured innovation into the physical products and as well as into the services; on the other hand, the demand for the innovative new products and ‘experience’ based tangible products and intangible services continues to increase. Tourist attraction is one of good examples to follow the development in these trends. Theme parks are often connected with innovative products and services that give visitors unique experiences. A rise of theme parks
and other tourist attractions reflects a huge potential demand that more people are interested in participating into such leisure activities than, for example 20 years ago. Other cultural or tourist attractions refer here are, for example, museums, botanical gardens and zoological parks.

This paper mainly focuses on development of tourist attractions and impact of tourist attractions on the regional economies. From a statistical and methodological point of view, it is necessary to give a clear definition for tourist attractions – to see which concrete branches or products are included in the analysis. Three kinds of tourist attractions, i.e. amusement parks, museums, and botanical gardens and zoos are given a special analysis in the paper. However, as tourist attractions are closely related to tourism industries, such as hotels and restaurants, relevant data for the tourism branches and other cultural branches are also shown for the comparison purpose. Development in tourist attractions is shown both in the economic terms (output and employment from the supply side) and in terms of numbers of visitors at attractions. Tourist attractions have an influence on tourists’ choice of their destination. Tourist attractions surely play an important role in tourism marketing and the destination branding. Tourist attractions play also a role in generating the income and employment to the local economies. As a point of departure we present in the second section the definitions and methods for the analysis. Starting with a discussion on cultural activities, culture industries and culture economy, it attempts to compare culture activities with tourism and experience-oriented activities. It is important to give a comparison between these terms, as these terms are the basis for making the statistical data and understanding the differences in the statistical data. The third section presents the development in culture activities by the statistical data, showing the trends in a 12-years period which is compared with the conventional tourism branches, such as hotels and restaurants. The regional data are also presented here, trying to give an answer for the question regarding urban and rural phenomenon of culture activities and tourist attractions. In the fourth section presents the development in tourist attractions by number of visitors. It is shown that tourist attractions like amusement parks are more fluctuated than the museums and other cultural institutions. This section discusses also the role of tourist attractions in destination marketing and promotion. The fifth section presents the economic impact of tourist attractions on the regional economies by using case studies. The final section is suggestions and conclusion.
Literature Review

When the culture activities are mentioned, most people will immediately associate them with museums, theaters, movies, television, books, music, computer games and possibly also sports. However, when it concerns with the economic contribution of culture industries, the definition for culture industries has to be clear, just like it concerns with the tourism contribution to the economy it is necessary to make the tourism satellite accounts (UNWTO, 2008). In the book “The Business of Culture” (Lampel, Shamsie, & Lant, 2006) the authors claim that “defining cultural industries must begin with the recognition that the term brings together two domains: culture and industry. Culture is the product of ongoing symbolic human activity that is as old and as pervasive as human society itself. Culture is intrinsic to what makes us human. It is manifested in activities as simple as a mother’s lullaby or as complex as a Kabuki play. Industry, by contrast, is a system of production, distribution, and marketing that delivers products to consumer. The system is created by specialist organization and sustained by consumer demand. Bringing culture and industry together therefore gives a rise to culture industries: systems of production, distribution, and marketing that deliver symbolic products to consumer, where each culture industry is made up of firms that specialize in the production, distribution, and marketing of specific cultural products, and is sustained by consumer demand for these products” (Lampel et al., 2006 p. 6). The above definitions stress both the supply-side and demand-side of culture activities. The production, distribution and marketing of cultural products are vital for the supply side of the activities; however, without consumer demand for these products, the culture economy can hardly exist. Richards noticed a rapid increase in both production and consumption of heritage attractions and identified that it was “a significant supply-induced element of demand” (Richards, 1996).

Unlike the traditional industries, cultural products are not consumed as traditional products that are being used to solve some practical problem. For Hirsch (1972) the definition of culture industries began with defining of cultural products as “non-material goods directed at a public of consumers, for whom they generally serve an aesthetic or expressive, rather than clearly utilitarian function” (Hirsch, 1972, p. 642). The emphasis on cultural products as defining culture industries was shared by Lawrence and Philips (2002, p.43), who also saw cultural goods as “products that are consumed in an act of interpretation rather than being used,” but they opened the definition further by arguing that cultural products are “goods and services that are valued for their ‘meaning’.” Power (2002) saw cultural products as a good point of departure
that he expanded Hirsch’s (1972) definition even further. Power argued that
culture industries consist of ‘economic actors’ involved in the production of
goods and services whose value is primarily or largely determined by virtue of
their aesthetic, semiotic, sensory, or experiential content” (Power, 2002, p. 106).
The most likely way to produce a coherent definition of the culture industries is
to see the boundaries between such symbolic, cultural production and other
“non-cultural” kinds of production as porous, provisional and relative, and to
think about these boundaries in terms of the relationship between the utilitarian
functions and non-utilitarian (artistic/aesthetic/entertainment) functions of
symbolic goods (see Hirsch 1972; Hesmondhalgh, 2002, 2005; Power & Scott
2004). These definitions can partly divide those industries that produce the
pure non-material goods, like museum and theater, from those that produce
only the material goods, such as agriculture. Many industries could also produce
goods that contain both material and non-material factors, such as cars,
furniture and clothes. Cars and furniture are material products, but they also
have the aesthetic, semiotic, sensory, or experiential characteristics in their con-
tents. Clothes, especially the fashion clothes have definitely the aesthetic, semiotic and sensory contents in them.

These definitional problems in the cultural and creative industries have
caused the statistical “lag” in relation to the other industries. Taking examples
from the recommendation for tourism satellite accounts (UNWTO, 2008), the
recommendation acknowledges that “tourism is a social, cultural and economic
phenomenon which entails the movement of people”. The recommendation
provides a concrete list for tourism products. Tourism products are categorized
by tourism characteristic products (hotels, restaurants, transport, travel agen-
cies, cultural services and tourism attraction like amusement parks), and other
consumption products (i.e. tourism connected products such as tourists’ shopping
on clothes, watches, etc). For making accounts for cultural and creative
industries, a concrete list for the culture and creative products is needed.

Table 1. List of products within the national accounts system relating with tourism, tourist attraction and cultural activities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tourism</th>
<th>Tourist attractions</th>
<th>Other cultural activities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hotels and similar,</td>
<td>amusement parks,</td>
<td>film/video and cinema,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Restaurants and similar,</td>
<td>museum,</td>
<td>radio and TV,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passenger transport (passenger</td>
<td>theatre and concerts,</td>
<td>press bureau,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>train, taxi, ferry and air</td>
<td>botanical garden and zoo,</td>
<td>library and archive,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>transport),</td>
<td>commercial sports activities</td>
<td>sport clubs,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourist agency and travelling</td>
<td></td>
<td>lottery and games</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>services, car renting</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 1 gives a comparison between the definitions for tourism, tourist attractions and cultural activities. There are 11 aggregated cultural products in the culture industry within the Danish national accounts. There are 30 tourism characteristic products including the four tourist attraction products. Table 1 provides a list of products that are categorized into three types: (1) tourism - the products are defined as tourism characteristic products. These products are mostly demanded by tourists. According to UNWTO’s definition, tourists are those who travel away from their usual environment for leisure, business or other personal purposes. (2) Tourist attractions – the products are mostly related with the terms of tourist attractions and event tourism. All these products are parts of cultural products within the culture industry. The consumers of tourist attractions can be both tourists and local residents. (3) Other cultural products – the products are culture featured and demanded mostly by local residents.

Statistically tourist attraction has both tourism and culture features, as it is both a part of tourism statistical accounts and a part of culture statistical accounts. The tourists who are attracted by the tourist attractions and conducted mostly culture-oriented activities at the destinations are often called ‘culture tourists’. ‘Culture tourism’ is distinguished by its nature with ‘nature oriented tourism’ and ‘mass tourism’. Tourist attractions have always been the focus in the tourism studies. Tourism attraction is often related with tourist motivation analysis, such as ‘push’ and ‘pull’ factor analysis (see Crompton, 1979; Dann, 1977; Pearce, 1993; Uysal and Hagan, 1993; Uysal and Jurowski, 1994). Tourist attraction studies are also related with destination marketing and leisure experiences (Leiper, 1990; Kozak, 2002; Richards, 2002). The cultural attractions have been grouped as four main types by Kim, Cheng, O’Leary (2007), and they showed that participation patterns for diverse cultural attractions were determined by socioeconomic/demographic characteristics as well as the number/distance of trips. The book “managing visitor attraction” by Fyall, et al. (2008) provides a cutting-edge insight into the issues, including the role, nature, development of visitor attractions, as well as the management, marketing and case studies on visitor attractions.

The rapidly developing relationship between the tourism and creativity, the tourism studies begin to focus on the so-called “creative turn” in tourism development. “The emergence of ‘creative tourism’ reflects the growing integration between tourism and different place-making strategies, including promotion of the creative industries, creative cities and the ‘creative class’” (Richards,
The relationship between the tourist attractions and creativity is also worthwhile for the further study.

Most studies on tourist attraction are qualitative studies, even if some of them applied factor analysis. There is a rise trends in the tourism studies that apply econometric methods in analyzing the surveyed data. Very a few tourism studies adopted the national accounts system to explore the true values of tourism production and employment. It needs to investigate the role that tourist attractions play in the regions of tourist destinations, both by the destination marketing (which has received attentions in research) and by the economic contribution. This paper is attempt to fill the gap in mapping the development of the tourist attractions by the statistical data from the national account system and describing the economic contribution of tourist attractions in the destination regions.

**Trends in culture and tourist attractions**

The methodology adopted in accounting for culture industries is similar as the tourism satellite accounts (TSA). The general document for TSA can be found in UNWTO (2008) and the method for creating the Danish regional TSA is documented by Zhang (2005, 2008) and Zhang and Hedetoft (2011). This investigation on cultural branches and products goes in depth into the each single cultural product in the national accounts. There are 11 detailed culture branches and much more cultural products within the culture industry in the national account system. The cultural products can be aggregated into 11 according to the same branches they belong to. Nevertheless, there is no information of regional culture production at such a detailed level.

In order to construct regional accounts for culture industries, we need to have at least two sets of data. One set of data is ‘national supply and use tables’ with the information by product. The national accounts provide such tables at the national level, for example, that tells which branch produces which products. Another set of data is ‘regional production accounts’ with detailed industries’ information where it provides production values and employment by each region. For example, from the first set of data man can get total production value by each product, such as amusement parks, museums, zoos and sports in the culture industry. From the second set of data man can get the production value of the culture industry by each region (in the Danish case, region is at 98 municipality level).
These two sets of data can be merged in the way that creates regional satellite accounts for culture industry. The production, gross value added and employment in the culture industry are available at municipality level with 11 culture branches and products through the regional satellite accounts for culture industry. The benefits from the regional satellite accounts are: 1) to estimate the size of a specific sector’s economy, including its production value, GDP and employment. These specific sectors, such as tourism, culture industry, creative industry and information, communication and technology (ICT) and environment, often do not exist in the national accounts; 2) to compare the development and the contribution between the different economic sectors; 3) to keep consistency with the national accounts. The principle for making a satellite account is to keep this special account consistent with the national accounts. In the other word, the satellite accounts function as supplementary accounts to national accounts without ruining the total consistency.

The data presented in this section are obtained from the regional satellite account for the culture industry. The estimated gross output, gross value-added and employment can be compared with the other economic sectors. It is also allow for a regional comparison.

Table 2. Gross output in tourist attractions compared with hotels/restaurants and other cultural branches in Denmark, 1996-2008 (In current prices, million DKK)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hotels</td>
<td>7,080</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>12,661</td>
<td>14,248</td>
<td>0.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Restaurants</td>
<td>23,358</td>
<td>28,634</td>
<td>30,407</td>
<td>35,327</td>
<td>41,766</td>
<td>1.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hotels and restaurants</td>
<td>30,438</td>
<td>38,418</td>
<td>40,362</td>
<td>47,988</td>
<td>56,013</td>
<td>1.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theatres and concerts</td>
<td>4,173</td>
<td></td>
<td>4,832</td>
<td>5,673</td>
<td>6,883</td>
<td>0.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amusement parks</td>
<td>986</td>
<td>1,560</td>
<td>1,775</td>
<td>2,197</td>
<td>2,427</td>
<td>0.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Museums</td>
<td>2,958</td>
<td>3,246</td>
<td>4,025</td>
<td>4,885</td>
<td>5,320</td>
<td>0.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Botanic gardens and zoos</td>
<td>476</td>
<td>584</td>
<td>737</td>
<td>896</td>
<td>948</td>
<td>0.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commercial sport</td>
<td>4,626</td>
<td>4,840</td>
<td>6,007</td>
<td>6,300</td>
<td>7,451</td>
<td>0.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The 5 cultural branches</td>
<td>13,219</td>
<td>15,061</td>
<td>18,218</td>
<td>21,161</td>
<td>24,164</td>
<td>0.75</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sources: Statistics Denmark and own calculation.
Note: *Share is percentage (%) of production in the branch in the total production value in 2008.

Table 2 shows the gross output in five types of tourist attractions (theatre/concerts, amusement parks, museums, botanic garden and zoos, and commer-
cial sports) in the culture industry compared with hotels and restaurants that are typical tourism industry. It is shown that gross output in hotels and restaurants branches is 56 billion DKK in 2008, which accounts for about 1.75% of the national total gross output in Denmark. The gross output in the five culture branches is estimated to 24.2 billion DKK in 2008, which accounts for only 0.75% of the national total production. The gross output in the purely tourist attractions (such as amusement parks, museums, botanic garden and zoos) is so small that totally accounted as 0.28% of the national output.

Table 3. Change rates of gross output in hotels/restaurants, cultural and tourism attraction branches in Denmark, 1996-2008 (%)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Average yearly growth rates* (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hotels</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Restaurants</td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hotels and restaurants</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theatres and concerts</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amusement parks</td>
<td>9.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Museums</td>
<td>-0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Botanic gardens and zoos</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commercial sport</td>
<td>-1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The 5 cultural branches</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: * Average yearly growth rates are calculated on the yearly basis in the fixed prices.

Table 3 shows change rates of gross output in the different types of tourist attraction compared with hotels and restaurants. The average growth rate during 1997-2008 for hotels and restaurants is 2.4%, while the average growth rate for the five tourist attractions is 2.9%. The amusement parks have experienced the highest growth (5.9%) during the same period. The botanical garden and zoos have yearly growth rate at 4%.
Figure 1 shows growth rates in gross output by fixed price in the tourism attraction branch compared with hotels-restaurants and other culture branches. The figure shows clearly that the branch like amusement parks is more fluctuated than the other branches, like hotels and restaurants, and theaters and museums.

Table 4. Employment in the cultural and creative industries in Denmark, 1996-2008 (By full-time equivalent employment)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hotels</td>
<td>19,892</td>
<td>20,980</td>
<td>21,186</td>
<td>22,482</td>
<td>23,344</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Restaurants</td>
<td>55,881</td>
<td>61,462</td>
<td>65,601</td>
<td>70,549</td>
<td>76,517</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hotels and restaurants</td>
<td>75,773</td>
<td>82,442</td>
<td>86,787</td>
<td>93,031</td>
<td>99,861</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theatres and concerts</td>
<td>6,099</td>
<td>6,692</td>
<td>7,050</td>
<td>7,885</td>
<td>7,961</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amusement parks</td>
<td>1,339</td>
<td>2,123</td>
<td>2,184</td>
<td>2,527</td>
<td>2,373</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Museums</td>
<td>4,098</td>
<td>4,400</td>
<td>4,862</td>
<td>5,402</td>
<td>5,230</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Botanic gardens and zoo</td>
<td>683</td>
<td>738</td>
<td>836</td>
<td>932</td>
<td>895</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commercial sport</td>
<td>6,442</td>
<td>6,561</td>
<td>7,208</td>
<td>6,860</td>
<td>7,216</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The 5 cultural branches</td>
<td>18,661</td>
<td>20,514</td>
<td>22,139</td>
<td>23,605</td>
<td>23,676</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sources: Statistics Denmark and own calculation.
Note: *Share is percentage (%) of GVA in the branch in the total GVA value in 2008.
Table 4 shows the growth in employment in the same branches as in Table 2. Due to labor intensive feature of tourism branches like hotels and restaurant, the shares calculated by the employment (3.44%) for hotels and restaurants are higher than calculated by production values (1.75%). The five tourist attractions accounted as nearly the same (0.82% vs 0.75%) as calculated by the production values. The change rates calculated by the employment give the same trends as the production values.

The trends and development in the tourist attractions showed that demand elasticity in these branches is rather high. In the economic boom years, amusement parks gained the highest growth rates, while in the economic depression years, the growth rates fell also much down than the other branches. For example, amusement parks experienced growth rates of 18% in 1999 and 2006 and 13.4% in 2003, while the growth rates in hotels and restaurants reached 6-8% for the same years. The growth rates in amusement parks were -10.8% and -6.6% in 2002 and 2004 – also the highest fall compared with the other branches. The development trends in theater and concerts and museums are more fluctuated than hotels and restaurants.

**Impact of tourist attractions – case studies and results from the regional economic model**

Around 55 – 60 000 persons are employed in the culture industry in Denmark. The five of branches as mentioned above, such as theatres and concerts, museums, amusement parks, botanical gardens and zoos and commercial sports, have employment of app. 23600 persons, accounting for 42% of the employment in the culture industry. The tourist attractions due to the visitors coming to the regions give both direct employment to the regions and also indirect and induced effects to the region and the country.

The Danish inter-regional macroeconomic model is applied in the scenario analysis. The model is constructed with the regional input-output tables and tourism and culture satellite accounts. Due to the economical linkage between the regions through trade, commuting, shopping and tourism, the impact of growth at one sector in one region will give spill-over effects to the other regions. The detailed description of the Danish inter-regional macroeconomic model (called LINE model) with its tourism sub-models and the application was given by Zhang, Madsen and Jensen-Butler (2007) and Madsen and Zhang (2010). The scenario analysis adopts the methods of the short-terms effect by giving the model a shock change. The starting point for the model analysis is assuming that the analyst attraction is shut down, i.e. the demand for this
branch in certain region becomes zero. The direct effects are apparently shown by lay-off of employment at this sector and this region. The total effects of this closing-down will spread to other sectors and other regions. The multiplier is calculated by dividing the total effects by the direct effect, representing the spill-over effects.

This section presents the results of four scenarios analyses on tourist attractions. Four cases are selected: 1) Tivoli in Copenhagen; 2) Legoland in Billund; 3) six museums in the Capital region; and 4) the zoo in Copenhagen area.

Tivoli: Tivoli opened its garden to the public in 1843 – it is one of oldest amusement parks in Denmark. Tivoli was inspired by the so-called romantic pleasure gardens of Europe. The garden was landscaped according to the English tradition of forming naturalistic ornaments, as opposed to the French style with its strong, geometric lines. Today’s Tivoli is still the leading amusement park in Copenhagen and in Denmark, playing an importance role in the Danish society as one of major cultural institutions. Tivoli hosts many restaurants, cafés, concert hall and theatre, circus, shops and playing grounds, apart from the garden itself where it has a famous Chinese-styled tower. The number of visitors from starting year’s (1843) 175 000 has grown to yearly approximately 4 million visitors. The gross income is 622 million in 2009 and it has employed 1700 persons including all the businesses inside the Tivoli.

| Table 5. Employment effects with four scenario analysis |
|---------------------------------|-----------|---------|--------|--------|
| Scenario          | by region/DK | Direct effects | Total effects | Multiplier |
| Tivoli             | Copenhagen | 698     | 1,152   | 1.7    |
|                   | Capital region incl. CPH | 1,426     | 2,151   | 1.5    |
|                   | Rest of Denmark | 268     | 530   | 2.0    |
|                   | Total in Denmark | 1,694 | 2,681 | 1.6 |
| Legoland           | Billund | 120     | 146   | 1.2    |
|                   | Region of South Denmark | 183     | 220   | 1.2    |
|                   | Rest of Denmark | 17 | 124 | 7.3 |
|                   | Total in Denmark | 200 | 344 | 1.7 |
| Six museums        | Copenhagen | 544     | 733   | 1.3    |
|                   | Capital region incl. CPH | 1,003     | 1,472   | 1.5 |
|                   | Rest of Denmark | 95 | 277 | 2.9 |
|                   | Total in Denmark | 1,098 | 1,749 | 1.6 |
| Zoo in Copenhagen  | Copenhagen | 78     | 100   | 1.3    |
|                   | Capital region incl. CPH | 196     | 258   | 1.3    |
|                   | Rest of Denmark | 26 | 68 | 2.6 |
|                   | Total in Denmark | 222 | 326 | 1.5 |
Table 5 presents the results of employment effect of Tivoli scenario. The direct employment effect is 1694 persons, where 84% of employed persons stayed in the Capital regions. The total employment effects give 2681 persons and the multiplier is 1.6.

**Legoland:** Legoland opened for its first amusement park at Billund in the southern part of Denmark in 1968. The park’s 38,000 m² covered with houses, landscapes, moving trains, sailing ships, as an outdoor exhibition for which the whole show is built of ordinary LEGO bricks. From year to year LEGO parks have developed from a Miniland LEGO bricks to the newly opened parks with a huge LEGO train, a traffic school, an Indian camp and a puppet and a doll collection. They have now more and more concentrate self on giving visitors unique and marvelous experiences.

Legoland was a success beyond all expectations. Just the first year 625,000 happy guests visited park as quickly became the most popular tourist attraction outside Copenhagen. It has continually growing based on the innovative expansion. The park today is 140,000 m² and has around 1.6 million visitors every year.

Since its start in 1968 until 2005, Legoland was owned by the Krik Kristiansen family. In 2005, it was sold to an American investment firm “The Blackstone Group”, and the parks have been part of the European family entertainment company Merlin Entertainments Group, which owns and operates branded icons: the four Legoland parks, three Legoland Discovery Centre, 9 Madame Tussauds, the Merlin Entertainments London Eye, 2 Earth Explorers, and many others. Merlin Entertainments Group has over 38 million visitors a year in the total 64 attractions and six of their hotels. They are thus the largest company in the amusement parks. Legoland parks are currently extending its business into Florida USA, Malaysia and later in Dubai.

Table 5 presents the results of the model calculation for Legoland scenario. The direct employment effect at Legoland is around 200 persons, where 92% of employed persons live in the regions of the southern Denmark. The total employment effects give 344 persons and the multiplier is 1.7.

**Museums:** The six main museums in Copenhagen are included in the scenario analysis, including the National Museum of Denmark, National Gallery of Denmark, Natural History Museum, Ny Carlsberg Glyptotek, Rosenborg Slot, and Louisana Museum.
The National Museum in Copenhagen is the largest museum of cultural history, comprising the histories of Danish and foreign cultures, alike. It is also a research based institution, where the research on cultural history and on preservation and conservation is equivalent to the university level. The museum has engaged in a number of national commitments, particularly within the some key areas, such as archaeology, ethnology, natural science, conservation, etc. History of the national museum trace back to 1650, later for this collection and extensions it was later added the other different buildings housed through time exhibitions.

National Gallery of Denmark: As a national gallery, according to the Museum Act, the museum's mission is to collect, preserve, record, disseminate, and showcase Danish and foreign art. Among the foreign art museum has primarily works from the Western culture after 1300 AD. Most of the museum's older collection of Danish art comes from the Danish kings art chambers.

The museum was established around 1750, after the museum is separate from the national museum as a collection only for paintings. The King Frederick made large purchases of paintings by Italian, Dutch and German schools, to ensure that the stock was not behind other European tycoons galleries. The purchases continued, during the 19th century, it bought works almost exclusively by Danish artists. The National Museum of Gallery has a very rich collection of paintings from the Danish Golden Age. It was a direct consequence of the establishment of the Royal Danish Academy of Fine Arts in 1754. The collections were opened to the public in 1827.

The Natural History Museum (SNM) was established on 1 January 2004 by the merging of four separate institutions: the Botanic Garden, the Botanical Museum and Library, the Geological Museum and the Zoological Museum. SNM is now a department of the University of Copenhagen.

The museum is responsible for maintaining and building up natural history collections, for carrying out research in the natural sciences, and for presenting the current state of knowledge about natural history to the general public. The museum's exhibitions in particular play an important role in teaching and public outreach. As the country’s principal natural history museum, the museum gives specialist support to other natural history museums in Denmark. It is also here that unusual and valuable finds of natural historical interest, such as rare fossils or meteorites, are reported, examined, and collected. Ny Carlsberg Glyptothek was founded by Carl Jacobsen, who donated his private collection to Copenhagen in 1899. It was the state and municipality in charge of construction
of the museum, which was designed by William Dahlerup and the subsequent extension 1906 by Hack Kampmann. Ny Carlsberg Glyptothek contains an art collection in the world and enjoys great international recognition. It houses more than 10,000 works of art - both ancient and modern sculptures and paintings. Louisiana is located in North Zealand and evolves in its own special way. Louisiana opened in 1958 with a collection of modern Danish art. Already from the mid-60s changed Louisiana from being a predominantly Danish collection to become an international museum with numerous international masterpieces.

Louisiana’s collection consists of 3,000 works, many of international importance. It is based on the time after 1945 and includes virtually every genre - with an emphasis on painting and sculpture. In the collection are masterpieces by Picasso, Giacometti, Dubuffet, Yves Klein, Andy Warhol, Rauschenberg, Henry Moore, Louise Bourgeois, Philip Guston, Morris Louis, Jorn, Baselitz, Polke, Kiefer, Kirkeby and many others.

The six museums employ around 1100 persons with the total gross revenue of 700 million Danish kroner. Table 5 presents the results of the model calculation for the employment effects of the six museums. The direct employment effect at the six museums is 1100 persons, where 91% of employed persons live in the Capital region. The total employment effects give 1749 persons and the multiplier is 1.6.

*the zoo at Frederiksberg*: Copenhagen Zoo is one of Europe's oldest zoos. It was founded as a private institution in 1859 by Danish ornithologist Niels Kjaerbolling. After visiting the Berlin Zoo in 1851 was Kjaerbolling determined that Copenhagen on an equal footing with other European capitals should have a zoo. Kjaerbolling wrote in early June 1859 to King Frederik VII and asked for permission to bring a small menagerie in Frederiksberg Garden west of Frederiksberg Castle.

A pleasure garden, which lay west of Frederiksberg Castle, "Princess Vilhelmine Garden", was of the Directorate of the royal gardens left to Niels Kjaerbolling for 10 years, even without hire. Within no time, some simple cages timbers together, and Copenhagen's new attraction was opened on 20 September 1859. The new zoo was not larger than 4,000 hectares - an area equivalent to the current area where the restaurant and restaurant space is located.

After the second World, Zoo managed to obtain 4 ha of Søndermarken. This new part of the Zoo was associated with the old part of the Gardens by a tunnel under Roskildevej. Garden area was now 11 hectares, which is the size today. During the 1980s and 1990s, a number of modernizations and new construction
projects were carried out. In 1999 the Zoo presented its future vision of the “perspective Plan 2010” The plan describes the development and construction projects in the coming years.

The purpose of Zoo is described as follows: through a modern demonstration of characteristic animal forms that are suitable to local conditions. Zoo acts as a cultural institution with social tasks of ‘recreational type’, ‘informative’ and ‘scientific’. Aim of Zoo is to raise interest in and understanding of nature and its diversity through experiences based on one case, activating and entertaining presentation. The employment effects are shown in Table 5. The total employment effects are 326 jobs versus the direct effects of 222 jobs and the multiplier is given by 1.5.

**Conclusion**

Unlike the other research paper on tourist attractions, this paper focuses on the development of tourist attractions base on the statistical data and the regional modelling approaches. The point of departure is that tourist attractions are culture branches within the culture industry. By applying the national accounts and satellite accounts methods, it gives rather detailed mapping of development by different types of tourist attraction. By applying the Danish regional macroeconomic model, the paper shows that tourist attractions play the economic contribution of the tourist attraction in the Danish regions by case studies. Tourism attractions are both the phenomenon of tourism and culture. Investigation on definitions of culture, culture industry, and characteristic products in the tourism satellite accounts, it is found that tourist attractions are embedded with both tourism and culture features. Actually it has been included in both tourism satellite accounts and culture satellite accounts. Tourists who are mostly interested in the tourist attraction, such museums, art galleries, amusement parks, are often called “culture tourists”. From “culture tourism” to “creative tourism” has become a focus in the tourism research. This type of research needs to be further studied due to the rise both from the supply side and demand side. As shown from this paper the gross output and employment in the tourist attractions experienced a growth in the last 10 years in Denmark. On the other hand, the demand recorded by the number of visitors at attractions has also continuously risen. Further information and statistics are needed concerning tourist attractions, such as regional investment in tourist attractions, relationship between the development of attractions and the investment in infrastructure, as well functional role by private and public actors relating to tourist attractions.
Using the survey results by VisitDenmark, it is shown that tourist attractions have an influence on tourists’ choice on their destinations. Tourist attractions surely play an important role in tourism marketing and the destination branding. Through some case studies the paper presents the economic impacts of tourist attraction on the regions. Three types of tourist attractions are chosen as case studies, they are, amusement parks, museums and zoos. The Danish inter-regional model is applied for analyzing the economic and employment effects of these tourist attractions. Multipliers of these tourist attractions show that the they generated employment not only for the sector itself, but it has also the spill over effects, providing employment in the other branches and other regions.

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Problems of Tourism Development in Kazakhstan

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Abstract

This paper considers the problems of tourism development in Kazakhstan and presents the measures on their elimination. Tourism development is important for Kazakhstan as tourism as a whole renders three positive effects on state economy: provides foreign currency inflow, positive impact on such economic indicators as the balance of payments and cumulative export, and helps to increase population employment makes.

Key words: tourism development, tourism economics, tourism policy, tourism planning.

Introduction

The international tourism is now one of most dynamically developing branches of foreign economic activity. Steady growth of influence of tourism both on world economy as a whole, and on economy of the separate countries and regions is one of the most considerable, constant and long-term tendencies who accompanies formation and development of the world economy. There is obvious a transformation of tourism into large independent branch of the national
economy which activity is directed on satisfaction of specific requirements of the population. The variety of these requirements is satisfied not only the tourist enterprises, but also the enterprises of other branches that causes value of tourism as one of factors of multiplicate impact on economy development. Tourism is one of factors of world integration processes, and tourist business becomes now significant sector of economy (Вуколов, 2002).

Formation and development of the high-grade industry of tourism, first of all, is connected with attraction of foreign tourists. But why them so comes to Kazakhstan a little? And the reasons are rather banal and simple: abroad about Kazakhstan know a little – many, even, don’t know, where there is Kazakhstan, think that it is one of cities of Russia or something connected with provinces of China. And after all you will not prove words that is such country big though the globe and a card keep always around and even if know about Kazakhstan, look how at last representative of a dying out kind or an overseas wonder. It is possible to tell that Kazakhstan still remains for foreign tourists «terra incognita». In this Latin expression the essence of problems of tourism also is expressed, however, not only it, for example, on the large foreign channels, connected with leisure – abroad not only news yes reports of the markets look - it is similar BBC, Animal Planet, Nation Geographic, etc. Where show Kazakhstan not in a modern kind, and somewhere in the deaf Middle Ages. Of course - naked steppe, pair of yurtas (traditional house of Kazakhs), horses and the people dressed as it was fashionable to steam of centuries back, well and lambs with shepherds flash against a feather grass. About what else attraction of tourists there can be a speech – who will go to such backwoods which have stiffened in time?!

Tourism in Kazakhstan

From 600 with superfluous tourist firms of the republic only about 14,5 % are occupied with the organization of entrance tourism, the others work for exit tourism, especially on commercial shop tourism. They send Kazakhs to the overseas countries, using that for many of them «shuttle business» remains the unique means of a survival. Such one-sided development of the Kazakhstan tourism leads to outflow from the country of monetary weight (besides in hard currency) that is negatively reflected in its budget (Бектимирова, 2003).

By some estimation, incomes of the international tourism in Kazakhstan make no more than 10% from potentially possible. To involve foreign tourists in the country and to increase receipts in the state budget from the international tourism, it is necessary to make the big initial investments. The problem con-
sists that in Kazakhstan having magnificent tourist recreational resources, there is no modern tourist infrastructure — good hotels (starry hotels in Almaty and Astana it is not counted), various types of transport, telecommunication systems and as a whole advanced sphere of service which became norm of life for the western tourists. Investments into a tourist infrastructure will pay off quickly. After all not without reason abroad the tourism industry name "golden goose", but anybody in republic at the state level seriously and purposefully isn't engaged in the decision of the given problem. Tourism financing goes, as before, by a residual principle. In a pursuit for illusive for today petrodollars the state loses sight of potential possibilities of lifting of national economy at the expense of tourism. The next states go it by for a long time and successfully as the developed countries of the world, and in a certain measure: Kyrgyzstan and Uzbekistan (Бектимирова, 2003).

Internal tourism in the majority of the countries developed in the tourist relation gives from 30 to 50 % of all receipts from tourism. Kazakhstan has good prospects of development of internal tourism, but today it generally is spontaneous, unorganized. In the absence of due consideration to it from the state the budget receives less large sums, continues, to collapse infrastructure, is caused a damage to natural, cultural and historical monuments (Огиенко, 2006).

It is necessary to create conditions for further development of amateur (sports) tourism. It well proved in the Soviet years, carrying out, in essence, the social order of trade unions on population improvement, preparation of public tourist shots (tourist's organizers, instructors of tourism). These shots which well know the Kazakhstan tourist routes and in a condition to provide safety of tourists, today remain the main characters in modern commercial tourism, work during tracings with foreign groups as guides and porters. It is necessary to lift the status of sports tourism, to define the main directions 'its developments in modern conditions.

Important link of tourist activity there is a tourist's product, that Kazakhstan can offer tourists. The main task consists in that the Kazakhstan tourist's product completely corresponded to a market demand and has been claimed both on internal, and in the international market. Thus important, on what segments of the international market the Kazakhstan tourist's product will be competitive, and the marketing strategy development is for this purpose necessary. Certainly, the preference should be given development of cultural tourism on the Kazakhstan piece of the Great Silk way and ecological adventure tourism closely connected with it.
Important and advance of the Kazakhstan tourist’s product on the markets of the developed countries. The market of the international tourism — is the arena of the rigid competitive fight developed between the countries, for many of which foreign tourism is the most important article of national export. Results of this fight directly depend on concrete efforts of each country on advance of a national tourist’s product. Tourist image of Kazakhstan should be created and become stronger by means of the various advertizing and propaganda actions which are carried out by national tourist administration — Agency on tourism and sports of the Republic of Kazakhstan (Огиенко, 2006).

One of the main reasons disturbing to development of tourism in Kazakhstan — is weak state support of tourist business. Without it tourism can’t become profitable branch of economy. The law in force «About tourist activity in the Republic of Kazakhstan» doesn’t cover all parties of tourist activity and is reduced only to regulation of the financial, currency and license relations in the sphere of the international tourism, to basic rights and duties of the tourists driving to Kazakhstan and leaving it. About internal tourism, including sports, in it isn’t present words. The law, in fact, is directed on development of exit, commercial tourism (Бектимирова, 2003). Unsystematic reorganization of the state bodies which are responsible for development of tourism, financing reduction negatively affected a situation in the tourism sphere in Kazakhstan on their contents, various personnel shifts. Artificial connection of commercial tourism with the budgetary physical culture and sports within Agency on tourism and sports isn’t absolutely clear neither with organizational, nor from the economic point of view. Tourism should be allocated in independent branch of economy with special body of management, for example, the tourism Ministry (as it is made in the next Uzbekistan and in a number of the European countries) which would provide carrying out uniform policy in the field of rest and tourism (Бектимирова, 2003).

Strongly enough tourism development in the country practically total absence of scientific maintenance of tourist activity brakes. Corresponding scientific structures which should prosecute subjects of complex forecasting of development and the territorial organization of tourism are necessary, conducted works by an estimation tourist recreational resources, developed scientific principles of the organization of tourism, including its separate kinds, and managements of it.

Key problem is training for the tourism industry. The beginning in the tourism sphere in Kazakhstan was necessary to professional education in 1992. At
the beginning of the XXI century in the republic over three tens establishments which are letting out experts for the industry of tourism were. Despite appreciable shifts in this area, process of formation of national system of vocational training, retraining and professional development of shots is in the sphere of tourism at an initial stage. The current state of development of system of training for the tourism sphere in Kazakhstan does not allow fully providing in the future branch with necessary labor of the corresponding qualification. It is necessary at the present stage of development of tourism when it develops sure rates to give particular attention to preparation of highly-skilled personnel. The personnel reserve should support rates of development of tourism in our country. Therefore with a view of the forced development of quality of training in tourist branch of our republic it is necessary to introduce principles of continuous education in training process. Continuous education in the sphere of preparation of tourist shots includes some educational levels.

Actual there is a question of creation of a control rescue service which was liquidated several years ago. During its absence cases of death of people in mountains became frequent. Safety of tourists — is the main issue. In reference to Maslow and his pyramid, it is possible to come to a conclusion that very few people will go there where one of basic needs of the person as that – need for safety won’t be satisfied. It is possible safely that Kazakhstan far not completely uses the possibilities on tourism development, and meanwhile extensive international experience shows that the industry of tourism is one of the most perspective branches of national economy.

Growth of tourism should occur mainly at the expense of emergence of new visited territories as traditional areas of the world tourist market already reached a limit of recreational capacity. In this regard Kazakhstan has unique possibility to occupy the niche in the world tourist market. Tourism as a whole renders three positive effects on state economy: provides inflow of foreign currency, makes positive impact on such economic indicators as the balance of payments and cumulative export, and helps to increase population employment.

By estimates of the WTO and the World council of tourism and travel, on each workplace created in the industry of tourism, it is necessary from five to nine workplaces appearing in other branches. Tourism directly or indirectly influences development of 32 branches of economy and promotes development of infrastructure of the country.
Conclusion

Today the tourist branch develops stable rates. In the republic there is an increase in a share of internal tourism. Now the tourist branch in the world as a whole has hard time, connected with an unstable political situation and terrorism strengthening, however it is possible to argue that this recession is temporary. First of all, it is necessary to pay attention to development of system of state regulation and support of tourist activity. It is necessary to take the following measures which are subject to realization:

- Working out of projects of standard legal certificates concerning maintenance of state regulation of international trade with tourist services taking into account the forthcoming introduction of Republic Kazakhstan into the World Trade Organization;
- Perfection of the national legislation concerning development of entrance and internal tourism, migration, simplification of visa and registration procedures, customs and boundary control;
- Acceptance of necessary regulatory legal acts concerning investment and the taxation for development of entrance and internal tourism;
- Improvement of system of the statistical account and the reporting in the tourism sphere, introduction of the Subsidiary account of tourism in system of national accounts;
- Improvement of a technique of formation of the balance of payments of tourist branch taking into account recommendations of the World tourism organization and decisions of the Statistical commission of the United Nations;
- Enhancing cooperation in the field of tourism with foreign countries on the basis of expansion of the international contractual base of branch;
- Improvement of quality of tourist and hotel services according to the requirements established by system of technical regulation;
- Providing a maximum level of coordination of activity in the tourism sphere between interested central executive and other state authorities, and also between state and private sectors;
- Providing an appropriate level of tourist management;
ensuring the state support to development of tourist infrastructure and coordination of actions of the central and local executive bodies in this direction;

- assistance to development of private initiatives in tourist branch.

- leading of power lines;

- construction of systems of water supply and water removal;

- laying or leading of the telephone line and providing with satellite communication;

- construction and reconstruction of transport ways (Малиенко, 2006).

Development of communication systems is planned to provide in areas of development of beach tourism and show business on the Kapchagaysky reservoir, at the Lake Alakol in Almaty area, on the coast of the Caspian Sea in Mangistausky area (Kenderli’s region), in the center of the Kazakhstan site of the Silk way - in Turkestan the Southern Kazakhstan area (Малиенко, 2006). Formation on the basis of large concentration of recreational resources territorial zones with recreational economic specialization is planned. Considering insufficient development of tourism infrastructure, and also limitation of financial means, it is necessary to define priorities of prime construction of a network of hotels, guest houses and motels, and also campings within implementation of the Evrokemping project at the regional level, directed on construction of a network of hotels of category three - two-stars.

Kazakhstan, possessing unique natural resources and original culture of the nomadic people, has huge unrealized potential for tourism development in the international and regional markets. The tourist potential of recreational resources and historical and cultural heritage allows the republic to be integrated harmoniously into the international market of tourism and to reach intensive development of tourism in the country. It will provide steady growth of employment and the population income, stimulation of development of branches adjacent to tourism and increase in inflow of investments into national economy.

The tourism industry in the Republic of Kazakhstan at the state level is recognized as one of priority branches of economy. So, in implementation of provisions of industrial and innovative development of national economy the leading role belongs to system of clusters, in particular a tourist cluster. Current trends in development of this branch are that that the tourists, which well stud-
ied famous resorts of the world, aspire to those countries where the tourist sector only starts to develop. From this position appeal of Kazakhstan grows.

Income of tourism steadily takes the third place after the income of export of oil, oil products and cars. It is expected that by 2015 the number of the international trips will exceed billion, and receipts from the tourist industry will be made by 1,2 trillion dollars.

In the country the concept of development of tourism in the Republic of Kazakhstan in which it is noted operates that tourism is capable to render three positive effects on national economy: first, to provide inflow of foreign currency and to make positive impact on such economic indicators as the balance of payments and cumulative export; secondly, helps to increase population employment; in the third, promotes development of infrastructure of the country.

At the present stage of development of tourism Kazakhstan becomes more attractive to businessmen, athletes, scientists, fans of extreme rest, and also for the people who are interested in history and today of the countries, located on the Great Silk way. One of the most attractive resources for tourists of foreign countries are the Kazakhstan mountains. Now, walking on the hometown or having arrived somewhere to have a rest or pass away a weekend it is often possible to see foreigners, and after all earlier, literally few years ago, it was the phenomenon from a number of a fantasy. That is it is possible to draw a conclusion that, despite numerous problems, our tourism though on a few, but nevertheless develops, instead of is at a stop or is in oblivion. We move let and small steps, but we adhere to a right direction.

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Introduction
The development of Information Communication Technologies (ICTs) and particularly the Internet have had a profound impact on the travel industry (Buhalis & Law, 2008; Kamarulzaman, 2007; Mack, Blose, & Pan, 2008). These developments have changed travellers’ behaviour (Buhalis & Law, 2008) that now depend on the Internet to search for information, plan their travel, and purchase online (Jeong & Choi, 2005). Different sources provide evidence that illustrate the importance of online travel shopping. For instance, in a survey led by Nielson (2008), travel was the most important online transaction category. Forty percent of Americans and 30% of Europeans book travel online and although in Asia only 20% do so, it is excepted that this percentage will rise to 30% to 40% over the next few years (Leggatt, 2011). The future of online travel shopping also looks promising. In fact, PhoCusWright, one of the leading travel industry research firms, predicts that by the end of 2012 travellers will book one third of the world’s travel sales online (Travel Pulse, 2011). The popularity
of online travel shopping has attracted researchers to perform research in order to better understand which factors most influence consumers.

Despite being a significant trend, online travel shopping has not received the attention it needs to be fully understood. Indeed, although there is a growing body of literature in this field, research is fragmented and has contradictory results. On the other hand, the evolution of social media websites has changed how people purchase travel (PhoCusWright, 2011). Yet, to the best of our knowledge, no study has related the use of social media to online travel shopping. Therefore, it is necessary to design a model which includes these more recent developments.

This research adopts a holistic approach to understand the determinants of online travel purchasing intentions, grounded on Ajzen’s TPB (Ajzen, 1991), Davis’s TAM (Davis, 1989) and Roger’s Innovation Diffusion Theory (Rogers, 1995). In addition, this study considers constructs from other studies and proposes a new construct, termed social media involvement, defined as a person’s level of interest or emotional attachment with social media based on their use and motivation regarding social media websites.

**Literature Review**

Since the main field of this research is online travellers’ purchasing behaviour, a thorough review of articles addressing this subject was conducted, based on Webster’s and Watson’s (2002) recommendations for a literature review. These authors recommend starting with leading journals, for they are more likely to have the major contributions. They also recommend selecting conference proceedings with a reputation for quality. Furthermore, to guarantee that other relevant articles, from peer reviewed journals were not excluded from this literature review, online databases for academic journals were used. A total of 58 refereed articles were found to be relevant, as they addressed the adoption of or intentions to purchase travel online. These articles were carefully read and then categorized into categories and subcategories of antecedents of online shopping. The three main categories were: 1) Consumer Characteristics; 2) Perceived Channel Characteristics and 3) Website and Product Characteristics. The literature review revealed that there is a lack of studies that use an integrated approach to understand online travel shopping. Additionally, we found that several constructs had contradictory results and that needed to be explored, such as consumers’ satisfaction with previous online purchases, trust and perceived risk. Finally, the affect of social media use on the intentions to purchase travel online has never been explored. Since social media have an im-
important role in the trip planning process and the purchase decision (Xiang & Gretzel, 2010), it is vital to examine the affect of social media involvement on intentions to purchase travel online and on other constructs. Based on this exhaustive literature review, several hypotheses were formulated and are summarized in the model shown in Figure 1.

![Figure 1. The proposed model and hypotheses](image)

**Methodology**

The main aim of this study is to explore what drives consumers to purchase of travel online. Thus, the hypotheses will be tested on a sample of Internet users, since they have already purchased travel online or exhibit a greater propensity to do so, compared to individuals that do not use the Internet. The survey will be Web-based, therefore, e-mail invitations with a web-link to the survey page will be used to invite respondents to participate in the survey. Data collection through the Internet is believed to be more appropriate and suitable for studies addressing ecommerce (Chen, 2006). Since it is impossible to gather a complete list of Portuguese internet users, a convenience sample will be used. This non probabilistic sampling procedure has been used in other studies regarding online travel purchases (e.g. Morrison, Jing, O’Leary, & Cai, 2001) and has been supported by academic scholars. For instance, Wen (2010) considers that the use of convenience samples is appropriate to obtain a large number of questionnaires quickly and economically. Therefore, e-mail invitations will be sent
to colleagues, students, personal contacts and professional list-serve groups, with a request to forward the email to their contacts. To operationalize the constructs, scale items will be developed for Social Media Involvement, while for the other constructs they will be adapted from previous studies. Perceived relative advantages, social media involvement and perceived risk will be treated as multidimensional constructs. Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) will be used to validate the measures developed and to test the hypotheses.

**Conclusion**

In conclusion, this study strives to make several contributions to tourism literature. First, by determining the most important factors influencing intentions to purchase travel online by developing an integrated model, grounded on parsimonious behavioral theories. Kim, Kim, and Leong (2005) pointed out that more sophisticated models with more variables need to be investigated in order to enhance our understanding of consumer behaviour online. This study also proposes a new multidimensional construct termed social media. Second, it responds to O’Connor and Murphy’s (2004) suggestion for further research on what motivates consumers to use a certain distribution channel and also what motivates them to buy travel online. Third, it studies the relationship between intentions to purchase online and actual behaviour. Literature review has shown that this relationship has not been yet asserted. Indeed, the studies either focus on intentional behaviour or actual behaviour. Although past studies have proven that intention leads to actual behaviour, this may questionable with online shopping, as M. Lee and Johnson (2002) point out in their work, since there are a large number of dropouts and also many who only browse and do not actually purchase.

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Key Factors Influencing Foreign Direct Investment in the Tourism Sector in Portugal

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Introduction

More and more countries worldwide try to attract FDI to promote their growth. FDI is a means to finance new structures and equipment and allow a transfer of more advanced technology and forms of management, in addition to the multiplier effects it provides. It is crucial for countries to understand what drives firms to invest abroad, given that FDI contributes to their economical growth and development. Despite the increase of globalization in the Tourism industry, there is surprisingly little empirical research on FDI. Many studies about FDI exist, but only a few analyse the Tourism sector and its implications. With reference to the Portuguese Tourism sector there are some studies that evaluated Portuguese investment abroad, but there are no studies about foreign investment in Portuguese Tourism. Given the reasons mentioned above, the purpose of this study is to discover the competitiveness of Portugal for FDI in the
Tourism sector by identifying the key factors of attractiveness. Accordingly, the paper begins with a theoretical framework, followed by research methodology, a theoretical model and research hypotheses. Lastly, in the conclusions, some strategies are suggested.

**Literature Review**

The literature review shows that the most significant determinants for FDI in goods also seem to be the most important for FDI in services; however, the importance differs. Some of the most important FDI determinants in services are government policies, liberalization of the FDI regime, rates, financial incentives, home country business presence / local customer base, competitive advantages and cultural, historical and geographical proximity. While for FDI in goods the most important determinants are market size, trade barriers and differentiated production costs.

The size of the firm seems to be a similar determinant for FDI in goods and services. As for Tourism, the existence of natural and cultural resources and the availability and quality of infrastructures have an extraordinary importance. With regard to FDI in the Portuguese Tourism sector there is no literature. However, the studies on other Portuguese sectors have shown that the dominant reason for FDI in Portugal seems to be the access to local markets and the access to some of the most developed markets of Europe. Other reasons are political, economical and social stability, cultural and geographical proximity, a friendly environment, the Portuguese brand abroad, the availability and skilled labour, incentives and policies to attract FDI.

**Methodology**

The methodology is based on analysis and synthesis of FDI and Tourism literature found in international databases, documentation centers, international and national reports and journals. The first step was to analyze articles about generic FDI, the next step was to study documents related to FDI in Tourism and finally, an analysis of publications about FDI in Portugal was conducted. Based on this documental analysis we intend to (1) conduct exploratory interviews with the main touristic government entities, (2) develop a set of hypotheses and (3) design a model. In order to test the hypotheses, questionnaires will be sent to all international hotel firms with presence in Portugal. The questionnaire consists of micro and macro aspects identified in the literature review.
Theoretical Model and Research Hypotheses

The literature review shows that the decision to invest abroad is conditioned to external and internal factors. The external factors are related to characteristics of the countries, while the internal factors are related to the characteristics of the firms. FDI in Tourism is also conditioned to the extent of the tourism demand to a specific destination, as well as its specific activities related to Tourism. The study develops a model to explain which factors influence the attraction of FDI to the Portuguese Tourism sector (Figure 1).

The literature review identified the following key factors:

**Key Factor 1. Specific Characteristics of the Host Country**

- **H1**: Political and economical stability (country risk) of Portugal is directly related to the FDI.

Political and economical stability of the host country is seen as an attraction factor (Kim & Hwang, 1992).

- **H2**: The size of the Portuguese market and inflows of FDI are correlated.

**Figure 1.** Conceptual model “key factors – FDI in tourism industry”
The economic development of the country and the market size are important variables (Dunning & McQueen, 1982; Go, Pyo, Uysal, & Mihalik, 1990).

- **H₃**: The Portuguese legislation affects the IDE.

The bureaucracy, tax and legal system can be an obstacle to FDI (Go et al., 1990; Te Velde & Nair, 2006).

**Key Factor 2. Geographical, Cultural and Historical proximity**

- **H₄**: FDI is positively associated with historical and cultural affinities between countries.

- **H₅**: FDI is positively associated with geographical proximity between countries.

Similarities in language, culture and history between the home country and the host country tend to facilitate the FDI process. Geographical proximity may also influence the process (Endo, 2006; Rodríguez, 2002; UNCTAD, 2007).

**Key Factor 3. Specific Characteristics of the Tourism Sector**

- **H₆**: There is a positive correlation between the competitiveness of the Portuguese Tourism and FDI.

Measured through the Travel & Tourism Competitiveness Index prepared by World Economic Forum (Blanke & Chiesa, 2011).

- **H₇**: The Government’s incentive program for the Tourism sector contributes to an increase in FDI.

Policy incentives encourage FDI (Go et al., 1990; UNCTAD, 2007).

- **H₈**: The brand of Portugal as a tourist destination has a positive correlation with the FDI.

The growing popularity of Tourism is the primary motivation to invest abroad (Buckley & Geyikdagi, 1996).

- **H₉**: Knowledge of Portuguese Tourism potential is largely responsible for attracting FDI.

Geographical situation; natural resources; historical and cultural resources; hospitality (Buckley and Geyikdagi, 1996; UNCTAD, 2007).
- **H10**: The increase in tourism demand represents a motivation for FDI in Portugal.

There is a relation between the increase of tourist arrivals and increased FDI (Buckley & Geyikdagi, 1996; Go et al., 1990).

*Key Factor 4. Specific Characteristics of the Home Country*

- **H11**: Investors from different source markets looking for different products in Portugal.

Investors from different markets looking for different products (Snyman & Saayman, 2009).

- **H12**: There is a causal relationship between the countries that invest more and the source of the tourists who visit Portugal.

The origin of FDI is related to the origin of tourist demand (Snyman & Saayman, 2009; Tang, Selvanathan, & Selvanathan, 2007).

*Key Factor 5. Specific Characteristics of the Firm*

- **H13**: The size of the firm determines its internalization.

Measured through the number of rooms operated and the number of employees (Buckley & Geyikdagi, 1996; Dunning & McQueen, 1982).

- **H14**: International experience determines the search for new markets.

*Measured by the number of years since the first internalization* (Endo, 2006; Johnson & Vanetti, 2005).

- **H15**: The degree of internalization affects the search for new markets.

Measured weighted number of rooms abroad proportional to the firm’s total number of rooms (Rodríguez, 2002).

- **H16**: Firms with foreign capital tend to use less local and national producers and suppliers.

*Ability to obtain economies of scale* (Dunning & McQueen, 1982; Rodríguez, 2002).

- **H17**: The preference of competitors affects the decision to undertake FDI.
FDI comes as a reaction to the movement of competitors (Castro and Buckley, 2001).

**Key Factor 6. Other influential variables**

- **H$_{18}$.** There is a correlation between EU integration and FDI in Tourism. (Jarvis & Kallas, 2008) believe that being part of the European Union is a FDI attractive factor.

- **H$_{19}$.** There is a correlation between GATS and FDI in Tourism.

There is a positive relationship between General Agreement on Trade in Services and FDI (Lee, Fayed, & Fletcher, 2002; Te Velde, & Nair, 2006).

**Conclusion**

The Portuguese policy-makers should carefully conduct FDI policies, evaluating the impacts in a wide socio-political framework. The incentive policies encourage investments not only from foreign but also from local investors. The rationalization of rates is an aspect that must be considered for FDI attractiveness, as well as a good tax system, reduction of bureaucracy and defining clear FDI policies in Tourism. The measures to promote FDI in the Portuguese Tourism sector include government support in trade fairs, maintaining sites that promote the country as a destination for investment and promotional organization events. The main contribution of this study is its overview of the research and development efforts that have been endeavored in the field of FDI in Tourism. Second, it is the first time that this research has been carried out in Portugal. Third, the results can be used to assist government policy on FDI, as well as to assist the public authority responsible for promotion. A major limitation of this study is the difficulty in obtaining statistical data on FDI in Tourism. Existing data have insufficient sector and geographical disassociation and sometimes it’s impossible to distinguish between foreign investors and domestic investors.

**References**


Reutilization of Agricultural Buildings, Tourism and Sustainability in the Swedish Periurban Context

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Introduction

Agricultural buildings (ABs), originating in production, processing and dwelling, are an organic part of the landscape in the European countries and the Western ‘developed’ world. During the last century, society and the economy have gone through radical changes, largely as a result of technological developments in areas such as production, processing, transportation, information technology and the energy sector. The previously solely agricultural landscape has been transformed into a multifunctional countryside. This process also made its mark on ABs, especially in the rural-urban zone or the periurban area (PU), where the transformation is already far advanced. Past investigations have focused on the history, different aspects of preservation, economic and social issues or certain aspects of reutilisation of these ABs. However, there is still only limited understanding of the territorial issues concerning the reutilisation of an AB, e.g. in leisure and tourism, especially concerning the owners’ and visitors’ lifestyle, attitudes and ways of thinking. Reutilisation of ABs in leisure, particularly rural tourism (RT), is an area that is significantly expand-
ing today, especially in PU and amenity-rich areas. As Butler (1998, p. 211) puts it, ‘the changes in rural areas relating to leisure are among the most significant to have occurred over the past three decades’. Buildings in turn, are an essential part of most RT operations, both as key resources and as significant cost centres. Tyrväinen, Silvennoinen, Nousiainen and Tahvanainen (2001) has shown proof of ABs importance in RT when found that tourists thought the biggest threat to the rural environment was the destruction of old buildings. In order to secure a sustainable future for AB stock, this dual topic has to be approached from both from the owners’ and users’ (visitors’) points of view, as this issue may hold the key to better preservation of historic buildings, assist the economic survival of the countryside through sustainable RT and help rural development. The aim of the research was therefore to analyse ABs and their properties in order to identify key issues (e.g., management factors, territorial issues) concerning sustainable reutilisation in tourism and the Swedish PU context. Furthermore to examine visitors’ and operators’ perceptions (e.g. building/tourism related characteristics) of former ABs used in RT and to see how changes made to the agricultural built environment influence RT.

The subject of the study was a multidisciplinary phenomenon therefore a multi-method approach was used. Beside the available literature (printed and digital media, publications by state organisations, etc.) questionnaire-based statistical investigations and a case study were also carried out. The questionnaires were created by the Total Design Method (Dillman, 1978). The questions covered the background of the respondents and posed twenty research questions relevant to the subject. The design of the research required the essentially ‘soft’ data (e.g. preferences) to be transformed into quantitative information. Therefore research questions were created on a Likert scale (Likert, 1977), complemented with a semantic differential scale (McDougal & Munro, 1994). The research questions were formulated to uncover attitudes and preferences regarding buildings and tourism-related factors. Visitors and operators were surveyed during the investigations. The operator participants were collected from the Swedish ‘Farm Holiday’ register (Bo på Lantgård Riksförening, 2009). Their questionnaires were administered by the internet-based Questionnaire Generator Programme (n=296, Rr%=35%). Visitors to three selected RT operations (later on used as case study objects) and a pool of internet addresses supplied the visitor pool. They were surveyed either via the internet-based system (n=855 Rr%=18%) or by self-administered questionnaires (n=104 Rr%=not applicable as a non probability sample). As behavioural (by nature highly qualitative) issues were studied in their complex relationship to a given physical environment, a
descriptive-explanatory case study methodology was also used to provide micro data. Three businesses were used where the whole of a AB-based tourism operation was considered a case. To ensure external validity, a literal replication pattern was chosen as a guideline in the selection process to underline any similar factors working as a driver towards sustainability in these operations and to highlight key factors. The cases were chosen by a location and profile analysis in a three-phase filtering process from a pool of RT enterprises (n=319), where the three final RT enterprises had similar business and building profiles but were located in three different areas (urban fringe/PU/deep rural).

Questionnaires showed that RT operators were found to misinterpret how visitors view and experience reused ABs and the services therein. A comparison of aggregated tourism-related and building-related factors showed that operators and visitors both considered building-related factors to be of significantly higher importance (Figure 1).

![Figure 1](image-url)

Figure 1. Importance of aggregated building-related and tourism-related factors as expressed by visitors (left) and operators (Bocz & Pinzke, 2012).

Operators correctly believed that visitors view ‘atmosphere’ and ‘style(character)’ as most important factors. Visitors found building technological factors to be less important. A more rural character in the surroundings was found to result in both disadvantages (e.g. availability of transportation, infrastructure, necessity to accommodate a broad target group) and advantages (e.g. abundance of natural resources and space, lower property prices). However owners’ way of thinking and efforts to create a sustainable business showed similar patterns, irrespective of the actual location of the operation. Holistic thinking, management style, quality of service and personal relations were cornerstones of sustainable operations. A caretaker role was a key factor in reusing
ABs but approaches to sustainability differed depending on the owner’s personality, lifestyle and background.

Case study investigations showed that owners could describe sustainability in their own words, although only in a non-contextual way and none of them belonged to any of the existing sustainability or ‘greening’ schemes. In contrary to this choice of building material and construction technology was most often according to sustainability principles. Education, personal background, upbringing and interests, work experience and world view of the owner were of main importance in how building-related sustainability was approached. ABs were considered as key attractions in RT and operators were clearly aware of the advantages and disadvantages of ABs when reutilising these in RT. Drastic changes while reutilising ABs, where absolutely necessary (i.e. in engineering, etc.), were found to be acceptable to operators as long as attempts were made to fulfil the criteria of modernity and the authorities, but in a creative and well-planned way, thereby avoiding loss of value and building information and ensuring sustainable reutilisation. There were also territorial differences found in sustainability related behaviour (procurement, outsourcing of labour in constructional context), mainly resulting from differences in local society formed by environmental and economic factors.

Agricultural buildings dominate the countryside and their reutilisation in PU areas is important in a diversification context and in maintaining a living countryside. Although these constructions have been subject of various studies, the reutilisation of ABs in tourism in a spatial context has not been as yet scientifically examined. The aim of this study was to analyse ABs and their properties in order to identify key issues concerning sustainable reutilisation in tourism and the Swedish PU context. Using statistical data combined with information gathered from questionnaire and case study based surveys, this study charted the dynamics of change the PU AB stock in Sweden and the underlying reasons for these changes. Connections between human behaviour patterns/lifestyle and the use of built PU infrastructure, including analyses of functions, use of materials and issues concerning aesthetics were examined and finally, actual tourism enterprises using ABs in Sweden were examined concerning RT sustainability issues. The results show that the multi-methodological approach proved to be an effective way to study the reutilisation of ABs in tourism, a subject area where physical, measurable entities and non-physical, human factors had to be examined in a united perspective. Combining data from these various sources and the mixture of processing methods used produced findings that would not have been possible with the use of e.g. a single,
conventional research method. RT operators and visitors differed in their views and experiences of reused buildings and the services therein, although both groups considered aggregated building-related factors to be significantly more important than aggregated tourism-related factors. Differences in spatial character provided both advantages and disadvantages. The approaches and efforts of owners to create a sustainable business showed similar patterns, irrespective of the geographical location of the operation. A caretaker role, holistic thinking, management style, quality of service and personal relations were cornerstones of sustainable operations. However, approaches to sustainability differed depending on the owner’s personality, lifestyle and background. Operators were aware of the advantages and disadvantages of reutilising ABs in tourism. Reutilisation of ABs and related fields in a Scandinavian PU and rural context is an under-researched area in comparison with e.g. urban building and architectural studies. The new theoretical knowledge gained from this study provides a foundation for a new research approach where non-physical and physical subjects and their interactions are examined jointly, in a reliable and repeatable way. This novel approach provides a new point of entry into understanding practical questions concerning ABs in a spatial context and into tourism studies concerning visitor preferences and operator viewpoints. The main practical implication of the research is that visitors appreciate the atmosphere and style of ABs reutilised in tourism but find construction and materials of minor interest and importance. This provides operators with a practical guideline in rebuilding and renovating their ABs for tourism in a more environmentally friendly and energy-efficient way, by allowing the “invisible” use of high tech materials and technology while keeping a “visible” traditional appearance and thereby the atmosphere and style of the constructions.

References

Use of Brand Equity and Brand Value in the Hospitality Industry: Implications and Possibilities

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Introduction

In a competitive industry like the hospitality industry, brand value is becoming increasingly important. The old axiom “location, location, location” is often replaced by “flag, flag and what flag” (Taylor, 1995) as an answer to the question; “What are the three most important things for a successful hospitality operation?” During the last quarter of a century, the flag associated with affiliations have become one of the most important strategic issues in the hospitality industry (O’Neill & Mattila, 2010). And with loyalty as one of the most important marketing and strategic words in the industry, very few doubt this will decrease in importance over the coming years. For centuries the hospitality industry have been dominated by small scale businesses, often family run enterprises, but today the scenario is different and the trends are changing (O’Neill & Mattila, 2010). As the affiliations are growing in importance the market is developing, as independent firms are being incorporated in larger organisations and chains for reasons such as growth, development or merely as an option to
survive when the competition is becoming fiercer (Bailey, 2007; Bailey & Ball, 2006; Damonte, Rompf, Domke, & Bahl, 1997). Even if a large percentage of the hotels, on the world market, still are independent, it is also evident that the picture is gradually changing as more and more independent hotels affiliate with various types of organisations. Previously, family owned and managed firms, not only in hospitality, have been perceived as the most efficient form to run a company, mainly based of the absence or limited presence of factor associated with agency problems and agency costs (Astrachan, 2010; Jensen & Meckling, 1976). But as this statement is being challenged by other researchers (Schulze, Lubatkin, Dino, & Buchholtz, 2001), who implies that other factors make the family run company less efficient, it adds further implications to the debate.

In order to advance the knowledge base in the field of affiliating or not, it would be necessary to look closer at the notion of brand value, brand equity and value of the brand from various perspectives. Defining, identifying and measuring brand value and brand equity should enhance the possibilities to use it in strategic decision making and consequently be able to make full use of its associated possibilities. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to analyse brand value and brand equity in the hospitality industry from a strategic perspective. What factors are important for the hotels in creation of brand equity and to what extent is the hospitality industry using this as a tool in decision making? As well as furthermore to clarify if the brand associated with affiliation is creating a brand value, i.e. would a brand enhance the performance for a firm? In order to be able to answer these questions, this research project will also cover definitions, value drivers, functions, pros and cons, managerial accounting applications, strategic issues and possibilities associated with brand affiliation.

**Literature Review**

In this summary the intention is only to give a very brief overview of the literature associated with brand equity and brand value in the hospitality context. For a more detailed review, the interested reader is encouraged to read the theoretical review section of each article that forms the thesis. Primarily it is important to establish more firmly what the concept of brand stands for in this context, as branding is a complex and sometimes less rigorously defined term. In the scope of this research project the focus is clearly on the brand name associated with an affiliation, i.e. chain, marketing organisation or referral chain as Marriott, Hilton, Best Western, to name just a few examples in the hotel industry. The brand name here is one part of the intangible assets, together with oth-
er such as goodwill, intellectual property, human capital, etc. (Mard, Hitchner, Hyden, & Zyla, 2002). As we here attempt to cover the issue of brand associated with affiliations in the hospitality industry, it is also paramount to make the distinction between brand value and brand equity, as the two, even if closely linked, represent two distinct concepts (Tiwari, 2010). Tiwari (2010) describes brand value as future cash flow from a branded product less the net present value of an unbranded product - basically what the brand is worth to the management and owners (Lee & Ghiselli, 2011; Madden, Fehle, & Fournier, 2006). Brand equity is built up of factors that the brand is perceived to represent to the customers (Tiwari, 2010), i.e. what the brand is filled with in terms of image, service, know-how, etc. that would make the brand stand out in comparison with other similar brands. This could also relate to what the brand holds for a possible member, thus constitutes a factor that would encourage an individual hotel to join a specific organisation. Further, branding is and will be important in the hospitality business as a strategic tool (Bailey, 2007; Bailey & Ball, 2006). The affiliations will have the financial muscle to develop several tools and methods that could improve a firm’s performance, factors that an independent outlet would find difficult to do on its own (Enz, 2008).

Consequently, a growth oriented hotelier would have to evaluate the prospect of affiliation as a mean of achieving this. It could also be the case of a business owner in distress who is looking for opportunities to bring new life into an underperforming business. Tools like reservations systems, security systems, management control systems, computer systems, etc. would all be included in this (Baum & Mudambi, 1999). In connection with this, branding in the hospitality industry is also perceived as a major component of marketing strategies (Dev, Brown, & Zhou, 2007). One important factor, associated with this theory, is loyalty and the effect this will have on the brands performance. A more thorough knowledge of brand value and brand equity would also add further advantages to the business manager or owner. Apart from the above mentioned strategic possibilities an identification and measurement of the firm’s brand value could lead to several other benefits. If one accepts the brand value and include this value in the balance sheet – and not treat an affiliation as a cost – the possibilities of financing an expansion or growth would be enhanced (O’Neill & Xiao, 2006; Palepu, Healy, & Bernard, 2000). It would also imply a new value for the business, something that could be of an advantage if the business is to be sold or a possible joint-venture is to be created, as a higher value could be presented (O’Neill & Belfrage, 2005). In many cases it would also be a benefit in the calculations of property taxes, as by computing a certain
percentage of the business value relating to the brand and not the property, this
tax bill could be reduced (O’Neill & Belfrage, 2005). Mentioned in the theoretical
review will also be issues associated with value drivers (Ariffin & Maghzi,
2012), pros and cons and functions (Scoviak, 2007).

Results

The previous mentioned aim with this research project is answered in four dif-
ferent articles, briefly presented below.

of Branded and Independent Hotels’ Performance During a Full Eco-
nomic Cycle. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 30*, 3, 515-
521

A study of longitudinal data of 51,000 hotels in United States during the
previous economic circle showed that brand matters. The branded hotels had
significantly better occupancy (during all economic phases) and NOI (net oper-
ating income) during the recessionary years. The independent hotel produced
better ADR (average daily rate) and RevPAR (revenue per available room) dur-
ing the same period. Based on the results, one can draw the conclusions that
brand value exists, even though it is not static and that independent hotels
could not bring the advantage of less affiliation-associated costs down to the
bottom-line.

2. Carlbäck, M. Brand Equity in the Swedish Hospitality Industry, *manu-
script*

This study of 12 hotels, five affiliation and five financing or valuation com-
panies in Sweden showed that the concept of brand value and brand equity is
not used, nor measured in the Swedish hotel industry, even though its intang-
ible value could make up nearly 70 percent of a business’ value. Further, all par-
ticipants in the study could see the benefits of the use of such a concept and
would welcome further development in this field.

3. Carlbäck, M. Strategic Entrepreneurship in the Hotel Industry – the
Role of Chain Affiliation, *under review*

The aim with this paper is to identify what could make independent hotels
give up their independence in order to affiliate – to identify the factors that cre-
ates a brand equity seen from the members’ or possible member’s perspective.
Even if independence is important, there are several factors that the non-
affiliated hotels are looking for, loyalty cards being the most important, fol-
ollowed by the development of technical solutions, sales & marketing and social media. The results also indicated that marketing organisations or referral chains were the preferred options.


This is a conceptual review of brand value, brand equity and the value of the brand in the hospitality sector with a consortium perspective. As consortium (marketing organisation or referral chain) seems to be the preferred option for independent hotels seeking new options, this paper is focusing on the aspects of the driving factors behind brand value and brand equity within an organisation – especially the fact that different members contribute differently to the value creation at the same time as they utilise the brand equity differently. This could possibly affect the brand perception and could also have implications on fee structures.

Conclusion

Brand matters, both strategically and financially, according to the results from the study. The theoretical contribution is a deeper knowledge regarding the value of the brand and that it, to a certain extent, is non-static and would change with different economic phases. Further, the factors creating a brand value, from a membership hotel’s perspectives are developed as the limited use of such an important strategic tool. Even the understanding of the brand with a marketing organisation or referral chain is enhanced, which could be useful for future studies within the field of marketing organisation – something today rather neglected on the expense of traditional chains. A more practical contribution could be for managers of hotels and organisations to make better use of brand value and brand equity, both in marketing and promotional activities, but also in a selection process. Overall, hospitality managers should be able to grasp the concept of brand, brand equity and brand management better, and use this added knowledge to be able to take better strategic decisions in the future.

References


Pro-Poor Tourism for Rural Poverty Alleviation in Setiu Wetland, Malaysia: Unlocking the Potential of Tourism Using Value Chain Analysis

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Introduction
Winter tourism, based primarily on snow-sports, is an important, yet a scholarly not much undertaken form of activity in the currently almost one trillion USDs worth international tourism industry. It is even possible to account for an ever larger sector, when one considers the highly intra-regional or, as well, the domestic characteristic of winter tourism (WTO 2003, p. 29). While we meet some regionally or somewhat more globally focused early pioneering (e.g. Goeldner & Dudiak, 1989) and updating, but not necessarily connecting, recent (Hudson, 2000, 2003) research on winter tourism under the economics and the business, and especially marketing, disciplines of the international tourism literature, we also realize that in terms of peer-reviewed articles, the late literature on winter tourism is mostly dominated by those studies that incorporate the sector’s present and prospective interaction with the contemporary climate change phenomenon.
The doctoral dissertation is designed as a monographic overview with the scope on winter tourism and the emphasis on this tourism type’s relation to climate change. Making use of geography’s multidisciplinary knowledge in human and physical sciences, the study is built on an aim to independently review the geography of winter tourism and the literature on climate change, while trying to fill in the temporal gap of winter tourism inventory and the spatial gap of the specific literature through empirical works on improving a study with the Turkish case (Demiroglu, 2010) and initiating an investigation for the case of Norway (Demiroglu, 2012) – a country, cradle to skiing, but is not surprisingly yet touched upon within the winter tourism and climate change literature. In this sense, the study is made up of two major parts, with the first one introducing all aspects of winter tourism from its history to distribution, and the latter providing some extended knowledge about climate change and global warming by relating the phenomenon to the context of tourism in general and then to the global cases related to those ski resorts of the world’s major winter tourism destinations, which face climatic issues, or even benefit, and adopt or develop adaptation manoeuvres that may have consequences of their own.

Global winter tourism demand is estimated to include approximately 70 million winter sports enthusiasts - a figure excluding the number of non-skiing visitors whose importance and share increase each and every year. 77% of those who practice the sports are assumed as alpine (downhill) skiers, 16% as snowboarders and the rest 7% as nordic (cross-country, telemark etc.) skiers. Of the 70 million enthusiasts 30 million are Europeans, 20 million are North Americans and 14 million are Japanese (Hudson, 2000, 2003). Such figures also spatially coincide with supply figures, whose global distribution is visualized on appendix, depicting the cores, corridors and peripheries of (alpine) skiing areas, based on a census of more than 6000 ski areas in 73 diverse countries (the main text of the monography includes detailed maps for each individual country). The information is gathered from universal resources (e.g. Petterson, 2005; Deutschen Skiverbandes, 2011) and crosschecked or enriched from various other sources on national and local levels. Although the drawing does not distinguish the size of each individual ski area, it gives an idea on global winter tourism concentration, indicating that it is agglomerated around the three cores of North America, Northern and Central Europe, and Eastern Asia, which is then comprised mainly of Japan and and the recently emerging ski areas of northeastern China. Here we can talk about some concentric circles, limited by not only the boundaries of the cryosphere but also sociocultural and socioeconomic
reasons. Finally, the figure also guides us with a list of some studies dealing with the climate change and winter tourism problematique according to specific destinations.

References


Differences between Western and Vietnamese Eco-tourists: Evidence from Cat Tien National Park, Vietnam

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Introduction

Tourism has become proliferating in Vietnam, not only in international but also domestic market. New destinations as national parks and other protected areas have been more and more popular for tourists, which raises a concern of possible negative for the pristine state of the destinations. This research tries to understand domestic visitors in a Vietnam national park and their differences with Western counterparts according to their affiliation with ecotourism core criteria. The research also explores how two groups of eco-tourists’ position along a hard-to-soft continuum. The soft hard dichotomy plays an important role in answering the basic question of whether ecotourism exists in reality, and why people are more and more interested in this type of travel. The application of this theory to research the patterns of Vietnam and generally Asian ecotourism is particularly meaningful.
Literature review

Ecotourism is a subset of nature-based tourism and sustainable tourism (Weaver, 2008) and is defined that meet three core criteria (Blamey, 1997). First, ecotourism has primary emphasis on nature-based attractions which are relatively undisturbed, such as national parks. Second, ecotourism involves the provision of opportunities for environmental learning and education. Third, the management of ecotourism sites and associated visitation should be compatible with the principles of environmental, socio-cultural and economic sustainability, or the so-called ‘triple bottom line’.

In 1987, Laarman and Durst coined the concept hard-soft dimensions of ecotourism by differentiation of dedicated or casual interest respectively and the physical rigor of the experience. Weaver & Laura (2002) proved and expanded this theory by conducting an empirical research of Lamington National Park visitors. They found three groups of harder, softer and structured ecotourists, who resemble ‘harder eco-tourists’ with their strong environmental views, support for enhance sustainability and physically active dispositions, and also ‘softer eco-tourists’ through their preference for multi-purpose trips, short trips, larger groups, services expected and emphasis on interpretation. Other authors also researched patterns of eco-tourists and found different typology of Western visitors whereas emerging Asian eco-tourists have been ignored and hardly found in English literature. The differences between Western and Asian eco-tourists were investigated in few research (Cochrane, 2005; Woods & Moscardo, 1998).

In the East, the research about hard-soft dimension by Weaver and Lawton (2002) has brought inspiration to some Chinese researchers. A research unveiled two types of eco-tourists are ‘elite’ and ‘mass’ in which the former includes international hard eco-tourists and local highly educated elite and the latter contains general tourists interested in nature (Wen & Ximing, 2008). None of similar empirical research has been found in other Asian countries. Two main research questions of this research are: To what extent do Vietnamese and Western visitors to a strictly protected natural area in Vietnam differ with regard to their affiliation with core eco-tourist characteristics? What differences pertain to the positioning of Vietnamese and Western eco-tourists along a ‘hard’-‘soft’ ecotourism continuum?
Methodology

Ecotourism is a “complicated subject”, involving specialised niche markets that are not homogenous (Wight, 2001). It requires a thorough approach that allows the researcher to have both a general picture of the market as well as an understanding of important differences and exceptions, whilst accounting for them. The process of studying something from different angles or viewpoints is called triangulation (Babbie, 2007). A triangulation of method - mixed method - is the most suitable methodology in this case because the quantitative data and their subsequent analysis provide a general understanding of the research problems and the qualitative data and their data refine and explain those statistical results by exploring participants’ views in more depth (Creswell, 2009; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998). The research design is illustrated in Figure 1.

![Research design (Sequential Mixed Design)](image-url)

**Figure 1.** Research design (Sequential Mixed Design)
Cat Tien National Park, Vietnam was selected to be the case study (Yin, 2010). The quantitative phase started from November 2010 to May 2011. 1,532 paper based questionnaires were distributed to visitors when they checked out of the park. Of these, 1,267 respondents (82.7%) returned the questionnaires. The cases that had missing data on more than two items (over 10%) in Part C – Behaviour were deleted listwise. 1,082 questionnaires (85.4%) remained. Therefore, the response rate was 85.4%. Among them, 582 were Western and 500 were Vietnamese visitors. Exploratory Factor Analysis was used which informs four behavioural factors and four motivation factors. At Cronbach’s alpha 0.662, Hierarchical Cluster Analysis was employed using Ward’s method (Hair & Black, 2011) to find typology of visitors by clustering them into groups. One way ANOVA then compared any differences between Western and Vietnamese visitors.

A follow up qualitative phase from January to April 2012 tried to understand the characteristics of each cluster and explain more the differences between the Western and Vietnamese. Purposive sampling strategy (Patton, 2002) was selected as recommendation for this sequential explanatory design. Two or three Vietnamese and Western respondents in each cluster who left their contact in the questionnaires and were the most typical among the cluster members were selected. Eleven face to face and telephone interviews with Vietnamese were done from January to February 2012 and transcribed into English. Data will be analysed using thematic coding (Strauss & Corbin, 2008).

Results

Typical CTNP visitors (cluster 2, n=283): This cluster is the biggest cluster among the six and accounts for 26% of the sample. The balance between the number of Vietnamese and Westerners was close to the proportion of the whole sample. It is interesting to that this group has means approximately equal to the whole sample in all behaviour, motivation and attitude statement. Therefore, they can be called the typical visitors to CTNP. The good sign is that they disliked eating wild animal meat and they were more interested in national parks than big cities. They also preferred to be in smaller groups of visitors and did not hesitate to walk alone in the forest. There were less likely to ignore people littering. These visitors ranked highest on sustainable behaviors, such as being responsible travellers and leaving the site in a better condition than when arriving. They showed their desire to learn about nature and the importance of interpretation by having an accompanying tour guide.
Sociable wildlife engagers (cluster 1, n=208): Cluster 1 comprised of 19% of the sample. The majority of this cluster’s members were Vietnamese (84.1%) and the youngest compared with the other five clusters (M = 29, SD = ). This cluster’s members displayed an exceptionally high level of anthropocentrism that is having a significant interest in touching wild animals and plants/flowers. They also wanted to be in a large group of more than 4 persons. They agreed that the national park was a wilderness setting, however they also strongly supported the need for adequate and convenience services within the national park for all visitors.

Unenthusiastic visitors (cluster 5, n=22.1%): Contradictory to the ‘Sociable wildlife engagers’, this group of visitors was reluctant to eat wild animal meat. Therefore, it is understandable that they ranked significantly lower than any other groups regarding the intrinsic value of wildlife and plants. National parks to them were sometimes not wilderness settings. This also contradicted the typical CTNP visitors who strived to be responsible travellers. They advocated for priorities of economic development over environmental conservation. They also ranked relatively high on other anthropocentric opinions.

Service shunners (cluster 3, n=8.2%): The majority of this group is Western (89.9%). These people disagreed with any modification of the pristine state of destination. They ranked significantly lower than the other groups on all ‘facilities and services’ behaviours. In addition, this cluster’s members showed relatively low rankings for all ‘anthropocentric’ behaviors.

Classic Western eco-tourists (cluster 4, n=15.8%): Almost all the members of this group were Western (91.2%). There was no prominent characteristic of this group except it was high on items that met the core criteria of an eco-tourist.

Service seekers (cluster 6, n=8.5%): Similar to the Classic Western eco-tourists, the majority of this group were also Westerners (90.2%). They mostly paid their attention to the services of the park compared to other visitor groups. Furthermore, they ranked relatively highest on preferring a national park that has comfortable facilities and services for visitors.

Conclusion

Although qualitative phase is still ongoing, results from quantitative phase have unveiled important findings of six groups of visitors with their characteristics according to three ecotourism criteria.
References


Developing a Management Model for Good Quality Service:
The Case of O. R Tambo International Airport

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Introduction

Airports can be seen as one of the most complex systems of modern society. The complexity is a result of a combination of different processes, services and technology at an airport (Popovic, Kraal, & Kirk, 2010; Liou, Tang, Yeh, & Tsai, 2011). Traditionally airports were seen as natural monopolies which offer its customers a take-it- or leave-it proposition. Whether one finds the terminal facilities confusing, the parking arrangements inadequate, the food and retail outlets expensive or the ground transport facilities overcrowded the customers and passengers were forced to accept the situation offered by airport authorities (Sohail & Al-Ghatani, 2005; Rhoades, Waguespack, & Young, 2000). However the perception of delivering excellent service quality and travel satisfaction for passengers has become more and more important to airports, as competition grew fiercer on a national and international level (Goh, Stout, Yuan, & Wu, 2007; Paternoster, 2007; Fodness & Murray, 2005). Airports have moved
their focuses to become thriving marketplaces that are in competition for traffic and passengers (Sickert, 2011). Passengers themselves are becoming more and more aware of service quality, and receiving or not receiving good quality service will influence their experience at the airport (Tsai & Kuo, 2001). Popovic et al. (2010) and Goh et al. (2007) have established that poor passenger experience resulting from a lack of good service quality can be identified as a threat to the city’s and country’s economic sustainability. The costs of operating airports are extremely high and providing a good level of service quality will ensure a good experience for passengers. Satisfied passengers will then spend more money whilst at the airport which will lead to increased revenue (Popovic et al., 2010; Paternoster, 2008).

Although many are responsible for delivering services, stakeholders and customers often hold the airport operator accountable for the level of service provided airport-wide. This makes the management of airports extremely difficult when excellent levels of services are expected to be provided (Paternoster, 2007). Passengers’ perceptions of airport service quality are regularly measured by academic and industry researchers to benchmark performances directly from the opinions of the customers. Measuring passenger perceptions also assist in the identifying of opportunities for service improvements. (Sohail & Al-Ghatani, 2005). Le Bel (2005) states that providing a good customer service is universally regarded as a company’s most valuable asset. The tourism industry is an industry whose quality depends on fundamental aspects of several activities interrelated with this kind of service. These intrinsic activities take place from the moment the tourists arrive until their departure. Some of the above mentioned activities have to be executed by an airport in an efficient manner to minimize travel time and let the tourists take benefit from enjoying shopping and leisure time in the commercial area of the airport at the end of their trip. Therefore it is relevant to evaluate airport facilities and quality of services that creates the visitor’s experience as a factor of tourism service commodity (Martin-Cejas, 2006). If airport management takes a strategic and holistic approach to customer service and airport branding, customer satisfaction with the airport experience can be significantly improved and airport net revenues can be tracked to show a direct relationship with increased customer satisfaction. (Paternoster, 2007)

There is no current research available in South Africa specifically on the subject of service quality and airports. Research on an international level has been done by: Fodness & Murray (2007); Goh et al. (2007); Cox (2010); Psaraki-Kalouptsidi & Kalakou (2011) and Sohail & Al-Ghatani (2005). The purpose of
this study will therefore be to evaluate and identify measures taken by management to ensure good service quality at O.R Tambo International Airport (hereafter called ORTIA). This study will also identify key areas where development is needed to ensure better service quality. ORTIA is situated in Johannesburg, South Africa and is the transport hub of Southern Africa that caters for more than 17 million passengers each year. More than 18 000 people are employed by various companies at ORTIA and the airport plays a vital role in the city’s and province’s economy. A variety of world-class facilities is available ranging from business centers, bars and restaurants and a five-star hotel. Recently ACSA spent billions on upgrading the airport for the 2010 FIFA World Cup as well as the installation of a world-class international check in and security system (ACSA, 2011; Adam & Vandershcuren, 2009).

This study will take both a qualitative and quantitative approach in order to identify the key factors that provide and enhances good airport service quality at ORTIA. For the quantitative research method 3 surveys will be conducted at O.R Tambo International Airport. For the surveys a pilot study of 20 questionnaires each will be conducted to test the validity of the questionnaires. They surveys that will be conducted are:

a) This survey will be aimed at arriving/departing passengers, measuring their experience of good service quality at the airport and identifying key factors that will enhance their perception of good service quality. An availability sampling method will be used.

b) The second survey is aimed at airport tenants to measure their perception on good quality service provided by the airport at a retail level.

c) The third survey is aimed at the low-cost and/or national airlines. Airlines that will be targeted includes: 1Time, Kulula, Mango and British Airways. The questionnaire will measure their perception on good quality service at O.R Tambo International airport and identify key factors that will enhance their experience of a good quality service.

Using the technique of qualitative research method, interviews will be conducted with managers of ACSA to gather knowledge on their perception on providing a good service quality. This will be pioneering research and the results of this project will contribute tremendously towards research and development of the Airport and Aviation industry in South Africa and also to the
current lack of research available on service quality and airports. Developing a management service quality model will furthermore assist the management of the ACSA in understanding the needs of their customers better and how to establish themselves as a more competitive airport.

References


Labour Process in the Service Sector - the Case of Tourism Service Workers in Holiday Villages in South Coast of Turkey, 1980-2010

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Introduction
This study aims to analyze the labour process in the tourism sector in southern Turkey. The study frames the labour process in the tourism sector within the changing work life as a part of dissolution of the agricultural sector and increasing weight of the service sector since 1980s. In Turkey, service sector currently employs 48.6% of the active workforce. Within services, tourism has a growing weight. With its wider effects taken into account it is considered to create 8.1% of all available jobs. 48.6% of the active workforce is employed in services whereas 25.2% in agriculture and 26.2% in industry.¹ Work conditions and management of the workforce in the service sector substantially differ from other sectors because of the interactive nature of the work in production and consumption of the service products.

¹ Türkiye İstatistik Kurumu (TÜİK), Hanehalkı İşgücü İstatistikleri (Household Labor Force Statistics), 2010.
Firstly, as part of ongoing dissolution from agriculture and working class formation, the study analyzes the new work life and social conditions of workers in the labour-intensive and mostly interactive tourism services. Service products in tourism are designed for the satisfaction of guests in an environment of recreation and relaxation that encourages additional (holiday) spending. Service products are intangible and guests are a party to the simultaneous production and consumption of these products. This situation makes guests a party to quality and labour control. This environment is equally tourism workers’ workplace whose touristic quality depends mostly on the quality of their labour. In the service sector, personal attributes of the workers are “strongly associated with the nature of work.” Service or tourism work combines these attributes and pre-job qualities of workers with skills and information attained through on-the-job-training and motivation in order to enhance the quality of the service. Who are these people and what are their qualities that make them “suitable” for this or that type of work? What kind of workers do they become for what kind of tasks? How do they interact with guests and co-workers?

Serving the guests is a workforce employed at different levels within an enterprise. While some workers have an interactive relation with the guests others remain (partially) invisible. This study will look at large scale holiday villages and analyze how the workforce is divided into strata. What are the differences among workers employed at different levels within these enterprises in terms of gender, ethnicity, and geography of origin, age, education, and status? How do they differ in terms of the structure of their households (single, married, greater family, or else)? How do they differ in terms of the work contract according to which their working conditions, wages and time of employment are structured? The answers could give insight about the nature of tourism service work and reveal certain cultural and economic particularities of a developing country such as Turkey in terms of new work life conditions.

Secondly, in the globally competitive tourism sector, tourism enterprises’ reputation and profitability depend largely on the quality of workers’ “performing” the service product. Since production of such a product involves workers’ behaviour and emotions, control of such a workforce and manage-
ment of the service product take different forms. As “the service labour process involves the manufacture of relationships and the production of feeling states in workers and customers,” management of the service relationship requires strategies that control the workforce without “spoiling the service relationship.”

It is in the interest of the employer to “specify exactly how workers look, exactly what they say, their demeanors, their gestures, their moods, even their thoughts.” The measures to ensure workers’ compliance may include standardization, routinization, indoctrination, empowerment etc. that are “penetrating into more aspects of workers’ psychic and personal lives.”

How are the enterprises managed? What are the criteria according to which the enterprises select their workers to be employed at different sections and strata in their facilities? What are the various mechanisms of monitoring, supervising, managing and controlling the employees? Do these measures vary according to demographic characteristics of the employees and according to their sections and strata in the workplace and how? Understanding of these strategies and worker responses to them will shed light upon the labour process in the tourism industry in particular and organization of service work in general.

The weight of relational aspects in production and consumption of the service product and value of the labour involved present certain novelties into the labour process in services. Accordingly, management of the workforce and the service product take different forms. First, in production of the service product workers’ characteristics, selfhood, attitudes and emotions are integrated into the process. Arlie R. Hochschild emphasizes the importance of workers’ “emotional labour” in production of the service product and states that this labour requires workers “to induce or suppress the feeling in order to sustain the outward countenance that produces the proper state of mind in others.” Second, the dyadic relationship between worker and manager in the manufacturing sector becomes a tripartite one between worker, manager and customer in the service sector. The tripartite integrates customer into the control mechanisms. In the new customer orientation, the need to serve “differentiated consumer expectations” involves a labour force that is granted considerable autonomy for the sake of sensible relationship production. Thus, the new consumer orientation becomes a new employee orientation with new labour control mecha-

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4 Macdonald & Sirianni, op.cit., p. 5-11.
6 Macdonald & Sirianni, op.cit., p. 11.
nisms. Autonomy to worker becomes essential especially when customers demand and appreciate “customized attention.” Autonomy of a worker in her/his serving the customer, however, could also be regarded as a form of control mechanism of the tripartite relation.\(^8\) Nevertheless, tripartite relation around production and consumption of the product is prone to different “alliances” between customers, managers and workers due to conflicting and converging interests among the parties.\(^9\)

Since service product is “performed” as a social relation and creates an experience, it is harder to standardize service labour compared to manufacturing and agriculture. Performance aspect of the product brings into picture the culture, knowledge, feelings, communication skills and experience of workers. Presence and participation of customers in production of the service product further complicate the process. Yet, enterprises try to develop their own regulations with an attempt to “rationalize workers’ self-presentation and feelings as well as their behaviour” in order to guarantee quality service provision to the client while reducing costs.\(^10\) These regulations expand from workplace into personal lives, thoughts and feelings of workers.

A world becoming more mobile with flexible employment and new labour control mechanisms in an era of globalization blurs the boundaries between work, home and leisure, which changes the understanding of work and introduces new work experiences.\(^11\) This necessitates a closer consideration of the conditions at work along with determinants outside of the workplace to better understand the labour process, organization of work and changing work life conditions and work culture with the rise of the services in the global economy.

In this study, labour process and working conditions in tourism sector are analyzed within the framework of decreasing employment in agricultural sector and growing weight of the services sector in the world and Turkish economy. Services employ in European economies between 52-74% and in the USA over 70% of the workforce. There is an overall rise in the importance of tertiary

\(^8\) Macdonald & Sirianni mentions this as “pseudoautonomy,” \textit{op.cit.}, p. 11.
\(^9\) Leidner, \textit{op.cit.}, p. 41, and Macdonald & Sirianni, \textit{op.cit.}, pp. 4-5.
\(^10\) Leidner, \textit{op.cit.}, pp. 2-3.
industries in the world economy, even within manufacturing where the volume of services has been increasing.\textsuperscript{12}

Such a change in employment patterns and other social changes take place during a time of transition from Keynesianism to neoliberal globalization. “[A] new discipline of labour and management to the benefit of lenders and shareholders… the diminished intervention of the state concerning development and welfare… the dramatic growth of financial institutions… and the new determination to drain the resources of the periphery toward the center” could be counted among the characteristics of this new model.\textsuperscript{13}

Global competition for lowering costs and maximizing profits brings about an intensified commodification,\textsuperscript{14} further proletarianization, and widening inequalities between the rich and the poor that redraw boundaries of social inclusion and exclusion. With the introduction of labour market deregulation, weakening of welfare institutions, flexible work and new regulations, understanding of work also changes. Neoliberal restructuring, which comes after the era of national developmentalism, force considerable segments of the populations into ‘flexible’ non-standard and low skill jobs. Large segments both at the center and the periphery are left without full-time employment opportunities and deprived of social security or older protective social networks and trade union support that are being dissolved under pressures of global capitalism.

In the tourism sector in general, ‘decent’ jobs are found at the managerial level and to a lesser degree at front-line services while low-skill jobs are associated with task-based, ‘backstage’ work, which employ women to a large extent. Both front-line workers such as hosts, waiters, concierge, receptionists, doormen, entertainers, and backstage workers such as cooking and cleaning staff, and maintenance workers could be employed flexibly.


\textsuperscript{14}“…the contemporary market economy is significantly based on the subordination of areas of human activity to market forces (such as intellectual property, works of scientific community, and other forms of knowledge), which, until now, were not commodified in any real sense of the word.” Qtd in Ayşe Buğra & Kaan Ağartan, “Conclusion,” in Ayşe Buğra & Kaan Ağartan (eds), \textit{Reading Karl Polanyi for the Twenty-First Century: Market Economy as a Political Project}, NY: Palgrave Macmillan, 2007, p. 256.
In a recent article referring to Giovanni Arrighi’s research on the connections between agricultural transformation and labour supplies for capitalist employment, Çağlar Keyder and Zafer Yenal outline the peculiar historical paths of agrarian transformation and proletarianization in Turkey. In the aftermath of WWII, the structure of urban commodity markets and informal work relations contributed to a process of semi-proletarianization or “capital accumulation without dispossession.” With the exception of the Kurdish population who were pushed out of agriculture mostly through coercive measures of the state rather than pulled toward the urban economy through market mechanism, the agrarian transformation in Turkey did not bring about full proletarianization and reproduction through formal means. Yet, aggravated by neoliberal policies, dispossession and depeasantization in the Kurdish case could bring about neither successful proletarianization nor offer informal welfare mechanisms available to earlier migrants.15 These specific paths of agricultural transformation, relations to the agricultural sector and thus the type of proletarianization have an influence on work conditions and work-family balance. Although capitalism’s uneven influence on geographies should be stressed, it is clear that both push and pull factors leave an ever decreasing population in agriculture, having to diversify their incomes, modify reproduction strategies and release labour for additional economic activities, especially in the fertile regions adjacent to southern and south western Anatolian coasts.16 Yet, not all that sought and seek employment outside of agriculture could find secure, full time, and formal employment. Keyder and Yenal contend that in the era of ‘disorganized capitalism’ “part-time proletarian households… [prevail] across the world.”17

In conclusion, this study will produce new data on the one hand on working conditions of tourism workers based on workers’ assessments of their work and the changes these conditions bring into their lives. On the other, the data will shed light on the nature of tourism employment and labour process in the tourism sector in Turkey while framing these within the changing relations between capital and labour on a global scale with the ensuing transformations in work life. The study will contribute to the understanding of working class formation during an era of neoliberal restructuring when the weight of services in economy is increasing.

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17 Ibid., pp. 55-56.


Sexuality on the Beach: Understanding Empowerment and the Fluidity of Power in the Experiences of African American Women on Jamaican Holiday

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Introduction

Intercultural communication sits at the nexus of intersecting oppressions. As a discipline, “intercultural communication focuses on the interactions between people from different cultural backgrounds” (Chen & Starosta, 2005, p.13). As a scholarly endeavor, a responsibility exists with promoting our global community’s ability to intercommunicate effectively. Tourism is an area ripe for interdisciplinary research. Globally, tourism represents a sector of the economy that supports a variety of industries. Many nations are economically dependent on the tourism industry (Belliveau, 2006; Mullings, 1999).

The emergence of sex tourism research suggests the prominence of sex as a component of the tourism industry. While advertisements fall short of promoting prostitution, many countries, such as Brazil, Thailand, Jamaica, Gambia, and Greece, have a reputation as havens for tourists seeking sex with the host population (Belliveau, 2006). Due to the variety of intercultural, feminist and
post-colonial implications, sex tourism is a growing area of study and concern for social scientists.

**Statement of the Problem**

There has been a shift in the conceptual framework that introduces alternative ideologies behind women’s participation in sex tourism. Whether classified as sex, romance, or companion tourism, there is a need for a conceptual framework that can examine the fluidity of power within the interactions. Approaching the relationship between tourism and sexuality concerning women intersectionally assumes that power can be enacted and usurped concomitantly. A problem that emerges from the research is the understanding of female sexuality as function of intersectional oppression. Specifically, determining an appropriate terminology to describe women’s interactions with local men requires accounts that give a voice to women as agents. Currently, the research takes its focus on western White women (Jeffreys, 2003; Kempadoo, 1999, 2004; Mullings, 1999; Phillips, 2008; Sanchez-Taylor, 2000, 2001). African American women as tourists are somewhat of a muted group in sex/romance/companion tourism research, where they are spoken of by men, alluded to by researchers, but their experiences are not the object of study (Kempadoo, 1999, 2004; Sanchez-Taylor, 2000). With the indication of African American women as participants in sex tourism, comes the assumption that this is a form of sexual expression for African American women.

African American women’s sexuality has been constrained and subdued in a western cultural context. Cornel West (2004) asserts that Black sexuality remains a taboo subject both inside and outside the Black community. The remnants of chattel slavery, undue surveillance placed on black bodies, and hypersexualized representations have led to a skewed sensibility of sexuality in the Black community (Collins, 2000, 2004, 2005; West, 2004). Coping with injustice and the trying to counter the negative imagery associated with Black sexuality has led to a silencing of sexuality. As the taboo subject, African American women’s sexuality is problematic. The experiences of African American women as participants in sex/romance/companion tourism can illuminate ways that African American women explore, express, and communicate sexuality.

**Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of this study is to explore the lived experiences of African American women as tourists to understand the fluidity of power in the intercultural
context of the sexuality. Undertaken from a intercultural communication perspective, the study investigates the intersections of race, class, gender, nation, and sexuality in the interactions between African American women and local men. It is important to note that this study is concerned with sex and tourism. More specifically, sexuality’s intersectional contours in the tourist space. Oppermann (1999) suggests, the dynamics of “sex tourism” are varied and do not always fit into standard definitions. This study seeks to break away from a binary thought process in sex tourism research. At the same time, it does not refrain from being included in the body of sex tourism research despite its reluctance to use the traditional means of critical inquiry which situates the victimizer/victimized stereotype as central (daSilva & Blanchette, 2009). While “sex tourism” research implies sex tourism as premeditated, this study investigates sex as a component of vacationing, and not the purpose of the vacation. Sex tourism is considered to be inclusive of behavior and practice by the researcher, not limited to commercial sex transactions (Hall, 2001, as cited in Willcox, 2009). Similarly, sex, and sex acts of tourists are not automatically viewed by the researcher as deviant behaviors. Thus, the purpose of this study is to continue to contest the marginality of women in research, and the limitations of patriarchal bias present in conceptions of sexuality in further investigating the implications of the research of Pruitt and Lafont (1995).

**Research Questions**

In the qualitative tradition, this study is led by the central question:

**CQ.** How do African American women perceive their interactions with local men while vacationing in Jamaica?

The research is focused by three sub-questions,

1. How is power communicated and reportedly negotiated within the interactions between African American women and local Jamaican men? How does the fluidity of power manifest at the intersections of race, class, gender, sexuality, and nationality?

2. To what extent do African American women have communication networks about sex/romance tourism? How does power manifest in this discourse?

3. Do the experiences of African American women or their communication networks surrounding sex/romance tourism have any liberatory potential?
The goal of this study is to add the lived experiences of African American women as tourists in Jamaica with local Jamaican men to the existing body of communication, feminist, and sex tourism research in order to promote social change in the context of sexuality.

**Theoretical Framework**

Intersectionality offers a framework that contextualizes the African American female experience in U.S. America and her embodiment when she travels abroad. As an analytical tool, intersectionality illuminates sites of oppression and gives a framework for how those oppressions operate in the everyday (Collins, 2005). The degree to which an African American woman is perceived to be African American first, and American second varies based upon her global location. Nonetheless, in the context of sex tourism research, Western does not identify her social location as tourist in the same way as it does a White woman (De Albuquerque, 1998; Kempadoo, 2004). Andersen and Collins’ (2004) intersectional model holds that “race, class, and gender are manifested differently, depending on their configuration with the others” (p.8). The intersectional framework moves away from privileging one category over the other because to name one category as an agent of oppression, runs the risk of underplaying how specific oppressions work in tandem.

**Methodology**

This study used the qualitative method of semi-structured in-depth interviews. The study was populated using a purposive sampling method of snowball sampling. Interviews were conducted with 21 African American women, ages 22-60, who traveled to Jamaica for vacation in the past 15 years without a spouse. At the conclusion of data collection, the interviews were transcribed. The transcriptions were then interpreted using an inductive approach of thematic analysis, defined by Strauss & Corbin (1998) as “conceptualizing, reducing, elaborating, and relating” (p. 13). The themes were coded using an intersectionality as an analytical tool.

**Results**

African American women as tourists in Jamaica reconstructed their interactions with Jamaican men in five ways: a) their perception as being “othered” and received by Jamaican men as a tourist, b) their understanding of their sexual objectification by Jamaican men based on their perception of cultural differences between African American men and Jamaican men and their perceived motiva-
tions of Jamaican men’s communication with them, c) their sexuality as a tourist and the power dynamics embedded in their interactions with local Jamaican men, d) the ways in which they communicate their experiences through the use of coded language, and give meaning to their experiences as empowering and perceptions of the potential and intent of their relationships with local men, e) the perceptions of the meaning of sex/romance tourism for themselves and other tourists. The following themes described in the findings section are: 1) Reconstruction of Tourist, 2) Reconstruction of Sexual Objectification, 3) Reconstruction of Sexuality, 4) Reconstruction of Experiences, and 5) Reconstruction of the Sex/Romance/Companion Tourism Paradigm.

Perception, the salient feature of this investigation, shapes way in which we see the world and consists of a three step process: selective attention, selective organization, and selective interpretation (Ting Toomey & Chen, 2012). The women in this study selected cues based on their needs and expectations as an African American female tourist in an international context. Women in this study also utilized their preconceived perceptions and experiences with Jamaican men to organize their environment and signify meaning in their interactions with Jamaican men while they were tourists. Finally, the women in this study used this selective processing to interpret their experiences and communicate these experiences to the researcher.

Ting Toomey & Chen (2012) conclude that human perception is always shaped by our “cultural conditioning process.” The perceptions of the women of the study are informed and shaped by the embodiment of marginalization. Additionally, their perceptions of their own power, and the power dynamics involved in their interactions became fluid in the process of being tourists in an environment in which they were unfamiliar and therefore engaged the stages of human perception in an intercultural communication context. The women’s reconstruction of their experiences in their interviews displayed fluidity of both the fluidity of power and the instances of empowerment. The remainder of this chapter details the ways in which the women’s perceptions as African American female tourists simultaneously uphold and reject hegemonic constructs of sexuality and power at the intersections of race, class, gender, sexuality, and nation.

In the theme of the Reconstruction of Tourist, the co-researchers recon-structed themselves as tourists. The “otherizing” of African American women is familiar to the co-researchers in their lived experience in America, and their comfort and attention to difference is evidenced in their lived experiences as
tourists in Jamaica. Difference became a salient feature of their tourist identities, and the co-researchers continued to see themselves as “others” outside of US borders. This otherization was reconstructed positively, however, as it was to distinguish themselves as distinctly different from other Western tourists in three ways: a) racial commonality, b) appearance, and c) their perceptions of difference as compared to Western tourists with respect to race and nationality.

In the theme Reconstruction of Objectification, sexual objectification became positive at the intersections of gender, sexuality, and nationality for the women. Where African American women’s sexuality is often constructed negatively, the women reconstructed their sexual objectification by Jamaican men positively through their perceptions of cultural influences on Jamaican men’s masculinity and sexuality. Similarly, the women perceived that they were objectified in part because of Jamaican men’s perception of them having wealth as American citizens. Therefore, the privilege of class and nation allowed the women to reconstruct their objectification and feel empowered by it. Supporting the goal of this critical scholarship, the women’s experiences offered liberatory potential, most prominently in the area of sexuality, and presented an opportunity for new directions in the conceptualization of sex tourism.

References


Visitor Perceptions of the Hong Kong Global Geopark of China

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Introduction

Newly admitted to the Global Geoparks Network (“GGN”) as a UNESCO World Heritage Site in 2011, The Hong Kong Global Geopark of China (“HKGGC”) was initially established to protect and conserve geological heritage and to promote geological knowledge to Hong Kong citizens and overseas tourists. It has entered the third year’s operation as a protected area, experiencing active management and continual visitation which expects an increase after recent GGN designation. This study explores visitor expectation, experience and satisfaction, and applies research findings to optimize site and visitor management.

Data collection was conducted from July to October 2011, and over 600 structured questionnaire surveys and 150 visitor-employed photography (“VEP”) sets were gathered. The VEP involves participants jotting down their immediate thoughts while photographing objects that affect their HKGGC ex-
experience. Each method has its own strength, and the results were integrated to generate more informative and in-depth exploration of respondents’ mind.

Results show that advancement in geological knowledge and satisfaction of site infrastructure were generally acquired; improvements in particular aspects (i.e. transportation and display of geological information) were suggested by visitors. Photos of and feelings prompted by elements encountered were successfully recorded through VEP. With unique methodology and an increasingly important study area, this research certainly breaks new ground.

**Study Area and Sites for Data Collection**

The HKGGC is an area designated for the protection of remarkable geological formations and landforms and is managed for the co-existence of nature conservation, nature education and geotourism activities. The area was chosen for this research primarily for its popularity with both local and overseas visitors, short history of management and abundance of natural-cum-cultural attractions; the importance of the research has also risen along with the park’s conformation as a UNESCO Global Geopark. The management authority of the HKGGC, the Agricultural, Fisheries and Conservation Department (“AFCD”), has identified eight Geo-areas in two distinct rock regions, namely the Northeast New Territories Sedimentary Rock Region and the Sai Kung Volcanic Rock Region. Signature features include a shoreline and entire islands made up of hexagonal rock columns, tower-like sedimentary rock formations and uniquely-shaped rocks, which, with imagination, are given vernacular and popular names such as the Devil’s Fist. Data collection was conducted at five sites, with a combination of pier and land sites in order to meet visitors heading for island and onshore sites alike; this proved to be a successful strategy as the research was able to cover all key sites within the HKGGC. Three consecutive months of data collection were concluded in October 2011, with data analysis underway as of January 2012.

**Research Objectives**

As a pioneer in academic research of the area, this study seeks to assess visitors’ understanding, perception and satisfaction of the resource base, infrastructure, facilities and management of the HKGGC and to understand the visitor experience as a whole. Investigation of visitors’ awareness of the status of the HKGGC and such influence on in visitor choice and behaviour is another objective of the study. Lastly, the acquisition of geological information and knowledge is another focus in order to explore the educational aspect of the
HKGGC. Findings would then be applied to optimize site and visitor management in the HKGGC, and may also prove to be valuable to management of geoparks and natural areas in other countries.

Research Hypothesis

This research tests the following hypotheses: (i) The Geopark’s local, national and international status does not affect visitor choice. (ii) There are significant differences of the satisfaction levels among local visitors and overseas tourists, and local visitors with different demographic backgrounds and related travel experience. (iii) Visitors can acquire more geological knowledge through the visit; such acquirement has a direct relationship with satisfaction levels. (iv) Visitors are generally satisfied with their trip, with expectations met to a large extent. (v) Results of the VEP exercise vary to a great extent with relevant parts of the questionnaire survey.

Methodology

Data collection sites were situated at the entrance of or within HKGGC sites in order to intercept participants at the initial stages of their journey. Some 699 quantitative visitor surveys were collected, forming the core of the study and 201 visitor-employed photography (“VEP”) sets complement and enrich the originally expert-driven study by eliciting visitor perceptions through an experiential approach. Data generated by these two methods will initially be analysed separately. For VEP sets which have an accompanied questionnaire, analysis will identify corresponding areas and to evaluate the effectiveness of eliciting perceptions through different research methods.

Visitor Survey

The structured questionnaire consists of five parts: (a) travel and demographic characteristics, (b) reasons for visit and activities conducted at site, (c) attitudes towards management of site and facilities, (d) geological knowledge and statement responses, and (e) socioeconomic characteristics. Of the 699 questionnaires collected, Chinese was used in 90.6% whereas and 9.4% of the respondents chose to answer in English. Due to varying site characteristics and participants’ preference, 57.9% of the questionnaires were collected on-site whereas 40.2% were returned by mail.
VEP exercise

VEP is a research method applied in tourism, recreation and also landscape and scenic quality research (Garrod 2008; Taylor et al. 1995). In the current research, VEP participants were each given a disposable camera and a log book; they were asked to shoot photos of elements that “have an effect on their journey”, and to make notes that correspond to each photo in the log book simultaneously. Photo logs are of ultimate importance to VEP research as they are the keys to understanding each photograph and what actually went on in the participants’ minds at that point-of-time.

This method makes use of the inherently reflexive action of pressing the shutter (MacKay & Couldwell, 2004) and to generate results in the form of photographs and notes which are “real-time” and “organic” (MacKay & Couldwell, 2004; Taylor et al., 1995; Garrod, 2007). VEP also overcomes the dynamic nature of outdoor recreation experiences (Taylor et al. 1995), and can provide a record of visitors’ thoughts and feelings from beginning to end. Since each participant has a unique background and point-of-view, a diverse range of photographed subjects and deep recorded thoughts are expected; all of which, are impossible to gather with more conventional research methods.

The study reaped 201 VEP sets with a total of 1866 photos, resulting in an average of 9.3 photos per VEP respondent. This is quite an optimistic number and many practical problems, i.e. collection of VEP sets, mentioned in VEP literature and studies were overcome by research design. This study method proved interesting to most visitors, and positive feedback were expressed to the researcher either orally or in written form in the VEP log where a subject related to the VEP research (i.e. the researcher, the photo log etc.) was photographed. It was expressed that the study helped them see the HKGGC from another perspective, in more detail or simply added enjoyment to their journey. However, there were some common rejection responses which were valuable to research design; many agreed to participate if the study only requires photo-taking, but they found it burdensome as soon as they realize they had to fill in the log alongside. Research design should be able to alleviate this concern, but the burden upon the participant is inevitable to a certain extent for the sake of access to and record of in-depth and valuable thoughts through VEP.

Research Significance

This research is an innovative utilization of VEP in conjunction with questionnaire surveys in visitor perception studies and also an exceptional application
of visitor perception study to a geopark area, not to mention a geopark that is listed under the GGN. More research of the latter form should be called for as rising visitation numbers and surging demands for facilities in a managed area crowned with an accolade is unavoidable, and the more challenging it would be to be able to satisfy, or even exceed expectations and to upkeep the condition of irreplaceable natural endowments at the same time.

References


Pro-Poor Tourism for Rural Poverty Alleviation in Setiu Wetland, Malaysia: Unlocking the Potential of Tourism Using Value Chain Analysis

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Introduction

As in many other developing countries, tourism is one of the key drivers of Malaysia’s socioeconomic development (WTO, 2008). Tourism represents a strong economic opportunity for Malaysia (Nair, Mohamad, & Hamzah, 2009). The tourist-eye view of the global tourism map shows that the large scale of tourism are in countries like Mexico, Thailand and Malaysia compared with the powerhouses of the world economy, like United States, Japan, and Germany (Mitchell, 2010). Malaysia recorded 24.6 million tourist arrivals in 2010, a surge of 58.5% in 10 years compared to 10.2 million arrivals in 2000 (Tourism Malaysia, 2011). In terms of poverty, Malaysia is considered a successful case in poverty alleviation among developing countries. Its poverty rate has reduced from 16.5% in 1990 to 3.8% in 2009 (EPU, 2009). As such the Malaysian government has taken a more aggressive approach to eradicate poverty in the 10th Malaysian Plan (2011 – 2015) with a target of reducing poverty to 2.0% and
eradicate hard-core poverty by 2015 (EPU, 2010). However, although the issue of poverty alleviation in Malaysia received special attention, poverty rates remain the highest in the predominantly rural states of Kelantan, Terengganu, Kedah, Sabah and Sarawak (EPU, 2007). One of the two-pronged approaches to poverty alleviation is with tourism, since it’s the fastest growing industry for the past century. As tourism is such a relatively significant sector in Malaysia, and eradicating rural poverty is also an important agenda for the country, it is crucial to explore how Pro-Poor Tourism (PPT) initiatives can help to reduce poverty while boosting the tourism industry in Malaysia especially in rural areas. PPT differs significantly from alternative forms of tourism. Firstly, and most importantly, the success of PPT initiatives is judged purely on what effect it has on the primary stakeholders, the poor.

Setiu Wetland, Malaysia – among the largest wetland in Malaysia and the only wetland in the country which contains and supports both freshwater and marine habitats – covers 79% of the district of Setiu in its catchment area (ECERDC, 2010). Setiu has been ranked as the second poorest district in the state of Terengganu by Malaysia Economic Planning Unit, which led to the state government aggressively pursuing development projects for poverty alleviation. On the other hand, it is also blessed with tourist attractions especially agricultural, natural, heritage, and cultural resources that are largely untapped or neglected. These factors led to the significance of Setiu Wetland as the case study area of this research.

**Value Chain Analysis – Unlocking The Potential of Tourism**

Tourism value chain analysis and intervention is an emerging approach to poverty alleviation through tourism. Since tourism is not a simple industry, since it is a service that cannot be stored, its value chain is not straightforward either. The production and consumption of tourism services is usually simultaneous and takes place at a specific geographic location which is the tourist destination (Sofield, 2007). This approach is not new in the tourism world either, where it has been adapted to follow the service-delivery and tourist-spending chain in tourism businesses and destinations respectively (Faal & Mitchell, 2006). However, it has only recently been adopted by development organizations as a sound way to measure and increase the linkage of tourism activities for the poor. And it’s showing potential. As Value chain analysis is the centre of research, the process of input supply, production, trade and consumption of a product needs to be clearly explained in order to understand the workings of the economic chain (Bolwig, Ponte, du Toit, Riisgaard, & Halberg, 2008:9;
Kaplinsky & Morris, 2002). This approach allows us to map specific linkages between other sectors and tourism and determine how tourism can best make a contribution to poverty reduction within accepted government policy structures (Sofield & Tamasese, 2011).

Methodology

One of the central principles of Pro-Poor Tourism is creating linkages between the poor and the tourism industry, and Value Chain Analysis is the focus of this research on utilizing and exploring this new methodological concept to PPT discourse. The entry point and orientation of value chain analysis is to map specific linkages between the selected sectors and tourism in order to determine what opportunities and where in the chain tourism can best make a contribution to poverty alleviation. Therefore, the approach is oriented towards analysing the value chain from the poor point of view. This research adopted the TPRP Opportunity Guidelines (ITC, 2009) and M4P Value Chain tool book (DFID, 2008) structured three different phases of methodology: Phase One: Diagnosis of Current Situation and Context; Phase Two: Prioritising the Potential Value Chain; and Phase Three: Mapping the Value Chain Selected (Figure 1). The research methods used for this study were a combination of quantitative and qualitative methods, complemented with secondary research beforehand and after the fieldwork. The quantitative data consist of a consumer survey (tourist questionnaire) and producer survey (head of household questionnaire). The qualitative data consist of several semi-structured interviews with a number of professional bodies and private sector stakeholders including the accommodation providers and tour operator.

Results

The value chains chosen for analysis were the fisheries and aquaculture sector and handicraft sector. These two value chain were chosen based on the initial selection analysis, which were determined by several criteria; 1) Pro-poor growth opportunities, 2) Potential for Pro-poor income, 3) Accessibility, 4) Marginality and 5) Diversity. Economic linkages between tourism and the local economy sectors such as fishing and handicraft were found to be weak in Setiu Wetland. The poor people strongly felt that tourism should play a much bigger role in strengthening these linkages and contribute to the improvement of their livelihoods. There is evidence of interest within the industry for sourcing locally produced supplies; additionally there are more community-based accommodation supplies in Setiu.
Fisheries and aquaculture control a large share of the food value chain in Se-tiu wetland since it’s the major economic produce sector. Even though the aquaculture sector doesn’t contribute as high as the marine fisheries, this sector has been identified as having the most potential for the pro-poor strategies programme. Most of the fishermen depend a great deal on the Fishermen’s Association which controls the distribution market of the resources and acts as the middlemen for the fishermen. However, the pro-poor income from this chain is quite high due to strong demand from tourism enterprises for local supplies.
The handicraft sector emerges as a very significant item of tourist expenditure for poor and sufficient households. The proportion of spend that accrues to these households is relatively high for two reasons: the nature of the products, which rely heavily on local materials and traditional skills; and the type of outlets, which are generally small family-owned. Some of the handicraft producers depend a great deal on middlemen whose to sell their product, as well as direct sales to retailers and tourists. However, many small craft producers lack the lucrative markets that can boost their sales considerably and sustain their livelihood.

A wide range of strategies are required to capitalize the benefits of tourism for the poor. Efforts are needed in capacity building, training, access to financial funds, marketing, linkages with the private sector, and also policy and regulation which are pro-poor. This requires working across different levels and stakeholders comprising of the government, private sector, non-governmental organizations, community organizations and the poor themselves, all having very different and critical roles to play.

Conclusion

The value chain analysis study demonstrates the potential to strengthen linkages between the tourism sector and Setiu fishermen and small holder handicraft producers to contribute to poverty alleviation. This research is designed to focus on the market (demand side) of the tourism industry’s needs for seafood and handicrafts in tandem with production (supply side). In this context, tourism offers the opportunity to become a key driver in achieving the twin objectives of improving fishing, aquaculture and handicraft output and reducing poverty. In Malaysia, PPT is a government-dominated development approach. Its practices have not met expectations in operational efficiency and sustainability because of high government interference and a lack of community initiatives. However, the pro-poor tourism project by the East Coast Economic Region Development Council (ECERDC) collaborated with a few stakeholder will soon prove the best way to support the sustainable economic development for Setiu Wetland. The link between tourism and the two sectors has been explained to show how the these sectors relates to tourism and how tourism therefore can play a role in enhancing the opportunities for local poor.
References


Role of Social Tourism in Self-efficacy and Job-seeking Activity of Unemployed Family Members

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Introduction

Recent research upon social tourism specifically, has provided findings with regard to the positive impact of tourism participation on the personal development and well-being of disadvantaged populations, such as families and children in need, and individuals living in low-income (Smith & Hughes, 1999; Minnaert et al., 2009; McCabe, 2009). On the other hand, and despite the increasing research interest in social tourism, there are no tourism studies that focus on unemployed individuals, the largest subgroup of people living in low-income, exploring the potential impact of tourism participation on their lives. The purpose of this study is to examine whether tourism experiences can affect the beliefs of unemployed people, with specific reference to the way they view their capabilities (self-efficacy) and the probability of reemployment (job-
seeking). If tourism has such a potential to affect positively the social-cognitive states of unemployed individuals and to boost behavioural changes with regard job-search and reemployment, then social tourism could be taken into consideration as a policy-tool to reduce unemployment.

**Literature review**

It can be said that tourism and unemployment are two opposite forces, from the point of view of their impact upon individuals, their lives, and the societies they inhibit. According to many studies, tourism appears to have a positive contribution on peoples’ well-being, self-development and quality of life as a rest and recuperation from work (Cohen, 1979; Krippendorf, 1987; Urry, 1995; Neal et al., 1999; Gilbert & Abdullah, 2004). In contrast, unemployment results in socioeconomic deprivation and has dramatic consequences on physical and mental health of individuals (McKee-Ryan et al., 2005). The impact of unemployment on individuals’ self-concept and well-being has in turn, a negative influence on their motivation for action, which affects negatively the process of job-seeking and thus the probability of reemployment (Jahoda, Lazarsfeld, & Zeisel, 1933/2002; Sen, 1997; Machin & Manning, 1998; Wadsworth et al., 1999). The socioeconomic isolation of the unemployed, results in significant costs for the societies, both financial and social.

Specific studies upon the job-seeking behaviour of unemployed people (see Eden & Aviram, 1993), assert that self-efficacy beliefs can play a crucial role in altering negative behavioural patterns. “Self-efficacy refers to people’s beliefs about their capabilities to exercise control over events that affect their lives” (Bandura, 1989, p. 1175). According to social cognitive theory, the two main sources of self-efficacy, performance accomplishments and vicarious experiences, are based on participation and observation, respectively (Bandura & Adams, 1977). Within these two elements, lies the potential link between tourism and self-efficacy beliefs, due to the fact that the tourism experience is also based on participation and observation. Although tourism participation has not been linked to the concept of self-efficacy in the existing literature, evidence in relation to the potential of tourism to boost behavioural changes within individuals in general and low-income groups specifically, could be a starting point for the exploration of such a relationship, within the context of unemployment.

**Research Design**

Participants in this study represent over 2000 low-income families within the UK, who went on holiday in 2011, through the support of the Family Holiday
Association, the major provider of social tourism in the country. In order to apply for a holiday break, a family must meet the following criteria: live on a low-income, has not been on holiday for the past four years, has at least one child of three years of age or over, and has been referred by a welfare agent (e.g. social workers, charities, and schools). The sample was purposive as family members had to meet additional and more specific requirements in order to be eligible to participate in this study. More specifically, people who were unemployed (in job-seekers allowance), who stated in their application form that unemployment was their major constraint, and did not have any other major constraint such as severe disability or alcohol and substance dependency, were screened out.

**Characteristics of the sample**

Of the 57 respondents in the final sample, 16 (28.1%) were males and 41 (71.9%) females. More than two-thirds of the sample fell into the 30-36 (40.4%) and 24-29 (31.6%) age-groups. Almost one-third (29.8%) of the participants were residents of Yorkshire and the Humber. Another one-third (31.6%) were residents of Midlands (East and West), and East of England.

A large majority of the participants (77.2%) were long-term unemployed (unemployed for more than 12 months) and a relatively large minority (12.3%) had never worked. Caring responsibilities was the most important factor, which restricted individuals from work (59.6%). Health issues restricted from work 17.5% of the participants, whereas 15.8% stated that they didn’t have any restrictions to work. With regard to last occupation before unemployment, 42.1% were service and sales workers, 15.8% labourers in manufacturing, construction and transport, and 12.3% cleaners and food preparation assistants (kitchen staff). A large minority, 14.0% had never been in employment and 12.3% were in professional jobs. The most common educational level was secondary education (49.1%). This was followed by higher education, such as college/NVQ (33.3%), and no education (8.8%).

Before the holiday-break, the majority of the participants (70.2%) were not looking for work. One the other hand, from those looking for work, almost one out of four participants was looking for more than six months. More specifically, 14.0% were looking for work between 7-12 months and 8.8% more than 12 months. After the holiday-break, still the majority of the participants were not looking for work (56.1%), but with a significant increase of those looking for work (from 29.8% to 43.9%).
Site/method of recruitment

Recruitment/data collection started in mid-April 2011 at the Family Holiday Association’s office in London with the short listing of application forms, which met the requirements of this study. In total 184 application forms were short listed representing 263 individuals. Respondents were initially approached through their welfare agents and all initial contacts were made approximately one month before each family’s departure through email and by post. A self-administered pre-holiday questionnaire was sent to the welfare agents, together with an information letter about the study, an invitation letter for the families, and an informed consent form. Postage also included a free-post envelope. The survey had to be completed anytime within four weeks before the holiday-break. Email reminders were sent to welfare agents who did not reply, one week after the initial contact and one week before the family’s departure date. Similarly, a self-administered post-holiday questionnaire was sent to the welfare agents, whose families took part in the pre-holiday survey, through email and by post. The survey was sent together with a thank you letter, while families were on holiday. The post-holiday survey had to be completed anytime within eight weeks after the holiday-break. Email reminders were sent to welfare agents who did not reply, one week, four weeks, and seven weeks after the family’s return date.

Response rate

The pre-holiday survey conducted between August-October 2011 and the post-holiday survey between September-December of the same year. 73 individuals (28% response rate) participated in the pre-holiday survey. From those, 57 individuals (78%) completed the post-holiday survey. As an incentive for family members to take part in the research, the Family Holiday Association kindly offered a free holiday-break in 2012 for one family. Despite this generous incentive, participation rates could be seen as relatively low, however marginalised groups, such as low-income families are more difficult to access/approach than other social groups. In addition, many of the welfare agents were on annual leave during the summer, and in many cases they replied when the families they represented were already on holiday.
Holiday intervention

Unlike other studies on self-efficacy and job-seeking behaviour, which use artificial settings (e.g. workshops, training) specifically designed to boost self-efficacy and job-seeking, this research is based on a real life setting, the holiday-break and anything that this holiday may involved (e.g. destination, duration, activities, other experiences). The duration of the holiday-break varied between 4-7 nights, and most of the holiday-breaks were in parks, such as in Devon and Skegness.

Measures

General self-efficacy (GSE) was measured using a revised version of the 8-item NGSE scale developed by Chen et al. (2001). The original scale was revised due to issues of wording, which came up during the pilot study. The scale is a five-point Likert scale with ‘strongly disagree’ to ‘strongly agree’ as anchors. Internal consistency reliability was high with coefficient alphas .87 in T1 and .92 in T2. In studies conducted by Chen et al. (2001) among different samples in two time periods, alpha coefficients varied between .86 and .90 (sample of 323 undergraduates), and .85 and .88. (sample of 54 managers).

Job-seeking activity was assessed with an amended 6-item measure developed at the Finnish Institute of Occupational Health (Vuori & Tervahartiala, 1995 cited by Vesalainen & Vuori, 1999, p. 388). The scale had an introductory question ‘Have you been searching for a job during the past month? (yes/no). Respondents who answered ‘yes’ were further asked about the frequency of six major job-search activities in the past month. Items (1)-(5) were rated on a 4-point scale: 1 = not at all, 2 = once or twice during the month, 3 = weekly, and 4 = daily. In item (6), the number of job applications was rated on a 6-point scale (from 0=none to 5=five or more). Internal consistency reliability was high with coefficient alphas .92 in T1 and .94 in T2. In a study conducted by Vuori and Vesalainen (1999), for instance, among a sample of 559 job-seekers, alpha was .70 at T1 and .75 at T2.

Data Analysis

Due to the small size of the sample, both parametric and non-parametric tests were used. Paired-samples t-test and Wilcoxon signed rank test, were used to assess any changes in GSE, and Job-seeking activity, before (T1) and after (T2) the holiday-break. Independent-samples t-test, Man-Whitney U Test and one-way ANOVAs are used to assess any impact of independent variables on GSE,
and Job-seeking activity. Linear regressions will be used to examine any impact of changes in GSE between T1 and T2, upon job-seeking activity in T2. The study is ongoing and the research fieldwork will be completed by the end of February 2012. Analyses, both quantitative and qualitative are also ongoing and will be completed by the end of May 2012. Some indicative results from the initial steps of the quantitative analysis are the following.

**Assessing any changes in GSE and job-seeking activity between T1 and T2**

A paired-samples t-test was conducted to assess any changes on family members’ general self-efficacy (GSE) levels before and after their holidays. There was a non-statistically significant increase in GSE scores from Time 1 (M = 3.85, SD = .61) to Time 2 (M = 3.98, SD = .71). The mean increase was .12 with a 95% confidence interval. The eta squared statistic (.03) indicated a small effect size. Similarly, A Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test revealed a statistically non-significant increase in general self efficacy following participation in a holiday break, z = -1.78, p > .05, with a small effect size (r = .17). The median score on the new general self efficacy scale was increased from pre-holiday (Md=24.16) to post-holiday (Md=28.34).

A paired-samples t-test was also used to assess any changes on family members’ job-seeking behaviour before and after their holidays. There was a statistically significant increase in job-seeking activity scores from Time 1 (M = 1.37, SD = .95) to Time 2 (M = 1.65, SD = 1.13). The mean increase was 0.28 with a 95% confidence interval. The eta squared statistic (.14) indicated a large effect size. A Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test revealed a statistically significant increase in job-seeking activity scores following participation in a holiday break, z = -2.91, p < .005, with a medium effect size (r = .27). The median score on the new general self efficacy scale did not change from pre-holiday (Md=8.33) to post-holiday (Md=8.33).

**Conclusion**

This study is ongoing and the analysis is on its early stages. However, the first findings show that there are some slight changes in self-efficacy and more significant changes in the job-seeking activity of unemployed family members, after their holiday-break. In order to make more accurate conclusions concerning the role of the holidays in these changes, other important variables (e.g. restrictions to work, length of unemployment, and area of residence) will be examined. In addition, the qualitative analysis which will follow will help to explain whether these changes occurred as a result of the holiday-break or not.
References


Role of Media in the Formation of Destination Images

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Introduction
The rapid growth of the tourism industry during the last five decades and also its fragility has created a number of challenges in tourism marketing for destinations (Echtner & Ritchie, 2003). Thus, tourism marketers are faced with greater challenges in order to be able to influence consumer decision making in a global marketplace characterised by increasing complexity and competition. From a marketing perspective, one of the most important challenges arising from this situation is the need for an effective destination positioning strategy. In order for a destination to be able to successfully promote itself in the target markets, it must be able to effectively differentiate itself from its competitors, or positively position itself, in the minds of the consumers (Echtner & Ritchie, 2003). A key element of this positioning process is the creation and management of a unique and attractive perception, or image, of the destination (Echtner & Ritchie, 2003).
Past research and studies have demonstrated that image is a valuable concept for having a better understanding of the destination selection process of tourists (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999). Reviewing the literature demonstrated that there are a large number of studies mainly focused on destination image measurement (Driscol et al., 1994; Echtner & Ritchie, 1993; Jenkins, 1999), tourists’ familiarity with the destination and its impact on destination image (Milman & Pizam, 1995; Baloglu, 1999; Kozak, 2001; Prentice, 2004), or destination image and visitation intentions (Goodrich, 1987; Hunt, 1975, Milman & Pizam, 1995; Scott et al., 1978). However, reviewing the literature also demonstrated that little empirical study has focused on how destination images are actually formed, while it is important to consider that the initial image formation stage before actual travel is the most important phase in tourists’ destination selection process (Gartner, 1994; Baloglu & McCleary, 1999).

Factors Involved in the Formation of Destination Image

Beerli and Martin (2004) conducted an empirical study to further develop and validate a model (Figure 1) in order to define factors that are determinants of a destination’s perceived image.

![Figure 1. Model of the formation of destination image (adopted from Beerli and Martin 2004: 660)](image)

It can be noticed that Beerli and Martin (2004, Figure 1) categorised the factors involved in image formation into two main categories; personal factors and information sources which will lead to cognitive, affective and at the end to
overall image of a destination. This paper however only focuses on the role of information sources and more specifically media discourses in the formation of destination images.

**Information Sources**

Information sources are powerful sources which according to Baloglu and McCleary (1999) could influence the formation of cognitive images. Gunn (1972) was one of the first authors to recognise and categorise the different ways that cognitive images are formed. Gunn (1997, p. 37) suggests that information sources can be described in two ways, *organic* and *induced*.

**Organic information sources**

Gunn (1997) suggests that what a person already knows or perceives about a destination can be identified as *organic*. Gunn also suggests that images are gathered over time from newspapers, radio and TV news, documentaries, dramas, novels etc. Moreover, according to this author stories from friends and relatives returning from trips can also have major influence on people’s impressions of destinations and organic accumulation of information is the most powerful factor influencing travel decisions. Media can be viewed as an important organic information source and have a significant impact on tourism image development (Gartner, 1994; Mercille, 2005).

**Induced information sources**

Furthermore, Gunn (1997) described as induced those sources which are designed and projected by tourism businesses and agencies to attract travellers to certain target areas. Induced information sources can be different forms of advertising such as the use of television, radio, brochures, billboards and print media advertising by destination promoters in order to form particular images in the minds of potential visitors. It is important to consider that although induced information sources can play an important role in the formation of destination images they have limited capabilities due to their high costs. Therefore, their effectiveness largely depends on the amount of investment that a particular destination is able to afford. Moreover, there are also other issues involved in assessing the effectiveness of induced information sources such as their regularity, through what channels they are distributed and how well they reach the target audiences. Therefore, although induced information sources are valuable source of information in assisting tourists in their initial travel decision making process they may not be as effective and influential as the organic ones.
Media discourses and Destination Image Formation

The mass media play an important role in “shaping the individual and collective consciousness by organising and circulating the knowledge which people have of their own everyday life and of the more remote contexts of their lives” (McQuail, 1972, cited in Adoni & Mane, 1984, p. 325). Media, and particularly news, because of their high credibility and market penetration may be the only image formation agents capable of changing an area’s image dramatically in a short period of time (Gartner, 1994). It is well recognised that through a huge variety of media people receive information about tourist destinations, gain knowledge about these areas and construct their images, which then form the basis of their destination choices (Mercille, 2005).

It is important to consider that knowledge is socially constructed and distributed (Berger and Luckmann, 1966) and media is playing a major role in this process. Tasci and Gartner (2007) suggest that media tend to be more influential on image formation because they have higher credibility and have the ability to reach mass audiences compared to the destination-originated information. They have the ability to create general knowledge about a destination, and are out of a destination’s immediate control. They also argue that organic information sources and especially news media tend to have even greater impact when they portray a dramatic event occurring at a destination, including human caused disasters such as political upheaval, riots, terrorism, insurgency, crime, and war, and natural disasters (Tasci & Gartner, 2007, p. 415). However, despite the importance of media in the formation of destination images, this concept has not been thoroughly investigated in the field of tourism research.

It is important to consider that images projected by the media are associated with unique meanings in societies. Over time these meanings are capable of becoming objectified in institutions, their structures and processes. Flow of resources to these institutions can allow them to reproduce themselves, thus resulting in the continuation of those meanings. It is important to consider that a destination with a discourse that is associated with and conjures negative meanings could prevent potential travellers from other societies to visit that particular destination and vice versa. Reviewing the literature demonstrates that this has not been investigated in the previous studies. One of the reasons behind this is that the previous studies have mainly looked at this area from a positivist perspective and therefore have not considered the role of wider societal and media discoursed in the formation of destination images.
Conclusion

The aim of this paper was to critically review some of the previous studies in the area of destination image formation. This paper demonstrates that although, the role of destination images in the process of travel decision making is widely recognised amongst different researchers in the field of tourism, there is a lack of empirical investigation to have a fuller understanding of how destination images are formed and the factors involved in this process. It is also clear from the literature review that the role of societal and media discourses in the formation of destination images have not been investigated while these factors have a major role in the construction of meanings in a society, institutionalisation of these meanings, and therefore how a foreign destination is perceived in that society.

References


What influences sustainable tourism?

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Introduction
Tourism can be developed with innovations in destinations such as Dubai or Las Vegas (i.e., the buildings of casinos or islands to attract tourists) or with natural, historical and cultural as Turkey has. The main issue is always to keep durability in mind while anticipating the demand of the future tourist market. The essential thing to understand is that it is necessary to work not only on the welcoming destination but also it is equally important to make great efforts in a sending destination in order to achieve real progress in sustainable tourism. In this research, sustainable tourism is discussed by being divided into two types of destinations: Tourist generating countries and tourist attracting countries. If these two terms are not considered together, results in sustainable tourism that remains only theoretical and will never be actualized.

Now we can analyze tourism from a tourist attracting destination point of view. Regarding sustainable tourism more precisely we conclude that it is
based on three main factors such as environment, economics and society. And it needs to share the destination richness equally between all the participants for durability. It is necessary to define right strategies before acting economically, socially, and environmentally in order to reach durability over the long term. Now, we would like to consider shortly each of these factors:

*Economic path:* Amortize investment in a timeframe of less than 20 years, create employment for local people.

*Environmental path:* Respect natural richness (sea, mountain, valley), manage the industry and support services (garbage, recycling) in a manner that keeps the natural habitat intact and respects the environment, and restriction on construction etc.

*Social path:* Respect language and culture of the local people; tourism for locals (rather than foreigners) creates a destination with a strong regional and indigenous identification. Tourism based on the local or national value rather than on international demands of tourists who visit the area.

Our research aims to show the relation between tour operators and destination identification, tourist profiles and sustainable tourism. Eight percent of tourists in Antalya are transported by 10 tour-operators. And they give them choices about what is important: sun, sea, low price. Another survey in Spain: 100,000 of vacationers chose the destination because of the identity of the destination: gastronomy, climate... etc, tour guides/travel agents were involved in 50% of these. If we have a look at two Mediterranean destinations, one of them is preferred for its promoted opportunities as a tourist sending destination, another is preferred as an alternative destination resulting from tour-operator activities.

In that case, our research in Turkey and in France shows that the lack of organization obliges tourists to choose a general tour operator instead of travelling individually. These conditions obliged tourists to take their vacations in a prescribed manner (“canned”), not the way they wished to have it. Consequently, Turkey remains an alternative holiday destination with strong potential and this could be translated into and advantage by promoting its strengths and differences from other destinations. These strengths can be listed as:

- Tourism service for disabled tourists.
- Opportunities to vacation in cottage houses in the countryside.
- A French information site to orient tourists to their individual holiday
planning.

- Diversified tourism packages such as sport tourism, holiday tourism, any thermal holiday package.
- Any governmental act between France and Turkey in order to create a Mediterranean village for third age tourist like it is cooperated between France and Spain.
- Ample information and communication about an individual trip from France to Turkey (about museums, ferryboats, guiding, island cruising...etc). Media efforts such as films promoting relations between Turkey and France.

How do you promote your destination and how do you account for growth and development? and how do you decrease the control of tour operators for specific destinations so that tourists may acquire a specialized tour operator? As we see, these services cannot be found by tourists who want to travel from France to Turkey, even though Turkey has all of the necessary assets. Often, tourists choose another destination for these services or restrict their holiday plans for Turkey while having their holiday. Our research also shows that even if we propose these kinds of different regionally relevant aspects like thermal service or sport tourism, it does not always correspond with the tourist profile and what the tourists are looking for.

With sport tourism for instance, people who play golf, generally speaking, have more income and these tourists are more interested in discovering the local culture of the country than the typical SSS tourist profile; and this type of tourists have more contribution to sustainable tourism with their curiosity and budget. These services are much more specific and they strengthen the identification of destinations rather than choosing an alternative destination. It is a firm statement that these tourist profiles are much more loyal to destination than alternative tourist profiles are. But in order to find this profile, the same effort must be done before welcoming in sending destination. If not, it will not always work as well as hoped.

As we can see below, tourism starts with innovation or development of its assets. It brings social, economic and natural benefits to destinations but its effects and the consequences of durabilty depend on tourists’ profiles which helps destinations lessen or improve their tourism conditions in tourist welcoming destinations. Diversified activities in tourism will strengthen its identification and its brand. We can see many examples in different countries related to the thesis subject. For example Dubai, UAE which has a huge luxury tourism
investment that will not amortize less than in 40 years in spite of having multiple charter flights to various destinations (in the hopes of increasing tourism revenue). It is a kind of a contradiction to built high class hotels and put in service charter flights from tourist sending destination. How do you make these tourism charter flights correspond to shopping or luxury destination? Spain started to prohibit some concrete buildings after demolishing some structures. The purpose is to maintain limits in construction for sustainable tourism. So, our question appears: how to revert to the natural environment after having altered it? These and many other examples show us the importance of anticipating the tourism demand and its evolution in order to maintain durability in destinations. We are able to understand from this how to develop and indicate destinations by analysis of sending the tourist profile.

![Figure 1](image.png)

**Figure 1.** Tourist identification, destination identification, sustainable tourism.

Tourism in Turkey is developing and has become the 7th destination in tourism in the world this year. But a tourism professional knows that this is the result of alternative tourism product promotion in sending destination which made progress and not a strong attractive potential of that country and it is kind of instable development that can be replaced very quickly by international changes. On the other hand, it is well known that this promotion is based on attractive price rather than tourism product diversity. And we see how hundred of tourism structures - from hotels to small shops, are changing the properties every year because of financial difficulties coming from strict negotiation of tour operator. Only some of them, like “golf resort”, stands stronger than the other ones. Nowadays, we see the bankruptcy of tour operators specializing in Turkey in different countries and their joining to general tour operators. It is evident that information from a general tour operator for desti-
nation will be ordinary and basic but not detailed given by a specialized tour operator. We will nowadays threaten tourism much more than last years and we will see it by low tourism revenue comparing with the last years indicators.

How can we talk about durability with tourist profile expecting SSS with its limited budget and profile that will influence the economic and environmental structure of the society in the following ways:

- *Investor* must nearly apply the lowest price for this kind of tourist profile for its survival in the international tourism industry.
- Never keep qualified employee because of strong negotiation of general tour operator in price affect salary and short tourist season because of tourist profile.
- Could not easily satisfy tourist because of limited budget and will seldom be loyal quest for Turkey.
- Environmentally, nature will be corrupted because of tourism based on the foreign exchange revenue and bed without construct limits.
- Socially with this kind of investment and with system all inclusive, tourists will come for hotels, not for local cultural values and it will disconnect tourism and local.

Before proposing any tourism product it is necessary to study the demand and culture of the tourist you are working with. For example, Cappadoce proves that Turkey has succeeded with French tourists during its long development. So, the French became among the first nationalities to visit Cappadoce out of 1 million people in total who came to Turkey; This was more than Germans or Russians who total 7 million visitors annually. It means that tourists interested in the destination that strengthen its identity.

It seems logical that it is indispensable to diversify the product to attract clients with desirable profiles. It is also an important point not to lose your clients and to make the destination more attractive. In a coastal resort how will we manage to get acquainted with the cultural tourism or some other types of tourism when the hotels are filled up to 95% until October. Even if we convince them to come to this destination, how will they be accepted there? Should we build another hotels that will remain empty during 6 months like the other resorts of the region? In our days one of the concepts that is in demand is the thermal tourism, 75% of its clients are the aged people. The most part of the clients travel in the death season. According to the Interdeco research, the ho-
lidas of the aged people over 50 years old are well spread all over the year: 42% in Spring, 47% in Summer, 33% in Autumn, 22% in Winter.

Therefore, a new profile of a tourist interested in sports, spa and other types of tourism having the curiosity to discover will let the tourism professionals welcome them during the whole year. It will be optimal for the companies whose public corresponds profitability and employment. Due to this solution the coastal resort of Turkey will not only find the identity but as well it will develop a concept of a cultural tourism, sports and spa like in Spain where the most part of the coming tourist are first of all influenced by people’s reception, gastronomy, culture, identity of the region unlike the ordinary tourist who looks for the sun and the sea only. The professionals as well as public will have the problems of seasonality welcoming them during the whole year but also the destination will get a stronger fame due to its natural, cultural richness because of the tourist’s curiosity. So, Turkey must upgrade its management by focusing on diversifying its tourism in sending destination, via tourism office and specialized tour operator. Mass tourism operated by several general tour operators will cause a huge problem. Although, the number of hotels multiplies with the years. Turkey needs to be promoted with its differentiation and deserves to be displaced for its beauty, specially for Mediterranean destination must reverse its offer by some other activities than SSS and will be brand destination thanks to it.

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Value Creation During Family Visits to Heritage Visitor Attractions

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Introduction

Heritage tourism is considered the most popular form of special interest tourism (McKercher & du Cros, 2006). The literature confirms the importance of heritage, being described as one of the major strengths of the UK tourism product, and the desire to visit heritage attractions is a commonly held motivation of visitors to the UK (Garrod & Fyall, 2000). However, there are real concerns for market saturation with oversupply and the reality for many businesses is that there is insufficient expertise to effectively run HVAs, with skills shortages in several fields such as marketing, interpretation, customer service and site management. Many HVAs struggle with short-term survival, high rates of staff turnover and budget tightening (Lennon & Graham, 2001). The visitor experience is an integral component of the ‘tourism product’ and tourism’s core product is the beneficial experiences gained by the visitor (Prentice, Witt, & Hamer, 1998). Travel provides a sense of escape and freedom and a break from the routine, and affects the emotional, intellectual, spiritual and
physical aspects of the individual (Gilbert & Abdullah, 2004). The experiences should be made as real, compelling and memorable as possible so as to engage each customer in an inherently personal way. The visitor experience displays all the characteristics of services: intangibility, inseparability from production and performance to its consumption, lack of heterogeneity and lack of ownership (Prentice et al, 1998; Williams & Soutar, 2009). Practitioners are keenly aware of the need to provide a memorable experience, particularly as much of the competition HVAs face is from the leisure and lifestyle markets for people’s time and money (King, 2002). Whilst the importance of incorporating ‘experiences’ in products is not a new one, what is new is the appreciation that tourist experiences can be better managed and designed and the importance of this to experience-seeking consumers (Scott, Laws, & Boksberger, 2009).

Although there is evidence of adoption of initiatives promoting customer centricity by tourism practitioners (e.g. Shaw, Bailey, & Williams, 2011), it is less pronounced in the literature. Tourism marketing literature has been described as lacking in relevance and dated, due to a neglect of recent key developments and lack of theory building (Li & Petrick, 2008). This study aims to address the considerable gap in the tourism marketing literature, where SDL has received little consideration. In calling for more research, Li and Petrick state, “…the sustainable and healthy growth of our field relies mainly on its ability and courage to take intellectual challenges... more research is needed on the tenets proposed by Vargo and Lusch in tourism settings” (2008, 241-3). Despite such calls and the wide-reaching interest in SDL, there have been growing concerns in the literature that there has been insufficient critical analysis of some of its central propositions. The limited critical attention on the definition and actual meaning of key constructs has hampered the conceptual development and empirical testing of SDL (e.g. Grönroos, 2011; Grönroos & Ravald, 2009).

Understanding value and its formation are among the key research endeavours of marketing (Echeverri and Skålén, 2011). Yet the value construct as encapsulated in SDL theory is only of limited use in the endeavour to better understand the value creation process behind a memorable experience as a result of a trip to an HVA. Vague propositions such as ‘the firm and the customer are co-creators of value’ are of little use as they are, “… too simplistic to allow for theoretical development or practical decision making in any way” (Grönroos, 2011, p. 280). Empirical studies to test SDL constructs have already provided revealing results. In one of the few empirical studies on value creation, Echeverri and Skålén (2011) found evidence of value creation and destruc-
tion activities between service providers and users that was in contrast to the overwhelmingly positive focus on value creation.

Among the challenges this paper seeks to overcome is that due to the elusive nature of value and the lack of empirical research, very little is known about the process of value creation. Questions regarding when the process starts and ends, what is included in the process, and how different customers perceive value-creating situations in different ways are all relative unknowns awaiting more substantial consideration. Critically, “...interaction is indeed a key construct...which in this literature is either totally missing, or rather seen as a consequence of the logic than as a construct” (Grönroos, 2011, p. 292). As well as seeking to better understand the locus of value for customers, one of the major contributions this study aims to make is to enhance understanding of an under-researched consumer segment. The need for more research with families as the major focus was identified more than two decades ago (Stringer, 1984). Yet despite families being a ubiquitous feature at visitor attractions, the family group remains a relative unknown within academic literature. So what do we know? By its very nature, the family group visit will be a social experience, and one of the main aims of such visits is the strengthening of social ties and spending time together as a family (McCabe, 2009). Families have been the focus of a considerable volume of studies in consumer marketing and decision-making, yet a significant gap exists in tourism (Kang & Hsu, 2005). Understandings of family decision-making and family democracy assume too much homogeneity and too little disagreement and there is a need for deeper insights (Bronner & de Hoog, 2008).

This study will additionally consider the impact of the servicescape on the value creation process within a family visit to and HVA. Prior research into specific aspects of service environments has provided extensive evidence of enhanced performance by the service provider as a result of changes to the servicescape (Ezeh & Harris, 2007). Yet this research has largely been skewed towards investigating ambient and design factors, whilst failing to examine social factors and the more ambiguous human factor. This unsatisfactory trend was identified by Baker, Levy & Grewal(1992), who consider the servicescape as containing not only material stimuli, but also as a social construct of humans who play a significant role in influencing behaviour. Indeed, by adopting a constructivist approach in the study of the co-creation of a tourist experience, it is possible to tie together the servicescape literature with the hitherto divergent theories on value co-creation within the SDL literature. Such an approach can also be grounded in Mehrabian and Russell’s PAD (pleasure, arousal and dom-
inance) framework. The under-researched ‘dominance’ dimension is where customers attempt to take control of the service experience; in the context of an HVA visit, visitors interact with the attraction and its ‘interface’ in order to better understand it and to have a more satisfying experience.

This study will investigate the attitudes of parents and children before and after a visit to Stirling Castle in Scotland, UK. Prior to this, semi-structured interviews with relevant managers at Stirling Castle and Historic Scotland can reveal management’s approach to the design of the service environment and attitudes towards value and facilitating visitors’ value creation at their attraction. This would address the crucial issue of congruence, which in an HVA context is the experience as intended by the servicescape designer and the visitor’s evaluation of the actual experience. These interviews can be complemented by interviews with operational staff that have contact with the public. As the attraction staff are closely involved with interpretation and the methods adopted at each attraction, they are ideally placed to explain their situations, feelings and experiences in their own words. This study will follow previous research on the tourism experience that adopted the interpretivist belief that reality is a social construct given meaning by actors in a social setting (e.g. Daengbuppha, Hemmington & Wilkes, 2006).

Having a richer understanding of the service environment from the provider’s perspective, a series of interviews with family members before and after their visit will identify their interactions with each other and the service provider and how value was created - or destroyed - during these. Interviews will be augmented with data supplied by the family members during the visit stage, as they will be provided with recording devices that will provide a record of the visit. This will allow the researcher to establish a typology of activities that create and destroy value for the user and provider.

References


The Impact of an Open Sky Policy on Small Developing Island States: A Case Study of Mauritius

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The Aviation Sector

Air transport has for decades been an important sector for world trade, economic growth and tourism. While in the layman’s view, the airline industry has for a long time been associated with excitement, adventure and glamour, for the decision and policy makers it is just as important as any economic sector of a country, that requires efficient management and that are subject to all the constraints of business development: competition, costs, energy shortage and economic forces of supply demand. This paper therefore focuses on some of the developments that have indelibly marked the industry over the second half of the last century. As a matter of fact, the air transport industry has for many years been viewed as a protected in-
dustry. This protectionism stems from the understanding of the Flag Carrier concept. This has brought about the state of monopoly situation whereby the national airline was considered as an essential service provider that should have all the support of the state: subsidies, preferential tariffs, accessibility to investment funds and more important the subsidizing of routes that are not necessarily profitable.

**Problem Statement**

The main problem is that most airlines of developing countries, including Mauritius, find themselves at a cross-road where they need to make some crucial decisions regarding their future development and survival in a global, more competitive world. Admittedly, most problems of developing countries are of an economic nature. So air transport being one of the vital sectors of economic development together with the linkages it provides for the other important sectors i.e., import-export, industry, tourism and others, it is therefore imperative that the pressing issues are addressed from a purely economic perspective.

**Small Island Developing States (SIDS)**

These are low-lying coastal countries that tend to share similar development challenges, including small but growing populations, limited resources, and remoteness, susceptibility to natural resources, international trade and fragile environments. Their growth and development is also held back by high communication, energy and transportation costs, irregular international transport volumes, disproportionately expensive public administration and infrastructure due to their small size. The SIDS were first recognized as a distinct group of developing at the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development in June 1992. The Barbados Programme of Action was produced in 1994 to assist SIDS in their sustainable development efforts. The UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs lists 52 countries as SIDS. These are further classified in to three geographic regions: the Caribbean; the Pacific; and Africa, Indian Ocean, Mediterranean and South China Sea (AIMS). Each of these regions has a regional cooperation body: the Caribbean Community, the Pacific Islands Forum and the Indian Ocean Commission respectively, which many SIDS are members or associate members of. In addition, most but not all SIDS members are members of the Alliance of Small States, which performs lobbying
and negotiating functions for the SIDS within the UN system. A list of SIDS countries is provided in the appendix A on page 6.

**Air Deregulation**

Airline deregulation is a process that started as early as 1978 in the US when the government under the Carter Administration passed the Airline Deregulation Act. This was a process whereby airlines would gradually move out of the International Air Transport Association and devise their own schedules, routes and fares as per the market forces. This was done in two stages with first the domestic air transport within the US and at a later stage the international routes outside the US especially on the European market. When this concept met with some success in the US, the European airlines were somehow forced to adapt to the situation by starting a similar process which in Europe was termed liberalization. However, the change in term was more or less strategic as the Europeans not only wanted to look as original as possible in their approach but wanted to proceed in phases, hence the packages.

**Deregulation and Liberalization in their Different Contexts**

*Deregulation* means the elimination or reduction of government control of how business is done, thereby moving towards a freer economy subject to the forces of supply and demand. In other words it is the movement towards a more laissez-faire and free market. Deregulation is the removal or simplification of government rules and regulations that constrain the operation of market forces (Sullivan and Sheffrin, 2002). The stated rationale for deregulation is that fewer and simpler regulations will lead to a higher level of competitiveness, therefore, higher productivity, more efficiency and lower overall prices.

**The Case of Mauritius**

Mauritius started to open its sky as from 2005 when Air Mauritius went in to code sharing with other airlines flying in to Mauritius. It was seen that the dichotomy between the availability of hotel rooms and the number of seats was only a result of mismatch and lack of coordination among the main stakeholders. To get round this problem, this study will propose the Paul Sabatier’s Advocacy Coalition Framework.
One of the policy process frameworks that have been developed to simplify the complexity of public policy is the ACF. Sabatier and Jenkins-Smith (1993) initially introduced the ACF as a symposium issue for *Policy Sciences*. They recognize that there was a gap to be filled by the creation of the ACF as there were at least three limitations in the policy process literature. Lindquist (2001) emphasizes that there has been a movement from ‘policy communities to policy networks’. According to him “rather than focus on structures and relative capacities, Sabatier and his colleagues have sought to comprehend policy communities in terms of beliefs and values, and to model important structures – advocacy coalitions – as flowing from the bonds and relationships of actors who share similar values. These coalitions, which may be tightly or loosely coupled, are comprised of government agencies, interest groups, associations, think tanks, academics, university research centres, journalists and prominent individuals who more or less share the common world views and generally agree on policy solutions.”

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**Figure 1.** Advocacy coalition framework (adapted from Sabatier and Jenkins-Smith 1993)

### Criticisms of the ACF

The ACF has been criticized for neglecting the mechanisms behind major policy change. But Sabatier (1998) contends that the ACF’s response, how-
ever, is to evoke a list of exogenous factors: socioeconomic change, changes in public opinion, change in government, authoritative intervention and impacts arising from other political subsystems. There are a number of ways in which exogenous factors lead to such a change. First, the exogenous factor is exploited by a minority coalition such that it replaces the dominant coalition. Second, a minor coalition, strengthened by new exogenous conditions, creates a successful coalition of convenience with other groups. Third, an exogenous policy sovereign (for example, the European Union) commands the dominant coalition to change policy. Fourth, all coalitions recognise that the current situation is untenable and negotiate a compromise (Sabatier, 1998). In their latest review, Weible, Sabatier and McQueen (2009) brings up one limitation of the ACF mentioned by an anonymous referee who described an earlier version as “self-indulgent and inward-focused” and who also argued that reviews of this kind “are commonly seen as characteristics of disciplines that are running low on ideas, relevance or intellectual energy”. The authors agree that “this essay (2009) is inward focused by deliberately taking stock of existing ACF applications in hopes of identifying future directions”. They also argue that “gleaning lessons from comprehensive reviews is probably one of the best ways to move forward with any theory or framework”. But they disagreed that “the ACF literature is short on ideas, relevance or intellectual energy. Indeed, the [review essay (2009)] shows that the ACF literature continues to expand in applications in diverse geographical and topical areas and to provide a useful lens – especially in conjunction with other theories and frameworks – for explaining the policy process”.

**Conclusion**

This paper has endeavoured to show that the concepts of deregulation, liberalization and globalization in international air transport are phenomena that nations will have to reckon with in the decades to come. The propensity for protectionism in the developing countries and the SIDS and the obsolete approach to the industry will have to change. Although we no longer speak of first, second and third world anymore, as far as air transport is concerned it is a fallacy to believe that because of globalization, freedoms of the air, bilateral and multilateral agreements, all countries are on a level playing field. Airlines of developing countries and the LDCs will have to deregulate in a progressive way and go in to mergers with the big airlines that are still willing to carry them to greater heights. One of the policies
that could be used in bringing stakeholders of air transport together is the ACF.

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Reputational Capital and Olympic Events: A Case Study of Whistler Live!

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Introduction
Festivals and events are increasingly integral components of tourism destination management strategies, and serve as attractions for both local and international visitors. From a tourism management perspective, mega-events are a form of large-scale ‘special event tourism’ that requires high levels of interaction and collaboration amongst a wide array of stakeholders in order to deliver targeted beneficial outcomes for local and regional communities (Reid & Arcodia, 2002; Kearins & Pavlovich, 2002). Olympic and Paralympic Games are specific types of mega-events with the potential to generate both term short benefits as well as longer lasting positive legacies for the host destination. Conversely, their large magnitude and reach can lead to magnified negative outcomes if not managed strategically and effectively.

Many studies have assessed Olympic Games impacts from economic and infrastructural perspectives, primarily identifying the economic effects of these
events and their associated festivals (Ritchie, 1984; May, 1995). In addition, some relatively recent investigations have explored some of the social and cultural benefits that such events can generate and it is increasingly apparent that these special events can provide favorable social benefits that remain as lasting competitive advantages for host regions (O’Brien, 2006; Kaplanidou & Karadakis, 2010).

Mega-events need to be carefully planned and integrated in long-term strategies to produce benefits and meet community based sustainable development goals (Bramwell, 1997; Ritchie, 2000; Gursoy, Kim, & Uysal, 2004; Pugh & Wood, 2004). An important part of this approach is to foster participation in and community ownership of event initiatives that lead to an equitable distribution of tangible and intangible benefits and costs (Lade & Jackson, 2004). The aim of local authorities and event organizers is therefore to develop and deliver appealing products and experiences that satisfy visitors’ and locals’ expectations and potentially produce long term legacies (Pugh & Wood, 2004; Capriello & Fraquelli, 2008).

The focus on the extent to which intangible assets and positive legacies for community development can be stimulated by events is rather less explored in the literature and difficult to analyze (Chappete, 2003; Kaplanidou & Karadakis, 2010), despite an underlying assumption amongst many mega-event proponents that considerable positive social capital is generated by such initiatives (Arcodia & Withford, 2006). This study explores the creation of intangible legacies and the possible reputational benefits that mega-event hosting communities may capture through strategic management practices. The aim of this research is to develop a conceptual model that identifies ways in which mega-events can be strategically used to build capabilities that help nurture valuable contributions to community development, enhance reputation amongst stakeholders, broader community groups, and finally increase access to external organizations and networks that can bring valued and otherwise inaccessible resources to the community. It focuses specifically on highlighting the importance of a network-based stakeholder approach for building the intangible long-term strategic asset called “reputational capital” (Fombrun, 1996).

Positive reputation is a rare and difficult to amass resource that is crucial for creating competitive advantage (Deephouse, 2000; Hall 1992). The research also develops a systematic assessment method and measurement process for examining the host-destination reputational capital and uses the recently completed Cultural Olympiad’s Whistler Live! Program associated with the 2010
Vancouver Winter Olympic and Paralympic Games to explore various dimensions of the model developed.

In the context of this research, “host-resort reputation” is a place based term related to tourism destinations and is in part influenced by how well the combined efforts of all corporate and public partners in the tourism value chain collectively respond to the visitor’s demands. Reputation and an organization’s social legitimacy influence stakeholder’s perceptions and community member respect (Williams et al., 2007). Furthermore, the host-resort reputation is a key factor in the experiential nature of tourism context where tourism experiences is based not only on the character of the physical and cultural environment but also on the destination’s ability to develop those capable human resources needed to deliver the products and services needed (Vengesayi, 2003). Reputation is an important strategic intangible asset inside the host community to afford resources, social licence to operate, to shape relationships, to build and reconfigure competences, capabilities and the overall general resilience of the host destination. Reputation is an important asset outside the host destination to enhance destination brand image and affect people’s perceptions for the destination and communicate destination attributes improving visitors’ and residents’ satisfaction, beliefs and attitudes with the venues.

Under the pressure to host the “once in a life time” event and to develop and deliver a cultural and celebrative program that showcase local identity, traditions, culture, the host destination is an extremely dynamic system characterized by multiple components interacting and changing together on varying spatial and temporal scale. Reputation involves the ever-changing interactions of factors that shape social relationships and individual experiences within the physical features of the place.

**Research Approach**

This exploratory investigation employs a triangulated multi-method approach to frame and guide data collection and interpretation (Oppermann, 2000). This includes an extensive literature review to frame the conceptual basis for the work, and a case study involving both qualitative and quantitative research approaches involved. The case study uses a set of survey methods to collect relevant data and information elaborating on themes identified in the literature review: semi-structured active interviews with key informants, online survey with event organizers, on site intercept survey with follow-up online interviews of resident and non-resident stakeholders. Data were collected during the Games and subsequent months following their conclusion (from February
2010 to December 2010) with the support and formal approval of the Whistler Live! organizers.

The four-season mountain Resort of Whistler provides a useful case-study environment. Not only did it host the 2010 Games, together with Vancouver, but it also has a governance structure and community committed to becoming more sustainable. As such it formally recognizes the importance of maintaining its high quality natural resources for visitors’ and residents’ appreciation. It strategically used its engagement in the Games to accelerate its journey toward the sustainability vision, and heighten its reputation as a place to live, work and play.

**Overall Reputation Index**

Whistler’s reputation was measured using the grand mean responses of Whistler Live!’s spectators and partners. Based on the responses collected, Whistler’s overall reputation index was 4.22 out a possible score of 5, where ratings range from 1 represents the minimum value possible and 5 corresponds with the maximum level in the respondents’ perceptions (Figure 1).

![Figure 1. Overall Reputation Index And Grand Mean Reputation Dimension Scores](image-url)
The 8 host-resort reputation’s dimensions and 26 associated supporting attributes were measured by spectators and event network partners. The findings indicate that few differences exist between the respondent groups with respect to each attribute examined.

Respondents perceived Whistler Live! as contributing significantly to enhancing Whistler’s reputation. This perspective was held by spectators from varying regions as well as the full range of Whistler Live! partners. Overall, it appears that Whistler shifted its reputation from being a ski-place to that of an ‘event-resort’ with infrastructures and abilities to effectively host events under a sustainable approach that considers first priority for its community. The ability of Whistler Live! to enhance civic pride in the community and create a special atmosphere for both residents and visitors was perceived to be linked to the destination’s solid governance and social responsibility. Whistler gained awareness from people all over the world, increasing pride locally and indeed across Canada.

More studies are expected on this topic, and it seems that the attention to these issues is growing. Over the time of the realization of this dissertation, numerous reputation reports on countries and most recently cities were communicated and received considerable attention. Still, none of these studies have explored reputation in the context of resort destinations. While there are distinct differences in the character of resort destinations when compared to other locations, many of the same reputation dimensions, attributes and measurement scales overlap in all these cases. This suggests a level of convergent validity exists with respect to what has been presented in this dissertation, and helps confirm the potential utility of this model and its assessment procedures in other Olympic and mega-event management contexts.

References


The ‘Positive Tourism’ Linkage: A Study of Motivations, Flow and Benefits of Spa Experiences in Southeast Asia

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Introduction

Positive psychology is a new field of study that focuses on human thriving. Even though tourism businesses attempt to be profitable through serving happiness, satisfaction and wellness, it is surprising that the relationship between tourism and human thriving remains under-researched (Smith & Kelly, 2006a). One of the facets of wellbeing in the positive psychology field that has also received attention among tourism scholars is wellness. The wellness-tourism interface has long historical roots, but recent studies treat wellness tourism ostensibly as a new form of activity. Recent developments in assessing human well-being in general provide some new pathways to understand positive experiences and, in this research, the Asian spa experience. The concept of flow derived from positive psychology, as integrated in this research, provides fuller insight into tourists’ experience particularly in the context of spas. The motivation approach embodied in the travel career pattern (TCP) model is also often a
starting point for understanding desired outcomes. The fusing of conceptual schemes in tourism (i.e. the TCP) and positive psychology (i.e. flow) offer some of the key conceptual building blocks of the thesis.

This project is focused on Asian spa tourism, most specifically in Southeast Asia. In the academic literature, most spa-related work focuses on the North American and European regions. It has only been recently that the Asian spa phenomenon has received attention (e.g. Laing & Weiler, 2008; Mak, Wong, & Chang, 2009). This previous work suggests that understanding who visits Asian spas and why is a requirement to understanding the phenomenon. As a starting point, definitions of the topic help specify the particular interest area. Smith and Kelly (2006a) describe spa tourism as tourism which focuses on the relaxation or healing of the body using water-based treatments. Similarly, Hall (2005, p. 75) described spa tourism as “a component of health tourism that relates to the provision of specific health facilities and destinations which traditionally include the provision of mineral waters”. Both definitions suggest that water is a significant element in spa tourism. While these definitions may be applicable in the European context, they cannot be used as a universal definition of spa tourism because in Asian spas, water is not always the main element in treatment and therapies. Chapman (2006) suggested that the prime focus of most Asian spas is to return the body to a balanced state through ancient botanical recipes and time-honoured rituals. The results presented in this paper are extracted from two surveys undertaken for the PhD project. The results relating to the TCP theory come from an online survey data collected between September 2010 and February 2011, while the section on flow come from an on-site survey conducted between December 2008 and May 2009 in India, Thailand and the Philippines.

The opportunity to provide insights about the spa tourists’ motivations and extend the TCP work and tourist motivation studies was a central aim of the online survey. In brief, the TCP framework was tested in three different but related ways. Firstly, the TCP has been used to explore tourist spa-goers’ motives while travelling in Southeast Asia. Besides using the model in a geographical location different from the original studies (i.e. Australia and South Korea), it was also used to explore motives in purchasing a spa experience while travelling. The second way to test the TCP involved using all the statements pre-grouped into 14 motivational factors as per the original study (cf. Pearce & Lee, 2005). The 69 motive items were organised into 14 motive factors: escape/relax (4.27), novelty (3.99), strengthening relationships (3.5), autonomy (3.32), nature (3.52), self-development (host-site involvement) (3.10), stimulation (3.26), personal
development (3.06), securing relationships (3.12), self-actualization (3.22), isolation (3.8), nostalgia (3.04), romance (2.54) and recognition (2.76). A 15th motive cluster resulting from additional factor analysis work incorporating more items was that of beauty, health and wellness (3.42). A 5-point scale was used to rate the importance of each statement (1 = not important at all; 5 = very important).

Another key element in the TCP is travel experience. The respondents reported the number of visits they made to a spa while travelling “within” and “out of” their usual country of residence. A standardized variable that combines the respondents’ domestic and international spa experience was created. The total spa experience score (SES) was computed, and resulted in a range of scores from 0 to 8. Scores of 0-2 were low (43.7%), 3-5 were medium (39.3%), and 6-8 were high levels of spa experience (17%). In relation to this, a spectrum based on the Global Spa Summit Report (2010) and Smith and Kelly’s (2006b) analysis of tourists’ health and wellness segments was created as a template to provide a context and frame for the results of the current study (Table 1). Smith and Kelly (2006a, 2006b) suggested that health and wellness tourists can be defined by the amount of knowledge, the length of experience, the type of holiday users take and the how the wellness experience influence their lifestyle upon returning home. They used the colour purple to depict the segmentation, hence using a spectrum from lilac (experimenters) to a deeper shade of purple (purists). The inspiration drawn from their work provided a framework to explore tourists’ spa-going motivations interfaced with their spa experience. Table 1 provides core information for this initial classification of tourists and their spa experience in Southeast Asia.

Overall, the results revealed that escape/relaxation is a very important motive among tourist spa-goers regardless of their experience. Beauty, health and wellness, was a moderately important motive, but slightly more important among the highly experienced cohort. It was discovered in assessing the pattern of motives among spa-goers, even experienced ones, that core motives such as novelty still played a strong role in their motivational profile. Additionally, for the most experienced spa goers, autonomy and isolation were substantial motivational considerations. For the less experienced spa-goers, strengthening relationships was a comparatively more important item on their motivational pattern than was the case for the experienced cohort. The findings in the analysis of tourists’ spa-going motives and previous spa experiences identified some motivational patterns which closely parallel the original TCP studies. The current study also revealed new patterns in the motivational landscape, which led to the development of the tourists’ spa-going career
pattern (SGCP) model. An extension of the TCP, it is proposed through the SGCP that spa-going tourists will show changing motivational patterns over their life stages, with travel and/or spa experience.

Table 1. Health & Wellness Segments: Tourist Spa-goers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tourists/Spa-goers</th>
<th>LOW SPA EXPERIENCE</th>
<th>MODERATE SPA EXPERIENCE</th>
<th>HIGH SPA EXPERIENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lilac (very light pinkish purple) (Experimenter)</td>
<td>Lavender (light purple) (Intermittent User)</td>
<td>Deep Purple (Purists)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Little prior knowledge/practice</td>
<td>Sporadic/occasional practitioner</td>
<td>Regular practitioner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>New experience</td>
<td>Renewed/lapsed motivational experience</td>
<td>Continued/relocated experience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Self-contained/one-off holiday</td>
<td>May become regular holiday type</td>
<td>Typical holiday choice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Unlikely/may lead to integrative ‘better living’ upon return home</td>
<td>Likely to renew better living upon return home</td>
<td>Reinforces and consolidates home-based lifestyle/behaviour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Seeks comfortable surroundings, guided instruction, scheduled programme</td>
<td>Seeks a range of surroundings/accommodation type</td>
<td>Surroundings becomes less relevant than the quality of activity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Requires some guidance and a choice of activity programming</td>
<td>Requires advanced instruction and space for self-directed practice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex (Total)</td>
<td>43%</td>
<td>39.7%</td>
<td>17.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>67.3%</td>
<td>66.7%</td>
<td>66.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>32.7%</td>
<td>33.3%</td>
<td>23.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age group</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18-25</td>
<td>15.8%</td>
<td>22.9%</td>
<td>18.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26-35</td>
<td>45.6%</td>
<td>38.3%</td>
<td>54.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36-45</td>
<td>24.5%</td>
<td>6.3%</td>
<td>15.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46-55</td>
<td>14.1%</td>
<td>10.5%</td>
<td>15.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>56-60+</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spa Experience</td>
<td>0.2 = 43.7%</td>
<td>3.5 = 39.3%</td>
<td>6-8 = 17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Score</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motives</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Novelty</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>4.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Escape/relax</td>
<td>4.26</td>
<td>4.13</td>
<td>4.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strengthening</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>3.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>relationships</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Autonomy</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>4.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nature</td>
<td>3.63</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>3.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-development</td>
<td>2.84</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>3.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(host-site involvement)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simulation</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>3.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal development</td>
<td>2.79</td>
<td>3.02</td>
<td>3.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Securing relationships</td>
<td>3.17</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td>3.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-actualization</td>
<td>2.90</td>
<td>3.28</td>
<td>2.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Isolation</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>4.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nostalgia</td>
<td>2.76</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>3.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Romance</td>
<td>2.42</td>
<td>2.52</td>
<td>2.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognition</td>
<td>2.64</td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td>3.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beauty, health and wellness</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>3.91</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Besides the TCP, the flow theory was explored in relation to spa-going activity. The concept of flow is an optimal psychical state which is connected with high achievement and positive experiences. In this project, the Flow State Scale-2 (FSS-2), a self-reporting instrument designed to assess the flow in physical activity, was used among tourist spa-goers in Southeast Asia. The FSS-2 contains 36 flow-related statements on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (strong disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The participants were asked to indicate their extent of agreement with each of the flow items in relation to the recently completed spa experience. The scale was theoretically based on the nine-dimensional conceptualisation of flow identified by Csikszentmihalyi (1990; cited in Jackson & Eklund, 2004), and the results were as follows:

- **challenge-skill balance** (there is a match between perceived skills and challenges, 3.38);
- **action-awareness merging** (deep involvement leads to automaticity and spontaneity, 3.42);
- **clear goals** (a strong sense of what one is going to do, 3.64);
- **unambiguous feedback** (clear, immediate feedback that the person is doing well and succeeding, 3.34);
- **concentration on task** (3.30);
- **sense of control** (sense of exercising control without actively trying to be in control, 3.36);
- **loss of self-consciousness** (concern for the self disappears and the person becomes one with the activity, 3.53);
- **time transformation** (time disorientation or a loss of time awareness, 3.51); and,
- **Autotelic experience** (an intrinsically rewarding experience involving a sense of deep enjoyment, 4.08).

The mean for the overall flow state was 3.45. A slight variation across the scores for each of the nine flow dimensions was observed, which is deemed to indicate relative importance of the various dimensions to the spa experience. Overall, the moderate mean scores obtained in each dimension suggests some degree of endorsement for the spa activity as flow experience. Some ambiguity regarding the relevance of some of the items to the person’s spa experience do exist, but it is maintained that the scores yielded in this study indicate that tourist spa-goers are somewhat linked to the experience of flow.
The results of this study were compared with the results from previous research where participants were involved in an active physical setting such as individual sporting activity, dance, yoga, exercise (focus on health/fitness), and team sport. It was discovered that the spa activity was the lowest on the overall flow score, with a difference of 0.36 from the highest ranked activity (yoga = 3.81). The spa experience was also notably lower than the other activities in terms of balance, goals, feedback, concentration, and control. Yoga was highest in the autotelic experience dimension (diff = -0.19). The comparison suggests that although there is noticeable proximity in scores in a few dimensions, the overall pattern for each activity was unique, regardless of the setting (i.e. physical/passive).

In conclusion, this paper proposes that travelling is an introduction and permission for spa use; spa-going is an experiential journey because spa-goers are enticed by new textures, aromas and sounds that are inherent in many spa treatments and products, particularly while travelling in Asia. Spa-goers also often expect that elements of their spa experience can extend to their everyday lives. In this study of tourist’ spa-goers’ motivations and flow experiences, three themes for further growth are offered. Firstly, the tourism-positive psychology relationship provides opportunities to broaden the literature. This was afforded by the theoretical development of the concepts of tourist motivation through the TCP framework and of flow in the Asian spa context. In light of the TCP testing, it is suggested that certain career pattern models can be customised according to tourist activity, such as the SGCP. The integration of the flow concept, and specifically testing the FSS-2 in a passive tourist activity also underpins the notion that tourism businesses, which make up one of the most global and people-oriented industries, are implicitly striving to be profitable by offering positive experiences.

Tourist wellbeing is core to the tourism-positive psychology relationship. This project offers practical applications in the cultivation of various ways of enhancing tourist wellbeing. As respondents reported a high degree of satisfaction in their previous spa experiences at home and while travelling, it can be inferred that a spa experience per se can be a rewarding activity. This perceived benefit of spa experiences suggests that even though moderate to limited flow experiences have been reported in the study, the spa-going activity can be a source of positive experiences beneficial to tourists’ well-being. The results in this project can be utilized not only to understand how tourists perceive spa experiences, but also to support tourist wellbeing through spa experiences.
Tourist wellbeing, however, is just one aspect of the full research program. The study is designed to develop a conceptual understanding of the spa experience but its particular focus on Southeast Asia and how tourists experience spas offers additional marketing perspectives for businesses. The advantage of focussed regional studies of tourism topics lies in specifying how experiences differ and can be managed in local contexts.

References


Implementing Customer Relationship Management (CRM) in Chain Hotels Corporation: A Comparative Study

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Introduction

In the past decades, the challenge for businesses was to optimize production processes to reply to growing demand, and using marketing techniques to capture customers in the market (Brooks & Palmer, 2004; Gummesson, 1999; Sheth & Parvatiyar, 2002). Today the increased online price/product transparency and the new e-business models (e.g. online auctions) enhance customers’ purchasing powers, making them more price sensitive, less brand loyal, more sophisti-
icated and experience seekers (Sigala & Christou, 2002; Sigala, 2003a; Christou, 2003a; Christou & Kassianidis, 2003).

The new generation of hotels is experiencing increased globalization, competition, higher customer turnover, growing customer acquisition costs and rising customer expectations, meaning that their performance is significantly dependent on their ability to satisfy customers efficiently and effectively (Olsen & Connolly, 2000; Gilmore & Pine, 1997). Actively managing relationships to achieve a desired transactional/relational state accompanied by some problem, as customers complain that more between 35% and 75% of their CRM projects have failed and the majority will underestimate costs by between 40% and 75% (Rigby et al., 2002; Zablah et al., 2004a). Programs not only fail to success in economic terms, but also damage the organization’s relationships with its customers.

As a result Customer Relationship Management (CRM) with requiring customer-centric business philosophy and making long term relationships with most valuable customers will help business to cover themselves in the current competitive environment (Sigala, M., 2003b). Different reasons cause the failure of CRM to meet its objectives. While some of these reasons are inevitable, many can be avoided (Payne, 2004). According to Mendoza et al (2006), the time that organization decides to implement CRM, it must be conceived as a strategy, due to its components, Human, Process and technology.

Managing a successful CRM implementation project requires an integrated and balanced approach to these components (Chen & Popovich, 2003). Implementation of this type of approach should be take in to account with considering all involved aspects that seems to be crucial success of CRM strategy and known as Critical Success Factors (CSFs). It is considered that a factor is critical for running a CRM strategy when its presence guarantees that the implementation of this strategy will be successful. Critical success factors are embedding in CRM components and successful application of CRM strategy needs applying its critical success factors. These could include using technology, creation of a multidisciplinary team, senior management commitment, inter-departmental integration and changing process via Business Process Reengineering (BPR). All these factors require staff involvement and fundamentally change in organization’s culture.

It is each individual employee who is playing roles in accepting all changes and adopting CSFs. Many commentators have identified organizational culture as an important factor that enables or disables the achievement of desirable
CRM outcomes. People’s resistance to working with newly created processes and to using and implementing CRM critical success factors may lead to implementation failures. It is often assumed that organizational culture is a subset of national culture. This view is widespread since most organizations operate within given nation and employ members from the same national culture. Thus, managers and researchers often consider organizational culture as the micro context and national culture as the macro-context in which employees operate.

National cultural and its effects on employees’ behavior and consequently organization’s culture play more important role for global market and Multinational Corporation. Same organization’s branches in different part of the world run with employees from different national cultures and their behavior in workplace play an important role in success or failure of organization’s strategies. Because of national culture differences, some strategies work in branches of one country but it may not be successful in other countries.

Professor Hofsted has, in his researches on national cultural, proposed that national and regional factors contribute to the culture of organization and eventually influence the behaviour of employees in organizations, so their national culture influence on the value of their works in organization for accepting or rejecting changes. He found out that ‘one reason why so many solutions do not work or cannot be implemented is because differences in thinking among the partners have been ignored’.

Based on the in-depth literature review undertaken by the researcher in the academic and practitioner literatures regarding CRM and related topics, it emerged that there is little existing researches in general terms of CRM /CSFs and culture and no empirical study have investigated comprehensive view that captures all aspects of CRM implementation, critical success factors, national cultural effects and their inter-relationships (especially for global CRM implementing in multinational hotel corporations). On this way, the rational of current study is filling the existing gap with focusing on integrating all aspects of CRM implementation in multinational chain hotels via implementing Critical Success Factors and considering potential national culture impact; as a way to leverage the success rate of global CRM projects.

There are four main questions as follow:

1. “What is the implementation level of critical success factors in CRM programs of chain hotel branches in two countries?”
2. “What is the influence of national cultural on behaviour of employees and eventually organization\textapos;s culture in chain hotel branches in two countries?”

3. “What is the relationship between cultural behaviour of employees and implementation level of critical success factors in CRM programs of chain hotel branches in two countries?”

4. “What is the effect of employees\textapos; culture on the way of managing CRM programs and accepting changes?”

5. “Does the national cultural difference in two countries cause any effect on the way of managing CRM programs and level of success?”

6. “What are the best solutions for chain hotel to decrease the effect of cultural barriers and increases the level of success in current and future CRM programs in worldwide braches?”

According to the research problem, questions and hypothesizes, current research considers being both exploratory and explanatory and researcher will adopt a combined approach qualitative and quantitative method. In the first place after a library research Critical Success Factors (CSFs) used for this research derived from Mendoza et al study. As it was also recommended by the author of the model, it is very probable that in some cases it will be necessary to adapt certain factors and ranges of the model to the specific features of the companies to be evaluated, due to certain specific aspects inherent to the type of market where they operated as well as the size of said companies. With regard to this point, an expert interview will be run with CRM experts that would help the researcher to fit and refine the ranges and metrics of the model with regards to requirements and nature of the hotel business. Following the expert interview, required data for the quantitative part of the research will be collected with the help of questionnaire which will be designed by the researcher base on Mendoza and Hofsted studies. The strategy for running the research is case study. For a comparative study two countries will be selected. The selection of people for distributing questionnaire is based on their involvement in the CRM process and connections with costumers as follow: top management members, CRM committees, teamwork members, marketing managers, IT managers and others dealing with CRM processes. Based on its findings, this study will suggest hotel managers (specially chain hotels) the best ways to overcoming national cross-cultural barriers in order to adopting CRM strategy successfully.
References


Pictorial and Experiential Image in Lake Destinations: Alqueva Lake as a Case Study

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Introduction
This research aims to conduct a destination image (DI) study in an emergent lake tourism area located in the south of Portugal, the Alqueva Lake. For that purpose two fundamental topics arose from the initial goal within tourism as a scientific field: destination image (DI) and lake tourism (LT). Concerning lake tourism (LT) this is a new academic field in tourism studies as the literature review has demonstrated (Hall & Harkonen, 2006). Water is an essential aesthetic and recreational resource that attracts millions of people worldwide. Lakes are open water bodies, dams or reservoirs which represent a valuable resource for a variety of human activities, including tourism. However, scarce research is evident especially on destination marketing (Tuohino, 2006). Hav-
ing in mind the above considerations this research will endeavor a DI study in a completely new subject (lake destination), which has been totally absent of DI research. As a result, this investigation will contribute to the growing literature of lake tourism by conceptualizing this form of tourism; establishing the characteristics and behavior of a lake tourist, and finally, identifying the main variables involved in the image formation of this type of tourism. For that purpose, the largest man-made lake of Western Europe will be the case study. The lake is located in Alentejo (south of Portugal) and in Extremadura (Spain). This research will concentrate on the Portuguese part of the lake. Alentejo is rural and traditional, being the most depopulated region in the country, and the least developed region of Portugal. Thus, the Alqueva Lake, as a tourism destination, is in the very beginning of the life cycle, tourists cannot have yet a well-defined perception about this “new” destination. Consequently, the DI study is mainly based on the actual contact between tourist and the destination generating firsthand information and experience. Implications for the Alqueva lake’s image development will come out from these findings.

Concerning the DI research a preliminary literature review established a pretheoretical specification of the domain under study. A first conclusion emerged by assuming DI as an umbrella construct and, consequently, the adoption of a multidisciplinary approach in this investigation. A more dynamic literature review was then conducted based on the assumption that scientific progress is not linear and cumulative but evolutionary where different theories, perspectives and techniques are emphasized at different times. Underpinned by evolutionary theories applied to science, the state of the art concerning DI research was supported by the implementation of a life-cycle model tested in umbrella constructs (Hirsch & Levin’s, 1999) in DI field. Undoubtedly, the DI construct represents a wide variety of elements and a complex diversity, a link between world perspectives and interpretations about an objective reality. The main conceptualizations of DI since the emergence of the construct clearly demonstrated this line of reasoning. A current state of this field was conducted within three life-cycles stages as a framework: emerging excitement, validity challenge, and “tidying up with typologies”. DI has reached a decisive turning point at the present time. Academics should make the construct more coherent and consistent in the future.

Considering the aforementioned discussion, two different perspectives emerged during the literature review process: a ‘unidisciplinary approach’ (UA), which explores the construct based on a single viewpoint from a single discipline, and a ‘multidisciplinary approach’ (MA), with a more broad under-
standing, where different perspectives and standpoints from several disciplines were considered. This research adopted the latter, considering the multidimensionality of DI construct (Rodrigues et al., 2011). Bearing in mind this frame of reference, this investigation is grounded on contributions from disciplines of marketing (the scope of the study) and others fields of research, in line with the current and emerging trends within DI field (Stepchenkova & Mills, 2010). The aim is to establish ‘intellectual linkages’ among otherwise isolated perspectives, enriching the body of knowledge. Simultaneously, it is a way to get out of the rational 4Ps box (product, price, place, and promotion) which is sometimes constrained by conventional economic theories of rationality.

This study involves the behavioral component of DI research. Some studies have examined the DI as the link between tourist perceptions and motivations (e.g., Correia & Crouch, 2003), tourism satisfaction and loyalty (e.g. Kozak & Rimmington, 2000), and other topics from tourist behavior. However, scarce studies have addressed the impact of the actual visitation on DI formation process of emerging destinations or/and new types of tourism, based on alternative perspectives to information-processing theory in consumer research. Thus, the base line for a different approach – named as ‘experiential view of DI’ - proposed by this investigation was built on crossing theories and thoughts of multiple fields (e.g. consumer behavior, marketing, psychology, human geography, phenomenology). Three main assumptions were considered: (1) the choice of destination image attributes largely depends on the attractions that a place has at its disposal (Beerli & Martin, 2004), which means that image attributes change according to the type of destination being study; (2) a more multifacet image assessment, considering cognitive, affective and sensory attributes (Son & Pearce, 2005) more in line with an hedonic perspective of consumption (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982); (3) the actual visitation and experience of the tourist as an important and credible source of information for image formation process (Fakeye & Crompton, 1991).

Given the previous considerations, the aims of this investigation are the following:

- To critically review the academic literature concerning DI by proposing the life-cycle model as the appropriate framework for an evolutionary analysis.
- To recognize and demonstrate the importance of experiential aspects of DI contributing to a renewed understanding of this umbrella construct.
• Propose a more integrated conceptual model based on an `experiential view´ of DI construct, demonstrating the advantages of a mixed methods research on DI studies.
• Conceptualize lake tourism and determine the main variables involved in the image formation of this type of destination.
• To establish characteristics and behavior of lake tourists.
• To propose an image scale for lake destinations and test it in the Alqueva Lake as an emerging destination.
• To examine the implications of this study in terms of competitive strategy and promotional image development for Alqueva lake.

Grounded on a multidisciplinary approach, a conceptual model (see Figure 1) based on an `experiential view´ of destination image (EVDI) is proposed. This perspective of DI is concerned not only with a `rational´ image, but explores more symbolic, aesthetic, emotional and sensorial meanings of the tourist’s perception. The EVDI conceives destinations not as objective realities (merely as geographical location), but rather as subjective symbols and meaningful places, allowing to identify bonds between the tourists and the destination. Furthermore, it is important to highlight that what provides destination competitiveness are also memorable experiences (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003). Thus, the complex nature of DI demands for new approaches in line with a more hedonic nature of consumption (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982), based on its experiential aspects as an enlarged view of information-processing theory (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982) and also with new approaches to imagery processing to evaluate product´s attributes (MacInnis & Price, 1987). Moreover, the recent experiential paradigm for conceptualizing tourism (Ritchie & Hudson, 2009) also requires renew approaches of DI.

This EVDI is rooted on a cognitive-affective approach (e.g. Baloglu & Brinberg, 1997), incorporating also a new DI component (sensorial), which has been totally underestimated in the literature. However, this investigation is based on Pearce’s (1988) assumption that travellers are not only motivated by the appearance of destinations but also by the emotional and sensory qualities which help to fulfill their psychological needs. Echtner and Ritchie (1991) also argued that not only cognitive and affective attributes are important for imagery processing, but a holistic impression embracing all human senses. Bearing this in mind, this study will seek to assess the sensory image proposed by Son and Pearce (2005) in their multi-faceted image assessment, particularly the `visual image´ as a representation of the visual sense. There’s no doubt in what con-
cerns the power of image in tourism marketing and its importance for understanding tourist behavior (e.g. Jenkins, 2003). The strong visual component inherent in DI was also highlighted by Pearce (1988).

![Figure 1. The experiential view of destination image (EVDI): conceptual model](image)

From a methodological point of view, a qualitative and quantitative approach will be adopted. This mixed-methods design has become increasingly common in recent years also applied in DI field (Echtner & Ritchie, 1991). Thus, the research design will be carrying out in two main phases. The qualitative method will contribute to the quantitative work in two ways: (1) by identifying the general and specific variables to be examined; (2) by facilitating and helping to explain the quantitative findings. Therefore, the unstructured technic is considered to be preliminary but essential since it provides in-depth descriptions offering strong internal validity. The first phase will identify the characteristics of a lake tourism destination and generate variables of image formation specific to the setting. DI attributes will be generated and a filter process will be conducted, in order to detect and identify lake tourism concept and characteristics, including the intensity and importance of possible variables. This mixed-methods approach begins with an analysis of image assessment variables found in the literature for lake tourism (rarely considered) and other types of destination. Some preliminary conclusions were already sorted out: (1)
a geographical expansion in DI studies where gradually other destinations began to be studied, mainly in the 2000s; (2) the scope of DI studies has also become wider, in which lake destinations are completely absent in the literature; (3) There is a lack of consensus about which items and variables should be considered varying from destination, and (4) despite forty years of research, only some DI scales can be considered reliable and valid (e.g. Beerli & Martin, 2004; Echtner & Ritchie, 1991) which do not correspond at all with the object of the study (lake destinations).

As a result of this review process, a set of potential variables will come out. A filtering process must be then implemented aiming to better adapt to the study area. It is believed that potential dimensions of image construct will be more related with the type of destination under study. A final list of variables with potential influence on image formation of lake destinations will be validated through a tourist focus group, in-depth interviews of local stakeholders, and an international panel of experts in lake tourism. Additionally, this study will integrate an image survey (MacKay & Fesenmaier, 1997) based on pictorial elements (official photographs) in order to assess the visual image of Alqueva lake. A structure method will complement the methodology. A statistical procedure grounded on multivariate methods, having likert-scale as the data collection technic, will be carry out. Several cognitive attributes with a different position in the functional-psychological continuum of DI will be considered from previous studies (Beerli & Martin, 2004; Echtner & Ritchie, 1991). Similarity, an initial list of affective attributes will be considered (e.g. Baloglu & Brinberg, 1997). To measure the visual image, the final questionnaire will include selected photographs of Alqueva as a lake destination based on the previous findings from the qualitative methods. This investigation will attempt to demonstrate the effectiveness of a mix-method approach in DI studies.

Finally, an evaluation of the research, including theories, methodology procedures, and results will be undertaken, with a view to clearly establish the contribution to knowledge, limitations and further research. At a theoretical level, this investigation will attempt to generate theory and not only be descriptive, proposing a different perspective of DI. The ‘experiential view’ of DI based on a more hedonic perspective of the construct is grounded on the assumption that the use of one single research paradigm might produce a too narrow view, considering its multidimensionality. In addition, a contribution to conceptualize lake tourism as a new type of tourism will emerge. At empirical level, a scale for lake tourism destination image will be proposed. Also important it will be clearly identify the implications of these findings for destina-
tion marketers both in terms of competitive strategy and promotional image development for the Alqueva Lake.

References


Understanding Interdependencies and Tensions around Cultural Tourism in City Destinations: The Case of Nanjing, China

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Introduction

This paper develops a holistic model intended to improve understanding of the relationships in tourist destinations between the culture and tourism sectors, and between cultural tourism’s production and consumption. Cultural tourism producers in destinations respond to the increasing number of cultural tourists seeking to experience cultural products. But the producers may not respond in ways required by the consumers or in ways that respect the cultural resources. Also, there may not be agreed ways of working and coordination between the tourism and culture sectors. Thus, there are complex relationships associated with interdependencies and tensions around the production and consumption of cultural tourism in destinations. These relationships need to be better understood, including their changing character and also their specific nature in different destinations.
Previous research on cultural tourism usually focuses on either its demand side or its supply side, and on heritage tourism rather than the broader cultural tourism sector. Much less work explores cultural tourism in more integrated ways. Many researchers focus specifically on heritage protection, heritage commercialization, or heritage management (Chhabra, 2009; Garrod & Fyall, 2000; McKercher, Ho & du Cros, 2005). However, there are key debates requiring better understanding that link the demand and supply sides of cultural tourism, such as how the messages presented in cultural tourism products are received by different tourists.

The model discussed here draws from Ashworth’s (1994) exploration of heritage products and tourist consumption in tourist-historic cities. His ideas are extended here within a model of the wider context of cultural tourism and of interdependencies and tensions around cultural and tourism in cultural/historic tourist cities. This model is then applied to understand features of cultural tourism in Nanjing, a major tourism city near to Shanghai in east China. It draws on a larger PhD study that researches these issues using in-depth semi-structured interviews, field observations, official reports, and internet blogs. The model and its application to Nanjing in my PhD seek to advance theoretical understanding of cultural tourism, and notably to assist other researchers in evaluating relationships between cultural tourism production and consumption in destinations.

**Relationships around cultural tourism**

There are very few integrative models of cultural tourism production and consumption. The nearest equivalent is by Ashworth (1994), although that focused on heritage within cultural tourism (Figure1). His model explains the commodification processes for heritage resources as they are interpreted and packaged as products in the heritage sector. It has a notable marketing orientation, as it assumes that the heritage industry is strongly focused on producing a marketable product that satisfies consumers’ expectations (Ashworth & Larkham, 1994).

But Ashworth’s model has not been applied by researchers to studies of specific destinations and it remains a theoretical construct. It also begins to alert us to tensions in cultural tourism that have not been explored in an integrated manner. And Ashworth (1994) himself noted that the model suggests a "planned system ", which raises "the question of who plans, for what purposes" (p. 14).
The value of a relational and integrated view of cultural tourism is put forward by McKercher and du Cros (2002), who identify the need to examine relationships between the four elements of cultural tourism, which they identify as: "tourism, use of cultural heritage assets, tourists, and consumption of experiences and products" (p. 6). Cultural tourism research should focus not only on the components of cultural tourism, but also on relationships between them and on the influences of the socio-economic, political and environmental context. There are iterative and reflexive relationships between all these societal issues and they are also specific to particular places and times (Holland, 1999). An understanding of the components of cultural tourism and of their complex interrelationships, including with their wider societal context, can assist in understanding cultural tourism and in delivering cultural tourism to tourists in destinations in appropriate ways.

**Conceptual Model**

My conceptual model is an integrated, holistic model of cultural tourism in city destinations (Figure 2). It considers the reflexive relations and interactions between the component elements of cultural tourism and between cultural tourism and the wider societal context. Within this model the different actors and structures are connected within the relational interdependencies and tensions (Bramwell & Meyer, 2007). These interdependencies and tensions around cultural tourism are the central focus of this model, with the various relationships around interdependency and tension integrated in a holistic manner within the wider macro- or societal context. The model is interconnected but can be bro-
ken into at any point. It is applied into the specific case of cultural tourism in Nanjing, China.

Figure 2. Conceptual model of cultural tourism’s interdependencies and tensions in city destinations

The conceptual model pays particular attention to interdependencies and tensions associated with four groups of relationships in a broad environment, including the economy, politics and governance, socio-cultural relations, urban environment and technology. These are relationships between cultural and tourism policies and between different government departments associated with cultural tourism production; between the public and private sectors around cultural tourism production; between the production and consumption of cultural tourism products; and between the encoding of cultural tourism messages by producers and the decoding of those messages by the consumers. The framework is intended to assist researchers interested in understanding the broad processes of cultural tourism development, marketing and consumption in destinations.

Methods used to develop and apply the model based on the Nanjing case

The model in Figure 2 was developed through both inductive and deductive approaches. Most key concepts in the conceptual model were identified from a
critical evaluation of the research literature, but the framework was signifi-
cantly refined based on issues and processes identified from my fieldwork in Nanjing.

The study uses qualitative methods and a range of types of sources, in-
cluding 40 in-depth semi-structured interviews, field observation, photographs,
promotional materials, blog sites, newspapers and other printed sources. A
purposive sampling approach was used to select interviewees from different
groups of actors for the semi-structured interviews (Tashakkori & Teddillie,
2003). Interviews were conducted with 25 managers from among Nanjing's
cultural tourism suppliers, and with 15 cultural tourists. The 25 managers were
identified for their positions and responsibilities, and their identification was
also partly based on the use of snowball recommendations made by interview-
ees (Ryan, 1995). The 15 tourists were in part selected based on their visits to
different types of cultural attractions, including museums, festivals and other
cultural activities (Richard, 2001).

Participant observation in the field was also used to help understand peo-
ple's activities and behaviours, and this also assisted in situating activities and
interactions within the broader social environment (May, 1997). The researcher
also visited many cultural tourism attractions in the city, sampled using Rich-
Some of the documents used were identified according to the cultural sector's
involvements at local, regional and national scales (De Araujo & Bramwell,
2002). Blogs were reviewed as they are of growing importance and they pro-
vide a platform for tourists and managers to express their views and share ex-
periences.

An illustration of the application of the model to Nanjing
I will illustrate the application of the proposed model of interdependencies and
tensions around cultural tourism in Nanjing by focusing on just one issue. This
issue relates to the encoding of cultural tourism messages by cultural tourism
suppliers and their decoding by tourists. It concerns the overall city imaging
used by Nanjing city. The overall city image is an important signal represent-
ing the city's main characteristics, which is often summarised in one slogan or
logo (Gallarza, Saura, & Garcia, 2002; Govers, Go,& Kumar, 2007).

Nanjing's current city image is promoted through the slogan: "A city of uni-
versal love". This derives from the ideas of Dr. Sun Yat-Sen, a Republican lead-
er who established a new national government in 1912. Dr. Sun Yat-Sen is well
known among the Chinese people for helping to establish a new socio-political
order after feudalism that paved the way for China's present socio-political system. The key idea in his *The Three Principles of the People* was to work towards "Everything for the People", based on building nationalism, civil liberties, and helping with people's livelihoods (Kesey, 2007). This Republican idea was influenced in turn by Abraham Lincoln's notion of "government of the people, by the people, and for the people" (Calney, 2010, p. 23).

This city image has been encoded by city leaders and other producers in part with political purposes in mind, and the decoding by consumers, including tourists, is influenced by their understanding of Republican history. In terms of the purposes of the "A city of universal love" slogan for the producers, a tourism official argued that it provides a continual reminder of Dr. Sun Yat-Sen's Republican idea and that it can also help to achieve the purpose of building a harmonious society. Since 2004, the Chinese government has increasingly sought to improve the Community Party's ability to govern through promoting the idea of building a harmonious society (Han, 2008). At the same time, the cultural resources and also the consumers' interests in, and understanding of, Republican history were considered when developing this city slogan and image. A tourism expert argued that the process of simplifying Nanjing's long cultural and political history, and the substantial focus just on the Republican period, involved consideration of consumer needs and market research. He explained that, "After analyzing all the data from questionnaires and surveys, only the unique Republican culture can be regarded as the core content of Nanjing's city image". A tourism official also contended that Republican culture could be easily accepted by tourists because "It [the Republican culture] is close to our current lives".

However, there are several tensions for the producers, tourists and local people around Nanjing's slogan of "A city of universal love". For example, many government officials and managers in private sector organizations argued that the slogan is inappropriate and unhelpful, and the public debate about this has yet to be resolved. A tourism expert was unhappy that the slogan only represented the Republican historical period as it ignored other important eras in the city's cultural history, such as the Six Dynasties and Ming Dynasty periods. Another tourism official didn't agree with "A city of universal love" because "Nanjing lacks enough cultural tourism resources for it to fully reflect the meaning of 'universal love'". Indeed, many tourists and local people could not fully understand the meaning of "universal love". One tourist, for example, explained that, "We only know about 'universal love' in relation to Dr Sun Yat-Sen, but not about its internal meaning or content". A city resident also
complained that, ‘‘I don’t know the full details of ‘universal love’, and I only know it is a slogan’’. There are several tensions, therefore, around the encoding and decoding of this cultural and political slogan and image.

**Conclusion**

It has been argued that the proposed model of cultural tourism in destinations has advantages as it can contribute to a more holistic understanding of the diverse relationships involved in cultural tourism, including interactions between its constituent parts and its wider macro-environment. It explores the relational aspects of cultural tourism in destinations, and in this it may assist in broadening the scope and attention of research in this field. The model also focuses on the idea of dependencies and tensions in cultural tourism, and it explores these through the relations between the public and private sectors, the culture and tourism sectors, producers and consumers, and products and messages. The paper also briefly illustrated the model’s practical application. The example drew from my PhD research on cultural tourism in Nanjing, and it focused on dependencies and tensions around the city’s use of the slogan "A city of universal love" to encapsulate the city’s historical past, political relevance, and tourism resources. The tensions reflected the differing perceptions and needs among the producers and consumers of this image.

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Wildlife Watching and Hunting as Tourist Experiences

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Introduction

As most people in the west are isolating and losing connection to nature, the demand for wildlife tourism is increasing (Reynolds & Braithwaite, 2001; Curtin, 2005). Even though food is easily obtainable from supermarkets and animals are part of everyday life as pets, there is still something alluring in encountering the untamed wildlife. People want to see, observe and even hunt non-human animals in their natural habitat, and for many people this can only be done by travelling, getting away from cities and visit remote, rural areas. Knowledge on wildlife tourists’ expectations and evaluations on service attributes may help tourism service providers to differentiate their services and marketing communications. Information is also needed on characteristics of wildlife tourists. The theoretical challenge of this research is to identify and define attributes and boundaries of the wildlife tourist experience concept and the managerial challenge is to create useful implications for wildlife tourism business to help creating and developing satisfying and attracting wildlife tourism experience services. My dissertation is in its early stage and this paper is basically a dissertation plan that consists of short literature review on the context, and short descriptions of research design, objectives and methodology.
Literature Review

A wide range of activities can be seen as wildlife tourism, such as going on a wildlife safari in Africa, whale watching from a boat, bird-watching either independently or with a commercial guide, visiting a zoo, big game fishing and trophy hunting. Simply put, wildlife tourism is based on encounters with non-domesticated (non-human) animals, and these encounters can take place in animals’ natural habitat or in captivity (Higginbottom, 2004). A conceptual framework for wildlife tourism by Duffus and Dearden (1990) focused on three dimensions of wildlife-human interaction. These include hunting and fishing (consumptive use), zoos and aquaria (low-consumptive) and wildlife observation and photography (non-consumptive). However, currently wildlife tourism activities are usually classified only in two categories, non-consumptive and consumptive, outlining the term ‘low-consumptive’. Non-consumptive activities consist of events such as viewing, photographing and feeding the animal. Consumptive wildlife tourism activities involve killing or removing the animal from its natural environment, or having any parts of its body utilized (Freese, 1998). Both categories form parts of a continuum in which there is often some overlapping (Newsome, Dowling & Moore, 2005, p.6). Depending on the viewpoint, non-consumptive wildlife tourism is, in some cases, consumptive, for example if it is seen as a purchase process, such as Curtin (2005) describes: “it is all about purchasing experiences rather than things, and increasingly these ‘experiences’ include natural space and wild animals”. Knight (2009) suggests that there are “fundamental” similarities between hunting and viewing wildlife. Wildlife viewers and hunters need to find their target animals and therefore they must have knowledge of movements of wildlife and have the ability to track them (Knight, 2009). Animals are not aware of the intentions of humans, whether a viewer or a hunter, and therefore from animals’ point of view humans are seen as potential predators and thus they conceal themselves or flee in encounters (Knight, 2009).

Although wildlife watching and photography is typically viewed as non-consumptive, there are empirical studies that document real impacts upon a range of species (Higginbottom, 2004; Newsome et al., 2005). These impacts include the disruption of feeding, breeding, migration and social behavior, the introduction of pathogens, habituation and physical harm from vessel and vehicles (Lovelock, 2008, p. 10). Weaver (2001) notes that non-consumptive wildlife experiences may include several forms of consumption such as the deterioration of the environment through erosion, the trampling of vegetation and the establishment of facilities. Other forms of consumption include the use of fossil
fuels and the purchase of material souvenirs, both of which require at least some degree of resource consumption (Newsome et al., 2005).

As a tourism product category, wildlife tourism overlaps with several other categories, such as nature-based tourism, ecotourism, rural tourism and special interest tourism (Reynolds & Braithwaite, 2001; Higginbottom, 2004). Wildlife tourists have a special interest for a certain activity and are therefore willing to travel to a destination of choice to practice that specific activity. This special interest differentiates wildlife tourism from mass tourism into a new, alternative form of tourism (Trauer, 2006). A wildlife tourism product can also include the features and elements of adventure travel (Newsome et al., 2005). As wildlife tourism seemingly overlaps with many different categories, problematic situations cannot be avoided. According to Curtin (2005), the definitions of wildlife tourism may appear to be apparent, but “the overlapping of wildlife tourism activities with other forms of nature-based tourism make accurate measurement highly problematic”.

**Tourist Experience**

After Pine and Gilmore (1999) brought up the idea of Experience Economy, the concept of tourism product acquired a challenger, tourist experience, that some authors see more fitting offering for the field of tourism. Jensen (1999) suggests that “people do not want to buy the products, but rather the stories and the experience behind the product” (Mossberg, 2007). Tourists want to buy experiences, feeling and emotions, not products (Opaschowki, 2001 in Trauer, 2006).

According to Quan and Wang (2004), tourist experience consists of a peak experience and a consumer experience. Social science literature considers peak experience to be in a sharp contrast to the daily experience and elements that are seen as extensions to the daily experience, like accommodation and transportation, are separated or ignored in this approach (Quan & Wang, 2004). These extensions are part of the consumer experience, but when combined with the peak experience, they form the tourist experience as a whole as the consumer experiences support the creation of a peak experience. As tourist goes through the experience subjectively, the role of the tourist product producer is to stage and arrange the surroundings for anticipated experience (Volo, 2009).

In other words, the experiences that tourist/consumer encounter occurs inside the person, and the outcome or experiential “consumption” depends on how the tourist/consumer reacts to the staged encounter (Walls et al, 2011). These arranged surroundings consist of supporting elements (e.g. accommodation, transport, dining) that are building blocks for the “experience pyramid” which
peak is hard to reach or maybe even unreachable without them. Absent or low quality supporting elements can lead to dissatisfaction and ruined experience, and conversely, high quality supporting elements can compensate for a disappointing peak experience (Mossberg, 2007). However, Walls et al. (2011) argue that even ordinary or daily experiences can become peak or transforming experiences if influenced or combined with appropriate physical experience and/or human interaction factors. According to Larsen (2007) elements, such as motivation, personality traits, self-esteem, value systems and attitudes are related to the tourist experience.

**Research Objectives**

Wildlife watching and hunting related issues are evidently current in the field of Finnish and international tourism. Also the concept of tourist experience has gained noticeable attention in tourism studies during recent years. The aim of this research is to gain understanding on,

1) How wildlife tourism experience is formed for wildlife tourist,
2) What kind of expectations wildlife tourists have towards the wildlife expedition and destination,
3) What are the characteristics of wildlife tourists, and are there existing cultural differences between different types of wildlife tourists.

One of the experience related objectives is to find out which customer value components are connected with wildlife tourism experience, and what is the mutual ranking of these components. Customer value is seen to consist of five different components: functional, social, emotional, epistemic and conditional component (Sheth, Newman & Gross, 1991). Knowledge on wildlife tourists’ expectations and evaluations on product/service attributes helps companies to differentiate their products/services and marketing communications. Information is also needed on characteristics of wildlife tourists. The theoretical challenge of this research is to identify and define attributes and boundaries of the wildlife tourist experience concept and the managerial challenge is to create useful implications for wildlife tourism business to help creating and developing satisfying and attracting wildlife tourism experiences.

**Research Strategy**

This research takes a mixed-method approach, which incorporates both qualitative and quantitative methods to obtain a more complete picture on the phenomenon of wildlife tourism experience.
Methodology

Data will be collected from Finnish and international wildlife tourists, who have had experiences on wildlife watching and hunting. At first stage, data is collected through and analyzed with qualitative methods (e.g. semi-structured interviews, content analysis). The aim of interviews is to gain insight of wildlife watching and hunting experiences. Hypotheses are created based on analyzed interview data and new data is collected for testing the set hypotheses with quantitative methods.

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Effectiveness of Airlines and Airports in Converting Stopover Passengers into Future Stayover Tourists at Hub Cities – Evidence from Singapore

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Introduction

Due to the highly developed hub and spoke network strategy of airlines, transferring at hub airports is a normal part of the travel experience especially for medium to long-haul travellers. However, most studies of tourism systems focus only on tourist generating and destination regions, and little attention has been paid to the tourist transit region or constituent elements such as hub airports. Specifically, there is no literature that directly analyses the influence of airline hubbing strategies on tourism development in the airline transit hub. This study is thus developed to address this research gap and examine if a new
relationship between the tourism industry and the airline industry can be created by converting stopover passengers into future leisure stayover tourists at hub cities through the effort of transfer hub airports and affiliated airlines, individually, together, and/or in affiliation with national tourism organisation. The exemplary characteristics of Singapore position that country as an appropriate case study.

**Research Gap Identification**

To conceptualise the basic spatial dynamic of tourism, Leiper (2004) developed ‘a simple whole tourism system and its environments model’, which minimally requires at least (1) one tourist, (2) one tourist-generating region, (3) one transit route region, (4) one tourist destination, and (5) a travel and tourism industry (Weaver & Lawton, 2010). External technological, political and legal systems will additionally influence the development of the tourism system and the tourist experience. For example, government policies on bilateral air service agreements can significantly affect a country’s accessibility.

The tourist generating region and the tourist destination are linked by the transit route region, and the specific place for transit in this region is the hub. The word ‘transit’ means making a passage or a journey from one place to another. In tourism, it indicates the process for tourists travelling from their origin region to the destination region. Broadly, transit activity includes moving from one place to another, changing transport modes (e.g. from shuttle bus to cruise) and transferring within the same transport mode (e.g. from one flight to another in a hub airport). At least one transit point is usually required within the transit region for long haul travellers in particular. Therefore, the ‘hub’ should be added and emphasised in Leiper’s model (see Figure 2.1).

![Figure 1. Leiper’s whole tourism system with ‘Hubs’ added to the transit route region](image-url)
Despite the critical facilitating role of transit regions and hubs, few studies have emphasised their importance within the tourism system. One reason is that they are often regarded as a taken-for-granted and non-discretionary space which the tourist must cross in order to reach their final destination (Weaver & Lawton, 2010). Normally, tourists consider the time spent in transit as wasted due to the fact that the experience is often uncomfortable and boring. However, Freyer (1993, cited in Grob & Schroder, 2007) indicates that the service quality offered during transit will significantly influence the tourist’s overall travel experience.

Due to the highly developed hub and spoke networks model and the establishment airline alliance strategies, more passengers in the deregulation era will transfer in the hub to reach their destination (Page, 2005), providing a valuable opportunity for the hub city to increase the number of tourists, as it can convert these transfer passengers into the future leisure stayover tourists with the help of the airlines and the airport. Passenger satisfaction is a crucial factor for such converting, as dissatisfied passengers are likely less receptive to marketing efforts designed for this purpose. In addition, satisfied passengers are more likely to perceive a positive image of the transit point, which can significantly influence tourist decision-making for the destination choice (Echtner & Ritchie, 2003).

Role of image in facilitating stopover-to-stayover conversion

The formation of images is a mental construct development process based on a few impressions extracted from a flood of information (Reynolds, 1965), which includes promotion literature (i.e. brochures and posters), the word of mouth opinions of others (i.e. family, friends and travel agent’s suggestion) and the general media (i.e. travel magazines, books and TV). Besides these secondary sources, tourists modify their perceptions through the first hand information and experience of visits (Echtner & Ritchie, 2003). Gunn (1988), accordingly, has developed a seven phase travel experience model, which includes:

- Phase 1: Accumulation of mental images about vacation experiences
- Phase 2: Modification of those images by further information
- Phase 3: Decision to take a vacation trip
- Phase 4: Travel to the destination
- Phase 5: Participation at the destination
- Phase 6: Return home
- Phase 7: Modification of images based on the vacation experience
Gunn’s model can be modified to analyse the image formation process of stopover passengers in transit locations. Stopover passengers may already have an organic image of their transit point through variable secondary resources and may choose their transit points based on resultant incipient image. After receiving additional stimulus from the airline and the transit airport as well as experiencing their service, they may adjust their perceived image of the transit point; perhaps even to the point where a visitation intention emerges if the image is positive enough. Accordingly, the image formation process of transit passengers on transit point can be summarised into the following phases:

- Phase 1: Accumulation of mental image about transit point
- Phase 2: Modification of the image by further information
- Phase 3: Decision to choose a transit point
- Phase 4: Receiving additional stimulus about the transit point from the airline
- Phase 5: Receiving additional stimulus from the actual experience at the transit point
- Phase 6: Modification of the image of the transit point based on the information obtained in Phases 4 and 5.
- Phase 7: Onward travel to final destination and then home
- Phase 8: Reassessment of image and future decision to revisit or not revisit transit point as stopover or stayover.

Identifying the perception of stopover passenger on the image of transit location is the one of the main objectives of this research, as such perception can significantly influence their re-visit intention to the hub city. Unfortunately, there is no literature that specifically discusses how the service quality of airlines and airports can influence the development of destination image. According to Page (2005), tourists must experience the trip to access tourism products, and the quality of transportation thus becomes an important aspect of the experience and a key criterion for destination choice. Airline service quality can therefore significantly influence tourism. Moreover, there is no literature that directly analyses the influence of airline hubbing strategies on tourism development in the airline transit hub. Most major airlines have developed a hub and spoke network operation strategy, and long-haul passengers normally need to transit through airline hubs. Recognising its important role in air travel, the transit hub should be emphasised as a crucial component in the transit region of Leiper’s model. Additionally, most literature only discusses the relationship between the airline industry, the destination management organisation and the government as bilateral phenomena. Few scholars have studied
these three elements as an integrated whole to assess the importance and effect of their synergy cooperation, as well as its influence on tourism industry development.

It is expected that the affiliated airline and airport can drive the tourism development of the transit hub and create a new increasing point for the number of inbound tourists by converting stopover passengers into future leisure stayover tourists with their high quality of service, proper marketing promotion strategies and the synergy cooperation with the local tourism board and government. Research is therefore needed to establish the nature of such links. Based on the research gap analysis, the conceptual map of the research is summarised in Figure 2.2. Part A depicts Leiper’s basic conventional tourism system with an added transit point. Part B depicts the desired conversion of this transit point to a destination for stopover passengers who are positively exposed to the hub destination through the strategic manipulation of airline and airport service, etc, and thus decide to revisit as stayovers (Part C).

Methodology

Based on a comprehensive literature review and a critical analysis of the relevant research gaps, the overall purpose of this research is to examine the potential for transfer hubs and affiliated airlines – individually, together, and/or in affiliation with national tourism organisations – to convert existing stopover passengers into future leisure stayover tourists. Considering the special cir-
circumstances of Singapore as a hub city, a case study about Singapore Airlines, Singapore Changi International Airport and the Singapore Tourism Board will be conducted during the research to better examine and elaborate this new relationship.

To address the research objective of this study most effectively, methodological triangulation involving both qualitative and quantitative approaches is pursued. A linear research path has been designed to ensure that the research proceeds in a clear, logical, sequential and well-structured manner. Three-stages of survey-based primary research will be conducted, which will involve semi-structured interviews (as the main qualitative component) and a questionnaire-based survey (as the main quantitative component).

The survey of stopover passengers from Singapore Airlines is the core part of this research, as main research objectives can be fulfilled through the survey. Online survey instrument is used to design the questionnaire and the survey is promoted among major frequent flyer blog, social networking website and travel website. To ensure the effectiveness and reliability of the research, the questions used to interview stopover passengers are designed based on the AIDA (Attention, Interest, Desire and Action) model and theory of reasoned action (TRA). Considering data reliability and ethical requirements, only stopover passengers of Singapore Airlines who are at least 18 years old will be interviewed. Due to the characteristics of the research, people who have had a stayover experience prior their first stopover in Singapore will be disqualified for the survey.

The most recent version of the quantitative statistics software, SPSS, will be used to analyse the questionnaire data. This will initially involve aggregate descriptions of the sample. Hierarchical cluster analysis will then be used to identify relatively uniform sub-samples differentiated by their response patterns to the Likert-scaled questions of experience and influence. Subsequently, comparison-of-means and chi-squared tests will be used to see how the clusters differ. The hierarchical cluster analysis method is effective in determining the conversion rate of transit passengers into stayovers for specific market segment and examining whether the strategies are successful.

**Significance of the Research**

As has been discussed in the problems and research gaps identification, there is very little literature that directly analyses the relationship between the tourism and air transport industries, and none that specifically considers the conversion
of stopovers into stayovers. This research will have substantial benefits for Singapore, Singapore Changi Airport and Singapore Airlines in determining whether conversion strategies by airport and/or airline are successful and for which market segments. Other factors (i.e. informal conversations with Singaporeans on flights) that influence the decision of stopover passengers to re-visit as stayovers, if they exist, will also be identified. Based on this information, a new cooperation model between the tourism industry and the air transport industry can be thus established. Subsequently, hub and gateway cities in the world can achieve long-term benefit and obtain a new market segment for their tourism industry.

References


Master of Science
Impact of Climate Change on Winter Tourism: 
A Case of Turkish Ski Resorts

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Introduction

In the last decades, the issue of global warming and climate change has become an increasingly hot topic on the world agenda. Scholars, together with politicians, industry representatives, and many other concerned bodies, are focusing more on to the details of this subject as to reach a consensus on the causes, magnitude and impacts of the phenomenon. As more facts become revealed, mitigation and adaptation strategies for those sectors most climacteric to change, such as tourism, are being proposed on scientific and political grounds. This paper aims to provide some brief knowledge about climate change effects on ski resorts in Turkey, and the implications for Turkey as a winter tourism destination. While touching upon the issue with an explanatory physical analysis, the paper also aims to pioneer a descriptive approach towards addressing the mostly neglected Turkish snow business under the tourism literature. As
indicated by IPCC (2007) and WTO (2008); there exists a cycle of tourism contributing to climate change through greenhouse emissions and that change, mostly in the form of warming, possessing potential impacts on tourism. The long-term scenario indicates many threats to tourism, including but not limited to; destruction of insular and coastal tourism areas by sea level rise, conflicts of resource allocation among locals and tourists in the cases of desertification and droughts, loss of attractiveness due to deforestation and endangered biodiversity, and last but not the least; demand shifts away from ski resorts, which are facing and will face the threat of snow cover and glacier loss due to warming. The most essential requirement for winter tourism to take place is, by its very own nature, the existence of snow. Snow cover provides the necessary grounds for implementation of winter sports, such as skiing, snowboarding and alike. Therefore, when determining locations of ski resorts, initially climatic features are investigated through meteorological data on snow accumulation and cover. Regions with minimum 1m snow depth and 120 days duration of snow cover rank first to be developed (Ulker, 2006), while the minimal climatologic threshold for such regions, referred to as “snow-reliability”, is defined as the snow cover with a minimum depth of 30-50cm available for at least 100 days in 7 out of 10 winters (Witmer, 1986; Elsasser & Burki, 2002).

As recently as the last few decades, the snow-reliability lines have been shifting upwards in relation with the rising surface air temperatures. Based on continuous satellite views since 1966; snow cover has declined by about 2% per decade in most regions, especially during the spring in the Northern Hemisphere, where the largest declines have occurred at lower elevations in the mountains of western North America and in the Swiss Alps. Therefore, the shrinkage of snow cover has shortened the ski tourism season at many locations, particularly for the low-lying resorts. Along with the contracting snow cover, an intensive permanent meltdown between 1961 and 2004 has also occurred for glaciers, which are the truly potential tourism resources for summer skiing (Hudson, 2003, p. 104; IPCC, 2007). An interdisciplinary literature studies several cases for the climate change exposure and vulnerability of ski resorts in major winter tourism destinations, most of which both originate and attract the global market of approximately 70 million skier tourists (figure from Hudson 2003, p. 92; Ulker 2006, p. 18). The spatial scopes of such studies include, but are not limited to, the USA and Canada in North America (Scott et al., 2006); Austria (Steiger, 2010), Switzerland (Konig & Abegg 1997, Elsasser & Burki, 2002), Germany (Hoy, Hansel & Matschullat, 2011), France (Dubois & Ceron, 2003), and Italy (Angelini & Cetara 2005) in the European Alps.
(Agrawala, Abegg, Jette-Nantel, Crick, & De Montfalcon, 2007), Sweden (Moen & Fredman, 2007) and Finland (Tervo 2008) in Nordic Europe; and Australia (Bicknell & McManus, 2006), Japan (Fukushima, Kureha, Ozaki, Fukimori, & Harasawa, 2003), and South Korea (Heo & Lee, 2008) in the Asia-Pacific. Some of the findings that strike out among all are the facts that even Switzerland, as one of the most conventional winter tourism destinations, already had 15% of its ski areas lose reliable snow conditions (Konig & Abegg, 1997), and that the case of Australia is on such an extreme that it has been re-coined as the “canary in the coalmine” who is giving the initial warning for warming (Bicknell & McManus, 2006).

There are numerous types of methods to choose from when dealing with analyses of climate change’s physical impacts on the ski resorts. A compilation by Scott (2006) cites various global climate models (GCMs) and some practical methods such as the aforementioned ‘100 day’ rule. This study, to some extent, follows the ‘100 day’ rule which was first introduced by Witmer (1986) and commonly applied for the European Alps. In order to apply this principle, the lines of snow-reliability for each Turkish ski resort with available raw data have been determined and tested against the warming scenarios for the years, 2025, 2050, and 2100. In determination of the snow-reliability lines, freezing levels of the ski resorts have been obtained, and the mean freezing level for the 2009-2010 skiing season has been set as the line of snow-reliability for each resort. Whilst one single season data brings a weakness to the methodology, an improvement to the conventional implementation of the rule here has been to process the actual freezing levels specific to individual ski resorts, rather than basing the scenarios on nationwide theoretical threshold values (Agrawala et al., 2007). Thus, a generalization error has partly been avoided.

Ultimately, a snow-reliability analysis of twelve ski resorts (Appendix) displays that Kartepe, Elmadag, Bozdag, Davraz and Saklikent have already lost their snow-reliability for the present and the future scenarios, Ilgaz, Zigana, Uludag and Kartalkaya are only reliable under the current circumstances; Erciyes can bear only 1°C warming, while Sarikamis and Palandoken can survive even under a 2°C warming by 2050. No resort will be viable to be operated, if the 4°C warming scenario for the year 2100 actually takes place. Most of the already climate change exposed resorts are agglomerated on the southwest regions of the country, where warming maritime effects are strong. However, these resorts mostly serve for the urban markets in close vicinity and this condition could be assisting their investment and operational profitability. In fact, applying a 60 day rule instead of the 100 day could have proved these resorts
to be snow-reliable, but then, again, the question would be their financial viability under just 60 days of operation. Uludag, Kartalkaya, Ilgaz and Zigana, which carry similar latitudinal and altitudinal measures, are just off the 1°C warming threshold and will enjoy their reliability for the first quarter of the century. Erciyes, on the other hand, is among the most reliable together with Sarikamis and Palandoken, owing to a higher altitude in a relatively drier climate which reduces precipitation but, at the same time, suspends the spring meltdown.

As there is quite enough evidence of a prospective natural threat over the Turkish ski resorts, it would be better to focus on some survival acts. Although there is much expert advice available to ski resort authorities on how to cope with the potential impacts of climate change, some literature findings indicate that the attitude of authorities towards this threat is not that attentive (Konig, 1998). On the other hand; Elsasser and Burki (2002) argue that the authorities of all levels, having witnessed the negative consequences of snow-deficient winters, are now more aware of the climate change impacts and more eager to act on the relevant adaptation suggestions.

Climate change adaptation of winter tourism manifests itself on technical, operational and political levels (Konig & Abegg, 1997; Elsasser & Burki, 2002; Scott, 2006). Snow insurance, alternative tourism development, industry cooperation and government subsidies are all examples of operational and political adaptation tools. However, most of the immediate solutions are first sought at the technical level, among which “going higher” and artificial snowmaking, despite some environmental concerns, are the most referred uses. In fact, many winter tourism destinations now employ snowmaking as a standard service, regardless of the climate change threat. Turkish ski resorts do not mostly possess any higher terrains to move their ski areas, and this makes snowmaking the only viable alternative that could reduce their vulnerability against global warming. Therefore, it is important to further elaborate the Turkish ski resorts physically in terms of their “technical snow reliability”, while also incorporating socioeconomic aspects as to view the whole big picture of Turkish winter tourism’s challenge against climate change.

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Introduction

Leisure time is not restricted to a certain age, gender or situation and groups of the society need to have some time of the day or the year for leisure. With respect to the upsurge in elderly population in the following years, it is very important to determine how to provide housing, healthcare, social and leisure services for them throughout the cities.

Based on the classification of the UN, population of countries is divided into three groups of the youth, adults, and the elderly. The criterion for this classification in countries is the proportion of the population of the elderly over 65 to the rest of the population; countries with young population are those in which the proportion of the elderly population is below 4 per cent, while countries with adult population are those which have an elderly population proportion of 4 to 6 per cent and countries with old population are those whose elderly population is 7 per cent or higher (Mashayekhi, 1998). The elderly group reaching their age of 65 is divided into two subgroups: one group become exhausted, feeble and disabled and are forced to stop working; they decide to
work on their mental, spiritual and physical relaxation while others from this group stop working much sooner to maintain their physical health. The elderly of the other group may be physically and spiritually healthy and happy and they are by no means willing to quit working.

In addition, for the individual who has been working all his life outside home, living inactively at home makes him frustrated and out-worn (Eshghpour, 1991). In this study it was attempted to examine the agreement between leisure needs of the elderly and existing sites for them to spend their leisure time in.

**An Overview of the Region under Study: Iran, Isfahan**

According to the estimations of the population division of the UN, the proportion of the elderly population of the world will increase from 10.5 percent in 2007 to approximately 21.8 percent in 2050. Although Iran is behind countries such as China and Korea in this respect (UN, 2006), it is quickly moving toward ageing following rapid and extensive demographic changes in the next two decades. After the fundamental and sustained decrease of mortality from 1951s, Iran experienced an unprecedented rate of population growth which lasted until 1981s and the population tripled in this interval reaching over 50 million people. In the last years of 1981s and especially in 1991s the rate of pregnancies and birth dramatically decreased. It is also noteworthy that among the factors influencing the ageing of population, the main factor is related to the reduction of productivity and mortality and emigration are secondary factors (Mirzae, 2005).

More than 20 percent of the population of some developed countries accounts for the elderly older than 65, but the average of over-65 population of Iran at present is around 6 per cent (Jahanfar, 2009). It should be mentioned that European countries have passed the margin of population ageing and 12 to 20 per cent of their population consists of the elderly (Farid, 2004). The Township of Isfahan with an area of approximately 15852.7 square kilometers with a population over 1986542 is located in Isfahan Province. The city of Isfahan is one of the four central cities of the Township of Isfahan located at the northwest of this township.

Isfahan is one of the ancient and historical cities of Iran. It is among the cities that perhaps, its history refers back to the history of Iran (Beikmohammadi, 2003). Isfahan has traversed an increasing population procedure especially from 1962. In the present thesis, among 14 urban areas of Isfahan, two areas of
3 and 5 were selected because their elderly individual characteristics were different. Based on the statistics from the Isfahan Governorship’s Deputy of Planning the number of people over 65 years of age in this city was 29268 males and 28375 females amounting to a total of 57643 people in 1996. The elderly population of Isfahan as of Iran has increased in 1385. In 2006, the elderly population of this city has been 44341 males and 40260 females amounting to a total of 84601 people. District 3 with 12.08 percent contains the highest number of the senior population of the city which suggests the traditional texture of the people of that area.

The leisure centers under study selected from districts 3 and 5 were divided into four categories of religious centers (including mosques and shrines), cultural centers (including libraries, cultural institutions, cinema and theater), public or private sport complexes or facilities and finally available parks and greens in the districts. Historical tourist attraction sites of Isfahan many of which are located in districts 3 and 5 were not selected for the elderly who resided in those areas because the scope of the influence of those attractions is national or even international. There are a total number of 188 religious sites in district 3 and 42 religious sites in district 5 which shows the high number of religious sites in district 3 because of its traditional and historic texture. There are 38 sport complexes and centers in district 5 which is more than the number district 3 with 26 centers. There are 13 cultural institutions in district 3 which is more than district 5 with 6 institutions. The distribution of local parks in district 3 is 16 which are higher than those in district 5 with 3 local parks.

**Methodology**

In this research, descriptive-analytic method and field work using questionnaires was applied. After performing an open interview, preliminary questionnaire was designed and its validity and reliability was evaluates after it was distributed in both districts. After doing necessary modifications in the questionnaire and obtaining sample size using Cochran test the main questionnaire was distributed and completed.

The areas under study were introduced in terms of their elderly population and suitable leisure centers in order to test the first hypothesis which states that leisure centers do not satisfy the needs of the elderly. Items related to leisure requirements of each leisure site put to question in the first table of the questionnaire were first determined and then the items related to the opinions of the elderly about present conditions of the same leisure site were determined. In order to obtain an index from the entire items related to leisure needs or the
entire items related to the present conditions of the leisure sites, factor analysis was used and then each was assigned a weight. The obtained combinational indices related to leisure requirements of each site in the opinion of the elderly and the combinational index of the present conditions of the same leisure site were then Pearson-tested and for one variable Spearman test was employed.

In order to test research hypothesis that maintained the quality of leisure sites does not satisfy the needs of the elderly, items related to leisure requirements of each site which were put to question in table 1 were first determined and items related to the opinions of the elderly about the present conditions of the same leisure site were determined. For obtaining an index from the entire items related to leisure needs and items related to the present conditions of the leisure sites factor analysis was used and each was then assigned a weight. The obtained combinational indices related to leisure requirements of each site in the opinion of the elderly and the combinational index of the present conditions of the same leisure site was then Pearson-tested.

**Results**

Factor analysis was employed to test the hypothesis. This evaluation was not directly performed, but items related to leisure requirements of each site were converted into a combinational index and items related to the present conditions and quality of the same leisure site in the viewpoint of the elderly were also converted into a combinational index and then tested. Results from Pearson and Spearman testing of the obtained combinational indices show a positive correlation coefficient and significance below 0.05 indicates that the research hypothesis is refuted. Correlation ratio was between 0.366 – 0.719.

However, it is worthy of noting that since random sampling was employed in this research and 68.7 percent of the interviewed elderly were in the age group of 65-74 years old, 35.5 per cent in the age group of 75-84 and only 5.8 per cent were in the age group of over 85 years, it confirms agreement between need and existing sites for the younger elderly group and with a lower percentage for the older elderly and since the percentage of the very old seniors is very low in this survey (due to their lesser presence in society) this lack of agreement does not hold true for this age group.

The second point to be noted is that the elderly who were interviewed chose mosques, religious sites and parks from the existing leisure sites to spend their free time in. This fact indicates that rejection of the research hypothesis is
more accurate for the above sites because of their frequent use than those sites which are not much visited by the elderly to be able to give a more correct answer regarding those sites. The need and interest of the elderly in using sport centers, using libraries, using cinemas, theaters and cultural institutions has a much lower percentage. An accurate answer from the elderly, who for example have not used a library during their old age, regarding the quality of the above sites is, therefore, impossible (Table 1). Indeed, the main reasons the elderly provide why they do not use facilities such as libraries, cultural institutions, cinema and theaters are their lack of interest, unsuitability and unattractiveness of these sites and the films and plays that are presented.

**Conclusion**

Leisure time is not restricted to a certain age, gender or situation and groups of the society need to have some time of the day or the year for leisure. With respect to the upsurge in elderly population in the following years, it is very important to determine how to provide housing, healthcare, social and leisure services for them throughout the cities. In this study it was attempted to examine the agreement between leisure needs of the elderly and existing sites for them to spend their leisure time in. Results showed that the main reasons the elderly provide why they do not use facilities such as libraries, cultural institutions, cinema and theaters are their lack of interest, unsuitability and unattractiveness of these sites and the films and plays that are presented.

**Table 1.** Frequency Percentage Distribution Of Respondents In The Field Of Leisure Places Requirements

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<th>Sum</th>
<th>Frequency percentage</th>
<th>Region</th>
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<td>Very High</td>
<td>High</td>
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<td>%0</td>
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<td>%9.7</td>
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<td>%2.4</td>
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Leisure Constraints and Stress Coping Processes of Adolescent Donjinshi Writers, Caricaturist and Costume Players

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Introduction

Originated from Japan, Donjin used to refer to persons who share a common goal or interest, shi is a suffix generally meaning periodical publication. Donjinshi is the term for self-published works, usually magazines, comics, cosplay (ie. costume play), or novels. Donjinshi are often the work of amateurs. It can be broadly divided into original works and works which parody existing anime and manga franchises (Sabucco, 2003). A very popular theme of Donjinshi is to explore non-canonical pairings of characters based on mainstream publications. Donjinshi are published in a variety of genres and types. A major part of Donjinshi, whether based on mainstream publications or original, contains sexually explicit material. However, there are also many non sexually explicit Donjinshi being created as well. In Western cultures, Donjinshi is often perceived to be derivative of existing work, analogous to fan fiction and almost completely pornographic (McLelland, 2000, 2005). Over the last decade, the practice of cre-
ating Donjinshi has expanded significantly, attracting thousands of creators and fans alike in Japan (Mizoguchi, 2003), Korea, Taiwan (Chang, 2005), China (Li, 2009), and the United States (Memmott, 2005). Teenagers in Taiwan live under pressure of pursuing higher education. Most of them attend school eight to five every day. They often go to cram school after school or even on weekends. As a result, leisure seems to be a luxury for them. Besides, most parents value less about leisure, sports, arts, novels, comics and computer/TV games. Therefore, in this social context, teenage girls who are Donjinshi writers, caricaturist and costume players tend to experience constraints and stress between work and leisure. Crawford, Jackson and Godbey (1991) identified three categories of leisure constraints. Jackson and Rucks (1995) discovered the strategies students develop to negotiate their constraints. This study employed Schneider and Stanis’s (2007) stress coping concept to explore the constraints experienced, the stress incurred, and the stress coping processes of adolescent Donjinshi authors.

Methodology

In Taiwan, there are several commercially operated Dojinshi conventions. The first Comic World Taiwan (CWT) was held in 1997. The Fancy Frontier, or FF in short, specialized in comics, anime, and cosplay was first exhibited at Taipei World Trade Center in 2002 (Wikipedia, 2008). In year 2011, FF18 attracted about half million audience (Wikipedia, 2008). Both CWT and FF maintain official website for activity promotion, information and discussion venues for both creators and fans. There are many types of Dojinshi creation including novels, drawings, comics, and cosplay. A genre named Boys’ love emerged in 1970 and became the most prevalent themes of Dojinshi authors. The study population is teenager girls who dedicated to BL Dojinshi creation. Data were collected from February to December, 2010, using semi-structural interviews. Sixteen informants, age 13-19 were interviewed. Six out of 16 engaged solo on novels, and one does only comics. The rest of them engaged more than one type of Dojinshi creation. Crawford et al. (1991) state that hierarchical model of leisure constraints was employed as the analytical framework for constraints experienced by the informants.

Results

Intrapersonal, interpersonal and structural constraints that Crawford et al (1991) defined were identified in this paper. Nevertheless, as Figure 1 showed, instead of hierarchically sequentially defined by Crawford et al. (1991), the in-
trapersonal, interpersonal and structural constraints the informants encountered were mutually interconnected.

**Intra-Personal Constraints:** Intrapersonal constraints are personal factors generated from leisure activities such as pressures and annoyances. Lack of self-esteem, confidence (Samdahl & Jekubovich, 1997), capability or skill (Jackson & Rucks, 1995) are intrapersonal constraints that people often talk about. The result showed that the informants’ intrapersonal constraints included lack of capability and confidence, lack of inspiration, bad mood, and being lazy.

**Interpersonal Constraints:** The interpersonal constraints of the informants came from both parents and peers, including those who were in the Jonjinshi community and those who were not. Figure 1 showed that their interpersonal constraints included parents’ high expectation on academic performance, negative images toward Donjinshi activities, keeping secrets from others, lack of companions, and conflicts with peers. Keeping secrets from others seems to be activity specific interpersonal constraint in the study. As Chen (2005) indicated that parents view Donjinshi activity as indecent and always equate the activity to identity of homosexuality.

**Structural Constraints:** Four structural constraints were identified. They were too many exams, lack of time, lack of equipment and money, and lack of private space. Schools and exams were informants’ duty and obligation, so they must fulfill this duty to be eligible do Donjinshi creation. More than half of the informants mentioned the experiences of ceasing the activity temporarily for preparing exams. The pressures from academic performance and many exams also made them lack of leisure time. Donjinshi creation relies heavily upon computer, software, equipments, costume, and cosmetics. Those were costly to them. And most of them relied on weekly allowances from parents only. For protecting privacy and peace of art work, the informants sought badly for private spaces which were almost impossible for some informants.
**Stress Coping Processes:** The emphasis of coping model is the process of appraisal, action, and re-appraisal. One appraises firstly whether constraints cause stress, then chooses available ways of coping, and lastly re-appraises if coping strategies effective to cope with stress. The results showed that some informants could relate constraints with stress, but some could not. The primary stress experienced is the worry of Donjinshi work being exposed. When it came to second appraisal, the informants took either rational or reflective approaches. Three cognitive coping strategies were identified: Distancing, Accepting responsibility, and Escape-avoidance. And three behavioral strategies were revealed: Self-control, Seeking social support, and planned problem solving. Those taking rational approach could identify if strategies effective, but those taking reflective approach didn’t go through the re-appraisal stage. The results indicated that some informants succeeded the coping process, but some failed. However, the success or failure of the stress coping processes didn’t lead to continuity or cease of Donjinshi works. That means some informants continue to create regardless of constraints encountered or ineffective coping strategies.

**Conclusion**

The study coincides with Godbey, Crawford, and Shen (2010) suggest that leisure constraints do not exist independently, but mutually interconnected. The informants revealed that many constraints derived from social values (for example, academic performances are the most important, Dojinshi creation is a
waste of time and money, etc). Therefore, to understand how social contexts form leisure constraints might be as important as research on the relationships between leisure constraints. The study showed that while encountering constraints or stress one is not always rational in making choices and taking actions. At least in this study, many teenage Donjinshi creators appraised and took actions intuitively. Finally, the results revealed that failure in coping processes did not necessarily lead to cease and success not necessarily lead to continuity of Donjinshi creation. It seems that motivation of participation or level of involvement may play an important role in making decision in participating or not participating than taking stress coping strategies. Further research could be explored in this regard. As to the model, stress coping model emphasizes contexts and processes (Folkman, 2010). Leisure constraints negotiation research stresses on the process as well (Crawford et al., 1991), yet few studies probed the cause of leisure constraints and how people negotiate them. The contextual nature of stress coping model offers a starting point for understanding how environment and social contexts lead to leisure constraints and how they influence one’s negotiation or coping strategies.

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An Empirical Investigation of the Relationship between Corporate Social Responsibility and Financial Performance in the Airline Industry

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Introduction

In 2010, world tourism recovered more strongly than expected from the global financial crisis and economic recession it suffered in late 2008 and 2009. Worldwide, international tourist arrivals reached 940 million in 2010, up 6.6% over the prior year. Recovery rate came much faster in most emerging economies (+8%) and slower in most advanced ones (+5%). Asia and the Pacific (+13%) was the first region to recover and among the strongest growing regions in 2010 (UNWTO, 2011). Air travel markets recovered in 2010. According to the 2011 United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) statistics, over half of world travelers arrived at their destination by air transport (51%) in 2010, while the remainder travelled over the surface (49%) – whether by road (41%), rail (2%), or over water (6%). Worldwide air travel, measured by the
number of passenger kilometers flown, rose 7.5% following a 1.9% decline in 2009. International air travel grew 8.3% after a 2.5% fall the year before, while domestic air travel was up 6.1% following a 0.9% decline. The strongest expansion in air travel was seen in the developing economies and among airlines based in those markets (IATA, 2011). Over time, the trend has been for air transport to grow at a faster pace than surface transport, so the share of air transport is gradually increasing (UNWTO, 2011).

The tourism literature interest in sustainable management of tourism has increased in greater proportions over the past few years, topics ranging from green building design, waste reduction, water saving issues to other related social responsibilities topics (Farrel & Twining-Ward, 2008; Nepal, 2008). Transportation was considered major contributor for carbon emission of tourism industry. Liu, Feng, and Yang (2011) studied the carbon dioxide (CO2) emissions of tourism industry of Chengdu, China. Results indicated that from 1999 to 2004, the CO2 emission of tourism industry in Chengdu increased from 1.7 x 106 tons to 2.1 x 106 tons, respectively. According to the United Nations statistics, the amount of CO2 produced by the aviation industry accounts for 2% of total CO2 emissions. This figure is estimated to rise to 3% by 2050. Consequently, a few airline companies have since been doing their share to achieve the goal of carbon-neutral growth by 2020 as set by the International Air Transportation Association (IATA). Despite the troubling global economic conditions of the past two years, airlines continued to invest in new equipment and better operating techniques to reduce fuel burn and carbon emissions. According to IATA’s 2011 annual report, the industry had established a global target for CO2 reduction was in contrast to other industry sectors and reinforced aviation’s proactive reputation (IATA, 2011). The purpose of this study attempts to empirically examine the effects of publicly traded Taiwanese airline companies’ social responsibility activities on their financial performance measures. Three measures, ROA and Tobin’s q, are used to capture the two dimensions of CFP: short-term profitability and the market’s evaluation of future profitability.

Literature Review

Kotler and Lee (2005) define CSR as ‘a commitment to improve community well-being through discretionary business practices and contributions of corporate resources’. Carroll’s (1979, 1991) four-part definition of CSR identifies four categories of responsibilities: economic, legal ethical and philanthropic. Copper-Smith and de Grosbois (2011) identify the specific CSR initiatives imple-
mented in the airline industry and their level of adoption. The data were collected from 14 worldwide airlines’ environmental or CSR reports available online. Results demonstrated a stronger focus on environmental issues than on the social or economic dimensions of CSR. Of the seven main environmental themes examined, emission reduction programs prevail. Four social and environmental themes were found, including employee wellbeing and engagement, diversity and social equity, community wellbeing and economic prosperity.

Despite general beliefs of a positive relationship between CSR and financial performance, the results of empirical studies were limited. In addition, researchers have found financial outcomes to vary across industries. Business sector motives for developing CSR programs might be altruistic, derived from a desire to benefit society. However, the motives could also be egoistic, based on a desire to achieve public relations or cost reduction objectives (Shang, Basil & Wymer, 2010). From a profit-seeking firm’s perspective, implications and benefits of investments in socially responsible activities are important matters to be considered, in the form of financial performance (Inoue & Lee, 2011).

**Methodology**

This study will select publicly traded airline companies in Taiwan. These sampled airline companies provided required financial data from the first month of 2000 to the end of 2009 (240 months). All data appears in the database of the Taiwan Economic Journal (TEJ). Consequently, 240 months sample observations are available for this study’s main analysis. Two measures, ROA and Tobin’s q, are used to capture the two dimensions of CFP: short-term profitability and the market’s evaluation of future profitability. First, ROA is an accounting-based measure that represents a firm’s efficiency of using its assets during a given fiscal year, capturing short-term profitability of the firm. The use of ROA is consistent with extant CSR-CFP studies. Second, to measure the market evaluation of firm future profitability, this study uses Tobin’s q, 3 which represents investors’ perceptions of a firm’s market value relative to its book value. Tobin’s q is a firm value perceived by the market. This perception is forward-looking, risk-adjusted, and more robust in accommodating changes in accounting practices (Montgomery & Wernerfelt, 1988). This measure has also been widely accepted among previous CSR-CFP studies. Return on assets (ROA) is defined as the net income divided by total assets and is a measure of profit per dollar of assets. Tobin’s q is defined as market value of a firm divided by the replacement value of its assets. Findings can provide industry leaders and gov-
ernment policy makers with practical knowledge with which to develop better business plans and policies that incorporate CSR activities.

References


Review of the Development of Tourism in Neyshabur: Challenges and Solutions

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Introduction

Today tourism is one of the most economic activities in the cycle of national states, especially for employment and prosperity and different areas to be considered in addition to the advantages of communication, political, cultural national and international influences. That's why most countries that have a rich cultural heritage, and natural areas use them as strategic tools for economic development. Tourism influences the economy and wealth of the world's poor countries (Moradi, 2008, p. 9-14). Neyshabur, despite having plenty of talent, great tourism resources, cultural and natural attractions, is not taking advantage of revenues and inputs of domestic and international tourism. The issue of tourism is an important factor that foreigners are called tourists and their entry to the country cause communication and cultural prosperity of the country. It also affects tourism acceptance. There are also facilities and accommoda-
tions for domestic tourists which can have a considerable impact on the development of tourism in the city of Neyshabur. Goals of this research include recognition and understanding Neyshabur’s most important elements as well as tourist facilities in the field of tourism and attracting domestic and foreign visitors.

*Neyshabur city:* Neyshabur city with a population of about 205,972 people and with an area of approximately 8925 kilometers is located in Khorasan province. The region has been relatively semi-arid. This city is a place to live for thousands of years for people of various ethnicities and has been civilized and has replaced the historic old city of Neyshabur to one of the oldest civilizations (Taheri, 2008, p. 48). The city has various attractions, including archaeological, historical, architectural, natural and cultural. Many events held in the city and its natural attractions, include Beautiful and unique desert and salt lakes. For tourists to be absorbed to Neyshabur, the revival and prosperity of public spaces and social life of the city is important. This town is known as tourist pearl of the desert because of increasing natural attractions and cultural factors (Taheri, 2008, p. 36).

**Results**

Neyshabur, with more than 190 historical buildings has been registered and unregistered among several buildings in the historical and cultural city that is rich in culture. The most important city monuments recorded works, historic homes and unique architecture of Neyshabur are: hills as Trbabad, Shadyakh, The Crypt Marvsk, Wooden Mosque, Grinding tower, the Heidari castle, Dome building Klydr, Fort Ancient period plane, Simorgh Cultural Center, The tomb of Hakim Omar Khayyam Neishabory, The tomb of Attar Neishabory and The tomb of Kamalolmolk (recreational welfare organization, Cultural Heritage Organization).
Table 1. Statistics provided by visitors from Neyshabur city

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Row</th>
<th>Name of</th>
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<th>2010 Statistics</th>
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<td>4</td>
<td>Shadyakh hills</td>
<td>99259</td>
<td>119635</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>Fort Ancient period plane</td>
<td>159238</td>
<td>170259</td>
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<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Dome building Klydr</td>
<td>149632</td>
<td>156984</td>
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<td>Heidari castle</td>
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<td>Grinding tower</td>
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<td>11</td>
<td>Wooden Mosque</td>
<td>224695</td>
<td>256945</td>
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<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Simorgh Cultural Center</td>
<td>215369</td>
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<td>The tomb of Hakim Omar Khayyam Neishabory</td>
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<td>14</td>
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<td>Shyrbad castle</td>
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<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Ibrahim Adham Cave</td>
<td>22136</td>
<td>263592</td>
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</table>

Source: Neyshabur recreational welfare organization

Effects of tourism and Tourist in Neyshabur

Economic: Tourism and tourist products and services are invisible exports. For example, costs of tourism in other lands for entertainment, food, housing, transportation, gifts to buy, exchange goods. This industry is a process that can be used by other economic sectors (Gi, 2007, p. 262). For example: Tourism development causes development of roads, airports, port facilities, restoration, monuments, etc. in business. Create employment opportunities in building hotels, tourism centers, improving the quality of industrial products, food, crafts. Tourism as a major economic factor and a highly effective one in recent years has been much considered from the benefits that attract tourists from economic point of view, and the extent of employment (Alvani, 2006, p. 131). Special characteristics of tourism in terms of consumption and circulation of money paid for many goods and services in demand all caused the rise of balanced growth in sectors in the economy, and the country is welcoming tourists (Kazemi, 2006, p. 102).

Social: Effect of transformation conditions on cultural tourism is obvious because the official statistics and matters that the tourism sector experts and professionals will be expressed and considered display that some variables such as age, sex, income, educational level, property personal affairs, job, etc. has many effects (Papoli & Saghaii, 2006, p. 93). Tourism and tourist is a factor for understanding the civilization, culture, land, when a number of other people's lands
are residential, people are familiar with the customs, and it can be said that
tourism has caused civilizations (Gi, 2007, p. 38).

Cultural: Although the science of anthropology includes collection of
knowledge and belief, values and social teachings of the covers, but at the same
time if is confined to behavioral techniques involving people. Public celebra-
tions and ceremony at certain times are held or participation in various sports,
those behaviours that people do to turn tourism to one of the cultural day to
day activities in expanding and seeking any change in popular culture, which
causes some understanding also involves the transformation and change which
are all good qualitative and quantitative aspects of tourism. For example, re-
ducing the value of religion and ethnicity will decline in tourism or vice versa.
Experience in tourism and tourism affairs not only leads to cultural develop-
ment, but also originates culture (Kazemi, 2006, p. 106).

International: People travel, stay in a country-level issue in the country, and
the government creates the ultimate level of political relations between their
nations and establishes a series of international rules to protect individual
rights in a country (Katamy, 2008).

Conclusion
Statistics of 85-89 years show the most viewed sites are the tomb of Attar
Neishabory, Kamalolmolk and Khayyam Neishabory and Wooden Mosque
and Ibrahim Adham Cave, and fewer visits are related to the Trbabad Hill and
Shadyakh hills. Considering the number of visitors from the city of Neyshabur
and short-term residence in the city, hotels and guestrooms are limited in this
city. Attention should be focused to address this urban area in reception of pas-
sengers, the needs of tourism, manufacturing, places to stay, restaurants and
hotel accommodation for passengers. As we know in the field of tourism, there
is little experience, and if we do not consider it as a major problem in the field
of tourism, both domestic and foreign Neyshabur will not be appropriate for
tourism. All programs offered in the field of tourism and general tourism, and
other areas have been studied in detail. To solve this problem and provide so-
lutions, the following approach based on comprehensive studies is recom-
mended:

1. Pay more attention to the context of traditional and historical city and
   also prevent entry to the historic fabric of modernism.
2. Spread propaganda via the internet, satellite, newspaper and TV.
3. Use the land’s unusable areas for construction of parking.
4. Extensive planning to develop hotels and residential centers in Neyshabur.
5. Training professionals to guide domestic and foreign tours.
6. Construction and building equipment and facilities for the resident's convenience.
7. Know the city of Neyshabur better by many sources introduced by the ancient monuments which are registered.

References


Responsiveness of Tshwane University of Technology’s Undergraduate Tourism Management Programme to Tourism Industry Employers’ Needs

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Introduction

Tourism as an activity has witnessed almost continuous growth since 1945 (Airey, 2005). Tourism in South Africa is a major growth sector which is labour intensive. Tourism has been identified as a strategic industry with an important role to play in the growth and development of the country’s economy (Kaplan, 2004; Rogerson, 2001). Growth in tourism requires matching highly skilled workers to meet the needs of the industry and destination competitiveness. Destination competitiveness is determined by a destination’s ability to offer superior services that distinguishes it from its competitors. There are, however, concerned voices from the industry suggesting that the industry has not reached its potential due to the lack of appropriate skills in the country (THE-
Public and private institutions of higher education produce tourism graduates each year, yet, the skills battle is not won. Industry cites the qualifications mismatch as one of the biggest contributing factors to continued demand for skills in the tourism sector. “There appears to be a considerable gap between what educational institutions offer as management – level tourism education and the needs of the industry” (Zehrer & Mosenlechner, 2009, p. 267). The claims of qualifications mismatch generates questions:

1. In what job positions are tourism graduates with a NDip in Tourism Management employed in?
2. What are the skills and knowledge required to effectively perform these jobs?
3. What is the curriculum content of the NDip Tourism Management offered by Tshwane University of Technology (TUT)?
4. What are the gaps between the industry skills requirements and the NDip Tourism Management that are offered by TUT?

Findings from this study will illuminate industry’s perceptions of the relevance or gaps of the NDip, Tourism Management offered at TUT to tourism industry needs.

**Literature Review**

Recognition of tourism as a global tool for economic development has resulted in plethora of tourism education and training programmes at various levels (Dale & Robinson, 2001). Evidence of considerable growth of tourism education during the past three decades is well documented (Airey & Johnson, 1999; Dale & Robinson, 2000). The rapid growth in provision of tourism education is attributed to the fact that tourism, as an activity has shown continuous growth with immense economic contributions (Airey 2005; Bushell, Prosner, Faulkner & Jafari, 2001). This rapid growth has resulted in disparities in courses creating confusion among employers about what is on offer. The uncertainty increases obstacles for tourism graduates in the labour market (Mason & Petrova, 2004). Tourism as an industry is fragmented and multi-faceted, presenting a challenge in identifying what exactly comprises tourism (Mayaka & Akama, 2007). The fragmentation stems from the various industry sectors that have to be catered for (Busby, 2001, p. 31) and extends to tourist activity, which is evident upon analyzing tourist motivation for travel (Cooper; Fletcher; Fyal; Gilbert; & Wan-
The fragmentation presents challenges for human resource planning and the identification of learning content necessary within higher level courses. The conspicuous diversity of the tourism industry drives learning content beyond very specific training such as ticketing agents and hotel reservation agent (Churchward & Riley, 2002). Consequently, it is difficult for the industry to specifically identify what it wants from education because of the varying sectoral requirements. Achieving quality education and training for the tourism industry is a challenge facing tourism education institutions providing career training today for tomorrow’s workforce (Smith & Cooper, 2000) as education responding to current needs only has no future (Ring, Dickinger & Wöber, 2009). Studies about tourism employment reveal that personal attributes are becoming more important than qualifications for SMME recruitment. (Haveng & Jones, 2008). Skills gaps are prevalent in management and leadership skills in most countries. The top five lacking skills are communication skills, job specific skills, initiative, customer service skills, willingness to learn (Haveng & Jones, 2008).

Methodology

Based on the information requirements of this study, descriptive research will be employed, using both qualitative and quantitative research methodology. The principal aim is investigating “what is” so that meaningful recommendations can be made. The tool that will be used for the collection of primary data for this study is a survey questionnaire. The secondary data will be collected through a review of student log books used during their work integrated learning (WIL) period, available literature, and an in-depth analysis of TUT’s NDip in Tourism Management. The target population for this study are tourism industry employers in Gauteng that have offered TUT’s tourism students enrolled for a NDip in Tourism Management Work Integrated Learning (WIL) opportunities between the period 2005 to 2011. The study will make use of the non-probability sampling method using the purposive or judgmental sampling approach. According to industry arrangements that TUT have with the tourism industry for WIL, there are 50 companies in Gauteng that the Department of Tourism Management (at TUT) has consistently worked with between the period 2005 – 2011. The sampling units will be the supervisors of TUT students at the organisations where students were employed for the WIL component of their studies. The industry segments that are represented by the employers who have afforded TUT’s tourism students with WIL opportunities satisfy the description of the tourism industry as classified by Bennet, Jooste and Strydom.
(2005). Each category is represented in the pool of employers that TUT has worked with. In terms of data gathering techniques, a survey method will be adopted for use in this study and a questionnaire will be utilised as the main instrument for data gathering. Employers will receive a questionnaire via e-mail. The questionnaire will be divided into three sections. Section A will address the demographics and employer related information in terms of the sector represented within the tourism industry. This section of the questionnaire will contain close ended questions including dichotomous and multiple-choice responses. Section B, will seek to identify jobs available in each sector using checklists and scaled responses in the form of a 5-point Likert scale. Section C will deal with the skills and knowledge required to perform the jobs identified in section B using dichotomous questions, scaled-response questions, ranking and multiple-choice questions. A list of skills will be provided based on the current NDip Tourism Management offered at TUT and skills identified from the literature that will be reviewed. In addition to the closed questions, section C will include a question termed other skills and specialist training to accommodate skills that were not already listed on the questionnaire, thus minimizing the chances of excluding any requisite skills.

Data will be analyzed under the guidance and assistance of TUT’s statistical department. Data will be analyzed using graphs, tables, percentages, frequency distribution and standard deviation which translates the data into integrated and meaningful findings. Both descriptive and inferential statistical analysis will be used as well as t-tests and ANOVA.

A pre-test will be undertaken using a minimum sample of about ten tourism employers in the area of Tshwane municipality in the province of Gauteng. Cronbach’s Alpha will be calculated for each of the scales and if the values are found to be above 70, which is a criteria outlined in Berden et al.(1993), the adapted scales will be taken as reliable. Validity of a measuring instrument’s scores is the extent to which the instrument measures what it is intended to measure. Examination of convergent and discriminant validity will be done to shed light on both criterion – related and construct validity. Convergent reliability will be realized if the instrument is shown to relate reasonably well to other tests that are considered to measure the same or similar constructs. Where there is no statistically significant relationship between a test and a construct, there would be evidence for the discriminant validity.
Conclusion

Understanding what graduates need to achieve or develop through tourism education for the purpose of employment in the tourism industry requires an interrogation of skills sets that are required by the industry employers. Literature suggest that while the need to develop core technical skills for the tourism industry is essential, employers are increasingly placing an emphasis on generic and behavioral competencies in the recruitment for employment of graduates. The content analysis of the TUT’s NDip: Tourism Management suggest that the majority of the elements that are cited as generic skills and industry are embedded in the curriculum. The results of the study will, however, illuminate gaps and provide information on how well are these skills integrated into the curriculum. The results of the study are important for South African institutions providing tourism higher education. The bulk of studies around tourism employment requirements are predominantly undertaken in the developed countries. The study will provide an impetus for contextualizing the needs of the tourism industry to the South African context. The results of this study should inform the agenda for re-curriculation of the undergraduate tourism programmes underway in light of the new Higher Education Qualifications Framework. Where gaps have been identified, recommendations will be made to the tourism education fraternity to take measures in closing such gaps to yield to industry requirements. Sharing the results with industry partners will illuminate detailed information that was not readily available to employers about graduates of TUT thus demystifying the content of the NDip Tourism Management offered at TUT.

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Factors That Have an Impact on the Development of an Urban Tourism Area Strategic Marketing Plan: The Case of Mangaung Tourism Area in South Africa

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Introduction
The global research report by the Euro-monitor indicates that in the year 2006, global tourism reached a peak of US$ 756,4 billion. According to South African Tourism, the estimated total foreign direct spending in South Africa (including capital expenditure) from July to September in the year 2006 was a total of R10,5 billion and in the year 2007, it had increased to R12,1 billion. These figures indicate a growth in tourist activity in South Africa and the necessary strategic actions need to be taken to ensure that the tourism industry is utilised and developed to its full potential. Like other provinces, the Free State is faced with
challenges as far as tourism is concerned. There are two specific challenges as below:

- to create a positive perception of the Free State Province as a tourism destination and
- to generate income for the province, by creating new job opportunities, developing new types of tourism (such as agri-tourism), creating new tourist resources and routes (Free State Tourism White Paper, 2001, p. 1).

The Free State Province consists of the following district municipalities: Motheo, Lejweleputswa, Thabo Mofutsanyane, Xhariep and Fezile Dabi. The Mangaung Tourism area falls under the jurisdiction of the Motheo District Municipality and it needs to take advantage of the proposed regional tourism growth. One of the most effective ways in which the Mangaung Tourism area can take advantage of the economic benefits of tourism in the region is through the development of a strategic tourism marketing plan to guide future marketing actions in a sensible way.

Due to the absence of a strategic marketing plan for the Mangaung Tourism area, opportunities for job creation, small business development and economic growth are lost to a large extent (Personal interview. CEO of Mangaung Tourism, 03 February 2002). Marketing effectiveness in the Mangaung Tourism area will be enhanced through the compilation and application of a strategic tourism marketing plan. Therefore, under the research objectives the primary and secondary objectives will be discussed. The primary purpose of this study is to formulate a strategic tourism marketing plan for the Mangaung Tourism area and secondary objectives are below:

- Identify the critical success factors for an urban tourism area like Mangaung and formulate a SWOT-analysis for the Mangaung Tourism area;
- Formulate a competitive profile and develop a mission statement for the Mangaung Tourism area;
- Point out relevant tourism priorities; goals and objectives for the Mangaung Tourism area;
- Identify relevant tourism target markets for the Mangaung Tourism area and position the Mangaung Tourism area against major competitors in the market; and
- Formulate a product; price; distribution; and promotion strategy for the Mangaung Tourism area.
On the other hand, significance of this study is that the research outcomes will contribute substantially to the systematic and orderly marketing of the study area to potential leisure, business and/or sport-oriented tourists.

**Methodology**

The researcher used the qualitative research method as qualitative research is concerned with people, events, culture and social happenings. Questionnaires and interviews were the data collections techniques employed. The population of this study is all the tourism Stakeholders and the Board of Directors of the Mangaung Tourism area. A population is any group that is the subject of research interest. The researcher asked the respondents specific questions purposefully designed for the requirements of this investigation. Similarities, differences and relationships of the information provided by the respondents were valued, analysed and adopted. The researcher used the Mangaung Tourism Data Base of 2006 to identify the stakeholders in the tourism category. One hundred and seventy three stakeholders representing the tourism industry in Bloemfontein, Botshabelo and Thaba Nchu were identified from the Mangaung Tourism database. The Interviews, questionnaire and door to door visits were used as part of methods of data collection.

The researcher distributed questionnaires to the Mangaung Tourism area stakeholders and the Board of Directors. The purpose of the questionnaire was to collect information from the Stakeholders and Board of Directors as much as possible. The Board of Directors questionnaires covered the strategic marketing plan elements. The Stakeholders questionnaire mainly focused on the strategic planning issues and the Board of Directors questionnaires centred on the marketing mix issues. Both the Stakeholders and Board of Directors questionnaires were open ended in nature. The idea of conducting questionnaire based survey was to allow for flexibility in terms of respondents answers.

**Interviews**

Interviews were conducted with the Board of Directors of the Mangaung Tourism area. The researcher made appointments with the members of the Board of Directors and 12 out of 16 (75 percent) members responded to the interviews.

**Workshop**

The researcher also organised a workshop together with the Board of Directors and stakeholders. The workshop discussed the questions and feedback in the questionnaires distribute to the Board of Directors. The following limitations
influenced the response rate of the research: Lack of interest from the stakeholders of the Mangaung tourism area; Poor attendance at the workshop and general lack of interest in the study from the side of the Mangaung Tourism area stakeholders. However, the research recommendations and conclusions did not depend on the questionnaires response rate alone but the quality of data obtained from the interviews and the workshop.

**Results**

*Analyses of Empirical Investigations:* The following discussion is based on the Mangaung Tourism area Board of Directors and stakeholders’ empirical investigation analysis.

*Goals and objectives of Mangaung Tourism area:* The question aimed at finding out from the respondents if they could define goals and objectives that are important for the tourism industry to be successful in an area like Mangaung and 100 percent of the participants were of the opinion that the goal of the Mangaung Tourism area should be to serve as a destination marketing organisation.

*Mission statement of the Mangaung Tourism area:* The question wanted respondents to give their general view of the mission statement of the Mangaung Tourism area and the majority of the participants answered the question negatively since they did not know the mission statement.

*Pricing strategy in the Mangaung Tourism area:* The question wanted to determine a pricing strategy that the respondents have in mind for the Mangaung Tourism area. Responses to the question will indicate the relevant pricing strategy that the Mangaung Tourism area can consider and 33 percent of the respondents felt that the value-based pricing method should be considered for implementation.

*Distribution of the Mangaung Tourism area’s products:* The question was aimed at finding out the respondents’ opinion in terms of how the products of the Mangaung Tourism area should be distributed and 83 percent of the respondents favoured the electronic media as part of distributing the products of the Mangaung Tourism area.

*The promotion of the Mangaung Tourism area’s products:* The question wanted to establish from the respondents ways and means in which the Mangaung Tourism area should be promoted based on personal selling, advertising, sales promotions and publicity. The question provided the respondents an opportunity to provide their own viewpoints in terms of the effective promotion of
tourism in Mangaung and 83 percent of the respondents favoured the annual Tourism Indaba as a means of promoting the products of the Mangaung Tourism area.

Advertising: A total 100 percent of the respondents favoured billboards as a means of promoting the products of the Mangaung Tourism area.

Sales Promotion: A total of 75 percent of the respondents indicated that the Mangaung Tourism area should promote tourism products during the festivals in Mangaung.

Publicity: A total of 83 percent of the respondents favoured printed and electronic media as a means of promoting the products of the Mangaung Tourism area.

Critical success factors of the Mangaung Tourism area: The question on the questionnaire wanted to determine from the respondents what the critical success factors are for areas like Mangaung and 90 percent of the respondents indicated good finances as the most critical success factor for successful tourism management.

Strengths of the Mangaung Tourism area: The question wanted to establish the strengths of the Mangaung Tourism area. The question did not require a yes or no answer and 92 percent of the respondents indicated that the availability of rich historical sites is strength for the Mangaung area.

Weaknesses of the Mangaung Tourism area: The question establishes the respondents’ perceived weaknesses of the Mangaung Tourism area. The question did not require a yes or no answer. Responses to the question will highlight what respondents regard as weaknesses in the Mangaung Tourism area and 95 percent of the respondents indicated poor marketing of tourism products and services as the most critical weakness for the Mangaung Tourism area.

Opportunities in the Mangaung Tourism area: The question wanted to find out from the respondents which opportunities the Mangaung Tourism area has to consider in planning actions. The question did not require a yes or no answer. Responses to the question will indicate whether the Mangaung area has any current or future opportunities that the Mangaung Tourism area can take advantage of and ninety eight percent of the respondents indicated that the central location of Mangaung is an opportunity.

Threats for the Mangaung Tourism area: The question wanted to find out from the respondents if there were specific threats to the Mangaung Tourism area
that they can identify and 94 percent of the respondents indicated poor budgets for tourism activities as a major threat for the Mangaung Tourism area.

**Major competitors for the Mangaung Tourism area:** The question wanted to establish from the respondents the existing and major competitor’s of the Mangaung Tourism are and 55 percent of the respondents indicated Kimberley as a major competitor for the Mangaung Tourism area.

**The most important competitor for the Mangaung Tourism area:** The question wanted to establish from the respondents the major competitor of the Mangaung Tourism area and 55 percent indicated Kimberley as the major competitor of the Mangaung Tourism area.

**Positioning of the Mangaung Tourism area in the market:** The question wanted to find out from the respondents how the Mangaung Tourism area should be positioned against the competitors and 84 percent of the respondents indicated that Mangaung should be positioned as a conference destination.

**Conclusion**

The researcher recommends the following mission statement for the Mangaung Tourism area: “To position the Mangaung Tourism area as a prime conference and events destination in the Free State, offering excellent services and the best hospitality, in conjunction with the stakeholders”. The researcher recommends the following position for the Mangaung Tourism area: “To position the Free State as an events destination in central South Africa where good value for money, excellent service and hospitality will be provided at all times”. The paper provided a model that an Urban tourism area like the Mangaung Tourism area may follow and implement so as to take advantage of the growing global, international and provincial tourism growth. The implementation of this plan in the Mangaung tourism area will assist in giving the Mangaung Tourism area a structured approach towards tourism marketing and promotion in the future.

**References**


Socio-Cultural Sustainability of Tourism Destinations in Iran: A Comparative Study of Abyaneh and Masouleh

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Introduction

Over the past decades, the impacts of tourism have received increasing attention from the scholars and researchers in the field of tourism studies. Increasing impacts of tourism have led to a range of evident and potential environmental, social, cultural, economic and political issues in destinations and systems. Therefore, employing a more sustainable approach towards tourism development in tourism destinations should be a priority for policy makers and tourism planners. As Holden (2003) states “the growing need for sustainability was also a result of increased knowledge and concern about tourism impacts and environmental issues in general” (p. 95). Although a great number of tourism scholars many have stated that no exact definition of sustainable tourism exist, Swarbrooke (1999) defines sustainable tourism as: “tourism which is economically viable but does not destroy the resources on which the future of tourism will depend, notably the physical environment and the social fabric of the host community” (p. 13).
Iran is located in the Middle East and is a country with a very old civilisation and a wealth of historic sites (Alavi & Yasin, 2000). However, United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) has classified Iran under Southwest Asia and the country is a member of UNWTO since 1975. According to the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), Iran is ranked as one of the world’s top countries in terms of the number of ancient and historical sites. To date, 13 historical sites have been listed under the World Heritage list and fifty-nine sites are tentatively listed (UNESCO, 2011).

Abyaneh historical village is located between Qom and Isfahan in the province of Isfahan. It is one of the most significant rural tourism destinations in Iran. Tourism in Abyaneh was promoted through the mass media advertisement since mid-1980s. Unique architecture is one of the most important tourist attractions of this rural destination. Abyaneh has a long history which dates back to more than 2000 years ago. Masouleh is located in northern part of Iran, in Albroz mountain skirts about 100 kilometers away from the Caspian Sea. Founded prior to the advent of Islam, Masouleh has grown over time from a village into a city and it has a recorded history of more than 1000 years (ICHTO, 2004). Both Abyaneh and Masouleh were listed under Iran’s National Heritage Sites in 1975 (ICHTO, 2004). Abyaneh and Masouleh are one of the most well-known tourism destinations in Iran due to their unique historical, cultural and natural attractions. Hence, tourism in these destinations is being considered as one of the most significant development priorities. The current study is exploratory in nature. The purpose of this comparative study was to investigate the background and the key factors of sustainability and unsustainability in tourism development from the socio-cultural point of view. To achieve this goal, different methods have been used in this study such as semi-structured interviews, participatory observation and secondary data analysis. Over eighty stakeholders were interviewed in both Abyaneh and Masouleh. Snowball sampling was used to identify the interviewees. Nearly all the interviews were filmed and recorded which was of a great contribute to the study. Grounded theory was used as the qualitative methodology of this study and data analysis was done through coding and memo-writing.

The conceptual model used in this study was the model of “sustainable tourism values and principles” (Hall, Jenkins & Kearsley, 1997 cited in Theobald, 2007). Socio-cultural sustainability indicators defined by World Tourism Organization (2004) were also used as the indicators of this study. These indicators were modified according to the destinations’ characteristics as required.
Using the collected data and socio-cultural sustainability indicators, socio-cultural sustainability of Abyaneh and Masouleh was studied and compared. The indicators used in the current study are as follow:

Table 1. The main indicators and the sub-indicators used in the current study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Basic Systems</th>
<th>Main Indicators</th>
<th>Sub-Indicators</th>
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<tr>
<td>Economic System</td>
<td>Influence on Economic Situation</td>
<td>Income Generation</td>
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<td>Economic Welfare</td>
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<td>Employment</td>
<td>Job Creation</td>
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<td>Social Relations Establishment</td>
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<td>Feeling Respected</td>
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<td>Quality of Life</td>
<td>Relaxation and Comfort</td>
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<td>Discipline of Everyday Life</td>
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<td>Social Values</td>
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<td>Social Character System</td>
<td>The History of Hospitality in the community</td>
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<td>Cultural Relativism</td>
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<td>General acceptance of Tourism</td>
<td>General Acceptance of Tourism</td>
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Table continues)
Sources of Income

Planning For Sustainable Development
- Approved Development Plan
- Tourism Strategic Plan

Provide the Tourism Infrastructure Facilities
- The Roads
- The ParkingLots
- The Restrooms
- The Urban Furniture in Public Spaces

The results revealed that the current tourism development strategies in these two destinations are not consistent with the small communities and cultural tourism destinations’ development strategies. The model presented by Hall, Jenkins and Kearsley (1997), considered the three aspects of environment and resources, social and economic when studying the sustainable tourism. However, after studying the sustainability of Abyaneh and Masouleh as small scale tourism destinations, a model presented to expand on the Hall, Jenkins and Kearsley’s model of sustainable tourism values and principles.

![Figure 1. Model of Sustainability In Small And Traditional Tourism Destinations](image)

Although it is evident that in order to study sustainability of a tourism destination, sustainability should be studied from different perspectives, the main focus of this research was on the socio-cultural and to some extent economic indicators for studying the sustainability. Environmental sustainability was not taken into account due to the time limit within the study. The following model was proposed as the appropriate socio-cultural sustainability model for tour-
ism development in small and traditional destinations such as Abyaneh and Masouleh.

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Evaluating Sustainability of Tourism Development in Kish Island, Iran

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Introduction
Sustainable development is therefore what the tourism industry of the twenty-first century should strive to achieve. The sustainability paradigm has become “an attractive topic” that promises sustainable growth for the present and into the future. In fact, sustainable development is the result of a rising concern over environmental and social justice issues resulting from economic aims. There is a great deal of discussion concerning the proper definition of sustainable development and ways to implement it. SD now has significant influence in the tourism literature creating a drive to make sustainability a foundational principle for the entire industry (Gordon, 2007, p.31).

The application of the concept of sustainable development as an achievable and practical objective for tourism has not yet matured. Development of scientific and objective methodologies for the assessment of tourism sustainability is a necessary feature of the idea of sustainable development. If sustainable development is one of the tourism industry’s major contemporary objectives, then the industry needs to be able to measure its performance and impacts in this area. This study addresses a question that has arisen in the 1990s in tourism, namely: How can progress towards sustainable tourism development be meas-
asured? The question is based on the premise that if tourism contributes towards a sustainable society, then the extent to which it is doing so should be measured (KO, 2005, p.18)

A reasonable cause for choosing Kish [an island in south of Iran] to measure sustainable tourism development planning by the researcher, was that according to the report by Economic News Agency of Iran¹, the bodies participating in the Second International Tourism Assembly and the Third International Conference on Investment and Privatization in Islamic Countries, held in Kish in late April 2009, chose Kish as a model for sustainable tourism development among Islamic countries after seeing its commercial and industrial facilities, silver coasts and beautiful sights. This paper is intended to study excellent models assessing sustainable tourism development in tourism destinations and measure tourism development in Kish by selecting a suitable model.

**Case study**

*Kish* is a 91.5-square-kilometre (35.3 sq mi) resort island in the Persian Gulf. It is part of the Hormozgān Province of Iran. Due to its free trade zone status it is touted as a consumer's paradise, with numerous malls, shopping centres, tourist attractions(natural, historical and man-made), and resort hotels. It has an estimated population of 20,000 residents and about 1 million people visit the island annually (EIU, 2008). Kish Island was ranked among the world’s 10 most beautiful islands by The New York Times in 2010, and is the fourth most visited vacation destination in the Middle East after Dubai, U.A.E, and Sharm el-Sheikh (Press TV). Foreign nationals wishing to enter Kish Free Zone from legal ports are not required to obtain visas prior to travel. Valid travel permits are stamped for 14 days by airport and Kish port police officials.

**STEP1: Identify the systems;** the tourism destination system of Kish Island is simultaneously divided into two parts of human system and ecosystem (natural system) based on the modernist views of the 1980s, which consider human beings as an integral part of the ecosystem, as opposed to the traditional view, which detaches human beings from the natural environment.

**STEP2: Identify the main dimensions;** This research proposed eight dimensions for the two model-based human and natural systems to ascertain sustainability at destination level. Human system dimensions include political, economic and socio-cultural aspects, as well as production structure (the quality of services and products for tourism); while the ecosystem assimilates general environmental impacts; ecosystem quality of water, land and air; biodiversity of flora

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¹ Econews.ir
and fauna; and environmental policy and management; dimensions of the sustainable tourism systems of Kish Island are illustrated in the diamond diagrams.

**STEP3: identify the main indicators:** The two systems, eight dimensions and the identified indicators are considered the core elements of the procedure of sustainable tourism evaluation. Therefore, each dimension in each system is a combination of cluster indicators relevant to tourism activities. In this stage, the list of the indicators of the sustainable tourism development dimensions of Kish island was drawn up.

**STEP4: scale sustainability:** This research tries to employ a 1-10 interval scale to show quality changes more precisely as needed by the host community, tourists and natural environment. Also, the 1-10 interval scale was presented as an ordinal scale of bad, poor, medium, ok and good.

**STEP5: Determine gradations (sectors of scale) of sustainability:** This research employs an appropriate five-point scale base on IUCN (1995) and Prescott-Allen (1997) to explain the complicated and precise data of stakeholders. This scale is divided into more detailed section as follows:

- Sustainable (excellent): 8-10
- Potentially sustainable (good): 6-8
- Intermediate (medium): 4-6
- Potentially unsustainable (poor): 2-4

Here, “excellent” conditions denote more sustainable, while “bad” conditions mean more unsustainable. An important point that should be noticed in this model is that tourism sustainable assessment MAPs (TSAMs) are developed at next stage based on the selected five-point graduation model of Kish Island’s levels of sustainability.

**STEP6: Develop Tourism Sustainability Assessment Maps (TSAMs):** BTS maps are appropriate for explaining complicated sustainability levels of human system and Ecosystem of Kish Island tourism destination and ATSI model is suitable for defining the individual indicators of the Island`s sustainable tourism (Figure 1).
Figure 1- shows five sustainability levels of Kish Island’s human system against its natural system (Human system with sustainability grade of 5.63 and natural system with sustainability level of 5.2 fall into the medium scale of sustainable map). The meeting of the two specified points indicate that the sustainability level of sustainable tourism development planning in Kish island Fall into the medium level. Falling into this level of sustainable development, Kish Island can reach higher levels of sustainability by thoughtful planning based on principals of sustainable development. Yet its position may decline to lower and more unsustainable levels in case of inaccurate planning. Therefore, planners and stakeholders of tourism industry of Kish Island play an important role in enhancing the sustainability of this industry in future. This diagram provides a general perspective towards the sustainability level of tourism development planning on Kish Island and therefore, greatly benefits the stakeholders and decision makers of tourism industry.
The sustainability degrees of the individual indicators of Kish island’s sustainable tourism have been compared against each other on the ATSI map of the ISLAND’S tourism industry. The results of this model indicate that the indicator No: 32 (noise) has the highest degree of tourism sustainability in the island. During the questionnaire survey, the environment experts were asked to give the indicators of noise a low grade in case of high noise level—which contradicts sustainable tourism within the natural system and to give it a high grade in case of tranquility and low level of noise which contribute to the sustainable tourism. As can be observed, this indicator has received a high grade, which denotes tranquility of the environment and could achieve the topmost rank in sustainable tourism of Kish Island. This calmness and tranquility may be the underlying reason that many domestic tourists choose this island to spend their vacations. A major point is that this indicator refers to the general environmental impacts, which attained the highest degree of sustainability among other dimensions of natural system. As the results of the ATSI map of Kish Island Indicate, the indicator No: 55 (Performing environmental monitoring) received the lowest sustainability degree among the individual indicators of sustainable tourism development of the Island, because the environmental monitoring, as an indicator of the environmental policy and management dimension, is not performed orderly and regularly in Kish Island.

STEP7: Extend BTS& ATSI over time: In this research the first six steps of evaluating Kish Island’s sustainable tourism development have been performed.

STEP8: Evaluation; Finally, Evaluation is carried out in two way. The technical evaluation deals with the effectiveness and efficiency of the gathered data in the analysis process. This would mean going back to the stakeholders, presenting them with the results of the analysis and asking whether this assists them in decision-making.

Conclusion

This paper deals with sustainable tourism assessment in Kish Island. To achieve the objectives, among other models and methods, Conceptual Model of Sustainable Tourism Development Ko was chosen. The evaluation necessitates the comparison between the previous and current conditions of a qualitative system and this is realized by operating Conceptual Model of Sustainable Tourism Development Ko. In this research, besides the quantitative data, there was used qualitative data as well though quantitative data is privileged in measurements in general and in sustainability measurements in particular. But, as
Ko (2005) points, this doesn't mean that quantitative data as a technique is more scientific and more advanced than qualitative data. In this paper, complementary of these two kinds of data is noteworthy. It can be concluded that they have the same credibility and incredibility. Perceptive study has largely been utilized to gauge socioeconomic effects of tourism as well as the quality of its products and services. Since technical data about tourism activities was not accessible, perceptual studies were especially useful for tourism sustainability assessment in Kish.

References


Investigation into the Hotel Brand Consciousness of Religious and Leisure Travellers in Saudi Arabia

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Introduction

Branding is important to hotel management because it has a significant impact on customer sustainability. Hotels seek to increase their customer consciousness and loyalty towards the brand in order to achieve profitability and competitive advantage. Contemporary brands in the lodging industry are more than just the concrete symbols that are associated with them; they add an intangible value to the company. This was demonstrated in an investigation of almost 1,100 lodging transactions over the past 15 years (O’Neill & Xiao, 2006). Therefore, brand perception in the marketplace is considered a major target for firms to ensure their stability and competition in the market. KSA is distinguished among Muslim countries by the existence of the Two Holy Mosques in Mecca (Makkah) and Al Madinah Al Munwarah. Brand research in these areas
is essential to determine the differences between religious travellers’ brand consciousness for the travellers to the Two Holy Mosques and leisure travellers’ brand consciousness in Saudi Arabia main cities. Hence, the research will be vital to gaining new insights about how these groups perceive the brands.

**Literature Review**

_Tourism in the Kingdom of Saudia Arabia:_ Tourism has grown significantly over the last ten years due to the considerable attention the government has paid to this industry. One of the most important steps was the establishment of the Saudi Commission for Tourism and Antiquities (SCTA) in 2000 (SCTA, 2010).

_Type of Occasions:_ International tourists are often keen to perform the pilgrimage, which must be done once in a lifetime in a particular month called Thu Al Hejjah by those who are physically and financially able (Ministry of Islamic Affairs, Endowments, Da’wah and Guidance, KSA 2010). In addition, because of the massive number of pilgrims and the small size of Mecca, there are tremendous capacity problems for hotels. In response, the Islamic Conference set a rule to accept one person among 1,000 of the total population of each country (Ministry of Hajj, KSA, 2010).

In addition, there is another occasion that attracts Muslims to Mecca called Umrah. The Umrah ritual is optional and performed at any time over the year, so there are no limitations of visits.

Finally, the month of Ramadan is another holy occasion that prompts millions of people to visit Mecca and Al Madinah Al Munwarah.

_Types of Tourism in Saudi Arabia:_ In KSA there are three types of tourism: inbound, domestic, and outbound. Inbound tourism involves tourists coming from outside of KSA; domestic tourism involves tourists from within KSA; and outbound tourism involves KSA inhabitants leaving for other countries as tourists. This research will focus on two kinds of tourism in Saudi Arabia: domestic and inbound.

Tourism and the hotel industry are a fundamental sector in the economy. Saudi Arabia is a fruitful area to find out more about the importance of branding. The considerable number of religious travellers to Mecca has created a new spot that needs to be explored. In addition, the noticeable concern about tourism in Saudi Arabia has encouraged research in this field. Nonetheless, branding has not yet been explored deeply in the context of leisure and religious
travellers. Finally, hotel development has witnessed tremendous changes in the system as a result of government concern about the hotel industry.

On the other hand, branding is a vital topic in the hospitality industry. Over the last two decades, the hotel industry expanded its market extensively through branding (Dev, Brown, & Zhou, 2009). It is essential to define what branding is before explaining it any further. Several authors define branding in different ways, which makes it more complex. According to (Kotler. 2003, p. 216), a brand is a “name, term, sign, symbol, or design, or a combination of them, intended to identify the goods or services of one seller or group of sellers and to differentiate them from those of competitors”. Moreover, Gilbert (2003) summarises the concept of the brand as a means of delivering the message and promise of the organisation to its target.

**Brand Consciousness:** Brand consciousness means “consumers’ orientations toward buying the more expensive, well-known... and advertised brand” (Sproles & Kendall, 1986, p. 271-272). Moreover, brand consciousness is “the belief that well-known brands are superior to less well-known brands” (Otter & Strebinger, 2001, p. 1). In addition, brand sensitivity is used to explain brand consciousness, which refers to the psychological behaviour of the customer before deciding to buy the product (Beaudoin et al. 2003). According to Augustenborg (2010) the consciousness is triggered by external and internal factors.

**Brand Equity:** The topic of brand equity can be traced back to the 1960s which the researcher has explained the general features of brand equity without focusing on its impact on the other aspects of the brand (Chang & Liu, 2009). Today, the marketing industry recognizes brand equity for its effect on growth in a company’s intangible assets (Burmann, Jost, & Riley, 2009). (Keller, 1993, p. 1) identified brand equity as “the marketing effects uniquely attributable to the brand”.

**Brand Image:** According to Keller (1993) brand image is customer knowledge of the brand and the data and principles that are deployed by the brand in the marketplace. Based on the definition above, branding can be an advantage for attracting customers or a weakness that causes the company to lose potential clients.

This research is an attempt to help academic readers, hotel management, and particularly marketers to gain a thorough understanding of hotel branding. It would appear that the brand is a competitive advantage that generates profit, brand loyalty, and value to the investors.
Methodology

The purpose of this study is to investigate whether or not religious and leisure travellers in Saudi Arabia have brand consciousness. This research aims to investigate deeply the topic of branding and provide knowledge about how religious and leisure travellers in Saudi Arabia portray branding.

Descriptive Study: The survey will be the proper strategy to be applied with the deductive approach to enable the researcher to collect data from a substantial population in a highly cost-effective method (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009). Furthermore, the survey allows for collecting quantitative data, which, in turn, can be analysed quantitatively by employing descriptive and inferential statistics (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). The research aims to clarify the differences between religious and leisure travellers’ perceptions towards branding.

H1: There is a significant difference between religious travellers’ hotel brand consciousness and leisure travellers’ hotel brand consciousness.

Results

This study will analyse the data that have been collected from different customers to investigate one fundamental aspects of customers’ perception of branding. This research will explore brand consciousness from the perspective of religious and leisure travellers in Saudi Arabia. This research involved sending out 200 questionnaires in four major cities in Saudi Arabia: Mecca and Al Madinah Al Munwarah (the two Holy Cities that attract religious travellers), and Jeddah and Riyadh (which represent leisure travellers). One hundred questionnaires were distributed, targeting each group in their potential areas. The result appeared 127 questionnaires which are considered valid to be examined. The hypothesis and the results can be explained as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Purpose of travelling</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total score of mean for the Brand Consciousness</td>
<td>Religious</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>3.6106</td>
<td>.44244</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Leisure</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>3.5016</td>
<td>.57431</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Fieldwork

As can be seen from the table above, it is concluded that groups under the brand consciousness proves the null hypothesis to be correct, as the mean score of the brand consciousness of both groups ‘religious’ and ‘leisure’ travellers are 3.61 and 3.50 respectively. Therefore, the mean score suggests that null
hypothesis is supported in this case. There is no significant difference between religious travellers’ hotel brand consciousness and leisure travellers’ hotel brand consciousness.

**Conclusion**

The research explores the differences between religious and leisure travellers with respect to brand consciousness. The results show that religious travellers and leisure travellers have no significant differences rather have high brand consciousness which demonstrate that Asian customers are more likely to be brand conscious (Fetto & Gardyn, 2003; Hofstede, 2002; Tatzel, 2002). Utilizing advertising media such as TV, newspapers, and websites is a successful strategy to reinforce brand consciousness and brand loyalty proneness which, in turn, creates a competitive advantage. Investing in upper-scale, mid-scale, economical, and budgeted branded hotels in major cities in Saudi Arabia particularly Mecca, Al Madinah Al Munwarah and jeddah is a lucrative business. Furthermore, hotel management is advised to maintain standardisation of their branded hotels, and to exert an effort to provide religious and leisure travellers with the high services they demand. This research did not clearly compare each group’s brand image with the desired hotel brand to know whether religious travellers have preferences towards particular branded hotels.

**References**


Branding and Total Quality Management in Chain Hotels: Research in Kazakhstan

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Introduction

The importance of total quality management (TQM) in the tourism industry has risen to an extraordinary level because of the change in preferences of tourist's behavior and the growth of competitiveness of new tourist destinations. The application of existing, well-tested ideas on quality improvement is an important issue to tourist enterprises. Today’s lodging guest are seeking consistency and quality (Dube & Renaghan, 2000). Consequently, lodging operators have turned their attention to guest satisfaction and branding because brand name operates as a `shortland` for quality by giving the guest important information about product/service sight unseen (Briucks, Zeithaml, & Naylor, 2000; Jacoby, Szybillo, & Busato-Schach, 1977). Accordingly, hotel executives recognize brand quality as an important company asset and as a potential source of strategic advantage (Damonte, Rompf, Bahl, & Domke, 1997). The

Methodology

This thesis seeks to study branding and total quality management processes in chain hotels in Kazakhstan. The aim of this thesis is to drawn conclusion that helps to know and understand branding and total quality management application and their benefits. This research designed to determine the factors that impact to branding in the process of application of TQM. This thesis present results from different consideration points of view as benefits from involving to chain hotel brand franchise for local hotel, consumer brand loyalty, Total quality management benefits to hotel and Total quality benefits for chain hotel brands. The research conducted among the regional CEO’s of chain hotels in Kazakhstan by distributing a questionnaire. Research sampling chosen from consideration that franchise chain hotels have best quality and brand awareness and that hotel CEO’s possess adequate knowledge and could easily explain TQM and branding processes. So questionnaire were conducted among CEO’s of 17 hotels situated in country where 9 of them 5 star hotels, 4 of them 4 star and 5 of them 3 star hotels. Research was conducted in January and March of 2009. All questionnaires from hotels were returned. Questionnaire was prepared according to 5 Likert’s measure. Due to the page limitation, the full framework of research is not presented in this conference paper and it can be requested through author.

Hypotheses of the research: Use of the TQM has become widespread among organizations and the aim of the business may differ, but importance of consumer is the matter of common interest and availability of organizations to
adopter new consumer requirements on global markets is of vital importance of long-term success. Quality management has been recognized as major edge for competitiveness and long-term profitability. (Dale, 1999). A central core value of TQM is that all products and processes should have always consumer focus. Quality should be valued by consumer and should always put in relation with to their needs and expectations (Oakland, 1989). A primary propose of TQM application in hotels are consumer satisfaction and as widely recognized satisfied consumers can give to hotel enterprise loyal consumer in future. Consequently its background to our hypothesis that:

- \( H1: \) Consumer satisfaction gives to hotel enterprise brand loyalty of consumer in future.

Working with TQM and keeping up quality improvements demands total commitment of the management. All of the organization’s employees should be engaged in the work of satisfying the consumer with the continuous improved quality. Everybody’s commitment means that continuous improvement should be practiced everywhere in the process and that the involvement of all the employees at every level should be facilitated (Cetin et al., 2001). Much of the work within organization can be looked up on process and the goal of the process is to produce product or services which should satisfy consumer. The process generates data that indicates how well the process satisfying consumer. That mean we should look on every data single piece of data (Hansson, 2003). So, one of this process data pieces is time of service to consumer. Consequently its background to second hypothesis:

- \( H2: \) Everybody’s commitment impact on time reduction of service process to consumer which have positive effects on brand identity.

Total quality management focusing is as widely known not only on consumer but, also on hotel employees. Its considering consumer as internal and external. External consumer is clients of hotel and internal consumer is it’s employee (Cetin et al., 2001). Enterprises employee percieves by consumer not only as brand representative but also as piece of brand and it is very important to have satisfied employees. Because the devotion and satisfaction of employees by job have impact on performance. Consequently its background to third hypothesis:

- \( H3: \) Employees satisfactions have positive impact on consumer satisfaction which leads to improving of brand awareness of hotel.

This research belongs to the exploratory, analytical studies, and it follows the approach of collecting and analyzing data to draw conclusions. Data was en-
tered into the Statistical Package for Social Sciences Windows Version 10.0 (SPSS) program and analyzed accordingly. Research was analyzed with frequency and percent methods. Received data for propose of confirmation of hypothesis were analyzed by Pearson Correlation (see Table 1). Pearson’s correlation coefficient (r) for continuous (interval level) data ranges from 0 to +1: data lie on a perfect straight line with a positive slope and all hypothesis have strong line.

Table 1. Results of correlation coeffient matrix

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypothesis</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>17</th>
<th>Pearson Correlation</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Consumer satisfaction gives to hotel enterprise brand loyalty of consumer in future.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.226</td>
<td>0.383</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Everybody’s commitment impact on consumer service process time reduction which have positive effects on brand identity.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.181</td>
<td>0.488</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H3: Employees satisfactions have positive impact on consumer satisfaction which leads to improving of brand awareness of hotel.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.270</td>
<td>0.295</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Conclusion

Based on the result of this study following recommendations describing:

1. Application of TQM provide hotel brand with competitive advantages, consumer satisfaction, quality and productivity, team work, devotion of personal to company, brand loyalty of consumer

2. Company brand supported by TQM provide with brand loyalty and consumer satisfaction which lead to sustainable development of hotel brand.

3. Joining of local hotel to franchise chain group gives advantages as personal education, quality improvements, cost decrease of marketing expenditures, access to new customers, brand awareness and etc.

4. Adverse publicity is most significant factor among other factors in alteration of loyal hotel’s consumers to other hotel.

5. Consumer expectations from chain hotel brand determined as supportability of enough entertainment activities, satisfaction by food & bever-
age, qualified personal, guest relation services, comfort, quick & quality service, security

6. Implementation of TQM in chain hotels gives great advantages in service quality improvements because of particularity of service and difficulty of standardization of services

7. Chain hotel brands should take into account the local culture instead of general branding strategies and for instance in case of Kazakhstan they can implement multiple branding strategy as wedding centers branding because Kazakh’s wedding fiesta gathering together in average 500 persons.

8. Consequently we could summarize that implementation of TQM in chain hotels provide with competitive advantages, quality improvement, teamwork and devotion of personal, productivity and effectiveness, create brand loyalty of consumer and significant factor for sustainable development.

References


Vancouver Island Local Tourism Initiative

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Introduction
Leisure has the potential to create social cohesion, strengthen relationships, contribute to healthy lifestyles and improve quality of life. The benefits of leisure include, but are not limited to: balanced human development, social inclusion, improved personal health, reduction in self-destructive and anti-social behaviour, cohesive family relationships, reduction in health care, social service and police costs, increased self-esteem, enhanced community pride, and overall well being (Canadian Recreation/Parks Association, 1999; King 2008; Minnaert, Maitland & Miler, 2009). Sustainable leisure management is about creating opportunities for all citizens to reap the benefits of leisure participation. Leisure can take many forms, such as physical activity; participation in, and/or observation of arts, sports, and cultural activities; volunteering, day-to-day recreation activities; and tourism. This study will focus on tourism as a form of lei-
sure - specifically, local tourism on Vancouver Island, BC. Vancouver Island is located on the West Coast of British Columbia, Canada. At over 30 000 square km, with 3 440 km of coastline, Vancouver Island is accessible by water and air only, making travel to and from Vancouver Island cost-intensive, time consuming, and stressful for many individuals and families. Given the economic realities of the times, local tourism can provide an accessible, affordable and enjoyable link to all the same benefits that off-island travel provides. Through local tourism participation, Vancouver Island residents become more aware of local politics, ecosystems, flora and fauna, conservation efforts, arts and culture, parks and protected areas, and the residents in their neighbouring communities. While some research exists to show the benefits of tourism participation for families (Minnaert et al., 2009; Lehto, Choi, Lin, & Macdermid, 2009), and there are some studies on the facilitators of, and constraints to leisure participation (Crawford, Jackson & Godbey, 1991; Raymore, 2002); and some studies on local tourism (Hudson & Ritchie, 2002, McDonald & Murphy, 2008); there appears to be a gap in the literature on local tourism as it relates to social, environmental, and economic sustainability. The purpose of this study is to understand better what local tourism is on Vancouver Island and how participation in local tourism contributes to the social, environmental, and economic sustainability of Vancouver Island. Based on the research objective, there are two specific research questions are describing:

- What do Vancouver Island residents know and understand about local tourism?
- How does local tourism participation by Vancouver Island residents contribute to the economic, environmental, and social sustainability of leisure on Vancouver Island?

Because of my involvement in the tourism industry, my commitment to sustainable leisure management, and the fact that I am a resident and tourist of Vancouver Island, I have a vested interest in the data obtained through this research initiative. A number of studies in the fields of tourism and leisure indicate that more research into measurable impacts and benefits of holiday participation is needed to help create policies that support tourism inclusion for the enjoyment of all members of society. McCabe, Joldersma and Li (2010) state that “tourism’s potential as an effective tool for intervention in health, well-being and exclusion issues has not been explored, and, as a consequence, there is limited evidence available to influence policy in this respect” (p. 762). “Insufficient empirical research has been conducted with regard to the outcomes or
impact of family vacation experiences” (Lehto, Choi, Lin, & MacDermid, 2009, p. 459). Dickinson and Lumsdon (2010) ask that “How can we move towards more equitable and sustainable forms of travel?” In order to create and sustain positive tourism opportunities for people of all ages, income levels and ethnicities, not only on Vancouver Island, but also around the world, this research will explore what tourism participation means to local residents, and how that participation is valued amongst residents.

**Methodology**

Based on the literature review as well as discussions with fellow researchers, tourism operators, academics, a regional destination management organization, and the Vancouver Island Local Tourism, research initiative will focus on two key methods of data collection: focus groups; and semi-structured interviews. The focus groups will be directed to the local tourism users; the semi-structured interviews will be conducted with local tourism stakeholders.

Focus groups: Up to 8 people in each group (must be able to communicate in English)

- Single parents with at least one child – provide childcare
- Parents with a child/children living at home
- Couples without children (married or in a monogamous relationship for at least 6 months)
- Seniors over the age of 55
- Residents of Vancouver Island who have immigrated to Canada within the past year

The focus group questions can be found in Appendix A.
Strengths of organizing focus groups for the Vancouver Island Local Tourism Research Initiative:

- Allows participation from people whose literacy levels prevent them from participating in methods that require reading, understanding, and writing responses
- Provides a safe, non-threatening environment for people with similar backgrounds to discuss issues of importance
- Can foster relationships between group members with similar leisure interests
- Will provide an opportunity for observation of the social cohesion process that results from similar leisure interests
- Will gain insight from specific user groups with varying motivations and opportunities for participation in local tourism on Vancouver Island
- Will give the research a more in-depth look at some of the facilitators and constraints to participation in local tourism on Vancouver Island
- Will (hopefully) foster feelings of pride in, and connection to Vancouver Island from participants

Weaknesses of organizing focus groups for the Vancouver Island Local Tourism Initiative:

- All participants may not have positive memories of holidays taken on Vancouver Island
- Members who know each other may not feel comfortable sharing personal information (lack of anonymity)
- The data analysis will take considerable time as there are five different focus groups with up to seven questions for each group

Semi-structured interviews: In order to gauge the level of understanding and general attitudes of tourism stakeholders on Vancouver Island, it is important to include them in the Vancouver Island Local Tourism Initiative. By conducting semi-structured, in-depth interviews, the researcher will be able to engage the stakeholders in an open dialogue about their perceptions, realities and actions as they relate to understanding local tourism on Vancouver Island. The targeted sample will be a mix of owners, managers, front-line staff, volunteers, not-for-profit organizations, municipal, provincial, and federal government workers with a vested interested in tourism on Vancouver Island. I will be conducting these interviews in person between May and August of 2012.
The general questions I will be asking can be found in Appendix B. The questions will be the very similar to those that will guide the focus groups.

Strengths of a semi-structured interview:

- A back and forth dialogue will encourage idea flow
- The study participant does not feel pressured into staying in a box by only responding to the questions exactly how they are asked, there is flexibility
- The face-to-face or voice-to-voice interaction establishes trust and transparency between participant and researcher
- Because I work in the field and have a vested interest in this research being done (outside of the MA program), people may be willing to give me more time

Weaknesses of a semi-structured interview for my research:

- I will need to remain as un-influential and unbiased as possible so as not to skew the participant responses, I cannot lead responses
- It can be very difficult to prove validity and reliability
- Because I work in the field, some people may feel a sense of competitiveness and not be as forthcoming with information as they may be with another researcher.

Conclusion

Because the Vancouver Island Local Tourism Initiative is focused on better understanding local tourism participation on Vancouver Island, it is important to gain the perspectives of both the supply and demand side of tourism on Vancouver Island. Focus groups and semi-structured interviews provide the setting to probe the study participants in order to foster a deep understanding; that knowledge gained can then be mobilized to participants and practitioners to ensure all residents of Vancouver Island understand local tourism and therefore enjoy the social, environmental, and economic benefits. Sustainable leisure management is about providing leisure, in its many forms, for people of all ages, races, income levels, abilities, and socio-economic situations. Tourism, as a form of leisure, can create social cohesion, quality of life, social inclusion, and increased self-esteem; understanding local tourism participation can help to enhance those benefits for Vancouver Island residents. Knowledge mobilization is key to ensuring that the research will be relevant, useful, and applicable to both the supply and demand side of local tourism on Vancouver Island. The researcher has a vested interest in the success of the Vancouver Island Local
Tourism Initiative, as she is a resident, tourist, and tourism stakeholder on Vancouver Island.

References


Organizational Structure of the Sales-Marketing Department in Customer-Oriented Five Star Hotels

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Introduction

One of the basic ideas occurred with global changes is that people are considered as ‘customers’ rather than consumers; this emphasizes the human features which affect behaviors and attitudes to be taken into consideration more intensively by companies in order to create more personalized product or services for gaining competitive advantage. This fact constitutes the base of the customer-orientation (CO), considered as the basic component of the market orientation (MO) strategy. On the other hand, in order to have a sustainable profitability, this strategy requires, in addition to collection of customer data, the dissemination and use of this data in the company, marketing planning using this data and co-operation of different functions for the maximum customer satisfaction once a company decides to be customer-oriented (Narver & Slater, 1990; Jaworski & Kohli, 1990). Moreover, Day (1990) highlighted the effects of competitors and suggested that market share and customer satisfaction should have also been taken into account as performance evaluation criteria in addition to prof-
itability. As for the hospitality companies the stress on human features gets more important since hospitality is a labor-intensive business. Therefore, what is considered for customers, it should mostly be taken into consideration for employees. CO has supported the evolution of different organizational structures including marketing departments (MD). Companies tend to prefer or create different models for various reasons: being close to the market, producing goods close to the market place, reducing operational costs. In hospitality companies, the same tendency has occurred, too, in some different ways since the product (hotel) establishes many distinctions compared with others (high investment costs, stable location, importance of transportation and infrastructure, sales through various channels). Purpose of this study was to analyze the situation of hospitality companies in terms of CO and organizational structure of MD. 18 five star hotels in Antalya were selected according to rates of web portals and tour operator guest satisfaction (GS) analysis. Their sales – marketing (SM) top managers were contacted to conduct an interview. The results derived from these interviews provided some specific information about SM departments.

Literature Review

Once customer is taken as an essential component of MO, studies indicate interesting findings about different aspects. Ruekert (1992) concentrated on CO strategy through collection of customer data, defining customer expectations, developing and implementing a strategy in order to satisfy them. On the other hand, Deshpande, Farley, and Webster (1993) emphasized the fact that sensitivity to customer needs and wants was to be regarded as the most important part of the corporate culture at every level of the company organization through all the production stages (Kotler, 2003). In accordance with this fact, Day, Parasuraman, Rust, Shah, and Staelin (2006) identified customer-oriented companies with their tendency to perform and track all activities through customers (organizational structure and focus, performance measures, sales approach, customer information as an important asset of the company). As for the hospitality business specifically, the addition of 3 other Ps to the marketing mix for service firms by Booms and Bitner, were adapted to the hotels by Middleton & Clark (2001) as guests using hotel services and employees serving them (people), all the physical items affecting or proving the guest experience and processes from decision stage to returning home. Moreover, Kotler, Bowen, and Makens (1999) revised 4Ps of marketing mix as 4 Cs in the hospitality marketing mix as customer solution (product), customer cost (price), communica-
tion (promotion) and convenience (place). Heskett, Jones, Loweman, Sasser, and Schlesinger (1994) underlined in their model the critical importance of employee satisfaction within service firms resulting in higher customer satisfaction. Once hotels concentrate in GS maximization, they make use of several methods. Kotler et al. (1999) introduced claim and suggestion management systems, GS audits, ghost shopping, lost guest analysis as samples of these methods.

Evolution of marketing concept with the focus on customer provided the development of several marketing organization models. Kotler (2003) insisted on the fact that in modern MD, marketing and sales activities were performed separately under different managers so that each would concentrate on tasks more effectively. Process-outcome based company (Kotler, 2003) was an advanced model of this approach and MD contributes with other functions to the works designed around processes. Buell (1984) introduced alternative models of MD organization: functional, separate sales and marketing departments, product/brand management, market/customer management, integrated divisions, matrix organization. Hollensen (2003), however, suggested that companies preferred also geographical organization models in order to be closer to the target market. Unlike some deep studies on marketing organization, very few studies on hospitality marketing organization are provided in the literature. Lazer and Roger (1999) suggested that hospitality companies decided to create marketing functions within four alternative concepts: proactive, just-in-time, value-based or leading-edge. Mandelbaum (1997) defined, in hospitality MD, marketing activities were performed around some factors such as advertisement, financial procedures, agencies and other units, human resources, yield management, sales contracts conditions, technology use, third party reservations. Icoz (2001) suggested a marketing organization in a big hotel with sales, public relations, sales promotion and convention sales functions performed by different managers under SM manager.

**Methodology**

This study has been first to sum up the MD organization components in hospitality business and we aimed that the findings of this study would be useful for both academic and professional environment to understand how successful hotels organize marketing force and sources. Depending on the Ministry of Culture and Tourism Statistics in 2010, Antalya was the first city where most foreign tourists were welcomed and 79% of the total bed capacity of Turkey is located in this city. Therefore, Antalya has been known as the Turkey’s capital of tourism. Those reports proved also that 52% of tourists in Antalya preferred
to stay in five star hotels. According to same statistics, Antalya hosted tourists mostly from Germany, Russia, the Netherlands and England; the rate of Turkish tourists is getting higher every year due to early booking reservations. Therefore, this study focused on five main nationalities of which citizens visited Antalya for holiday and tracked their satisfaction level through web portals and tour operator satisfaction analysis. Derived from the rates of those, first 20 five star hotels were chosen as focus group at each. Then 18 hotels were determined to conduct an interview depending on their occurrence at least three times at those ratings; those hotels were identified as the most customer-oriented hotels in Antalya in 2010. A semi-structured interview was conducted with top level SM managers of these hotels through a question form of parts concerning general information, sales and marketing department (SMD) structure and work plan, customer-oriented actions performed. While preparing the questions, we made use of previous studies by Buell (1984), Krohmer, Homburg, and Workman (2002), Dincer and Dincer (2004), Tosun, Okumus, and Fyall (2007), Clarke and Chen (2007).

**Results**

The study, first of all, showed the tendency and sensitivity of all the successful hotels towards GS. They viewed GS as an indispensable tool for sustainable and long term profitability. This is a core subject to be studied and followed by all levels of the organization under the supervision by board of direction. They have developed specific methods of audits (i.e. agent of quality, use of integrated software for quality management and GS statistics) and reports (i.e. comparable reports with sales and nationalities, detailed reports including hotel questionnaires, tour operator analysis and web portals, comparison reports with other hotels). On the other hand, the management people including SM have established a strong orientation to employee satisfaction and this is also observed by low turn-over rate. Most hotels tend to offer more services than the guests expect to have in return for what they pay since they consider this as an essential tactic to keep prices at a high level in coming years. Increase in the satisfaction level of the guests help SMD with better conditions and price policies in sales contracts, too. Another finding of the study is that family firms have established the GS as a corporate culture and think the guests should be satisfied with no exception. This is the reason why these hotels are the ones having the highest growth potential since they have developed the rate of guest loyalty. They have guests coming for longer holidays and repeated times in a year with increasing numbers of people; therefore, they are willing to contrib-
ute to the hotel SM efforts with word of mouth actions. One of the most important finding about CO is that SM managers of successful hotels deal with directly with all sales representatives from all channels. They think the presentation of the hotel in the right way with correct information is the core factor of the GS since potential guests decide what hotel to stay depending on recommendations of those representatives.

In terms of SMD organization, the study introduces three models depending on the organizational structure of the hotel or the chain. The SM organization is almost the same in all independent hotels while two models are observed in chain hotels. Independent hotels prefer functional organization model and employ 2 people at management level and 2 – 6 people at sales executive position in SMDs (Figure 1). In those hotels, SM Director or Manager directly works with General Manager and acts as Vice-General Manager but reports also to the Board of Directors. In chain hotels, however, it is observed that each hotel group have a different structure. There are several reasons of this such as having a tour operator in the same company, having hotels in different regions in Turkey, having different hotel types (city, rural, seaside resort etc.), having different products which create occupancy in or nearby the hotel property (golf, football pitches, olympic pools etc.). The SMD in those chains consists of 1 top SM manager, 2 middle level SM managers and 4 – 18 SM executives. One of the organization model generated for chain hotels is central SMD model (Figure 2). These groups establish a hotel as a central one where they install management and SM headquarters. Since these hotels are owned by a company of another business than hospitality, they have usually company headquarters in Istanbul where corporate marketing tasks are carried out. Therefore, this model forms a sample for process and outcome based company. The SMD itself is constructed in functional form. Moreover, since group sales may be generated from domestic and foreign markets, group sales executives work in matrix organization style with two managers. Chains having hotels in different regions (by Mediterranean and Aegean Sea) may open sales offices in the subject regions, therefore, creating a sample for geographical organization. Second model of organization in chain hotels is central and hotel SM management (Figure 3). This model is still a functionally formed department in the hotels and establishes matrix organization features on behalf of hotel SM manager (reporting to general manager and sales director) and reservation executive (reporting to SM manager and front office manager). In this model, under SM director, a sales director is employed since sales contracts conditions and prices are determined in common for all the hotels.
Finally concerning yearly work plans, since all the subject hotels of the study are in operation all over the year (only a few of the hotels in chains are closed in winter), the SMD has intensive business load during 12 months. In a year, first quarter is reserved for sales promotions (i.e. road shows, fairs, sales calls, catalogue presentations) and winter period sales contracts; last quarter is occupied by yearly budget/sales performance evaluations, following year’s plans. SMD spends second and third quarters with the follow-up of sales operations of the season and the concept and SM preparations for the following year. As a result of all those works, SMD publishes various reports to the top management and hotel managers about sales performances: yearly occupancy report (a key report for hotel yearly operation budgets), yearly sales revenues report with monthly realization reports, monthly SM expenses reports, weekly operations reports including fair, sales calls and road show reports.
Figure 3. Central and Hotel Sales and Marketing Organization in Chain Hotels

References


The Creation of a Backpacker Tourism Space:
The Planned Methodology of a Case Study from
the Colombian Caribbean Coast

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Introduction

This paper identifies the methodology I plan to apply during my MA thesis research on a backpacker space. I will be looking at a Colombian fishing village that has developed into a backpacker haven in the past few years and that might offer interesting insights on the influences of backpacking on the local economy. Among others, Hampton (1998), Hannam and Diekmann (2010), Scheyvens (2002) and Spreitzhofer (1998) have researched general backpacker tourism in the past years, but perhaps more exploration on this topic would be rewarding. It seems especially interesting to explore how the tourism destination as space of consumption was created. How and what kind of commerce emerged due to backpacker tourism? Along with this main question, I want to answer further questions such as: Who initiates setting up the local businesses: the community, or do the backpackers ask for it? Who sets up the businesses
and who owns them? Do the local tourism authorities regulate this development? How much influence or participation is given to the local community and residents? The theoretical framework to answer these questions is set by the discussions around the creation of space of consumption. I will draw on fundamental and academically widely accepted principles such as the one of space by Lefebvre (1974) and Zukin (1991) as well as more recent, tourism-specific research on the topic of the creation of space (e.g., Ateljevic, 2010; Goodman, Goodman, & Redclift, 2010, Shaw & Williams, 2004).

Literature Review

The village of Taganga is situated on the Caribbean coast of Colombia, in the province of Magdalena, about 5 km North of the capital Santa Marta. While Santa Marta has been a popular tourism destination for a few decades amongst Colombians and tourists from neighbouring countries such as Venezuela, Taganga has only been on the (international) tourism map for about 15 years. It attracts primarily international backpacker tourists and domestic travelling couples and families. Domestic tourists traditionally visit the town during Easter week, Christmas holidays and the summer holidays (June, July and August). Foreign budget tourists inhabit Taganga all year round. Santa Marta is a typical resort town with high rising hotels and beaches with sun beds. Taganga in contrast is perceived to be the more casual and rural tourism destination with about 3,000 to 4,000 inhabitants (numbers vary according to sources) and a relatively basic tourism infrastructure (Jacobsen, 2009). Taganga is also the Southern border of the Tayrona National Park. The mountains of the Sierra Nevada de Santa Marta come up to the unspoiled beaches of the National Park. The tourist facilities in the park are predominantly basic and aimed at eco and budget tourists with only one “ecohab” hotel and a few camping and hammock sites. The park can be reached by road via Santa Marta, or via boat directly from Taganga, which is not necessarily legal, but tolerated by authorities. For the past centuries the primary mode of income in Taganga has been fishing. Now tourism has overtaken the traditional bread earner of this village due to a decline in the fish stock and the development of tourism (Jacobsen, 2009). The shift from a traditional fishing village to a tourist destination has resulted in cultural and social changes. These are partially highlighted in the Master’s thesis of Jacobsen (2009). She mentions for example the transformation from a matriarchal to a patriarchal society because of the shift of the source of livelihoods of many (former) fishermen. She further describes the influx of outsiders into the village, which can be divided into Colombians from other districts and for-
eigners, many of whom set up tourism-related businesses. Jacobsen (2009) touches several interesting topics that would be rewarding to explore in greater depth, especially from a more theoretical geographic basis. Zielinski and Botero (2010) assess in their study the potential for sustainable tourism in Taganga, criticising the current unplanned development of the village. However, this analysis is lead from an economic standpoint, focusing more on tourism management. To link some of the findings of the two existing studies together, it seems necessary to apply more of a geographical viewpoint and take a closer look upon Taganga as a place of consumption as a basis to draw further conclusions.

**Methodology**

Tourism and spaces have been widely researched (e.g., Ateljevic, 2010; Church & Coles, 2007; Mansvelt, 2005; Rojek 2000; Shaw & Williams, 2004). However, a few of the researchers have pointed out gaps in the existing literature and called for different approaches. First of all, Shaw and Williams (2004) suggest that there is a need to analyse the conditions of production and consumption in country contexts. Basing their argument on Dieke (2000), they reason that tourism needs to be seen in relation to key elements that influence the creation of tourism for specific countries. These could be for example government regulations, the development stage of the country in an international context or the economic system operating in the country. They argue that regulation theory would supply a useful framework for analysing the specific country's tourism situation and influences. The modes of regulation, such as the ones stated above, should be taken into account. At this point it is not possible to conduct the research for the whole country of Colombia. Nevertheless on a local level the modes of regulations for the production side of the tourism in Taganga could be analysed to help to understand the production of tourism space. A second interesting approach is presented by Ateljevic (2010). She states that we need to move away from thinking of cultural and economic geography as incompatible and picks up on the ideas of Lefebvre (1974) on geography and space. He has contributed to the ideas of cultural turn, also taking a new look on cultural spaces (Knowles, 1999). Lefebvre (1974) criticised that space was only seen in one dimension, namely the actual location where social interaction happens. He argues for a three-dimensional approach on space, which includes the mental space (representation of space, i.e. in the case of tourism the one constructed by advertising, online evaluation sites etc.), the social space (i.e. the interactions happening there) and the physical space (i.e. the actual landscape,
houses etc.). This approach, reasons Ateljevic (2010) will link the different geographies together for understanding space as a whole. To accomplish this in practice Ateljevic (2010) suggests adopting an “interpretive geographical approach” (p. 382). This could be achieved by integrating “[more] interpretative techniques, such as ethnography, open-ended interviews and focus groups, which enable participants to speak from their own perspective” (Ateljevic, 2010, p. 382). This seems like a rewarding approach to gain deeper understanding of a place. Interviews and focus groups can especially be used to gain factual information but also to collect attitudinal information (Cloke et al., 2004). Interviews seem useful in my research to find out about the ownership of the local businesses and also the motivations on why the businesses were set up. Drawing on my own travelling experience, I anticipate that focus groups might be the appropriate tool to use to talk to backpacker tourists about their views on the local commerce since they are generally not shy to sharing their opinions in a group. A focus group might stimulate discussion amongst the backpackers and disclose more ideas and lead to more discussion than conducting one-on-one interviews with them.

Ethnography then might support these findings. It can reveal a bigger picture, such as the way of life and certain social orders that might be hard to grasp with, for example, from a questionnaire. Also, it provides the chance to observe and compare, especially in combination with using interviews and focus groups, on “what people say they do and why, and what they are seen to do and say to others about this” (Cloke et. al., 2004, p. 169). It therefore supports the truth finding by providing different-angled insights and might verify or falsify the data collected in the interviews and focus groups. This approach might produce a basis for a deeper analysis of the tourism space, not only stating numbers but also perceptions of the people who produce the tourism product (the business-owners, the locals, the street vendors etc.). As well, it gives the chance to observe how the demand side (i.e. the backpackers) influences what is offered. This point is also emphasised by Britton (1991) who calls to see the consumer (in this case: the tourist) not only as a passive receiver. He argues that their voices also need to be heard as they have a great influence on what they consume by their consumption practices. With this approach, the findings of this investigation could then be used for further research. On the basis of the collected qualitative data a further study could be carried out to gain deeper insight on the space of consumption created in Taganga. An example would be to use the Q methodology, a methodology utilized in social sciences, linking qualitative and quantitative research. Its aim is to observe and
disclose subjective positions (Brown, 1996). Therefore, apart from providing a comprehensive study in one place involving the key stakeholders of the production of the tourism product (local businesses, government and tourists), it would also connect the economic and cultural geographic approaches.

References


Measuring the Acceptable Level of Negative Social Impacts of Tourism on Local Communities of Iran: A Case Study of Parishan Wetland Local Communities

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Introduction

Every year many Tourists are attracted to wetland’s ecosystems in Iran. The great number of tourists and their activities do not only affect the sensitive and vulnerable ecosystems in these areas, but also impacts the local communities surrounding them to different levels and extents. In recent decades, ecotourism experienced a relatively high growth rate compared to other forms of tourism. Today, many visitors are attracted to the protected areas especially to the wetlands. Parishan wetland is one of the significant eco-tourism destinations of Iran, located in Arzhan & Parishan protected area in Fars Province. According to Asgari, the Mayor of Kazeroun, around 160,000 tourists visited Parishan wetland in 2004 and this figure increased dramatically and reached to more than 300,000 in 2007. The increasing number of visitors to Parishan Wetland has caused some concerns regarding the impacts of tourism on local communities surrounding the wetland. According to Jafari (1990) and Wall (1997), most of
the research on tourism impacts since the late 1970s, has shown that the negative impacts of tourism tend to outweigh the positive impacts of it. The extensive presence and activities of tourists affect the sensitive and vulnerable ecosystems in these areas, as well as the surrounding local communities to different levels and extents. If ecotourism is not properly monitored, it would not only lead to destruction of the natural resources but would also become a threat to the cultural identity of the local communities. Therefore, managing the tourism impacts in order to control the negative impacts is inevitable. However, a few researches have been conducted in order to measure the perception of local communities regarding the acceptable level of tourism impacts.

One of the critical challenges that the Parishan Wetland tourism managers have to deal with is the negative social impacts due to the presence of visitors on Parishan local communities. The purpose of this research was to identify the negative social impacts of tourism on rural communities surrounding Parishan Wetland, and also to determine the acceptable level of these impacts using the Limits of Acceptable Changes technique. The methods used in this study were secondary data analysis and semi-structured questionnaires for local people. The required data was collected from the residents of the north-west side of the wetland which includes four rural communities called Zavali, Ayazabad, Pol Abgine and Shehranjan. These rural communities were chosen for this study since Parishan Wetland is easily accessible through its north-west side. Therefore, the residents of these communities are more exposed to tourism impacts and visitors have closer contacts with them. The population of these four local communities was 1543 in total. The literature of social impacts of tourism was reviewed and questions were prepared and presented using a five-point Likert scale. The questionnaires were distributed using the cluster sampling questions. 350 questionnaires were distributed and 315 of them could be reviewed. SPSS was used as a mean for data analysis in this study.
Table 1. Tourism Social Impacts and Indicators for Parishan wetland local communities¹

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Impacts</th>
<th>Indicators</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Demonstration Effect</td>
<td>1- Change in Clothing Patterns of Local People</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2- Emigration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crime</td>
<td>1- Increase in Drug Taking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2- Increase in Alcohol Use</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Security</td>
<td>1- Increase in Presence of Police</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2- Respecting the Local Residents’ Privacy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crowding</td>
<td>1- Overcrowding due to the Presence of Tourists</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decline in Environment’s Quality</td>
<td>1- Littering</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2- Noise Pollution</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traffic Conditions</td>
<td>1- Increase in the Number of Vehicles that Leads to Traffic Congestion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increase in Life Expenses</td>
<td>1- Increase in Public Transportation Fare</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2- Increase in Food Prices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3- Increase in Property Prices</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The changeable characteristic of Carrying Capacity and the lack of global-definition of its concept led to the creation of the Limits of Acceptable Changes-technique (Cooper, Fletcher, Gilbert, Shepherd, & Wanhill, 1998). The most important aim of LAC is the achievement of ecological and recreational goals at the same time (McCool, 1996). One of the advantages of using the LAC technique is that it is easier to implement comparing to Carrying Capacity (Simon, Narangajavana, & Marques, 2004). The application of Carrying Capacity in Recreation Management, made a systematic and comprehensive framework for decision making in recreation which is called LAC technique (Pigram & Jenkins, 2006). The LAC accepts that change will occur in natural areas by the visitor use (Hendee & Dawson, 2002). However, it does not try to stop the change but it focuses on deciding how much change is appropriate and acceptable for

¹It should be noted that some of these impacts are multifaceted and can be categorized under environmental impacts or economic impacts of tourism, too. Andereck et al. (2005), Ap (1992), Haley et al. (2005) categorized “decline in environment’s quality” under the negative social impacts. Haley et al. (2005) and Lee (1997) and categorized “increase in life expenses” under negative social impacts. Since these two impacts may affect the social life of the local communities, the current study categorized them under negative social impacts as well.
each natural area and how it should be managed (Corbett, 1995). In the original version of Limits of Acceptable Changes by Stankey, Cole, Lucas, Petersen, and Frissel (1985), there is no inclusion of the public role in the process, but according to Wray et al. (2005), the public participation is of great importance in implementing the LAC technique. As Krumpe and McCool (1997) indicated, the public participation is an essential part of LAC as a great number of the decisions made in the process (such as determining acceptable levels of change) are based on public involvement. Therefore, the LAC process should come into practice with broad public participation. The LAC process consists of the following 9 steps (Stankey et al., 1985):

1. Identify concerns and issues
2. Define and describe opportunity classes
3. Select indicators of resources and social conditions
4. Inventory resource and social conditions
5. Specify standards for resource and social indicators
6. Identify alternative opportunity class allocations
7. Identify management actions for each alternative
8. Evaluate and select an alternative
9. Implement actions and monitor conditions

The conceptual framework of the current study is based on the “Three Stage Method” used by Kazmierow (1996), Wray, Harbrow, and Kazmierow (2005) and McKay (2006) to study the application of LAC technique. The three stage method synthesizes the first five stages of the LAC and includes the following steps;

1. Identifying the negative social impacts of tourism in the destination
2. Measuring the current level of these negative social impacts
3. Measuring the acceptable level of the negative social impacts

The results revealed that the current level of tourism negative social impacts, in most cases, is beyond their acceptable level. Therefore, adopting a control mechanism to reduce the negative social impacts of tourism to the acceptable level from the local community’s perspective is suggested. The development of tourism in Parishan wetland should not only promote the visitors’ experience but also improve the environment and the host communities’ quality of life. In order to lower the current levels of negative social impacts of tourism and re-
duce the gap between the current and the acceptable levels of these impacts, strategies regarding management and control environmental pollutions should be implemented. Therefore, the following suggestions can be helpful:

1. Organizing and implementing joint rural projects by the Organization of Environment and Non-Governmental Organizations in order to promote a system for waste disposal and litter collecting especially during the high season

2. Developing tourism codes of conduct brochures and booklets for Parishanwet land and providing the visitors with them to enhance their understanding of the local communities’ values and cultural boundaries

3. Putting up signs with tourism codes of conduct on the main paths and roads of the wetland in order to make the visitors aware of the local communities’ social and cultural values

4. Allocating enough space for visitor parking to reduce the current level of noise pollution and traffic

5. Organizing ecotourism and tourism workshops or festivals by the Non-Governmental Organizations to enhance the visitors’ and the local people’s awareness of the tourism impacts on Parishanwet land local communities.

References


Introduction

Consumers have become increasingly concerned with the environment. For instance, industrial uses account for nearly one-quarter of the earth’s fresh water consumption and often creating wastewater as a result (Shang, Basil, & Wymer, 2010). Corporate social responsibility (CSR) has been acknowledged as an important ingredient for business success. The concept that business enterprises have some responsibilities to society beyond that of making earnings for the shareholders has been around for centuries (Carroll & Shabana, 2010). Hotels are increasingly sponsoring environment friendly programs to encourage voluntary reduction of towel and linen use. These programs reduce water usage thus benefiting the environment. They also reduce hotels’ laundering cost (Shang et al., 2010). The purpose of this study is to investigate the influence and
relationships among corporate social responsibility, corporate image and consumer identification in the hotel industry in Taiwan via statistic analysis.

**Literature Review**

*Corporate Social Responsibility:* Corporate social responsibility (CSR) has been acknowledged as an important ingredient for business success. The concept that business enterprises have some responsibilities to society beyond that of making earnings for the shareholders has been around for centuries (Carroll & Shabana, 2010). Kotler and Lee (2005) defined CSR as ‘a commitment to improve community well-being through discretionary business practices and contributions of corporate resources’. However, the most popular CSR definition is probably Carroll’s four different categories of CSR (1979, 1991). Carroll’s (1979, 1991) four-part definition of CSR identifies four categories of responsibilities: economic, legal ethical and philanthropic. These responsibilities are the expectations placed on the corporation by corporate stakeholders and society as a whole (Carroll & Shabana, 2010). Such CSR issues carried to tourism as a form of sustainability.

*Corporate Image:* A growing body of literature suggested that good corporate images have strategic value for the firms that own them. Consumer and stakeholder perceptions are important because they could guide behavior and thus are of critical interest to organizations. The creation of a corporation’s image and its maintenance are all significant concerns (Fukukawa, Balmer, & Gray, 2007). Studies demonstrated that by adopting an environmentally responsible identity through shared values with the firm’s key stakeholders, the firm could reflect an environmentally responsible image. This image could enhance the firm’s strategic position through internal and external differentiators from competitors; it resulted in enhanced employee motivation, cost savings, better reputation, and greater guest loyalty (Heikkurinen, 2010).

*Consumer Identification:* Identification has been defined as the degree to which organizational members perceive themselves and the focal organization as sharing the same defining attributes (Dutton, Dukerich, & Harquail, 1994). Advertisers use marketing strategies to sell products to consumers by persuading them that they need and want them (Bullen, 2009). Advertising is successful because it demonstrates people who they want to be and what they should buy to be the person by associating ‘consumption with human desires to which it has no real referent’ (Williams, 1980). Results from empirical study indicated that customers do indeed identify with organizations and that customer-company identification positively impacts both product utilization behavior
and extra-role behavior even when the effect of brand perception is accounted for (Ahearne, Bhattacharya, & Bruen, 2005).

**Methodology**

This study is to investigate the relationship and influence among corporate social responsibility, corporate image, and consumer identity of international tourist hotels in Taiwan. It is hypothesized that when the international tourist hotels are engaged in corporate social responsibility activities, will enhance the corporate image, thus encouraging a stronger consumer product acceptance, thus increasing the consumption of the surplus. A series of preparatory work, such as literature review, document collection, tool development, expert consultation, and item analysis, would be conducted before issuing a formal questionnaire to implement this study. Questionnaire data will be obtained as a measurement tool permits, and to consumers for the study and on literature review and research assumptions based on scale, scale using Lee Hackett (Likert Scale) five-point scales, so respondents will hold liable strongly disagreed (5) to strongly agree (1) to measure, in turn to higher scores on behalf of subjects are higher for the evaluation of the property. This questionnaire is no reverse problem, and will pre-test and then by the experts to correct dimensions of corporate social responsibility, re-issuing a formal questionnaire to the consumer, is expected to recycle 200. The structural equation modeling research tools will be based, descriptive statistics, reliability analysis, validity analysis, supplemented. Responses will be gathered and analyzed using descriptive statistics, ANOVA, Pearson correlation, Regression Analysis and Structural Equation Modeling.

**Conclusion**

Findings can provide industry leaders and government policy makers with practical knowledge with which to develop better business plans and policies that incorporate CSR activities. Since the present study is limited to domestic guests in Taiwan's international tourist hotels, it is suggested in the future to include foreign tourists and the international tourist hotel located abroad. Furthermore, the present study investigate the relationship of variables from a consumer perspective, it is suggested to include other factors, such as economic factors, industry factors, government policy factors, social environment and other variables available to be included in the study.
References


Crew Resource Management for Safety Training in the South African Adventure Industry

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Introduction
The willingness of participants to expose themselves to adventure, risk and challenge puts them into contact with hazards that may cause negative programme outcomes or result in participant or leader injury (Lepp & Gibson, 2008, p. 740). Parkin & Blades (1998, p. 10) states that whilst adventure, risk and challenge are important, outdoor practitioners need to ensure that programmes satisfy three (3) important criteria, namely:

- identifiable aims and objectives;
- the most appropriate site has been selected to achieve these aims; and
- planned activities are based on a sound risk-management strategy.
Literature review

In a quality adventure programmes risk should be managed, but it cannot be eliminated. Therefore, participants are informed that the activities are risky and that safety cannot be guaranteed (Prouty et al., 2007, p. 52). According to Priest & Gass (2005, p. 78), adventure leaders need to apply meta-skills into a workable programme design, but regardless of a good workable design, or how well adventure leaders are trained, or how much experience they have - accidents continue to happen. How can adventure providers be trained to improve the adventure programme safety if technical skills are not enough?

Human factors: Since 1970 investigations into aviation mishaps have shown that human factor error was the cause of between 60 and 80 percent of all aviation accidents (Kanki et al., 2010, p. 6). Human factors training involves disciplines such as: psychology, engineering, human physiology, medicine, sociology and anthropometry (Safety Regulation Group, 2002, p. 1-3). One can argue, that adventure programming and human factors in adventure accidents have nothing to do with medicine or engineering, physiology, sociology or anthropometry, however investigations into other high risk industries proves differently. Six decades ago the aviation industry was the first to develop human factors training. Today, this is known as Crew Resource Management or CRM.

Crew Resource Management (CRM): CRM is designed to train team members to achieve maximum efficacy ‘in a time constrained environment under stress.’ CRM is a concept with nearly universal usefulness and timeless applicability (Kern, 2001, p. 16). The lessons learned in aviation over the past 60 years, are now applied in hospital emergency rooms, nuclear power plants, power grid management and in a myriad of other high risk operations (Smith, 2009). CRM is not only concerned with the technical knowledge and skills required to execute and operate a safe activity, but also with the cognitive and interpersonal skills needed to manage the actions within an organised high risk system (Farooq, 2009; CRM Standing Group, 2009). As most accidents are caused by human factors (the meta-skill areas of adventure leadership), the main focus of this study was to determine the perceptions on what is regarded as the most important skills in the industry, according to Priest and Gass’ (2005, p. 3) research findings.

Methodology

The study investigates the possibility to apply CRM training for meta-skills training in the South African adventure industry in order to improve adven-
ture safety, as currently no single complete data list exists in the South African adventure industry. A total of two hundred and seventy five (275) questionnaires were sent out. The survey was an online questionnaire and used the QuestionProTM programme. The total completion rate was 32.72%. This study was designed to test the responses of people representing organisations, businesses, and individuals themselves within the South African adventure industry and a mixed method of purposive/judgemental and quota sampling was used.

In the first section of the questionnaire, the respondents were required to rank the twelve (12) adventure leadership skills in order of importance. In the second section of the questionnaire, five (5) questions on each of these skills (constructs) were asked in a side-by-side comparative survey, thus sixty (60) questions in total. In column “A” the respondents had to indicate their own opinion on the questions asked, and in column “B” they had to indicate to what extent they feel the same questions are applicable to the adventure industry. A Likert scale was used in both sections of the questionnaire, in order to assist the respondents in the answering of the questions. The SPSS programme was used to analyse the raw data. Descriptive statistics and tables, frequencies, and percentages were used after information had been statistically tested by applying the Factor analysis and paired t-tests.

The researcher used Cronbach’s alpha (α) to test the reliability and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy to test the reliability validity of their findings. A Cronbach’s α value of 0.7 is normally considered as adequate and satisfactory, but for the purpose of this study a measurement of 0.5 was accepted.

**Results**

The researcher tried to determine if there is a difference between the ways the respondents interpret their own opinions, compared to what they are experiencing in the industry. In order to achieve this, a paired t-test was used.

Questions were numbered as pairs (as it includes the respondents own opinion, and how they are experiencing the same factor in the adventure industry), then the t-ratio and a Sig. (or P-value) were determined. If the Sig. value (or P value) is 0.0, then there is a significant difference between the respondents’ own opinion and what they see in the adventure industry. In only four (4) questions, the respondents’ own opinions were similar to what they are experiencing in the adventure industry. For all the other questions, there was a
huge discrepancy between the respondents’ own opinion and to what they experience in the adventure industry.

One should expect that at least the respondent’s first rankings would be very similar to the answers given in column A of the side-by-side questionnaire, but when the three (3) sections were compared to each other, it was evident that the initial ranking of the adventure leadership skills has changed when they had to interpret it towards themselves. It changed once again when they had to relate it to the rest of the adventure industry. Table 1 indicates the comparison of the answers as given by the respondents.

Table 1. A comparison on the ranking of skills

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Ranking of importance - the various adventure leadership skills - Figure 5.10</th>
<th>Skills rankings in Section 3 of survey – own interpretation Column A (side-by-side)</th>
<th>Skills rankings in Section 3 of survey – interpretation to industry situation Column B (side-by-side)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Safety skills</td>
<td>Decision making skills</td>
<td>Effective communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Effective communication</td>
<td>Instructional skills</td>
<td>Problem solving skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Decision making skills</td>
<td>Effective communication</td>
<td>Experience-based judgement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Professional ethics</td>
<td>Organisational skills</td>
<td>Technical skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Problem solving skills</td>
<td>Professional ethics</td>
<td>Decision making skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Experience-based judgement</td>
<td>Experience-based judgement</td>
<td>Flexible leadership skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Technical skills</td>
<td>Flexible leadership skills</td>
<td>Organisational skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Flexible leadership skills</td>
<td>Technical skills</td>
<td>Environmental skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Instructional skills</td>
<td>Safety skills</td>
<td>Instructional skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Organisational skills</td>
<td>Environmental skills</td>
<td>Professional ethics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Facilitation skills</td>
<td>Problem solving skills</td>
<td>Safety skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Environmental skills</td>
<td>Facilitation skills</td>
<td>Facilitation skills</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Form the data analysis it was clear that respondents were mostly uncertain about the applicability of the statements to the rest of the industry. Respondents firstly had their own ideas about the twelve skills, but when requested to answer the questions with regards to the rest of the industry, some of them did not respond at all, whilst others indicated that they were ‘uncertain.’ This might be one of the reasons why the completion rate of the questionnaires was only 32.72%.
Conclusion

Much has been done in the past to improve safety in adventure and it has all worked, but, from time to time serious accidents still occur. Although low in frequency, the consequences are detrimental to potential clients, businesses, and the rest of the profession itself. In all other high-risk industries, humans do not always function at one hundred per cent (100%) efficiency and that causes serious accidents, incidents and fatalities. CRM has been used over the last four (4) decades in the various high risk industries to improve safety through non-technical/meta skills training, as the lack of these skills caused many human error accidents, despite the fact that people might be highly trained, highly qualified or highly competent. The results of this study illustrates that there is a need for CRM training in the South African adventure industry. However, CRM cannot and never will be the ultimate mechanism to eliminate errors and to assure safety in a high-risk endeavor such as adventure. As in other high-risk industries, CRM can play a major role in the improvement and promotion of safety, especially in the development of human-factor training or non-technical skills training, known as meta-skills in the adventure industry.

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Poster Presentations
Birth and Perspectives of Pálinka-Tourism in Hungary

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Abstract
Our research focuses on the birth and the perspectives of pálinkatourism in Hungary. Since the amendment of Act of 2002 on food this ‘Hungaricum’ product got established in the domestic tourism. Our research also covers the national and the international exhibitions/debuts, and its role in the tourism in Hungary. How it affects or may affect the tourism of less developed regions. In our research we conducted in-depth interviews, visited festivals, distilleries and tasting houses. The chapters of our paper discuss the following issues: festivals in Hungary, national and international contests, new products, innovations and marketing strategies. The tasting houses and visitor centers, used as tourist attractions are mentioned only in general sense. The reputation of pálinka improved a lot amongst the European decision makers during Hungary’s EU presidency in 2011. The international expansion is presented through SWOT analysis. We also provided recommendations to improve the pálinkatourism in Hungary.

Key words: Pálinka, tourism, festivals, marketing strategies.

Introduction
The reason of picking this topic is explained with the continuously rising importance of pálinka in today’s tourism. During our research we quite often encountered with the unpleasant fact that there is a limited amount of literature on this topic, most of which are in the form of online articles. Our research contains mostly our own observations. Pálinka tourism in Hungary is still in a
„brand-new” state. Besides it forms part of a complex system, as it is usually present with other tourist products. The year of revival was in 2002 when the legal framework was established. It got under national and later European protection. By 2011 we ended up with people no longer asking “What is it?”, but look for the right one out of the huge selection. There are more and more visitors to the pálinka festivals too, be it in the capital city or on the countryside. The distillate supply of the country is growing year by year, and thanks to the beneficial work of the distilleries and to the continuous innovations there are always new products on the domestic market. The domestic top-premium pálinkas are outstanding not only on local standards but also receive medals at international contests. In our present paper we analyse what direction pálinka-tourism is heading for now, and what lessons are to be learnt from other field in order to succeed.

**Literature Review**

Hungary is situated in Central Europe. This is really important, because the unique climate in the Carpathian Basin is favourable for fruits. Our nation lives in a place where everything is given for the ingredients of a good pálinka production. Hungary-‘s climate features, the number of sunny hours and the fact that the average annual temperature is over the usual figures at this latitude all make the taste and scent of Hungarian fruits unique. It is not by chance that the ancient Romans named the area the ‘fruit-bearing’ Pannonia, at that time the vadalma (crab apple), vadkörte (wild pear), kökény (wild plum), vadcsersznye (wild cherry) grew here.

The first written record dates from the 14th century, when King Károly Róbert (Charles Robert) was forced to interrupt his tour in Italy because of the gout of his wife. Queen Elisabeth was cured with rosemary wine distillate. It was called later „*Aqua vitae reginae Hungariae*”, i.e. the life potion of the Hungarian queen. There are 3 theories today how the pálinka distillation process came to the country. According to one the conquering Hungarians brought it from the East to the Carpathian Basin. Another says it came from the North. In the European culture, the territory of the present Scotland and Ireland is said to be the cradle of the distillation. The third theory claims that it came from the South. The first written records of distillation are from the territory of the present Iraq, and Iran. Vine distillates were already produced around 1000 BC. Then it was possibly taken to Greece and later to Italy. Probably that is the origin of the art of distillation. In the era of Matthias Corvinus the name of the distillates from grain was different from that of the wine distillates. They were
called crematum, crematura. The Slovak term, párlinka is used for the grain-based distillates from the 17th century (Balázs, 2004).

The distillation itself was the privilege of the feudal lords. The production thereof at farmer level was restricted. Some attempts at prohibition were also made. The use of grain (used for bread) was banned for distillation. It was also prohibited to distill at the time of masses. At that time some books and brochures were already published on párlinka distillation. Lajos Mitterpacher was one of the most significant authors of these books. The production of small enterprises, spirit, párlinka and liqueur factories opened from 1799 onwards called for the need for central legislation. The state lifted the state’s monopoly on spirits by itself in 1982 (Kirsch, 1986).

The shortage-economy of the socialism also affected the párlinka distillation. The braziers did not make different sized caldrons as they wanted or the ones ordered from them. In the year of the transition, in 1989 there were only 880 spirit distilleries, out of which 202 were in private hands. The technical equipment of the factories, the lack of experts and the poor-quality ingredients made it impossible to produce high-quality párlinkas. It resulted in the disappearance of fruit párlinka from the domestic and foreign markets. The spirits made of aroma, water and ethanol took its place, and were sold under the brand ‘párlinka’ (Sólyom, 1986).

Methodology

The primary source of our paper is presented here. In the interview we tried to address questions, which allowed to gain additional information apart from the website or the brochure. Erika Békési B., CEO of the Budapesti Békési Pálinkárium was of great help to our research. They have a long tradition, yet are not afraid of innovation. We wanted to know how they judge the present situation of párlinka, and what design and promotion tools they use in order to reach the crowd more effectively. The interview was followed by a SWOT-analysis with regard to párlinka tourism in Hungary to give a glimpse of it. The following questions were put at the interview:

When did your family start the párlinka distillation business?
• What amount of distillate do you produce a year?
• Where do you get the right fruits from?
• How many different types of párlinka, liquor do you produce?
• How many employees do you have?/Do you have family members working for the company?
• What kind of events do you participate at?
• What marketing tools do you use?
• How did the demand react to the economic crisis?
• Are there any development plans for the future?

Békési Pálinka Zrt. was established on April 1 2005. However the family has been involved with pálinka distillation since 1983. The distillery in the Gőzmalom sor was acquired in 1993. Production on order was continued, while distilled for own purposes as well. Thanks to the new place we were able to increase the production and the storage capacity. On average about 260-350.000 liters of pálinka are produced. Then we use it to make liquors and pálinkas (more than 200 different types). To the pálinka we use the fruit from our own cultivation and the fruits of locals. The Békés plum pálinka under official trademark is also made of fruits of the locals, naturally after strict selection.

The present selection contains 200 spirits and liquors. This includes one of the 8 pálinkas with trademark, the Békés plum pálinka (In Hungary the pálinkas under official trademark are those that are protected for the unique qualities, i.e. there are eight. The origin and the quality of fruits to be used to these pálinkas are stipulated by law: Békés plum, Gőcsej pear, Gönczi apricot, Szatmár plum, Pannonhalma törköly, Szabolcs apple, Újfehértó sour cherry and Kecskemét apricot.)

As Békési Pálinka Zrt. is a family business, so everyone takes part in the work. Besides we also employ 20-22 people full time, and for the autumn works we contract some more, but only for a short period of time. We are present at all bigger festivals, but unfortunately there are small pálinka festivals almost every week, which is not good for the demand, as people do not have enough money left for bigger events, like the festival in the Buda Castle. Moreover the organizers charge more and more for the space, so on a rainy day you do not have any return on the investment, but make a loss. This explains the we plan already in autumn and spring which event to go to, as we do not wish to make losses. At this year’s 5th Buda Castle Pálinka and Sausage Festival most of the exhibitors could just get a return on their investment due to weather which suddenly turned to bad. In the last 2 years the number of foreign tourists increased. The weak Forint made Hungary more attractive for them.
We advertise ourselves on flyers and in newspapers. In the last 2 years people started to look for our pálinkas, and came to our shop with purpose. In the first year we still had to explain the customers what the difference between pálinka and pálinka was. Fortunately the situation has changed since. The satisfied customers do great marketing for us. In 2005-2006 several other pálinkáriums opened in the city center, but those focused on tourists so most of them were forced to close, because tourism still has a seasonal character here. The crisis did not affect the pálinka market that much we foresaw. The decrease in demand was around 10%, but now it is all back to normal, maybe it has even increased. We always have development plans. Békés plum pálinka Centre was opened this year in the heart of Békés town housed in a building under monument protection, which was nicely retrofitted and turned into a nice visitor center there. The next step is to buy a coach to transport tourists on the Békés plum pálinka Road, which runs through Békés, Békéscsaba and Gyula.

Results

In this section we give a little summary of our personal experiences. The unified image of pálinka has not yet been formulated. In our opinion the promotion of the information and experiences on pálinka culture in Hungary and also abroad should be better backed and presented. The Budapest Pálinkafestival was first held in May 2006, in the heart of Budapest in the Városháza Park (Town Hall Park). On the fourth edition 27 pálinka distilleries exhibited and offered their products. There were more than 17 thousand visitors during the four days. This year, at the fifth festival pálinka-lovers could enjoy an ever wider scope of festival. The same refers to the Pálinka and Sausage festival in the Buda Castle first organised in 2007. The view from the Savoya Terrace made the festival even more enjoyable and the sausage paired with the pálinka also proved to be a great idea. In 2009 the size of the festival area doubled, and the festival lasted already 4 days instead of three. According to the pálinkamasters the visitors not only expect the good atmosphere and delicious spirits, but are eager to get more information on the products they taste, and on the regions. Along with the improvement of pálinka tourism, everyone will find the programme appropriate to the own taste. Similarly to wine and learning out of the mistakes done in that regard much bigger development can be achieved combined with adequate marketing strategy than in any other field of tourism.

Festivals & Competitions

The year 2011 did not pass without a pálinka festival either. Fortunately these events are growing bigger and better each year. During our research and tast-
ing we managed to talk to exhibitors, who were glad to report how satisfied their customers were. The International Kisüsti Pálinkafestival, Exhibition and Fair, one of the biggest fruit spirit events and contests of Hungary, was held in the garden of Gyula Castle. The 19th Hungarian National Pálinka and Törkölypálinka, International Fruit and Wine Distillate Competition was also part of this event. In 2011 there were more than 800 competitors from 9 countries.

The first weekend of May is the date for the Budapest Pálinkafestival. The organisers set a new tradition: as of 2011 the pálinka of the year is selected. The first one awarded with the title was the plum pálinka, which was later available for tasting for the visitors. The year 2012 is dedicated to apricot.

At the Budavári Pálinka – and Sausage festival last autumn there was a guest distillate, the vodka. There were also some specialties from the Russian cuisine.

Our pálinkas achieved great results at two international distillate contests over the last few years. One of the most important contests abroad for the Hungarian distilleries is Destillata held in Bad Ischl, Austria since 1992. In 2011, 171 distilleries (of which 24 Hungarian ones) from 12 countries competed with 1560 products (http://www.4cent.hu/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=208:destillata-120-magyar-erem-1-resz&catid=9:fesztival&Itemid=10). The Hungarians collected 120 medals, and finished 3rd on the overall ranking. The other one is the World Spirit Award, which is considered to be the world’s most prestigious distillate contest. It was held in Klagenfurt for the 18th time, this time with 33 nations, 70 participants with 337 alcoholic products. The Hungarian pálinkas achieved great results. For example the products of Gyula Pálinka Manufacture and the Matheus Pálinka-house received great many medals (http://www.4cent.hu/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=214:world-spirits-award-szenzacios-magyar-szerepes&catid=1:palinkavilag&Itemid=2).

Innovations & New Products

When pálinka proves not to be attractive enough at festivals, the exhibitors try to offer different kinds of craftsmen products. The new companies on the market do not have any difficulty in producing high quality distillates but find it difficult to push visitors to purchase them.
The best occasion for the debut of these new products is the Budavár Pálinkafestival in springtime, or the Budavári Pálinka and Sausage Festival in autumn. It is also a great opportunity for new distilleries. The new exhibitors believe that they have to offer other products besides pálinka to the visitors in order to attract them. They usually come with recipes of sirups, marmalade, and bottled fruits. The joint product of Zsolnay Porcelain manufacture and Zsindelyes pálinka distillery, ‘Újfehértó ágyas sour cherry pálinka’ in a unique porcelain bottle was presented in September 2011. It combines tradition, Hungarian culture with the modern world thereby adopting to the image and mind. One of the innovative products of the year was a small 40ml bottle with aluminium turn-lock for perfect locking, called Pálinkapatron. The tasteful glass tubes with minimal design carry silver graphics, and fit well to the hand. It is very comfortable to drink from the tube through the wide opening. Based on the manufacture’s survey on the demand of the domestic market, they filled it with Premium ripe plum, and the Premium Hungarian apricot and raspberry.

**Tasting Houses and Visitor Centres**

The most important goal of these facilities is to prove that the cultural and gastronomy experience of a special product from a given area can serve as a base to a tourist program. It attracts tourists by itself, thereby you can learn everything on the most important products of the given region.

The tasting houses clearly serve the goal to take the visitors back into the past after visiting the distillery, to teach them to value the origins, and also to let them enjoy a comfort of the present service level. They are also suitable to house business meetings, and different company trainings. The tours are guided by pálinka-masters, who offer valuable information to the guests besides the experience of tasting. The inner and outer accessories of the tasting houses have to reflect the rustic past and the features symbolising the region, and meet the requirements of our modern age.

The visitor centres have an interior better reflecting the state-of-art level than that of the tasting houses. The centre also offers regionally typical food, such as stew, sausage, and other roasted meat. Hungary’s first pálinka treasury is in Békés Pálinkacentrum, where the costumer can rent a storage box for the pálinka bought in the distillery. The owners believe in the personal contact with the visitors.
International Expansion

In this part we deal with the question of how pálinka gets ground internationally. At the festivals we had the opportunity to talk to several masters and all were of the opinion that the Hungarian pálinka was reached the level to expand, while the distilleries were still not ready. This is essentially explained by the fact that the country cannot grow fruit in enough volume, and the number of investment should be multiplied. Compared to other well-known brands, like the French cognac, Scottish whisky, Russian or Finnish vodka, the volume of the basic ingredients is determining, how much they can export later. On the other hand in case of pálinka there is a big hindering factor, which greatly limits the export opportunity, and this is the fact that the fruit must be grown in our country. And to increase cultivation needs a huge investment.

The secret of the success of many international drinks is not the better quality compared to pálinka, but the excellent marketing. As the distilleries use quality fruit, they have to compete with the price level of fresh fruit. This means that much higher fruit price level can be foreseen for a year with less production.

Unfortunately the domestic pálinka profession is not unified, therefore to enter the foreign market in the present state is not possible. This can happen in 5-6 years in case of adequate investment. The biggest advantage of Hungarian pálinka is at the same time the biggest disadvantage as well. The fruit production is not always the same quality every year, therefore blending is much needed, whereby the same quality products can be produced year by year. The company Rézangyal was the first company to start with the distribution of blended pálinka. It does not have an own distillery, therefore they tasted almost all pálinka of all distilleries hunting for quality pálinka to be able to bring a stable quality to the market. At the time of the foundation the pálinka trade was not happy about the idea, as they through they wanted to ‘rule’ the pálinka. By today they managed to prove why blending is not a bad thing. Let us just think of the biggest Scottish whisky brand, Ballantins, Chivas Regal or Red Label. Further to that described above these are just ‘bad blends’ despite there are bottles which are worth several ten thousand forint. Thus you can buy it anywhere in the work, the quality is the same.

On the Table of Europe

In tings, Hungary had the Presidency of the European Union. Our national drinks were served at the official events in Budapest and in Brussels, too (22
types of pálinka from 15 manufactures). It means that the pálinka found its way to the European stage through these official meetings and receptions. This opened a great opportunity for the future of the pálinka, and for its reputation all around the world. Those, who have never heard of the Hungarian fruit distillates, were introduced to it as a very important part of the Hungarian gastronomy. It is also an esteemed part of the domestic drinking culture, a fruit distillate that has the right to be presented on high-level gastronomical events, and it is also a drink that we serve to our guests, either foreigners or close friends.

Subsidies and Tenders

The Hungarian pálinka market keeps growing, has more and more parties involved and consumers, which is definitely the result of the commitment of the distilleries to the quality. In order to keep the high standards, the distilleries need more funds besides their own income. V. Német Zsolt, Under-Secretary responsible for rural development stated at a conference (16 June 2011, “The Future of the Pálinka, National Forum”), that the government extends the scope of subsidies to micro-businesses in cities with less than 5000 inhabitants to the pálinka distilleries, too. It allows the distilleries to access the funds provided under the ‘New Hungary Rural Development Program’ for micro businesses. The stimulation of pálinka distillation means not only that the traditions live on, but it is also a force to create jobs.

Conclusion

After taking the pálinka “tour”, we were able to experience how varied, valuable it is, and it still has great opportunities. We are interested in all attractions, pálinka is always going to be there. Be it active or passive tourism, we can do horse riding, hunting, relaxing in a hot spa, or visit the tasting houses of big distilleries. Some of these manufactures can be easily reached from Budapest. We believe that pálinka still has a lot to offer, either on a national scale or internationally. In order to bring the maximum out of it, we have to join hands.
### SWOT-Analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strength</th>
<th>Weaknesses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>unique taste and smell</td>
<td>fruits not in adequate volume</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>huge offer</td>
<td>high tax ratio and price</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>easy to reach</td>
<td>lack of cooperation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>new products every half-year</td>
<td>lack of capital</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>more and more visitors at the festivals year by year</td>
<td>population is not educated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>investments concluded by 2010-11-12</td>
<td>strata with low income cannot be reached</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>high entrance fees</td>
<td></td>
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<table>
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<tr>
<th>Opportunities</th>
<th>Threats</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>cooperation</td>
<td>lack of capital</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>investments, tenders</td>
<td>bad advertising</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>production growth</td>
<td>‘too explanatory marketing’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>identification of own identity</td>
<td>constant rise in taxes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tourism on the country-side</td>
<td>not enough production for the international market</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stricter legislation</td>
<td>misleading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>constant innovation</td>
<td>2 types of pálinka on the market</td>
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<tr>
<td>thematic tours</td>
<td>hunger for profit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>expansion of services</td>
<td></td>
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http://www.strazsaborrend.hu/dynamic/borturizmus_alapjai.pdf


http://www.magyarpalinkahaza.hu/cikkek/eredetvedett-palinkak/

Educational Tourism in World Heritage Cities:
Two Case Studies - Évora and Salamanca

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Introduction

The idea of educating city has to be implemented with the social awareness of that educate, being a task that it is commonly attributed to the school and the family, it is also a responsibility of society as a whole. In 1972, was published by UNESCO (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization), a report by Edgar Faure, that was pioneer in the way of looking at the city as a fundamental space in education of the people and pointed out by Biesta (2006) and Jarvis (2007) as a document marked by the strength and vision on the role of education in the universe, with a particular focus on the life-long learning and knowledge society. However, the concept of educating city emerges in the movement started in 1990, in Barcelona, in which more than 60
cities have adopted the *Charter of the Educating Cities* as a model for action. In 1994, in Bologna, the International Association of Educating Cities develops for the city, in addition to its traditional functions (economic, social, political, and provision of services), an educating function, that is full of intentionality and responsibility, in training, promoting and developing all its inhabitants. After the publication of Edgar Faure that has already be referred to earlier, there are others, especially after the movement of the educating cities, in 1990, which highlights the concept of educating city (Trilla Bernet, 1990), (Institut d’Educa-

tion, 1998) and " (Gomez-Granell & Villa Ignacio, 2001). Jaume Trilla has also made an important contribution through their works published in 1993, "Otras educaciones" and "La educación fuera de la escuela", where the city is viewed not only as an educational place but as making it possible for citizens. It is within this logic of educating cities while project systematic and intentionally directed to action, educator and educational, that is the potential that their cultural heritage built provides, while educational capital, either for the local community or to their visitors and tourists.

The World Heritage Convention (1972) and all the result of its development in the past few decades, has been one of the most universal and successful tools for the safeguarding, cooperation and democratization of the heritage on a global scale as well, and within this concept of world heritage of UNESCO it is possible to globalize the importance of heritage for the future of humanity. In a research in the area of education is fundamental reflect on the processes through which the education occurs and, in this sense, the education is not restricted to the classroom, the educational processes occur in different contexts of our lives (on the street, at home, in the family, with friends, vacation, and of course in the school) and in different ages or stages of the life cycle of human being (from childhood to old age) defined as life-long learning or experiential learning processes, where education and learning appears in different contexts (formal, non-formal and informal). It is in this context that fits the building local and regional levels of educational policies beyond the limits of the government, through local projects of education, where the local authorities and associations play a crucial role. May the cities educate? Can the city leave from a mere geographical concentration of inhabitants and become an educating territory? Who should promote and foster this change? These and other issues have been widely discussed, however, when we talk about the educational role of the city, there is an institution that should assume the role of leadership and coordination of all this movement - the municipality, because only this one have the legitimacy to represent the city as a whole. How can a world heritage
city become an educating territory? In what way can the assets be an educating agent? What kind of education and to whom it is addressed? Will be the educational project of the cities directed only to residents or also to tourists and visitors? The informal education is the one that has a more important role in matters related to the heritage, being formed by different processes from those that are usual in a classroom, according to the authors Asensio and Pol (2002) and (Light, 1995).

According to Jan Van der Borg, Paolo Costa and Giuseppe Gotti (1996), in a study conducted in seven European cities with large size sheet, the tourism can be an important activity as a way of boosting the local economy, maintaining the integrity of the heritage and ensure a better quality of life for residents and visitors. The present investigation aims to understand the educational dimensions of the world heritage cities that are at the same time educating cities and how the heritage could be an educational resource for visitors and tourists. This study is also important to understand if education and learning are important parts of the tourist experience. The term educational tourism or edu-tourism has been discussed by very few tourism academics because the concept of traveling for education and learning is a broad and complicated area (Ritchie, 2003). The major discussion of this form of tourism was undertaken by Kalinowski and Weiler (1992), Holdnak & Holland (1996), Gibson (1998), Wood (2001) and more recently by Brent W. Ritchie (2003) and is defined as the tourist activity undertaken by those for whom education and learning is a primary or secondary motivation for their trip. The educational tourism includes a wide range of activities but our purpose is to study only the cultural heritage tourism and the ability of tourism to educate through heritage. The role of education and learning is fundamental to the delivery and experience related to cultural heritage tourism.

The Grand Tour was seen as the beginning of cultural and educational tourism (Ritchie, 2003) and was undertaken by the British aristocracy as part of their education between the 17th and 19th centuries and where this young participants travel for the most popular and important European destinations with the purpose of civilize and learn in different places and contexts, from a formal education in languages and specific skills to an informal education getting social and cultural knowledge’s and skills. The educational tourism is considered a new type of tourism but travel for learning and education purposes is not a new concept. The empirical research in this study is being done in two different cities, Évora (Portugal) and Salamanca (Spain) that are classified as world heritage city and educating city and that have some other similar characteristics.
(university cities and country towns). The research methodology used in this investigation will be based in the case study and the information will be collected in two steps: (1) semi-directed interviews to the “actors” in each city that are responsible for the projects of education and tourism and at the same time documental search of projects, reports and other documents of both cities that are important to understand this subject and (2) questionnaires applied to the tourists and visitors in both cities simultaneously in two different touristic seasons and using to different ways (tourism office and touristic guides). This study expect to contribute to the scientific knowledge from a conceptual and theoretical point of view centered in the learning processes outside of school specially when travelling and is also expected that this work contribute to obtain results that can produce recommendations to be addressed to the cities in the use of cultural heritage as an educational resource for tourists and visitors. The main limitations of this investigation are associated with the transient nature of tourists and the difficulties to identify who are the educational tourists and classifying them, the lack of information about travelling for education or learning purposes and to finish, there are some difficulties with the crossover between educational tourism and other types of tourism and products such as cultural and heritage tourism.

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Tourism Demand in Portugal: Market Perspectives

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Abstract  
Tourism has experienced different levels of development in the different regions of Portugal. To frame this development, several panel data models were estimated. The main objective is to explain the evolution of overnight stays by nationality in each region. Secondary data from 2000 to 2010 was used. The analysis includes the main tourism markets, such as the United Kingdom, Germany, the Netherlands, Ireland, France and Spain. Tourism literature suggests that, among others, the main determinants of tourism demand are Income (GDP), population, tourist’s income by place of residence, households’ consumption, unemployment rate, inflation rate, compensation of employees, comparative prices and households’ investment rate. It is observed that, although significant, the explanatory power of these variables varies according to the origin and the destination region considered.

Key words: Tourism demand; econometric model; panel data.

Introduction  
Tourism is an important social and economic phenomenon that follows a pattern of evolution that is important to understand. Applied economic research attempts to understand this pattern, from an applied macroeconometric, an applied microeconometric, or even a mixed (micro and macroeconometric) perspectives. The macroeconometric perspective considers that the tourism demand patterns are explained by economic and social conditions at an aggregate level (see, inter alia, Sakai, Brown, & Mak (2000); Santana-Galleno, Ledesma-Rodriguez, & Perez-
Rodriguez, (2011); Seetanah (2011), Guarín-Muñoz & Amaral (2000); Guarín-Munõz (2006), whereas the microeconometric approaches focus on variables at the individual level (see, e.g., Brida & Risso (2009); Massidda & Etzo (2011) and Surugiu et al. (2011)). A mixed (micro and macroeconometric) perspectives have emerged, namely in studies conducted by Eugenio-Martín (2004); Naudé & Sayman (2005); Garín-Munõz & Montero-Martin (2007); Leitão (2010), among others. However, there has been no clear-cut answer to explain the heterogeneous evolution of tourism demand, which requires the development of further research. The econometric approach typically used in the literature relied on the traditional ordinary least squares (OLS) regression analysis. However, over recent years other econometric methods have been considered, such as, for instance, the autoregressive distributed lag (ADL) model, the error correction model (ECM), the time varying parameter (TVP) model and the most ideal demand system (AIDS); see Song & Li (2008).

Panel data models have had less application in tourism analysis (Song & Li, 2008). In this paper, through an application of static and dynamic panel data models we aim to identify and analyse the determinants of the tourism demand of the six major international markets for each tourism region of Portugal. The dynamic panel data model is estimated using the Generalized Method of Moments (GMM) estimator of Arellano & Bond (1991). This model allows for the identification of the main determinants of demand by using a mix of micro and macroeconomic determinants. Their contribution rests on explaining the volume of overnight stays by the six major international markets in the seven tourist regions of Portugal. Based on the number of overnight stays in hotels, tourist resorts and apartments during a period of ten years (2000-2010) it is shown that some micro and macroeconomic variables have a positive or negative impact on current demand for each tourist region of Portugal.

The paper is organized as follow. The next section summarizes the tourism demand studies, mainly in what concerns the applications of econometric models and in particular panel data models. The third section presents the econometric methodology and the data set considered in the present research. Empirical results for each region are provided in the fourth section. The fifth section summarizes and presents the conclusions, limitations and perspectives for future research.

**Context Setting:** International tourism is an economic and social phenomena and its expression is more evident since the second half of this century. Although the transformations brought by the era of globalization provide new challenges
to the international tourist phenomenon, tourism has observed a steady growth since 1950, both in the number of international arrivals to airports and in revenue generated. According to UNWTO (2011) in 2010, 940 million international tourist arrivals in world airports and a total revenue of 919 billions of Dollars were registered, when compared with the 25 million international tourist arrivals in world airports and a total of 2 billion Dollars in 1950.

In a context of successive levels of environmental, political and socio-economic changes, which could trigger changes in the behavior of international tourism demand, the use of predictive models will be useful in order to provide new scenarios of tourist behavior. Destinations are facing new patterns of consumption for what they need to be prepared for given the context of extreme competition between tourist destinations. Studying the future of tourism demand is a key factor for the management and development of tourism. Portugal is the most western country of mainland Europe. Concerning international tourism, the country received in 2010, 23.6 million international total overnights which corresponds to 63% of total overnights in Portugal (Turismo de Portugal, IP, 2011). However, six of the major tourist international source markets, such as the United Kingdom (UK); Germany (G); the Netherlands (N), France (FR) and Ireland (I) presented since 2000 a decreasing pattern (see Figure 1).

![Figure 1. Total overnight stays in Portugal by place of residence 2000-2010](source: Turismo de Portugal, IP. (2011))

Considering the essential role that the tourism sector plays in the national economy (in 2010 the consumption of tourism in Portugal was 9.2% of the GDP), the analyses of the tourism demand pattern is essential to enact a sustainable de-
velopment. Although a decreasing trend seems to be observed in all markets, illustrated in Figure 1, this tendency is not homogeneous when the focus of the analyse is at the regional level. Table 1 shows that the main markets present different demand patterns by region.

**Table 1.** International overnight stays in Portugal per region (Average annual growth %)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Countries</th>
<th>Algarve</th>
<th>Alentejo</th>
<th>Lisbon</th>
<th>Center</th>
<th>North</th>
<th>Azores</th>
<th>Madeira</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regions</td>
<td>UK</td>
<td>GER</td>
<td>NE</td>
<td>IR</td>
<td>FR</td>
<td>SP</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Algarve</td>
<td>-3%</td>
<td>-7%</td>
<td>-1%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alentejo</td>
<td>-1%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lisbon</td>
<td>-3%</td>
<td>-2%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Center</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North</td>
<td>-1%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Azores</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Madeira</td>
<td>-1%</td>
<td>-1%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source:* Turismo de Portugal, IP. (2011)

While in the Algarve and Lisbon the British market decreased on average 3%, in the Azores Islands this market shows a tendency of increase, around 4%. Concerning the German market a decrease is observed in Algarve (which registered an average growth of -7%), however, both in the North and Azores Islands this market reveals a tendency to increase, registering average growth rates of 15% and 10%, respectively. The Dutch market shows a clear growth in the Azores Islands of around 25%, as well as in the Center, Alentejo and North, and a decrease of around 1% in the Algarve. The analysis of the Irish market reveals a tendency to increase in all regions (particularly the Center) of Portugal with the exception of the Algarve. Concerning the French market a tendency of increase in all tourism regions of Portugal is observed. Finally, the Spanish market also shows a positive behavior in every Portuguese region, albeit it is important to note that this increase is more evident in Azores Islands (15%), Algarve (12%), Center (11%), North (8%) and Alentejo (6%). These results suggest that tourism demand is to be analysed at regional level to account for the specificities of each tourism market.
Literature Review

Tourism demand refers to the consumers’ willingness to buy different amounts of a tourism product at different prices during one period of time (Dwyer et al., 2010). This willingness is constrained by the availability of time and money to spend on vacations. Tourism is a complex decision wherein several determinants contribute to explain tourism demand. Middleton et al. (2009) summarize the main determinants in nine factors: economic factors; comparative prices; demographic factors; geographic factors; socio-cultural attitudes to tourism; mobility; government/regulatory; media communications; information and communication technology. These determinants of tourism demand explain why the population of some countries has a high propensity to participate in tourism whereas population from other countries shows a small propensity to travel (Vanhove, 2005). In terms of quantitative methods Surugiu et al. (2011) indicated that tourism demand has been studied using simple and multivariate regressions; see Garín-Munoz & Amaral (2000); Luzzi & Fluchiger (2003) and Allen & Yap (2009).

As Song & Li (2008) confirmed the majority of studies in the field of tourism demand use quantitative methods, nevertheless time-series and econometric models are commonly used. Focusing on tourism demand studies that used panel data models since 2000-2011, it is possible to find several applied studies (see Table 2). The use of panel data presents several advantages. As stated by Ramos & Rodrigues (2012), it allows to control for individual heterogeneity; to consider more information, more variability, less colinearity between variables, provides more degrees of freedom and greater efficiency; allows to study the dynamic adjustment process; to identify and measure effects that simply are not detected in data that are purely temporal or cross-sectional; and allows for small samples.

Table 2. Tourism demand studies using Panel data models (2000-2011)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study</th>
<th>Frequency and Sample</th>
<th>Region of Focus</th>
<th>Dependent variable</th>
<th>PDR Type</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sakai et al. (2000)</td>
<td>A: 68-95</td>
<td>Japan (O)</td>
<td>TP</td>
<td>Static PDR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Matos (2000)</td>
<td>A: 77-95</td>
<td>Portugal (I)</td>
<td>TD; TA/P</td>
<td>Static PDR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Source: Adapted from Song &amp; Li (2008) and Ramos &amp; Rodrigues (2012)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author(s)</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Methodology</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Maloney and Rojas (2005)</td>
<td>A: 90-02</td>
<td>Caribbean Islands (I)</td>
<td>TA/P</td>
<td>Static/Dynamic PDR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gil-Pareja et al. (2007a)</td>
<td>A: 95-02</td>
<td>20 OECD countries (I)</td>
<td>TA/P</td>
<td>Static PDR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gil-Pareja et al. (2007b)</td>
<td>A: 01-03</td>
<td>G7 countries (I)</td>
<td>TA/P</td>
<td>Static PDR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aslan et al. (2009)</td>
<td>A: 95-04</td>
<td>Turkey (I)</td>
<td>VD</td>
<td>Dynamic PDR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brida and Risso (2009)</td>
<td>A: 87-07</td>
<td>Germany (O)</td>
<td>OVER</td>
<td>Dynamic PDR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ishikawa and Fukushige (2009)</td>
<td>A: 75-01</td>
<td>Japan (I)</td>
<td>PCTI</td>
<td>Static PDR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Falk (2009)</td>
<td>A: 85/86-05/06</td>
<td>Austria (I)</td>
<td>OVER</td>
<td>Dynamic PDR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seeteram (2010)</td>
<td>A: 91-07</td>
<td>Australia (I)</td>
<td>TA</td>
<td>Dynamic PDR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sobhee (2010)</td>
<td>A: 87-03</td>
<td>Small Islands Developing states (I)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Static PDR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yang et al. (2010)</td>
<td>A: 00-05</td>
<td>China (I)</td>
<td>TOUR</td>
<td>Static /Pooled PDR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Massidda and Etzo (2011)</td>
<td>A: 98-07</td>
<td>Italy (I)</td>
<td>TA</td>
<td>Dynamic PDR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Santana-Galleno et al. (2011)</td>
<td>A: 80-06</td>
<td>OCDE Countries (I)</td>
<td>TA/D</td>
<td>Static/Dynamic PDR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seetanah (2011)</td>
<td>A: 90-07</td>
<td>19 Islands economies</td>
<td>EG</td>
<td>Dynamic PDR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Surugiu et al. (2011)</td>
<td>A: 97-08</td>
<td>Romania (I)</td>
<td>TOU</td>
<td>Static/Dynamic PDR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Töglhofer et al. (2011)</td>
<td>A: 72/73-06/07</td>
<td>Austria (I)</td>
<td>OVER</td>
<td>Static/ Dynamic/ Pooled PDR</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Extending the work of Song & Li (2008) and Ramos & Rodrigues (2012) we extend the review to 2010 and 2011 finding nine more studies that modeled tou-
rism demand using panel data models. Seeteram (2010) used dynamic panel data cointegration techniques to determine elasticities of tourism arrivals to Australia. Leitão (2010) applied static and dynamic panel data demand models for tourism in Portugal and estimated demand equations using tourism inflow data for the period 1995-2006. Results indicated that trade, population and income are the main determinants of tourism demand to Portugal, rather than relative prices.

Yang et al. (2010) used static panel data models and also estimated the pooling ordinary least squares (OLS) regression to analyse the determinants of international tourist arrivals to China, especially for World Heritage Sites and various kinds of sports travel. Results showed that core variables such as relative income, the population of countries of origin, and geographical distance are important factors of foreign tourism. Concerning the research carried out in 2011, Massidda and Etzo (2011) investigated the main determinants of Italian domestic tourism demand as measured by regional bilateral tourism flows using dynamic panel data procedures. Results showed differences at the aggregate level and at sub-sample level. However, for Italian tourists, domestic and international destinations act as substitutable goods. Santana-Galleno et al. (2011) introduced static and dynamic models to analyse both long and short-run relationships for OECD countries. A good agreement is generally found between tourism and trade in both long and short-run relationships for the OECD countries. Seetanah (2011) investigates the potential contribution of tourism to economic growth and development in 19 countries (Island economies) by using a dynamic panel data model. The results of the study suggest that tourism development is an important factor that explains economic performance in island economies. Surugiu et al. (2011) used static and dynamic panel data analysis to investigate the impact of specific factors across countries on tourism demand in Romania. The model results show that GDP per capita, trade and population have a significant positive influence on international arrivals. The study conducted by Töglhofer et al. (2011) examined the impacts of snow conditions on tourism demand in 185 Austrian ski areas over the period 1972/1973 to 2006/2007. In addition to time-series regression models, the authors also used static and dynamic panel data models. The findings showed a positive relationship between overnight stays and snow conditions in the majority of areas.

Tourist arrivals/ departures is the dependent variable most frequently used in International tourism demand models (Lim, 1997). In what concerns explanatory variables, Lim (1997), Song & Li (2008), Ramos and Rodrigues (2012) and Surugiu et al. (2011) summarized most variables used in tourism demand models. The most commonly used variables are income expressed as per capita GDP, exchan-
ge rates, relative prices, distance and transportation costs, population, infrastructure, accommodation capacity, consumer tastes or fashion, advertising expenditure, common language and several dummy variables to account for, e.g., climate changing, political, economical, social and financial crisis, among other.

**Methodology**

The main objective of this paper is to determine and analyse the main factors of international tourism demand of the seven tourism regions of Portugal. In this study the adopted models are static models with fixed-effects and dynamic panel data models. Both models were applied to a panel data set collected from seven tourist regions (Alentejo, Algarve, Azores, Center, Lisbon, North and Madeira) of Portugal from 2000 to 2010. The collected data consists of 66 observations, namely the annual overnights stays of international tourists, such as Irish, British, Dutch, German, French and Spanish. These markets represent more than 85% of the total number of international tourists in Portugal. Concerning the set of variables used in the panel data model, as previously mentioned, tourism demand is measured in terms of the number of overnight stays of international visitors in hotels, apartments and resorts in the seven tourism regions of Portugal. The explanatory variables used were income per capita (GDP), relative prices, population, unemployment rate, compensation of employees, household investments rate, total hotel income, total tourism income, inflation rate, final consumption of households.

The data for the number of overnight stays of international tourists in hotels, apartments and resorts in each of the seven tourism regions of Portugal, global income in hotels and total tourism income were collected from the official statistics of the Tourism Institute of Portugal (TIP). Income per capita (GDP), relative prices, population, unemployment rate, compensation of employees, household investments rate, inflation rate and final consumption of the households were collected from the EUROSTAT for each of the six main international demand markets for Portugal.

**Model Specification:**

According to the former specified variables, the tourism demand function considered is,

\[
OVER_{i,t} = f (PCGD_{i,t}, UNP_{i,t}, GIH_{i,t}, TI_{i,t}, POP_{i,t}, INF_{i,t}, CPPT_{i,t}, CPEU_{i,t}, FCH_{i,t}, CEMP_{i,t}, HINI_{i,t})
\]
where \(i\) is the country of origin and \(t\) is the year. \(PCGD_{it}\) is the real annual GDP per capita of each country; \(UNP_{it}\) is the unemployment rate of each country; \(GIH_{it}\) is the global income of the Portuguese hotels for each country; \(TI_{it}\) is total tourism income for each country; \(POP_{it}\) is the total population in tourist generating countries; \(INF_{it}\) is the inflation rate; \(CPPT_{it}\) is the relative price levels of private household consumption across the member states of EU to Portugal; \(CPEU_{it}\) is the relative price levels of private household consumption across the member states of EU; \(FCH_{it}\) is the final consumption of the households of each country; \(CEMP_{it}\) is the compensation of the employees of each country which is given by total remuneration, in cash or in kind, payable by an employer to an employee in return for work done by the latter during the accounting period; \(HINV_{it}\) is the gross investments rate of households by country.

The model to be estimated will be the log-linear model,

\[
\ln OVER_{i,t} = \alpha + \beta_1 \ln OVER_{i,t-1} + \beta_2 \ln PCGD_{i,t} + \beta_3 \ln UNP_{i,t} + \beta_4 \ln GIH_{i,t} + \beta_5 \ln TI_{i,t} + \beta_6 \ln POP_{i,t} + \beta_7 \ln INF_{i,t} + \beta_8 \ln CPPT_{i,t} + \beta_9 \ln CPEU_{i,t} + \beta_{10} \ln FCH_{i,t} + \beta_{11} \ln CEMP_{i,t} + \beta_{12} \ln HINV_{i,t} + \gamma_t + \mu_i + \varepsilon_{i,t} \tag{2}
\]

In equation (2), \(v_{i,t} = \gamma_t + \mu_i + \varepsilon_{i,t}\) is the fixed effects decomposition of the error term in which \(\gamma_t\) and \(\mu_i\) are the time and place of residence specific effects. The error component \(\varepsilon_{i,t}\) is assumed to be serially uncorrelated with zero mean, but heteroskedasticity across time and place of residence is allowed for. In the proposed model in (2) a lagged dependent variable was included as a regressor. However, in the present research \(T = 10\) which leads us to the problem of the non-asymptotical validation for the simple estimation procedures of panel data model. To solve this problem we use the GMM procedure of Arellano & Bond (1991). Thus, the dynamic model to be estimated will be:

\[
\Delta \ln OVER_{i,t} = \beta_1 \Delta \ln OVER_{i,t-1} + \beta_2 \Delta \ln PCGD_{i,t} + \beta_3 \Delta \ln UNP_{i,t} + \beta_4 \Delta \ln GIH_{i,t} + \beta_5 \Delta \ln TI_{i,t} + \beta_6 \Delta \ln POP_{i,t} + \beta_7 \Delta \ln INF_{i,t} + \beta_8 \Delta \ln CPPT_{i,t} + \beta_9 \Delta \ln CPEU_{i,t} + \beta_{10} \Delta \ln FCH_{i,t} + \beta_{11} \Delta \ln CEMP_{i,t} + \beta_{12} \Delta \ln HINV_{i,t} + \Delta \varepsilon_{i,t} \tag{3}
\]

where \(i = 1, \ldots, N; t = 2, \ldots, 10; \Delta \ln OVER_{i,t} = \ln OVER_{i,t} - \ln OVER_{i,t-1}\), and it is equal for the other variables.
Results

This section presents the estimation results of the static and dynamic models.

Concerning the results of the static models, given the model and data presented in equation (2) in which a fixed effect estimation would be appropriate, the Hausman-test is used to determine whether random-effects would be suitable as well. With the exception of the tourism region of Alentejo, in the present case, based on the Hausman-test, it was concluded that the FE model is preferred over the random effects (RE) model (see Table 3).

Form the results of the fixed effects estimates presented in Table 3 it is concluded that the general performance of the model is satisfactory; with the exception of the tourism region of Center ($R^2 = 0.3513$) the other tourism demand models produced an R-squared of around 50%. It is observed that although significant, the explanatory power of the regressors varies according to the origin and the destination region considered.

Since, in the literature, less attention has been paid to the dynamics models of tourism demand (Brida & Risso, 2009), more attention will be paid to the analysis of the results based on the Arellano-Bond estimator to allow for the elasticities interpretation of international tourism demand in each tourism region of Portugal. Concerning the variable of relative prices ($\ln \text{CPPT}_{it}$ and $\ln \text{CPEU}_{it}$), the negative sign of the coefficient is the expected one, because this variable reduces the number of tourists (Guarín-Muñoz & Amaral, 2000; Seetanah, 2011; and Leitão, 2010). The estimated price elasticity of $\ln \text{CPPT}_{it}$ for Lisbon is -1.9159 and $\ln \text{CPEU}_{it}$ for the Azores islands is -3.6853 suggesting that this international demand is price inelastic. In the other regions this variable is not significant. A first attempt to compare the coefficients show that tourism demand seems to be more responsive to price in the Azores islands than in Lisbon.

The parameter estimate of the variable representing total tourist income ($\ln \text{TI}_{it}$) is positive, suggesting that an a 1% increase of tourist income by place of residence generates in Portugal 0.26%, in Lisbon 0.62%, in the North 0.87% and in the Madeira Island 0.80% increase in foreign overnights stays in Hotels, apartments and resorts, respectively. Comparing the estimates, the North is where the impact of this variable represents the highest growth in overnight stays. According to the results in the other regions this variable is not significant.

The variable $\ln \text{PCGDP}_{it}$ presents different behavior according each Portuguese tourism region. It is consistaneous in review studies that this variable normally presents a positive sign (Garín-Muñoz and Amaral, 2000; Eilat and Einav, 2004;
Leitão, 2010; Seetahan, 2011 and Surugiu et al. 2011). In fact, the Center and Azores Islands show a positive sign. As regards the Azores Islands a 1% increase in per capita GDP in the international origin markets will result in a 3.81% increase in international overnight stays. According to the former results tourism in these regions is considered by international tourists a luxury-good. Despite these results Lisbon (-1.69%) and Madeira Island (-2.17%) present negative signs, which result in opposite interpretations. For instance, a decrease of 1% in per capita GDP in the origin markets leads to less 2.17% in international overnight stays in hotels of the Madeira Island. In the other regions this variable is not significant, suggesting that GDP per capita does not influence tourism demand. Hence, it is observed that international tourism demand is more income sensitive when choosing Lisbon or the Madeira Island. In this way, results are in line with the theoretical statement of Morley (1992). In other words, concerning the process of travel decision, when the market intends maximize satisfaction that is subject to an income restriction, probably they will choose other destinations with the same characteristics.

The parameter estimate of \( \ln \text{INF}_{i,t} \) is positive. Thus, results suggest that an increase of 1% in inflation rate in the origin international markets will result in a 0.05% increase in overnight stays in Portugal. For the seven tourism regions the estimates are not significant which is not surprising since the living costs in Portugal is considered low when compared to the living costs in the tourists origin countries. In what concerns the unemployment rate (\( \ln \text{UNP}_{i,t} \)), results show that the sign is positive in the Center (0.35%), which means that a 1% decrease of the unemployment rate in the main international markets will result in a 0.35% decrease in international overnight stays in this region. Concerning the North (-0.26%) and Madeira Island (-2.17%) the sign is negative for both regions, respectively. Following these results, an increase of 1% of the unemployment rate in the international tourism markets will result in a decrease of 0.26% for the North region and 2.17% for Madeira Islands in international overnight stays. When comparing the former results Madeira Islands is the most affected by an increase in the unemployment rate in the international tourism markets. Apart from the identified regions this variable is not significant.

The variable \( \ln \text{CEMP}_{i,t} \) finds a negative coefficient estimate in Portugal (-0.70%) and Algarve (-0.75%), and has the same interpretation as the PCGDP variable. Thus both situations, suffer from inelastic effects of international tourism demand. However, in the case of the North tourism region it is observed that an increase of 1% in compensations of employees in international tourism markets results in a 0.50% in overnight stays in hotels, apartments and resorts of this re-
The variable \(\ln FCH_{it}\) has a positive impact for Portugal, Algarve, Lisbon and Madeira Island. In this way it is possible to quantify a positive effect in overnight stays when the final consumption of the households in the international tourism markets increases. A first attempt to compare the results shows that the Alentejo (3.9902) has the highest value when compared with Madeira Island (1.9284), Lisbon (1.7766) and Algarve (1.4313). According to theses estimates, international tourism in these regions seems to behave as a luxury good. For the other regions this variable is not significant.

Contrary to the results of Hanafiah and Harun (2010), Leitão (2010) and Surugiu (2011), the model we adopted gives a negative sign for the parameter estimate of the population variable \(\ln POP_{it}\). Thus a decrease of 1% of population of the origin markets would cause 0.07% decrease in international overnight stays in Portugal. For the seven tourism regions this variable is not significant.

The households investment rate \(\ln HI\text{INV}_{it}\) was the last variable considered in the dynamic model. According to the Eurostat methodology, household investment mainly consists of the purchase and renovation of dwellings. Thus, further analysis shows that an increase of 1% in household investment could cause a 0.44% increase in overnight stays in the Alentejo region. This finding could be related to the demand for second home residence in this particular region. For the other regions this variable was not found significant.

To conclude, the lagged dependent variable reports different coefficients in each tourism regions of Portugal. Comparing the elasticities, the result achieved by the Algarve, with an elasticity of .7966 suggest a less elastic demand curve which may be related to the number of repeat visitors to this region that show evidence of strong loyalty with the destination.

Finally, data analysis and results allowed us to identify a relation between overnight stays in hotels, apartments and resorts and the real annual income, unemployment, total tourism income, population, inflation, relative prices, final household consumption, compensation of the employees and gross investments rate of households.

Table 3. Determinants of tourism demand: fixed-effects and Arellano-Bond models

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country/Region</th>
<th>Portugal</th>
<th>Algarve</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>FE</td>
<td>Arellano-Bond</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(\ln OVER_{it-1})</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>.5695(0.000)*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regions</td>
<td>Alentejo</td>
<td>Lisbon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------</td>
<td>---------</td>
<td>--------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RE</td>
<td>Arellano-Bond</td>
<td>FE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ln OVER_{it-1} &amp; -- &amp; .1663(0.281)*** &amp; -- &amp; .1675(0.237)*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ln CPPT_{it} &amp; -- &amp; -- &amp; -2.7976(0.000)* &amp; -1.9159(0.012)*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ln TI_{it} &amp; -- &amp; -- &amp; -- &amp; .6216(0.001)*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ln PCGDP_{it} &amp; -- &amp; -3.1013 (0.002)* &amp; -1.8996(0.000)* &amp; -1.6928(0.008)*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ln INF_{it} &amp; -- &amp; .0356 (0.402)*** &amp; -- &amp; --</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ln UNF_{it} &amp; -- &amp; .1659 (0.210)*** &amp; -- &amp; --</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ln CPEU_{it} &amp; -- &amp; -- &amp; -- &amp; --</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>ln CEMP_{it} &amp; .93620 (0.000)* &amp; -- &amp; 1.2287(0.000)* &amp; --</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ln GIH_{it} &amp; -- &amp; -- &amp; -- &amp; --</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ln FCH_{it} &amp; -- &amp; 3.9902 (0.000)* &amp; 1.5405(0.015)* &amp; 1.7766(0.014)*</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ln POP_{it} &amp; -- &amp; -.08100(0.316)*** &amp; -- &amp; --</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ln HINV_{it} &amp; -- &amp; .4372(0.032)* &amp; -- &amp; --</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cons &amp; -2.3884 (0.173)*** &amp; 1.6012(0.528)*** &amp; 13.9273(0.000)* &amp; 11.1776(0.001)*</td>
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</table>

Table 3 (cont.) Determinants of tourism demand: Fixed-effects and Arellano-Bond models
### Table 3 (cont.) Determinants of tourism demand: fixed-effects and Arellano-Bond models

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Regions</th>
<th>Center</th>
<th>North</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>FE</td>
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<tr>
<td>ln OVER&lt;sub&gt;t-1&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>.1720 (0.248)*</td>
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<tr>
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<td>--</td>
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<tr>
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<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ln PCGDP&lt;sub&gt;t&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>2.9962 (0.000)*</td>
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<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ln UNP&lt;sub&gt;t&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>--</td>
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<tr>
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<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ln CEMP&lt;sub&gt;t&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>.25219 (0.000)*</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ln GIH&lt;sub&gt;t&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
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<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ln FCH&lt;sub&gt;t&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
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<tr>
<td>ln POR&lt;sub&gt;t&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ln HINV&lt;sub&gt;t&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cons</td>
<td>-23.4209 (0.000)*</td>
<td>-22.157 (0.001)*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R-square</td>
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<tr>
<td>Hausman test</td>
<td>51.64 (0.0000)**</td>
<td>--</td>
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<tr>
<td>Wald test</td>
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<td>84.01</td>
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<tr>
<td># of obs.</td>
<td>66</td>
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### Table 3 (cont.) Determinants of tourism demand: Fixed-effects and Arellano-Bond models

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Regions</th>
<th>Azores</th>
<th>Madeira</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>FE</td>
<td>Arellano-Bond</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ln OVER&lt;sub&gt;t-1&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>.4299 (0.000)*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ln CPPT&lt;sub&gt;t&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ln TI&lt;sub&gt;t&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ln PCGDP&lt;sub&gt;t&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>8.2547 (0.000)*</td>
<td>3.8107 (0.000)*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Conclusion

The results obtained in this paper suggest that international tourism demand has different patterns by region, but that their basis is underpinned by an origin market with similar social and economic features. Another main conclusion of this study is the significant value of the lagged dependent variable for Portugal (0.57) and the Algarve region (0.80), which may be interpreted in terms of high loyalty of consumers. For a deeper understanding of tourism demand the analysis needs to go beyond micro and macroeconomic variables, since there are social and psychological determinants of choice that these models are not able to explain. As stated by Kahneman and Tversky (1979) human behavior is not so much rational and properly economic. On the other hand, tourism, as Pearce & Lee (2005) asserted, seems not to assume a standard of consumer behavior, because each tourist seeks an experience and above all the realisation of a dream. In this way, in different countries some explanatory variables may have different influences. Changes in the international tourism demand are influenced by several factors. Nevertheless almost all studies focus on the economic factors in order to estimate satisfactory cause-effect relations (Lim, 1997). In this paper, the determinants of international tourism demand to Portugal and to the seven Portuguese tourist regions, were identified.

Results, although preliminary, are encouraging because they suggest an heterogeneous behavior of the main international tourism demand by region. In seve-
r al regions, the high elasticity with respect to per capita income was confirmed, suggesting that tourism is a luxury-good. Albeit in other regions it was possible to identify the substitution-effect that some region may became subject to, because of the low elasticity values. Generally other variables were identified as important explanatory factors. Income per capita \((\ln PC_{GDP,i,t}; \ln CEM_{P,i,t})\), total tourism income by country of residence, unemployment rate and final consumption of households were identified as the most shared explanatory variables in Portugal and in each tourism region.

Concerning to theoretical implications, generally these estimations are in line with the results of previous studies. However, to understand the international tourism demand in Portugal and in each region of the country, further research is necessary.

In the present study, estimations are based on a previous recognition of the current situation and focus on tourist demand in Portugal where the main international markets have always been very dynamic, even those who repeat the visit say there is still plenty to discover (Correia et al. 2008).

This study has some limitations. Further research could include more years and other international markets that are emerging in Portugal, such as Brazil and Russia. A future important contribution is to set up models that allow to explore how motivations have influenced the tourists’ choices over the last ten years in Portugal.

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Challenges for the Survival of Travel Agencies Due to New Tendencies on the Tourism Market

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Abstract
Travel agencies are being increasingly repressed from the tourism market by a new rival – Internet. The consequence is the tourism companies’ independence from intermediaries and the decrease of costs, including the costs for users of tourism services. Does this way of direct purchase mean the exclusive benefits for both producers and clients? Will it dominate in the future or the adherence towards intermediaries will survive and even reach a new expansion? Which are the benefits and which flaws of both mentioned ways of purchase? – These are just some of the questions tried to be answered in this work. Authors also found relevant the comparison of characteristics of this “new reality” on both national and international level, as well as its impact on stakeholders within the tourism system. For that purpose, two parallel researches had been conducted in Portugal and Bosnia and Herzegovina.

Keywords: travel agencies, internet, new tendencies, tourism market.

Introduction
In recent years, travel agencies are facing a powerful new form of competition – the Internet. Internet has experienced an incredible expansion for a very short period of time, becoming indispensable in almost all spheres of everyday and especially academic life, as well as in tourism. One “click” has become sufficient to take us virtually to any country in the world, i.e. to give us the insight into numerous offers of touristic destinations, attractions, transport, accommodation, food and other products within the respective destinations. Internet sites offer consumers more than just a simple access to the touristic offer – they provide a personal, direct purchase of preferred products directly from manu-
facturers, which results in independency of tourism companies from intermediaries – travel agents, and thereby reduce their costs, in terms of non-payment of fees to travel agents. Accordingly, reduction of dependence on intermediaries and diminution of general costs of travel companies lead as well to reduction of costs to users of tourism services.

Taking into consideration all the above, we believe this issue quite current and worth of discussion, given that one entire business is faced with a new reality that must be comprehended. Only in that way the solutions and strategies for the survival of these intermediaries which play an important role in the tourism sector can be found.

As mentioned before, in order to perceive this issue from different aspects, we found relevant the comparison between several travel agencies of different dimensions and scopes of action on the national level of two countries – Portugal and Bosnia and Herzegovina. With this, we wanted to understand the possible future perspectives of the agencies’ business, as well as the measures that are to be undertaken in order to overcome eventual problems and the decline of business performances, caused by expansion of Internet.

*Travel agencies*: Travel agencies are intermediary companies between the producers of tourism products and services and, on the other hand, the users of those products and services. More specifically, they sell organized travel packages that include the respective products and services, taking into account the partnerships with the producers (airlines, hotels, restaurants, cultural institutions, events’ organizers, etc.). The purpose of travel agencies is to provide the clients with all necessary information regarding tourism destinations, accommodation and transport bookings, tourist attractions, etc., which facilitate greatly clients’ travel planning.

The first travel agency in the world was founded in 1840 in Porto, Portugal, by Mr Bernardo Abreu¹, with the primary goal of solving the problems related to passports and visas mainly for people who intended to emigrate from Portugal to Brazil. After the Second World War and the rise of commercial aviation, this agency began to expand to international markets. It is currently the largest Portuguese tourism company, with over 88 outlets at main strategic points in the country.

¹ Source: http://www.abreu.pt/A_Abreu-247.aspx
In literature, however, as the founder of first travel agency most often mentioned is Mr Thomas Cook, who organized in 1841 a train journey for 500 participants of a congress against alcoholism in Leicester. After the unexpected success of this journey, a Bible salesman began to make a living from performing this type of activity, and later founded a travel agency “Thomas Cook and Son”. The company nowadays consists of over 100 travel agencies on several continents.

Internet and travel agencies’ business: According to Buhalis (2003, p. 16) “The internet bubble may have burst, but the raise of online travel sales and distribution is remorseless, and agents must adjust. Internet, indeed, increasingly penetrated into all spheres of life, possessing huge amount of information available to users for numerous purposes, ranging from personal interests such as music, movies, games, communication over social networks, through education, professional formation and business purposes, to various financial transactions. The number of so-called “e-consumers” who purchase through Internet the majority of necessary products (including tourism products) is growing. Besides the facility of usage and accessibility to everybody (that, of course, have access to Internet), as an additional pro-factor there is the factor price decreased for the fees that intermediaries have to pay to producers. But on the other hand, agents have the knowledge, the professionalism, the expertise and experience that the greatest number of e-consumers does not possess, although some of them are already quite experienced and successful in their personal on-line transactions.

Growing offer of diverse tourism products and services via Internet entails the inevitable adjustment of intermediaries to new tendencies in terms of creating development strategies, introducing innovations and improving quality in order to maintain competitiveness on the tourism market. Internet actually can be, and in most cases is, a tool for improving the business of travel agencies. But, as far as it can improve the business, it can also jeopardize it. Therefore, these companies must constantly acquire new information and communication technologies, because they represent the future not only of tourism industry, but also all other world industries.

Data Collection: In order to get a clearer insight and create a wider picture regarding the impact of internet on business performances of travel agents and the current trends on tourism market, we considered inevitable the contact

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with travel agents themselves. For this purpose, we assembled a set of questions that we believed could mostly contribute to formulation of certain conclusions regarding the defined matter:

1. Is your organization recently facing any difficulties in terms of lower operating performances and poorer demand of your services due to expansion of internet? If so, what are the main consequences for your business?

2. Do you think that intermediaries should adapt to new market trends and in which ways? Which actions do you consider appropriate in the fight against the “extinction” of travel agencies in the future?

3. Have you personally undertaken some measures and / or introduced some innovations to your business? Are you familiar with the performances of your direct competitors and the measures assumed by them?

4. Which benefits do you propose to your clients, that direct purchase via Internet cannot offer?

5. Looking to the future, do you think that the tendency of direct purchase through Internet will intensify or, on the other hand, users will afresh rely on help of intermediaries? What factors will affect the aforementioned tendencies?

6. Do you think that future trends will have a greater impact on the smaller travel agencies and the ones that don’t belong to a chain of travel agencies, than it would be the case with market leaders?

As an addition, we encouraged any additional comment and / or information that would be relevant to our research. In order to make this research more interesting, we decided to compare travel agents from two very different European countries – Portugal and Bosnia and Herzegovina. Why precisely these two countries? The first reason was the possibility of direct contact with the agents of both countries, i.e. the contact on native languages of both countries, which makes the data more accurate and reliable. The next reason is that we wanted to make a comparison between one developed country, a member of the European Union and, alternatively, a country in development, a so-called “third world” country, in order to identify the differences in business policies, the state of tourism industry and the current tendencies on the tourism market, as well as the possible similarities and differences in opinions of agents of both countries, regarding the defined topic.
Individual analysis

*Top Atlântico:* Travel agency Top Atlântico has experienced a few negative consequences of the expansion of Internet, some of which are a notable decline in business performances and the loss of time in terms of synchronizing the prices with the competition’s pricing. However, the manager of this agency stated that there are still many users who prefer contact with intermediaries, either out of fear of personal allowances through a website, or simply because they consider relying on agency to be a safer and easier option.

As far as adjusting to new trends, there are several measures emphasized by our interviewee in terms of overcoming the aforementioned problems:

1. Reservation system improvement;
2. Reaching an agreement with producers to reduce the prices, especially when customers require it personally;
3. Personalized approach to each and every client.

Concrete measure that this agency has undertaken in order to improve its business performance was the creation of website through which the customers are now able to make their travel reservations without having to leave home.

Our interlocutor justifies that there are numerous benefits that go along with purchasing travel services through travel agencies. The main advantage is that the agent can answer more questions and provide more information to clients than it is the case with the Internet. Also, in case of a problem during the travel, the agency employee is willing and obliged to help solve the determined problem.

Regarding the future perspective, our interviewee believes that the trend of direct booking via Internet will not intensify in the future, claiming that it is a “current fashion” that will come to an end as all fashions do. One bad customer’s experience when booking through the Internet very often can work as a disincentive for future bookings of this type, out of fear to repeat the mistake. Depending on the product and the customer demand, it is not impossible to find similar or even lower prices within the offer of a travel agency than it is the case with the Internet bookings.

This travel agency, although one of the market leaders, does not consider itself differentiated from other agencies in terms of inconveniences on the tourism market, justifying that the same problems affect both large and small mar-
ket participants. The only difference lies in the negotiating power of Top Atlântico, in terms of arranging more favourable prices with producers.

**Omnitur:** Omnitur is a travel agency of smaller dimension, which has felt numerous negative effects caused by the expansion of Internet. Due to the new possibility of online bookings at any time of the day and without leaving home, clients turn to agents only in order to obtain information about the destinations, subsequently making travel reservations directly through the Internet, thus only consuming the agents’ time for consultation, without bringing any material profits. However, our interviewee does not believe in the complete disappearance of travel agencies, but surely closure of many, especially those lacking a strong market position, coupled with the fact that even the leaders are facing the difficulties to maintain competitiveness.

So as to overcome the problem, agencies should focus on their greatest advantage in comparison to the Internet, which is the direct contact with clients. In case of any eventual problems the agency, unlike the Internet, is obliged to provide assistance and support to clients, while otherwise the client is personally responsible for eventual errors while booking.

Agent also believes that in the future the contact with intermediaries will intensify, because there will always be sceptics, suspicious of giving away their personal data and credit card information, those who do not have a credit card, as well as those who have had negative experiences when direct purchasing via Internet, among others. In addition, he also considers that the expansion of Internet affects both large companies as well as the smaller ones, whether they are leaders on the market or not.

**APAVT:** Our interviewee within the APAVT considers that resorting to intermediaries when organizing the trip even evidenced growth in recent years. The same applies to the number of travel agencies and tour operators. Additionally, he believes that travel agencies, due to their professional and specialized services of high security, reliability and practicality, will never disappear. Agencies “follow” the client during the entire process of planning and conducting the trip, moreover offering numerous payment conveniences.

Apart from that, there is still quite a difference between the intermediaries and the Internet in terms of products that are being offered. Internet offers only single products and services, while travel agencies offer organized, complex and more personal travel packages. In this respect, the online offer cannot measure up with the travel agencies’. However, despite the belief that Internet
doesn’t represent a significant threat to the travel agencies’ business, it is still of crucial importance to continuously adjust to market trends, consumer demands, destinations, new products and technologies, as well as the importance of the continuous improvement of service quality.

Regarding the future perspectives of the agencies’ operation performances, our interlocutor believes that the users will re-prefe the contact with travel agents out of the above mentioned reasons. The reduction of clientele could rather be explained as a consequence of the economic crisis, than the expansion of Internet.

*Dinamikturs:* The representative of this agency considers that in highly developed countries the impact of Internet has indeed reduced the impact of travel agencies. However, in case of problems during the travel, eventual changes and cancellations, Internet is unable to assist in their resolution. In such situations, agencies are indispensable. To this should be added the possibility of fraud and malfeasance attached to payment with the credit cards as mandatory means of payment.

In particular case of Bosnia and Herzegovina, it is a country with a large number of people who don’t use the Internet habitually, and a country with quite poorly developed Internet network. Only in the last few years has the Internet become accessible to higher number of users, but still at a high price. Out of these reasons, this agency has not felt the negative impact of the Internet, but on the contrary – the number of users has increased, at least in financial terms.

The biggest problem in this country which has been preventing the residents to travel until recently was the visa regime, which significantly affected the number of tourism travels. Stratification of population in the transition period, when the middle economic class practically disappeared, also negatively affected the operations of agencies in Bosnia. After the abolition of visas, the number of agency’s clients increased, but only of those with “deeper pockets”. When it comes to the target group of this agency, it includes mostly the customers who buy weekend packages and two to three day trips. Travel agencies of Bosnia are still the preference both of the users of tourism services, as well as the hotel and airline companies. The mediating role of the agencies is still needed. However, they need to be transformed in accordance with the new tendencies; it is necessary to constantly improve the direct contact with customers, develop and enhance their confidence and be constantly present “on site”, follow the contemporary trends in public advertising through the web
sites, without neglecting the participation in tourism fairs and other public gatherings of tourism delegates.

Since this agency has several branches in the wider area, that is, it represents an agency of a larger size and one of the leaders on the tourism market of Bosnia and Herzegovina, its promotional activities include more serious intercessions, such as promotions via billboards, web presentations, participation in tourism fairs and direct communication with clients.

Our interviewee, as the greatest strength of travel agencies suggests the live contact with clients which is often of paramount importance, and which Internet is not able to offer. Instead of passengers personally solving the eventual problems at hotel reception areas, airports, train and bus stations, it is more “painless” that the intermediaries deal with those instead of them. In that way the clients are maximally protected. In case of certain failures, the agency is the one who bears the consequences, while the passenger is in privileged position. In the other hand, in case of solely planning and implementing the trip through the Internet, the passenger is personally responsible for the eventual inconveniences.

New trends shall certainly have some negative impacts on the status and operations of travel agencies, primarily the ones of smaller dimension. Large agencies and tour operators are in a better position, principally because they have greater opportunities to use modern technologies and in that way improve their business. Apart from that, they also have highly formed human resources, licenses for practicing tourism activities, as well as greater financial means that guarantee a higher security of the business. It is also worth mentioning that the tendency of globalization on the world market imposes the necessity of creating partnerships and joint ventures between travel agencies on the broader markets.

**Turist Brčko:** The interviewee within this agency believes that the expansion of Internet in the last ten years slightly unfavourably reflected on travel agencies in Bosnia. Most agencies in the earlier period obtained a solid profit, at least by selling airline tickets. The emergence of low-cost companies whose capacities are sold exclusively through the Internet, and also the public airlines that have their own web sites, directly affect the number of clients who use agencies’ services. When it comes to individual hotel bookings, subtle changes are notable when compared to previous period, while in the case of package tours (summer and winter holidays), Internet still doesn’t have a remarkable impact.
In order to survive on the tourism market, it is of crucial importance to constantly work on clients’ trust, use the many advantages of Internet, offer the possibility of on-line bookings, gather the agencies on joint projects and intensify promotional activities using billboards, web presentations, participation in tourism fairs and direct communication with clients. Last one allows the user to be informed at any time of all details regarding the service that is offered to him. In case of lacking the desired, expected and paid service, the client can always turn to the travel agent. Internet, despite its advantages, cannot provide that.

Environment in which the travel agencies of Bosnia and Herzegovina operate is only recently under a more noteworthy influence of the Internet. Elderly population, which is currently the most important target group of travel agencies, is still showing resistance when it comes to buying services through the Internet. When it comes to younger users, the Internet is increasingly becoming the primary means of any form of communication, which will certainly manifest negatively on the operations of travel agencies in the future. This especially applies to agencies of smaller dimension and agencies with offices in small towns that do not possess their own facilities, nor have the means for their own lease. Unlike them, tour operators in most cases have their own facilities and greater financial means, thanks to what the future trends will have lesser impact on their status and operations.

Conclusion

Based on the conducted interviews, the first notable thing is the variety of opinions regarding the determined issue. Representatives of three interviewed agencies stated to feel no significant changes in the number of clients, and even if it is the case (interview with APAVT), they believe the main reason for that is not the expansion of Internet, but the current economic crisis. The remaining two agencies declared to notice diminution of number of clients and believe it to be partially a result of the expansion of Internet, among other factors. Regarding comparisons between the intermediaries of two selected countries, we also find important to note that the travel agencies of Bosnia and Herzegovina do not feel a significant influence of the expansion of Internet, as it is the case with Portugal. This fact can be explained by a lower level of economic development of this country and an underdeveloped Internet network, which entails its poor utilization by the population. Another interesting comparison concerns the APAVT’s representative who, unlike the other two Portuguese agents, stated that the threat of Internet for tourist agents is not a real fact, noting that re-
cently an increase has been registered not only in the number of clients, but also in a number of travel agencies.

As for the necessity for adaptation to current trends, all the agents interviewed agreed that it is necessary to always monitor the trends on the tourism market, constantly innovate and improve business performances. In this regard, they asserted a set of measures such as creation of personal websites in order to enable online bookings for the clients, working on augmentation of customers’ confidence by providing professional and personalized services, as well as the participation in tourism fairs and other exhibitions related to tourism.

Consequently, they pointed out the numerous benefits that travel agents provide to their customers when compared to the Internet. First of these is “being there” for the client throughout the whole process – from planning the trip, staying at the touristic destination, up to arrival to the place of residence, instilling the confidence and security in case of unpleasant events. In addition, by buying a trip through travel agency, the client receives specialized and personalized service that cannot be compared with the individual and unorganized offer through Internet sites.

Regarding the question of whether the expansion of Internet equally affects the market leaders and agents of smaller dimensions, our Portuguese interviewees believe that the company size doesn’t play a significant role and that the problems affect leaders as much as the smaller participants on the market, and that the only difference lies in negotiating power of each organization. On the other hand, representatives of agencies in Bosnia and Herzegovina consider that agencies of a greater scope of action also have a greater financial and technological power, better-educated and trained human resources, and that on this basis they have a better position when compared to smaller intermediaries.

The comparison between the two countries’ travel agencies, and also between the leaders and the agencies of smaller dimension, can be defined as a key point of our research that has helped us to observe the defined topic from a broader perspective. The biggest difference in opinions concerns the responses to the first and the last question. In these responses we observed the most disagreements, namely that in Bosnia still isn’t significantly notable the impact of the expansion of Internet on travel agencies’ business, as well as that the market leaders are not so affected by the aforementioned expansion as it is the case with smaller intermediaries, which is contrary to the opinion of Portuguese agencies.
With the realization of this research, we obtained answers to specific questions about the impact of Internet on travel agencies’ business, the advantages and disadvantages of both types of planning and realization of the tourist trips, and various opinions regarding the future of intermediaries among other findings, having as a base the actual statements and opinions of experts. Travel agencies are indispensable in many aspects, and we believe that in the foreseeable future they are not threatened by extinction and that they cannot be fully replaced by the Internet which is unable to offer a physical presence, security, reliability, commitment and high degree of specialization owned by travel agents. In addition, Internet can also work as a tool for improvement of business performances, not only as a threat. Travel agents can (and many already did) create a personal web site with their tourism offers, identical to those created by the producers of tourism products and services, and thus unite their advantages with advantages of the Internet.

As a major limitation of the presented study we can underline the current inability to obtain opinions of a greater number of tourism intermediaries from both countries, and thereby enrich our investigation with more outlooks. Conducting a broader study and collecting more data is therefore one of the aspirations for further research within this area.

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